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Contents

Overcoming Cultural Barriers to Scholarly Communication in International Peer-Reviewed Journals

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The editorial dwells upon the challenges L2 scientific authors have to rise to. 'Publish or perish' policy pursued globally leads to an increased international market of predatory journals in response to persisting university requirements to academics' publications in international journals. The quality issues of scholarly publications are coming to the fore, with re-focusing on skills and competencies necessary to produce research acceptable to high-tier and well-established journals. Non-Anglophone L2 writers face more barriers to English-language international periodicals than native speakers of English, as they tend to follow distinct cultural patterns of thought. Consequently, rhetorical moves and steps of scholarly texts may substantially differ from those written by Anglophone researchers. The scholarly community has to handle a growing set of problems related to L2 scholarly writing in English to ensure their successful submissions to well-established international journals.

Keywords: scholarly communication, predatory journal, academic writing, good-faith journal, international journal, IMRAD, cultural pattern of thought, rhetorical schema, moves and steps, L2 writer, topic prominence, quasi-scientific journal

Introduction

Scholarly communication embraces diverse forms and formats. As the essence and result of research are embodied in the form of scientific publication, much attention is paid to scientific communication, its efficacy and barriers that form an integral part of the research and publishing process. "Publishing a scientific manuscript in scientific journal is a way to network within the target audience" (Somashekhar, 2020). For researchers and universities, it is quality of publications that really matters. "High-quality publications remain the primary tool for describing national and individual contributions to science and society" (Lambovska & Yordanov, 2020).

Professional and academic development as well as careers in the academia at large demand conducting research and publishing the results in international peer-reviewed journals. It has become the prevailing form of scholarly communication in the world. "...Staff on contracts, tenure track or not, have publishing norms the fulfilment of which is decisive for keeping a job in academia" (Zarkov, 2019).

"International often means European and North American, and very often English-language journals" (Zarkov, 2019). Originally, Anglophone journals published by old European, mainly British, universities, and later replenished by periodicals of American universities lay the foundation for what we all know as high-tier international journals. Thus, the bulk of most cited research articles and high-tier international journals are published in English. The latter is globally considered as a lingua franca of science and academia. Internationalisation of science and educations spurred the spread of English in those strata, though bigger and smaller nations still try to support their national and state languages in science and science publishing through their language policies.

Language policies range from multilingualism to a bias towards national/ state languages in education and science or occasionally focusing on English as a lingua franca in science. Language policies are closely linked to the phenomena of academic multiliteracy and L2 monoliteracy. But both academic multiliteracy (writing academically in more than one language) and of L2 monoliteracy (writing for science in a language that is not your own) (Harbord, 2018) are still limited to national elites of non-Anglophone countries. A wider scholarly community in most non-Anglophone courtiers linguistically is far from writing in English at a level fit for international journals. Some non-Anglophone researchers, though monolingual or multilingual, thrust to compete for being recognised in English-language high-tier journals, as their command of English, grammatical irregularities, scarce vocabulary, occasionally wrong collocations, limited faculty of expression, surface-level errors and blunders distorting meaning, and interventions from the authors' mother tongues in communication (starting from grammar and vocabulary to text rhetoric) result in comprehensive revising, editing, and ultimately re-submission of the manuscripts by L2 authors. Flowerdew & Wang (2016) think that as L2 authors, or as they call them 'English as Additional Language (EAL) scholarly writers', badly require English-language proofreading service, language brokers (they are very much like editors, but, in general, mainly non-Anglophone linguists), or sometimes, even academic brokers (whose function is to upgrade the content of submitted papers through some revisions and improvements) have become part of the publishing landscape. As compared with native speakers' editing services that are expensive and non-affordable for some EAL writers, academic and language brokers may support and revise would-be submissions quite efficiently. They may pinpoint such writers towards a better result.

Writing comes naturally only to some people who are able to immerse into the specific discourse of a research field on their own. Most researchers have to learn how to write scholarly texts. They have to put much effort into mimicking the style and formats of specific journals. It is important to understand that scholarly writing is not all about writing. It requires a deep professional background knowledge, scholarly logic, skills to write clearly within the cultural tradition of the language, aptitude to follow patterns of thought, typical of English. "Lack of proficiency in scientific writing results in confusing conclusions leading the manuscripts to data dumps" (Somashekhar, 2020). A scientific author must master a combination of competencies (understanding the field; writing skills; aptitude to understand, analyze and report the scientific results in the required format) (Somashekhar, 2020). Deficient proficiency may occasionally prompt some authors to look for an easier and often unreliable way of publishing their research results.

Quasi-Scientific Publishing

Scholarly publishing witnesses an unprecedented spread of so-called predatory journals. They are contrasted with traditional and good-faith journals (Edmunds & Waldrop, 2018). In the recent years, "... the pressure of university requirements for publishing have contributed to the increased numbers of both submissions and rejections (Zarkov, 2019)" in all journals, as well as to proliferation of unscrupulous journals of low quality. Deceptive practices in such journals entail the absence of peer-review and controls over the submission quality, validity and ethics of submissions to such periodicals. The phenomenon turned up as a response to a rising demand on the scholarly publishing market spurred by 'Publish or Perish' policy pursued throughout the world. "Predatory magazines are created by unreliable publishers who, after collecting a fee, publish the submitted paper in the Open Access formula without providing substantial control" (Grzybowski, Patryn & Sak, 2017). The policy gave rise to a trend in science, where the productivity and efficacy of scholars and researchers are assessed via the number and quality of the papers they publish in international journals, mainly indexed in Scopus and Web of Science. In addition, "a 'publish or perish' risk, resulting in the repetition of identical studies" (Ertaş & Kozak, 2020) has substantially increased in science at large. Consequently, the quality of scholarly publications in the world is decreasing proportionately to their numerical rise (Nielsen & Davison, 2020). It is obvious that '...there is significant linguistic variation' between articles published in predatory journals and articles published in well-established journals (Soler & Wang, 2019). Articles in predatory journals deviate from linguistic standards in academic publishing, with more specialized vocabulary in good-faith journals and more words of general English in predatory periodicals (Soler & Wang, 2019).

'Quasi-scientific', or predatory journals amounted to some 10,000 in 2016 on the Beall's List (Grzybowski, Patryn & Sak, 2017). The threat of publishing a paper in predatory journals may result in periodicals with discontinued indexation and lower status articles. Young-career researchers or academics with low or no English-language aptitude tend to submit their papers to predatory or dubious journals more often. They may be unaware of the low ethics status of a journal they select, or think that loose reviewing or even its absence will make their submissions easier. Unfortunately, less effort on part of researchers encouraged by predatory periodicals might motivate some unscrupulous scientists.

Any career in science or academia follows numerous patterns and trajectories but none stands a chance of unethical behaviour. Occasionally, publishing in predatory journals might put an end to a career in science or tarnish a researcher's integrity (D'Alessandro et al., 2020). Only "high-quality publications are at the root of researchers' prestige, recognition in science, career progression" (Lambovska & Yordanov, 2020).

What makes a good publication?

For experienced editors and reviewers, it does not take much time to see whether the submission will survive through the revisions and evaluations or ultimately fail (DeLisi, 2019). All solid, high-quality manuscripts share the same features. For researchers, it is advisable that their writings should be up to the best international publishing and editing standards, including:

- primary criteria: novelty and unobviousness (Somashekhar, 2020);
- meaningful and relevant content (Edmunds & Waldrop, 2018);
- relevant research methods;
- clear and concise communication style (Edmunds & Waldrop, 2018);
- critical thinking and critical communication (Edmunds & Waldrop, 2018);
- logic (Somashekhar, 2020);
- organisation (Somashekhar, 2020);
- adequate and up-to-date bibliographic basis;
- precision (Somashekhar, 2020).

The above list partly summarizes some recommendations by editors, reviewers and experienced writers. It takes L2 authors years of hard work and practice to get proficiency and meet the requirements. Academic writing skills and relevant scientific competencies are vital for writing a good paper, but to be accepted and published in top-tier journals, the theme of research must fall within the so-called topic prominence. Research themes should be relevant and interesting for a wide scholarly community.

What is Topic Prominence?

Experienced authors regularly read articles published in high-tier journals in their subject area and beyond. They are well-informed of the recent developments and new contributions to the field. To succeed in publishing a paper in an international journal, an academic has to follow globally recognised sources indexed in Scopus, Web of Science, etc. The task of reading articles in English may challenge some authors' insufficient command of the language, but to a degree. Numerous natural language translation service programmes, both online and offline, may be of great help to them.

Another challenge for authors in the developing countries is their access to international databases, as not all scientific centres and universities have permanent subscriptions to databases and journals. National programmes of support for science and research partly solve the problems arising out of insufficient financial resources. The availability of relevant scientific information may also be provided through social networking sites like Research Gate.

The topic prominence in Scopus combines three components, including citation count, views count, and Average CiteScore. The latter unites eight components (CiteScore, CiteScore Tracker, CiteScore Percentile, CiteScore Quartiles, CiteScore Rank, Citation Count, Document Count, Percentage Cited). Researchers may define the topicality of their research by topic prominence of similar articles indexed in Scopus database.

Cultural Pattern Structuring Matters

Internationalisation of the world science is rather uneven by all criteria. Some countries entered this phase only some ten years ago. In addition, their language, linguistic traditions of scholarly writing, article genres and styles may be in some kind of contradiction with global, or literally Anglophone, science. In many non-English academic cultures at large, including those with Oriental, Slavic, Roman, etc. components, essays are very popular as an academic genre. Though, in English and most European languages, essays prevailed in science throughout the centuries, the advent of digital technologies spurred a change in structing information, including that in research articles. Too many scientific data piled in the Internet, without sub-titles and clearly-cut content, can easily turn into an unrequired dump.

Structuring and templates have come into being in response to the challenge of the ever-growing net of information. Consequently, most papers published in international journals in English tend to be well-structured under IMRAD or other similar formats. Research tradition and modern scholarly genres in non-English cultures are still preserved, with fewer interferences and influences caused by the global trends in scholarly writing. Thus, roughly speaking, L2 researchers beyond the English-speaking World with a poor command of English often face hurdles in following IMRAD and other global formats. They are not in the habit of thinking along the English-inspired structures and templates. Such academics cannot sell their ideas efficiently, blurring their essence behind arguments and theses, unconcise and vague for English-speaking and English-thinking researchers.

It is obvious that EAL or L2 authors with a non-professional command of English are prone to text structures, typical of their native languages. Such submissions are full of hypertextual links to the background ideas and concepts (e.g. like in Russian). Other languages often have patterns of thought and idea developments contrasted to English. Anglophone readers may find them too superfluous and abundant in details, or too tedious with many repetitions of arguments and theses at different levels. Similar impression is brought by L2 writers whose English is substantially interfered from their mother tongues. E.g. in Slavic countries, journals tend to receive more papers that are descriptive (Zarkov, 2019). In addition to the prevailing patterns of thought, Slavic universities were formed and scientific thought in general developed under the German academic tradition, with descriptive nature of research in social sciences and humanities at the core.

Kaplan (1966) finds that thinking patterns gravely depend on the language and culture a person belongs to. English prompts speakers/ writers towards linear and direct communication. The arguments follow the logic of a communication act. We may rarely find any going off-topic in such texts.

Latin-based languages make their users zigzag via parallel lines in communication. Russian- and other Slavic-language speakers also think and communicate moving away from the point, with unparallel zigzags. In both instances, zigzagging aims to enrich the background of the core theme of the communication, displaying cultural tradition of communicating ideas. In the Semitic languages, there are parallelisms of all kinds (synonyms, antitheses and contrasts). For Anglophone readers, scholarly texts written under interferences from those languages may occasionally be taken as the ones with broken logic and interrupted arguments. "Logic (in the popular, rather than the logician's sense of the word) which is the basis of rhetoric, is evolved out of culture; it is not universal. Rhetoric, then, is not universal either (Kaplan, 1966)".

Studying rhetoric schemas in English and comparing them with their counterparts in Russian, we see that following rhetoric moves and steps of the particular language is of great value and contribution to the quality (first of all, readability) of the texts produced by L2 writers. Efficient L2 writers are to know much about the rhetoric of English, especially the rhetoric of scholarly texts.

Conclusion

The quality of scholarly writing is on the JLE priority list, as it is the backbone of any good-faith journal. The JLE editors and reviewers do their utmost in helping JLE authors perfect their submissions.

The scholarly community may succeed in better quality papers and journals in combined efforts, overcoming the hurdles and facing the challenges. There are at least three most important directions of such work in the academia:

- researchers' personal willingness to improve skills and competencies to meet the highest research and writing standards in science;
- a comprehensive system of teaching relevant skills throughout all educational levels;
- consorted efforts of the experienced part of the academia, including editorial boards of scholarly journals, on educating and supporting young and new-career scientific writers.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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A Comparative Study of Saudi and International Journals of Applied Linguistics: The Move–Bundle Connection Approach

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The present study implemented a genre-based approach to analyze the rhetorical structure of English language research articles (RAs): specifically, the Introduction-Methods-Results-Discussion-Conclusion (I-M-R-D-C) sections. Next, lexical bundles (LBs) associated with patterns of moves were identified by applying a corpus-driven approach. The study analyzed two corpora of 30 RAs purposely selected from 16 peer-reviewed journals of applied linguistics published in Saudi Arabia and internationally during the years of 2011-2016. First, a genre-based approach was used to identify the move structures of RAs through analyzing different RA sections by different models. Next, lexical bundles associated with each identified move in each IMRDC section were analyzed using a corpus-driven approach, based on structural and functional taxonomies. The study findings showed that both corpora share similarities and differences related to rhetorical structures and lexical bundles. These findings have pedagogical implications for novice writers, graduate students, and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instruction, including raising awareness of rhetorical structures and LBs in academic writing for publication, which could help produce more successful publishable research articles.

Keywords: corpus linguistics, cultural variations, genre-based approach, lexical bundles, rhetorical structure

Introduction

In academia, scholars and researchers have been using research articles (RAs) as the primary channel for distributing knowledge within academic discourse communities (Habibie & Hyland, 2019). The participation of multilingual researchers in national and international academic journals enriches global knowledge with various perspectives on academic writing (Hyland, 2015). The publication of RAs across disciplines has increased in various local and international communities because publication plays a crucial role in academic success related to retention or promotion, especially for researchers around the globe (Friginal & Mustafa, 2017).

Writing publishable research articles for scholarly journals is an intimidating task, especially for novice writers (Tardy, 2019). Writing for publication in certain disciplines requires specific academic writing techniques and skills in order to produce a research article that can be considered for publication in scholarly journals (Cocal & De Vera, n.d.; Hyland, 2008a; Moldovan, 2011). Such techniques include an awareness of the rhetorical organization of texts and the ways that authors employ specific linguistic features in a targeted journal.

Clearly, academic writing encompasses several variations of styles and conventions that are unique to each discipline across different languages and cultures (Hyland, 2016). Since graduate students and novice writers may encounter difficulties in dealing with disciplinary academic discourse, there is a need to develop approaches to academic writing for publication courses (Xu, 2019). A genre-based approach is one of several approaches that helps novice writers fulfill their academic writing needs. The genre-based approach refers to the teaching of macrostructures and rhetorical organization of texts in an academic writing course (Dudley-Evans, 1994; Swales, 1990). The other approach is a corpus-driven approach, in which researchers systematically

identify formulaic language, multiword expressions, and the metadiscourse used by experts in their disciplines (Biber et al., 1999; Mizumoto, Hamatani, & Imao, 2017).

The present study is inspired by several motivations, including the significance and novelty of the methods used for addressing the issues of cultural variation, the increased publication pressure on international scholars, and the underrepresentation of Saudi scholars in journals with an international reputation. According to Stefanowitsch (2018), corpus linguistic methods can be used to uncover some properties of certain cultures, such as the distribution of lexical items in a corpus. Cheng (2006) also asserts that implementing a genre-based approach in the classroom helps students "acquire conceptual and cultural frameworks to undertake writing tasks beyond the courses in which such teaching occurs" (p. 77). In fact, researchers and academics need to publish their work in well-established international journals for several reasons, including promotion. It is evident that these scholarly journals are highly competitive, which requires authors to have an advanced awareness of genre conventions and linguistic features as well as critical academic writing skills. In the Saudi context, researchers face increasing pressure to publish their work in reputable international journals in their respected fields, although few scholars have accomplished this job, especially in the applied linguistics discipline (Alamri, 2017). That being said, the underrepresentation of Saudi researchers in the international academic discourse community may be driven by a key factor. International journals have a certain rhetorical structure, writing style, and linguistic features that are different from the ones in local and national journals. Unfortunately, corpus investigations of Saudi English are scarce on these topics, especially on linguistic features (Fallatah, 2016; Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

The present study therefore aimed to explore the move patterns and lexical bundles in a corpus of 30 RAs from journals published in Saudi Arabia and internationally in the field of applied linguistics. To the best of my knowledge, there are no such studies that investigated all of the sections of research articles in applied linguistics in the Arab world, especially in the Saudi context. In the study, the first step involved analyzing RAs that follow the IMRDC format. Next, all four-word bundles associated with each move were identified and analyzed following Biber et al.'s (1999) structural and Hyland's (2008b) functional taxonomies. The analyses looked for possible cultural variations and relationships between moves, and frequently used lexical bundles in the IMRDC sections of RAs. The following subsections provide a brief explanation of move analysis and lexical bundles and the possible relationship between them, as well as an overview of genre and corpus linguistics investigations in Saudi Arabia.

Genre and Move Analysis

Swales (1990) defined genre as "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p. 85). Hyland (2016) also described genre as "abstract, socially recognized ways of using language and represent how writers typically respond to recurring situations" (p. 120). In other words, a member of a discourse community employs several techniques through repeated exposure to recognize the common structural and linguistic features shared by experienced writers and scholars in the discourse community.

The work of John Swales has shifted the concept of genre analysis from analyzing genre as a pure linguistic unit to analyzing it as a discursive unit, by developing a new analytical tool named *move analysis*. According to Swales (2004), a move (M), which may contain one or more steps, is a discoursal segment that performs a unique communicative function. The term *step* refers to "a lower level text unit than a move that provides a detailed perspective on the options open to the writer in setting out the moves" (Dudley-Evans & John, 1998, p. 89). Swales' genre analysis method is also known as the Creating A Research Space (CARS) model. According to the CARS model, the Introduction section includes three communicative purposes or moves and several *steps* associated with each move, which are used to realize the move: Move 1 is "establishing a territory," Move 2 is "establishing a niche,", and Move 3 is "occupying the niche."

Previous research has analyzed the genre of research articles in various disciplines, including sociology (Brett, 1994), applied linguistics (Pho, 2008), computer science (Posteguillo, 1999), and medicine (Nwogu, 1997). Specifically, three sections have drawn much of the researchers' attention: Abstracts (Bhatia, 1993), Introductions (Ozturk, 2007; Swales, 1990), and Discussions (Dudley-Evans, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Ruiying & Allison, 2003). On the other hand, the following sections may need more investigation: Literature Reviews

(Kwan, 2006), Methods (Cotos, Huffman, & Link, 2017; Peacock, 2011), and Results (Brett, 1994). Furthermore, genre analysts have analyzed the four sections of RAs (IMRD) (Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Nwogu, 1997; Pho, 2008; Posteguillo, 1999).

Lexical Bundles

Biber et al. (1999) state that lexical bundles are "recurrent expressions, regardless of their idiomaticity and regardless of their structural status" (p. 990). Likewise, Hyland (2008b) defines lexical bundles as "words [that] follow each other more frequently than expected by chance, helping to shape text meanings and contributing to our sense of distinctiveness in a register" (p. 5). For instance, the following phrases are considered four-word lexical bundles: *it is important to, is shown in figure,* and *are likely to be*.

Lexical bundles have been widely investigated over the past three decades via corpus linguistics approaches in both spoken and written registers (Biber, 2009; Biber & Gray, 2015; Hyland, 2008b; Pan, Reppen, & Biber, 2015). For example, the frameworks established in the seminal studies of Altenberg (1998) and Biber et al. (1999) have been extensively employed in the literature. Both frameworks aim to identify and analyze frequency-based recurrent words and expressions in terms of discourse functions and grammatical features (Yoon & Choi, 2015). Lexical bundle investigations have been conducted to serve several purposes, including describing register variations (Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Hyland, 2012), expressions of different registers in various contexts (Ädel & Erman, 2012), and different discourse functions of lexical bundles (Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2013). These studies indicate that it is crucial for writers to be aware of linguistic features and how to employ them in their targeted discourse community in order to develop their academic writing.

The Connection Between Lexical Bundles and Rhetorical Structure: Building Blocks

According to Cortes (2013), lexical bundles and moves have more similarities than differences. That is, both concepts are seen as building blocks of academic discourse (Cortes, 2013). Hyland (2008b) considers lexical bundles to be "important building blocks of coherent discourse and characteristic features of language use in particular settings" (p. 8). Similarly, Biber and Barbieri (2007) point out that lexical bundles are "important building blocks of discourse in spoken and written registers" (p. 263). Move types are considered the "main building blocks" of a genre (Biber, Connor, & Upton, 2007, p. 53). To investigate the relationship between lexical bundles and rhetorical structure, Cortes (2013) analyzed a corpus of RA Introduction sections from 13 disciplines with one million words. Cortes first identified lexical bundles associated with each move and then classified them based on their discoursal functions. The analysis indicated that some LBs were exclusively connected to a certain move or step, and other bundles were employed to open certain rhetorical moves in the Introduction section.

Background: Genre and Corpus Studies in Saudi Arabia

In Saudi Arabia, genre analysis studies and corpus linguistic literature seem relatively scarce. For genre analysis investigation, Alqahtani's (2006) study appears to be the earliest of the genre studies that carried out a contrastive rhetoric analysis between Arabic and English RA introductions. Using the CARS model, Alqahtani (2006) analyzed 15 RA introductions, which were sorted into three groups: Arabs educated in the U.S., Arab-educated Arabs, and U.S. Native English speakers. The findings indicated that the three-way comparisons showed more differences than similarities at macrostructure and the move/step levels.

In addition, there are three studies that carried out comparative analyses of Arabic and English RA abstracts (Alhuqbani, 2012; Alotaibi, 2013; Fallatah, 2016). Alhuqbani (2012) carried out a cross-cultural analysis to examine a corpus of 30 RA Arabic abstracts and 30 RA English abstracts in the police and security science disciplines by using three models: those of Swales (2004), Bhatia (1993), and Hyland (2000). The study reported differences in the Swales' model, whereas both corpora were similar in the other two models. Similarly, Alotaibi (2013) employed the CARS (Swales, 2004) and Hyland models (2000) to investigate the relationship between the Abstract and Introduction sections. The corpus included 20 English and Arabic RA abstracts and introductions from two disciplines: sociology and educational psychology. The results showed several differences across languages and disciplines. Moreover, in a comparative study, Fallatah (2016) analyzed English and Arabic RA abstracts written by three different groups: a Saudi writers group with 37 English RA abstracts,

Saudi writers with 27 Arabic RA abstracts, and international writers with 29 English RA abstracts. Using the Swales and Feak framework (2009), the Saudi English RA abstracts showed differences in several aspects compared with their English international RA counterparts. The Saudi English RA abstracts "show[ed] more move presence fluctuation; verbosity; move cyclicality; excessive use of citation, acronyms, and listings; and multi-paragraphing" (p. 368).

Finally, for RA sections only written in Arabic, Alhuqbani (2013) investigated RA abstracts, and Alotaibi and Pickering (2013) analyzed RA Introduction sections. To identify the move patterns of the Arabic RA abstracts in four disciplines (i.e., medicine, law, police, and linguistics), Alhuqbani (2013) implemented Hyland's (2000) and Bhatia's (1993) models to analyze 10 abstracts from each discipline. The analysis revealed that the four disciplines varied in the move structure of the two models, and medicine was exactly like the structures mentioned in the models. Following Swales' (1990) CARS model, Alotaibi and Pickering (2013) carried out a cross-disciplinary investigation to analyze 20 RA Arabic introductions and compared them with international ones. The results revealed that the Arabic RA introductions and the American English ones were different in terms of the employment of the following rhetorical moves: *Establishing a Territory, Establishing a Niche, and Occupying the Niche.*

As for corpus linguistics, studies of lexical bundles in applied linguistics in Saudi Arabia appear to be rare. Therefore, in Saudi Arabia, there exists a substantial gap in genre analysis and corpus linguistics investigations in the research literature, especially in theoretical and applied linguistics disciplines. In fact, the majority of previous studies in the Saudi context investigated either the Abstracts or Introduction sections, but none of them have investigated the remaining sections of the research articles. The present study thus hopes to address cultural variations between the Saudi and international corpora in the whole RA sections, i.e., IMRDC. As advised by Nwogu (1997), in addition to cultural variations, writers, as well as readers, could benefit from analyzing complete sections of research articles to gain an understanding of the organizational structure of such articles (Alamri, 2017). In short, the present study aims to investigate the following research questions:

1. What similarities and differences exist in rhetorical structures used in English-language articles published in journals of applied linguistics in Saudi Arabia and internationally?
2. What similarities and differences exist in lexical bundles used in each move of English-language articles published in journals of applied linguistics in Saudi Arabia and internationally?

Corpora and Methodology

Description of the Corpora

The corpora selected for investigation in the present study comprised 30 English language research articles derived from 16 journals published in Saudi Arabia and internationally in the field of applied linguistics, with eight journals from each corpus (Appendix A shows the list of research articles). First, Nwogu's (1997) criteria for selecting journals (i.e., representativeness, online accessibility, and reputation) were used to increase the degree of comparability between both corpora. Furthermore, the international journals were selected on the basis of the impact factor for the year 2017 according to the Journal Citation Reports (JCR). The Saudi journals, however, were chosen based on their reputation being recognized by university promotion committees and among professors of applied linguistics since there is no journal ranking system in Saudi Arabia. Second, the research articles were selected based on the following criteria: (a) the RAs had to have complete (IMRDC) sections, and (b) the articles were published between 2011-2016. Finally, through examining the authors' biographies on the universities' websites, for the Saudi corpus, authors who were native speakers of Arabic affiliated with Saudi Arabian universities were identified. In the international corpus, on the other hand, most of the authors were affiliated with universities located in the United States, Europe, and Canada. Both qualitative and quantitative analyses of rhetorical moves/steps and lexical bundles were conducted. The total number of words in both corpora is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

The Corpus of the International and Saudi Journals

	No. of RAs	No. of journals	No. of words
Saudi corpus	15	8	100,947
International corpus	15	8	126,187
Total	30	16	227,134

Conducting Genre Analysis

The first phase of analysis involved identifying move structures. After compiling the corpora, genre analyses were employed to analyze the move structures of RAs. In particular, five models were used to examine the five RA sections. Introduction sections were analyzed using Swales' (2004) three-move CARS model, Methods sections were examined using Peacock's (2011) seven-move model, and the Results-Discussion-Conclusion sections were analyzed using Ruiying and Allison's (2003) three models. These models were chosen for the present study because of their wide use in different disciplines and because they are considered comprehensive, especially in the applied linguistics field. Since the central notion in the analysis of both corpora was communicative purpose, a top-down approach to corpus analysis was adopted. That is, each move was analyzed based on the most salient function found in a sentence or couple of sentences (Holmes, 1997; Ozturk, 2007).

The procedures of analyzing 30 RAs was conducted in several phases. The first step was the analysis of the overall structure of each RA (i.e., headings), followed by a thorough reading and examination of each sentence in each section to identify the presence/absence of move/step, move frequency, move structure, and move cyclicity. The results of the analysis were then closely examined and compared to identify possible cultural variations between both corpora. The threshold frequency of a move was set to 70% for a move to be considered conventional; if the frequency fell below 70%, the move was considered optional in the corpus. In addition, for reliability purposes, an experienced coder in move analysis pursuing a Ph.D. in TESOL was recruited. A two-hour face-to-face training session was conducted with the coder to explain the procedures of conducting and using the coding schema and protocol for each section of the research article in the corpus. After that, the coder was asked to analyze six random RAs (3 RAs, 20%, from each corpus) in a month. We then discussed the process of the analysis until we reached an agreement rate across all five sections via a Cohen Kappa value of 0.91 and a percentage of agreement of 94.76%. As for the intra-rater reliability, the author randomly re-coded 3 RAs (20%) from each corpus three months after the initial coding.

Lexical Bundle Identification and Analysis

The bottom-up approach (i.e., corpus analysis) was employed to identify lexical bundles found in each move. The identification and classification of the bundles comprised several criteria: the range cut-off point of LBs was to be present in at least two research articles in each corpus to guard against the idiosyncrasies of individual writers, only 4-word bundles were extracted from the corpus due to the fact that these bundles are ''the most researched length for writing studies" and are "often within a manageable size (around 100) for manual categorization and concordance checks'' (Chen & Baker, 2010, p. 32). All research articles were cleaned by removing titles, tables, section headers, graphs, footers, paper codes, and reference lists. Lastly, bundles that did not have a function or rhetorical purpose were excluded (e.g., *for teaching EFL skills, in the target language*).

The identification of LBs process involved creating sub-corpora based on the results of the move analyses in the first phase; each identified move was entered in a plain text document resulting in a total of 780 plain text documents. All the identified moves were grouped and listed based on the corpus the moves represented (Alamri, 2017). Following that, *AntConc* 3.4.3w software was used to extract the LBs from each identified move. Then the identified bundles were examined for appropriate context-dependent content (e.g., *the second language acquisition process*) and overlapping bundles, following Chen and Baker's (2010) recommendations. In other words, to guard against inflated results, any overlapping bundles were merged into one longer bundle (e.g., *it has been suggested* and *has been suggested that*) (Chen & Baker, 2010). For the purpose of grammatical classification, the grammatical annotations of the extracted bundles were generated via Multi-Dimensional Analysis (MDA) Tagger software. Finally, the retrieved bundles were analyzed structurally based on Biber's and his colleagues taxonomy (Biber, Conrad, & Cortes, 2004), and functionally by the taxonomy developed by

Hyland (2008b), see Appendices B & C. Biber et al's (2004) taxonomy includes three broad structural categories: NP-based (e.g., *the end of the*), PP-based (e.g., *in the case of*), and VP-based bundles (e.g. *it is clear that*). In addition, Hyland's (2008b) taxonomy includes three broad categories: Research-oriented bundles (e.g., *the purpose of the*), Text-oriented bundles (e.g., *as a result of*), and Participant-oriented bundles (e.g., Stance: *are likely to be*, Engagement: *as can be seen*).

Results and Discussion

The following sections present the results of move and bundle analyses, accompanied by discussions of examples derived from both corpora.

General Findings

The study findings of the genre-based approach analysis showed similarities in the Introduction, Discussion, and Conclusion sections, and differences in the Methods and Results sections. As shown in Table 2, the analysis of the corpus-driven investigation yielded 205 (with 597 tokens) lexical bundles in the Saudi dataset and 145 (358 tokens) in its international counterpart. Both corpora shared only 22 out of 350 types of bundles. The following subsections will elaborate on some cultural aspects, as well as the similarities and discrepancies in both corpora, with examples from the Saudi corpus (labeled as S) and the international corpus (labeled as I).

Table 2
Total number of words in each section of both corpora

Sections	International corpus				Saudi corpus			
	Types	Tokens	TTR	Total # of words	Types	Tokens	TTR	Total # of words
Introduction	43	103	0.42	30,758	95	289	0.33	39,804
Methods	28	69	0.41	27,094	18	42	0.43	15,247
Results	23	57	0.40	30,790	38	134	0.28	21,132
Discussion	48	123	0.39	27,428	34	90	0.38	17,159
Conclusion	3	6	0.50	6,609	20	42	0.48	6,105
Total	145	358	0.41	122,679	205	597	0.34	100,952

Moves and Lexical Bundle Analysis in both Corpora

Introduction Section

The present study found that the three moves (i.e., Move 1: *Establishing a Territory*, Move 2: *Establishing a Niche*, and Move 3: *Presenting the Present Work*) were conventional; these moves occurred in all RA introductions in both corpora (100%). Previous studies have reported similar findings (Amnuai, 2012; Ozturk, 2007; Pho, 2008; Swales, 1990). Moreover, the Saudi corpus exhibited two of the most preferred move structures (i.e., M1-M2-M3-M2 and M1-M3-M2-M3), whereas the international dataset showed the following pattern: M1-M2-M3-M2-M3. Move 3 was the most cyclical in both datasets, then Move 2, and lastly, Move 1. Obviously, Move 3, with its seven steps, is the most common strategy used by authors to increase explicitness and announce the present research descriptively and/or purposively (Pho, 2008).

Noticeable cultural aspects were identified at the step level in the Introduction sections. First, the function of the *Indicating a gap* Step seemed different between the national and international datasets. In other words, the absence of any direct criticism of the work of others appeared to be problematic for the authors in the Saudi journals. Alternatively, the authors referred to cases where the research topic being investigated was limited or did not exist. This kind of absence was documented in different contexts, including Saudi Arabia (Alotaibi & Pickering, 2013; Al-Qahtani, 2006), and other EFL contexts (e.g., Hirano, 2009). Cultural traits concerning the communication of knowledge could be a reason for this; that is, some authors in the Saudi corpus may have wanted to avoid the direct criticism of the work of others, thinking that criticism is inappropriate or less acceptable, which may engender negative attitudes from other researchers (Hirano, 2009). In addition, although

no cultural trait was found, unlike the authors in the international corpus, some authors in the Saudi corpus not only established the niche by adding to what was already known and/or indicating a gap, but the authors also tended to provide justifications (Step 2) to convince the readers.

Second, the employment of integral and nonintegral citations appeared to be different in both corpora. In the integral citations, the name of the researcher or author occurred at the beginning or in the sentence itself, for instance, *Hyland (2008) believes that….* The nonintegral citations, however, refer to the ones in which the name of the researcher or author appears in parentheses at the end of the sentence or when referring to authors by another device or another convention (Swales, 1990). The Saudi corpus encompassed more (291 or 54 %) integral citations compared to nonintegral (249 or 46 %) ones. On the other hand, the international corpus was dominated by nonintegral citations (296 or 62 %) compared to integral citations (184 or 38 %). In fact, being unaware of the academic usage of both types of citations may be due to a lack of analysis and synthesis skills, which was noticed when reporting previous research in the Saudi corpus (Thompson & Tribble, 2001).

Third, promotional aspects were found in Step 6 of both corpora, *stating the value of the present research*. The promotional aspect is a space for authors to signal the significant and innovative aspects of their work (Hyland & Tse, 2005; Swales, 2004). The findings indicated that (86.6 %) of the authors in the Saudi corpus preferred evaluating their research compared to their international peers (26.6 %). The main function of this step used by the authors was to convince readers that the authors' arguments needed to be read and taken seriously (Hyland & Tse, 2005; Swales, 2004). Given that the authors in the Saudi corpus were native speakers of Arabic, stating the value of the research perhaps stemmed from the Arabic culture and its writing style (Alamri, 2017; Alharbi & Swales, 2011; Fakhri, 2004). Example (1) is derived from the Saudi corpus, and it illustrates this promotional feature.

(1) This study is a **pioneering study** in the sense that it is **the first of its kind** that investigates …. (S4)

As for the lexical bundle analysis of the Introduction sections, all three moves encompassed 138 LBs: 43 bundles (103 tokens) appeared in the international corpus, and 95 bundles (289 tokens) appeared in its Saudi counterpart. Specifically, the *Establishing a territory* move contained six LBs in the Saudi dataset compared to five LBs in the international one, and two bundles were shared by both corpora (i.e., *on the other hand– one of the most*). Furthermore, the *Establishing a niche* move had most of the identified bundles, with 73 LBs elicited in the Saudi corpus, while 31 LBs were elicited in the international one. The *Presenting the Present Work* move included 30 and seven LBs in the Saudi and the international corpora, respectively. A possible explanation for the significant difference in lexical bundles between both corpora could be attributed to the lengthy nature of the Introduction section in the Saudi corpus compared to the international corpus. In other words, a closer look at both corpora showed that about 40 % of the Saudi corpus (39,804 words, see Table 2 for more details) was in the Introduction sections, whereas the corresponding sections of the international corpus comprised only 25 % (30,758 words). These findings perhaps indicate that authors in the Saudi corpus tended to focus more on providing a detailed literature review rather than a concise and synthesized one. Therefore, the lengthier texts employed more lexical bundles and signals to guide readers through the text (Pan et al., 2015).

Regarding structural classification, all three moves in the Introduction in both corpora shared three structural categories (i.e., VP-based, PP-based, and other) in similar proportion. However, while the authors in the international corpus employed (17 %) NP-based bundles, their peers in the Saudi journals employed almost double that (34 %), which deserves more explanation. First, the overuse of NP-based bundles could be related to the inadequacy of some writers in terms of using NP structures. In addition, Halliday (1989) argued that translating from L1 to L2 when writing a text may lead to the overuse of noun phrases (Gungor & Uysal, 2016). Lastly, given that the Introduction sections in the Saudi journals were lengthy and had a larger number of lexical bundles compared to their International counterparts (289/103 tokens), the size of the corpus could be another reason for the overuse of the NP-phrase, as stated in the previous paragraph.

An analysis of functional classification revealed several variations between the two datasets. The Saudi corpus used more research-oriented bundles (56 %), followed by text-oriented (36 %) and participant-oriented (8 %) ones. In the international journals, on the other hand, the authors employed more text-oriented bundles (50 %), followed by research-oriented (27 %) and participant-oriented (23 %) ones. Hyland (2008b) states that text-oriented bundles are heavily used in international scholarly journals in applied linguistics compared to local

journals in order to "provide familiar and shorthand ways of engaging with a literature, providing warrants, connecting ideas, directing readers around the text, and specifying limitations" (p. 16). However, some local journals, like Saudi journals, may have fewer text-oriented bundles compared with research-oriented ones, which could be associated with the non-native authors' lack of awareness of syntactic and lexical knowledge (Gungor & Uysal, 2016). Additionally, the use of stance and engagement (i.e., participant-oriented) bundles was far more frequent in the international corpus (23%) than in the Saudi (8%) one, even though the Saudi corpus contained a larger number of bundles (95 types/289 tokens). The main function of stance and engagement features is to provide interpretations of propositions and to engage readers with the text. The authors in the Saudi corpus explicitly avoided stating their authorial stance in their arguments, perhaps because they felt uncomfortable evaluating their own work and arguments. Stance and engagement features play a vital role in the international discourse community, especially in highly ranked journals (Hyland, 2008b). For example, the bundle *are likely to be* appeared in the international corpus 12 times, while occurring only two times in the Saudi counterpart, as shown in Examples (2) and (3), respectively:

(2)   Such concerns **are likely to be** all too familiar for teacher trainers in various contexts. (I14)
(3)   The immediate goal in reading and in the processes exercised by the reader **are likely to be** affected by both the reader's cognitive style and by training in processes for studying text material. (S2)

Methods Section
The results identified three moves in the Saudi corpus (i.e., M4: *Overview* – M7: *Subject/Material* – M8: *Procedures*) and four moves in the international corpus (i.e., M5: *Location* – M7– M8– M10: *Data analysis*). In addition, the international corpus did not incorporate M6 *Research Aims/ Hypotheses/ Questions* and M9 *Limitations*. The weight given to the Methods section in both corpora was not the same. That is, the Methods sections in the Saudi dataset were relatively shorter and missing some details, specifically in M10 *Data analysis*. A number of Saudi authors' may not have been be fully aware of the importance of presenting a thorough description of the data analysis and procedures to establish credibility in the Methods section (Cotos et al., 2017), which could be the main reason for the desk-rejection in scholarly journals. Example 4 of Move 10, below, shows a very general description of the data analysis, which can certainly lead to confusion and/or misunderstanding of the procedures of the data analysis.

(4)   A three-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to answer the questions of the study. More specifically, ANCOVA was used to find out if there were any statistically significant differences at (0.05) between students' achievement mean scores according to the way of instruction, stream of study and the interaction between them. (S10)

As for move patterns, while the Saudi corpus did not have a frequency pattern, the international corpus displayed the following pattern (M7-M5-M7-M8-M10) as the most frequent move structure. In addition, the analysis produced a modified model comprised of two related moves that usually occurred together, i.e., Location and Subject. Therefore, these two moves were combined into one move called *Describing the instruments of the study*.

In terms of lexical bundles, the international corpus included 28, whereas the Saudi counterpart had 18, and M7 (*Subjects/Materials*) comprised most of the bundles found in both corpora; 13 were in the international corpus and 10 were found in the Saudi corpus. Both sets of data shared three bundles (*in the present study*, *they were asked to, the purpose of the*). Moreover, M6 (*Research Aims/ Hypotheses/Questions*) and M9 (*Limitations*) did not have bundles in any of the corpora. The rest of the moves in the Methods sections included several bundles in both corpora, except Move 4 (*Overview*), which had four LBs in the Saudi dataset only.

The results of the structural and functional analyses were similar for both corpora. Structurally, both corpora employed predominantly noun and prepositional phrases, 48% of the bundle tokens in the Saudi corpus and 71% in the international corpus. The heavy uses of these phrases could be attributed to these phrases exhibiting high informational focus (Biber & Conrad, 1999; Pan et al., 2015). In addition, the functional analysis showed similarities between both corpora, with one difference: that is, the international corpus frequently used participant-oriented bundles compared with no such uses in the Saudi corpus. Both corpora employed procedural bundles in Moves 7, 8, and 10 due to the functions that these bundles represent, such as to present study procedures or to quantify a study. Example (5) below includes a bundle from the international to express

the quantity of something (i.e., courses). Example (6) derived from the Saudi corpus provides a bundle used to refer to data collection procedures.

    (5)   *During their teacher training program at the university, the participants studied **a wide range of** courses related to foreign language teaching methodology... (I14)*

    (6)   *Data collection **was conducted in the** school setting, employing normal procedures, and on a regular school day during the second semester of 2007. (S7)*

Results Section

The Results sections displayed three conventional moves in both corpora: M11: *Preparatory information*; M12: *Reporting results*; and M13: *Commenting on results*. While both corpora did not have M16: *Deductions from the research*, the international corpus did not have Move 15 (*Evaluating the study*). These results were consistent with previous studies carried out in applied linguistics (Pho, 2008; Ruiying & Allison, 2003). These studies and others in different disciplines, e.g., medicine (Nwogu, 1997), indicated that the main purposes of the Results section include reporting results and commenting on them. Furthermore, M11 tended to be the most cyclical and was used more by authors in the Saudi journals (93 %) compared to their international peers (73 %). It is obvious then that authors in the Saudi journals preferred providing preparatory information to remind and guide readers.

In terms of lexical bundles, the Saudi corpus exceeded the international counterpart in number; 38 bundles and 23, respectively. Four LBs were shared by both corpora in M12 (*Reporting results*) (i.e., *the majority of the, in each of the, statistically significant difference between, the results of the*). Moreover, M11 (*Preparatory information*), M13 (*Commenting on results*), and M14 (*Summarizing results*) incorporated fewer bundles because these moves were used in a limited manner in both datasets, whereas there were no LBs in M15 (*Evaluating the study*) in both corpora.

Overall, both corpora shared similar structural and functional classifications. In the structural analysis, the main difference reported in the analysis was the heavy use of passive verb+prep. phrase fragments in the international corpus (e.g., *can be seen in, are presented in table*) compared to its Saudi counterpart. The main purpose of this phrase is to present the results of the study. It is worth mentioning that the Saudi corpus displayed the longest bundle found in the literature so far (i.e., *it is clear from the findings of the study that*), which appeared in M14 and belonged to anticipatory *it* + verb/adjective phrase. Cortes (2013) and Biber and Conrad (1999) also reported longer bundles. For example, Cortes (2013) identified the longest bundle in her study: *the remainder of the paper is organized as follows*.

In the functional analysis, the overuse of resultative signals was the main difference between the two datasets. Specifically, the resultative signal bundle *the results of the* had 3 tokens in the international corpus and 11 in the Saudi. This result can be interpreted in two ways. First, the authors in the Saudi journals could be proficient and aware of how to use these bundles efficiently (Pérez-Llantada, 2014). Second, these authors might have a limited resultative signals repertoire. However, their peers in the international journals preferred reporting their results by employing different bundles. In Example (7) from the international dataset, the author used *was found in the* bundle to report results of the study in M12 (*Reporting results*). Next, in Example (8) derived from the Saudi corpus, the sentence encompasses three different functions: resultative signals (i.e., *the results of the*), procedures bundles (i.e., *statistically significant differences among*), and stance features (*be attributed to the*).

    (7)   *however, no statistical difference **was found in the** rate of textual plagiarism. (I4)*

    (8)   ***The results of the** two-way MANOVA are shown in Table 5 above, and they reveal **statistically significant differences among** the EFL Preparatory Year students' literal and inferential reading comprehension achievements that can **be attributed to the** interaction between the teaching method and the subjects' preferred learning styles. (S2)*

Discussion Sections

The Discussion sections included two conventional moves in the international corpus (i.e., M18: *Reporting results* and M20: *Commenting on results*) and only one move in its Saudi counterpart (i.e., M20). In addition, the most frequently occurring move in all of the Discussion sections was M20, indicating that this move is necessary

for discussing the findings of the study (Le & Harrington, 2015; Pho, 2008; Ruiying & Allison, 2004).

The analysis of M18 (*Reporting the results*) in both datasets merits a discussion. As stated earlier, this move was conventional in the international corpus (93%) and optional in its Saudi counterpart (60%). The finding from the Saudi corpus was inconsistent with most of the previous studies that indicated the conventional nature of this move (Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013a; Pho, 2008; Ruiying & Allison, 2004). One possible interpretation might be that some writers did not want to be redundant, repeating similar findings from the Results sections. Instead, the authors employed M19 *Summarizing results*. A closer look at the Results sections in the Saudi corpus indicated that the matching move (i.e., M18: *Reporting the results*) was conventional (93%). Pedagogically speaking in global context, it can be concluded that a typical Discussion section needs to encompass two conventions: M18 (*Reporting the results*) and M20 (*Commenting on results*).

Overall, the analysis of move patterns did not reveal any patterns. The analysis, however, showed that there was a highly cyclical sub-pattern, i.e., M18-M20. This sub-pattern occurred almost in and in-between every pattern in both corpora, mirroring the findings of Ruiying and Allison's (2004) in applied linguistics, Dudley-Evans (1994) in science, and across disciplines in Holmes (1997).

As for lexical bundles, the analysis showed that the international corpus had 48 LBs, while its Saudi counterpart contained 34 LBs. There were five bundles shared by both corpora: *at the same time, the results of the/this, it is important to, on the other hand*. The majority of bundles in both corpora were located in M18 (*Reporting results*) and M20 (*Commenting on results*): the international corpus had 30 LBs in M20 and 12 LBs in M18. The Saudi corpus, on the other hand, included 23 LBs in M20 and 6 in M18. However, no bundles were observed in M17 (*Background information*) and M21 (*Summarizing the study*). The most frequent bundles included *in terms of the, the results of the, a significant difference in,* and *in the present study.*

The structural analysis revealed a high degree of similarities between both corpora. It is obvious that lexical bundles were found in all categories, with two exceptions: the adverbial clause fragment in the international corpus, and the pronoun/noun phrase + be (+...) in the Saudi corpus. When I compared the overlapping moves (*Reporting results*) located in the Results and Discussion sections, the comparison showed that this move had more bundles when it occurred in the Results section compared with when it was found in the Discussion sections. This finding indicated that some bundles have several functions in academic prose (Biber & Conrad, 1999; Hyland, 2008b).

As for the functional analysis, the findings showed that the international corpus relied heavily on text-oriented bundles (50%). The Saudi corpus, on the other hand, depended on research-oriented bundles. It is evident that the authors in the international journals employed text-oriented bundles for several functions including engaging readers, specifying limitations or cases (e.g., *in the case of*), connecting ideas (e.g., *in terms of the*), and discussing literature (Hyland, 2008b). The use of framing signal bundles in both corpora also seemed different. That is, the main function of these bundles is to situate arguments through specifying limiting conditions. Interestingly, while the Saudi corpus did not have any framing signal bundles, the international counterpart included five types (12 tokens) in M20 (*Commenting on results*). Additionally, M18 (*Reporting results*) incorporated four bundles (8 tokens) and one bundle (3 tokens) in the international and Saudi corpora, respectively. According to Hyland (2008b), the lack of employing framing signal bundles in the Discussion sections indicates that the authors were not fully aware of the crucial roles these bundles have in academic writing. Examples (9) from the international corpus and (10) in the Saudi corpus below represent sentences that have bundles with different functions.

(9) *The results of our study largely support* **the findings of the** *psycholinguistic studies reviewed* **at the beginning of** *this article* **with respect to the** *effect of age... (I1)*

(10) *Furthermore,* **all of the teachers** *frequently expressed confidence in their ability in teaching reading comprehension to Arab EFL learners* **as a result of** *their shared linguistic and cultural qualities with the students in terms of the reading culture. (S12)*

Conclusion Section
All moves and steps appeared in the Conclusions sections in both corpora. Specifically, both corpora shared M26 (*Deductions from the research*) as a conventional move. In addition, M24 (*summarizing the study*) was

conventional in the international corpus, and the conventional move in the Saudi was M25 (*Evaluating the Study*). The most frequent move was M26 followed by M24 as found in Moritz, Meurer, and Dellagnelo's (2008) study. To elucidate, in the Conclusion section, some writers preferred focusing more on recommending further research and pedagogical implications then evaluating their studies. In other words, the authors wanted to establish credibility for their studies (Morales, 2012; Sandoval, 2010). This result contradicted the majority of the previous studies in the literature on applied linguistics, where these studies reported that the most frequently occurring move in the Conclusions sections was M24 (Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013b; Morales, 2012; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Vuković & Bratic, 2015).

Move 25 was the least frequent in the Conclusions sections because this move overlapped with the one in the Discussion sections; therefore, some authors employed this move in the previous section. In addition, a careful examination of M25/Step 2 revealed that some writers in the Saudi corpus were more hesitant to present limitations about their studies, which can be a result of cultural traits. On the other hand, the authors in the international journals seemed more open to mention the limitations of their studies. This could be related to the fact that some cultures may perceive limitations negatively as a criticism or even a self-criticism (Itakura & Tsui, 2011).

Four move patterns were identified in both sets of data. The most frequent pattern was linear and chronological (M24-M25-M26), followed by M24-M26. The Saudi corpus included two more move patterns: M26-M25-M26 and M26. Furthermore, the sub-pattern M25-M26 was the most cyclical in the Conclusions sections. These results were consistent with those previous reported (Adel & Moghadam, 2015; Ruiying & Allison, 2003). For pedagogical purposes, all three moves (i.e., M24, M25, and M26) are necessary when writing a Conclusions section in applied linguistics.

For lexical bundles, both corpora incorporated 23 bundles, with most of them found in the Saudi corpus (20 LBs). The majority of the bundles in the Conclusions sections were located in M26 (*Deductions from the research*). Apparently, the authors in international journals preferred using three-word bundles compared to their Saudi peers who preferred four-word bundles.

The structural and functional classifications seemed to be limited because the Conclusions sections were relatively short. The average number of words was 440 in the international dataset and 407 in its Saudi counterpart. In the structural analysis, both corpora displayed VP-based bundles, as in *are recommended to do*. In the functional analysis, the participant-oriented bundles dominated in both datasets. The authors usually employed stance and engagement features to conclude their articles, recommending future investigations and drawing pedagogical implications. Such features included *should try to be, carry out further research, future research could examine.* Below are two examples (11) and (12) from the international and Saudi datasets, respectively:

(11) *Finally,* **future research could examine** *abstract nouns in both countable and noncountable contexts... (I2)*

(12) **In light of the** *results of the study, the researcher recommends that EFL writing skills should be taught through the whole language approach. (S1)*

Conclusion

In the present study move patterns and associated lexical bundles were investigated for each move of the English-language RA IMRDC structure published in Saudi Arabian and international journals in applied linguistics. The findings reported in the present study showed similarities and differences between both corpora regarding move patterns and lexical bundles, revealing cultural variances. The major similarities in both corpora are summarized as follows: 1) all rhetorical moves in Introductions, Discussions, and Conclusions sections appeared in both corpora; 2) Results and Discussions sections had a highly cyclical structure (i.e., M18 and M20); 3) both corpora shared similar structural classifications, especially NP-based and PP-based lexical bundles were found across all sections, except the Conclusions section; and 4) the extensive use of text-oriented bundles was noted in Discussions section (e.g., *the extent to which, as discussed in the*); and 5) the international corpus conformed mostly to RA conventional headings, except the Conclusions section. The differences, on the

other hand, included: 1) rhetorical moves in Methods (M4 and M10) and Results sections (e.g., M11 and M15); 2) the functional classification of lexical bundles, especially research-oriented and participant-oriented bundles; 3) several linguistic features in the international corpus (i.e., stance & engagement), compared with fewer features in the Saudi dataset (i.e., promotional aspects); and 4) the Saudi corpus deviated from RA conventional headings in the MRDC sections.

A key finding related to these variances needs to be highlighted. That is, the rhetorical structure analyses in the Saudi corpus shows that the articles adopted some unique rhetorical shapes and that they did not simply follow the typical rhetorical structures of the international corpus. In other words, the move patterns created by authors in the Saudi journals exhibited the articulation of some moves through hybrid and nonlinear patterns (e.g., cascading, chain, and focalizing structures) with a particular textual complexity in the Methods, Results, and Discussion sections. Clearly, the voices of the authors in the Saudi dataset can be considered variations of English or "hybrid voices" (Mauranen, 2007) unique to the Saudi set of data. Therefore, these unique hybrid rhetorical patterns reshape and display numerous English rhetorical structures in innovative and creative ways (Lorés-Sanz, 2016). According to Hyland (2004), the awareness of cultural variations in academic writing exhibits a sense of genre knowledge, but he cautions that "deviations are acceptable to the extent that they do not cancel out function or appropriateness" (p. 64).

The analyses of moves/steps patterns and lexical bundles suggest several pedagogical implications for novice writers, graduate students, and non-native English writers in relation to teaching English for academic or specific purposes. This type of analytical comparison helps raise students' and novice writers' awareness of specific practices and norms in local and international contexts in different fields, including applied linguistics. Furthermore, rhetorical structures and variations in English research articles need to be taught explicitly to graduate students in academic writing or academic writing for publication courses. For instance, learners should be exposed to class activities with writing samples and assignments that illustrate the variety of academic genres across academic disciplines based on the students' needs.

Practitioners and course designers of English for academic and specific disciplines could benefit from the list of lexical bundles identified in the study – See Appendix D. However, since the lexical bundles occur and behave differently in each discipline (Hyland, 2008b), it is crucial that these bundles be dealt with cautiously. Academic writing teachers can take advantage of the structural and functional classification procedures and production tasks (e.g., familiarization with form and function) to help their students identify and employ the specific types and rhetorical functions of certain lexical bundles (Hyland, 2008b; Neely & Cortes, 2009).

The present study has its limitations. First, while determining boundaries between larger chunks (introduction, theoretical background…) is usually easy to do, deciphering the boundaries between the steps is not transparent and can be very tricky. Therefore, the present study concentrated more on boundaries between larger chunks, leaving the analysis of boundaries between steps for future investigations. Second, the present study used specialized corpora that had only 30 RAs (15 from each corpus). Using a large-scale corpus in future research could increase its representativeness and may reveal different results. Furthermore, it is recommended that future investigations include conducting interviews with the authors of the articles, especially in the Saudi journals. The aim of the interviews would be to inquire about the authors' perceptions of the employment of certain move patterns and lexical bundles and the absence of others. Since the scope of the study was limited, the interviewers could investigate only some of the aspects related to educational and cultural backgrounds, writing and publishing experience, and the involvement of native speakers in the process of writing and publishing the articles (Alamri, 2017).

The potential cross-linguistic influence of first language (L1) on employing lexical bundles has also been highlighted in the literature (Ädel & Erman, 2012; Chen & Baker, 2010). For instance, L1 influence has been observed in a few languages, including Hebrew (Laufer & Waldman, 2011), French (Paquot, 2013), Spanish (Pérez-Llantada, 2014), Turkish (Güngö, 2016), and Persian (Esfandiari & Barbary, 2017). To the best of my knowledge, no contrastive analyses of lexical bundles in the Arabic language have been conducted yet. An investigation of L1 Arabic influence on retrieving and employing lexical bundles when writing English research articles would therefore be very interesting, especially in a three-way comparison of lexical bundles among L1 Arabic, L1 English, and L2 English writers.

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Appendix A

List of Research Articles Used for the Analyses

The International Corpus

I1   Mulder, K., & Hulstijn, J. H. (2011). Linguistic skills of adult sative Speakers, as a function of age and level of education. *Applied Linguistics*, *32*(5), 475–494.

I2   Lee Amuzie, G., & Spinner, P. (2013). Korean EFL learners' indefinite article use with four types of abstract nouns. *Applied Linguistics*, *34*(4), 415–434.

*I3   Gablasova, D. (2015). Learning technical words through L1 and L2: Completeness and accuracy of word meanings. *English for Specific Purposes*, *39*, 62–74.

*I4   Stapleton, P. (2012). Gauging the effectiveness of anti-plagiarism software: An empirical study of second language graduate writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *11*(2), 125–133.

I5   Junqueira, L. (2013). A genre-based investigation of applied linguistics book reviews in English and Brazilian Portuguese. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *12*(3), 203–213.

I6   Neumann, H. (2014). Teacher assessment of grammatical ability in second language academic writing: A case study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *24*, 83–107.

*I7   Li, M., & Kim, D. (2016). One wiki, two groups: Dynamic interactions across ESL collaborative writing tasks. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *31*, 25–42.

I8   Simard, D., & Jean, G. (2011). An exploration of l2 teachers' use of pedagogical interventions devised to draw L2 Learners' attention to form: Exploration of L2 teachers' use of pedagogical interventions. *Language Learning*, *61*(3), 759–785.

I9   Webb, S., Newton, J., & Chang, A. (2013). Incidental learning of collocation: Incidental learning of collocation. *Language Learning*, *63*(1), 91–120.

I10   Golonka, E., Bowles, A., Silbert, N., Kramasz, D., Blake, C., & Buckwalter, T. (2015). The role of context and cognitive effort in vocabulary learning: A study of intermediate-level learners of Arabic. *The Modern Language Journal*, *99*(1), 19–39.

I11   Davis, J. M. (2016). Toward a capacity framework for useful student learning outcomes assessment in college foreign language programs. *The Modern Language Journal*, *100*(1), 377–399.

I12   Ortega-Llebaria, M., & Colantoni, L. (2014). L2 English intonation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *36*(2), 331–353.

I13   Yalçın, Ş., & Spada, N. (2016). Language aptitude and grammatical difficulty. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *38*(2), 239–263.

I14   Buckingham, L. (2014). Building a career in English: Users of English as an additional language in academia in the Arabian Gulf. *TESOL Quarterly*, *48*(1), 6–33.

I15   Tum, D. O. (2015). Foreign language anxiety's forgotten study: The case of the anxious preservice teacher. *TESOL Quarterly*, *49*(4), 627–658.

* Articles coded for intercoder reliability

The Saudi Corpus

S1   Bani Abdelrhman, O. N. M. (2013). The use of the whole language approach to sharpen EFL learners' writing skill at Al - Imam Muhammad Bin Saud Islamic University. *Journal of Humanities and Social Studies*, (30), 1–30.

S2   Alharbi, M. (2015). The effects of using the reading thinking activity model (RTAM) on reading comprehension: A case study of the preparatory year students at IMISU, Saudi Arabia. *Journal of Humanities and Social Studies*, (35), 101–136.

S3   Maghrabi, R. O. (2013). Tongue twisters in English: A psycholinguistic investigation of the relationship between language production of Saudi ESL and verbal working memory. *Journal of King Abdulaziz University. Arts and Humanities*, *21*, 165–197.

*S4   Alqurashi, F. (2015). The effect of peer response groups on EFL college writing students' perceived peer social support. *Scientific Journal of King Faisal University. Humanities and Management Sciences*, *16*(1), 189–199.

S5   Abanomey, A. A. (2013). Do EFL Saudi learners perform differently with online reading? An exploratory study. *Journal of King Saud University - Languages and Translation*, *25*(1), 1–11.

*S6   Abdellah, A. (2013). Training Saudi English majors in extensive reading to develop their standard-based reading skills. *Journal of King Saud University - Languages and Translation*, *25*(1), 13–20.

S7   Alshumaim, Y., & Alhassan, R. (2013). Current availability and use of ICT among secondary EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia: Possibilities and reality. *Journal of Educational Sciences*, *25*(1), 225–238.

S8   Bamanger, E. M., & Gashan, A. K. (2015). The effect of planning time on the fluency, accuracy, and complexity of EFL learners' oral production. *Journal of Educational Sciences*, *27*(1), 161–175.

S9   Al-Seghayer, K. (2014). The impact of gender and reading proficiency level on online reading strategies employed by EFL learners. *Journal of Educational Sciences*, *26*(2), 493–509.

S10   Shatnawi, M. M. K. (2016). The effectiveness of the inductive versus deductive methods in teaching passive voice to first secondary students in Al-Ahsa. *Journal of the North for Humanities*, *1*(2), 201–212.

S11   Alrajhi, A. M., Abdelrahman, O. N. M. B., & Al Homoud, F. A. (2014). The effect of using drama on improving preparatory year students' oral proficiency at Al-Imam Muhammad Ibn Saud Islamic University. *Qassim University Journal of Arabic and Human Sciences*, *7*(1), 25–50.

S12   Al-Rojaie, Y. I. (2012). Saudi EFL reading teachers' pedagogical beliefs and practices: A qualitative case study. *Qassim University Journal of Arabic and Human Sciences*, *5*(1), 1–19.

*S13   Al Fageeh, A. (2014). Effects of using wikis for developing Saudi EFL students' reading and writing skills. *Umm Al-Qurma University Journal of Languages and Literatures*, *14*, 9–37.

S14   Alrefaai, I. K., Rab, S. D. A., & Islam, M. S. (2013). The general study habits of major EFL students in King Khalid University and their relationships with GPA, gender and certain social factors. *Umm Al-Qura University Journal of Languages and Literatures*, *10*, 9–63.

S15   Jahin, J. H., & Idrees, M. (2012). EFL major student teachers' writing proficiency and attitudes towards learning English. *Umm Al-Qura University Journal of Educational & Psychologic Sciences*, *4*(1), 10–72.

* Articles coded for intercoder reliability

Appendix B

Biber's et al.'s Structural Taxonomy (Biber, Conrad, & Cortes, 2004)

Structural types of lexical bundles (Biber et al., 1999, pp. 997–1025).

Category	Pattern	Examples
NP-based	Noun phrase + *of*	*the end of the, the nature of the, the beginning of the, a large number of*
	Other Noun phrases	*the fact that the, one of the most, the extent to which, an important role in*
PP-based	Prepositional phrase + *of*	*at the end of, as a result of, on the basis of, in the context of*
	Other prepositional phrases	*on the other hand, at the same time, in the present study, with respect to the*
VP-based	Be + noun/adjective phrases	*is the same as, is a matter of, is due to the, be the result of, is a significant difference*
	Passive verb + prep. phrase fragments	*is shown in figure, is based on the, is defined as the, can be found in*
	Anticipatory *it* + verb/adjective phrases	*it is important to, it is possible that, it was found that, it should be noted*
	(Verb phrase) + *that*-clause fragments	*should be noted that, that this is a, we assume that the*
	(Verb/adjective) + *to*-clause fragments	*are likely to be, to be able to, to determine whether the*
	Adverbial clause fragments	*as shown in table, if there is a, as can be seen in, as compared with the*
	Pronoun/noun phrase + be (+...)	*this is not the, there was no difference, this is the first*
Other expressions	Other	*did not differ between, as well as the*

Appendix C

Hyland's (2008b) Discourse Functional Taxonomy

Hyland's (2008) Discourse Functions Taxonomy (pp. 13-14)

Category	Examples
Research-oriented – help writers to structure their activities and experiences from the real world	
Location – indicating time/place	*(at the beginning of, in the present study).*
Procedure	*(the role of the, the purpose of the).*
Quantification	*(the magnitude of the, a wide range of,).*
Description	*(the structure of the, the size of the).*
Topic – related to the field of research	*(in the Hong Kong, the currency board system).*

Text-oriented – concerned with the organization of the text and its meaning as a message

Transition signals – establishing additive or contrastive links between elements
(on the other hand, in addition to the, in contrast to the).

Resultative signals – mark inferential or causative relations between elements
(as a result of, it was found that, these results suggest that).

Structuring signals – text-reflexive markers which organize stretches of discourse or direct reader elsewhere in the text
(in the present study, in the next section, as shown in figure).

Framing signals – situate arguments by specifying limiting conditions
(in the case of, on the basis of, in the presence of, with the exception of).

Participant-oriented – these are focused on the writer or reader of the text

Stance features – convey the writer's attitudes and evaluations
(are likely to be, may be due to, it is possible that).

Engagement features – address readers directly
(it should be noted that, as can be seen).

Appendix D

List of Lexical Bundles Associated with Each Move in both Corpora

	International corpus	Saudi corpus
Move 1 *Establishing a territory*	**on the other hand, one of the most**, this line of research, as one of the, it is well established that	**one of the most**, as well as the, at the same time, based on the assumption, is one of the, **on the other hand**
Move 2 *Establishing a niche*	little is known about, as a result of, **as well as the**, **in the case of,** the fact that the, to the effects of, **are likely to be, the results indicated that,** in the context of, in the present study, **on the other hand**, research has shown that, a limited number of, about the meaning of, and a lack of, as well as their, can be seen in, however very little is, **on the basis of, that the majority of,** that the number of, **that there is a, the effect of the, the extent to which,** the form of a, the meaning of a, the nature of the, there has been little, this line of research, were based on a, with the acquisition of,	**on the other hand**, the results of the, **the extent to which**, in the use of, significant differences between the, that there was no the results showed that, the study showed that, the use of the, **as well as the**, a wide range of, that the use of, a number of researchers, a number of studies, can be used to, significant difference between the, **that the majority of, that there is a,** the degree to which, the effectiveness of the, the researcher found that, a study in which, **the effect of the, the results indicated that,** the study consisted of, from a variety of, no significant differences between, **on the basis of**, the basis of the, the results of a, at the end of, have been conducted on, **in the case of**, on the effect of, this study aimed at, a handful of studies, about the use of, **are likely to be,** as a function of, as a tool to, as the design of, can be utilized in, differ widely from the, divided into two parts, from the current study, has been carried out, has been conducted on, in addition to the, in relation to their, in the field of, in the process of, in their use of, is devoted to the, is divided into two, is due to the, it was found that, that most of the, the beginning of the, the best knowledge of, the design of studies, the results show that, the study revealed that, there is a need, they were asked to, to a variety of, were divided into two, were exposed to the, when compared to the
Move 3 *Presenting the Present Work*	the following research questions, on the other hand, the extent to which, intends to contribute to, the following research question, the study addressed the, **to shed light on**	the significance of the, aims at exploring the, in relation to the, the use of the, the effect of the, the effect of using, in the field of, **to shed light on the**, a wide range of, addressed the following research, answer the following questions, in favor of the, in the context of, in the process of, it is hoped that, on the effect of, over a period of time, the effects of the, the gap in the, the impact of the, the present study investigated, the purpose of the, the results of the, this study aims at, were exposed to the
Move 4 *Overview*	--	for the purpose of, in the present study, the effectiveness of the, this study utilized a
Move 5 *Location*	the study was conducted in	
Move 7 *Subjects/Materials*	on the basis of, it was not possible, for each of the, a focus on the, a high degree of, a wide range of, can be found in, in addition to the, in order to explore, **the purpose of the**, the study was conducted,	to a sample of, **the purpose of the**, was developed by the, was taught by the, as shown in table, in the present study, on the other hand, one of the most, to a number of,
Move 8 *Procedures*	at the beginning of the, at the end of, in the current study, **the purpose of the**, **they were asked to,** were included in the,	students were asked to, **the purpose of the**, the study was conducted, **they were asked to,**
Move 10 *Data Analysis*	in the present study, the analysis of the, the meaning of the, as well as the, at the same time, can be seen in, in order to determine, in the case of, the reliability of the, with respect to the,	the number of errors
Move 11 *Preparatory information*	--	at the beginning of the, in order to ensure

Move 12 *Reporting results*	the rest of the, in the same way, are presented in table, can be seen in, in relation to the, **statistically significant difference between,** was found in the, are reported in table, **in each of the,** in terms of their, it is important to, of the number of, one of the main, the following excerpts illustrate, **the majority of the,** the results for the, **the results of the,** there was a significant, was also reflected in, were observed in the,	**the results of the,** the mean scores of, as shown in table, are shown in table, that there is a, in favor of the, statistically significant difference at, on the other hand, it shows that the, **statistically significant difference between,** that there was a, **the majority of the,** in favour of the, as seen in table, the results of this, and in favor of, **in each of the**, in order to make, in terms of the, of the sample of, that the difference in, the main idea of, the mean score for, the meaning of the
Move 13 *Commenting on results*	on the other hand, did not result in, in the case of,	the mean scores of, in favour of the, to the effect of, be attributed to the, in the control group, in the experimental group, it also supports the, supports the premise that, that there were no, the results of the,
Move 14 *Summarizing results*	--	it is clear from
Move 15 *Evaluating the study*	--	the main goal of,
Move 18 *Reporting results*	in the present study, as can be seen, in the case of, in the sense that, the case with the, the data show that, **the results of the**, the results revealed that, the results showed that, with respect to vocabulary,	a significant difference in, in terms of the, the results indicate that, a positive correlation between, the beginning of the, **the results of the**,
Move 19 *Summarizing results*	--	the findings of the study,
Move 20 *Commenting on results*	**on the other hand, it is important to,** is in line with, in the present study, it should be noted, are in line with, it is possible that, the ease with which, the findings of the, this is consistent with, the findings of this, with respect to the, a higher number of, are likely to be, as well as to, **at the same time,** could be used to, did not appear to, does not seem to, in line with the, in terms of the, in the field of, of most of the, one possible explanation is that, that the nature of, the degree to which, the extent to which, the fact that the, the meaning of the, **the results of this**, to note that the,	the results of the, **on the other hand**, can be attributed to, with the findings of, by the fact that, could be attributed to, in favor of the, be due to the, a wide range of, as discussed in the, **at the same time**, can be explained by, due to the fact that, from the fact that, is consistent with the, **it is important to**, it was clear that, might be due to, on the part of, significant differences between the, significant improvement on the, study revealed that the, **the results of this**, to the fact that, with the results of,
Move 22 *Evaluating the study*	a starting point for, in the present study, on the other hand, with respect to the,	the results of the,
Move 23 *Deductions from the research*	the results of this, this study suggest that, to be the most,	as well as the,
Move 24 *Summarizing the study*	--	that there is a, the study showed that,
Move 26 *Deductions from the research*	future research could examine, research has shown that, to better understand the,	in light of the, the findings of the, are recommended to do the, carry out further research, conduct further studies concerning, in the area of, in their knowledge of, is one of the, on the use of, research is needed to, should be conducted to, should believe in the, should try to be, the findings of this, the results of this, the usefulness of the, to determine the most, to do the following,

Bold = bundle occurs in both corpora

The Relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Emotional Intelligence and Metacognitive Reading Strategies Use

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Although emotional intelligence (EI) and metacognitive strategies have been addressed by different researchers across the globe, the relationship between EI and the use of metacognitive reading strategies by L2 learners needs further exploration. To fill this gap, at least partially, the present study investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and the use of metacognitive reading strategies by EFL learners. Based on the convenience sampling method, 119 Iranian EFL learners across the age range of 18-27 were selected as the earlier subjects. These subjects were then homogenized through the administration of the PET reading test, which reduced the number of the participants to 102 intermediate EFL. The main instruments included Bar-On's (1997) Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and Mokhtari and Sheorey's (2002) Survey of Reading Strategies Questionnaire (SORS) that measured metacognitive reading strategies use. The results revealed a moderate and positive correlation between a) emotional intelligence and the use of metacognitive reading strategies; b) *intrapersonal skills*, *interpersonal skills*, *adaptability*, and *general mood* and *global* metacognitive strategies; c) *intrapersonal skills*, *interpersonal skills*, and *general mood* and *problem-solving* metacognitive strategies; and d) *intrapersonal skills*, *interpersonal skills*, and *general mood* and *support* metacognitive strategies. Furthermore, multiple regression analysis results indicated that the EI scales of *general mood* and *interpersonal skills* significantly contributed to the prediction of the use of metacognitive reading strategies by EFL learners.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, metacognition, strategies, metacognitive reading strategies, EFL learners

Introduction

Learners vary in how successfully they can learn a second language. Almost everyone agrees that some learners learn a second language easily and others with difficulty. A variety of factors contribute to second language learning success such as attitude, motivation, personality type, social background, etc. It goes without saying that L2 learners' intelligence can play a crucial role in the successful learning of a second/foreign language.

Among the intelligences proposed by Gardner (1983), interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences are concerned with the psychological aspects of the human mind. According to Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2002, p. 118), interpersonal intelligence "more generally covers the individual's attempts to understand another person's behavior, motives, and/or emotions." Intrapersonal intelligence, on the other hand, helps individuals understand themselves, know who they are, and recognize how they can change themselves to become a more fulfilled person (Matthews et al., 2002).

Goleman (1998), a prominent figure in the field of psychology, defined emotional intelligence as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (p. 317). He categorized emotional intelligence into four major components of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. According to Bar-On (1997, p. 14), emotional intelligence is "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and

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skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures." Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence is concerned with the emotional, social, personal, and survival aspects of intelligence (Bar-On, 2007). The significance shared by the above-mentioned definitions has to do with the individual's reliance on their own ability to manage their feelings as well as others in their surroundings to achieve success in any activity. However, the definition offered by Bar-On (1997) seems more comprehensive and more suited to the learner's performance in an educational context. Thus, the latter definition was the framework used in this study.

As for the definitions of metacognition and metacognitive strategies, Flavell (1979) was the first scholar to introduce the term *metacognition* in 1979. He defined it as "one's knowledge concerning one's own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them" (cited in Myers, 2008, p.2). To put it in Flavell's own words, "metacognition is thinking about thinking" (Flavell, 1979, p. 906). Similarly, O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p.8) indicated that "metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place, and self-evaluation after the learning activity has been completed." Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) divided metacognitive reading strategies into three categories of *global, problem-solving*, and *support strategies. Global reading strategies* are carefully planned by learners to manage and monitor their reading. *Problem-solving strategies* are employed by readers to solve problems of understanding that may arise during the reading of a text. *Support strategies* are used to aid comprehension of the reading materials.

Though some studies to date have investigated EFL learners' emotional intelligence as well as their metacognitive strategies (Ateş, 2019; Ebrahimi, Khoshsima, Zare-Behtash & Heydarnejad, 2018; Hasanzadeh & Shahmohamadi, 2011; Hashemi & Ghanizadeh, 2011; Nelson & Low, 1999; Pishghadam, 2009; Ranjbar Mohammadi, Saeidi & Ahangari, 2020; Taheri & Hedayat Zade, 2018; Taheri, Sadighi, Bagheri & Bavali, 2019), the relationship between these two concepts still remains to be further probed. More specifically, in the Iranian EFL learning context, reading skill is of great significance since developing this skill has been one of the prime objectives of EFL learning in the Iranian L2 learning curriculum. Thus, the current study is an attempt to fill this gap, at least partially, by investigating the relationship between learners' emotional intelligence, on the one hand, and their use of metacognitive reading strategies, on the other. As for reading metacognitive strategies, the study focuses on *global, problem-solving*, and *support* metacognitive strategies in reading.

Above all, one motive behind launching this study lies in the objective of finding factors that may contribute to involving learners in the actual use of learning strategies. This is because knowing about the existence of such strategies is one thing and actually using them is something else. Thus, in this study, the researchers have sought to explore the relationship between EI and the use of metacognitive reading strategies. The results could lead to further experimental studies to investigate the effects of EI enhancement on strategies use by learners in educational settings in general and L2 learning environments in particular.

Background

Emotional Intelligence Revisited

Current psychology tends to distance itself from the view that intelligence is only composed of cognitive abilities. Thorndike (1920) was one of the first who challenged this view. He coined the term 'social intelligence' and viewed this concept as the ability to understand and manage people and act wisely in human relationships (cited in Goleman, 1998). Wechsler (1940) was another prominent figure who emphasized the affective side of intelligence in the early 1940s. He asserted that intelligence was comprised of both 'non-intellective' and 'intellective' elements. As early as 1943, Wechsler hypothesized that 'non-intellective' elements were crucial for predicting a person's ability to succeed in life (Cherniss & Adler, 2000). Yet, it was not until Gardner's conception of 'multiple intelligences' in 1983 that the emotional and affective elements gained importance. He originally postulated seven types of intelligence including interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences, which, in part, paved the way for the development of EI studies.

Models of Emotional Intelligence

There is no single agreed upon definition of emotional intelligence. Substantial disagreements exist among researchers on exactly what terminology to use and how much of a person's behavior can be affected by EI. Currently, there are three main models of EI, which will be explained below.

The Ability Model of EI
Introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990), this EI model claims that emotions are useful sources of information that contribute to social interactions and relationships. Another claim is that individuals differ in their ability to process emotional information and to relate that information to the overall cognitive process.

The Trait Model of EI
Suggested by Petrides and Furnham (2001), this model proposed that the Ability Model belonged to the domain of cognitive ability, whereas the Trait Model fits within the realm of personality. The trait-based model of EI concerns "a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies" (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007, as cited in Cooper & Petrides, 2010, p. 449). Simply put, EI refers to individuals' perceptions of their own emotional abilities and is measured by individuals' self-report.

The Mixed Model of EI
The mixed model of emotional intelligence was popularized by Goleman (1995), who combined emotional intelligence qualities with other personality traits that are not related to emotion, intelligence, or emotional intelligence. In this model, researchers examined cognitive mental abilities as well as non-cognitive personality traits. Goleman's model outlines five main components of EI as follows:

1. Self-awareness: knowing one's emotions, goals, values, strengths, and weaknesses and using intuition to guide decisions
2. Self-regulation: controlling one's emotions and impulses and adapting to different circumstances
3. Social skill: managing relationships to move people in the desired direction
4. Empathy: considering others' feelings in decision-making
5. Motivation: being determined to achieve for the sake of achievement

The construct of emotional intelligence as operationally defined in this study via Bar-On's (1997) scale is in line with the mixed model of EI. The focus on this model of EI in the present study is due to the fact that it encompasses both cognitive and non-cognitive abilities, providing an elaborate framework of this construct.

Related Studies on EI, Metacognitive Strategies and L2 Learning

From a more general perspective of the topic under review, MacCann et al. (2020) and Perikova and Byzova (2019) explored the relationships between EI and academic performance and between EI and metacognitive awareness, respectively. Both studies found positive associations between EI and the respective variables (academic performance and metacognitive awareness). Several studies have been carried out to investigate the relationship between EI and language learning success (Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994; Nelson & Low, 1999). Taheri et al. (2019) found a significant correlation between EI, language learning strategies, and learning styles. Ebrahimi et al. (2018) examined the influence of enhancing Emotional Intelligence on the writing skill of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Their findings revealed a change both in the participants' EI and writing ability. Soodmand Afshar et al. (2016) found a positive correlation between L2 achievement and the variables of EI and strategy use. Strategy use and EI were also found to be strong predictors of L2 achievement. Taheri and Jadidi (2016) found that among the emotional intelligence components, *intrapersonal skill* had the highest relationship with components of learning strategies. Rahmani et al. (2013) also investigated the relationship between Iranian learners' EI and their affective and compensatory strategy use at the intermediate level. They found a significant relationship between EI and affective strategy use but they didn't observe a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and compensatory strategy use. In another study, Hasanzadeh and Shahmohamadi (2011) sought to find any possible relationship between emotional intelligence and foreign language learners' achievement in an Iranian context. The results indicated no relationship between total emotional intelligence and language achievement; however, some scales of emotional intelligence, i.e. *intrapersonal skills* and *general mood*, as well as some subscales of, i.e. *independence, self-assertion,* and *optimism*

were found to have a significant relationship with language achievement. Pishghadam (2009) investigated the role of emotional intelligence in second language learning. The participants consisted of 508 sophomores from four Iranian universities. He concluded that second language learning was strongly associated with several dimensions of emotional intelligence.

In a probe into the correlation between EFL students' emotional intelligence and their sense of self-efficacy beliefs, Hashemi and Ghanizadeh's (2011) findings revealed a significant relationship between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their self-efficacy beliefs. Furthermore, the results of the regression analysis revealed that *self-actualization* and *stress tolerance* (among other components of emotional intelligence) were the positive predictors of the learners' *self-efficacy*.

Some studies have focused on EI/metacognitive strategies and their relationships with one of the four language skills in an L2 learning context. Ranjbar Mohammadi et al. (2020) found that from among the components of self-regulated learning (SRL), cognitive and metacognitive strategies were the dominant predictors of reading comprehension and problem solving, respectively. Ateş (2019) found a positive correlation between EI and Turkish EFL learners' reading comprehension skill as well as a negative correlation between EI and the learners' reading anxiety. Nemat Tabrizi and Esmaeili (2016) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and reading comprehension for impulsive and reflective Iranian EFL learners. They found a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their reading comprehension. They also found that the Iranian impulsive EFL female students who possessed more degrees of emotional intelligence outperformed reflective students on reading comprehension. Majidi Dehkordi and Shirani Bidabadi's (2015) findings indicated that EI level was positively associated with reading strategy use.

Taheri and Hedayat Zade (2018) examined the contribution of metacognitive strategies to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' listening comprehension performance and their metacognitive awareness. Their results revealed that the performance of the participants improved dramatically after the treatment sessions in which they were taught how to apply metacognitive strategies in their listening tasks. They also found that strategy training played a significant role in improving the metacognitive awareness of the participants. In another study on the correlation between emotional intelligence and Iranian EFL learners' use of listening metacognitive strategies, Alavinia and Mollahossein (2012) came up with a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and the use of listening metacognitive strategies. Furthermore, they found a significant relationship between the five subscales of emotional intelligence and the use of monitoring strategies on the one hand and a significant relationship between *interpersonal skills* and *evaluating strategies* on the other. Ebrahimi et al. (2018) conducted a study on the influence of EI on speaking skill. They found that both EQ and the speaking skill of the learners in the treatment group were developed in a significant way.

To help complete the picture of empirical studies above as well as to fill the gap mentioned earlier, this study was launched to investigate the correlation between EI and the use of metacognitive reading strategies. To achieve this purpose, the following main research question and the subsequent sub-questions were posed:

Q: Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL students' emotional intelligence and their use of metacognitive reading strategies?

Sub-Q1: Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence scales and their use of *global* strategies?

Sub-Q2: Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence scales and their use of *problem-solving* strategies?

Sub-Q3: Is there a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence scales and their use of *support* strategies?

Sub-Q4: Which of the scales of emotional intelligence best predict the use of metacognitive reading strategies?

Methodology

Participants

The present research was conducted at Jahad Daneshgahi Language Institute (JDLI), Urmia, Iran. A total of 102 EFL learners from six intact classes were selected as the study participants through the convenience sampling procedure. The participants consisted of 66 females and 36 males who were all at the intermediate level (attending terms Inter 1 and Inter 2). Furthermore, the learners' age ranged between 18 and 27. The participants were initially 119 learners who were reduced to 102 learners, through the administration of a homogeneity test, i.e. the PET reading test. These participants were selected from the above-mentioned institute because they were learning English in the institute as EFL learners in the real sense of the concept of English as a foreign language since in such institutes the language skills and components are focused in a holistic approach to teach/learn the target language; another reason was that these participants were conveniently available to the researchers.

Instrumentation

In order to collect the required data, the researchers used three instruments which consisted of an emotional intelligence questionnaire, a metacognitive reading strategies questionnaire, and a test of reading comprehension. A detailed explanation of each instrument is provided below. Both questionnaires were Persian translation versions as the respondents were non-native speakers of English and could face difficulty understanding the questionnaire items.

Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire
In order to evaluate the participants' emotional intelligence, the researchers employed Bar-On's EQ-i test. This test is a 133-item self-report questionnaire that was developed by Bar-On in 1997 to assess socially and emotionally intelligent behavior. Bar-On modified the original version of the test and reduced its size so that the modified version encompassed only 117 questions. Moreover, through later modifications, the questionnaire was reduced in size by eliminating the questions that were considered as ambiguous and irrelevant to Iranian culture by Samouei (2003). This revised version of the questionnaire that consists of 90 questions was employed to gather data in the present study. According to Samouei (2003), as cited by Vaezi and Fallah (2012), the test had sufficient internal consistency, test-retest reliability, and construct validity. Based on her findings, the reported Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.93 and the reliability index gained through the odd-even, split-half method was 0.88. In this study, the Cronbach alpha for the questionnaire was calculated at .84. The questionnaire employed a five-point Likert-scale format ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. The test includeed five composite scales and fifteen subscales of emotional intelligence as indicated in Table 1 below.

It is worth mentioning that the Cronbach alpha indexes for the subscales of this instrument were calculated and turned out to be .91 for *intrapersonal skills*, .88 for *interpersonal skills*, .93 for *stress management*, .87 for *adaptability*, and .88 for *general mood* in this study.

The Survey of Reading Strategies Questionnaire (SORS)
This questionnaire, which was developed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), was based on the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI). Mokhtari (1998-2000) designed the MARSI to measure the type and frequency of reading strategies used by native speakers of English. Mokhtari and Sheorey adapted MARSI by revising it so that it could be used with adult second or foreign language learners. Their revisions involved refining the wording of several items to make them easily comprehensible to ESL students, adding translation from one language into another and thinking in both the native and target languages, and removing two items dealing with summarizing information and discussing what one reads with others (see Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) reported that SORS was extensively field-tested with several students (native and non-native speaking) and was found to have well-established psychometric properties including validity and reliability (Alpha = .93).

As a further adaptation in the present research context, the Persian version of SORS was used for measuring the participants' perceived use of metacognitive reading strategies. The SORS is a 30-item questionnaire using

Table 1

Scales and Subscales of EI as Measured by Bar-On's Questionnaire

Scale of EI	Subscales of EI
Intrapersonal Skills	Self-Regard
	Emotional Self-Awareness
	Assertiveness
	Independence
	Self-Actualization
Interpersonal Skills	Empathy
	Social Responsibility
	Interpersonal Relationship
Stress Management	Stress Tolerance
	Impulse Control
Adaptability	Reality-Testing
	Flexibility
	Problem-solving
General Mood	Optimism
	Happiness

a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1= 'I never or almost never do this' to 5= 'I always or almost always do this' (Mokhtari & Sheorey 2002, p. 4). The items of the questionnaire were translated into Persian so that students could easily understand the questions. The Persian version of the questionnaire was developed through the process of translation and back translation: the questionnaire was translated to Persian; the questionnaire was then rendered back to English by an M.A. student majoring in EFL at the University of Zanjan, Iran, to distinguish any mismatch between the original version and translated one. The new questionnaire was piloted with 28 students at Jahad Daneshgahi Language Institute of Urmia, Iran, and the reliability index gained through Cranach's alpha was 0.82. Furthermore, the validity of the questionnaire was approved by two professors at the University of Zanjan, Iran.

According to Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002, p. 4), SORS measures three categories:

- Global Reading Strategies (GLOB) refers to "intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading".
- Problem-solving Strategies (PROB) includes "actions and procedures that the readers use while working directly with the text. These are localized and focused techniques used when problems develop in understanding textual information".
- Support Reading Strategies (SUP) involves "basic support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text".

It is worth mentioning that the Cronbach alpha indexes for the subscales of this instrument were calculated and turned out to be .88 for *global reading strategies*, .83 for *problem-solving strategies*, and .78 for *support reading strategies* in the present study.

Reading Comprehension Test

A reading test had to be administered to evaluate the participants' reading comprehension. Since the participants were intermediate-level EFL learners, the reading part of the Preliminary English Test (PET) (Cambridge Objective PET, 2010) was employed for this purpose. The main reason for evaluating reading comprehension was to homogenize the participants in terms of their reading comprehension so as to reduce the effect of proficiency when using reading metacognitive strategies.

The PET is an intermediate-level standardized exam developed by Cambridge ESOL. The Reading part of the test is comprised of 35 questions and arranged in five parts. In part 1, the participants read five short texts (signs, notes, emails, etc.) and chose the best answer among the choices (A, B, or C). In part 2 of the test, they encountered five descriptions of people, followed by eight short passages in which they were supposed to match each person to one of the texts. Part 3 consisted of a longer, factual text that was preceded by ten single-sentence statements. The participants had to decide whether each statement is correct or incorrect. Part 4 of the test included a text that was followed by five multiple choice questions in which students chose the best answer (A, B, C, or D). In part 5, there was a cloze-test with ten numbered spaces. Four possible answers were provided for each numbered space and students had to choose the right one. The Cronbach alpha for this test was calculated at .80 in the present research context.

Procedures

The study was carried out during regular class time in six classes at the Jahad Daneshgahi Language Institute of Urmia, Iran. The process of conducting the research was almost the same in all of the classes. Prior to the administration of the tests, permission was obtained from the learners' instructors. The students were assured that the results would be handled in a confidential manner. The students, then, were provided with a brief explanation of the concepts of emotional intelligence and metacognitive strategies. They were also informed about what they were required to do in the study. Furthermore, to encourage learners to take the test and answer the items, the researchers assured them that the scores of the reading comprehension, emotional intelligence, and metacognitive strategies would be announced based on the number assigned to each student (as written on the exam paper). The results were announced a week after the administration of the tests.

The three instruments were all administered to the participants in a single session. First, the reading section of the PET was administered to the learners. Forty-five minutes were allocated for answering this test. Next, the questionnaire of metacognitive strategies (SORS) was distributed among the students. It took about 15 minutes to fill out the questionnaire. At this time, a short break was given to the learners to rest. Finally, the emotional intelligence questionnaire was given, which took the participants 20 minutes to complete. The reading comprehension test and two questionnaires were scored and the scores on the reading comprehension test were used to homogenize the subjects. This was accomplished by omitting the outliers, and only those whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were used in later analysis of the data.

Data Analysis

After the administration of the reading test and the questionnaires, three sets of data were gathered i.e. reading comprehension scores, metacognitive reading strategies and its components scores, and emotional intelligence and its scales and subscales. It should be mentioned that since the present study was concerned with EI and its scales, the scores of the subscales were not used. Based on the aforementioned research questions and null hypotheses, the following data analysis procedures were carried out using SPSS 19:

1. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was utilized to find any probable relationship between total emotional intelligence scores and total scores of using metacognitive reading strategies.
2. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to explore the potential relationship between the five scales of EI and the use of *global, problem-solving,* and *support* metacognitive strategies in reading.
3. Multiple regression analyses were used to find whether scales of emotional intelligence could predict the use of metacognitive reading strategies.

Data Analysis Results

Results for the Main Research Question

The main research question of the present study sought to explore the relationship between EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their use of metacognitive reading strategies. It was hypothesized that no significant relationship exists between learners' EI and their use of metacognitive reading strategies. In order to explore this relationship, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was utilized. The results are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2
Emotional Intelligence and Metacognitive Reading Strategies

		Total Emotional Intelligence	**Total Metacognitive Reading Strategies**
		Correlations	
Total Emotional Intelligence	Pearson Correlation	1	.472**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	102	102
Total Metacognitive Reading Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.472**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	102	102

As is evident from the table, based on Cohen's (1988) ratings of r-values, a moderate and positive correlation was found between the participants' emotional intelligence and their use of metacognitive reading strategies (r = .472, n = 102, p< .0005). Therefore, the null hypothesis for the main research question was rejected.

Results for the First Sub-question

The first sub-question aimed at finding a relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence scales and their use of 'global' metacognitive reading strategies. To this end, another Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was conducted. Significantly positive and moderate correlations (see Cohen, 1988 above) were found between the participants' EI scales of *intrapersonal skills* (r = .426, n = 102, p< .0005), *interpersonal skills* (r = .454, n = 102, p< .0005), *adaptability* (r = .298, n = 102, p< .002), and *general mood* (r = .415, n = 102, p< .0005) and their use of *global* metacognitive strategies in reading. However, no significant correlation was found between their *stress management* and *global* metacognitive strategies in reading. Thus, the respective null hypothesis was rejected regarding all the scales of EI except for the Stress Management scale.

Results for the Second Sub-question

The second sub-question was meant to explore any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence scales and their use of 'problem-solving' metacognitive reading strategies. For this purpose, the researchers conducted another Pearson product-moment correlation analysis. Small, moderate, and high positive correlations (see Cohen, 1988 above) existed between the participants' EI scales of *intrapersonal skills* (r = .285, n = 102, p< .004), *interpersonal skills* (r = .474, n = 102, p< .0005), and *general mood* (r = .510, n = 102, p< .0005) and their *problem-solving* metacognitive strategies in reading. However, no significant correlation was found between their *stress management* and *adaptability* and their *problem-solving* metacognitive strategies in reading. Thus, the respective null hypothesis was rejected for the three EI scales of *intrapersonal skills*, *interpersonal skills*, and *general mood*, but not for the scales of *stress management* and *adaptability*.

Results for the Third Sub-question

In the third sub-question, the researchers sought to explore any relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence scales and their use of *support* metacognitive reading strategies. A Pearson Product-moment Correlation analysis resulted in moderate and positive correlations (see Cohen, 1988 above) between the participants' EI scales of *intrapersonal skills* (r = .317, n = 102, p< .001) , *interpersonal skills* (r = .336, n = 102, p< .001) , and *general mood* (r = .460, n = 102, p< .0005) and their use of *support* metacognitive strategies in reading. However, no significant correlation was found between their *stress management* and *adaptability* and their *support* metacognitive strategies in reading. Therefore, the respective null hypothesis was rejected for the three EI scales of *intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills,* and *general mood,* but not for the scales of *stress management and adaptability.*

Results for the Fourth Sub-question

The fourth sub-question sought to explore the best predictor of EFL learners' use of metacognitive reading strategies. In other words, it tried to determine whether scales of emotional intelligence could predict the use of metacognitive reading strategies. For this purpose, multiple regression analyses were used to answer the question.

The Pearson correlations showed that the dependent variable of metacognitive reading strategies use correlated with the participants' *intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability,* and their *general mood* (p<0.05). However, the correlation between their metacognitive reading strategies and *stress management* did not reach a significant level. Table 3 shows the multiple correlation coefficients (R).

Table 3
Multiple Correlation Coefficients

Model Summary [b]				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1 1	.600[a]	.360	.327	.45317

a. Predictors: (Constant), General Mood, Stress Management, Interpersonal Skills, Adaptability, Intrapersonal Skills
b. Dependent Variable: Total Metacognitive Reading Strategies

As seen in the table above, the value given under the heading Adjusted R Square (.327) indicates the amount of the variance in the dependent variable (metacognitive reading strategies use) explained by the model including the variables of emotional intelligence scales. Stated in percentage terms, 32 percent of the variance in the use of metacognitive reading strategies is explained by the model, which is quite a remarkable share. Regression analysis revealed significant predictions (p < 0.05). (see Table 4)

Table 4
ANOVA Results for the Fourth Sub-question

ANOVA[b]					
Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	11.098	5	2.220	10.808	.000[a]
Residual	19.715	96	.205		
Total	30.812	101			

a. Predictors: (Constant), General Mood, Stress Management, Interpersonal Skills, Adaptability, Intrapersonal Skills
b. Dependent Variable: Total Metacognitive Reading Strategies

As revealed in the table above, the independent variables of *intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, stress management, adaptability,* and *general mood* improve the accuracy of the prediction of the participants' metacognitive reading strategies significantly. The following table shows the contribution of the independent variables to the model.

Table 5
Results for *Independent Variable Contributions*

Model	Coefficients[a] Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	1.197	.398		3.009	.003
Intrapersonal Skills	.005	.005	.122	.884	.379
Interpersonal Skills	.012	.005	.232	2.237	.028
Stress Management	-.012	.007	-.179	-1.711	.090
Adaptability	.004	.008	.055	.456	.649
General Mood	.027	.009	.361	3.054	.003

a. Dependent Variable: Total Metacognitive Reading Strategies use
(Table 5 continued)

Among all the independent variables, *general mood* made the strongest unique contribution to the dependent variable (Beta = .36), and the smallest contribution went to *adaptability* variable (Beta = .055). In addition, only *general mood* (p = .003) and *interpersonal skills* (p = .028) made significant unique contributions to the prediction of the dependent variable.

Discussion

The results indicated a moderate and positive relationship between the participants' emotional intelligence and their use of metacognitive reading strategies. The theoretical implication of this overall finding can be the notion that emotional intelligence across its three models mentioned earlier is notably linked to learners' emotional and cognitive capacity to deploy the respective strategies (metacognitive reading strategies in this research context) in order to enhance their learning rate. Thus, importance should be attached to empowering learners' EI capabilities to apply effective learning strategies for optimal acquisition of the target language. Moreover, regarding the components of EI, *interpersonal skills, intrapersonal skills,* and *general mood'* were found to be correlated with three components of metacognitive reading strategies (*global, problem-solving, support*), with the correlation rates varying between small, moderate, and high. *adaptability* had an almost moderate correlation with *global* strategies; however, no significant correlation was found between *stress management* and the components of metacognitive reading strategies (*global, problem-solving, support*). The latter finding was contrary to the researchers' expectations. This might be due to the fact that in some reading contexts such as extensive reading or classroom free-reading activities, the readers are not under much stress. However, for other reading contexts, this may not hold true. Thus, it could be argued that the respondents in the present study might not have been under much stress in their own reading context. Nevertheless, the finding still requires further study before it can be regarded as a conclusive research finding in this regard.

To highlight the high correlation rate (based on Cohen's ratings reported earlier) in the above-mentioned relationships, it may be that the high correlation between the *general mood* component of EL (happiness and optimism) and *problem-solving* strategies might imply that higher level of happiness and optimism among the learners may increase the rate of their use of these strategies which are, by definition, employed by readers to solve problems of understanding that may arise during the reading of a text. Likewise, varying degrees of moderate correlation rates between the components of EI and the three components of metacognitive reading strategies can imply that the *intrapersonal*, *interpersonal*, and *general mood* components of EI can be said to have a notable role in developing the use of metacognitive reading strategies by L2 learners. Since these implications come out of this correlation study only, further studies are, therefore, suggested to be launched to put these findings under further investigation via studies using mixed-method designs so that they can be more readily generalized to the target populations and yield more tangible and pedagogically useful implications in L2 learning contexts.

Concerning the main research question, the results showed a moderate and positive correlation between the participants' emotional intelligence and their use of metacognitive reading strategies. This finding is in line with other similar findings in the literature (Aghasafari, 2006; Alavinia & Mollahossein, 2012; Hasanzadeh & Shahmohamadi, 2011; Majidi Dehkordi & Shirani Bidabadi, 2015; Rahmani et al., 2013; Soodmand Afshar et al., 2016; Taheri & Jadidi, 2016). Similarly, these research findings also confirmed positive relationships between EI and different aspects of L2 learning as well as the use of some learning strategies (see the details under Related Studies above).

The findings are also compatible with those of Alavinia and Mollahossein (2012), who found relationships between *interpersonal skills* and the three components of listening metacognitive strategies. However, they contradict their findings in that they found a significant relationship between *intrapersonal skills, stress management,* and *the monitoring* listening strategy. Furthermore, their results revealed a relationship between the two skills of *adaptability* and *general mood* and *the planning* and *monitoring* listening strategies. These contradictions indicate that there is a need for further research into the relationship between EI scales and strategies.

As the findings of the study revealed, all EI scales predicted the use of metacognitive reading strategies. The strongest predictors of using metacognitive strategies were *general mood* and *interpersonal skills*, respectively; and the weakest predictor was *adaptability*. This finding is in line with Alavinia and Mollahossein (2012) in that in both studies the *interpersonal skills* scale was found to be the strongest predictor of using metacognitive strategies. Nevertheless, it contradicts their findings that *adaptability* was a strong predictor of using metacognitive strategies. This difference might be the result of the different contexts in which the studies were conducted.

It is worth mentioning that among the three categories of the metacognitive reading strategies, the most frequently used strategies belonged to the *problem-solving reading strategies* with an overall mean of 3.78. These strategies to which eight items out of 30 on the 5-point Likert scale were dedicated to actions and procedures such as slow and careful reading, adjusting reading speed, picturing or visualizing information, re-reading, guessing the meaning of unknown words or phrases, etc. The next most frequently used strategies belonged to the *global reading strategies* (M = 3.52) which comprised 13 items out of 30 on the scale. These strategies included carefully planned techniques such as goal-setting, using background and world knowledge, taking an overall view of the text, deciding what to read or not to read closely, using the tables and figures in the text, using context clues, using typographical features like boldface and italics, critical evaluation, etc. Finally, the least frequently used strategies belonged to the *support reading strategies* (M = 3.39) which consisted of nine items out of 30 on the scale. These strategies included basic support mechanisms such as note-taking, reading aloud, underlining or circling information, using reference materials (e.g., a dictionary), paraphrasing ideas, finding relationships among ideas, translating into the native language, thinking about information in both English and the native language, etc.

Conclusion

The findings of this study revealed a positive relationship between learners' emotional intelligence and their use of metacognitive reading strategies. Furthermore, *general mood* and *interpersonal* strategies, among other scales of EI, made significant contributions to the prediction of metacognitive reading strategies use.

One limitation of this study is that the data was drawn from learners at a single language institute in Urmia, Iran. Thus, the majority of the learners were native speakers of Azeri. Learners from various parts of Iran may have different cultural backgrounds; consequently, they may enjoy different levels of EI and might use metacognitive strategies differently. Furthermore, the participants were at the intermediate level of their learning English. Hence, one should be cautious in generalizing the findings of this study. Additionally, the number of participants was limited to 102 EFL learners after the homogenization process. With more participants, more reliable and generalizable results can be obtained. Finally, since the participants did not receive any training regarding the use of metacognitive reading strategies, the relationship between EI and using metacognitive strategies, might have been affected.

The present study may offer some implications for EFL teachers, learners, teacher trainers, materials developers, and curriculum designers. EFL teachers can classify learners into separate groups regarding their emotional intelligence and teach them metacognitive strategies according to their EI type. Together with teacher mentoring programs on learner EI and metacognitive reading strategies (see Yaumi, Sirate, & Pakat, 2018), this can help learners improve their emotional intelligence and, hence, use more strategies while reading. EFL teachers can also instruct learners to be more social in the classroom and maintain an optimistic outlook toward reading tasks. Creating an atmosphere in which learners have social relationships with each other can enhance their interpersonal skills.

Language teacher trainers can instruct EFL teachers to take learners' emotional intelligence into account. They can also help them adopt appropriate teaching methods that are in line with learners' EI levels in order to enhance the effective use of metacognitive strategies. Furthermore, they can instruct them to use better mothods for enhancing learners' emotional intelligence. Materials developers and curriculum designers should pay heed to the role of emotional intelligence and include programs to enhance learners' EI in their syllabuses.

Acknowledgments

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The Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale: Preliminary Tests of Validity and Reliability

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Although anxiety in the foreign language learning context has been studied extensively, the anxiety experienced by foreign language teachers, who are important stakeholders of classroom contexts and language learners themselves, seems to be overlooked. While research mainly focuses on foreign language anxiety in a learning context, there is not sufficient research to contextualize foreign language teaching anxiety (FLTA). In addition, in the current literature, few studies were performed to measure FLTA. In light of this, this study aims to present the preliminary results of the validity and reliability of the Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS). A background questionnaire and the FLTAS were administered to 100 senior pre-service teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL), before performing Cronbach's Alpha and exploratory factor analysis. The findings showed that the scale obtains a high reliability coefficient and internal consistency in a five-factor solution. The study ends with recommendations for further research.

Keywords: The Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale, language teaching, anxiety, reliability, validity

Introduction

Language teachers' emotions constitute a bourgeoning field of research acknowledging the emotional labor of the profession; accordingly, Mercer and Gregersen (2020) stated that language teaching, as inherently emotional work, can generate feelings of anger, frustration, disappointment, and anxiety as well as positive feelings such as happiness, excitement, delight, and joy. In line with the research focusing on language teachers' emotional labor, the current study focuses on a specific teacher emotion, foreign language teaching anxiety (FLTA). While many studies have appeared on foreign language anxiety concerning its identification, causes, and effects in the context of learning, FLTA has not drawn much attention among researchers (Tüm, 2012, 2015).

The same tendency of investigating predominantly the psychology of language learners while neglecting the psychology of language teachers exists in the field of language learning psychology (Mercer, 2018). In a narrower focus, while foreign language anxiety from the learners' perspective and the ways to measure it in a valid and reliable way have been popular research issues (e.g. Horwitz, 2010; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994), little research appeared on the complex nature of foreign language teaching anxiety (Horwitz, 1996). It is mostly associated with perceiving language teachers as speakers of the target language in the classroom context (Horwitz, 1996). This view is surely correct considering previous research findings showing the relationship between anxiety and performance in the target language (Woodrow, 2006) or listening comprehension (Bekleyen, 2009; Elkhafaifi, 2005). Among these, some studies reported foreign language anxiety among participants who are language teachers or teacher candidates (Bekleyen, 2009; Tüm, 2015). Nevertheless, no rigorous measurement tool is available to investigate the anxiety of foreign language teachers. The current study intends to fill this gap by providing a reliable and valid tool to measure FLTA.

Measuring FLTA is potentially important to understand a major negative emotion for foreign language teachers, anxiety (Mercer, 2018); thus, more light can be shed on the emotional labor of foreign language teachers and its

potential impact on teacher attrition (Acheson, Taylor, & Luna, 2016). Moreover, research has showed that learners and teachers are not even aware of the debilitating and subtle factors of anxiety (Tran, Baldauf, & Moni, 2013). But Aydın (2016) showed that factors underlying FLTA are not necessarily related to the anxiety of teachers as foreign language speakers. Instead, many factors that are related to teaching a foreign language in a classroom context appeared. Therefore, in this paper, we present the Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale (FLTAS) to address this gap by designing a scale to measure FLTA and obtain data about its validity and reliability.

A brief overlook to foreign language (teaching) anxiety

Theoretically, anxiety is one of the most commonly studied affective factors in the field of applied linguistics. Anxiety experienced by language learners has been categorized into three main types. First, Scovel (1978) defined trait anxiety to conceptualize the dispositional type of anxiety, anxiety as a behavioral pattern. Second, state anxiety is suggested by Spielberger (1983) to explain anxiety that emerges as a temporary emotion attributed to a particular moment and situation. Finally, situation-specific anxiety is proposed to conceptualize anxiety that is associated with specific situations and events. Foreign language classroom anxiety as proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986) is described as a situation-specific anxiety. They also proposed three constructs that constitute it: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. Thus far, their theory provides a solid understanding of anxiety experienced by foreign language learners. This situation-specific anxiety is naturally experienced by foreign language teachers, who are also life-long language learners. However, this theoretical framework needs to be revised to bring a more holistic explanation of the anxiety that foreign language teachers experience in the classroom context.

FLTA, first discussed by Horwitz (1996), was not seen apart from anxiety in the foreign language-learning context conventionally. In other words, foreign language teachers experience anxiety while teaching in the classroom mostly due to the fact that they are also language learners. This perspective was also echoed by Mercer (2018), who suggested that anxiety as a negative teacher emotion might be provoked among non-native foreign language teachers resulting from their low language proficiencies and/or self-efficacy. Despite their importance, these views do not sufficiently underscore the complexity of FLTA. While Horwitz (1996) claimed that teachers experience anxiety because they are still language learners, Aydın (2016) stated that anxiety in the learning context may differ from anxiety in the teaching context (p. 629). Merç (2011) noted that FLTA has not been defined in the related literature and underlined several factors that included classroom management, specific language teaching approaches, or power-related issues such as supervisor-teacher relations. Drawing on this issue, Aydın (2016) defined FLTA in his qualitative study as "an emotional and affective state that a teacher feels tension due to personal, perceptional, motivational and technical concerns before, during and after teaching activities" (p. 639). In short, the controversy regarding the issue of FLTA remains, and it is evident that the contextual factors underlying FLTA need to be investigated. By this investigation, a more holistic understanding that goes beyond the view perceiving FLTA as a type of foreign language anxiety experienced by language learners can be reached. That is because it is necessary to perform descriptive studies to see the relationship between the levels of foreign language teaching anxiety and the factors that may influence the levels. To this end, it is obvious that a measurement tool needs to be developed in order to see its components and to utilize the scale for a deeper understanding of the relationships between anxiety levels and potential variables in a descriptive research context.

Literature Review

Since there was a focus in language education on learner-centeredness, psychological studies within the field mostly aimed to empower learners in language learning, whereas little attention has been paid to FLTA (Mercer, Oberdorfer, & Saleem, 2016). Similarly, Mercer (2018) underlined the imbalance between the research focused on learners and teachers and argued that this imbalance should be addressed. They argued that there is an urgent need to have better insight into teachers' psychological responses to education. Furthermore, Mercer et al. (2016) stated that positive "teacher psychology is not only beneficial for teachers themselves, but teachers' well-being is vital for learners, too" (p. 216). However, the current literature shows that language teachers suffer from a variety of stressors that affect the positive psychology of language teachers. Below, studies on language

teachers' emotions and various stressors are synthesized. Then, the literature in a narrower focus on FLTA is presented.

Research shows that there are certain stressors that are specific to foreign language teachers (Cowie, 2011; Wieczorek, 2014, 2016). This is probably because foreign language teaching requires many non-native teachers to use a language within an instructional context. Since using a language is a skill-based competence (Mercer et al., 2016), the low performance of non-native foreign language teachers can arguably lead to foreign language anxiety among those teachers, which eventually has negative consequences on the process of language teaching (Horwitz, 1996).

Specifically, studies that regarded FLTA as an affective factor for foreign language learners mainly used a qualitative research design and focused on the factors that cause FLTA. In addition to the use of the target language (Horwitz, 1996; İpek, 2016; Mercer, 2018; Tüm, 2012, 2015), some other factors include insufficient grammatical knowledge, difficulties with time management (Numrich, 1996), mentor observations, low levels of language proficiency, problems related to classroom management (Kim & Kim, 2004) and a lack of familiarity with technology (Ali Merç, 2011). Moreover, the fear of failure (İpek, 2006, 2016), low levels of learner proficiency (Kongchan & Singhasiri, 2008), using the native language while teaching (İpek, 2016), and the lack of preparation (Yoon, 2012) are related factors that may provoke FLTA. Furthermore, research indicates that FLTA is interrelated with pedagogical competence and the use of the target language (Tüm, 2012) while Güngör and Yaylı (2012) demonstrated that FLTA was not correlated with self-efficacy.

Two earlier studies were noted regarding scale development in terms of FLTA. In the first one, a holistic scale that assessed FLTA was developed by Kim and Kim (2004). They administered a 30-item test to 147 Korean in-service EFL teachers. In the study, while Cronbach's Alpha was calculated as .96, no factor analysis was performed. Therefore, serious concerns may emerge in regard to the validity of the scale. In the second scale development study, Ipek (2006) constructed a 26-item, five-factor scale as a result of a two-phase doctoral dissertation study. The first phase was a qualitative study to compose the item pool for the scale. Based on a diary study with 32 non-native EFL teachers, a preliminary scale with 42 items was structured. After the pilot test, the final version of the scale was administered to 241 in-service non-native EFL teachers. The reliability of the scale was calculated at .92; moreover, a series of factor analyses reduced the number of items to 26. In this comprehensive inquiry, FLTA was discussed as a teacher affect that is related to factors such as teaching a particular language skill, worrying about target language performance, making mistakes, being compared to colleagues, and using their native language instead of the target language. Here, it is also important to note that Merç (2010) investigated the experiences of pre-service EFL teachers and developed a scale in his dissertation called the Foreign Language Student-Teacher Anxiety Scale. However, his scale was limited to pre-service teachers.

In conclusion, several issues drawing on the existing literature and prior discussion on FLTA guided this study. First, while the literature mainly focuses on anxiety in a language-learning context rather than teaching context, there is a strong need to contextualize FLTA as a complex construct that includes aspects of both the teacher as a language learner/user and the teacher as an instructor. A measurement tool as FLTAS can include multiple factors as perspectives to better understand the complex phenomenon of FLTA. For this purpose, a new measurement tool should be developed since only one study has focused on the reliability of the scales that aim to measure FLTA and there are no studies regarding validity. Second, given that the learning and teaching contexts are different, valid and reliable tools should be developed to perform descriptive studies. In this way, it will be possible to reach a comprehensive definition of FLTA. To conclude, this study aims to present preliminary results of the development of an FLTAS in terms of reliability and validity. The paper consists of the initial findings of a longer project that aimed to redefine FLTA and contribute to the ongoing discussions on teachers' emotions with a specific focus on FLTA from a post-positivist perspective. The findings of the pilot study and preliminary tests of the FLTAS are demonstrated. Having said that, two research aims drove the current study. First, we wanted to measure the reliability scores of FLTAS. Second, the factor structure of the FLTAS was investigated and discussed in the light of the related theoretical framework.

Methodology

Participants

The participants in this study were 100 senior pre-service EFL teachers enrolled in a state university in Turkey. Of the participants, 71 were female and 29 were male. The gender distribution was a reflection of the overall population in the Department of English Language Teaching at the research site. Their mean age was 22.4 with a range of 21 to 28. The participation criteria included at least one semester of teaching practice. Given the practicum practice in Turkey, all of the participants had taught more than one semester before participating in the current study.

All of the participants were senior pre-service teachers who had their teaching practicum during the fall and spring semesters of the 2017-2018 academic year. This means they had school experience including teaching practice at various state schools. In the Turkish context, pre-service EFL teachers are undergraduate students, who study in an eight-semester English Language Teaching BA program. Students may start teaching in their fifth semester as community service, which is a part of their formal studies. Their practicum starts in the seventh semester and continues until their last semester of their undergraduate program; accordingly, they observe and teach EFL in public schools designated by the administration of the local public school districts. Therefore, senior pre-service teachers had at least one semester of classroom EFL teaching experience by the time the data were collected.

Procedure

The study consisted of three main phases: (1) qualitative data collection, (2) designing and administering the FLTAS, and (3) statistical procedure. The procedure of the scale development framework suggested by DeVellis (2016) was followed for the FLTAS. The three phases that constituted this procedure are as follows.

Phase 1: Qualitative data collection
To obtain items for the FLTAS, a qualitative data collection procedure was carried out, which was reported in the previous study authored by Aydın (2016). The participant group in this step consisted of 60 pre-service teachers of EFL who were studying in the English Language Department (ELT) of a state university. The group contained 32 female (51.7%) and 29 (48.3%) male students with a 21.6 mean age within the range of 20 and 28. The first data collection tool was a background survey examining the participants' ages and gender. These variables were specifically investigated because age (e.g. Dewaele, 2007; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999) and gender (e.g. Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau, & Dewaele, 2016) were found to significantly influence foreign language learner anxiety but little is known about their influence on FLTA. Second, essay papers, reflections, and semi-structured interviews were utilized to collect qualitative data. The participants reflected systematically on their teaching activities with respect to what they learned, how they felt about their teaching performances, problems they encountered in their practices, and the strategies they developed to overcome these problems (if any). The first author supervised the participants during the data collection procedure, interviewed them, and instructed the participants on other essay papers and reflections. All data were collected in participants' native language (Turkish), and translations were member-checked with the designated participant for validity purposes before they were used as data excerpts in the study. As the participants were pre-service EFL teachers and felt proficient enough to check the data that were related to them.

The procedure of this stage included instruction, practice, data collection, and analysis. In other words, the participants were instructed about general topics on teaching EFL from a theoretical perspective. Throughout the practicum when they are assigned to teach in actual classroom settings, the participants wrote reflections and essay papers. They were also interviewed regarding specific details about their teaching activities, their performance, the problems encountered, and the strategies to solve the potential problems. The reason for using the three data sources was to ensure the trustworthiness of the data. After the statements related to teaching anxiety were found, the data were transferred into three concept maps. Since the triangulation indicated that the data obtained was trustworthy and valid, the data from the three concept maps were combined and listed. Below, Figure 1 is a sample concept map.

Figure 1
Sample concept map as shown in Aydın (2016, p. 635)
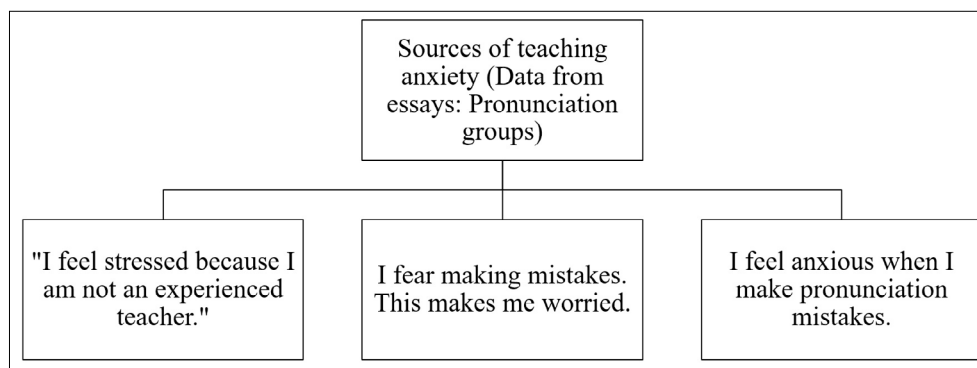
As reported in the study, the author indicated that several anxiety-provoking factors such as personality aspects, perceived proficiency and language skills, fear of negative evaluation (both as a language speaker and as a teacher), teaching demotivation and amotivation, lack of experience and technical and technological concerns emerged (Aydın, 2016). Following the content analysis of the data, an array of sources of teaching anxiety were also presented (p. 636) as in the following list:

- Lack of teaching experience,
- Fear of making mistakes,
- Lack of learner motivation and engagement
- Teacher personality
- Lack of content knowledge
- Time management
- Perceived language proficiency
- Perceived difficulty of the target content according to the learners
- Level of learner proficiency
- Fear of negative evaluation
- Logistical concerns

Drawing and building upon this earlier study published as a part of the same research agenda followed by the current study, the construction of the FLTAS began. The process continued as described in the following phases.

Phase 2: Designing and administering the FLTAS
From the data obtained from the qualitative research, 45 items in relation to teaching anxiety comprised the item pool and were utilized in the FLTAS. As suggested by DeVellis (2016), the 45 items were written to reflect the purpose of the FLTAS. As for the response format of the items, a Likert scale ranging from one to five (never=1, rarely=2, sometimes=3, often=4, always=5) was utilized. These 45 items on the Likert scale constituted the pilot form of the FLTAS.

The pilot form was reviewed by two external experts who had experience teaching English as a foreign language. One of them was a native speaker EFL teacher, whereas the other was an experienced non-native EFL teacher. They agreed upon the comprehensibility of the items as well as their scope.

Phase 3: Statistical procedure
The data collected were analyzed via the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, v. 21.0) software. After participants' gender frequencies were found, the mean score for the participants' age was calculated. Then, the calculation of Cronbach's Alpha was performed to determine the extent to which the items in the FLTAS represented reliability. Finally, an exploratory factor analysis was carried out to see the extent to which the FLTAS reflected the construct validity. To accomplish this, principal component analysis and the Varimax method were performed. After this step, 18 items that did not show function or relate to any factor were removed from the scale, leaving 27 items in the FLTAS (See Appendix A).

Results

Descriptive data

Within the range of 27 to 135, the range of scores obtained from the data set was from 32 to 126 with a mean score of 70.89. The range value is 4 for all of the items within the range of 1 and 5. The standard deviation was 21.80. Below, the descriptive details for each item in the FLTAS are given.

Table 1
Descriptive results for the items in the FLTAS (n=100)

Factors	Item Numbers	Items	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation
Self-perception of language proficiency	9	Making mistakes while I am speaking makes me feel embarrassed.	2.80	.13	1.27
	25	I feel tense when I have difficulties teaching grammar.	2.69	.12	1.23
	38	Unfamiliar topics in the textbook confuse me.	2.59	.13	1.33
	28	Unexpected questions from students put pressure on me.	2.58	.12	1.24
	10	Pronunciation mistakes while I am speaking make me nervous.	2.51	.13	1.30
	32	I feel embarrassed when some students speak English better than me.	2.47	.15	1.53
	18	I feel embarrassed because I am not good at English.	2.35	.13	1.34
	45	When I feel anxious in class, I have difficulty using English.	2.00	.12	1.23
	35	I am bothered when I have difficulty teaching the cultural content of English.	1.96	.10	1.01
	27	It makes me nervous to use English in classes.	1.94	.11	1.11
	36	I feel embarrassed when I think that I am not good at English.	1.64	.11	1.09
	8	I forget almost everything while I am teaching.	1.63	.08	.82
Teaching inexperience	4	I think my lack of teaching experience makes me nervous.	3.15	.12	1.20
	5	I fear making mistakes while I am teaching in the classroom.	3.15	.12	1.18
	1	I feel worried before entering the classroom.	2.70	.12	1.15
	2	I feel anxious when I teach in the classroom.	2.59	.11	1.06
	7	I feel tense when I am in the classroom.	2.54	.11	1.10
Lack of student interest	12	I feel discouraged when students lose interest in the activities.	3.26	.12	1.19
	30	I feel tense when students are not interested in the activities.	3.23	.12	1.18
	11	I feel stressed when students do not participate in the activities.	3.13	.13	1.33
	21	I feel upset because my students are bad at learning languages.	2.48	.12	1.21
Fear of negative evaluation	19	I feel panicked when my mentor-teacher observes me.	2.88	.15	1.48
	33	My mentors' observations make me nervous.	2.84	.14	1.45
	24	Students' negative comments about me make me nervous.	2.80	.13	1.33
Difficulties with time management	23	I feel tense when I am not prepared for class.	3.62	.12	1.24
	16	I am nervous when I finish the activities before the class ends.	2.53	.12	1.17
	15	I feel panicked when I cannot finish the class on time.	2.40	.11	1.13

Reliability

The values demonstrated that the reliability level of the FLTAS was acceptable. In other words, the internal consistency was found to be .95 for Cronbach's Alpha as illustrated in Table 2. Furthermore, Table 3 presents reliability scores for each factor constituting the FLTAS.

Table 2
Reliability coefficient for FLTAS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.950	27

Table 3
Reliability coefficients of FLTAS factors

Factors	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Self-perception of language proficiency	.931	12
Teaching inexperience	.874	5
Lack of student interest	.818	4
Fear of negative evaluation	.852	3
Difficulties with time management	.761	3

Validity

As previously noted, the FLTAS was analyzed by explanatory factor analysis. In this analysis, the principal components with Varimax rotation were performed. The items and their loadings on each factor, presented in Tables 4 and 5, indicated that the rotated factors explained 69.09% of the variance. In the FLTAS, where the 12 items loaded on the first factor explained 45.47%, the five items loaded on the second factor explained 53.57%. For the four items loaded on the third factor, the cumulative percentage was 59.70%, whereas, for the three items loaded on the fourth factor, the cumulative percentage was 65.07%. Finally, the three items loaded on the fifth factor explained 69.09%.

Table 4
Factor Loadings for Exploratory Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	18.51	45.47	45.47	18.51	45.47	45.47
2	3.30	8.10	53.57	3.30	8.10	53.57
3	2.50	6.13	59.70	2.50	6.13	59.70
4	2.19	5.37	65.07	2.19	5.37	65.07
5	1.64	4.02	69.09	1.64	4.02	69.09

In sum, a five-factor solution was found to account for 69.09% of the variance. The eigenvalues, the scree test, and the amount of variance explained showed that the FLTAS reached an optimal factor solution, as seen in Table 3 and Figure 2.

Table 5
Rotated component matrix

Factors	Item Numbers	Items	Component 1	2	3	4	5
Self-perception of language proficiency	45	When I feel anxious in class, I have difficulty using English.	**.828**	.084	-.025	.143	.133
	32	I feel embarrassed when some students speak English better than me.	**.744**	.257	.110	.247	.058
	18	I feel embarrassed because I am not good at English.	**.741**	.143	.191	.005	.151
	27	It makes me nervous to use English in class.	**.738**	.124	-.018	.090	.049
	38	Unfamiliar topics in the textbook confuse me.	**.722**	.077	.150	.215	.229
	36	I feel embarrassed when I think that I am not good at English.	**.715**	.205	.168	.284	.103
	10	Pronunciation mistakes while I am speaking make me nervous.	**.707**	.284	.200	.206	.005
	9	Making mistakes while I am speaking makes me feel embarrassed.	**.667**	.348	.255	.162	.025
	35	I am bothered when I have difficulty teaching the cultural content of English.	**.613**	-.070	.259	.223	.182
	28	Unexpected questions from students put pressure on me.	**.567**	.315	.195	.116	.309
	8	I forget almost everything while I am teaching.	**.567**	.385	.021	-.132	.237
	25	I feel tense when I have difficulty teaching grammar.	**.462**	.308	.360	.175	.419
Teaching inexperience	7	I feel tense when I am in the classroom.	.136	**.767**	.117	.187	.094
	1	I feel worried before entering the classroom.	.071	**.757**	.048	.191	.211
	2	I feel anxious when I teach in the classroom.	.242	**.742**	.137	.165	.215
	4	I think my lack of teaching experience makes me nervous.	.449	**.663**	.142	.209	.174
	5	I fear making mistakes while I am teaching in the classroom.	.539	**.617**	.241	.051	.001
Lack of student interest	11	I feel stressed when students do not participate in the activities.	.171	.372	**.779**	.128	.019
	21	I feel upset because my students are bad at learning languages.	.013	-.081	**.750**	.058	.198
	12	I feel discouraged when students lose interest in the activities.	.273	.380	**.687**	.085	.104
	30	I feel tense when students are not interested in the activities.	.264	.082	**.687**	.256	.284
Fear of negative evaluation	33	My mentors' observations make me nervous.	.222	.326	.116	**.851**	.112
	19	I feel panicked when my mentor-teacher observes me.	.263	.257	.160	**.834**	.156
	24	Students' negative comments about me make me nervous.	.382	.102	.266	**.522**	.207
Difficulties with time management	15	I feel panicked when I cannot finish the class on time.	.132	.170	.153	.215	**.811**
	16	I am nervous when I finish the activities before the class ends.	.195	.238	.250	.037	**.746**
	23	I feel tense when I am not prepared for the class.	.410	.271	.173	.315	**.444**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Figure 2
Scree plot
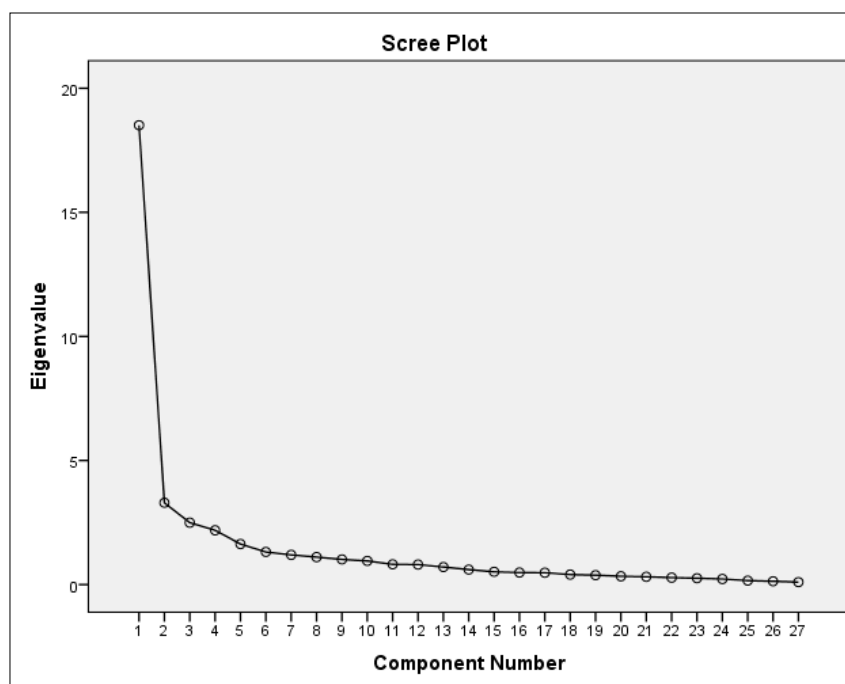
Discussion

This preliminary study was performed to develop and examine the FLTAS. Regarding the first research aim, the FLTAS showed a high level of reliability. Results showed that the FLTAS is as reliable as the statistical tool developed by Kim and Kim (2004). Their tool consisted of 30 items and its reliability was calculated as .96; however, the calculation method was not specified. The FLTAS is composed of fewer items (n=27) and had a very similar reliability score (.95), which was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha. In the other FLTA scale constructed in Ipek's dissertation study (2006), the reliability co-efficient was calculated as .92 using Cronbach's alpha.

The second conclusion reached in the study was that the scale obtained a high level of internal consistency. More specifically, the scale resulted in a five-factor solution based on pre-service teachers' self-perceptions of foreign language proficiency, teaching inexperience, lack of student interest in classes, fear of negative evaluation by observers and students, and difficulties with time management. The related items for each factor can be found in Table 4.

The theoretical background of the FLTAS can be discussed in comparison to earlier studies on FLTA. To illustrate, the FLTAS supported prior studies in terms of negative emotions among foreign language teachers in regard to teacher's (perceived) proficiency in the target language (Horwitz, 1996; Tüm, 2015), time (Numrich, 1996) and classroom management (Kim & Kim, 2004), fear of negative evaluation by mentors (Ali Merç, 2011) and learners (İpek, 2006), and low levels of learner proficiency (Kongchan & Singhasiri, 2008). In addition to these alignments with the previous studies, the FLTAS also demonstrated some other factors that are new to FLTA research; specifically that teaching inexperience was an important factor in the FLTAS. This was probably due to the participant profile as participants were mostly new to teaching in a classroom setting, notwithstanding their EFL teaching practicum experience. Moreover, FLTA was also associated in this study with students' lack of interest. This might have been due to issues related to student engagement as the items related to this factor mainly included negative affect among foreign language teachers as a result of lack of student interest and engagement in EFL classrooms.

Conclusion

These conclusions provide evidence for the potential use of the FLTAS as an appropriate tool to measure teaching anxiety among foreign language teachers. On the other hand, as this study presents the results of the preliminary tests of validity and reliability of the scale, further research may focus on an additional investigation of the factor complexity in larger and more diverse sample groups to find evidence on the relationships with the factors emerged in the current study. The readers should note that this study presenting the preliminary results of the FLTAS is a part of the research process. This process began with an earlier study by the first author, which explored the classroom phenomena underlying FLTA in a qualitative research design. As the FLTAS is being developed, this paper presented the results of the pilot administration, which led to the 27-item FLTAS with the reliability and validity measurements of it. Obviously, our findings are limited to the research context, and these limitations can be addressed in future studies.

Another limitation is that the participants in the current study included pre-service teachers whose teaching experience was mostly limited to their teaching practicum. The lack of experienced/veteran non-native EFL teachers might have influenced the results. Therefore, it is very important to use the FLTAS with a wider group of foreign language teachers who have more varied backgrounds in terms of experience. Finally, further studies should also include native speaker foreign language teachers and investigate whether their insight could help researchers gain a better understanding of FLTA. In light of these limitations, the authors' research agenda includes a descriptive study to further discuss the effectiveness of the FLTAS with a larger sample that also represents the teacher population on a global scale. Therefore, the results of this preliminary research report can be developed and investigated further. Anxiety is a multifaceted and dynamic phenomenon; it cannot be limited to a certain set of universal factors. Therefore, prospective studies should consider investigating FLTA in exploratory and explanatory mixed-method studies with an ecological approach. For these future studies, the FLTAS can serve as a quantitative tool that should be supported by qualitative contextual data.

Several implications can be drawn from the findings of the preliminary research on the FLTAS. First, as teaching inexperience was an important factor underlying FLTA, administrators and policymakers should take all the necessary precautions while working with teachers with a lack of experience; accordingly, the FLTAS can serve as an applicable tool to measure the phenomenon. Secondly, as FLTA is closely related to insufficient student engagement and interest, motivating students to increase classroom engagement can be seen as a strategy to overcome FLTA; once students' interest and engagement in the classroom increase, one factor leading to FLTA can be eliminated. Nevertheless, more correlational research should be conducted to support those implications.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Appendix A

The Foreign Language Teaching Anxiety Scale

PART 1: Background Questionnaire

Your age _____

Your gender   Female (1)   Male (2)

PART 2. The Teaching Anxiety Scale

Items	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Usually	Always
When I feel anxious in class, I have difficulty using English.	**(1)**	**(2)**	**(3)**	**(4)**	**(5)**
I feel embarrassed when some students speak English better than me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel embarrassed because I am not good at English.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
It makes me nervous to use English in class.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Unfamiliar topics in the textbook confuse me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel embarrassed when I think that I am not good at English.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Pronunciation mistakes while I am speaking make me nervous.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Making mistakes while I am speaking make me feel embarrassed.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I am bothered when I have difficulty teaching the cultural content of English.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Unexpected questions from students put pressure on me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I forget almost everything while I am teaching.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel tense when I have difficulty teaching grammar.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel tense when I am in the classroom.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel worried before entering the classroom.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel anxious when I teach in the classroom.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I think my lack of teaching experience makes me nervous.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I fear making mistakes while I am teaching in the classroom.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel stressed when students do not participate in the activities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel upset because my students are bad at learning languages.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel discouraged when students lose interest in the activities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel tense when students are not interested in the activities.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
My mentors' observations make me nervous.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel panicked when my mentor-teacher observes me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Students' negative comments about me make me nervous.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel panicked when I cannot finish the class on time.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I am nervous when I finish the activities before the class ends.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
I feel tense when I am not prepared for the class.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Intercultural Competence in the Eyes of State School English Language Teachers in Turkey

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Equipping students with intercultural competence (hereafter IC) is a critical aim of English foreign language classrooms nowadays, and EFL teachers have emerged as essential players for accomplishing this. These teachers should essentially be competent in their intercultural skills so that they can pass these on to their students in order to foster interculturally competent language learners. However, teachers' perceptions regarding IC remain uncertain, particularly in the Turkish context. Thus, before asking teachers to apply methods and strategies so that they can enhance students' IC in the classroom, it is vital that we investigate what they understand about IC. Therefore, this qualitative study aimed to reveal middle and high school teachers' understanding of the IC phenomenon and their description of the characteristics of an interculturally competent foreign language learner and teacher. In addition, teachers' perceptions regarding their own and their learners' IC were also explored in this study. The participants were 30 middle and high school English language teachers teaching at state schools in Turkey. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect the data. MAXQDA was exploited in order to analyse the data, primarily to code, categorize, and systematize the findings. The results indicated that the teachers considered IC to be the ability to communicate with people from various cultures effectively, having knowledge about one's own, target, and other cultures, and developing positive attitudes toward other cultures and societies. They also emphasized the inseparability of language and culture and the importance of English as an international language. The teachers also indicated why they viewed themselves and their learners as interculturally competent or incompetent, which could provide insight into where to start intercultural learning and teaching in foreign language classrooms and how to train EFL teachers about different dimensions of IC.

Keywords: english as a foreign language, intercultural competence, interculturally competent language learner, intercultural education, cultural awareness

Introduction

Definition of IC

Considering all the various perspectives in different sub-disciplines of intercultural communication, intercultural competence has been identified by many terms such as intercultural sensitivity, global competence, cultural proficiency, cultural intelligence, cross-cultural effectiveness, cross-cultural relations, cross-cultural adaptation, and so forth. Despite the lack of consensus on the concept, it is widely accepted among researchers and practitioners that intercultural competence is the primary dexterity to be able to live and work with people from different cultures (Hammer, 2015).

Rathje (2007) defines IC as the general culture competency necessary in interactions between people from various societies encountering foreignness in order to produce culture by gaining familiarity and cohesion among the individuals. Fantini (2009) and Bennett and Bennett (2004) similarly define IC as the complex competences that are needed in the effective and appropriate interaction among linguistically and culturally different people. Spitzberg and Changnon (2009) also emphasize the interaction aspect and describe IC as the

ability to manage the interaction between people who are divergent in terms of 'affective, cognitive, and behavioural orientations to the world' (p.7).

Viewing the IC as a developmental process similar to Bennett and Bennett (2004) and Fantini (2009), Hammer (2015) defines IC as the ability to change one's cultural perspective and adapt their actions properly to cultural commonalities and differences.

Chen and Starosta (2000) also differentiate the terms cultural awareness, intercultural sensitivity, and intercultural adroitness and these three constitute the umbrella term: intercultural communicative competence. Cultural awareness is the cognitive dimension, which is primarily about the awareness of the effect of culture on how we think and behave, whereas intercultural sensitivity is the affective aspect, which is the incentive to accept differences among cultures. Intercultural adroitness is the behavioural aspect i.e. the ability to realize communicative goals in an intercultural interaction. Similarly, Risager (2007) refers to the three domains of knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

However, Risager (2007) differentiates cultural competence from intercultural competence. Whereas cultural competence refers to the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of a specific culture based on target language country, IC is defined as the knowledge, skills, and attitudes at the interface between several cultures including one's own culture and target culture. Mughan (1999) also claims that IC allows learners to prepare for 'exposure to all cultures, not just the one whose language is learned' (p.64). Moreover, Kramsch (1993) and Byram (1997, 2008, and 2012) also acknowledge that IC is not the knowledge of a particular culture but the knowledge and skills enabling a learner to communicate with the people from other cultures and contexts. Byram's (1997) intercultural communicative competence (ICC) model is a comprehensive one, which is primarily acknowledged in English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching contexts for defining IC. In this study, the researchers adopt Byram's (1997) model of ICC to define intercultural competence.

Byram's (1997) Model of Intercultural Communicative Competence

Byram's (1997) model of ICC is primarily based on the idea of communicative competence introduced by Hymes (1972) and developed by Canale and Swain (1980) and 'communicative ability' defined by van Ek (1986). Grounded in Hymes' (1972) ideas, Canale and Swain (1980) suggested that communicative competence consisted of three different competences: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Canale (1982) also added discourse competence in addition to these later. Van Ek (1986) also had a similar typology of the competences that are required to model communicative ability. It included six competences, some of which were in line with the competences stated by Canale and Swain (1980). The six competences of van Ek (1986), which underlay Byram's Model of ICC in 1990s, included linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic, sociocultural, and social competence.

Byram's model of ICC had two separate parts: one is communicative competence and the latter is the intercultural competence. The communicative competence section included the competences introduced by Canale and Swain (1980) and van Ek (1986) in their revised versions, whereas the latter part included intercultural competence, which was more related to the social and sociocultural competence introduced by van Ek (1986).

The intercultural competence model developed by Byram and Zarate (1997) specifically for the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) included:

- Attitudes (savoir etre): curiosity, openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures
- Knowledge (saviors): knowledge of social groups, their practices, products, etc.
- Skills of relating and interpreting (savoir comprendre): the ability to relate and interpret a text from another culture
- Skills of discovery and interaction (savoir apprendre/faire): ability to acquire new knowledge of culture and the ability to operate under real-time constraints
- Critical cultural awareness (savoir s'engager): Evaluating one's own culture and other cultures critically (Byram, Gribkova & Starkey, 2002, p.12-13)

Interculturally competent EFL learner

In the light of the turn from cultural to intercultural, Byram (2012) asserts that interculturalism is indeed needed to become an intercultural speaker. Intercultural speakers need both IC and linguistic/communicative competence while mediating between various languages and cultures. In other words, the competence, which an intercultural speaker has, is profoundly different from what a native speaker has. The improvement in the status of an intercultural speaker is not a development towards perfection in a foreign language as opposed to an ideal native speaker (Wilkinson, 2012).

Byram (2008) acknowledges that an intercultural speaker can be renamed as an intercultural mediator; however, he wants to maintain 'speaker' because of the importance attached to language. That is, an intercultural mediator can be an intercultural speaker, reader, and writer. He/she is expected to negotiate cultural boundaries both in written and spoken interaction (Wilkinson, 2012). Elena (2014) also regards foreign language proficiency as a passport for an individual's intercultural integration just as Aba's (2016) emphasis on the necessity of proficiency in a foreign language and Moeller and Faltin Osborn's (2014) consideration of communicative competence as a significant asset.

One of the Jackson's (2014) characteristics of effective intercultural communicators is to be sensitive to cultural beliefs, values, and gender differences. Attitudes such as openness to cultural otherness, respect, and empathy are also regarded as essential competences that need to be acquired by learners if they are to live in culturally various societies (Council of Europe, 2016). Fantini (2000) also acknowledge common traits that are listed for the profile of an interculturally competent person that include empathy, respect, openness, curiosity, and flexibility.

Interculturally competent EFL teacher

In MoNE's (2017) General Competencies for Teaching Profession, specifically under the domain of *National, Moral, and Universal Values,* teachers are expected to respect both individual and cultural differences. Marczak (2013) also acknowledges that tolerance, acceptance of otherness, and openness are some qualifications of an intercultural teacher. Brunsmeier (2017) primarily emphasizes the importance of teachers' being sensitive to their learners' attitudes, as it is considered the base for intercultural learning processes.

According to Marczak (2013), a teacher is required to be ready to encounter situations where they are puzzled and not able to respond to the questions of their students. In order to manage such a challenge, teachers need to have some common knowledge and insight in relation to the target culture. Some other scholars (Ho, 2009; Kaçar, 2019; Kızılaslan, 2010) also emphasize that a teacher should have enough knowledge of their own native culture to promote intercultural competence for language learners. In addition to attitudes and knowledge, Marczak (2013) asserts that an interculturally successful teacher needs to possess skills in materials management as well.

A brief review of similar studies

There are many studies on teachers' IC practices in EFL classrooms (Atay, 2005; Brunsmeier, 2017; Cansever & Mede, 2016; Demircioğlu & Çakır, 2015; Han & Song, 2011; Kılıç, 2013; Kuru Gönen & Sağlam, 2012; Sercu, 2005); however, few of them focused on what teachers really understand from terms like culture (Bayyurt, 2006) and intercultural competence (Brunsmeier, 2017) and their self-assessment in terms of IC. They primarily used a survey tool to investigate the teachers' perceptions and practices of intercultural language teaching and the studies were mainly conducted in a tertiary context. Therefore, only the most relevant studies will be presented here.

In other contexts, Han and Song (2011) conducted a study on English university instructors' understanding of ICC in a Chinese context and a questionnaire adapted from previous studies was implemented with 30 instructors. The results revealed restricted amounts of intercultural teaching due to teachers' unfamiliarity with certain aspects of the target culture and inadequate intercultural elements in materials. Brunsmeier (2017) conducted a study to reveal how primary school teachers approach ICC where problem-based interviews were conducted with 19 teachers all over Germany. The teachers were asked to bring a task that they believe

can help promote ICC and describe the task to help learn about their practices and understandings. The findings revealed that 74% of the teachers regarded attitudes such as openness, curiosity, and tolerance as prerequisites for ICC. The cognitive dimension was also emphasized by all the teachers. Considering the skills of interpreting and relating, only half of the participants referred to the similarities and differences between the home and target culture.

In the Turkish context, Bayyurt (2006) conducted a study on English teachers' perceptions of culture and interviews were conducted with 12 private and state school teachers. They were asked to define culture and the results indicated that they primarily focused on lifestyles, traditions, history, rituals, and festivals to define culture concepts. Most of the participants emphasized the strong connection between culture and language teaching. Demircioğlu and Çakır (2015) also investigated international college teachers' perspectives and attitudes towards IC teaching. Their curriculum is based on IC skills, so teachers practiced IC teaching through tasks and activities. Teachers also regarded traditions and values as the most important dimension of culture; however, these researchers also called for similar studies in state schools.

To summarize, the studies which investigated teachers' understandings of IC and self-assessment in relation to IC were limited to tertiary education and private schools in the Turkish context. Therefore, there is a need to explore state school teachers' understanding of IC to interpret their IC teaching practices and identify their professional needs in further studies.

Statement of purpose and the research questions

Equipping students with intercultural competence is a critical aim of foreign language classrooms nowadays because of developing technology, migration, and globalization in every field. In order to have interculturally competent language learners who are able to communicate effectively with individuals from other cultures in intercultural situations, it is essential that teachers are competent in their intercultural skills so that they can pass these on to their students (Catalano, 2014; Crozet & Liddicoat 1997; Deardorff, 2009; Demircioğlu & Çakır, 2015; Doğançay-Aktuna, 2005; Ghanem, 2017; Kaçar, 2019; Marczak, 2013; Sercu, 2006).

However, before asking them to be interculturally competent and apply the methods and strategies so that they can enhance students' IC in the classroom, it is vital that we probe into what they know about IC or how they define it first. Even though IC was defined in many different ways by various scholars (i.e. Bennett & Bennett, 2004; Byram, 1997; Chen and Starosta, 2000; Deardorf, 2009; Fantini, 2000; Kramsch, 2003; Risager, 2007; Spitzberg and Changnon, 2009), it is also important to find out what the teachers understand about IC as they are the practitioners who equip learners with such skills.

The studies carried out in the Turkish context primarily investigated teachers' perceptions and practices of culture teaching in EFL classrooms and mainly in tertiary context (Cansever & Mede, 2016; Gönen & Sağlam, 2012; Kılıç, 2013) and private institutions (Demircioğlu & Çakır, 2015) rather than public middle and high schools and they were primarily based on a survey. This particular study, therefore, aimed to understand public middle and high school teachers' deeper understanding of the concept via the interviewing technique.

Furthermore, the study aimed to reveal their self-assessments regarding IC. It is significant to find out how teachers see themselves as intercultural speakers so that some training programs might be developed to help those who need further development in IC. It is also important to reveal their perceptions of their learners' IC in order to help them identify their learners' needs and develop some complementary tools and teaching strategies to further develop their learners' IC. Therefore, the research questions were:

1. How do state school English language teachers in Turkey describe:
   a) intercultural competence (IC),
   b) an interculturally competent EFL learner,
   c) and an interculturally competent EFL teacher?
2. What are the teachers' perceptions regarding their own and their learners' intercultural competence?

Methods

Design of the study

This qualitative study primarily draws on the principles of Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) since the study aimed to reveal teachers' understanding of the intercultural competence phenomenon that is encountered and experienced by teachers in their teaching of a foreign language. This design is a combination of phenomenology and hermeneutics which end up being descriptive as they are concerned with how things appear. It is also interpretative as the researchers take an active role interpreting the participants' experiences and trying to make sense of the participants' worlds (Pietkiewicz and Smith, 2012). The researchers studied a group of teachers and revealed themes created in the analysis and exemplified them with participants' personal narratives.

Participants

The sampling strategy was purposeful sampling because of the intrinsic nature of phenomenological studies and the research questions. Some studies (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012; Dwyer, 2004) indicated that the length of stay abroad had an impact on individuals' intercultural competence. Therefore, the first criterion was the length of the English language teachers' study/work abroad experiences as this might be one variable having an impact on the understandings, beliefs, and practices of the teachers. Therefore, a demographic survey was shared on social networking sites and teachers were asked to fill it in. Volunteer teachers who had less than six-month overseas experience (including people who had none) were contacted.

The second criterion was the context in which the teachers were working. Only state school teachers working at middle and high schools were taken into consideration as the private institutions and universities would have totally different student profiles, curricula, and materials and this would not fit the homogeneity of a phenomenological study. There were also many studies conducted on teachers' views regarding IC in university context, but there are fewer studies in middle and high schools.

As a result, the participants were 30 English language teachers teaching at middle and high schools in Turkey. There were five male and 25 female teachers. Their ages ranged between 24 and 44. 25 of the teachers were graduates of *Departments of English Language Teaching*. Three were graduates in *Linguistics*, and the other two were graduates of *Translation and Interpretation* and *Departments of English Language and Literature*. Their teaching experiences ranged between three and 21 years. Out of the 30, 12 teachers did not have overseas experience. The overseas experience of 15 teachers was less than a month.

Teachers from different regions of Turkey attended the study. The details regarding the number of participants attending from different cities in Turkey can be examined in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1
Teaching context of the teachers

Central Anatolian	Eastern Anatolia	South-eastern Anatolia	Black Sea Region	Mediterranean Region	Marmara Region	Aegean Region
Ankara (F:5)	Ağrı (F:1)	Şanlıurfa (F:1)	Zonguldak (F:1)	Kahraman maraş (F:3)	İstanbul (F:5)	Afyon (F:1)
Konya (F:1)			Kocaeli (F:1)		Sakarya (F:4)	
Nevşehir (F:1)	Erzurum (F:1)	Şırnak (F:1)	Çorum (F:1)		Bursa (F:2)	İzmir (F:1)

Out of the 30 teachers, six of the teachers expressed that they did not have any courses regarding IC or cultural aspects of language teaching. Sixteen of them indicated that they did not have a specific course named intercultural competence or cultural aspects of language teaching, but they thought that these topics were covered in other courses such as *English Language and Literature, American Culture and Literature, Language and Culture, Intercultural Communication, Sociolinguistics, Language Transfer, Language Acquisition, Bilingualism, Youth Projects, and CEFR seminars.*

Data collection tool and process

As stated by Creswell (2007), in-depth interviews are common tools for phenomenological studies. Specifically, semi-structured interviews not only provide a dialogue in real time but also have flexibility when unexpected issues arise for the researcher to investigate deeper with further questioning (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2012). Therefore, the main data were collected through semi-structured interviews. The interview questions were piloted with three teachers before the actual study was conducted. During the interviews, all of the teachers were asked the same main questions for the systematicity of the procedure and the questions were in line with the research questions. However, impromptu questions were also asked in line with the nature of the semi-structured interviews.

The interviews were carried out in Turkish to make the teachers feel comfortable and avoid the impact of restricted language use on the revelations of the teachers. Member checking during the interviews was done through insistent questioning. Since this study was a part of a bigger project, the total duration of the interviews was 1015 minutes and an interview lasted 34 minutes on average. The data was collected over five months. Participants identities were kept confidential by representing them in the data as P1, P2, P3 etc. (i.e. P1= Participant 1). For ethical concerns, the Human Subjects Ethics Committee of a state university and the Ministry of National Education of the Republic of Turkey Directorate General of Innovation and Educational Technologies were asked to examine the proposed study, specifically demographic survey, and the interview questions, and the authors received their approval. Debriefing sessions with the thesis supervisor and thesis committee members were conducted throughout the research study.

Data analysis

Data analysis was based on IPA and the process included certain steps. Firstly, transcriptions were done verbatim, and then transcriptions of 15 interviews, half of the data collected, were checked by a third party to ensure accuracy.

Next, close reading and re-reading of transcriptions was conducted. Initial open coding was carried out via the MAXQDA program. Each code was identified based on the teachers' actual words which were then turned into primarily nouns. Colour coding was also used for the codes and some memos were taken on the codes in the program.

An English instructor at a university was asked to code 10% of the data for inter-coder reliability. There were not any significant differences in codes and categories except for the fact that the authors' codes were more detailed.

The codes were clustered based on the theoretical framework and research questions in MAXQDA. When the preliminary themes, categories, and codes were identified, they were clustered in tables. Then the findings were interpreted based on these detailed tables and previous studies. The sample excerpts were translated into English. Transcriptions were also crosschecked.

Results

In order to explore teachers' views of IC and how they define it in an EFL context, the teachers were asked to define the IC concept in relation to language learning and teaching. They were also asked about the characteristics of an interculturally competent EFL learner and teacher, and finally they evaluated their own IC.

The interviews revealed similar concepts in the definition of IC and interculturally competent EFL learners and teachers; however, while describing an interculturally competent teacher, participants also emphasized teaching skills to integrate IC in their classes, which will be examined in the following sub-sections more thoroughly.

Intercultural competence in the eyes of EFL teachers

While the teachers were describing IC in relation to English language learning and teaching, they mentioned certain components of IC including knowledge, attitudes, skills of relating and interpreting, and skills of interaction and discovery as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Participants' definition of intercultural competence

Categories and sample codes	f
1. Attitudes	20
(e.g. acceptance, empathy, openness, respect, etc.)	
2. Knowledge	23
(e.g. knowledge of target and home cultures i.e. their clothes, cuisines, religion, habits, and traditions)	
3. Skills of interpreting and relating	15
(e.g. comparison between cultures, critical thinking, understanding other cultures)	
4. Skills of discovery and interaction	37
(e.g. the ability to communicate in English, adapting to new cultures, behaving appropriately, impact of culture on communication, etc.)	

The teachers pointed to various attitudes to define IC. These attitudes included empathy, acceptance of similarities and differences, respect, and openness. IC was also defined as the knowledge of the home culture (i.e. Turkish culture), and target culture (i.e. British/American culture). Participants indicated that culture involves special days, lifestyles, clothes, cuisine, religion, cultural heritage, and habits. Some participants also emphasized the significance of comparing these two cultures and being integrated with other cultures, as well. The participant teachers also referred to the understanding of other cultures and being aware of the differences, which was listed under the category of 'skills of relating and interpreting' in Table 1.

One of the common explanations used to define IC was the ability to interact or communicate with people from other cultures. The teachers also believed in the necessity of behaving appropriately based on the other cultures' values or differences between the cultures. Considering all the definitions provided by the teachers, P4's definition of IC was a comprehensive summary referring to almost all the categories revealed during the interviews.

> I think intercultural competence is the ability to communicate with individuals from other cultures effectively and accurately and understanding the relationship that we construct. For instance, it is the ability to accept the similarities and differences in other cultures different from ours and developing empathy towards them. It means the ability to respect other cultures. Besides, being eager to learn about other cultures is also intercultural competence. I can define it in that way (P4).

As can be seen in the excerpt, P4 mentioned nearly all of the concepts explored in the study such as the ability to communicate with people from other cultures, accepting similarities and differences, showing empathy and respect towards other cultures, and being open to learning about other cultures. In addition, knowledge of both the home and target culture was also expressed by other teachers. Finally, the teachers indicated that cultural knowledge and awareness were required to acquire a language and they specifically emphasized the paramount impact of English in intercultural communication in this globalized era while describing IC.

Teachers' understanding of an interculturally competent EFL learner

When the teachers were asked to introduce the characteristics of an interculturally competent EFL learner, they indicated similar components that they mentioned while describing IC. These components included positive attitudes toward other cultures, including avoiding defensive and offensive behaviours toward others and being open and eager to learn about other cultures, as well as knowledge about the target and other cultures. Moreover, interactive and interpretative skills were also mentioned, which can be examined in Table 2.

Table 2
Participants' views on the characteristics of interculturally competent EFL learners

Categories and sample codes	f
1. Attitudes	32
(e.g. empathy, tolerance, respect, openness, enthusiasm, lack of prejudices)	
2. Knowledge	12
(e.g. knowledge of home, target and other cultures i.e. their cuisines, traditions, clothes, history, etc.)	
3. Skills of interpreting and relating	6
(e.g. comparison between cultures, critical thinking, etc.)	
4. Skills of discovery and interaction	17
(e.g. ability to communicate in English, adapting to other cultures easily, discovering some cultural elements from TV series and movies.)	

The teachers emphasized the attitudes that interculturally competent language learner should have. One of these attitudes was openness and eagerness to know other cultures and languages as can be seen in excerpt below.

> A student must be open to other cultures as a foreign language learner. Instead of marginalizing people, and calling them 'giaour' as our elderly have called them before, they should be open to world cultures and eager to learn about these cultures. In addition to that, (a student) needs to know a foreign language and English seems to be the primary one as it is spoken everywhere in the world. However, I can define (an intercultural competent EFL learner) as the individuals who have not only learned English, but also have been eager to learn other languages and develop positive attitudes towards this issue (P2).

In addition to openness, some other teachers also emphasized the necessity of having empathy and respect for other cultures to be considered an interculturally competent learner. Tolerating and accepting differences between cultures were also specific attitudes that need to be developed by an interculturally competent learner according to the teachers.

With regard to the knowledge component, the teachers mainly indicated the importance of knowing about the culture of the target language, specifically knowing and being aware of behaviours, special days, cuisines, styles of clothing, and daily language of people who belong to that English culture as well as its history and traditions. However, there were also two teachers who indicated that learners should also be aware of popular cultures such as Korean culture since Korean TV shows and music are very popular nowadays.

Regarding the skills of the discovery and interaction category, ten teachers referred to the necessity of being competent in the English language, specifically being aware of their intonations, jokes, and colloquial language, and using them effectively while communicating with a foreigner.

When the teachers were asked whether their students were interculturally competent or not, 12 of the teachers indicated that they had mostly competent EFL learners whereas 11 of them indicated otherwise. There were also seven teachers who believed that they had a limited number of such students. When teachers were asked about their perceptions regarding their students' IC, they introduced certain reasons why they believe their students were competent or incompetent in terms of intercultural skills, which can be examined in Table 3.

Table 3

Rationale for having interculturally competent EFL learners

Categories and sample codes	f
1. Attitudes	21
(e.g. being eager, curious, and open to learn about other cultures, accepting differences between cultures, approaching other cultures positively, showing empathy)	
2. Knowledge	16
(e.g. knowledge of target cultures i.e. festivals, special days, celebrities, songs, movies, and cuisines)	
3. Skills of interpreting and relating	11
(e.g. sharing of what they have learned, heard, and experienced, reflecting intercultural elements in their assignments)	
4. Skills of discovery and interaction	48
(e.g watching TV, using internet & social media, playing computer /interactive games, being in contact with people from other cultures, proficiency in English and communicating effectively)	

Teachers thought students were interculturally competent when they were enthusiastic and curious to learn other cultures and they did not have prejudices towards other cultures. Moreover, they exhibited IC when they had knowledge about other cultures, especially their festivals, celebrities, songs, movies, and cuisines.

> Middle school students, especially 7th and 8th graders have intercultural competence. When we teach a song, mention a movie and royalty regarding English culture, or when we mention Easter and Christmas, they are not Greek to them anymore. They are aware of what they are. They just learn the new terms and read the texts regarding these (P27).

Some of the teachers believed that they had a limited number of interculturally competent students, but when they explained the reasons why they regarded some of their students as interculturally competent, it was obvious that these students were mainly the ones who favoured the use of technology and loved searching on the internet and interacting with other people, because teachers indicated that these students used social media and chat applications effectively, watched animations, listened to Korean music, and played online war games. That is, teachers believed these activities contributed to learners' IC development as they were exposed to language and had a chance to communicate with individuals from other cultures.

The teachers who believed that their students were interculturally incompetent provided some explanations regarding their experiences and observations in the classroom, which clearly illustrated their learners' lack of IC. The categories and sample codes are provided in Table 4.

Table 4

Rationale for not having interculturally competent EFL learners

Categories and sample codes	f
1. Attitudes	40
(e.g. having prejudices about L2 learning, not being open and eager to learn about other cultures, having prejudices about other cultures, not accepting cultural differences, different lifestyles, marginalizing foreign students)	
2. Knowledge	14
(e.g. a lack of knowledge of target/other/own cultures)	
3. Skills of interpreting and relating	6
(e.g. not understanding other cultures/ differences between cultures, not understanding jokes in videos in the L2, reflecting only national elements in their assignments)	
4. Skills of discovery and interaction	9
(e.g. not using English in their daily life, lack of English proficiency, not searching about the target culture much outside the class)	

With regard to attitudes, teachers expressed that their students had some prejudices toward foreign language learning. For instance, teachers mentioned that students were asking, 'Why do we learn English? Why don't we just learn our native language?' Some of the teachers also indicated that students only considered English classes just a course to pass.

The teachers indicated that students found other cultures strange when they encountered them in the textbooks. Similarly, P8 also indicated concerns and provided examples regarding what kinds of cultural values students regarded as strange.

> I have students who react in a variety of ways. For instance, when the behaviors that belong to British culture are mentioned, there are students who find them strange and say 'How ridiculous they are!'... In the simplest term 'fish and chips' and 'tea with milk' are mentioned in culture sections in every English course book. Whereas some of my students react to this saying, 'How can people drink tea with milk? That's nonsense! They do not even understand tea.' There are other students who say, 'What's wrong with that? I would like to try that too, it would be an interesting experience'(P8).

The teachers' concern was not only students' considering other cultures ridiculous but their lack of desire to learn about other cultures and English, and not being open to learning about other cultures. For instance, P14 specifically emphasized students' questions such as 'Why do we learn English? This (Halloween) does not exist in our culture. Why do we learn this?'

In addition to the lack of certain positive attitudes, openness, and eagerness to learn about other cultures, teachers also noted their students' lack of cultural knowledge. Moreover, some teachers acknowledged that their students had difficulty understanding cultural differences.

When all these experiences were considered, teachers had both interculturally competent and incompetent learners. However, what made them competent was primarily their knowledge of other cultures, their positive attitudes and lack of prejudices towards other cultures, and their engagement with other cultures. What made them incompetent was related to their lack of interest in learning and using English, lack of openness to learn about other cultures, considering learning them as meaningless, lack of knowledge, and lack of understanding of similarities and differences between cultures.

Teachers' understanding of an interculturally competent EFL teacher

The qualifications of an interculturally competent EFL teacher were similar to the characteristics of an interculturally competent learner, although they also included some skills regarding teaching or integrating IC in language classes, which can be scrutinized in Table 5.

When Table 5 was examined, it was obvious that teachers regarded positive attitudes as one of the most important criteria for being an interculturally competent teacher. Such attitudes primarily involved being open to other cultures, tolerating differences and respecting others' values, and not having prejudices toward other cultures. In addition, having empathy for other societies and being eager to learn about various cultures were also mentioned.

P2 especially emphasized the need for teachers to tolerate the differences and be open to other cultures before teaching it to their students. She claimed that it would be hard to expect learners to tolerate a foreign culture if teachers could not tolerate varieties in their own culture. P29 also indicated the significance of tolerating and accepting differences, specifically emphasizing the meaningless of stereotyping others.

> If a teacher can tolerate everything in that stage, this might be religious beliefs, clothing, behaviors, etc. I expand culture in that way. I do think that way. If we can act thoughtfully to the people who are conservative, open-minded, or if we can look at religionist, unbelievers, and the secular from a respectful point of view, then we can raise our children, the next generation, accordingly. This is included in intercultural competence. You know, it counts as nothing whether you are turbaned, you pray, you are an atheist or you have a body full of tattoos or piercings overseas. Interlocutors' style is not important at all (P29).

Table 5

Participants' views on the characteristics of interculturally competent EFL teachers

Categories and sample codes	f
1. Attitudes	30
(e.g. having empathy, tolerance, respect, openness, not having prejudices)	
2. Knowledge	20
(e.g.having knowledge of target/other/own cultures - i.e. cuisine, festivals, literature, viewpoints, lifestyle, sociocultural structure, art, music, cultural expressions, daily language, traditions, stories, clothes, behavioral styles, the country)	
3. Skills of interpreting and relating	2
(e.g. ability to confront and relate prejudices towards the target culture, showing effort to observe cultures while watching films or movies)	
4. Skills of discovery and interaction	16
(e.g. overseas experience, proficiency in L2- communicating with people from other cultures, having foreign friends and teachers, having a global vision)	
5. IC teaching skills	19
(e.g. teaching language by integrating the culture of the target language, introducing differences between cultures effectively, use of materials such as idioms, poems, songs, videos, developing attitudes such as openness, respect and tolerance)	

Attitudes were not the only characteristics of interculturally competent EFL teachers. Knowledge about one's own culture, as well as target and other cultures was also a prerequisite for being a competent EFL teacher. For instance, P14 put emphasis on the effort to know about other cultures, either by visiting other countries and cultures or seeing movies that belong to those cultures.

Teachers also believed that an interculturally competent EFL teacher should be able to communicate well in the target language that they are teaching. Specifically, a teacher was expected to be able to maintain a conversation with foreign speakers and have knowledge of how to use words, phrases, and idioms.

Teachers also believed in the necessity of having overseas experience to develop teachers' IC. For instance, one teacher indicated that the more a teacher knew about other societies and cultures, the more they would contribute to their language learners.

Finally, having skills to integrate culture in language classrooms, the ability to introduce differences between cultures, and the ability to develop learners' attitudes such as openness and tolerance were also some of the traits mentioned.

Teachers were asked to evaluate their own IC development and 15 of them felt mostly interculturally competent. Eight of these were working in high schools, six of them were working in middle schools, and one was teaching in both contexts. The teaching experiences of these teachers also varied. Six of them had 0-5 years of teaching experience, five of them had 6-10 years, and four of them had 11-21 years.

However, there were also teachers who felt incompetent and 'not necessarily' competent. Seven of these were working in high schools and six were teaching in middle schools. Two of these had less than five years of teaching experience, six of them had 6-10 years, and five of them had 11-19 years.

As shown in Table 6, teachers' attitudes made them believe they were competent. Teachers believed that they were open to learn and teach other cultures, cultural differences, and new ideas. Tolerance and respect for other cultures were also some of the qualifications that the EFL teacher participants possessed. Teachers also considered themselves to be interculturally competent inasmuch as they knew or tried to learn about the target culture and did not have much difficulty in responding to students' queries about the target culture. A few of them also indicated that they had no difficulty interpreting the message in the target language.

Table 6

Rationale for being an interculturally competent EFL teacher

Categories and sample codes	f
1. Attitudes	20
(e.g. having empathy, tolerance, respect, openness, not having prejudices)	
2. Knowledge	12
(e.g.having knowledge of the target culture)	
3. Skills of interpreting and relating	3
(e.g. understanding/interpreting the message correctly in a FL)	
4. Skills of discovery and interaction	42
(e.g. overseas experience, proficiency in L2-communicating with people from other cultures, communicating well with students from other cultures, observing other cultures, searching about other cultures, participating in Erasmus/cultural projects, exchanging cultural information with others, adapting to different cultures easily)	
5. IC teaching skills	9
(e.g. integrating intercultural issues in L2 teaching, developing students' attitudes such as respect, avoidance of marginalization)	

Some of the most frequently mentioned reasons why teachers felt interculturally competent were the ability to communicate with people from other cultures, having overseas experience, and observing other cultures during visits abroad.

> For instance, I can communicate with people who are native speakers of English. I can also communicate with my friends who speak foreign languages. I can exchange information about cultures. I can communicate effectively. Besides, TV series and movies that I watch in foreign language teach me many things. Therefore, I believe I know the culture of the target language that I teach. However, if I have a chance to go abroad and learn more, I believe I would learn more about the target culture (P4).

As P4 expressed, having experience abroad is an impactful factor in teachers' feelings of competence when intercultural knowledge is considered. P19 especially emphasized his overseas experience when indicating the reasons why he felt interculturally competent. He said that he had been to America twice and reported having observed the lifestyles of people living there. He indicated his confidence when he responded to the students' questions about the target culture. However, among the 15 teachers who considered themselves competent, there were six teachers who did not have any overseas experience.

On the other hand, one third of the teachers reported that they did not view themselves as interculturally competent. The reasons for their incompetency were primarily their lack of knowledge about the target and other cultures, lack of overseas experience, lack of training on IC, and limited resources to teach IC as demonstrated in Table 7.

Regarding the lack of knowledge, P26 explained the ways in which she lacked knowledge about the target culture.

> For instance, there are the life experiences, rituals, traditions, and reactions of people who live in the countries where English is spoken. I do not know much about them. I still try to learn by reading. Therefore, I do not consider myself to be competent. I can never say that I am competent. That would be to overstep my bounds (P26).

A lack of knowledge about the target culture and other cultures was not the only reason for teachers' viewed incompetence in relation to intercultural learning and teaching as shown in Table 7. Just as the participant EFL teachers pointed to overseas experience as something that made them feel interculturally competent, the teachers who expressed themselves as incompetent also indicated their lack of overseas experience as one of the reasons why they felt incompetent.

Table 7
Rationale for not being an interculturally competent EFL teacher

Categories and sample codes	f
1. Lack of knowledge	26
(e.g. lack of knowledge about target and other cultures, need for doing more research to learn about intercultural issues)	
2. Lack of interaction	12
(e.g. lack of overseas experience, not having students from other cultures or nationalities, not adapting to other cultures easily)	
3. Lack of IC teaching skills	8
(e.g. difficulty teaching intercultural issues, lack of training on IC)	
4. Lack of resources	8
(e.g. time limitations, feeling restricted because of the curriculum, lack of extra materials, students' limited proficiency)	

Teachers also believed that their difficulty explaining intercultural issues in the classroom, lack of training on IC, and not having a chance to do interactive activities like role plays and dramas were some of the reasons they considered themselves incompetent in terms of IC. Even though the frequency of the codes was low, the teachers also mentioned time limitations, curriculum requirements, a lack of materials, and students' low proficiency in English.

As a result, EFL teachers considered an interculturally competent EFL teacher to be an individual who is open and eager to learn about other cultures and someone who is knowledgeable about the target and other cultures. In addition, the ability to communicate with people from other cultures effectively, tolerating differences, and having overseas experience were also some characteristics that an IC teacher needed to possess. Half of the teachers thought that they were competent whereas others did not feel the same way. The reasons provided for their perceptions of competency or incompetency confirmed what they described as the characteristics of an interculturally competent teacher.

Discussion

Intercultural competence in the eyes of EFL teachers

There are various definitions of IC in the literature; however, it is hard to develop strategies and materials to enhance it when there are too many different understandings of the same concept. Therefore, Deardorff (2006) conducted a Delphi study by polling experts in the field of intercultural communication so that a compromise could be reached regarding the definition of IC. On the other hand, teachers are the ones who implement intercultural learning and teaching in their classrooms. Therefore, it is also important to know what they really understand about IC to interpret their practices and needs thoroughly. This study primarily aimed to reveal teachers' own definitions and understanding of IC. The teachers' definitions were primarily in accordance with what was suggested in the literature as they referred to cognitive, affective, and behavioural skills to be able to communicate with people from different cultures.

The teachers' most frequently given definition was very close to the most accepted definition of IC in the literature, which is 'the ability to *interact effectively and appropriately* in intercultural situations' (Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2006; Fantini, 2009, Hismanoğlu, 2011; Sercu, 2005). The ability to interact with others is referred as the 'desired external outcome' in Deardorff's (2006) pyramid model of IC whereas it was classified under the title of 'skills of interaction and discovery' in Byram's (1997) Intercultural Competence Model. However, as it is framed in various studies, the ability to communicate with others is a commonly accepted component of IC. A few teachers also defined IC as *adapting to other cultures and environments* and exhibiting culturally appropriate behaviours in intercultural situations. In this regard, this definition was compatible with one of the desired

external outcomes of Deardorff's (2006) *Process Model of Intercultural Competence,* and fifth stage of Bennett and Bennett's (2004) *Developmental Intercultural Competence Model,* which is adaptation.

The teachers also highly praised *the place of English* in the international agenda. Since English was seen as an international language by the teachers, they emphasized the importance of the use of English for interactions with people from other cultures. Therefore, it can be said that the aim of English language teaching was not regarded as developing native-like output but intercultural speakers (Aguilar, 2008; Alptekin, 2002; Bayyurt, 2006; Byram & Zarate, 1994; Byram, 2008; Corbett, 2003; Kramsch, 1998; Risager, 2007; Selvi, 2014, Wilkinson, 2012).

The teachers also emphasized the significance of culture in language learning and explained its positive impact on learners' language development. As Crozet and Liddicoat's (1997) explained, 'There is no language use without culture and that culture is central to communication' (p. 15). Moreover, the teachers particularly referred to the *inseparability of culture and language,* which was also mentioned by the teacher participants in Bayyurt's (2006) study. Her participants were also aware of the impossibility of teaching a language without making learners aware of that cultural mind-set. Baker (2011) also claimed that it was strenuous to teach a language irrespective of the cultural context because of the inseparability of language and culture.

Teachers' definition of IC included one of the common components suggested in the literature, which is *'knowledge'.* The 'knowledge' component was mentioned in many IC models, such as Byram's (1997) *Intercultural Competence Model*, Deardorff's (2006) *Process Model of Intercultural Competence* and *Pyramid Model of Intercultural Competence,* and finally Ting-Toomey and Kurogi's (1998) *Facework-based Model of Intercultural Competence.* In this particular study, the knowledge component was mostly explained with special days, lifestyles, clothes, cuisine, religion, cultural heritage, and habits of the target cultures. In other words, it did not just include Big C elements. This finding was similar to Bayyurt's (2006) study as the teachers' definition of culture included all these elements. As Byram, Gribkova, and Starkey (2002) and Hatipoğlu (2012) indicated, knowledge of the target culture was regarded as the prerequisite for language proficiency in the target language.

However, it should be noted that participants also emphasized the knowledge of *one's own native culture* for IC. As many other researchers (Alptekin, 2002, Corbett, 2003; Ho, 2009; Kaçar, 2019; Kızılaslan, 2010; McKay, 2002) indicated, students' native language has a significant role in intercultural language learning and teaching. As Byram and Wagner (2018) claimed, knowledge and understanding of other societies requires understanding and knowledge of one's own society first.

In their definitions of IC, the teachers also referred to certain personal characteristics such as having empathy for others, respecting other cultures, and differences between cultures and being open and enthusiastic to learn about other cultures and societies. Therefore, the findings were similar to Brunsmeier's (2017) study in the German context. In Deardorff's (2006) Delphi study, one component suggested for IC was also personal characteristics of people such as curiosity, openness, and respect for other cultures. Deardorff (2006) also named it under the title of *'attitudes'* in the *Process Model of IC.* The characteristics mentioned (i.e. empathy, respect, and openness) were also congruent with the 'attitudes' component of IC suggested by Byram's *Intercultural Competence Model* (1997, 2008, and 2012). This also supports Elena's (2014) definition of IC as being open to other cultures and accepting cultural differences. The EFL participant teachers also highlighted the importance of understanding other cultures besides the target culture. 'Understanding others' world views' was also fully acknowledged as a component of IC in Deardorff's (2006) study as well.

To summarize, the results of the study indicated that even though not all of the participant teachers developed a complete understanding of IC or conceptualized an in-depth definition, they mentioned the components referring to various models suggested in the literature. Over half of the teachers mentioned the ability to communicate in English, which is part of the behavioural aspect, and emphasized the inseparability of culture and language and the international status of English. Slightly less than half of them referred to knowledge of the target cultures, which is part of the cognitive aspect and attitudes, an affective dimension of IC. One third of them mentioned the skills of interpreting and relating. There were very few teachers who mentioned all of the dimensions of IC.

Teachers' understanding of an interculturally competent EFL learner

The participants believed that an interculturally competent EFL learner was an individual who is *open to other cultures* and someone who *accepts differences between various societies* and has *empathy for others*. Therefore, the findings were in line with Jackson's characteristics of intercultural communicators and Fantini's (2000) profile of an interculturally competent person. Having such attitudes was believed to lead to the willingness to explore and probe into other perspectives and modes of life that are different from the students' traditional comfort zone that they were raised in and bring about new perspectives and experiences (Council of Europe, 2016).

Ten teachers in the study also thought that a language learner who is interculturally competent should be *proficient in English*. This finding supported Elena's (2014) and Aba's (2016) claim that proficiency in English is a passport for intercultural competence. In addition, Baker and Fang (2020) indicated that students who had study abroad experience also associated competency in the English language with the development of intercultural citizenship. Porto (2019) also reported that intercultural education in an international project contributed to English language learning. Consequently, recent studies demonstrate how the intercultural dimension and English language proficiency are conducive to one another.

Knowledge of both one's own culture and the target culture was considered necessary for being an interculturally competent EFL learner. Three teachers described an effective EFL learner as someone who has the ability to compare their own native culture with other cultures. As East (2008) indicated, intercultural ability is not just a connection between language and culture, or the cultural facts acquired, but also a comparison of these facts across cultures and accommodating oneself in intercultural encounters where we name the interlocutors as 'others'.

An important finding in this regard was that only 12 teachers indicated that their students were interculturally competent. Two of these teachers indicated that their students were competent but not all the time and not completely. Eight of these teachers reported that they were interculturally competent as well. The teaching experiences of these teachers ranged between four and 21 years. Half of them were teaching in a middle school and half were teaching in a high school.

The other 18 teachers believed that their students were incompetent or they had a limited number of interculturally competent students. Half of these teachers were ones who regarded themselves as incompetent. Students' prejudices about learning English and learning about other cultures were some of the reasons that were revealed during the interviews. This might be an important contributor to the teachers' awareness of their students' needs. Since they know what is missing in their students' repertoire in terms of intercultural skills, they can develop strategies and materials to counter such attitudes and behaviours. They can even go deeper to help learners face the realities of the world outside the classroom with intercultural conflict cases and ask them to introduce possible solutions for these so that they can realize how important IC is for their lives.

To summarize, the majority of the teachers somewhat understood what constituted a competent intercultural speaker and they knew whether their students had these characteristics or not. They were able to express why they regarded their students as competent or incompetent and it was obvious that some teachers had both interculturally competent and incompetent students even though the proportion might vary.

Teachers' understanding of an interculturally competent EFL teacher

The teachers also listed the characteristics of an interculturally competent EFL teacher. However, their opinions with respect to whether they were interculturally competent or not were consulted.

As demonstrated in Figure 2, the results of this study indicated that an interculturally competent EFL teacher had various qualities. To reiterate, one of the most frequently mentioned traits was the necessity of *being open to other cultures and respecting other cultures and cultural differences.* Therefore, the teachers' understanding of an interculturally competent EFL teacher was very similar to the qualifications of an intercultural teacher mentioned by Marczak (2013) and Brunsmeier (2017), and the competences indicated in MoNE's (2017) General Competencies for Teaching Profession. Therefore, an interculturally skilful EFL teacher is to be open-minded, value otherness, and have respect for the values of other cultures. Moreover, the teachers who believed that

they were interculturally competent also mentioned that they had positive attitudes towards other cultures, have *respect* and *empathy* for individuals from other societies.

Figure 2
Qualifications of an interculturally competent EFL teacher suggested by the participants of the study
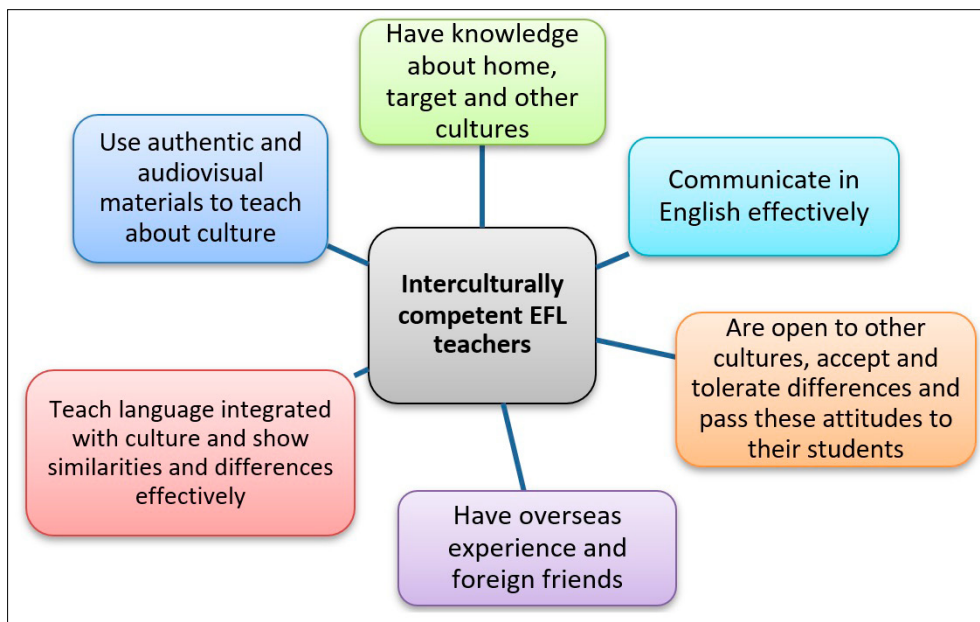
Another finding of the study was that an interculturally competent teacher was believed to have a sufficient amount of *knowledge about native, target, and other cultures* so that they could easily respond to students' queries about different cultures, which was also mentioned in Marczak (2013). The teachers in this study primarily emphasized the need for knowledge regarding the culture of the societies where the target language, i.e. English, is spoken. Teachers who regarded themselves as interculturally competent also thought that they had adequate *knowledge* about the target culture, which was in line with the result of Kılıç's (2013) study because instructors in that study also found their target culture knowledge to be quite satisfactory. However, knowledge of cultural practices and products of their own native culture was also considered important by the teachers so that they could provide sensible comparisons regarding the variation among other cultures. So, the teachers' views were in line with Ho's (2009), Kızılaslan's (2010), and Kaçar's (2019) claims regarding the significance of knowledge of the teachers' *own native culture* in order to promote intercultural competence for language learners.

There were also teachers who specifically indicated that they did not define or consider IC in terms of being aware of the target culture only since they were aware of the importance of ELF and English as an international language in terms of teaching of English. Therefore, they emphasized the need for knowledge of *other cultures*. There is still a strong view that culture teaching might start with the familiar, one's own culture, and move to native speaker English culture; however; another option might involve the transition from one's own culture to the international English culture, which might include the culture of English varieties, pop culture, travel culture, etc. (Alptekin, 1993). As Perez Gracia, Serrano Rodríguez, and Carpio (2020) indicated, it is necessary to equip learners with the competencies to become citizens of globalised world, which can be achieved via content and language integrated learning.

The participant teachers primarily emphasized the *skills and methods of integrating culture* in language classrooms and introducing differences between cultures efficiently. *The use of certain materials* to promote IC skills (Marczak, 2013) was also referred to as one of the qualifications of successful intercultural teachers.

The teachers emphasized *having intercultural contact* through overseas experiences to be interculturally competent EFL teachers. They also affirmed that an interculturally competent EFL teacher can easily and *effectively communicate* with people from other cultures. Marczak (2013) also underlined the need for an

intercultural teacher to excel in the foreign language so that they could have the role of a mediator and cope with the authentic language explored in various media tools. The teachers who believed that they were interculturally competent were also confident that they could *effectively communicate* with foreigners. Out of the 15 teachers who believed they were competent, eight of them had less than one month of overseas experience and one of them has been to America one to three months. Although the opportunities to go abroad have multiplied in recent years, many teachers might still lack overseas experience. For instance, half of the teachers who felt interculturally incompetent had no overseas experience and introduced this as a reason why they regarded themselves as incompetent.

In addition to a lack of overseas experience, another reason for their feelings of inadequacy was primarily related to their *lack of knowledge,* which were very similar to the findings of Atay (2005) and Larzén-Östermark's (2008) study as the teachers did not have many insights into cultural aspects and the proper ways to address them in their teaching. Han and Song (2011) also noted that when students asked about an unfamiliar cultural element in the text, and teachers were not able to respond to this inquiry in an Asian context, that would put the teachers in a really troubling situation since teachers were seen as the knowledge providers in that context. As Schulz (2007) elucidated, it might not be very difficult for the teacher to understand the culture-specific information about the target culture like products and practices, but it might be unrealistic for them to see the effect of the cultural perspectives on these products and practices inasmuch as this requires background information.

A lack of teaching sources was also mentioned during the interviews as one of the factors that caused teachers to feel incompetent. In previous studies in the Turkish context (Demircioğlu, & Çakır, 2015; Kahraman, 2016; Korkmazgil, 2015), it was also acknowledged that there were insufficient materials and limited sources for language teaching. As Han and Song (2011) asserted, teachers want to have chances for more intercultural interactions, ample teaching materials and resources, and professional training in regard to connecting culture and language in language teaching.

To summarize, teachers' perceptions in relation to the characteristics of an intercultural EFL teacher were similar to the characteristics of an interculturally competent EFL learner and the components of IC. In addition, they needed to have the skills, strategies, materials, and activities to pass intercultural competences on to their students. Even though half of the teachers regarded themselves as competent, the other half either stated that they were not competent at all or they were not sure about it. Therefore, there is a need for teachers to be trained, guided, and supported in terms of intercultural skills.

Conclusion

The purpose of the study was to explore public middle and high school English language teachers' understanding of intercultural competence and shed some light on this issue as there were only a limited number of research studies in this context. The findings revealed that the teachers emphasized the interrelation between language and culture and the importance of English as an international language. They viewed IC as the ability to communicate with people from other cultures effectively, have knowledge about one's own, target, and other cultures, and develop positive attitudes toward other cultures and societies. However, while defining IC, few teachers referred to all of the dimensions of IC suggested in the literature. The teachers' definition primarily emphasized the ability to communicate with individuals from other cultures. The study was limited in that it only queried state school EFL teachers' definition of IC and the number of the participants was limited to 30. However, it might provide some insight for researchers regarding the concept of IC in the Turkish context, and the study is also significant as it revealed the reasons why some teachers felt incompetent in terms of integrating IC in their classrooms. Further studies that assess teachers' IC rather than their self-assessment could be conducted. Additionally, other studies might probe into teachers' IC teaching in actual language classrooms via observations. Furthermore, in-service training programs where teachers are guided in terms of what IC involves and how it can be integrated into language classrooms can be developed to assist language teachers in the process of IC teaching.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Increasing EFL Learner Participation through Eliciting Language: Insights from Conversation Analysis

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The idea that interaction shapes learning in the second language classroom by increasing opportunities for participation, and that teachers can achieve this by adequately eliciting language from learners has been discussed in the literature. However, research specifying interactional resources deployed by teachers when eliciting language from their learners has been scarce. To this end, the present study used conversation analysis to examine the interactional resources produced in the elicitation of questions belonging to a specific lesson stage, namely, the 'classroom context mode' (CCM). In the CCM, fluency and meaningful exchanges are encouraged, and learners are prompted to talk about their feelings, emotions, and experiences, which represent a fruitful interactional juncture for eliciting learner language. The data collected in the present study come from four teachers and their students in an adult English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom at a language institute in Chile. The participants were audio-recorded over a total of six lessons that were delivered as part of a 10-week course. From the analysis, two novel elicitation resources, namely the 'effective management of closed questions' and the 'use of open referential questions as initiators of CCM', were found to promote a facilitator-oriented approach to teaching. The pedagogical value of these resources is discussed in terms of their potential for initiating and sustaining a CCM, and their inclusion in a framework that seeks to develop teachers' classroom interactional competence.

Keywords: eliciting language, classroom context mode, classroom interactional competence, conversation analysis, teacher talk

Introduction

Studies focusing on the provision of learning opportunities have reported specific ways in which interaction can shape learning in the second language classroom (Markee, 2015; Seedhouse & Walsh, 2010; Sert, 2015; Walsh, 2002, 2012, 2013; Waring, 2008; 2009, 2011, 2019; Waring, Reddington, & Tadic, 2016). More specifically, it has been found that teachers use an array of interactional strategies in order to elicit answers from their learners, which is an important part of the linguistic exchanges in the classroom (Lee, 2006; Waring, 2012). The most typical way in which this is done in the language classroom is by asking questions, as teachers prompt learners to respond in order to assess their learning, check comprehension, introduce a new topic, and improve second language ability (Jafari, 2013). A teacher's ability to utilise a range of question types and understand the functions being served by them is an important feature of teachers' classroom interactional competence (CIC) (Walsh, 2006), which highlights the role of the teacher in successfully eliciting language from learners and encouraging patterns of communication that can promote co-constructed interactions. Question and answer sequences where teachers ask most of the questions are a very common feature of second language classrooms and represent another way for teachers to control the discourse (Walsh, 2011). Regarding the types of questions that are asked by teachers, Tsui (1995) identifies two main sets of categories; 'open' and 'closed' questions, and 'display' and 'referential' questions. The first distinction addresses the type of response elicited from learners. Open questions have a range of acceptable answers (e.g. 'how was your weekend?') whilst closed questions have only one acceptable answer or a very limited range of answers (e.g. 'did you have a good weekend?'). Tsui (1995) posits that closed questions are more restrictive than open questions because they do not force the student to

produce a great amount of output. The second set of categories discussed by Tsui has been widely researched and focuses on the nature of interaction that is potentially generated by the questions. A display question is a question for which the teacher knows the answer and is asked to evaluate learners' knowledge (e.g. 'what colour is my jacket?') whilst a referential question is a genuine question for which the teacher does not know the answer (e.g. 'when are you having the party?'). In language classroom settings, it has been found that referential questions are typically more tailored to elicit 'natural' responses from learners than display questions because they elicit extended learner turns and create space for further learner talk (Brock, 1986; Lee, 2006; Tsui, 1995; Walsh, 2006, 2013). It must be noted that the production of referential questions requires not only more cognitive effort from the learner (Nunan, 1989) but also from the teacher (Thornbury, 1996), which may explain to some extent the historic pervasiveness of display questions in language classrooms. However, if discourse in the classroom is not regarded as a static and unchanging context but as a dynamic and shifting set of micro-contexts, the pedagogical distinction between referential and display questions may have less value when the relationship between pedagogical goals and the different functions served by these questions are not factored in. As Walsh (2011) states, display questions are adequate when teachers seek to check understanding or confirm what learners already know; when the goal is to promote discussion or oral fluency, referential questions are more appropriate. Thus, the effectiveness of display or referential questions can be better addressed when they are aligned with specific pedagogical goals that will warrant their use at a particular time (Cullen, 1998; Walsh, 2006, 2013).

This study took place in a Chilean adult EFL setting. In Chile, EFL is taught compulsorily (114 hours per year) starting from 5th grade in primary education until 12th grade in secondary education. The national curriculum and government agendas have made efforts to transform the country into a bilingual nation that can play a prominent role in globalised markets (Glas, 2008). The Ministry of Education encourages the use of the foreign language in the classroom, and the four language skills are given equal weight in the curriculum (Ministerio de Educación, 2009). Furthermore, initiatives such as English Open Doors have been proposed to provide continuing education for teachers and create a generation of independent learners of English who are functionally bilingual (Matear, 2008). However, language teachers are required to provide a great deal of information to learners by means of textbook activities such as grammar and vocabulary tasks and listening comprehension exercises. This prevents learners from asking and replying to authentic questions and also prevents teachers from creating opportunities to elicit authentic language. These issues, together with the insufficient number of hours allocated to learning English in municipal schools (Barahona, 2016) may explain to some extent the poor performance of Chilean learners on international proficiency tests when compared to other countries in the region (Gómez & Pérez, 2015).

Studies on language elicitation in EFL/ESL settings

It has been found that teachers can increase opportunities for learning by adequately eliciting language from learners. For example, Markee (2004) used a conversation analytic approach to describe the structure of the 'zones of interactional transition' – that is, talk that occurs when teachers make the transition from one speech exchange system to another (i.e. from learner-learner talk to form-focused work led by the teacher). Markee focuses on counter questions, which are typically defined as questions that are used to immediately respond to a learner question in order to keep control of the classroom agenda. In his analysis, Markee demonstrates that the talk taking place in the boundaries of each system can potentially cause interactional trouble in the ensuing talk and negatively affect learning. In line with this, Lee and Ng (2010) sought to find out whether teachers' interactional strategies were one of the factors influencing learners' reticence to communicate. They analysed two ESL lessons taught by two local Hong Kong secondary teachers characterised by two distinct interactional patterns. They found that offering learners opportunities to contribute to the interaction and managing communication through a 'facilitator-oriented' approach – that is, a type of teacher intervention that utilises devices such as the use of referential questions, scaffolding, and use of back-channel feedback in order to facilitate interaction – encouraged participation in these learners. This facilitator-oriented approach is crucial to increasing learner participation, and needs to be further researched to identify specific interactional resources embedded in referential questions produced by teachers to elicit language. With a specific focus on the pedagogical potential of display questions as central resources in the language classroom, Lee (2006) performed a sequential analysis of 36 hours of ESL class sessions from different courses. He found that display questions can provide the necessary resources to navigate the discourse by means of multiple initiation-response-evaluation sequences, and that display questions become interactionally relevant by means of the topics being

introduced and the meanings being clarified. Lee concluded that display questions should not be dismissed as ineffective teaching tools, without assessing the situated context in which they take place, and the interactional devices that are utilised by teacher and learners to reach understandings. In other words, the (pedagogical) context in which any interaction takes place must be addressed before generating a priori assessments regarding the effectiveness of the language choices made by teachers to elicit learner talk. Similarly, Waring (2012) assessed how yes-no questions (e.g. 'Do you have any questions?') may work as 'understanding-checks' in the language classroom. She used a conversation analytic approach to analyse 28 hours of interaction in an English as a second language classroom. The findings suggested that the same yes-no questions may be deployed to check understanding and also to close down a sequence. In addition, learners' decisions whether or not to continue talking in those cases may be related to their lack of competence to do so. As Waring argues, although these types of yes-no questions have been treated as a type of referential question, they were found to accomplish different interactional tasks in several sequential environments. Teachers may also orient to diverse pedagogical goals as they produce understanding-checks. Indeed, simply deciding what questions to ask in the language classroom may not be enough, as the interactional circumstances in which a single question is asked and managed by interactants (e.g. teacher/learner silence) may produce a range of responses that are locally contingent (Waring, 2012).

Therefore, taking into account a perspective that highlights learning as participation, and the relevance of utilising appropriate elicitation techniques to promote opportunities for learning in specific learning contexts, the present study sought to examine and detail aspects of interaction focusing on elicitation techniques in the adult English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. The main research questions that were addressed in the present study are:

1. What is the nature of specific elicitation resources utilised by EFL teachers?
2. How do EFL teachers' interactional decisions regarding elicitation hinder/facilitate opportunities for participation and learning?

Methodology

Context of the Study and Participants

The data collected in the present study come from four Chilean teachers and their students in an adult EFL classroom at a language institute in Chile. The participant teachers had at least one year of experience teaching in that institution, and their total amount of experience teaching EFL ranged from two to four years. The students were Chilean adult professionals who sought to improve their language proficiency in order to access international scholarships and better job prospects. The number of students in each group ranged between ten and twelve. The participants were audio-recorded in a total of eight lessons (two 30-minute lessons per teacher) that were delivered as part of a 10-week course. From the total amount of data, six representative extracts were selected taking into account Walsh's (2006) classification for classroom contexts, namely, Managerial, Materials, Skills and systems, and Classroom context. These modes are locally negotiated micro-contexts that shape the moment-by-moment interactions in a lesson. They have a clear pedagogical goal, distinctive interactional features, and are representative of the teacher-fronted interaction that takes place in the second language classroom (Walsh, 2006). The six extracts in the present study were identified as containing interactions belonging to the 'classroom context mode' (CCM). This mode was found suitable for analysis because the pedagogical goals that are particular to this mode involve developing fluency and meaningful exchanges, so learners were encouraged to talk about their feelings, emotions, experiences, and attitudes that are embedded in their own cultural backgrounds. The CCM should be encouraged and researched in EFL contexts because "it is a facet of classroom interaction whose intricacies are usually left aside in teacher training courses" (Cancino, 2017, p. 61). Thus, the specific learning object in the extracts is not the learning of the formal features of the language, but rather, developing fluency and communication.

Data Analysis

In order to carry out the analysis, the present study utilised Conversation Analysis (CA) to illustrate the way in which teachers elicit questions and the impact this has on opportunities for learning and participation. CA is a

data-driven approach that seeks to provide empirical accounts of oral interaction that can illustrate systematic features present in the sequencing organisation of talk, and explain how people use such features as part of social activities (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Lazaraton, 2004). Hence, this approach regards functions of language as a means for social interaction (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) that shape turn-taking features embedded in social contexts. The turn-taking resources are used by individuals to enact context-bound meanings that need to be understood in order to navigate locally managed interactions. In this respect, CA researchers have access to the same competences used by interactants as they try to make sense of an interaction, i.e. reach 'intersubjectivity' (Seedhouse, 2004). The methods that learners have at their disposal are crucial to articulate meanings and maintain social order (Pekarek Doehler, 2010), and a conversation analytic approach is equipped to surface those methods.

Conversation analytic approaches to second language acquisition have underscored the importance of interactions as a source of learning, and as a social phenomenon that allows learners to deploy a wide array of interactional devices to reach mutual understanding (Kasper & Wagner, 2011; Ortega, 2011). An interactional device that is relevant to the present study is the Turn Constructional Unit (TCU), which are turns at talk that are highly dependent on sequential contexts, and can consist of several types of linguistic units, such as sentences, clauses, or lexical constructions, and non-verbal elements such as silence, laughter, or body movements (Sacks et al., 1974). Thus, learner TCUs were identified and discussed taking into account the type of elements they contain (verbal, non-verbal), and the way in which the teacher managed them in a particular sequence.

Transcription conventions were based on Atkinson and Heritage (1984) and modified to meet the needs of the present study (see Appendix). An analysis of the extracts was conducted following Ellis and Barkhuizen's (2005) set of guidelines regarding data analysis within the CA approach. The guidelines contain a series of methodological steps that take into account the institutional nature of classroom talk. In order to accomplish this, the authors combined the guidelines proposed by Pomeranz and Fehr (1997) – which help CA researchers identify and describe the practices that allow participants in ordinary conversation to reach understandings – with suggestions made by Heritage (1997) – designed to describe institutional interaction. The incorporation of elements addressing institutional interaction in the analysis, as Ellis and Barkuizen (2005) state, is a more appropriate approach to analysing teacher and learner talk, given their goal-oriented nature. The steps presented by Ellis and Barkuizen (2005) focus on aspects that need to be taken into account for the selection of a sequence, the characterization of the actions, and the understandings displayed by participants in the sequence, along with the roles accomplished by the interactants. Ellis and Barkuizen (2005) underscore that the guidelines are not comprehensive and should not be followed in a systematic order. Analysis, they write, "is a slow, gradual process which requires repeated listening to the recorded conversation, continuous refinement of the transcript and constant searching for deeper understandings" (p. 221). Therefore, in the present study, this set of steps guided the researcher toward the description of a "conversational 'practice' and the knowledge that conversational participants employ in conducting the practice'" (Lazaraton, 2004, p. 57). Their application yielded information about the way in which opportunities for participation and learning come in and out of existence in the language classroom by means of elicitation.

Procedure

Due to accessibility and availability issues, convenience sampling was used to select the participant teachers. After selecting the teachers from a list of potential participants, the researcher was informed by administrators that those teachers were available and had agreed to have their lessons audio-recorded. For each teacher, the lessons were recorded two weeks apart, with the first lesson being recorded three weeks after the start of the course. Before the recording sessions started, the researcher met with the participant teachers and explained in general terms the type of research being carried out. Then, the researcher introduced himself to the classes and explained the same points in order to collect the consent forms. Following this, the researcher placed a microphone on the teacher's desk and left the room for the duration of the lesson, which was done so as to keep the interaction in these classrooms as genuine as possible by minimising external disruptions. In order to answer the research questions, the data contained lessons and activities in the CCM that aimed mainly to develop oral fluency and teacher-fronted interaction. Thus, each participant teacher was audio-recorded in two 30-minute lessons, which generated approximately 240 minutes of audio recording in total. Then, data portraying teacher-student interactions in the CCM were fully transcribed and analysed by means of conversation analysis.

Results and Discussion

In this section, specific elicitation features that teachers used in the CCM are analysed and discussed. In the CCM, whilst learners are encouraged to produce extended turns, the teacher contributes short turns that will typically take the form of direct repair (fixing a breakdown in communication), content feedback (providing feedback on meaning, as opposed to feedback on form), and backchannel feedback. In particular, two eliciting resources were found to influence learner participation in this mode. These refer to the effective management of closed questions and the use of open referential questions as initiators of CCM.

Effective Management of Closed Questions

As previously stated, closed questions have only one acceptable answer, and are said to be more restrictive in terms of the amount of output that they demand from learners as opposed to open questions, which allow for a range of acceptable answers (Tsui, 1995). The manner in which these questions are asked and what the teacher does next can influence opportunities for learning and participation. First, a typical example portraying the limited range of responses for a closed question is presented in Extract 1. The lesson is part of an elementary level class where learners are discussing favourite films and where L7 has mentioned one particular film she likes, *Spirit[1]*.

Extract 1: T1. Story.

1→	T1:	okay, why [do you] like that film?
2	L7:	[>music<] muc- music, history
3	T1:	the story
4	L7:	the story?, eh:: (.) music? eh:: photography?
5	T1:	okay?
6	L7:	eh:: (.) eh the history i- eh:: spectacular.
7	T1:	okay?
8	L7:	si: [( )]
9		*yes* [( )]
10→	T1:	[ye:s] the story is very good (.) ((addressing L2)) have
11		you seen that film? (0.8) Spirit? (.) [about] the ho:rse
12		and everything?
13	L2:	[yes]
14	L2:	ah yes
15	T1:	ye:s, it's a very good movie (.) what about you?
16		((addressing L4))

In line 1, T1 asks an open question to L7 as she wants to know the reasons why L7 likes the film. This prompts L7 to produce an answer that is delivered in four TCUs. L7's utterances lack verbal forms, and contain lexical errors, but the open question prompted L7 to make an effort to provide an answer. Then, in line 10, T1 asks L2 a closed question in the form of a yes/no question that is connected to the previous topic ('have you seen that film?'). This closed question generates two answers. The first one overlaps T1's further provision of details, and the second one is delivered after T1's turn. In both instances, L7 focuses on the specific type of answer that is required by a yes/no question, that is, L7 produces 'yes' in line 13, and 'ah yes' in line 14. L2's answer is met with content feedback by T1 in line 15, which does not prompt another turn by L2. After providing content feedback, the initiation-response-follow-up (IRF) (Sinclair, & Coulthard, 1975) sequence between T1 and L2 is finished and T1 addresses another learner. It can be noticed in the interaction that the closed question asked by T1 prompted L2 to provide 'yes' as an answer and stop contributing further to the discussion. Due to the content feedback provided by T1 (line 15), L2 oriented to her role in the IRF sequence as fulfilled, so it was not necessary

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[1] It must be noted that in some of the extracts, the CCM is displayed as a side-sequence, i.e., 'the brief departure from one mode to another and back again' (Walsh, 2006, p. 65). In the analysis, when this departure occurs, it will be from the 'Materials mode' to a CCM. The Materials mode is a pedagogical mode where the teacher's and learners' discourse are being dictated by the materials being used, where the initiation-response-feedback pattern is prominent, and where the teacher evaluates learners' contributions by providing form-focused feedback (Walsh, 2006).

to expand her contribution. This sequence suggests that when the goal is to promote communication and fluency, providing content feedback after a closed question has been answered in the shortest form possible may not be the most efficient way to elicit learner talk.

A similar treatment of closed questions can be seen in Extract 2. This interaction belongs to a lesson with intermediate-level learners. This extract portrays a mode side sequence where the teacher momentarily switches from a context in which they are doing textbook activities (Materials mode)[2] to a CCM.

Extract 2: T4. Dinner.

1	T4:	((NAME L6)) it was your mum's <u>birth</u>day yesterday
2		(0.6) what would you have done in that- (.) situation (1)
3	L6:	ah: e- (.) I:: had (.) eh hmm:: (4) yesterday:: (.)
4		birthday?
5	T4:	uh-huh? if it had (.) been?
6	L6:	ah!=
7	T4:	=if it had been?
8	L6:	eh::: hmm: (.) yesterday ( ) birthday
9	T4:	uh-huh?
10	L6:	ah:: hmm:: would have (.) eh:: prepared the:: hmm::
11		(0.6) dinner?
12	T4:	the dinner? okay? and what would you have prepared?
13		(1.5)
14	L6:	sushi
15→	T4:	the su[shi] (.) o:<u>kay</u> (.) would you have prepared sushi
16		or you would have ordered for a delivery=
17	L6:	[((laughs))]
18	L6:	=(I) prepare?
19	T4:	really! ↑you know how to?
20	L6:	yes?
21	T4:	(well) that's really difficult (.) (rolling) with the:: (.)
22		yes (.) ah: nice! (0.6) do you prepare good sushi?
23	L6:	obvio (.) ((laughs))
24		*obviously*
25	T4:	ah:: o- obviously okay good so maybe next week we
26		can all bring some ingredients (0.4) yes and get
27		together arrange something

In Extract 2, the class is checking a textbook activity on the use of conditionals. After nominating L6 to read a sentence from the textbook in line 10, T4 performs a CCM 'side sequence' (Walsh, 2006) and asks a series of questions that seek to elicit meaningful talk from L6. She first asks what L6 would have prepared for dinner (line 12), which is a rather closed question in the sense that the answer does not typically require a long turn. L6 orients to the closed nature of the question by providing a one-word answer ('sushi') in line 13. T4 repeats the lexical item and goes on to ask the next question. This time, T4 asks a closed question in the form of an either/or question (lines 15-16). L6 replies to the question with a very short TCU that includes the verb that T4 used in the question (line 18). Then, T4 provides content feedback on L6's ability to prepare sushi. At this point in the interaction, it could be argued that T6 is still orienting to the Materials mode, as she includes in her questions the conditional forms that learners have seen in the textbook. However, as can be seen in lines 15 and 19, her feedback to L6's answers is content-related and does not seek to elicit such forms from L6. This suggests that T4 does indeed initiate the mode side sequence in line 15. T4 then asks another yes/no question in line 19, which is followed by L6's affirmative token. Again, T4 reacts to L6's short answers by producing content feedback on the difficulty in preparing sushi. This is followed by T4's yes/no question about L6's ability to prepare good sushi (line 22). This time, L6 has decided to provide a different answer to a yes/no question and,

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2   In the Materials mode, the main pedagogical goal is to work with reference to the materials being used. IRF sequences and display questions are typical in this mode, as teachers aim to elicit accurate responses from learners and provide feedback on form. Due to this, there is very little interactional space for learners (Walsh, 2013).

unable or unwilling to do the word search for the word *obviously* in English, she codeswitches to her L1 (Spanish 'obvio', in line 23). T4 translates the word into English and, once again, provides immediate content feedback. The CCM side sequence in Extract 2 (lines 15-27) can then be characterised by long teacher turns and by the absence of long learner turns. Content feedback provided by T4 in lines 15, 19, 21, and 25 did not elicit further talk from the learner. The wait time provided by T4 (line 13) did not encourage learner participation either. The ineffectiveness of these features in promoting learner output can be explained in terms of the closed nature of the questions asked by T4. A closed question restricts the output produced by learners, but it can also prevent any further contributions that learners may want to make, as they may feel that their 'second pair part' (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973) in the question-answer adjacency pair has been completed, however short it may be. This suggests that providing content feedback to one-word answers and wait-time after a closed question may not be enough to facilitate opportunities for participation and learning when the pedagogical goal is to initiate and sustain communication. In contrast, Extract 3 presents a different approach to eliciting learners' answers after the first closed question is asked. This interaction belongs to a lesson with intermediate-level learners and portrays a mode side sequence where the teacher momentarily switches from a reading comprehension correction activity (Materials mode) to a discussion generated from the sentences being corrected (CCM). Here, T3 asks closed questions but demonstrates a better understanding of CIC and the functions that these questions can have in the discourse in a context where fluency and communication are the main pedagogical goals.

Extract 3: T3. Boss.

1	T3:	((addressing L2)) please
2	L2:	((reading from the textbook)) differences in personality
3		can create, ((mispronounced)) (.) [conf-]
4	T3:	[cre]ate?
5	L2:	c- create? (.) confrontation with your boss
6	T3:	okay? (.) is [tha:t?]
7	L2:	[correct] (.) [correct
8	T3:	[correct,
9-	T3:	of course (0.6) is it your case? (0.3) have you ever had any
10		problem, (.) because you have these differences in
11		personality?
12	L2:	[yes]=
13	L7:	[(yeah)]
14	L4:	=yes
15	T3:	yes?
16	L2:	yes
17		(1)
18→	T3:	is it- (.) but, first of all (.) is it only <u>you</u>? (0.3) or (.)
19		maybe there are (0.4) I don't know (.) other colleagues
20		(0.4) that have had the same pro[blem]
21	L4:	[eh]: hmm: (.) in my office?
22	T3:	hmm- hmm?
23	L4:	all, (.) all my colleagues have problem with (0.4) the
24		boss
25	T3:	with the boss with the <u>big</u> bo[ss]
26	L4:	[he]'s: stupid
27	L7:	((chuckles))=

The side sequence into a CCM starts in lines 9-11, where T3 asks two closed questions that require a yes/no answer about learners' problems with their bosses. The two questions in the turn are separated by a short pause, and the second question is a reformulation of the first one, as it seeks to make the meaning of the first one more specific. These closed questions are asked first in order to make learners feel more included in the interaction, and are 'invitations to reply' (Mehan, 1979) because students are expected to reply without being nominated by the teacher. Although teacher gestures were not captured, it seems as if T3 did not select the next speaker, as three learners self-selected and answered the question (lines 12-14). These affirmative tokens did not prompt further elaboration by the learners, so after a one-second pause she decides to ask another

closed question in lines 18-20. T3 does not provide immediate content feedback to the single-word tokens provided by learners (lines 12-14); instead, she produces a turn (lines 18-20) that requires closer analysis. T3 does acknowledge learners' affirmative tokens (line 15) but instead of providing content feedback, she produces 'first of all', an expression that projects further talk and is followed by the question 'is it only you?' as she is interested in knowing whether the problems with her learners' bosses have affected their colleagues. Once this question is asked, she makes a very short pause (0.3) and turns the question into an either/or question, by adding a second option. This is done to clarify the question to the learners, as there is not enough information in the yes/no question to elicit an answer from them, even in short form. In this attempt to clarify the question, T3 'disguises' it as a more open question by including an adverbial of uncertainty ('maybe') and an epistemic marker ('I don't know') in its elaboration (line 19), which displays T3's epistemic stance (Heritage, 2012) regarding possible answers to the questions and invites learners to provide a more informative answer. Thus, a question that was meant to be a closed yes/no question has been modified by T3 in such a way that its answer will require something more than a yes/no token or the mere repetition of a sequence of words included in the question. The closed question asked in lines 18-20 prompted L4 to self-select and provide an account of her situation with her boss whilst producing three turns (lines 21, 23-24, and 26). Following this, it can be argued that when a closed question is asked as part of a CCM, the replacement of content feedback by additional questions when single-word tokens are produced, and the manner in which a closed question is disguised, can elicit more complex and meaningful answers from learners. The addition of these epistemic markers after a closed question is asked can force learners to orient to the content of what is being said by the teacher as part of the question rather than to the closed nature of the question being asked, which can encourage higher-level processing and participation from learners, as was seen in Extract 3.

Open Referential Questions as Initiators of CCM

As previously stated, referential questions are questions to which the teacher does not have an answer, and they generate interactions more typical of social communication; display questions create discourse that is more didactic and seek to confirm knowledge (Tsui, 1995). Although referential questions elicit more talk, when they are more closed the opportunities for learners to produce longer stretches of talk may be reduced, as was seen in Extract 2 (lines 12-24) and Extract 3 (lines 9-17). Referential questions will be discussed here primarily by taking into consideration the role they can have as 'initiators' of a CCM sequence. In particular, the focus was placed on the shift from a Materials mode to a CCM by means of a mode side-sequence (Walsh, 2006). Learner participation was increased when open referential questions that initiate CCM side sequences are asked, as they can open up and shape new interactional sites for learners to explore. Extract 4 and 5 are sequences found in two different groups managed by the same teacher (T2). They both contain referential questions, and they are both instances where learner participation is generated by those questions. The focus of the analysis is placed on the context in which the question 'why are you laughing?' is being asked in both extracts. Extract 4 is presented below.

Extract 4: T2. Contests.

1	T2:	eh: when you were living in Spain (1) did you watch tv? (.)
2	L1:	yes=
3	L6:	=yes
4	L1:	[((laughs))]
5	L6:	[((laughs))]
6→	T2:	why are you laughing? is it too different to Chilean TV?
7	L6:	yes (.) all day eh:: (0.4) eh:: in the afternoon (.) there
8		are many: (.) eh: TV programme? (.) eh:: (.) concursos (.)
9		*contests*
10	T2:	contests (0.6) contests
11	L6:	contests (.) eh:: programme (0.4) during- eh:: (0.9) con
12		-g- many peoples hhh (.) eh::=
13	L2:	((chuckles))
14	T2:	many people?
15	L6:	many people (.) eh:: (.) par<u>ti</u>cipant (.)
16	T2:	uh-huh?=

17	L6:	=participant? (.) in:: (.) en: (.) eh- questions and
18		answers (.)
19	T2:	ah:: Don Francisco's TV shows=
20	L2:	((laughs))
21	T2:	something like that, okay [( )
22	L2:	((laughs))
23	T2:	like that (.)
24	L1:	and the news? are: very different. (.) than Chile (.)
25	L6:	yes
26	L1:	in Chile the news are [largue]?
27	T2:	long?
28	L1:	long
29	L6:	long?
30	L1:	an::d (.) s- eh:: (.) every news? (.) is eh:: (.) long too
31		(0.4) [in: Spain the:: news] are short

T2 is asking L1 and L6 about their trip to Spain. This is being done within a CCM, where T2 is attempting to elicit learners' opinions on cultural differences between countries. T2's closed referential question 'When you were living in Spain did you watch TV?' is answered by L1 and L6 with affirmative tokens, which precede their laughter in lines 4 and 5. These short laughter tokens are TCUs that triggers T2's open referential question 'why are you laughing?', followed by the more closed question 'is it too different to Chilean TV?' (line 6). T2 demonstrates CIC here as she is being sensitive to the learners' potential reactions that can trigger subtopic development. This interactional strategy is in line with the pedagogical goals that T2 has as part of a classroom context mode, i.e. eliciting learner talk and promoting fluency. Although the open referential question in line 6 is followed by a more closed referential question, L6 still orients to both questions when producing an answer in lines 7-8. Interestingly, a closed question such as 'Is it too different to Chilean TV?' projects an answer that is elaborated on with more than an affirmative or negative token. Some of the errors made by L6 and L1 are swiftly repaired by T2. The rising contour T2 gives to the items being repaired (lines 14 and 27) also allows L6 (line 15) and L1 (line 30) to hold the floor and finish their ideas. T2's provision of backchannel feedback (line 16) and content feedback throughout the sequence (particularly when it conveyed a change in epistemic status, such as 'ah' in line 19) also suggests that T2 was orienting to eliciting answers and discussing meanings. Thus, it can be stated that the open referential question produced by T2 in line 6 was skilfully asked in order to fulfil the pedagogical goal set by T2 at that moment. In other words, this question served the purpose of eliciting more answers from elementary level learners in relation to a topic that was already being discussed within a CCM. Extract 5 below portrays an interaction where a mode side sequence from the Materials mode (textbook activity) to the CCM begins in line 7.

Extract 5: T2. Computer.

1	T2:	okay so let's continue with (.) the next sentence?
2		((addressing L7)) (0.6)
3	L7:	eh:: hmm ((reading the textbook)) (.) starting up the
4		computer takes (.) about (.) eh:: two minutes, one, two
5		minutes ( )=
6	L5:	=hhh ((laughs))
7→	T2:	why are you laughing? how l-=
8	L5:	=(ah)
9	T2:	how long does it take for you?
10	L5:	ah: beca:use: eh: I use eh: my computer in my job (.)
11		in my work eh:: hmm a:nd my computer have? eh ah
12		hmm: (.) software? eh hmm (0.4) eh; hard software.
13	T2:	what do you mean?
14	L7:	(hes)=
15	L6:	=eh heavy software
16	L5:	ah he- sorry, heavy software (.)
17	T2:	ah okay?

18	L5:	eh [hmm::
19	L2:	Atari (.)
20	LL:	((laughter))
21	L5:	( ) my computer takes (.) eh: hmm: starting? (.)
22		eh: about ten minutes
23	T2:	[ten minutes!
24	LL:	[wow!=
25	L2:	=it's a lot!
26	T2:	it's awful (.) what do you do? while you wait you do
27		[( )]
28	L5:	[(I) wash] my hands
29	LL:	((laughter))
30	L5:	to wash my hands?
31	T2:	uh-huh?
(…)		
70	T2:	((goes back to the textbook activity and addresses L2))

In this sequence, T2 is checking the answers to a textbook activity that reviews the use of 'it takes' when used with time expressions. T2 has nominated L7 to read a sentence from the exercise. As L7 finishes the sentence, her utterance is latched to L5's aspiration and laughter in line 6. T2 orients to this laughter in line 7 and asks L5 'why are you laughing?' As was the case in Extract 4, a learner's laughter has triggered T2's open referential question, which is phrased in the same way in both extracts. However, unlike the open referential question asked in Extract 4 (line 6), this open referential question is initiating a mode side sequence where T2 momentarily moves from a Materials mode to a CCM. The open referential question asked by T2 is followed by her attempt to ask the more contextualised question 'how long does it take for you?'. The way in which T2 follows her delivery of 'why are you laughing?' in reaction to the learner's laughter TCUs in both extracts is quite similar; in Extracts 4 (line 6) and 5 (line 7), T2 asks a more closed referential question after the first one. Also, T2's second question is more closed in nature and provided the recipients with more context in which to build their turn. L5 interrupts T2's first attempt to ask the question and latches a hesitation marker ('ah') to T2's unfinished contribution (line 8). T2 asks the completed second referential question in the next turn. This is followed by L5's explanation of the reasons why she laughed, which are related to the fact that her own computer takes a lot of time to start up. The ensuing mode side sequence is characterised by T2's content feedback (lines 23 and 26), backchannel feedback (lines 17 and 31), clarification requests (line 13), and a departure from the IRF turn-taking pattern. Although it could be argued that L5 is still orienting to the structure being learned (the use of *take* with time expressions) in line 21, the manner in which this turn is managed by T2 suggests that the mode side sequence is in full effect; T2 does not correct L5's error and provides non-evaluative feedback (line 23 and 26), which are distinctive features of a CCM. Thus, it can be stated that the mode side sequence taking place in Extract 5 has made T2 move away from eliciting responses in relation to the materials being used and language practice with a particular structure (lines 1-5) toward co-constructing a sequence where learners have more space to express themselves and where their meaningful contributions are being encouraged (Walsh, 2006). Interestingly, the open referential question 'why are you laughing?' has been triggered by a learner's laughter and has promoted learner participation in both extracts. The context in which the open referential question was delivered is, however, quite different. In Extract 4, T2 asked the question as part of a CCM that was in full operation, whilst in Extract 5, T2 asked the same question when the Materials mode was in place. Unlike open referential questions that are part of CCMs, open referential questions that initiate a CCM require teachers to scan learners' responses, gestures, and body movements when engaging in other modes, as these can potentially trigger an open referential question and initiate a CCM switch or mode side sequence, which is the case in Extract 5. In this extract, T2 has been sensitive to learners' reactions to the ongoing practice with the materials and has oriented to them in order to generate a CCM. These findings are in line with Waring et al. (2016), who found that certain unexpected learner contributions can be tactfully managed by the teacher to achieve a particular pedagogical trajectory.

Opportunities for asking open referential question initiators of a CCM are being missed when the teacher fails to notice potential triggers. Extract 6 below is an episode that is part of a Materials mode where T4 is checking responses for an activity that involves the use of cards. These cards contain a question that prompts learners to use a conditional structure.

Extract 6: T4. Supermarket.

1	T4:	((addressing L2)) tell me: (.) ((reading the card)) what
2		would you have <u>done</u>, if you saw someone stealing in the
3		supermarket at the weekend
4		(2.3)
5	L2:	eh hmm:: (3.9) hmm: (.) if I had (.) eh:: s:::een?
6	T4:	hmm-hmm?
7	L2:	someone: stealing in a supermarket? (0.8) I::: would
8		have (.) eh::: (.) speak with the::: security::: (.)
9		manager of the:: s:: (.) of [the: store]
10	T4:	[of the super]mar- of the store
11		(.) you would have <u>spoken</u> (.) to that man (0.3) okay (.)
12→		<u>very</u> good (0.3) <u>very</u> <u>honest</u> (.) yes. (.) ((laughs)) okay
13		((asks another question to L6))

Extract 6 portrays an interaction that belong to a Materials mode, as discourse is being dictated by the materials being used, and an IRF pattern and form-focused feedback are given by T4. Nonetheless, the focus of the analysis is placed on line 12. Here, T2 produces TCUs that are arguably not evaluative. The first one is 'very good', which would typically be seen in a Materials mode as positive evaluative feedback in the third turn of an IRF sequence (Wong & Waring, 2009). In this context, however, it seems that T4 is orienting to the meaning of L2's utterance (the idea that L2 would have spoken to the security manager) rather than to its form. It is unlikely that T4 would produce 'very good' as a linguistic evaluation of L2's turn since it contained an error ('speak' in line 8) which was corrected by T4 (line 11). The next TCU in line 12 is 'very honest', which orients to the content of L2's contribution and is followed by an affirmative token and T4's laughter. When T4 nominates L6 to repeat the same sequence (line 13), T4 has lost the opportunity to exploit L2's TCUs as a trigger to initiate a CCM side sequence. Even though she attempts to orient to the meaning of L2's utterance by providing content feedback, she is unable (or unwilling) to use this as a platform from which to ask a referential question that orients to topic development, which would have engaged L2 and probably other learners in meaningful conversation.

The unpacking of the interactions in the selected extracts has yielded a number of findings. It was found that providing content feedback in the third turn of the IRF – that is, after a closed question such as a yes/no question has been answered – may prompt learners to regard their role in the interaction as fulfilled (Extracts 1 and 2). Thus, content feedback provided in the third turn after a closed question is asked as part of an IRF sequence in a CCM was not found to elicit more talk from learners. There are steps that can be taken to address this lack of learner talk. Teachers could benefit from understanding that asking a closed question is only the first step in the process of eliciting answers from learners. This is a first step that has a purpose because it can initiate a topic and, if it is done by nominating the whole class, it can make learners feel they are all being part of the interaction. After a closed question is asked, teachers can immediately ask more open referential questions or 'disguise' a closed question as a more open question. This can be done by using epistemic markers that help display an inferior epistemic stance (Heritage, 2012), which can prompt learners to elaborate on their answers and engage in higher cognitive processing before answering (Extract 3). It must be noted that certain features of interactions that are typically accepted and encouraged in contexts that seek to develop fluency may not always be used appropriately. In line with Cancino (2015), it was found that a teacher strategy such as the provision of content feedback facilitated or hindered learner involvement in this context depending on whether "the teacher interpret[ed] the local intricacies of the unfolding interaction in context-sensitive ways" (p. 13). This can be seen in Extract 3, where content feedback is immediately provided after a learner replies to a closed question with a single-word token, which reduced learner involvement.

Referential questions were analysed in terms of the benefits that can be gained from a strategy that allows teachers to evaluate learners' contributions not only in terms of their correctness but also in terms of their potential value as triggers of a CCM. It is argued that referential questions can initiate a classroom mode sequence or mode switch and the resulting sequence can be as beneficial to learners as a referential question that is already part of a CCM (Extracts 4 and 5). In order for teachers to initiate a CCM sequence, they must be very sensitive to potential triggers in learners' turns that can allow them to ask a referential question and skilfully steer the interaction towards a CCM. As the analysis of Extract 6 suggests, if teachers repeatedly fail to

notice and react to these triggers then opportunities for more meaningful interaction and participation will be missed.

Conclusion

Analysis of the extracts has suggested that teachers can demonstrate classroom interactional competence by attending to contextual features in the interaction as they elicit language from their learners. Two aspects in the elicitation of questions were identified, namely, the effective management of closed questions, and the use of open referential questions as initiators of a CCM. These novel elicitation resources can promote a facilitator-oriented approach to teaching because they can elicit more learner talk and grant greater participation rights in a CCM. Consequently, the value of the identified elicitation resources lies in their potential to initiate and sustain a CCM, as well as their inclusion in a framework that seeks to develop teachers' classroom interactional competence. When open referential questions are asked in a context that can potentially initiate a CCM, they may not be fully exploited by teachers because they are not asked while taking into account the moment-by-moment nature of the interaction. This may result in opportunities for learning and participation that are not capitalised upon. Indeed, asking a referential question is only the first step; teachers should be aware of learners' replies and optimise them by building on them. Open referential questions that initiate and sustain CCM interactions can exploit these aspects and are to be encouraged. As these questions are initiated as parts of other modes, the amount of learner participation and involvement in the production of meaningful interaction is increased, which is desirable in EFL classrooms, where the opportunities for teachers to develop fluency and promote communication need to be maximised. If specific pedagogical goals can influence the effectiveness of display and referential questions in particular pedagogical contexts, teachers need to be aware of elicitation resources that can help them meet those pedagogical goals in the CCM. Teachers typically forget to switch back to a CCM when they initiate mode side sequences that include explanations of grammar points or explaining a lexical item. What is argued here is that doing quite the opposite – that is, asking open referential questions that initiate a CCM side sequence – should be encouraged in an EFL context, as these interactional resources can provide learners with target language practice elicited through their own ideas and feelings. Exploiting these types of questions requires teachers to listen to what learners are saying in other modes (such as the Materials mode) and regard their contributions not only just as utterances that need to be evaluated in terms of their accuracy, but also in terms of how they can potentially initiate CCMs. The CCM is a very important stage in the language classroom, but it becomes crucial in EFL contexts. In these contexts, opportunities are scarce for learners to use the target language once they leave the classroom, so when teachers fail to promote and sustain the meaningful interactions that takes place in the CCM, learners are left without a critical aspect of language learning. Thus, identifying ways to initiate and sustain the CCM by means of eliciting questions should be encouraged and nurtured in a teacher's set of interactional strategies.

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Appendix

Transcription conventions (adapted from Atkinson & Heritage, 1984)

T:	Teacher
L1:	Identified learner (e.g., Learner 1)
NAME:	A specific learner is being nominated in the interaction (e.g., NAME L1)
[ ]	Overlapping utterances. Overlap onset: ([ ). Overlap termination: ( ])
=	An equal sign is inserted at the end of one speaker's turn and at the beginning of the next speaker's turn to show that there is no gap between the turns.
(0.4)	Periods of silence, timed in tenths of a second between utterances.
	Micropauses, that is, pauses lasting less than 0.3 seconds, are symbolised '(.)'; longer pauses appear as time within parentheses: (0.5) is five tenths of a second.
:	Sound extension of a word (more colons demonstrate longer stretches).
.	Fall in tone (not necessarily the end of a sentence).
,	Continuing intonation (not necessarily between clauses).
-	An abrupt stop in articulation.
?	Rising inflection (not necessarily a question).
!	Words ending with emphasis.
°	They surround talk that is quieter.
↑↓	Indication of sharply higher or lower pitch in the utterance followed by the arrow.
hhh	Audible in-breath. The more h's, the longer the in-breath.
.hhh	Audible out-breath. The more h's, the longer the out-breath.
> <	They surround talk that is spoken faster than neighbouring talk.
< >	They surround talk that is spoken slower than neighbouring talk.
(( ))	Analyst's notes. Non-vocal action. Details of scene.
( )	Approximations of what is heard. Words within parentheses are uncertain.
<u>word</u>	Underlined letters or words indicate marked stress.
italics.	English translation, immediately after the original word(s).
→	Feature of special interest.

A Comparison of EFL Fifth Graders' Vocabulary Acquisition through Skype Videoconferencing and Face-to-face Picture Book Storytelling

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This quasi-experimental study explores the relative efficacy of computer-mediated communication (CMC) and face-to-face picture book storytelling for promoting young EFL learners' English word acquisition. Thirty-two young EFL learners participated in a 40-minute story session in the two aforementioned modes. Receptive and productive word gains were assessed through immediate and delayed receptive vocabulary tests and productive story recall tests. To better explain how the CMC and face-to-face settings affected the participants' word gains, their involvement in the two types of storytelling settings was evaluated using an involvement load survey. The results show that the participants' task involvement was higher in the face-to-face setting than the CMC setting, which led to better word gains. Within each setting, high-involvement participants' word gain was better than that of their low-involvement counterparts. However, the difference between high-involvement and low-involvement participants was only manifest in the receptive word gains for the participants in the CMC setting, but not the productive word gains. These findings suggest that face-to-face storytelling might be the more effective setting when picture book storytelling is adopted to promote EFL young learners' word gains, especially for receptive word gains.

Keywords: Videoconferencing, Involvement Load Hypothesis, Young EFL Learners, Vocabulary Acquisition

Introduction

Videoconferencing, a form of computer-mediated communication (CMC), is a promising instructional medium that brings authentic language input and inter-cultural language exchange into a language classroom (Anderson & Rourke, 2005; Morgan, 2013). It has also been commended for providing opportunities that are similar to face-to-face interaction for meaning negotiation between interlocutors and focus on form that facilitate second-language (L2) or foreign-language (FL) development (Akiyama, 2019; Bower & Kawaguchi, 2011; Rassaei, 2017).

However, studies that explore the benefits and issues relevant to videoconferencing activities focus primarily on L2 or FL adult learners. Limited attention has been paid to implementing videoconferencing projects with elementary school learners, particularly in the EFL context. Amongst the existing studies that are conducted with elementary school FL learners, the focus is generally placed on the affective level, such as their attitude towards the technological support of language learning or attitude towards cross-cultural communication experiences (e.g., Cuestas, 2013; Ockert, 2015; Phillips, 2010; Tsukamoto, Nuspliger, & Senzaki, 2009; Yu, 2018). The impact of the actual linguistic gains arising from videoconferencing activities is rarely explored in extant studies.

As reported in Yu's study (2018), elementary school children's readiness and preparedness to engage in one-on-one videoconferencing activities pose difficulties for conducting such lessons or activities. Although learners' self-regulation and skills to operate technology individually require years of preparation and maturation, the potent potentiality of videoconferencing deserves our further exploration with elementary school children.

One possibility that is often utilized in videoconferencing sessions is to invite proficient English speakers to interact with the EFL learners. One such interaction event that is used frequently in the classroom for elementary FL learners is picture book storytelling—an important interaction activity for exposing FL learners to authentic language input in a formal education context. Specifically, storytelling exposes FL learners to rhetorical or discourse devices that are only employed by expert/native instructors (Lee, 2002), and it offers abundant, authentic, synchronous exchanges between expert/native speakers and FL learners (Lowenthal & Dunlap, 2010).

Although storytelling through videoconferencing could be limited in its potency in co-presenting the narrator's gestures/facial expressions and the actual pictures/story at times (due to screen switching), it produces prompted feedback and more collaborative group interaction among all the group members than face-to-face contexts (Fahy, 2007). Importantly, like other digital distance learning materials, the content of digital storytelling can be recorded, thereby offering repeated listening and reviewing materials from expert/native speakers for FL learners—a valuable asset to FL instructors and learners.

Nevertheless, the aforementioned advantages of storytelling through videoconferencing are mainly examined and discussed in limited studies focusing on adult learners (e.g., Fahy, 2007). Videoconferencing studies on adult learners have shown that older and cognitively mature FL learners tend to direct their focal attention to meaning (such as exchanging ideas), rather than to meaning and form—which is the key for language acquisition (Lee, 2002). This finding suggests that videoconferencing does not always provide optimal scaffold in all facets of language development, at least as far as adult language learners are concerned. Whether this remains true for elementary FL learners warrants further research.

Accordingly, in spite of the increasing popularity of storytelling through videoconferencing in the elementary FL classroom, much remains unknown about how these learners allocate their attention to form and meaning in a picture book storytelling session, and how they interact with the participants in CMC videoconferencing and face-to-face settings, let alone empirical evidence validating elementary FL learners' linguistic gains in these two settings. Insights into the above issue not only provide empirical evidence on elementary school language learners' attention allocation during the storytelling process but also shed light on ways that teachers and learners can align for optimal learning outcomes in vocabulary learning, comprehension, or other linguistic aspects.

To shed light on the optimal picture book storytelling setting, this study sets out to compare the efficacy of picture book storytelling conducted in face-to-face classroom and videoconferencing contexts from the perspective of the Involvement Load Hypothesis (ILH; see 2.1 for more detail). Proponents of the ILH believe that higher involvement in a task will lead to better learning outcomes. It is hoped that the obtained data can add to our understanding of which storytelling setting (face-to-face versus videoconferencing) leads to higher involvement and whether higher involvement indeed results in better novel word acquisition as predicted by the ILH.

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework: Involvement Load Hypothesis

Malin (2010) argues that a reader of a story must engage the audience and create a "secondary world" that effectively invites the audience to visualize or imagine particular settings, and enact character roles in these settings. Without being engaged in the storytelling, the audience will not connect the story to their lives, and consequently they will not construct any mental imagery or meaning from it. Audiences who are not engaged or involved in seeing the storytelling events as a passive transmission of information and will not take interest

in the action of the story—imagining and interpreting the story text and words. Accordingly, involvement is the key to the success of storytelling.

The Involvement Load Hypothesis (ILH) provides a motivational-cognitive construct framework to help us perceive and assess language learners' engagement with texts (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). It conceptualizes the construct of *involvement* in terms of two cognitive components (i.e., *need* and *search*) and one motivational component (i.e., *evaluation*). To begin with, need is pertinent to learners' motivation or urge to engage with the text. *Need* is either moderate or strong depending on whether the motivation is self-imposed or extrinsic. *Search* and *evaluation* are relevant to the cognitive dimensions of involvement and are "*contingent upon allocating attention to the form-meaning relationship*" (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001, p. 543). Specifically, *search* refers to the attempt to find and/or construct the meaning of an unknown word or an L2 form to express a concept. It is thus either absent or present. *Evaluation,* on the other hand, is concerned with the decision and act to assess a word's meaning or 'goodness of fit' in context. *Evaluation* is strong if the comparison involves considering how additional words will combine with the target new word in a *learner-generated* (as opposed to given) context (Hulstijn & Laufer &, 2001). Evaluation is said to be moderate if the comparison only involves "recognizing differences between words" in a *given* context (as in a fill-in task with words provided)" or the comparison only encompasses "differences between several senses of *a word* in a [given] context" (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; p. 15).

The state of a learner's *need*, *search,* and *evaluation* varies in terms of prominence. Hulstijn and Laufer maintain that involvement in a task enhances the depth of input processing and degree of cognitive effort while encoding the input, with higher involvement load leading to better learning and retention of words. An extensive body of research has established that the evaluation of a learner's *need*, *search,* and *evaluation* helps predict whether a word can be learned and retained (e.g., Hu & Nassaji, 2016; Zou, 2017). In this light, the ILH will serve as the theoretical and methodological tenet for the inquiries of this study, which set out to explore the correlation between learners' involvement and their word gains in the face-to-face and CMC settings.

While the studies mentioned above set out to explore the ILH in the context of L2 written vocabulary acquisition (where learning is mainly based on input from one modality) and provided positive evidence supporting the claims of the ILH, few of them have explored the ILH in the contexts of multimodal input such as videoconferencing picture book storytelling and face-to-face picture book storytelling.

Videoconferencing on Foreign Language Learning

Videoconferencing has been widely applied for educational purposes and language learning. A growing number of studies have acknowledged that during videoconferencing learners are able to receive authentic language input, produce output, and receive prompt feedback. Literature has also examined the extent to which videoconferencing contributes to learners' L2 and FL linguistic development.

First, learners gained more intercultural awareness through videoconferencing activities. Chen and Yang (2014) paired 15 Taiwanese seventh graders with Pakistani students. After participating in storytelling and cross-cultural discussions, the pairs found themselves more confident when engaging in inter-cultural communication. Moreover, videoconferencing can promote collaborative learning strategies and enhance oral communication skills. Cuestas (2013) conducted interview sessions where 23 elementary students and an expert/native speaker discussed a prepared topic. The qualitative data suggested that the learners' increased peer scaffolding and motivation in speaking. Lim and Pyun (2019) paired Korean-learning U.S. university students with students from Korea for videoconferencing language learning tasks. The students in general made significant progress in their speaking and listening abilities. In addition, those students participating in the Korean-US study became motivated and confidant engaging in target language exchange. Phillips (2010) kept journal interview, and informal conversation notes and concluded that British students were motivated to speak the target language and engage in conversations when receiving videoconferencing instruction. In Ockert (2015), the Japanese-Australian elementary student pairs self-reported more desire to engage in FL learning activities after videoconferencing sessions. Finally, studies suggested that specific tasks via videoconferencing facilitate learners to focus on form. Akiyama (2019) explored Japanese FL adult learners in the US learning vocabulary through different modalities and concluded that videoconferencing, compared with text chat and images only, resulted in better vocabulary learning.

Additionally, the issues and processes of designing videoconferencing activities in educational contexts and language learning were also explored. For instance, Andrew (2005) suggested in his review reports that effective videoconferencing design and learning should match the teacher's particular teaching style and the need to engage learners through effective discussions between and among learners and teachers. Echoing that, Acar (2007) cautioned that the design of videoconferencing activities should be interaction-oriented. Yu (2018) also suggested that during videoconferencing sessions, teachers should elicit discussions regarding the goal of the activity and the learners' language proficiency as well as their affective factors.

In reviewing relevant literature on videoconferencing, a limited scope was found to have investigated participants in elementary schools as compared with adult learners as shown in Table 1. To fill the gap, the current study hopes to expand the scope by exploring fifth graders' novel word acquisition through a commonly used classroom practice – storytelling.

Table 1
Empirical Research on Videoconferencing

Research	Participants	Major Findings
Akiyama (2019)	University students	Participants scored higher in videoconferencing vocabulary learning
Phillips (2010)	Elementary students	Participants felt more confident speaking the target language and were motivated to engage in videoconferencing sessions
Chen & Yang (2014)	7th grade students	Participants gained more cultural communicative competence
Cuestas (2013)	11-12 year old elementary students	Participants exerted more "peer-scaffolding" and "engagement" in speaking activities
Lim & Pyun (2019)	University students	Participants made significant progress in listening and speaking abilities via videoconferencing
Ockert (2015)	Elementary students	Participants self-reported a stronger desire to engage in international contexts and foreign language activities
Rassaei (2017)	University students	Oral corrective feedback via videoconferencing was found to be as effective as face-to-face
Souzanzan (2017)	Elementary students	The experimental group's (via videoconferencing) speaking ability outperformed the control group
Yen, Hou & Chang (2015)	University students	Participants improved their speaking and writing skills
Yu (2018)	Fifth grade students	Uneven participants performance was noted due to commitment, learning attitude, personalities, and language proficiency

Videoconferencing vs. face-to-face mode of picture book storytelling

Storytelling research conducted with foreign language learners indicates that stories have the potential to harness the growth of learners' vocabulary (Kirsch, 2016; Lee, 2005; Yeung et al., 2016). The process of storytelling with elementary-level learners is an intricate process. It entails communicative interactions and tasks that are imposed upon learners for them to guess or infer unknown words from various teacher scaffolds and book illustrations (Kirsch, 2016). To this end, a teacher usually employs a plethora of techniques to promote learner engagement, interest in and understanding of the text, including, but not limited to, paraphrase, use of body actions or hand gestures, intensive eye-contact, prompting questions while reading the text, and cognitive tasks that require the audience to search for missing information, to name a few.

Although it is believed that videoconferencing contributes to L2 development by providing opportunities for authentic communication and drawing learners' attention to linguistic input, it is important to note that learners' attentional allocation strategies may be qualitatively different in the face-to-face and CMC settings (Kim, 2014). Specifically, in traditional classrooms where teachers are physically present with the learners, learners' attention to the teacher and the scaffolds used by the teacher during the picture book storytelling session is, in most cases, under the control of the learners. In a picture book storytelling session delivered through videoconferencing, teachers often have to switch the screens between the picture book content and themselves. In this case, what the learners should focus on, in most cases, controlled by the teacher, rather than the learners. In other words, the attentional orientation is mainly controlled by the learners in the face-to-face picture book storytelling setting and the teacher in the CMC setting. Which type of attention control would

lead to deeper involvement in a picture book storytelling session is yet to be revealed. However, hitherto, we still do not know a lot about the relative efficacy of picture book storytelling in these two settings.

In light of this, the current study probes the efficacy of storytelling in the videoconferencing and face-to-face contexts with a focus on novel word learning. the Involvement Load Hypothesis is used as a framework to gauge learners' involvement or attention to various tasks in storytelling. Two questions are explored in the present study:

1. What is the relative efficacy of videoconference and face-to-face
2. storytelling in terms of their potency to promote the L2 word acquisition of fifth grade learners?
3. How does fifth grade learners' involvement, as assessed by their states for *need*, *search*, and *evaluation*, affect the relative efficacy of videoconferencing and face-to-face storytelling in promoting L2 word acquisition?

Methodology

Participants

Two classes of EFL fifth grade Chinese-speaking students (age: 12-13) in a public elementary school in Taipei participated in the study, a total of 32 students. All of them had evaluated their English performance in 4th grade and were grouped into the same level of English classes. In other words, both classes of participants were comparable in terms of their English learning experiences and initial English proficiency. At the time of the study, there were no students in either class attending special education programs and no students had disabilities. Both of the classes were assigned randomly to be the CMC storytelling (i.e., videoconferencing) group and face-to-face storytelling group.

Furthermore, based on their scores from the self-reported task involvement survey (see 3.3 for more detail), the participants from each class were further subdivided into high-involvement group and a low-involvement group. The participants whose average mean score for each statement was above 2 or approximately 2, were grouped into the high-involvement group, and the others were placed in the low-involvement group. The high-involvement group is considered to be those who invested significant attentional resources, and the low-involvement group those, who did not, during the picture book storytelling session.

In addition to the two groups of participating students, an experienced English teacher with a master's degree and 20 years of teaching experience was invited to be the storyteller for the two classes. She presented the same story book to two classes with the same presentation style and the exact same inquiry questions.

Picture Book and Target Words

The picture book used in this study was *Edwina: The Dinosaur Who Did Not Know She Was Extinct* (Willems, 2006). The book was selected for its topic familiarity to the participants and relevance of content (student daily life), context (classroom, park, neighborhood streets), and age appropriateness (K-2), as validated by both the participants' regular native and non-native English teachers. Edwina is a loving dinosaur who bakes chocolate-chip cookies for everyone and helps her neighbors. Everyone loves her except one smart little boy, Reginald, who is determined to prove to his classmates that dinosaurs are extinct. Six target words were chosen from the book to maintain the 6% unknown word density rate prescribed by Nation and Coady (1988). The target words were chosen for their importance in understanding the plots of the story. Those unknown words were also presented on pages with clear illustrations that could aid the participants' inferring process. The six target words were: *Edwina, care, bake, except, extinct, protesting*.

Research Design and Instrument

The present study employed a quasi-experimental design. All participants experienced a picture book storytelling session, with half of them taking place in a traditional face-to-face setting and half of them through a CMC (i.e., Skype-videoconferencing) setting. Regardless of the picture book setting they attended, all participants completed the following tasks: (1) a picture book storytelling session; (2) a self-reported task

involvement survey; (3) three receptive vocabulary tests (i.e., a pretest, an immediate post-test, and a delayed post-test); and (4) two story recall tasks (i.e., immediate and delayed). The ensuing paragraphs will describe these above tasks in more detail.

Picture Book Storytelling Session
Both the face-to-face and CMC storytelling sessions took place in the participants' L2 (English), and the participants were encouraged to respond to the storyteller in the L2 (but were given the freedom to use their L1). One experienced EFL instructor was recruited as the storyteller for the study. This instructor had been teaching young EFL learners for more than 20 years, and importantly had been using picture books both in the face-to-face and CMC settings for many years. The EFL instructor ensured that the qualities of L2 use, emphasis of specific story events, interactive tasks, vocabulary focus, and time allocation could be maintained equally in both the face-to-face and CMC settings. The contents of the picture book were displayed to the participants via *Keynote* as the story was told.

During the traditional face-to-dace storytelling session, the storyteller narrated the stories with body languages, facial expressions, modulating voice, chants, and prompt questions accompanied with the presentation of the Keynote slides. Prompt questions were strategically used to enhance story comprehension and highlight target word meanings. Brief summary sessions were also administered using the method think-pair-share to ensure all participants had equal opportunities to listen to their partners and produce the target words in contexts. It is important to note that a natural classroom is full of interactions and reactions between the instructor and students. Different classes could have different responses to a certain event. The storyteller ensured critical moves, such as narrating, stopping points for prompt questions, pair and group discussions, were taken into account in both settings. Despite the storyteller's efforts to maintain a similar narrating style in the CMC and face-to-face settings, the storyteller had to switch between the camera view (which highlighted the storyteller) and the digital image view (the picture book and animation) from time to time. Consequently, the participants in the CMC setting were not able to fully see the scaffolds from the storyteller's face or body movement when the screen was switched to the picture book. Despite this, the audio input from the storyteller in the CMC setting was unaffected. Generally speaking, the storyteller, who was also the English teacher for the two classes, was trying to process the instruction with the same moves, following the same sequence of teaching activities, and posing the same inquiry questions.

Self-reported Task Involvement Survey
The survey was designed to gauge the participants' involvement in tasks during the storytelling session. It is important to note that the participants' involvement load can be artificially manipulated/induced by a task (see Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001), and that in this regard, the participants' involvement can only be indirectly inferred through the nature and demand of the task assigned to the participants. In this study, we felt that the participants' self-reflection or retrospection of their experience during the picture storytelling event would provide a more accurate picture of their actual involvement load. To this end, a task involvement load survey, which contained seven statements written in the participants' L1, was constructed (See Table 3, Section 4.1 for details).

In this survey, the participants were instructed to read and rate each statement based on the three components prescribed by Hulstijn and Laufer (2001):

1. *Need* (N): learners' perceived motivation or urge to engage with the text. This component was dichotomously assessed: either moderate (1: extrinsic motivation) or strong (2: intrinsic motivation)
2. *Search* (S): learners' actual attempt to find and/or construct the meaning of an unknown word or an L2 form to express a concept, which was also dichotomously assessed: either absent (0) or present (1)
3. *Evaluation* (E): learners' actual act to assess a word's meaning or 'goodness of fit' in context, which was gauged on a 3-point scale: absent (0), moderate (1) and strong (2)

After the experimental instruction, the researcher interviewed all of the participants about the seven statements, inquiring as to their experiences of vocabulary learning during the storytelling session. When the interview started, the participants were instructed to read through the statements on the survey, answering the researcher's questions and explained their responses toward each statement, which were rated respectively by means of Hulstijn and Laufer's rating method.

Taking interviewing about the first statement as an example (see Table 3), the researcher would first ask the participant to read the statement, then answer whether he/she had had such an experience during the storytelling session. If he/she answered no, he/she would get zero points for the "Search" component. It implied that he/she had not applied the specific strategy during the storytelling session; thus, no more questions would be asked and the survey would proceed to the second statement. The participant would be rated zero for both "Need" and "Evaluate" for the first statement.

On the other hand, if the participant answered yes, he/she would be asked to give an example of his/her experience and he/she would get one point for the "Search" component. Then the researcher asked the participant "Did you do it out of your own interest or by the teacher's request?" If he/she answered doing it out of their own interest, then they got two points for the "Need" component, referring to his/her intrinsic motivation. If he/she did it by teachers' request, then they got one point for the "Need" component, which was encouraged outwardly. Lastly, the researcher asked the participant whether he/she had tried to apply the word to communicate with others in class. If their answer was no, they got zero points for the "Evaluation" component. If their answer was yes, they needed to give examples and tell how many times they used the word in context. If they applied the word for more than one time, they would obtain two points for the "Evaluation" component. The points they obtained based upon their responses toward the three components were then summed up for every participant's performance in the study. The highest total score a participant could get for each statement was five points and the lowest was zero. The higher points they obtained, the more involvement they were considered to have engaged in during the experimental instruction. The average performance of all the participants is presented in Table 3.

In the above spirit, the participants in this study were asked to rate seven involvement load statements in terms of *need, search,* and *evaluation* when coming across a novel word or phrase. A participant's involvement load is inferred through the sum of the need, search, and evaluation points they earned for the seven statements. The seven statements, which described various common acts that young FL learners may undertake/experience in a picture book storytelling events (e.g., using illustration to make sense of a novel word) in the participants' L1, were constructed based on a survey administered to several experienced EFL teachers who have been using picture books in their classes for more than ten years. The seven statements aimed at assessing the aggregate amount of involvement load the picture book storytelling task imposed on the participants. To ensure the participants' understanding of the statements and the reliability of their ratings of the statement, the wording of the statements was carefully written for the fifth graders and was validated by two educational psychologists. Additionally, the researcher provided oral explanations and examples for each statement before the participants started their rating.

Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) contend that the aggregate amount of need, search, and evaluation a task imposes on the learner positively determines the outcome of word learning and retention. Based on the participants' points for the survey, the participants in the CMC and face-to-face groups were further subdivided into two groups; the participants whose average mean score for each statement was above 2 were grouped into the high involvement group, and the others were into the low involvement group.

Receptive Vocabulary Tests
Three vocabulary tests (the pretest, the immediate posttest, and the delayed posttest) were administered to gauge the participants' receptive word gains. The three tests were identical in terms of format and all contained 16 items, including six target words and 10 distractors. The vocabulary pretest was used to ensure that all six target words were indeed novel to the participants prior to the picture book storytelling session. During the pretest, the words were visually presented and read aloud to the participants, who were told to circle the words. For each word circled, the participants were then asked to explain their knowledge of the words either in their L1 or L2. In other words, the recognition of word meaning was focused on and explored. The same procedure was repeated in both the immediate and delayed vocabulary posttest. The immediate posttests and delayed posttests contained the original pretest items but the presentation order in the two posttests was shuffled and hence different across the tests. An example of the pretest is presented in Table 2.

Productive Vocabulary Test in the Form of Story Recall
In addition to the aforementioned receptive vocabulary measures, all participants were asked to recollect and then retell the contents of the story using their L2 (English) twice: once immediately after the storytelling

Table 2
An Example of the Receptive Vocabulary Pretest

HELLO!

Listen and circle the words you know. 聽聽看，請幫助 Miss Winnie 把你認識的字圈出來！			
daddy	smile	extinct	except
bake	protesting	smile	hair
Edwina	happy	care	dinosaur
grandmother	call	hair	listen

session and a second time four weeks after the storytelling session. This productive task was administered to determine the participants' ability to recall and *produce* the target vocabulary—words that were novel to the participants both in terms of (spoken) form and meaning prior to the study—in a sentential context. If the participants were capable of recalling and producing the target vocabulary, it would provide a strong case for their productive word gain and retention in the face-to-face and CMC settings. A point would be awarded when and if a word was pronounced intelligibly and in an adequate sentential context during their recall as verified by the storyteller (see Chen & Han, 2010 for a similar design). Examples of a sentential context are given below:

- She bakes cookies for everybody.
- She is very kind.
- Dinosaurs are extinct.
- Everyone likes her except the little boy.

Moreover, since grammaticality is not an issue in the present study, the rating did not consider grammatical errors such as incorrect conjugation, parts of speech, or tense. Using the target word *care,* for example*,* one point would be awarded in *all* of the following scenarios below:

<u>She doesn't care. </u>/ <u>She no care</u>. / <u>She not care</u>. / <u>She is not care</u>.

Procedure

All participants completed the following tasks in sequence: (1) a vocabulary pretest; (2) a picture book storytelling session; (3) an immediate story recall task; (4) an immediate vocabulary posttest, (5) a self-reported task involvement survey; (6) a delayed recall test; and (7) a delayed vocabulary posttest. To begin with, the vocabulary pretest, which took five to ten minutes for each participant to complete, was administered to the participants one week prior to the storytelling session. The picture book storytelling session lasted for 40 minutes. Immediately after the storytelling session, the participants were first asked to recall the story (using the L2),[1] then complete the vocabulary posttest, which took about ten minutes to complete, and finally the self-reported task involvement survey, which took about five minutes to complete. The last step of data collection was the delayed story recall and delayed posttest, which were both conducted four 4 weeks after the storytelling session.

Results

Self-reported Task Involvement Survey

Results of the participants' self-reported involvement survey for the face-to-face and CMC settings in terms of their need to learn unfamiliar words, the way they searched for ways to learn those words, and how they evaluated different strategies of word learning are presented in Table 3.

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[1] The story recall/retell was administered prior to the immediate vocabulary posttest so that the vocabulary test items would not serve as a prompt and obscure the recall data.

The seven statements describe seven frequent strategies the participants might utilize to understand and learn an unknown word/phrase during a picture book storytelling session. A participant's involvement during the session was determined based on the total sum of each participant's scores for all seven involvement statements. As noted earlier, the participants whose score for each statement was 2 or above, were grouped into the high involvement group, and the others went into the low involvement group. Table 3 displays the mean scores of the high and. low involvement groups in the face-to-face and CMC settings.

Table 3
Self-reported Task Involvement Survey Results

No.	Involvement Statement	F/H*	F/L	C/H	C/L
1	I sought to know more about unfamiliar words/phrases and/or learn about their meanings through studying relevant illustrations.	3.00**	3.00	1.71	3.00
2	I sought to know more about unfamiliar words/phrases and/or learn about their meanings through the teacher's facial expressions, body language, and/or explanations.	2.33	1.88	2.14	1.88
3	I sought to know more about the unfamiliar words/phrases and/or learn about their meanings through asking the teacher or my classmates.	2.00	1.88	1.29	1.13
4	I sought to know more about the unfamiliar words/phrases and/or learn about their meanings through guessing.	2.00	1.50	1.54	1.75
5	I sought to know more about the unfamiliar words/phrases and/or learn about their meanings through mnemonic strategies.	2.00	2.00	1.71	1.75
6	I sought to know more about the unfamiliar words/phrases and/or learn about their meanings through reading them out loud.	3.00	1.13	2.14	0.38
7	I sought to know more about the unfamiliar words/phrases and/or learn about their meanings through listening to other student read aloud or comments.)	3.00	1.88	3.00	1.50
	Mean total scores of the four sub-groups	17.33	13.27	13.53	11.39
	Mean total scores of the two high groups	15.30		12.46	

*Note. F/H stands for face-to-face and high involvement load group (N=9); F/L stands for face-to-face and low involvement load group (N=8); C/H stands for CMC and high involvement load group (N=7); C/L stands for CMC and low involvement load group (N=8)
**Note. This number stands for the mean score: the total score of statement one averaged by 9 (participants).

Overall, the participants assigned to the face-to-face setting appeared to show more involvement, as gleaned from the general score of all statements of the higher mean involvement groups' scores (Mean = 15.30), than that of their counterparts assigned to the CMC setting (Mean = 12.46). Furthermore, the high-involvement participants in the face-to-face setting seemed to exert more mental effort in making sense of and learning about unknown words (Mean = 17.33) than the high-involvement participants in the CMC setting (Mean = 13.53). A similar scenario was also seen for the low-involvement participants in the two settings; the low-involvement participants in the face-to-face setting (Mean = 13.27) also made more mental effort than their counterparts in the CMC setting (Mean = 11.39). Although the low-involvement participants in the face-to-face setting's involvement rating (13.27) are nearly on par with the high-involvement group in the CMC setting (13.53), overall face-to-face storytelling setting seemed to lead to a higher involvement load.

Accordingly, it can be inferred that differential degrees of task involvement were perceived in the CMC and face-to-face storytelling settings; the task involvement was greater in the face-to-face setting than the CMC setting. Based on the results above, we can reasonably assume that the same tasks in the two different storytelling contexts induced differential involvement loads upon the participants.

Receptive Vocabulary Tests

Table 4 shows the mean scores of the three receptive vocabulary tests for each group. The mean pretest scores (0) indicated that the six target words were all novel to all participants. The results in both the immediate and delayed vocabulary posttests suggest that all of the participants could recognize more than half of the (six) target words. Notably, the participants listening to stories in the traditional face-to-face context recognized more words and retained them better than those listening to stories in the CMC setting, both in the immediate (4.5 vs. 3.75 words, respectively) and delayed posttests (4.22 vs. 2.87 words, respectively). In addition, the high

involvement participants in both the CMC and face-to-face settings performed better than the low involvement participants, suggesting that higher involvement is the key to better word learning outcomes. One may notice a backslide in the participants' performance in the delayed test, probably due to memory attrition. Notwithstanding, the regression in the face-to-face setting is not manifest (4.5 vs. 4.22 words) in spite the time lapse (four weeks) between the immediate and delayed tests.

Table 4

Test Scores in the Immediate and Delayed Receptive Vocabulary Posttests

Instructional Conditions	Involvement Load	Immediate Posttest (mean)		Delayed Posttest (mean)	
Face-to-face (N=17)	High (N=9)	4.88	4.5	4.56	4.22
	Low (N=8)	4.13		3.88	
CMC (N=15)	High (N=7)	4	3.75	3.00	2.87
	Low (N=8)	3.5		2.75	

Story Recall/Retell

In the current study, the relative efficacy of a given storytelling session (e.g., face-to-face vs. CMC) for promoting *productive* word gain was inferred through between-group comparisons of the number of words learned and produced under a given setting. Between-group comparisons of the average number of words learned and produced by all participants under a given setting could shed light on the relative efficacy of a given storytelling session (e.g., face-to-face vs. CMC).[2] The production of each (target) word is considered as an instance or *type* for 'a word for production; and the times each given word is produced in a sentence is *token* that instantiates that type *in context.* In the analysis of the participants' productive word gain, we considered both the *type* (i.e., number of target words being produced) and *tokens* (i.e., the times each target word being produced) under the face-to-face and CMC settings.

In terms of *type*, as seen in Table 5 below, the participants in the face-to-face setting generally outperformed their counterparts in the CMC setting both in the immediate and delayed story recall tests (4.5 words vs. 3 words, respectively). In particular, an average of five target words (out of six) were recalled and *produced* by the high-involvement participants in the face-to-face setting in both the immediate and delayed recall tests: *Edwina, care, extinct, except, bake*. Considering that all of the participants had *zero* knowledge of the six target words prior to the face-to-face picture book storytelling session, this word gain (acquiring *productive* knowledge of the five target words) can be considered quite a feat. Even the low-involvement participants in the face-to-face setting were able to produce an average of four target words (*Edwina, care, extinct, bake*). On the other hand, the participants in the CMC setting recalled fewer words; only an average of three target words (*Edwina, care, except*) were recalled and produced by the participants in the CMC group, including both the high and low-involvement participants. Accordingly, the face-to-face setting seemed to lead to more target words being used in the participants' production (oral recall discourse) than the CMC setting.

Table 5

Target Word Tokens Recalled and Used by the Participants in the Immediate and Delayed Recall Tests

| Instructional Conditions	Target Words Retrieved From The Spoken Data			
	Immediate Recall	Delayed Recall		Average
F/H	Edwina, care, extinct, except, bake	Edwina, care, extinct, except, bake	5 words	4.5 words
F/L	Edwina, care, except, bake	Edwina, care, except, bake	4 words	
C/H	Edwina, care, except	Edwina, care, except	3 words	3 words
C/L	Edwina, care except	Edwina, care, except	3 words	

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[2] Fine-grained quantitative analysis is not the ideal analysis tool in the context of the current study due to the small number of audience members typically participating in a picture book storytelling session.

In terms of *tokens*, as seen in Figure 1, although the three target words (*Edwina, care, except*) were produced by the participants in both the face-to-face and CMC settings, the token count for each word was higher in the face-to-face setting than the CMC setting in the immediate story recall test. In particular, the token count for the word *Edwina* produced by the participants listening to stories in the face-to-face setting (92: 51+41) is three times as many as the token count produced by their counterparts in the CMC setting (27: 12+15). In the same trend, the token count for the word *care* produced by the participants in the face-to-face setting (23: 13+10) is 1.4 times higher than the token count produced by their counterparts in the CMC setting (17: 11+6). The token count for the word *except* produced by the participants in the face-to-face setting (10: 6+4) is, again, 5 times higher than the token count produced by their counterparts in the CMC setting (2: 1+1).

Figure 1
Target word token count in the immediate recall test
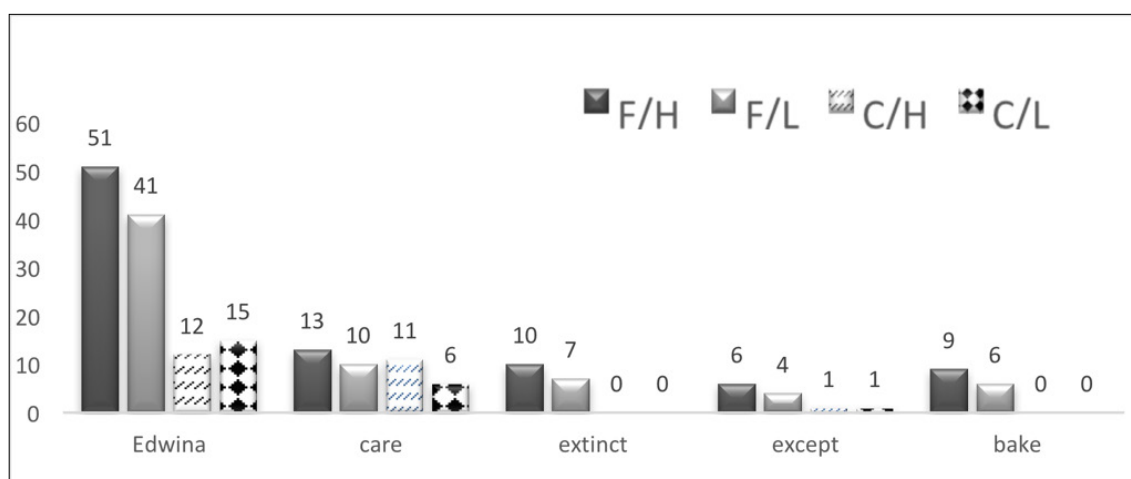
The above token count comparison does not just entail the difference in the number of times a word being produced in context. One may recall that all of the words were being produced (and hence embedded) in the *sentential* context. So, the token counts reported above also shed light on the discrepant differences in the length of oral discourse produced by the participants in the face-to-face and CMC settings. For instance, a token count of 17 entails seventeen sentences (that were embedded with a given target word) being produced. A higher vocabulary token count value is thus also indicative of longer discourse in the oral story recall task. Thus, the observation that the participants in the face-to-face setting have significantly higher token counts in the immediate story recall task also means that the participants in the face-to-face setting produced significantly longer oral discourse than their counterparts in the CMC setting.

The same scenario—the face-to-face storytelling being more effective in promoting productive word gains—was also evidenced in the delayed story recall test (four weeks after the storytelling session). As seen in Figure 2 below, irrespective of the picture book storytelling condition (CMC vs. face-to-face), the same words that were recalled by the participants in the immediate recall test were also retained and recalled by the participants in the delayed recall test. This finding is suggestive of the importance of recall—an act of *production*—in *retaining* novel vocabulary. Although the token counts significantly dropped in the delayed posttest, and hence were lower than the token counts in the immediate posttest probably due to the participants' memory attrition in the delayed story recall test, the pattern in the immediate story recall test was replicated in the delayed recall test. Specifically, the token count for the word *Edwina* produced by the participants listening to stories in the face-to-face setting (48: 23+25) is, again, three times as many as the token count produced by their counterparts in the CMC setting (15: 9+6). The token count for the word *care* produced by the participants in the face-to-face setting (12: 7+5) is, again, 1.4 times more than the token count produced by their counterparts in the CMC setting (9: 5+4). Similarly, the token count for the word *except* produced by the participants in the face-to-face setting (8: 5+3) is 2.7 times more than the token count produced by their counterparts in the CMC setting (3: 1+2). Accordingly, we can infer that face-to-face storytelling led to more productive word gains and longer recall discourse in the delayed story recall test—a finding consistent with the immediate story recall test.

Figure 2

Target words token count in the delayed recall test
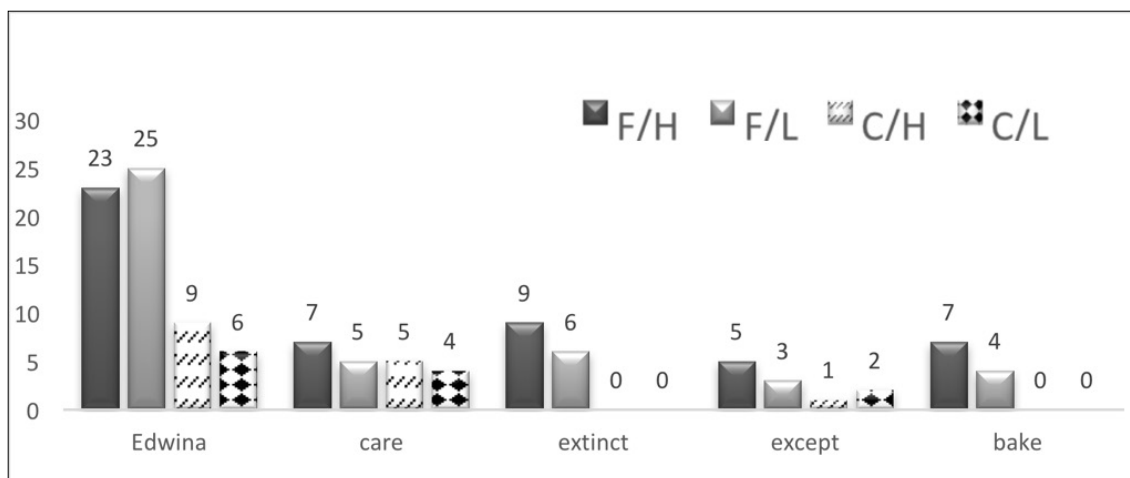
Notably, the two target words *extinct* and *bake* were only produced by the participants in the face-to-face storytelling setting: 17 and 15 times for the word *extinct* in the immediate and delayed story recall tests, respectively; 15 and 11 times for the word *bake* in the immediate and delayed story recall tests. The observation that these two words were only produced by the participants in the face-to-face setting is definitely not a coincidence, given the CMC and face-to-face groups' homogeneous linguistic profiles.

Additionally, while examining the productive word gains in the immediate and delayed story recall tests, we noticed one interesting finding: the involvement load difference only seemed to manifest in the face-to-face difference but not in the CMC setting; both the high and low-involvement participants in the CMC settings produced three target words. Specifically, while the high-involvement group optimized word production and retention in the face-to-face storytelling setting in the immediate and delayed recall tests, it did not seem to exert the same effect on the participants in the CMC setting. Rather, both of the results of the immediate and delayed story recall tests suggest that there was no difference in terms of the number of target words (type) produced in the CMC setting—a finding inconsistent with the receptive word gain.

To sum up, three important findings emerged from the present study. First, face-to-face and CMC storytelling contexts led to differential task involvement load with the participants in the face-to-face setting having higher involvement (compared to the participants in the CMC setting). This higher involvement seemed to lead to better receptive word gain, as seen in the participants' performance both in the immediate and delayed receptive vocabulary tests. In particular, the high-involvement participants in the face-to-face setting benefited the most and outperformed their low-involvement counterparts in receptive word gains. Second, face-to-face picture book storytelling also seemed to lead to better productive word gains and longer lexical recall units than their counterparts in the CMC setting, as seen in their performance on the immediate and delayed recall tests. Overall, the participants in the face-to-face setting outperformed their counterparts in the CMC setting. Notably, the high-involvement participants in the face-to-face setting were able to recall and retain significantly more target words and produce significantly longer lexical chunks than their low-involvement counterparts in both settings. Third, such a within-group difference between high and low-involvement participants was only manifest in the receptive word gain, but not the productive word gain, in the CMC setting.

Discussion

This study attempted to compare the effectiveness of EFL fifth graders' English vocabulary learning via videoconferencing or face-to-face storytelling sessions. In the current study, both groups of fifth graders in small groups received a storytelling session in either CMC and face-to-face contexts. The results are discussed according to the research questions.

What is the relative efficacy of videoconference and face-to-face storytelling in terms of their potency to promote L2 word acquisition?

This study addressed whether the use of technology (in this case, conducting picture book sessions through CMC and the internet) leads to greater word gains compared to traditional face-to-face picture book storytelling. As noted earlier, every effort was made to ensure that the manner by which the picture book storytelling session was conducted was similar in the CMC and face-to-face settings; furthermore, the participants were highly comparable in terms of their overall linguistic profiles and speaking proficiency. In this regard, the major differences between the two settings of students were mainly in the settings in which setting the picture book storytelling was conducted and the differential degrees of (cognitive) involvement load invoked by these two settings. It is interesting to see that these differences had the potential to lead to differential (receptive and productive) word gains, with the face-to-face setting being the optimal one.

Specifically, both the CMC and face-to-face picture book storytelling allowed the L2 learners in this study to acquire receptive and productive knowledge of unknown L2 words, although the former seemed to be the more desirable setting to leverage the participants' receptive and productive word gains. I also seems that these gains were better retained in the face-to-face setting than in the CMC setting—a finding captured in Tables 4 and 5. As will be discussed below (vis-à-vis the second research question), a higher involvement load seems to be the key to the success in the face-to-face picture book storytelling session. However, it is important to note that this study does not discount the potential benefits of storytelling via videoconference since the present study examined only one domain of language learning (vocabulary) and one style (L2 only) of storytelling. The advantage of the face-to-face picture book storytelling session is essentially based on one-shot cross-sectional data. Given more time and observation, the niche where CMC storytelling stands out may surface.

How does the learners' involvement, as assessed by their states of need, search, and evaluation, affect the relative efficacy of videoconferencing and face-to-face storytelling in promoting L2 word acquisition?

The task involvement in the face-to-face storytelling setting was higher than that of the CMC setting, which led to better receptive and productive word gains. Importantly, this higher involvement load also seemed to result in longer discourse. The higher involvement load in the face-to-face picture book storytelling setting can probably be attributed to learners' attention allocation, which echoes Kim's (2014) claims that in a CMC setting, the learners' attention allocation could be qualitatively different from a face-to-face setting. In the present case, namely, all attentional targets in the face-to-face picture book storytelling session were largely the product and direct reflection of their personal free will and decision, which led to higher involvement.

It is important to note that although higher involvement contributed to greater receptive and productive word gains in the face-to-face setting, such a trend was not sufficiently manifest in the productive vocabulary gains of the participants in the CMC setting. Notwithstanding, the observation that the involvement load difference (high vs. low) in the CMC setting did not seem to manifest in the productive word gain does not necessarily disconfirm the role of involvement in promoting productive vocabulary knowledge. It is possible that unlike the instructor in the face-to-face setting who was visible and hence able to provide detailed, clear articulatory cues (e.g., facial expressions, lip movements) that are crucial for productive word gains at all times, the instructor using videoconferencing was not able to provide such constant cues due to the constraints of videoconferencing storytelling via Skype (a constant close-up shot of the instructor's face is not possible). Such a constraint probably dampened the efficacy of the CMC participants' productive word gains. Furthermore, productive vocabulary knowledge takes a longer time to acquire—especially when learners do not have constant access to the teachers' facial articulatory cues at all times in the CMC setting—and this is probably why the effect of involvement load only manifested in the CMC participants' receptive, but not the productive, word gains. Accordingly, based on the findings of this study, we can infer that a higher involvement load generally plays a prominent role in aiding fifth grade EFL leaners' acquisition of novel English words.

The results of this study confirm that, when it comes to using a picture book as a medium for promoting L2 vocabulary learning, face-to-face storytelling is much more effective than the CMC option because face-to-face storytelling, in which the interaction between the teacher and students are authentic and intense and students can refer to the printed story books whenever they need, makes young learners more attentive and engaged in the process of storytelling. Meanwhile, the participants in the CMC group were easily distracted by the

technology, which echoes Yu's findings (2018) that participants' learning is easily interfered with when multimedia effects were present, and this is a major concern that could hinder such a practice with young language learners. Accordingly, the findings of the study corroborate existing literature that storytelling facilitates vocabulary acquisition especially for young learners and further consolidates that intense involvement in storytelling sessions is needed for word acquisition (Chung, 2012; Lee, 2005; Lugo-Neris, Jackson, & Goldstein, 2010),

In sum, instructors should seek various activities to conduct authentic and intensive interactions to enhance learners' involvement during picture book storytelling for optimal vocabulary learning outcomes.

Conclusion

A few limitations should be addressed for the current study. First, the study employed a small-scale sample with participants of the same grade level and similar language proficiency profile. It can, therefore, be recommended to further the study with larger and more diverse samples of participants utilizing statistical tools to establish the efficacy of face-to-face and CMC picture book storytelling in multi-level classes. Second, the study utilized a small number of target words, which is aligned with the fifth graders studying habits and pace prescribed in their regular textbooks. This design posed difficulties in utilizing advanced statistical tools to examine its statistical impact. Third, the study utilized an L2 as the only instructional language, which might pose potential challenges for comprehension and word acquisition. Additionally, vocabulary learning is a complex process. The ILH as a framework may overlook factors such as learners' interest and self-efficacy, which can be explored in future studies. Moreover, although reading comprehension is beyond the scope of this paper, attempts to investigate which storytelling strategies facilitate learners' comprehension will be useful to provide insight into the effects of storytelling with young EFL learners. Above all, a statistical significance test would be one of the major instruments for future studies. The reason for not adopting independent/paired t-tests in this study was due to the small number of words (six target words). For advanced studies in which more than one story book with larger amounts of words, sentence patterns, and reading comprehension sessions are selected as experimental instruction, appropriate statistical tools should be adopted.

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Indonesian Language Learning Methods in Australian Elementary Schools

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Previous studies have largely focused on the importance, problems, and challenges of teaching second languages in Australian schools, but very few have investigated the teaching methods used in the classroom to do so. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to identify the methods applied by teachers who teach Indonesian as a second language in one of the public primary schools in South Australia to enable their Australian students to comprehend the instruction in the Indonesian class. The data were collected through observational field notes and video recordings of three class meetings from two teachers. Evidence gives validity to analysis, and thus the data were analysed using the transcription conventions as proposed by Burns, Joyce & Gollin (1996). The results showed that the most frequently used methods by the teachers in teaching Indonesian to the Early Year level students were TPR (total physical response) and GTM (grammar-translation method). TPR was useful as the act of moving around seemed to help the children remember the vocabulary. Furthermore, GTM helped the teachers clarify the meanings of words and sentences for the students by translating them into their first language, i.e. English. These methods were not taught in isolation but were integrated by the teachers with other methods such as the direct method and audio-lingual method. The reflection of this teaching practice is considered a worthwhile contribution for other teachers who are also teaching Indonesian in other countries and as additional insights to immerse themselves in their language teaching practice. Moreover, considering the benefits of becoming bilingual, such as in communication, culture, cognition, character, curriculum, and economy, schools should provide more training for teachers to help them be able to use the best techniques in teaching the second language to enable and empower them to integrate other languages into their classes.

Keywords: primary school, second language, integrated learning, teaching methods

Introduction

Teaching a second language for children requires specific methods to meet the needs of students in the classroom. The school environment plays an important role in fostering second language learning. Accordingly, Mickan (2006) notes that a school is a place where students are taught to be part of the social communities; and this is done through the language learning setting. Consequently, students attend schools to explore their abilities through the social and educational experiences offered in a school community. It is believed that each student has a different way of learning and unique characteristics since they grow up in different circumstances. These include the school environment, like buildings and their facilities, peers, and most importantly, teachers. Therefore, becoming a teacher at any school level is a demanding profession in terms of preparing themselves as facilitators and also organizing various activities to nurture the students' cognitive development, social skills, and creativity.

Consequently, a great deal of research has also promoted the benefits of learning a second or foreign language, especially starting from early childhood; among them are cognitive, social-emotional, academic, career, and

cultural benefits (Baker, 2000; Pransiska, 2017; Yusuf, 2009). Therefore, to start teaching other languages at a young age is encouraged. Trautner (2019) explains that children who can speak more than one language may have a stronger ability to focus on one thing and change their response if necessary, as shown in this study later where the word 'rhinoceros' (English) is replaced with *badak* (Indonesian). This process indicates their cognitive flexibility (Fajerson, 2017). Trautner (2019) further describes that when a bilingual child communicates, the languages in the brain compete to be stimulated and selected, and this requires attention and the ability for the brain to be flexible. The interference pushes the brain to choose the most appropriate language to use, and this mind workout supports its cognitive muscles. Furthermore, this practice of the brain requires self-control (Trautner, 2019). Self-control is furthermore one of the important traits in childhood classrooms because, later in life, this skill allows people to regulate their behaviour and actions to achieve their life goals (Milyavskaya & Inzlicht, 2017). In terms of social and cultural benefits, to be able to speak more than one language may broaden one's enculturation, create a deeper sense of multiculturalism, and allow them to experience the "language worlds" that are associated with the languages they speak (Yusuf, 2009, p. 318).

Even though second language education is a matter of constant public debate in Australia (Mellor, 2009), the NALSPP (National Asian Language and Studies in Schools Program) offers foreign languages to be taught in public schools, such as Auslan, Chinese, French, German, Indonesian, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Modern Greek, Spanish, and Vietnamese (www.decd.sa.gov.au). Bianco and Slaughter (2009, p. 64) have intensely captured the reasons for teaching second languages in Australian schools as follows:

> "The principal reason is to do with the deepest purposes of education itself, to instill knowledge, to deepen understanding, to stimulate reflection, and to foster skills. Languages are intimately linked to the essentially humanistic, cultural, and intellectual reasons for making education compulsory. Bilingualism can foster more reflective and imaginative dispositions in citizens, and the principles of democratic discourse, participation, and opportunity which Australia proclaims also find resonance with language study since the great bulk of humanity lives in societies and continues traditions forged outside of English". (Bianco & Slaughter, 2009, p. 64)

They also state that language education should be driven by educational, cultural, and intellectual purposes, rather than limited by the aims to the employment industry. Mellor (2009) further affirms that nurturing bilingual skills, especially those of Australians, does not only benefit people economically but also serves the intellectual and cultural needs of the language learners.

In Australia, selecting professional teachers is the main focus to meet the need of the students' development at any stage of school. The AITSL (Australia Institute for Teaching and School Leadership) is an institute that often collaborates with the Minister of Education to provide professional teachers (http://intan.com.au/about/professional-standards). This institute offers several criteria for teachers' recruitment regarding their proficiency. It is very important to hire teachers who are capable of identifying with the students and how they learn, and creating and maintaining supportive and safe learning environments.

Learning with a professional teacher also seems to have beneficial impacts on the students since the teacher can better understand the students. As mentioned previously, teachers play crucial roles in the success of students' learning. School should be a place to feed students' imagination and engage their creativity. Once they are interested in learning, they will be successful at school. This is because students need to become proficient in a wide range of tasks and knowledge domains (Lapan, et.al, 2003).

What is more, Kohler and Mahnken (2010) mention that Indonesian is the third most studied language in public schools in Australia. Several teachers teaching this course in public schools have personal experiences related to Indonesian in terms of its culture and other social interactions. They also explain why Indonesian has been established in Australian schools. the main reasons are economic matters, educational and personal advantages, and possible employment opportunities. They further clarify that, although Australian students' interest has been declining in learning this language since 2001, quantitative data have shown that Indonesian is still a major language taught in Australian schools (Kohler & Mahnken, 2010). Indonesian, therefore, is still taught as a class subject and not incorporated into other lessons such as math, science, and English.

Learning a Second Language at an Early Age

Schumann (1986) states that some students at an early age learn the second language indisputably as they believe that it is a source of pleasure; this is the same sense of pleasure that they experience when they are engaged in free play. Sometimes, students are even found to try rigidly to create new forms of vocabulary for words that they are learning if necessary (Schumann, 1986). Learning a second language encourages cognitive development, creativity, and thinking in children; if they are more exposed to the foreign language in meaningful social surroundings, they will find more opportunities to learn because social environments stimulate their mental processes (Munoz & Forero, 2011). At this point, the teachers are required to encourage students' motivation to build a better learning environment. What is more, both students and teachers have to form a mutual relationship to achieve the purpose of the educational process (Gablinske, 2014; Han, 2012).

Language is a means utilized by both students and teachers to socialize efficiently in order to develop emotions, knowledge, ability (Lindquist, MacCormack & Shablack, 2015), as well as creating events and social actions (Verga & Kotz, 2013). Therefore, the language is used to deliver the message as well as transmit any information through communication. Integrated language learning then is designed to enable students to comprehend the target language easily. The interactions that arise in the classroom are classified as a mutual relationship between teachers and learners to achieve the goal of the pedagogical context (Hall & Walsh, 2002, p. 187).

Various studies have shown that learning a second or foreign language at an early age brings about benefits to the individual; hence, it should be studied continuously throughout his or her educational levels (Paradis, Kirova & Dachysyn, 2009; Prieto, 2009; Yusuf, 2009; Yusuf, Asyik, Yusuf & Rusdi, 2017). Bamford & Mizokawa (1991) even claim that some students who learn a second language are more resourceful and superior at resolving complex problems compared to those students who do not. Moreover, bilingual children are also found to be more motivated to learn foreign languages compared to monolinguals, as is the case of students from bilingual families and students from Russian monolingual families (Komlósi, 2017). Waterworth (2016, p. 162) exquisitely elucidated this, saying:

> "The language and culture we first learn (L1) define and determine our place and our identity. They create our sense of ourselves, our feelings, opinions, and values. Learning a new language (L2) provides us with the opportunity to expand our horizons, to understand a little of speakers of that language, and to gain a better sense of ourselves and our world".

And thus, exposing children to other languages improves their intercultural competence; this means that they are more aware of the global community and more familiar with diversity because they can recognize other existing culture(s) besides their own through language(s) (Curtain & Dahlberg, 2004). In a modern society today, diversification, globalization, and multiculturalism are important compenents in a country's education system (Achaeva, Daurova, Pospelova & Borysov, 2018). They stimulate the interest of learners in new knowledge and help them embrace diverse viewpoints from of the world.

Integrated Learning in Teaching Second Languages

Silver, Strong, and Perini (2000) emphasized that integrated learning indicates the profound meaning of the teaching process as it affects the improvement of a school's curriculum and helps in the assessment of students' work. At the same time, teachers play important roles to formulate an appropriate approach to help students become more self-aware and competitive learners. In this view, teachers should provide an impressive classroom environment to motivate students while learning a second language. The decision to teach integrated language should also be supported by the curriculum planning as a part of the methodology because integrated lessons help students make connections across curricula. Curriculum planning in communicative language teaching is very essential regarding what is to be taught and also how it is to be taught since both processes are integrated (Nunan, 1989a).

Among the benefits of integrated learning, some challenges arise from this program. The greatest challenges come from teachers themselves. Banegas (2012) asserts that teachers, who are in charge of implementing integrated learning in schools, can fail the program if they lack awareness and knowledge about how to apply it in their classes. He further adds that teachers have to fully understand what is expected of them when executing integrated learning in schools because this program requires that the content and language teachers work

together. Mehisto (2008) has provided some suggestions for overcoming the challenges faced by teachers, including that schools that implement integrated learning must provide enough training opportunities, give support for immersion centers, and offer sufficient teaching materials to the teachers. The school, therefore, should apply an appropriate curriculum that fits the needs of students and motivates them to be better (Banegas, 2012).

Methods for Teaching the Second Language

There are also various methods used to teach second language learners. Mora (2017) listed the ten most recognized and commonly used methods for teaching a second or foreign language; they are the GTM (Grammar-Translation Method), Direct Method, Reading Method, Audio-lingual method, Community Language Learning, Silent way, Communicative Method, Functional Notional Method, TPR (Total Physical Response), and Natural Method.

The Grammar-Translation Method is a method in which the lessons are taught mostly in the students' first language, with some active use of the target (second/foreign) language. Specifically, the students are directed to translate words from the first language into the target one. This means that the students are expected to be more familiar with the grammar of their native language and this will help them speak and write their native language better (Larsen-Freeman, 2008; Qing-xue & Jin-fang, 2007). This method is found to be effective in large classes with EFL students of different language ability levels (Aqel, 2013). This is different from the Direct Method, in which the lessons are instructed in the target language and the first language is never used.

The Reading Method involves one of the skills of learning a language, followed by the importance of the historical knowledge of the country where the language is spoken. Meanwhile, the Audio-lingual Method is a method in which language learning is based on habit formation and adopts a dependence of mimicry, memorizating set phrases, and over-learning the target language.

Community Language Learning, furthermore, illustrates how students work together to improve the aspects of a language they are keen to learn; meanwhile, the teacher acts as a counselor, while the learner is seen as a client and collaborator (the counselling approach). This method is surely different from the Silent Way, which makes use of silence as a teaching method. Here, teachers are encouraged to be silent most of the time during the teaching and learning process but learners are stimulated to speak as much as possible.

The Communicative Method, additionally, is the continuous acquisition of the target language to achieve learners' communicative purposes. This is different from the Functional Notional Method because it highlights the communicative purposes of speech acts and focuses on the purposes for which the target language is used.

To focus on the coordination of language and physical movement, the teacher might use TPR (Total Physical Response); hence, the students are not forced to speak, but they are provided with individual readiness periods. While teaching, the teacher just gives a command to the students in the target language while performing it together with them. This method is beneficial for attracting students' attention while learning, and it is a good way to teach vocabulary easily.

Another method that is often used by teachers is the Natural Method, where language learning is seen as a reproduction of the way humans naturally acquire their first language. Moreover, to expose children to the language being taught is essential. Meshkat and Karami (2016, p. 84) claim that "unless children are exposed to language, they will not acquire it". Accordingly, teachers need to wisely select the methods they will use to teach a second or foreign language to their students by selecting an appropriate approach to achieve the teaching objectives . This is because young and adult language learners process information in their first language differently whilst learning. Thomson (2010) explains that children first begin to sort out words involving concrete objects; on the other hand, adult learners can deal with abstract ideas. Of course, children learn at different stages of development, and activities that the teachers design in the classroom needs to address their cognitive, psychomotor, language, and social development (Malia, 2004). That is why when children are introduced to a second or foreign language in the classroom, teachers need to present vocabulary for objects that they can touch or see (Cameron, 2001). Teachers must use words that are easy for them to understand (Silver, Strong & Perini, 2000). By having a clear conceptual image of these things or actions, it will

be simpler for children to process the information in the second or foreign language.

Previous studies have largely focused on the importance, problems, and challenges of teaching second languages in Australian schools (Bianco & Slaughter, 2009; Chen, 2015; Kelabora, 1978; Kohler, 2014; Liddicoat & Kohler, 2012; Mellor, 2009), but none have investigated the teaching methods used in the classroom to do so. Therefore, this study intends to fill in this research gap. The research question for this study is: What are the methods used by teachers when teaching Indonesian as a second language in Australian schools? By collecting data through the qualitative approach using observations and tape recordings, this study can shine a light on the existent teaching and learning processes that makes second language teaching and learning feasible for Australian students in the classroom.

Methodology

Participants

This study used qualitative design to carry out the research. Under the monitoring of the South Australian government, we collected data in two different public primary schools that are situated in Adelaide, South Australia. These schools have 13-14 classrooms for different levels of students. Moreover, Indonesian is taught as a second language in the schools; it has been taught since 2004 as the schools have chosen it as a Language Other Than English (LOTE). Indonesian, thus, is taught at all level of classes with a focus on integrating the language across the curriculum. Thus, we chose these schools as the locations of our research for data collection.

During data collection, we found no Australians of Indonesian descendants, children of Indonesian parents working or studying in Australia, or Indonesian children adopted by Australian natives studying at the two schools. There were also no teachers of Indonesian descendants or Indonesian themselves teaching at the schools. Most of the students are native Australians (of European descendants) and others are from non-English speaking backgrounds (or NESB) countries such as Greece, Congo, and Italy. Each class at the schools consists of approximately 20 students. There are three different levels of students' classes: Early Years, Middle Primary, and Upper Primary.

To succeed in the language teaching-learning processes, the Indonesian curriculum is designed based on the government's curriculum guidelines; it combines both the government curriculum and the curriculum that is designed by the language team at each school. As a consequence, the combination sustains the students' language learning system. A focus is also placed on raising student awareness about the country and its culture; the culture of the target language country is incorporated to emphasize an in-depth understanding of the language itself. Diversified materials can be found for each year level and term. The curriculum is revised at the end of each term where it is necessary.

The teachers combine materials that are obtained from the resources such as the internet and related books. The materials taught are distinguished for each level of students, and lesson plans and any supporting materials are prepared to ease the teaching-learning process before teaching.

Data Collection Procedures

The data was collected through observational field notes and tape recordings from two teachers and two classes, with consent from both the teachers and students. The consent form was handed out in person by the first and third researchers of this paper to the school, the teachers, and students who were the participants of this research. Through observations and tape or audio recordings, it is expected that we could gain a clear picture of the methods applied by the teachers for teaching Indonesian as a second language. Students from two different primary schools were taken as the participants for this research; the pupils were 7 to 8 years old and in Term 3. One English teacher from each primary school was observed while she was teaching in her class. This made a total of two teachers being observed over six class meetings.

The teachers taught Indonesian at their schools. They are Australians with no Indonesian background and are both in their forties. They have been teaching Indonesian for about three years and have visited Indonesia a few

times for holidays, workshops, and training on teaching Indonesian to speakers of other languages. In this paper, the first teacher is coded as T1 and the second teacher is coded as T2.

In the observational field notes, the first and third authors (without participation) stood and walked around the classroom without getting too close to the subjects to avoid interference in the teaching and learning process. The observation allowed us to check for nonverbal expressions of feelings, interactions between individuals and groups (i.e. how they communicated with each other), and examine the time used for each activity done in the class (Schmuck, 1997). Even though their presence caught the attention of the students, since they did not intermingle with their class activities, they were not a distraction to the students.

Data Analysis

In the analysis, the observational field notes were assembled, summarized, and presented in a way that reveals the crucial findings or features of this study. From the tape recordings, the conversations that took place in the classroom were transcribed using the coding conventions adapted from Burns, Joyce, and Gollin (1996). They are as presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Coding Conventions

Coding	Meaning
[	overlapping turns
…	a short pause (approximately 1 second)
{ }	contextual information accompanying a text
(( ))	uncertain transcription
((?))	indecipherable
<>	altered transcription used for confidentiality
('…')	English translation
Italicized words	Indonesian

Note. Adapted from *"I see what you mean: Using spoken discourse in the classroom"* by A. Burns, H. Joyce, and S. Gollin, 1996, p. 61-62. Copyright 1996 by Macquarie University NCELTR.

The evidence from data transcription serves as the validity of the analysis. Mason (1997, p. 89) states that "a judgment about whether data analysis is valid is a judgment about whether or not it measures, explicates or illuminates whatever it claims to measure, explicate or illuminate". The purpose is to pose analysis, discussion, and conclusions in such a way that readers can assess the researchers' explanations (Ryan, 2006). And thus, after the transcription was done, event analysis (Erickson, 1992) was implemented, which was meant to find specific beginnings and endings of events by finding specific boundaries that denote the events. In this research, the events focused on the different methods the teachers used to teach Indonesian as a second language to young Australian children in the classroom. Therefore, the analysis of the conversations between teacher and student in the classroom were conducted carefully, to obtain specific results regarding the topics discussed.

Results

Teaching Indonesian as a Second Language

In each meeting with T1 and T2, the teachers prepared the materials earlier before the classes. In the preparation session, the teachers asked the students to sit in a circle on the floor. The purpose was to create a relaxing learning situation to easily adjust the students to the learning environment. For the class taught by the first teacher, the topic that day was "Animals" and it was a continuation of the previous lesson's topic. Meanwhile, for the class taught by the second teacher, the topic for that day was "Colours". It was observed that since the teachers both taught a continuation of the previous lesson's topic, the whiteboards were already

plastered with pictures of various animals before the class started for T1 and there were cards of different colors on the teacher's table in T2's class.

At the beginning of the classes, to get the students' attention, both teachers started questioning the students on what they had learned earlier on the topics of "Animals" for the class of T1 and "Colors" for the class of T2. The process of both classes was similar from beginning to end. Therefore, in this paper, we are reporting the recordings from T1's class meeting with successive activities that were conducted in her class to show the methods used in the teaching and learning process. In the extracts, T1 refers to the teacher, S is a student (each student is coded with a number from 1-20) and SS refers to more than one student talking at the same time. Extract 1 shows the discourse that took place in the class of T1 being observed in this research.

Extract 1 (01.00 – 04.48):

1	T1:	Have I told you what zebra is in Indonesian?
2	S1:	No.
3	T1:	Are you sure?
4	S1:	No.
5	T1:	I am pretty sure that I told you. Do you remember I told you what *kuda* ('horse') is? And *kuda* ('horse') is…
6	S1:	*Kuda.* ('Horse')
7	T1:	Good girl! Who can say other animals in Indonesian, which is something that you know?
8	S2:	*Gajah.* ('Elephant')
9	T1:	*Gajah* ('elephant')… Tell me what *gajah* ('elephant') is?
10	S2:	Elephant.
11	T1:	Good boy! Can you make the *gajah* ('elephant') with your hands? It is like this, isn't it? S3, what did you say?
12	S3:	E…e…e…*Buaya.* ('Crocodile')
13	T1:	Ok… *Buaya* ('Crocodile') is a…?
14	S3:	Crocodile!
15	T1:	S4, what did you say?
16	S4:	*Harimau.* ('Tiger')
17	T1:	*Harimau* ('Tiger')? Good boy! And *harimau* ('tiger') is a…?
18	S4:	Tiger.
19	T1:	*Apa binatang ini*? ('What animal is this?')
20	SS:	*Macan*! ('Leopard!')
21	T1:	*Macan…*? *Macan tutul…* ('*Macan…*? Leopard…')

It can be seen in Extract 1 that the conversation started with a simple question as the teacher asked the students about the animals' names in the target language (i.e. Indonesian) while showing the pictures on the whiteboard. In line 5, she tried to remind the students that the intended word had already been taught in the previous lesson when S1 could not answer her question. She also translated the word into the students' first language to emphasize meaning. Accordingly, S1then was able to repeat the word with the correct pronunciation. The teacher continued asking questions to students in their first language. At this point, she used open-ended questions to stimulate the students' knowledge of the topic selected. As seen in line 10, S2 answered the question with the correct word as well. This means that the strategy used is on the mark.

Moving on to the next step, the teacher tried to engage the student's attention by imitating the animal's character using her hands as shown in line 11 in Extract 1. Hence, from lines 1 to 21, the interactional concept occurred simply as she was attempting to stimulate the students' minds by asking the names of animals in the target language. In the last few lines, she even tried to construct a complex sentence in the target language by asking, *Apa binatang ini?* ('What animal is this?'). All students were able to reply to the question correctly. Turn-taking in the conversation also happened fluently. Nunan (1989b) mentions that the identification of

turn-taking is a crucial part of interaction management. This learning novelty can also occur because of the topic being learned that day, which was about animals and their names in Indonesian. Therefore, the question-answer interaction would be a common activity in this context. Nevertheless, it can be concluded then that learning integrated language helps students acquire a comprehension of the target language.

Extract 2 (05.25 – 12.45):

22	T1:	Just before we go on… tell me what is a mouse deer in Indonesian?
23	SS:	What?
24	T1:	What is mouse deer in Indonesian?
25	Ss:	*Kancil*. ('Mouse deer')
26	T1:	Good… {while showing a picture and looking at S5} Okay, can you please say 'This is a *kancil* ('mouse deer')' in Indonesian? Do you know the word 'this'? What was the word for 'this' in Indonesian?
27	S5:	'This'?
28	T1:	'This'…do you remember? We are going back to the part last week when… ((?)) Yeah…so, 'this' is…
29	SS:	*Ini*. ('This')
30	T1:	Yeah…*ini* ('this').
29	SS:	*Ini*. ('This')
30	T1:	*Ini* ('this') means 'this'. So, can you say in Indonesian 'This is a mouse deer'? Can you say it?
31	SS:	*Ini…ini*…e…e…(This…this…e…e…')
32	T1:	*Ini*…('This')
33	SS:	*Ini…ini*…('This…this…')
34	T1:	Just *ini* ('this')? Okay, what is a 'mouse deer'?
35	SS:	*Kancil*. ('Mouse deer')
36	T1:	*Bagus sekali* ('very good') …now combine *ini* ('this') and *kancil* ('mouse deer')…
37	SS:	*Ini kancil*. ('This is (a) mouse deer')
38	T1:	*Bagus sekali* ('very good') …so that is how you say 'This is a mouse deer'? Come on S5 {showed him another picture on the whiteboard} *Apa…apa ini*? ('What…What is this?')
39	S5:	*Orangutan*.
40	T1:	Ok…I want you to say 'This is 'the name of the animal''. So, you need to say…
41	S5:	*Ini orangutan*. ('This is orangutan')
42	T1:	*Ini orangutan* ('This is orangutan')…okay, good!

Extract 2 shows the complex pattern that was used by the students in the target language. In line 26, the teacher emphasized the word 'this' and asked the students to translate it. However, the students could not remember the appropriate meaning of the word in the target language. She then tried to help them recall the lesson she taught in their previous meetings, which had examples of the meaning of 'this' in Indonesian. After she shared these examples, students remembered it and could translate the word. She had pronounced the translation repeatedly with the students mimicking her pronunciation to reiterate the meaning of the word.

Thus, lines 30 to 42 illustrate an in-depth explanation of the word that is provided separately to enable the students to synchronize the pattern of both languages, resulting in the construction of a well-structured sentence in the target language. Line 36 exemplifies how the teacher replied to the students' answers in the target language as an approval signal. Regarding this view, Dalton-Puffer (2007) notes that whole class interaction activities consist of the teacher conducting a dialogue with the class with its marked tripartite Initiation–Response–Feedback structure. By preparing the model of the sentence, the students became familiar with the pattern given and were able to create the sentence in the target language.

To become more familiar with the words and sentences in the target language, the introduction of another element to enrich them was continued. Using the same method and media, the teacher expanded the questions as in Extract 3:

Extract 3 (13.00-20.15):

43	S10:	*Ini ular.*
44	T1:	*Ini ular… bagus sekali.* What color is your snake? Can you tell me in Indonesian?
45	S10:	*Hijau.*
46	T1:	Oo… well done. How do you remember *hijau* ('green')?
47	SS:	*Hijau…*
48	T1:	Yes. You can snap your finger and "oh" …*hijau*! Okay, what color is the mouse deer in Indonesian?
49	S11:	E…e… *coklat.*
50	T1:	*Coklat. Coklat* ('chocolate')? We'll eat…
51	Ss:	{laughing}
52	T1:	*Ssshhhh… ssshhhh*! Okay, what color is your *monyet* ('monkey')? {asking S12}
53	S12:	*Coklat.*
54	T1:	We got color somewhere… ((?))
55	S12:	*Kuning.*
56	T1:	*Kuning* ('yellow'), is it? Oo… it's got to be *kuning* in it. Do you know what the word for grey is…*abu-abu* or *kelabu*? Which one is better?
57	S17:	*Abu-abu.*
58	T1:	Okay, very good! What color is … {showing the picture to S13}
59	S13:	E…e…e…
60	T1:	Here's a hint… 'I will eat you'!
61	S13:	*Coklat.*
62	T1:	*Coklat*. You say *coklat*, you say chocolate then I'll eat you.
63	SS:	{laughing}
64	T1:	Okay, anybody else? S3, what color is your *buaya*?

From Extract 3, it is clear that the focus of the teaching moved on to colors. In line 45, S10 was able to answer the question about the color directly. To remind the students that colors had been taught in their previous lesson, the teacher demonstrated the action of hitting her finger to produce the sound /au/ to present the word '*hijau*' /hidʒau/. This kind of method is known as TPR (total physical response) in which the students learn based on the coordination of speech and actions together (Hill, 2005). In lines 49 and 50, it was shown that the pronunciation of the word *coklat* /tʃoklat/ that has almost the same sound as 'chocolate' in English. Therefore, she emphasized the word in 'a' and not 'e' at the end of *coklat* /tʃoklat/. At this point, the students were becoming familiar with this color as it was easy to remember due to its resemblance to a word in English, as shown in line 61. At first, S13 could not recall the word to describe the color of the animal that was shown in the picture by the teacher. However, the student accurately recalled the intended vocabulary once the teacher hinted, 'I will eat you' in line 60. Thus, the turn-taking mechanisms in this extract happened fluently and the class situation was well controlled by the teacher.

Near the end of class, the students learned about Indonesian grammar, and the conversations between the teacher and her students were seen to be more complex compared to the previous extracts at the beginning of class. In this part, they had to construct the sentence that consisted of the S + P + O (Subject + Predicate + Object) structure, such as *Saya melihat harimau* 'I see a tiger', in which *saya* is the subject, *melihat* is the predicate and *harimau* is the object. The teacher pretended that they were in a jungle. This interaction is shown in Extract 4.

Extract 4 (20.45-28.30):

65	T1:	Listen carefully. I'm going to put on the music now. When the music is on… {some students were talking}. When the music is on, I want you…Oh dear, you two (raised her fingers to two students), go sit by the door. I'm giving instruction but you two are busy talking! {After the students sat at the corner for a time-out, she continued her explanation}. So, when the music is on, we…we are going to find and going to look around *Dalam Hutan*, right? When the music stops, you need to pace and I'm going to ask you which animal you can see. Do you remember what the word see is?
66	SS:	Or…
67	T1:	What? I will give you the first letter… {wrote a letter on the whiteboard}. A few letters then…
68	SS:	*Merah… merah muda*!
69	T1:	Can you guess again?
70	S7:	Mel… mel…
71	T1:	*Melihat.*
72	SS:	*Melihat*!
73	T1:	So, to say 'I can see a bird', how do you say that? {paused} *Saya melihat* and the name of your animal. So, you say *saya melihat*.
74	SS:	*Saya melihat…*
75	T1:	Okay…*Bagus sekali* ('very good')! Then put your animal's name after it. S4, what is your animal?
76	S4:	*Harimau* ('tiger').
77	T1:	Okay! So, when you see it, what are you going to say?
78	S4:	Emmh…ee… *Saya…say… mela…*
79	T1:	*…melihat…*
80	S4:	*melihat…Saya melihat…* eemm…*harimau.*
81	T1:	Yeah…Well done!

Based on this extract, the students were trying to memorize the name of animals in the target language and further put them in a sentence based on the pattern that had been explained by the teacher. All of them succeeded in constructing a correct sentence grammatically.

Indonesian as an Informal Integrated Teaching Model

During our observation, it was identified that the schools were not allowed to teach Indonesian integrated with other school subjects by the South Australian Education Department. The lack of Indonesian teachers was one of the reasons for this. On the other hand, the schools formed an Indonesian committee that consists of four or five members. The teams have worked as Indonesian curriculum designers. The curriculum's content is cyclical and is revised every three years. Its material is combined with the South Australian Curriculum Standards and Accountability framework (SACSA) developed by the Department of Education and Children's Services (DECS 2005).

A vocabulary-based approach is the concept of the curriculum design, which is intended to allow the teachers to select the material that is taught to the students. From the Early Year level up to Upper Primary level, students are taught about the vocabulary and the expansion to phrases is uncommon. In the Early Year level, for instance, the content includes numbers, colors, and animals' names. In the next level, it includes forming simple sentences by using more complex vocabulary themes such as at home and at school.

As mentioned earlier, the teachers teach Indonesian in their classes and they do not incorporate it with other lessons such as math, science, and English. On the other hand, the teachers used to integrate Indonesian terms into organizational classes in the morning while checking students' attendance through greetings such as

selamat pagi 'good morning', *apa kabar?* 'how are you?', and *terima kasih* 'thank you'. Another technique to help students be familiar with the Indonesian language is through the lists of numbers, colors, animals, and the name of months which are hung on the walls in the classes. What is more, the students are also introduced to the Indonesian culture through celebrating Indonesian Independence Day every August 17. On this day, both teachers and students participate in assembly performances by performing Indonesian art, Indonesian traditional costumes like *batik,* and Indonesian traditional games like *layang-layang* 'kite flying'. This is relevant to what the Indonesian coordinator explained to us during our preliminary study before data collection. We were told that both of the schools' commitment is to introduce Indonesia, not just its language but also its culture. The students in the schools also raised some money to be donated to orphanages in Bali, which is one of the provinces in Indonesia.

Discussion

In this study, we sought to answer the research question that investigated the methods used by two teachers for teaching Indonesian as a second language in Australian primary schools. We observed the Indonesian language teaching process and its informal integration in two of the public primary schools in South Australia. The analysis focused on the process of the Indonesian lesson taught by the Indonesian coordinators at the schools, respectively. The interactions that occurred during the lessons characterized a marked feature of students' apprenticeships into the Indonesian language. During the learning process, each student actively participated and was able to develop at every stage of learning to became familiar with the materials. They obtained an in-depth understanding of the target language through pictures and the teacher's instruction. These can be seen through the vocabulary sets presented by the teachers (as can be seen in the extracts explained above as examples, especially in Extract 2 where the teacher changed the picture to attract students' attention and to trigger their understanding related to the topic explained) and the students were able to remember them well. At this point, the teachers successfully created situated-learning opportunities to engage students' attention.

Based on the observations, the teachers were able to maintain the interaction with the students until the end of the lesson. It could be seen through the students' enthusiasm for learning and their ability to understand and respond to the questions provided in the target language. The grammar-translation method is used by the teachers to enable students to comprehend the topic selected. Qing-xue and Jin-fang (2007) described how the grammar-translation method emphasizes the teaching of second language grammar and its principle technique is the translation from and into the target language. The implications of this method could be observed via the instructions given and the media used such as pictures and cards. In Extract 2, for instance, the teacher asked questions based on the pictures or cards shown, like the picture of a mouse deer and orangutan, and the students directly translated them into the target language. This method places the teachers as the centre of learning. Moreover, another method used by the teacher in teaching the course was TPR (Total Physical Response), which could be seen from the available extracts above. This kind of method was used to encourage the students to be more familiar with the material given.

The students, additionally, learned Indonesian through lists of words such as numbers, colors, animals' names, and months which were displayed around each classroom. It can be seen in Extracts 3 and 4 when the teacher tried to train the students to guess the colour, and the teacher just provided the first letter of the word (in Extract 4). The students then had to guess the rest of the letter to complete the intended word. This is considered to be a successful method for effortlessly enabling students to indirectly memorize the word in the target language. This is also a good way to teach the students to remember simple vocabulary as well as to help the teachers handle the class practically. Silver, Strong, and Perini (2000) state that with primary students, it is important to use words that are easy to understand. What is more, the concept of a vocabulary-based curriculum that is developed from the simple to the complex pattern is assumed to have a beneficial impact on students' learning processes. Once, we observed one of the students in the Early Year level who had difficulty spelling the word 'rhinoceros' while in an English lesson class. She then changed the word into the target language by filling in the blank with *badak*, which means rhinoceros in Indonesian. In this case, the student's remembrance of the target language illustrated that the Indonesian informal integrated teaching had a positive influence on enriching her vocabulary in the target language.

Conclusion

Based on the results, we can conclude that the most used method by the teachers in teaching Indonesian to the Early Year level students was GTM (grammar-translation method), with some TPR (total physical response). GTM helped the teachers clarify the meanings of words and sentences by translating them into the first language of the students. The comprehension that the students received from this method helped them to picture the words or things precisely into their minds. Of course, both of these methods were not taught in isolation but were integrated by the teachers along with other methods. Consequently, schools should provide more teachers to teach Indonesian subjects in the future as we found that the students are enthusiastic about learning Indonesian as a second language. Even though the observation focused only on students at the Early Year level, their progress learning Indonesian was notable. The teachers successfully engaged the students' attention from the beginning until the end of the lesson.

Meanwhile, TPR was useful when the act of moving around was needed to provide clarification, such as in the last activity of *Saya Melihat* or 'I See' as if they were in the jungle. It easily created memorable meaning through movement and helped the children remember the vocabulary much easier rather than by just memorizing the words out of a textbook. By doing this activity, the students were expected to focus more on the teacher's commands that enabled them to easily understand the topic discussed. This can be seen at the beginning of Extract 4 where the teacher slowly directed the students to concentrate on what she described, and she chastized the students who lost their attention while she was explaining something.

Considering the benefits of becoming bilingual, such as in communication, culture, cognition, character, curriculum, and economy, schools should provide more training to assist teachers as they teach Indonesian, and other languages, in their classes. When designing the curriculum, the Indonesian committee at the schools should collaborate with the Indonesian coordinator from the South Australian Education Department. Consequently, the materials provided may be expanded so that it becomes comprehensive and more suitable for each level of students. The interactional process that we captured showed that both the teachers and students were successfully involved in the teaching-learning environment. Thus, for future research on this topic, we recommend that in-depth interviews be conducted with teachers teaching Indonesian in Australian primary schools. This is due to the time limitations of the study. By doing so, more data can be gained to support or elucidate the conclusions drawn from this study.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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L2 Motivation, Demographic Variables, and Chinese Proficiency among Adult Learners of Chinese

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To validate Dörnyei'sL2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) with data from learners of foreign languages other than English, the present quantitative study used the L2MSS framework to explore L2 motivation, demographic variables, and Chinese proficiency among adult learners of Chinese as a second language. A total of 83 international students studying in a Chinese university in Beijing answered the 54-item L2MSS questionnaire and a demographic questionnaire. Analyses of the data revealed the following main findings: a) the L2MSS scales were significantly related to one another and highly reliable, b) the ideal L2 self was significantly correlated with gender and the number of foreign languages learned (NFLL); integrativeness was significantly positively related to NFLL, c) the whole sample, as well as male and female participants, scored high on all L2MSS scales and had (great) motivation to study Chinese, d) female respondents held significantly more favorable perceptions of their ideal selves than their male peers, and e) the L2MSS had no predictive effect or interactive effect with demographic variables on students' Chinese proficiency. Nevertheless, length of stay in China and gender proved to be powerful positive predictors for students' Chinese proficiency. Evidently, the L2MSS scales are important dimensions of L2 motivation and closely related to second/foreign language learning. Understandably, it is necessary to continuously explore, understand, and enhance students' L2 motivation.

Keywords: L2 motivational self system, L2 motivation, demographic variable, Chinese proficiency, effect

Introduction

With a history of more than 50 years, research on second language (L2) motivation, an important factor in education at all levels, has been continuously developed and enriched both theoretically and empirically. The representative milestones of the development include the socio-psychological model that proposes the concepts of integrative and instrumental orientation (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), the socio-educational model that expands the motivation construct to cover such factors as goals and confidence (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992), and the L2 motivational self system (L2MSS) that links motivation and self images (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b). Along with the development of theories on L2 motivation, a plethora of empirical studies on learners with diverse backgrounds in various second/foreign language (SL/FL) situations has been conducted (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Csizér & Luka'cs, 2010; Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Gardner, 1985; Liu, 2017, 2019) that pinpoint the important role of motivation in SL/FL learning. This interest in L2 motivation has never faded, and has actually surged, as revealed in Boo, Dörnyei, and Ryan's (2015) review of publications on L2 motivation from 2005 to 2014. The article also showed that, although there was a sharp increase in the number of studies within the L2MSS during that decade, more research is needed to further validate the theory. Moreover, as reviewed below, most research on L2 motivation centered on learners of English as a SL/FL, while research on learners of other languages as a SL/FL was far from adequate. Meanwhile, as noted in Csizér and Luka'cs (2010) and Henry (2010), a strong English-related ideal self might serve as a source of interference when learning another foreign language. Finally, China has been developing rapidly and interacting actively with the international community, and more and more people are studying Chinese as a second or foreign language. Nevertheless, research on these learners is inadequate (Liu, 2017). For these reasons, the present

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quantitative research, guided by Dörnyei's (2005, 2009b) L2MSS framework, aimed at exploring L2 motivation, demographic variables, and Chinese proficiency among adult international students registered in a university in Beijing.

Literature Review

Since the pioneering study on L2 motivation by Gardner and his associates (Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992), L2 motivation has remained a flourishing topic in SL/FL teaching and research. No matter how L2 motivation theories develop, the fundamental concepts are integrative and instrumental orientation. Integrative orientation refers to an emotional identification with the target cultural group, positive attitudes toward the language community, and interest and desire for social interactions with the language community; and instrumental orientation involves obtaining pragmatic benefits from learning a SL/FL (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 1985). Later, more concepts such as intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, amotivation, and unconscious motivation were proposed (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017).

As the most promising L2 motivation theory in the recent decade, the L2MSS proposes viewing motivation as a function of the language learners' vision of their desired future language selves (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013) and has three components: Ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b). Referring to the concept of possible selves proposed by Markus and Nurius (1986), Dörnyei (2005, 2009b) reconstructs L2 motivation as part of learners' self system, which shows how individuals think about themselves and their future. As discussed in Markus and Nurius (1986), possible selves represent individuals' ideas of what they might become, what they would like to become as well as what they are afraid of becoming and, thus, provide a conceptual link between self-concept and motivation. Corresponding to traditional integrative and internalized instrumental motives, the ideal L2 self involves the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self and serves as a powerful motivator to learn the L2 (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). It is the "representation of all the attributes that a person would like to possess (e.g., hopes, aspirations, desires, or wishes)" (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, p.616). Corresponding to Higgins' (1987) ought self and the more extrinsic types of instrumental motives, the ought-to L2 self refers to the "attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e., various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) and that therefore may bear little resemblance to one's own desires or wishes" (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005, p.617). The L2 learning experience involves situated and executive motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience (e.g., the impacts of teachers, curriculums, peers, and experiences of failure and success)(Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b). According to the L2 motivational self system, there are three primary sources of motivation to learn an L2: "(a) the learners' internal desire to become an effective L2 user, (b) social pressures coming from the learner's environment to master the L2, and (c) the actual experience of being engaged in the L2 learning process" (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013, p.439).

The L2MSS has been applied in various studies with a primary focus on English as the target language, assessed with questionnaires and/or interviews (Alshahrani, 2016; Chen, 2015; Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Csizér & Kormos, 2008; Csizér & Luka'cs, 2010; Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Grant, Huang & Pasfield-Neofitou, 2018; Henry, 2017; Kormos & Csizér, 2014; Liu, 2010; MacIntyre, Baker & Sparling, 2017; Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012; Pawlak, 2016a; Pawlak, 2016b; Ryan, 2009; Islam, Lamb & Chambers, 2013; Yashima, 2009). These studies reveal that the ideal L2 self plays an important role in L2 motivation and that the L2MSS's components all correlate with learners' intended efforts to learn the target language and vary as learner characteristics and contexts change. For example, Kim's (2009) analyses of 974 surveys from Korean primary school students showed that motivation, visual style, imagination, the ideal L2 self, and motivated behavior were positively associated with each other. These findings were largely confirmed by Kim and Kim's (2014) study of elementary and junior high school students in Korea. Henry (2009, cited in Dörnyei & Chan, 2013) found that the strength of the ideal L2 self increased significantly in teenage girls but decreased in boys over a period of four years in Sweden, resulting in a 'gender role intensification'. Papi's (2010) study of Iranian students showed that while the ought-to L2 self significantly made them more anxious, their ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience decreased their English anxiety. Cruz & Al Shabibi (2019) examined the L2 motivational self system of four Omani college students by means of Dörnyei's (2009b) framework. Analyses of the interview data showed that the students associated ideal self with obtaining a (satisfactory) job, and that their complacency with their way of life in Oman and convenience in speaking their L1 hindered their motivation to

learn English. Meanwhile, the study showed that learning experience did not generate motivation in the students to learn English and that people around them did not have a huge impact on the students' English learning.

Dörnyei and Chan (2013) examined whether learner characteristics were related to sensory and imagery aspects with indices of the strength of the learners' future L2 self-guides and how these variables were linked to learning achievements in English and Mandarin Chinese via both self-reporting and objective measures. Analyses of the data collected from 172 year 8 Chinese Cantonese speakers found that the learners' future self-guides were significantly related to their intended effort and actual grades, and that the ideal self was positively related to the criterion measures. Meanwhile, the study confirmed the importance of a broad imagery capacity in the development of learners' future self-identities. In addition, the study showed that the ideal L2 self associated with different languages formed distinct L2-specific visions, which offer a huge possibility for future research on the interaction of the ideal L2 self and the languages that learners are learning. Csizér and Luka'cs' (2010) survey study of 237 16/17-year-old learners of English and German revealed that students' ideal L2 self was the most significant component of predicting motivated learning behavior for both English and German as a first or second foreign language. Nevertheless, the study also found that the participants were fully positive only about English as a first FL but held both positive and negative attitudes toward English as a second FL and German either as a first FL or second FL. This finding, similar to Henry (2010), indicates that a strong English-related ideal self might serve as a source of interference when learning another foreign language. This is surprising and deserves further research, especially on students learning foreign languages other than English.

Meanwhile, Boo et al.'s (2015) analysis of 416 empirical and conceptual papers and chapters on L2 motivation published between 2005 and 2014 demonstrated an overriding focus on the learning of English in L2 motivation research over that decade. The researcher, thus, claimed a clear need to study motivation to learn languages other than global English. Moreover, although there was a sharp increase in research within the framework of L2MSS, more research is needed to further validate the theory. As Chinese is being learned by more and more learners, additional research is needed to examine Chinese learning motivation beyond the small number of studies on this issue (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Liu, 2017; Wen, 2011; Winke, 2013). Consequently, to validate Dörnyei's (2005, 2009b) L2 motivational self system (L2MSS) with data from learners of foreign languages other than English, the present research sought to explore L2 motivation, demographic variables, and Chinese proficiency among adult learners of Chinese as a second language registered in a university in Beijing. To achieve this purpose, the following research questions were proposed:

1) What were the profiles of the participants' L2 motivation?
2) How was the participants' L2 motivation related to their demographic variables?
3) How did the participants' L2 motivation and demographic variables predict their proficiency in Chinese?

Methodology

Context

The present quantitative research was conducted in a research-oriented state-owned university in Beijing, which has enrolled increasingly more international students in various programs at both undergraduate and postgraduate levels in recent years. In this university, the language of instruction for most courses is Mandarin Chinese, with only a number of EMI (English as the medium of instruction) courses in some disciplines. Meanwhile, there are a wide range of opportunities for talks, seminars, forums, meetings, and exchanges in English with students and scholars from different parts of the world.

Participants

A total of 83 (50 male and 33 female) international students studying in a university in Beijing participated in the present study. With an average age of 24.72 (SD = 3.57), they ranged from 18 to 39 years old and spoke 16 different native languages including English, Japanese, Russian, Korean, Nepalese, and Lao. Of these

participants, eight were postgraduates and 75 were undergraduates, majoring in various disciplines like Chinese Medicine, Civil Engineering, Education, Finance, International Trade, Management, and Math. With an average of 30.43 (SD = 27.24) and a mode of 36 months in China, the participants had been staying in China for varying lengths of time ranging from 1 month to 144 months. Likewise, with an average of 31.74 (SD = 27.42) and a mode of 36 months of studying Chinese, they had been studying Chinese for varying periods as well, ranging from 2 to 156 months. Generally, they could speak zero to five foreign languages, with a mean of 2.59 (SD = 1.17) and Chinese was their first (N = 10), second (N = 36), third (N = 30), fourth (N = 4), or fifth (N = 3) foreign language. On average, they spent 1 to 10 hours and a mean of 4.08 (SD = 2.97) (mode = 2) hours using Chinese (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) each day.

Assessments and measures

The data in the present research was collected via a demographic questionnaire and the L2MSS questionnaire, as detailed below.

The demographic questionnaire
The participants were required to respond to questions related to their demographic information such as gender, age, native language, area of study, education level, length of stay in China, length of studying Chinese, number of foreign languages learned, and average hours spent using Chinese per day.

Proficiency in Chinese
Mainly because the students majored in various disciplines and varied in Chinese proficiency, it was difficult to administer the same standardized Chinese proficiency test simultaneously. The participants were thus asked to self-rate their proficiency in Chinese on a scale of 1 (the lowest) to 7 (native-like).

The L2 motivational self system (L2MSS) questionnaire
The L2MSS questionnaire used in the present study was adapted from that used by Taguchi, Magid and Papi (2009) and Kormos and Csizér (2014).The original questionnaire had 56 items, covering eight dimensions. To better suit the present research, two modifications were made to the original questionnaire: 1) the word "English" was changed to "Chinese" in all items, and 2) two items were deleted: "I study English not because I want to emigrate abroad but because it is an international lingua franca" and "I study English because I want certificates". The resultant questionnaire had 54 items (Cronbach alpha *a* = .975) and covered eight dimensions:

1) criterion measures (6 items) (*a* = .891), which assess the learners' intended efforts toward learning Chinese, e.g., "I think I am doing my best to learn Chinese."
2) ideal L2 self (7 items) (*a* = .906), which concerns students' view of themselves as successful Chinese speakers, e.g. "I often imagine myself speaking Chinese as if I were a native speaker of Chinese."
3) ought-to L2 self (7 items) (*a* = .894), which measures important others' view of how important learning Chinese is in order to avoid negative outcomes, e.g. "I study Chinese because close friends of mine think it is important."
4) L2 learning experience (5 items) (*a* = .905), which involves what extent respondents like Chinese learning, e.g. "I like the atmosphere of Chinese classes."
5) instrumentality-promotion (8 items) (*a* = .934), which measures respondents' ideal image of being professionally successful, e.g. "Learning Chinese can be important to me because I think I'll need it for further studies."
6) integrativeness (9 items) (*a* = .921), which assesses students' positive attitudes toward Chinese, its culture and native speakers of Chinese, e.g., "I like the music of Chinese-speaking countries."
7) international posture (7 items) (*a* = .872), which measures respondents' tendency to relate themselves to the global community of Chinese, e.g. "I want to make friends with international students or foreigners in China."
8) instrumentality-prevention (5 items) (*a* = .902), which explores the regulation of duties and obligations for learning Chinese, e.g. "Studying Chinese is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score on Chinese proficiency tests."

All the items were placed on a six-point Likert scale ranging from 'Strongly Disagree' to 'Strongly Agree', with values 1 to 6 assigned to each of the descriptors respectively.

Data collection and analyses

Since the L2MSS questionnaire has proved to be valid in the current literature, it was piloted with three international students studying in China to see whether any modifications were needed. Based on the results, two items were deleted and others were reworded. Participation in the main study was voluntary, the participants were free to reveal their names and filled in the questionnaires and a consent form online. The data obtained were computer-coded via SPSS20. The overall Cronbach Alpha value was computed to show the reliability of each L2MSS scale. Then, correlation analyses (Pearson) were conducted to identify the relationships among the L2MSS scales and between the L2MSS scales and demographic variables. Independent samples t-test results were run to explore the significance of gender differences in L2 motivation. Finally, regression analyses were run to reveal the predictive effects of L2MSS on students' proficiency in Chinese and the interactive effects of L2MSS and demographic variables on the latter.

Results

Correlations within the L2MSS scales

As seen in Table 1, correlation analyses showed that the L2MSS scales were significantly positively related to one another with a large effect size (r = .375 ~ .895, p≤ .001). For example, the participants who had a more positive image of ideal L2 self tended to have a more positive image of ought-to L2 self.

Of the coefficients, those between IL2S (ideal L2 self) (r = .435 ~ .825, p≤ .001) and other scales and those between L2LE (L2 learning experience) and other scales (r = .375 ~ .838, p≤ .001) were fairly high. The second important finding was the high correlations between IPro (instrumentality-promotion) (r = .544 ~ .895, p≤ .001), Int (integrativeness)(r = .521 ~ .895, p≤ .001), InP (international posture) (r = .704 ~ .838, p≤ .001) and other scales. In addition, although positively significantly related to other variables, OL2S (ought-to L2 self) had the lowest coefficient with L2LE (r = .375 ~ .636, p≤ .001) but the highest coefficient with IPre (instrumentality-prevention) (r = .636, p≤ .001).

Table 1
Correlations between L2MSS Scales (N = 83)

	IL2S	OL2S	L2LE	IPro	Int	InP	IPre
L2CM	.803**	.447**	.818**	.675**	.716**	.765**	.482**
IL2S	1	.459**	.761**	.825**	.806**	.754**	.435**
OL2S		1	.375**	.544**	.521**	.548**	.636**
L2LE			1	.784**	.815**	.838**	.494**
IPro				1	.895**	.819**	.609**
Int					1	.825**	.537**
InP						1	.704**
IPre							1

Notes: L2CM = criterion measures; IL2S = ideal L2 self; OL2S = ought-to L2 self
L2LE = L2 learning experience; IPro = instrumentality-promotion
Int = integrativeness;   InP = international posture
IPre = instrumentality-prevention;   ** = p≤ .001
coefficient of determination: small = r ≤ 0.1; medium = r = 0.3; large = r ≥ 0.5 (Cohen, 1988)

Correlations between L2MSS Scales and demographic variables

As reported in Table 2, correlation analyses showed that among all the correlations, only the number of foreign languages learned was significantly positively related to IL2S (ideal L2 self) (r = .290, p = .008) and Int (integrativeness) (r = .233, p = .035). Alternatively, the more foreign languages a respondent learned, the better perceived ideal L2 self they had for themselves, and the more integratively motivated they were to study Chinese. Meanwhile, IL2S (ideal L2 self) (r = .301, p = .006) was significantly correlated with gender, with a medium effect size, indicating that female participants had more positive perceptions of their ideal L2 selves.

Table 2
Correlations between L2MSS Scales and Demographic Variables (N = 83)

	Gender	Age	SCP	LSC	LSCH	NFLL	HSUC
L2CM	.174	-.027	-.175	-.203	-.129	.129	-.003
IL2S	.301**	-.075	-.032	-.049	.046	.290**	.067
OL2S	-.146	.200	-.116	-.199	-.159	.058	-.076
L2LE	.202	-.126	-.056	-.110	.011	.118	.092
IPro	.158	-.077	.099	.059	.140	.197	.084
Int	.196	-.005	.105	-.049	.043	.233*	.028
InP	.152	-.073	-.075	-.088	-.013	.198	.031
IPre	-.008	.114	.079	.036	.074	.086	.023

Notes: SCP = self-rated Chinese proficiency; LSC= length of stay in China;
LSCH = length of studying Chinese; NFLL = the number of foreign languages learned; HSUC = hours spent in using Chinese per day; ** = p⩽ .01; * = p⩽ .05
For each block, the first number is the coefficient and the second is probability level, separated by a hyphen.
coefficient of determination: small = r ⩽ 0.1; medium = r = 0.3; large = r ⩾ 0.5 (Cohen, 1988)

L2 motivation level

As summarized in Table 3, except that OL2S (ought-to L2 self) had a mean of 3.64, all the other L2MSS scales scored more than 4 (mean = 4.07 ~ 4.49), far above the scale midpoint 3.5. Namely, the participants made good or even great efforts to study Chinese, held (fairly) high perception of their ideal and ought-to selves, had positive attitudes toward their L2 learning experience, were highly instrumentally and integratively motivated, and had a great motivation of having an international posture.

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of L2MSS Scales

	The whole sample (N = 83)		Male (N = 50)		Female (N = 33)		t-test results		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	t	p	Cohen'd
L2LM	4.25	1.07	4.10	1.17	4.47	.86	-1.59	.116	/
IL2S	4.36	.11	4.09	1.19	4.77	.85	-2.84**	.006	0.66
OL2S	3.64	1.20	3.78	1.11	3.43	1.31	1.32	.190	/
L2LE	4.47	1.14	4.29	1.32	4.76	.74	-1.86	.067	/
IPro	4.36	1.20	4.21	1.32	4.59	.97	-1.44	.153	/
Int	4.49	1.06	4.32	1.19	4.74	.78	-1.78	.078	/
InP	4.36	1.07	4.23	1.26	4.56	.66	-1.37	.174	/
IPre	4.07	1.29	4.08	1.29	4.05	1.31	.074	.941	/

The same pattern was observed with male and female respondents respectively. Moreover, female respondents scored higher on L2LM, IL2S, L2LE, IPro, Int, and InP but lower on OL2S and IPre than their male counterparts. However, a statistically significant difference was observed only in IL2S, as evidenced by the independent samples t-test results reported in Table 3.

Regression analyses

Regression analyses (stepwise) were run to explore the predicting effect of the L2MSS on the participants' Chinese proficiency, with self-rated proficiency in Chinese being the dependent variable and L2MSS scales being independent variables. This, however, produced no models, suggesting that the L2MSS scales had no predictive effect on the students' Chinese proficiency.

Then, regression analyses (stepwise) were run again, with self-rated proficiency in Chinese being the dependent variable and demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, length of stay in China, length of studying Chinese, the number of foreign languages learned, and average hours spent using Chinese per day) being independent

variables. This produced one model with an R square change of .277 (p = .000). The results are reported in Table 4, which reveals that LSC (length of stay in China) (β = .527, t = 5.366, f^2= 0.38) was a powerful positive predictor of students' proficiency in Chinese, with a large effect size.

Table 4
Multiple Regression Coefficients and Significance of Predictors for Chinese Proficiency

Chinese proficiency	β	t	p	VIF	Cohen's f²
LSC	.527	5.366	.000	1.000	0.38

Notes: ** = p ⩽ .01;   * = p ⩽ .05
effect size of Cohen's f^2: small = f^2 ⩽ .02; medium = f^2 = .15;   large = f^2 ⩾ .35 (Cohen, 1988)

To test the interactive effect of L2MSS scales and demographic variables on proficiency in Chinese, regression analyses (stepwise) were run again, with self-rated proficiency in Chinese being the dependent variable and L2MSS scales and demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, length of stay in China, length of studying Chinese, the number of foreign languages learned, and average hours spent using Chinese per day) being independent variables. This produced two models with an R square change of .305 (p = .000) for model 1 (LSC) and .044 (p = .031) for model 2 (LSC, gender). The results are reported in Table 5, which shows that LSC (length of stay in China) (β = .562, t = 5.865, f^2 = 0.44) and gender (β = .211, t = 2.2, f^2 = 0.05) were powerful positive predictors of students' proficiency in Chinese, with a large and small effect size respectively.

Table 5
Multiple Regression Coefficients and Significance of Predictors for Chinese Proficiency

Chinese proficiency	β	t	p	VIF	Cohen's f²
LSC	.562	5.865	.000	1.002	0.44
Gender	.211	2.2	.031	1.002	0.05

Notes: ** = p ⩽ .01;   * = p ⩽ .05
effect size of Cohen's f^2: small = f^2 ⩽ .02; medium = f^2 = .15;   large = f^2 ⩾ .35 (Cohen, 1988)

Discussion

Correlations within and between L2MSS Scales and demographic variables

The present study revealed that the L2MSS scales were significantly correlated with one another, as found in many current studies (Csizér & Luka'cs, 2010; Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Kim, 2009; Islam et al., 2013). This meant that a respondent who scored high on one L2MSS scale tended to score high on other L2MSS scales. Coupled with high reliability scores, this suggested that all eight components are important dimensions of L2 motivation and play important roles in SL/FL learning (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009b).

Meanwhile, the high coefficients between IL2S (ideal L2 self) and other scales and those between L2LE (L2 learning experience) and other scales (see Table 1) supported the original assumption made by Dörnyei (2005, 2009b) that possible selves and L2 learning experience are core components of L2 motivation and second language acquisition. Likewise, the high correlations between IPro (instrumentality-promotion), Int (integrativeness), InP (international posture), and other scales further proved that instrumental and integrative motivation are crucial dimensions of second language motivation (Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1992; Tremblay& Gardner, 1995). This finding, as found in Liu (2016), also indicated that international posture is an important component of L2 motivation, highly related to SL/FL learning. This might be because the participants in the present study were international students studying in China, expecting to gain a global view by studying abroad. Different from that in Rajab, Far, and Etemadzadeh (2012), OL2S (ought-to L2 self) had the lowest coefficient with L2LEbut the highest coefficient with IPre (instrumentality-prevention). This might be largely because the participants in the present study chose to study Chinese in China of their own will, hardly influenced by their parents, peers, and/or others around them. It might also be because people around them did not have a great impact on their Chinese learning, as found in Cruz and Al Shabibi (2019). Concurrently, this finding further confirmed the proposition that ought-to self resembles the more external types of instrumental motives (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013; Higgins, 1987).

Meanwhile, the present study found that only the number of foreign languages learned was significantly positively related to IL2S (ideal L2 self) and Int (integrativeness), partially consistent with that in Humphreys and Spratt (2008). Moreover, this finding proved the belief that ideal self and integrative motivation are critically related to SL/FL learning (Dörnyei, 1994; Gardner, 1985; Rajab et al., 2012). In addition, the present study found female students had more positive perceptions of their ideal L2 selves. This might be because females tend to have a brighter image of the future and their ideal selves, which needs further research.

Profiles of the participants'L2 motivation

Statistical analyses revealed that the participants in the present study had great motivational intensity to study Chinese, held (fairly) positive images of their ideal and ought-to selves, had preferable attitudes toward their L2 learning experience, were highly instrumentally and integratively motivated, and had a high motivation of having an international posture, similar to that in other studies (Alshahrani, 2016; Chen, 2015; Csizér & Luka'cs, 2010; Liu, 2017; O'Reilly, 2014; Wen, 2011; Winke, 2013).This might be because the respondents were immersed in the native language environment and most had the experience of learning more than one foreign language. As discussed in DeKeyser (2007), Hernández (2010), and Morreale (2011), the native language environment or the study-abroad context helps to motivate learners to study the target language and improve their proficiency in the language.

Moreover, though having a similar tendency to that of the whole sample, female respondents held significantly more favorable perceptions of their ideal selves than their male peers, partially supporting the result of 'gender role intensification' in Henry (2009, cited in Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). Nevertheless, this needs to be researched further.

Predictive effects of L2 motivation and demographic variables on Chinese proficiency

Different from the finding that L2MSS components are closely related to SL/FL learning revealed in many studies (Cruz & Al Shabibi, 2019; Csizér & Luka'cs, 2010), regression analyses showed that when working alone, no L2MSS scale had a predictive effect on the students' Chinese proficiency in the present study. This could be largely attributed to the fact that the students' Chinese proficiency was measured by their self-ratings in the present study. The results might be different if students' Chinese proficiency was measured by a standardized Chinese proficiency test, which will be carefully designed in future research.

Of the measured demographic variables, LSC (length of stay in China) was found to powerfully predict students' proficiency in Chinese. This result further supported the finding in Martinsen (2008) and Hernández (2010) that the study-abroad context helps motivate learners to study the target language and improve their proficiency in the target language. Unexpectedly, hours spent using Chinese per day was not a predictor for proficiency in Chinese, nor was it significantly related to L2 motivation, unlike Liu's findings (2017, 2019). This might be because the students' L2 motivation was measured by the L2MSS questionnaire, different from Liu (2017, 2019) guided by Gardner's socio-educational model (1985), which is worth further research.

In regard to the interactive effect of L2MSS scales and demographic variables on proficiency in Chinese, regression analyses showed that LSC (length of stay in China) and gender were powerful positive predictors for the latter. This might be partially because gender was a distinguishing variable in some L2MSS scales, which interacted with LSC to affect students' proficiency in Chinese. Considering the relatively small sample size in the present research, this result needs to be confirmed in future research.

Conclusion

The present research explored L2 motivation, demographic variables, and Chinese proficiency among adult learners of Chinese as a second language. Analyses of the data revealed the following findings:

1) the L2MSS scales were significantly highly related to one another,
2) IL2S (ideal L2 self) and Int (integrativeness) were significantly positively related to the number of foreign languages learned, IL2S was also significantly correlated with gender,

3) the whole sample, as well as male and female participants, made good or even great efforts to study Chinese, held (fairly) high perception of their ideal and ought-to selves, had positive attitudes toward their L2 learning experience, were highly instrumentally and integratively motivated, and had a great motivation of having an international posture,

4) female respondents held significantly more favorable perceptions of their ideal selves than their male peers, and

5) the L2MSS scales had no predictive effect or interactive effect with demographic variables on the students' Chinese proficiency. Nevertheless, length of stay in China and gender proved to be powerful positive predictors for the students' Chinese proficiency.

The L2MSS scales were found to be highly reliable and proved to be important dimensions of L2 motivation and play important roles in second/foreign language learning. That being said, it is necessary to continue to explore, understand, and enhance students' L2 motivation.

Pedagogical Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

The findings of the present research have several implications for SL/FL teaching and learning. On the one hand, it is necessary for teachers to be aware of the role of motivation in achieving learners' SL/FL learning goals (Cruz & Al Shabibi, 2019). This can be done by sharing their own SL/FL learning experiences, guiding learners to imagine themselves as members of a globalized speech community while and after achieving their learning goals, encouraging learners to imagine what kind of person they want to be at present and in the future, and relate their learning of the SL/FL to their present and future selves. Teachers can also help to create favorable learning experiences for SL/FL learners. As discussed in Papi (2010), the L2 learning experience involves situation-specific motives like the curriculum, the L2 teacher, and the learning materials. Hence, a favorable learning experience can (greatly) increase learners' motivation to study the SL/FL (Papi, 2010). Teachers can help arouse powerful and vivid views of the successful L2 speakers to motivate a strong interest among their learners and design useful tasks to invoke such images (Taugchi et al., 2009). For example, Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) investigated the relationship between 27 South Korean teachers' motivational teaching practice and their students' English learning motivation, which involved 40 ESL classrooms and more than 1,300 learners. Analyses of questionnaires and classroom observations revealed that the language teachers' motivational practice increased levels of the learners' motivated learning behavior as well as their motivational state. The researchers, thus, advised language instructors to raise their awareness of the importance of motivating learners and undertaking motivation-raising teaching practices. These findings were supported by subsequent research (Papi & Abdollahzadeh, 2012) that examined the relationship between teachers' use of motivational strategies and students' motivated behavior in the EFL context of Iran. The study recruited 741 male learners of English from 26 secondary school classes taught by 17 teachers. The study showed that the teachers' motivational practice was significantly related to the students' motivated behavior and that the low-motivation group had stronger ought-to L2 selves.

On the other hand, learners can (be encouraged to) generate and/or enhance their vision of SL/FL learning, as discussed in Dörnyei (2008). This can be done by raising awareness, drawing on powerful role models and pinpointing the significance of the ideal L2 self to construct the ideal L2 self, strengthening the vision, and developing an action plan to realize the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2008). For example, if learners want to become fluent L2speakers who are able to effectively interact with foreign friends, they should take advantage of available opportunities to engage themselves in oral interactions in the L2 (Dörnyei, 2009a). If learners want to become the person their parents expect them to be, they should be (greatly) motivated to study the SL/FL to receive their parents' praise and rewards (Higgins, 1987).

The present study not only examined L2 motivation profiles but also the predictive effects of L2 motivation on Chinese proficiency, as well as its interactive effects with demographic variables on Chinese proficiency among adult learners of Chinese as a SL, enriching the current literature on L2MSS that calls for more research on the issue and on learners of foreign languages other than English. Even so, similar to Cruz and Al Shabibi (2019), the present study also attests that much work is still needed on examining L2 motivation in relation to various factors such as the learning context and individual characteristics. As discussed in Dörnyei (2009a), a longitudinal study with mixed methods may be preferable for future research of an identical nature as there are many unmentioned factors (e.g., globalization and the complexities of the learners' psychological profile, etc.)

that may influence the level of L2 motivation. For example, Gao, Zhao and Cheng's (2007) survey study of 2,278Chinese college students revealed a strong correlation between motivation types and self-identity changes. Future research can center on the relationship between the L2SSM and other factors such as self-identity and learning strategy use (Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009; Xu, 2011). Moreover, as discussed in Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017), the self-concept of learning English has somehow become a referent self-concept of learning other languages. Nevertheless, the self-concept of learning a second, third, and nth language is different from that of learning English since the context is different. Consequently, learners' self-concepts and motivation related to learning different FLs always deserve research, especially in relation to their individualistic and social contexts, as discussed in MacIntyre, Baker and Sparling (2017) and Henry (2017). As English has become a lingua franc around this world, it seems that people increasingly tend to regard the study of English as a self-evident part of education rather than as driven by an L2-specific motivational decision or see English-related motivation or self-image as the referent motivation or self-image (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017; Henry, 2017). Dörnyei (2009a) claimed that the interplay among language, agent, and environment in the language acquisition process highlights the need for further research in this area. Therefore, it will be interesting to explore differences and similarities in L2 motivation between learners of English as a SL/FL and those of learning SLs/FLs other than English. As discussed in Henry (2010), a strong English-related ideal self might interfere the learning of another foreign language, which deserves further research.

Finally, Waninge, Dörnyei, and de Bot's (2014) questionnaire study of 709 students together with classroom observations of four language learners over a period of two weeks showed that L2 motivation changed over time at an individual level as the context changed. The researchers thus suggested that L2 motivation be studied at different interacting time scales. This dynamic nature of L2 motivation was supported by Kim's (2006) study of 365 Korean EFL high school students, which showed that EFL motivation changed during time. Hence, it is important and necessary to conduct cross-sectional research to better understand how L2 motivation changes over time (Dörnyei, 2014).

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Language Attitudes and L2 Motivation of Korean Language Learners in Malaysia

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This study examined relationships between language attitudes and L2 motivation of learners of Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) in a large public university in Malaysia. It employed the socio-educational model of L2 motivation and focused on the relationship between the language learners' attitudes toward speakers of the target language and their motivation to learn Korean. A systematic statistical analysis was performed to analyse the data collected from 19 (N=19) students. A robust statistical procedure adopted in this study allowed some worthwhile insights into the language attitudes–L2 motivation nexus. The findings indicated that there existed a statistically significant relationship between the language learners' instrumental orientation and their attitudes toward the speakers of Korean language.

Keywords: language learning motivation, language attitudes, Korean as a Foreign Language, Malaysia

Introduction

The importance of psychological factors, such as attitudes and motivation, in the process of learning a second or a foreign language (L2 language) has been recognized since the 1940s (Gardner, 2001). Extensive and flourishing research on language learning motivation (L2 motivation) in the field of applied and educational linguistics stems from the pioneering studies by Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert (1959, 1972), whose original question was whether "someone could really learn a second language if they did not like the group who spoke the language" (Gardner, 2001, p. 1). Consequent studies by Gardner and Lambert as well as by other researchers have firmly established the importance of language attitudes and variety of social factors that give rise to these attitudes (Houghton 2010; Nikitina, 2019). Over time, Gardner and Lambert's research on language attitudes and L2 motivation has evolved into the influential socio–educational theory of L2 motivation (Gardner, 1985).

The socio-psychological perspective introduced by Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) has shaped the vectors of L2 motivation research for several decades and the ensuing studies offer ample support to the existence of complex linkages between L2 motivation, social factors and personally held attitudes (Castellotti and Moore, 2002; Csizér and Kormos, 2008; Dörnyei and Csizér, 2002; Dörnyei, Csizér and Németh, 2006; Gardner, 1968; Kormos, Kiddle and Csizér, 2011; Wlodkowsky, 2008). Collectively, the social, attitudinal and emotional factors that are present in the process of learning an additional language are known as 'language attitudes'. Originally, research on such attitudes was limited to language learners' perceptions of the target language community and target language itself (Gardner, 1985). More recently, the concept of language attitudes has expanded to include stereotypes and mental images that language learners hold about the target language countries, their cultures and people (Nikitina, 2015, 2019, 2020).

It should be noted that despite the availability of newer theoretical models of L2 motivation (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005; Ushioda, 2009) the Gardnerian socio-educational model and the concept of integrativeness have retained their theoretical and explanatory values, especially in the contexts where a distinct L2 community is present and easily identifiable (Gearing and Roger, 2019). In the socio-educational model of L2 motivation, language attitudes, including the attitudes toward the L2 speaking communities, are subsumed under the constructs of

'integrativeness' or 'integrative orientation'. 'Orientation' can be defined as a goal or clear internalized purpose for learning an L2 language, while the wider construct of L2 motivation incorporates the directed efforts to learn the L2 (Gardner, 1985; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991, 1993). In the socio-educational model there are two motivational orientations, namely, the 'instrumental orientation' and the 'integrative orientation'. The former pertains to practical goals for learning an L2 language (e.g., having better employment opportunities, pursuing future studies, getting financial rewards) while the latter concerns genuine positive interest in and feelings toward an L2 community and its cultures (Gardner, 1985). Earlier studies have demonstrated that there is a strong correlation between the integrative orientation and language attitudes, which produced a direct impact on the L2 motivation (Gardner, 1985; Gardner and MacIntyre, 1991; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003).

Against such a backdrop, the current study aims to examine the relationship between Malaysian language learners' attitudes toward speakers of the Korean language and these learners' L2 motivation. Hence, this study addresses the problem at the root of the socio-educational theory, namely, language learners' attitudes toward members of the L2 speaking community and their L2 motivation. The research question this study seeks to answer is: What is the relationship between the language learners' attitudes toward speakers of the Korean language and their L2 motivation?

The current study hopes to contribute to the literature on L2 motivation in three ways. Firstly, from a theoretical perspective, it aims to offer empirical support to the existence of a linkage between language learners' attitudes toward speakers of a target language and their motivation to learn the target language. Gardner's (1985) socio-educational theory and the attitude theory by Eagly and Chaiken (1998) provided a theoretical foundation to the proposition that individually-held language attitudes, including the attitudes toward speakers of a target language, would have associations with L2 motivation.

Secondly, research on language attitudes among learners of the Korean language that incorporates the language learners' stereotypes of the target language country (e.g., Nikitina and Furuoka, 2019) is still in a nascent stage. By the same token, studies that have conducted systematic statistical analyses of L2 motivation and language attitudes in the context of teaching and learning the Korean language (e.g., Nikitina, 2020) remain scarce. The current study addresses this gap. This research direction could be particularly timely because the Korean language as a university subject is becoming increasingly popular all over the world. In Malaysia, for example, Korean language programs are offered in all major universities. Therefore, it would be worthwhile to examine whether there exists a linkage between language attitudes and L2 motivation among Malaysian tertiary learners of the Korean language.

Thirdly, this study hopes to make some methodological contributions. It adopts a robust statistical procedure that combines bootstrapping and quantile regression analysis (Nikitina and Furuoka, 2018; Nikitina, Paidi and Furuoka, 2019). In view that quantitative applied linguistics and L2 research lacks frameworks for a systematic implementation of non-parametric statistics, as noted by Norris, Ross and Schoonen (2015), and considering that statistical reasoning behind a chosen method is rarely explained, this article offers a step-by-step explanation of the phases in the statistical analysis. The importance of describing novel procedures in linguistics research in as much detail as possible so that other researchers can use or refine the method was noted by Clark (1973).

This article has the following structure: subsequent to this introductory part Section 2 gives an overview of the socio-cultural background to this study. Section 3 presents research studies on Korean cultural influence in Malaysia; it also reviews pertinent empirical studies on L2 motivation among learners of Korean. The section then proceeds to highlight some methodological issues in studies on L2 motivation and language attitudes. Section 4 describes the methodology adopted in the present study and Section 5 presents the empirical findings. Section 6 offers a discussion of the findings and some concluding remarks.

Background to the Study

Malaysia has long-standing good ties with both the Koreas. However, it was not until recent decades that Korean culture has begun making an impact on the Malaysian society. This can be attributed to the increasing

popularity of the Korean entertainment scene around the world, which has been known as the Korean Wave (*Hallyu*). The term *Hallyu* was first used in the late 1990s by the Chinese media to describe a growing popularity of Korean pop-culture in China (S. Lee, 2015). Although *Hallyu* has since become associated with the ubiquitous presence of all things Korean, including Korean food and Korean goods, the term is still predominantly used to refer to the global spread of Korean pop culture.

The utility of the Korean Wave has been leveraged by the South Korean government as part of its public diplomacy efforts and as a means of soft power. The role of the nation-state, in this case the government, in crafting cultural policies specifically tailored to enhance the influence and attractiveness of Korean culture has been important in promoting the popularity of Korean culture abroad (Jin, 2014). The global prominence of Korean pop culture is reflected in the mental images that people around the world associate with Korea (Nikitina and Furuoka, 2019). According to the survey "Top 10 Images Associated with Korea", the second most popular image after "Korean food" was "Korean pop music and artists" (K-pop) (Korea Foundation, 2019).

In Malaysia, Korean popular culture used to be secondary to the hugely influential Japanese pop-culture and entertainment industry. For example, Korean music artists such as *BoA* and *SES* became popular due to their foray into the Japanese music industry. Moreover, the Korean government's cultural policy was focused on Malaysia's Chinese speaking population and the wider audience in this multicultural country was not the main target. It was not until the release in 2002 of the Korean drama *Winter Sonata* that the Korean Wave acquired a tangible presence in Malaysia and began cutting across the racial lines of the country's population. The success of this TV drama was followed with other hits, such as *Autumn in My Heart* and *A Jewel in the Palace*, all of which contributed to an ever increasing popularity of Korean dramas among the Malaysian audience.

Following this initial success in Asia in the late 1990s and the early 2000s, the seemingly sudden boom of South Korean pop-culture beyond the Asian region was enabled by the spread of the social media. In 2008, South Korean singer Psy became a global sensation with his music video *Gangnam Style*. The video swiftly became one of the most watched videos on YouTube, solidifying the global appeal and presence of Korean entertainment online. As noted by Jin and Yoon (2014), this swelling of the Korean Wave or *Hallyu 2.0* has contributed to the second wave of Korean culture popularity and transformed what was previously seen as a niche interest to the mainstream acceptance. Apparently, the popularity of Korean pop-culture in Malaysia and the Southeast Asian region in general has stimulated interest toward all things Korean. This includes the growing consumption of Korean products, the inbound tourism to Korea and the introduction of Korean language courses in universities. Notwithstanding an immense popularity of Korean culture in Malaysia, no systematic empirical research has been done on Korean language learners' attitudes toward the target language country, its cultures and people. Therefore, it could be illuminating to examine whether popularity of Korean culture in Malaysia is reflected in the positive language attitudes and strong L2 motivation among Malaysian tertiary learners of Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL).

Literature Review

Empirical Studies on Korean Cultural Presence in Malaysia

Several studies have explored whether and how popularity of Korean pop-culture in Malaysia has influenced various aspects of social life and cultural mores in the country. Cho (2010) argued that the immense popularity of Korean culture among Malaysians from all walks of life translated, among other things, into the proliferation of Korean language courses and culture study programs in the country's institutions of higher learning. Findings reported by Teh and Goh (2014) resonate with this proposition. The researchers examined the influence of watching South Korean TV dramas on outbound Malaysian tourism to South Korea. They discovered that younger Malaysians, especially young women, were keen to visit Korea due to their interest in Korean TV dramas, pop music and entertainment programs.

In another study among Malaysian youths, Nikitina and Furuoka (2019) explored mental images of Korea, its cultures and people that tertiary learners of KFL bring into the language classroom. The findings revealed that the students had rich and diversified images of the target language country. Interestingly, almost half of all mental images (*N*=333) provided by the respondents pertained to Korean popular culture, various cultural

products and Korean food. In contrast, the images referring to Korean history, economy, political life and technological advancements were scarce, while the images concerning Korean 'high culture' or 'big C' culture were noticeably lacking. It should be noted that the respondents generated a substantial number of very positive references to Korean people and mentioned popular in Malaysia artists and entertainers. Comparing these findings with previous studies (e.g., Byon, 2007; Tangalycheva, 2015) Nikitina and Furuoka concluded that some images of Korea emerged as transnational 'mega stereotypes' shared by people in various countries. As an example, in each of the three studies the respondents made several very similar references to Korean people and their character traits, including 'group-oriented people' and 'hard working people'. Also, Nikitina and Furuoka's findings indicated that the students had overwhelmingly positive mental images of and attitudes toward Korea and its people.

It could be plausible to suggest that having such positive attitudes or being a fan of a pop singer, of a movie actor or even of a particular TV program would establish some positively charged emotional links to the target language culture and L2 speaking community as a whole. Such emotional attachments are at the core of the integrative orientation. As pointed out by Cho (2010), Korean entertainment industry has crafted a highly favourable image of Korea and its people amongst Malaysians. By extension, as we propose, interest in Korean TV dramas and pop-culture would not only enhance the language learners' familiarity with and interest in Korea and its cultures but also stimulate their desire to master the Korean language, so that they could understand conversations in their favourite TV dramas or follow the lyrics of their favourite songs. The present empirical study among learners of KFL aims to gain some insights into the plausibility of this tentative proposition.

Studies on L2 Motivation among Learners of Korean

Of particular interest for the current study is the prior research, either qualitative or quantitative, that included non-heritage learners of Korean and adopted a Gardnerian perspective on L2 motivation (i.e., subsumed the instrumental and integrative orientations among the research concepts). The instrumental and integrative orientations are considered in this review of literature in the widest sense: the former pertains to clearly internalized practical purposes for learning Korean while the latter concerns language learners' interest in the target culture, their attitudes toward the target language (TL) country and their willingness and interest to interact with members of the TL community.

One of the earliest available studies on L2 motivation among tertiary learners of the Korean language was conducted by Yang (2003). In that study, a larger sample (N=341) of students learning one of three East Asian languages (i.e., Chinese, Japanese or Korean) in USA universities included 135 (n = 135) learners of Korean, of which 26 percent were non-heritage learners. Yang conducted a questionnaire survey and analyzed the data using a number of statistical tests. The research instrument consisted of several subscales that assessed the nature of the students' L2 motivation, such as the integrative, instrumental, heritage-related, travel, interest and school-related reasons for learning Korean. The findings indicated that the learners of Korean were, overall, more strongly motivated compared to the learners of Chinese and Japanese languages. Also, the non-heritage Korean language learners were highly motivated by their interest in the target language and the integrative motivation was the dominant driving force for these students.

In recent years there has been a drastic increase in studies that focus on learners of Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL). These studies were done in a broad range of geographical contexts including Australia (Fraschini and Caruso, 2019; Shin, Ko and Rue, 2016), China (Z. N. Lee, 2015), Japan (S.Y. Lee, 2018; Yoshida et al., 2014), Malaysia (Nikitina, 2020), Singapore (Chan and Chi, 2010), South Korea (Gearing and Roger, 2019; Son and Jeon, 2011) and the USA (Hur and Choi, 2015; Jee, 2015; I. H. Lee, 2018). Theoretical perspectives adopted by the researchers included Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model of L2 motivation that distinguishes between integrative and instrumental orientations (e.g., Hur and Choi, 2015; S. Y. Lee, 2018, Nikitina, 2020; Yang, 2003), the L2 motivational self-system (L2MSS) proposed by Dörnyei (2009) that mainly focuses on the language learners' vision of their future L2 selves (e.g., Fraschini and Caruso, 2019) or a combination of theoretical frameworks (e.g., Gearing and Roger, 2018).

Studies done in various countries have distinguished integrativeness as a ubiquitous and prominent feature within the Korean language learners' L2 motivation. Especially, the interest in Korean popular culture has been

a key determinant of the students' choice to enroll in the Korean language courses and a critical factor that maintained their L2 motivation. To give some examples, S. Y. Lee (2018), who conducted a study among Japanese learners of Korean, discovered that the students were predominantly motivated by their interest in Korean culture and had a strong intention to continue their Korean language program. American non-heritage Korean language learners in a study by Hur and Choi (2015) were overwhelmingly motivated by the integrative factors, such as the interest to "learn more about Korean culture/people/ history" (mentioned by 78% of these respondents) and by the desire to communicate with members of the target language speaking community (67%). In a similar way, I.H. Lee (2018) found out that indirect contacts with Korean popular culture had enhanced the American students' L2 motivation to learn the Korean language.

The salience of the integrative orientation does not preclude a tangible presence of the instrumentally-oriented motives. For example, Jee (2015) found out that American college students who participated in her study were in equal degrees motivated by instrumental (e.g., "studying Korean is important to me because I'll need it for my future career") and integrative (e.g., "studying Korean is important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with fellow Koreans who speak Korean") motives. Furthermore, non-heritage learners in Hur and Choi's (2015) study stated among reasons to learn Korean the need to fulfil the university foreign language requirement (35%) and raise their GPA (13%); some respondents intended to use Korean in future employment (33%) or had plans to pursue further studies in Korea (33%). In a similar way, Chan and Chi (2010), who explored the structure of L2 motivation among learners of KFL ($N = 80$) in a Singapore university concluded that, based on the findings from the exploratory factor analysis (EFA), the main factors that motivated the students were "pop culture," "career," "achievement," "academic exchange" and "foreign languages and cultures".

Interesting insights into L2 motivation of Korean language learners can be gained from a Q-study by Fraschini and Caruso (2019). The researchers discovered that the majority ($n = 17$) of their 39 ($N = 39$) respondents could form a group of learners who visualized their future selves using Korean language for enjoyment and leisure (e.g., consuming cultural products, having short sojourns in Korea). Also, a considerable number of the respondents ($n = 11$) envisioned employing their Korean language skills for various instrumental purposes (e.g., making short business trips to Korea, working as a language instructor, being employed by a Korean company). Moreover, another four ($n = 4$) respondents had very clear instrumentally-oriented motives; these students considered the knowledge of the Korean language as important for obtaining a high status job in the future, for acquiring a greater social respect or for gaining a competitive edge in the international job market. The Q methodology employed by Fraschini and Caruso has highlighted the fact that L2 motivation is an amalgam of various motives within each individual student's language learning agenda.

The missing elements in the earlier studies of L2 motivation were the endogenous mental images that language learners have of target language countries and the attitudes embedded in these images (see Nikitina, 2019). It is only very recently that researchers have begun exploring Korean language learners' stereotypes of and attitudes toward Korea (Nikitina, 2020; Nikitina and Furuoka, 2019). Nikitina (2020) included learners of Korean in her study of relationships between country stereotypes and L2 motivation among tertiary learners of Asian languages in a Malaysian university. The findings were somewhat counter-intuitive: although the students held overwhelmingly positive mental images of and attitudes toward Korea, no statistically significant positive relationship was detected to exist between the learners' attitudes and any of the L2 motivation dimensions (i.e., "effort", "perseverance", "instrumental orientation", "integrative orientation"). This result might be due to some methodological constraints, which the present study addressed. To be more specific, firstly, this study employed a global measure of attitudes known in psychology research as a 'thermometer-type scale' and, secondly, it applied a newly-introduced robust statistical procedure (Nikitina and Furuoka, 2018) that is suitable for small sample research. The following subsection touches upon some pertinent methodological issues.

Methodological Issues in Research on Language Learners' Attitudes and L2 Motivation

Methodologists and applied linguistics researchers have noted that classroom-based research in L2 settings tends to have a small sample size, which leads to the problem of non-normal distribution of error terms (Larson-Hall, 2012; Larson-Hall and Herrington, 2010). One of the most straightforward and popular approaches to dealing with this problem is bootstrapping (Stuckler et al., 2009). In educational and applied linguistics research the bootstrapping method is often employed to enable the structural equation model analysis (e.g., Gallagher, 2013; Gu and Cheung, 2016; Hessel, 2015). For example, in her study of German university students'

ideal L2 self-image as a speaker of English, Hessel (2015) used the bootstrapping procedure to compute the confidence intervals. In a similar way, Gu and Cheung (2016) applied bootstrapping to estimate the confidence intervals in the links between ethnic minorities schoolchildren's views of an ideal L2 self, their acculturation into the host community, the influence of the heritage culture and the childrens' intended effort to learn the mainstream language. The bootstrapping procedure was also used by Gallagher (2013) who examined the relationship between willingness to communicate in the second language (L2WTC) among international students in the UK and their cross-cultural adaptation.

However, the bootstrapping method is not a panacea for all methodological hurdles faced by researchers. One of its main limitations is the tendency to proliferate outliers (Bai et al., 2016). This means that a proportion of the outlying cases in the bootstrapped data could be greater than in the original dataset (Salibian-Barrera and Zamar, 2002). To overcome this shortcoming Nikitina and Furuoka (2018) suggested combining bootstrapping with quantile regression (QR) analysis. In the QR analysis, the *median* value or the 0.5-quantile value is often selected for the conditional variable. In the presence of outliers, a quantile would be preferable for the conditional variable because the percentile is an order-statistic that more robust to outliers (Chen and Chalhoub-Deville, 2014). The ensuing section explains the current study's methodology.

Methodology

Scope of the Study, Participants and Research Instrument

This study is a part of a larger investigation of the relationships between language attitudes and L2 motivation among learners of East Asian languages. Due to space constraints, the qualitative findings on the students' mental images of Korea are not discussed in the current article. The article reports only the quantitative analysis results. The data were collected among KFL learners (N = 19) at a large Malaysian university. The age of the participants ranged between 20 and 24 years old (M = 21.79; Mdn = 22.00; SD = 1.08). There were more female (n = 15 or 78.9%) than male students in the sample. All of the participants majored in the Social Sciences and Humanities disciplines.

Each participant was given a photocopied form of the study's questionnaire which contained one open-ended question, a thermometer-type scale ranging from 0 °C to 100 C that assessed the students' general attitudes toward the TL speakers[1] and 16 items on L2 motivation with attached 5-point Likert-type scales ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Also, the students were asked to provide demographic information, such as their gender, age and academic major.

Study's Variables and Research Hypothesis

There were four variables in this study, namely: (1) language learners' attitudes toward the TL speakers (*ALS*), (2) general L2 motivation (*GEM*), (3) instrumental orientation (*ISO*) and (4) integrative orientation (*ITO*). Based on the definition of an attitude by Eagly and Chaiken (1998), this study operationalized language attitudes as a general evaluative reaction of the language learners toward speakers of the target language. These attitudes were measure on the thermometer-type scale.

Among the L2 motivation variables, *General motivation* (*GEM*) measured the effort that the students were willing to expend to learn the TL (6 items; Cronbach's α = .816). The *Instrumental orientation (ISO)* assessed the language learners' perceptions of the TL utility and their intention to use the TL for pragmatic purposes (5 items; Cronbach's α = .785) while the *Integrative orientation (ITO)* measured the language learners' intention to learn the TL in order to communicate with the TL speakers and understand their ways of life (5 items; Cronbach's α = .819).

Based on the premise that "motivation binds emotion to action" (Wlodkowsky, 2008, p.2), this study assumed that the students' attitudes toward speakers of Korean (*ALS*) would relate to the three L2 motivation variables, namely, *GEM*, *ISO*, and *ITO*. In a function form, this relationship can be expressed as:

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[1] Thermometer-type scales are widely employed in the behavioural sciences research to assess general attitudes held by people (Maio and Haddock, 2010; Spencer-Rodgers, 2001). In the current study, the end points of the scale were graded as 0 °C (for an "extremely unfavourable" attitude) and 100 °C (for an "extremely favourable" attitude); 5 °C intervals were set between the two extreme points of the scale.

$$ALS = f(\overset{+}{GEM}, \overset{+}{ISO}, \overset{+}{ITO})$$ (1)

This function proposes that the language learners' attitudes toward the TL speakers (*ALS*) would have a positive (+) relationship with the L2 motivation measures (i.e., *GEM, ISO,* and *ITO*). In other words, this function proposes that more motivated language learners would have more positive attitudes toward the TL speakers.

In quantitative applied linguistics research, the hypothesis testing usually entails assessing the probability value (*p*-value). However, as noted by researchers and methodologists (Cumming, 2012; Larson-Hall, 2012), the *p*-value endorses a false dichotomy between 'statistically significant' and 'statistically non-significant' results. Besides, due to the over-reliance on the *p*-value little attention has been accorded to the distribution of the population parameters. To overcome this problem, the current study reports the confidence intervals (CIs) rather than the *p*-values. Besides, the findings reported as CIs are more informative compared to *p*-values (Cumming, 2012). In the current study, the alpha level was set at 10 percent ($\alpha = .10$) and the null hypothesis was rejected when zero fell outside the 90 percent CI. Though setting the alpha level at 5 percent ($\alpha = .05$) is the prevalent practice, there are compelling arguments in favour of increasing it to 10 percent in the Social Sciences and Humanities research (Larson-Hall, 2010).

Data analysis

A robust statistical procedure in the current study observed the sequence of steps proposed by Nikitina and Furuoka (2018) and Nikitina et al. (2019), namely: (1) the ordinary least squares (OLS) method examined the relationship between the variables; (2) the normality test (e.g., Jarque–Bera test) assessed normality of the error terms; (3) the bootstrap method estimated the standard errors in the OLS analysis; (4) the influence statistic (e.g. Hat Matrix test) were used to detect the outliers;[2] (5) the quantile regression (QR) examined the relationships between the dependent and independent variables; (6) the bootstrap method estimated standard errors in the QS analysis. Various statistical software packages, such as EViews, Stata, Matlab and R allow conducting the bootstrap analysis and implementing the QR procedure. Statistical analyses in the present study for the most part were implemented with the Ox program. The Jarque–Bera test and the Hat Matrix test were performed using EViews.

It should be noted that the choice and sequence of analytical steps in a study that performs statistical analyses would be based on the results of the prior normality tests and influence statistics. However, in order to enhance the awareness for the need of a proper procedure, the initial OLS analysis in this study was performed without examining the assumptions for the feasibility of this statistical procedure.

Empirical Findings

Findings from the first step of the analysis—the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method—are reported in Table 1. The results show that the slope coefficient for the variable "General motivation" was -0.276. The 90 percent CI was [-15.416, 14.863], the 95 percent CI was [-18.681, 18.128] and the 99 percent CI was [-25.728, 25.175]. Based on these findings, the null hypothesis of zero coefficient could not be rejected because all three CIs included zero. In the case of the "Instrumental orientation" variable, the slope coefficient was 15.816, the 90 percent CI was [-3.291, 35.013], the 95 percent CI was [-7.421, 39.143] and the 99 percent CI was [-16.336, 48.058]. Since zero was included in all CIs, the null hypothesis could not be rejected for all three significance levels. As to the "Integrative orientation" variable, the slope coefficient was 11.892, the 90 percent CI was [-6.403, 30.188], the 95 percent CI was [-10.848, 34.173] and the 99 percent CI was [-18.864, 42.649]. These findings indicated that the null hypothesis could not be rejected for all three significance levels. In other words, the OLS analysis did not detect a statistically significant linkage between the learners' general attitudes toward speakers of the Korean language, their general L2 motivation, the instrumental orientation and the integrative orientation.

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[2] The Hat Matrix test was employed due to its ability to give a visual representation of the findings on the outliers. Visual displays are highly recommended for reporting quantitative findings in applied linguistics and L2 research (Larson-Hall and Plonsky, 2015) as they enable researchers to make better-informed conclusions concerning the presence of outliers.

The absence of the language attitudes–L2 motivation linkage is not only counter-intuitive but it is also at odds with the influential socio-educational model of L2 motivation (Gardner, 1985).

Table 1

Findings from the OLS analysis (Dependent variable: Attitudes toward the TL speakers [ALS]), Number of observations = 19)

	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio	Confidence Intervals (CI)
GEM *(General motivation)*	-0.276	8.636	-0.032	*90 percent CI* [-15.416, 14.863] *95 percent CI* [-18.681, 18.128] *99 percent CI* [-25.728, 25.175]
ISO *(Instrumental orientation)*	15.861	10.925	1.451	*90 percent CI* [-3.291, 35.013] *95 percent CI* [-7.421, 39.143] *99 percent CI* [-16.326, 48.058]
ITO *(Integrative orientation)*	*11.892*	10.436	1.139	*90 percent CI* [-6.403, 30.188] *95 percent CI* [-10.348, 34.173] *99 percent CI* [-18.864, 42.649]
Constant	-44.602	34.246	-1.136	*90 percent CI* [-113.400, 24.196] *95 percent CI* [-128.238, 39.031] *99 percent CI* [-160.260, 71.056]

However, as stated in Subsection 4.3, the OLS analysis was performed without a prior check of the assumptions for the feasibility of this statistical procedure. In other words, the OLS method should not be used if these assumptions are violated. A lack of information concerning assumptions for a statistical test is a tenacious feature of quantitative L2 research (see Cunnings, 2012). Therefore, in the next step, the residual distribution from the OLS analysis was assessed. Figure 1 depicts the histogram of the estimated residuals and the normal distribution plot.

A visual inspection of the figure reveals that the residual distribution was negatively skewed and peaked around zero. Besides, according to the findings from the Jarque–Bera (JB) test (see Table 2), the mean value was 0.001 and the median value was 2.354. The fact that the median was greater than the mean indicates that the residuals were negatively skewed. The skewness value of -1.255 reveals that the tail on the left side of the probability function was longer. The kurtosis value of 4.847 indicates that the probability density function had a higher-than-normal peak (i.e., kurtosis > 3). In other words, the distribution was *leptokurtic*.

In addition, the Jarque–Bera statistic was 7.696 (see Table 2). Based on these results, the null hypothesis of normal distribution was rejected. The non-normal distribution of error terms violated the basic assumption for regression analysis. Therefore, the findings from the OLS test performed earlier in this study could not be considered reliable. This is because the statistical estimations of CIs must be based on the normality assumption for the error terms. In sum, the findings from the residual distribution analysis indicated that the OLS analysis was not an appropriate procedure because the error terms in the OLS analysis were not normally distributed.

Due to the violation of the normality assumption, the bootstrap method was performed in the next step to estimate the standard errors. Table 3 shows the findings from the OLS analysis with bootstrapped standard errors. The bootstrapped standard error for the variable "General motivation" was 11.502, the 90 percent CI was [-20.440, 19.888], the 95 percent CI was [-24.788, 24.236] and the 99 percent CI was [-34.175, 33.622].

Start

Figure 1
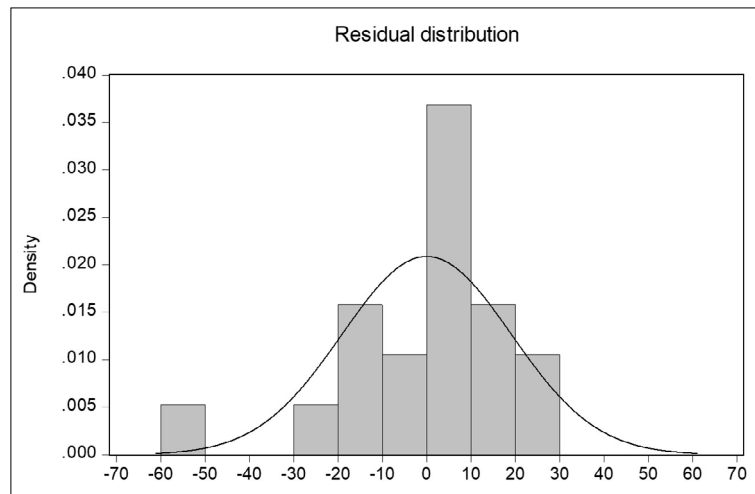*Residual distribution and normal distribution plot*

Residual distribution

Table 2
Findings from the normality analysis

Mean	0.001	Skewness	-1.255
Median	2.354	Kurtosis	7.696
Standard Deviation	19.106	Jarque–Bera statistic	7.696**

Note: ** indicates significance at the 5 percent level\

Table 3
Findings from bootstrap OLS analysis (Dependent variable: Attitudes toward the TL speakers [ALS], Number of observations = 19)

	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio	Confidence Intervals (CI)
GEM *(General motivation)*	-0.276	11.502	-0.024	*90 percent CI* *[-20.440, 19.888]* *95 percent CI* *[-24.788, 24.236]* *99 percent CI* *[-34.175, 33.622]*
ISO *(Instrumental orientation)*	15.861	11.863	1.343	*90 percent CI* *[-4.830, 36.552]* *95 percent CI* *[-9.292, 41.014]* *99 percent CI* *[-18.923, 50.645]*
ITO *(Integrative orientation)*	11.892	14.099	0.843	*90 percent CI* *[-12.823, 36.604]* *95 percent CI* *[-18.135, 41.438]* *99 percent CI* *[-29.658, 53.443]*
Constant	-44.602	42.730	-1.043	*90 percent CI* *[-119.508, 30.303]* *95 percent CI* *[-135.660, 46.455]* *99 percent CI* *[-170.527, 81.723]*

Based on the findings presented in Table 3, the null hypothesis of zero coefficient for the first independent variable could not be rejected for all three significance levels. For the "Instrumental orientation" variable, the bootstrapped standard error was 11.863, the 90 percent CI was [-4.830, 36.552], the 95 percent CI was [-9.292, 41.014] and the 99 percent CI was [-18.923, 50.645]. Again, since zero was included in each CI, the null hypothesis

could not be rejected for all three significance levels. Finally, for the "Integrative orientation" variable, the bootstrapped standard error was 14.699, the 90 percent CI was [-12.823, 36.609], the 95 percent CI was [-18.135, 41.438] and the 99 percent CI was [-29.658, 53.443]. In a similar way, the null hypothesis could not be rejected for all three significance levels. This means that the bootstrapped OLS analysis failed to detect statistically significant linkages between the language learners' attitudes toward speakers of the target language, their general L2 motivation, the instrumental orientation and the integrative orientation.

Considering that the bootstrap method has a tendency to proliferate outliers (Bai et al., 2016; Salibian-Barrera and Zamar 2002), we performed the Hat Matrix test in order to check the presence of outlying cases. As Figure 2 shows, the dataset had one prominent outlier (case #9). Based on this finding, the results from the OLS analysis with bootstrapped standard errors in the preceding step could not be considered reliable.

Figure 2
Findings on outliers from the influence statistics
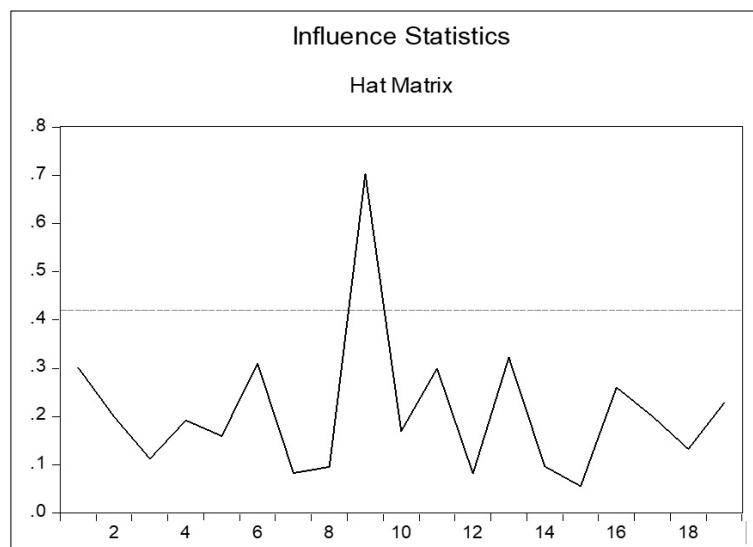
Therefore, the study proceeded with the QR analysis. The median value or the 0.5-quantile value was chosen for the conditional variable. Table 4 that reports the QR results shows that the slope coefficient for the variable "General motivation" was -4.051, the 90 percent CI was [-16.827, 8.723], the 95 percent CI was [-19.582, 11.478] and the 99 percent CI was [-25.529, 17.425]. Hence, the null hypothesis of zero coefficient for the first independent variable "people" could not be rejected. In the case of the variable "Instrumental orientation", the slope coefficient was 30.237, the 90 percent CI was [14.075, 46.398], the 95 percent CI was [10.590, 49.883] and the 99 percent CI was [3.067, 57.406]. Based on these results, the null hypothesis could be rejected at the 1 percent level of significance because all three CIs did not include zero. As to the "Integrative orientation" variable, the slope coefficient was 5.402, the 90 percent CI was [-10.035, 20.841], the 95 percent CI was [-13.364, 24.170] and the 99 percent CI was [-20.557, 31.356]. These findings indicated that the null hypothesis could not be rejected for all three significance levels. In short, the QR analysis was able to detect a statistically significant linkage between the language learners' attitudes toward speakers of the target language and the instrumental orientation.

In the final step, the bootstrap method estimated standard errors in the QR regression. This 'integrated' approach that combines the QR analysis and bootstrap procedure is robust against a non-normal distribution of error terms and outliers. The findings are reported in Table 5. As can be seen from the table, the bootstrapped standard error for the variable "General motivation" was 13.586, the 90 percent CI was [-27.851, 19.747], the 95 percent CI was [-32.983, 24.879] and the 99 percent CI was [-44.062, 35.958]. Based on these results, the null hypothesis of zero coefficient for the first independent variable could not be rejected for all three significance levels. Next, the bootstrapped standard error for the variable "Instrumental orientation" was 15.626, the 90 percent CI was [2.844, 57.629], the 95 percent CI was [-3.062, 65.536] and the 99 percent CI was [-15.813, 76.787]. Therefore, the null hypothesis could be rejected at the 10 percent level of significance because zero was not included only in the 90 percent CI. In the case of the "Integrative orientation", the bootstrapped standard error was 16.993, the 90 percent CI was [-24.887, 25.192], the 95 percent CI was [-30.810, 41.616] and the 99 percent CI was [-44.678, 55.483].

Table 4

Findings from quantile regression (QR) analysis (Dependent variable: Attitudes toward the TL speakers [ALS], Number of observations = 19)

	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio	Confidence Intervals (CI)
GEM (General motivation)	-4.051	7.287	-0.555	90 percent CI [-16.827, 8.723] 95 percent CI [-19.582, 11.478] 99 percent CI [-25.529, 17.425]
ISO (Instrumental orientation)	30.237***	9.219	3.279	90 percent CI [14.075, 46.398] 95 percent CI [10.590, 49.883] 99 percent CI [3.067, 57.406]
ITO (Integrative orientation)	5.402	8.806	0.613	90 percent CI [-10.035, 20.841] 95 percent CI [-13.364, 24.170] 99 percent CI [-20.557, 31.356]
Constant	-59.288*	33.117	-1.790	90 percent CI [-117.343, -1.234] 95 percent CI [-129.861, 11.283] 99 percent CI [-156.884, 38.306]

Notes: *** indicates statistical significance at the 1 percent level, * indicates statistical significance at the 10 percent level.

Table 5

Findings from bootstrap quantile regression analysis (Dependent variable: Attitudes toward the TL speakers [ALS], Number of observations = 19)

	Coefficient	Standard Error	t-ratio	Confidence Intervals (CI)
GEM (General motivation)	-4.051	13.586	-0.298	90 percent CI [-27.851, 19.747] 95 percent CI [-32.983, 24.879] 99 percent CI [-44.062, 35.958]
ISO (Instrumental orientation)	30.237*	15.626	1.995	90 percent CI [2.844, 57.629] 95 percent CI [-3.062, 65.536] 99 percent CI [-15.863, 76.787]
ITO (Integrative orientation)	5.402	16.993	0.317	90 percent CI [-24.887, 25.192] 95 percent CI [-30.810, 41.616] 99 percent CI [-44.678, 55.483]
Constant	-59.288	58.673	-1.010	90 percent CI [-162.143, 43.565] 95 percent CI [-184.332, 68.740] 99 percent CI [-232.199, 113.626]

Notes: * indicates statistical significance at the 10 percent level

Based on the results presented in Table 5, the null hypothesis could not be rejected for all three significance levels. Thus, the bootstrapped QR analysis confirmed the findings from the QR analysis of the existence of a

statistically significant linkage between the language learners' attitudes toward speakers of Korean language and instrumental orientation.

In sum, at the initial stage of the analysis the findings from the OLS regression—a 'classical' statistical test that was performed without checking the assumptions—failed to detect a statistically significant relationship between the language attitudes, the integrative orientation and the general L2 motivation of the KFL learners. However, a properly implemented robust statistical procedure was able to detect a statistically significant relationship between the students' attitude toward the TL speakers and their instrumental orientation to learn the target language.

Discussion and Conclusion

Considering the immense popularity that South Korea, its popular culture and cultural products enjoy among Malaysians from all walks of life this study has proposed that these positive perceptions and attitudes might have some influence on the patterns of L2 motivation of Malaysian learners of KFL. The study proceeded to employ a robust statistical procedure to examine the language attitudes–L2 motivation nexus using the data collected among learners of the Korean language in a large public university in Malaysia. The focus was on the students' attitudes toward speakers of the target language. The findings indicated that there existed a statistically significant relationship between the language learners' attitudes toward the target language speakers and their instrumental orientation.

In other words, despite the positive attitudes among Malaysian youths toward Korea and its people and notwithstanding the fascination with Korean pop singers, actors and popular culture as a whole (see Cho, 2010; Nikitina and Furuoka, 2019; Teh and Goh, 2014), these social factors did not translate in the present study into a statistically significant relationship between the language learners' attitudes toward speakers of the target language and their integrative orientation to learn Korean. This finding does not align with the previous studies where the integrative orientation was found to be the main driving force for learning Korean among university students in various countries (Hur and Choi, 2015; I.H. Lee, 2018; S. Y. Lee, 2018; Yang, 2003; Yoshida et al., 2014). Rather, this result is in line with a study among Malaysian tertiary learners of Korean conducted by Nikitina (2020) that examined links between stereotypes of Korea held by the students and their L2 motivation. The researcher did not detect any statistically significant relationship between the variables. However, unlike the study by Nikitina, the current research included a specific measure of the attitudes toward speakers of the target language. As a result, the language learners' attitudes were found to have a statistical relationship with one of the aspects of L2 motivation – the instrumental orientation.

The findings reported in this study resonate with the results in a study by Chan and Chi (2010) who conducted their research among university students in Singapore. The researchers concluded that though the popularity of Korean pop culture has generated a strong interest in Korean language learning among Singaporeans, the "career" dimension was a prominent factor to motivate Singapore undergraduate students to learn Korean. In addition, the instrumentally-oriented goals were clearly prominent among a group of students in studies by Fraschini and Caruso (2019) and Jee (2015). Taken together, these findings indicate that practical considerations rather than purely cultural interest can serve as an important motivational force for students learning Korean in different cultural and educational settings. One possible explanation could be South Korea's international status of an advanced nation. In other words, besides being culturally attractive, South Korea as an economically and technologically developed country could be linked in the minds of the language learners with good job prospects and elevated social status in the future (see Fraschini and Caruso, 2019).

The current study was done among Malaysian learners of Korean as a Foreign Language. Due to a growing popularity of Korean language programs in universities around the world language educators and applied linguists might want to further expand the geographical coverage of studies on L2 motivation among learners of Korean. Such studies are still scarce compared to the body of scholarly literature on the learners of major European languages. Also, researchers might want to explore in greater depth the language-related attitudes that learners of Korean bring into the classroom and examine whether and to what extent these attitudes impact the students' L2 motivation. It is hoped that a robust statistical procedure adopted in this study, and the findings reported here, would be useful for future research studies.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Modeling Student Evaluations of Writing and Authors as a Function of Writing Errors

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Writers are often judged by their audience, and these evaluations can encompass both the text and the authors. This study built upon prior research on writing evaluation and error perceptions to examine how interconnected or separable are these judgments. Using a within-subjects design, college students evaluated four essays demonstrating no errors, lower-level errors, higher-level errors, or both types. Evaluations included writing quality traits (e.g., conventions, ideas, organization, sentence fluency, and voice) and author characteristics (e.g., creativity, intelligence, generosity, and kindness). Exploratory factor analyses identified latent constructs within these ratings. One construct, *Writing Quality and Skill*, appeared to combine writing traits and authors' intellectual ability (e.g., intelligence and knowledgeability). The second construct, *Author Personality,* seemed to comprise interpersonal author traits (e.g., kindness and loyalty). The two constructs were significantly and positively correlated. These results suggest that students tended to form holistic impressions of writing quality and authors rather than distinct judgments about individual traits. The spillover onto perceptions of authors' personal characteristics may be representative of latent biases. Student raters were also more sensitive to lower-level errors than higher-level errors. Implications for biases and training related to peer assessment are discussed.

Keywords: college students, writing evaluation, factor analysis, rater bias, writing instruction, peer assessment

Introduction

Writing and writing evaluation are complex processes that require the development of substantial knowledge and meta-knowledge about language, text, genre, composition, and communication (e.g., Elton, 2010; Flower, Hayes, Carey, Schriver, & Stratman, 1986; Olinghouse, Graham, & Gillespie, 2014; Panadero & Jonsson, 2013; Reiff & Bawarshi, 2011; Wang & Engelhard, 2019). One specific application of this expertise pertains to detection and assessment of writing errors. There are numerous prescriptions, genre conventions, or other 'rules of writing' to consider (Devitt, 2004; Hacker & Sommers, 2016; Hyland, 2007), such as rules for spelling, grammar, and punctuation. Similarly, writing genres might specify criteria for evidence and logical reasoning (e.g., argumentative writing) or characterization and plotting (e.g., narrative writing). Moreover, there are many ways to write well (Crossley, Roscoe, & McNamara, 2014), and variations in style and content interact with audience and background (Magnifico, 2010; McNamara, 2013). Writing evaluators must decide when and whether expectations have been violated—which one might refer to as 'writing errors'—and the complex and subjective nature of writing evaluation means that these decisions could be susceptible to bias or other misleading beliefs. Even experienced raters can be influenced by factors such as race, gender, and class—for example, texts written in African-American Vernacular English may be judged as of lower quality than texts written in Standard American English (Godley & Escher, 2012; Johnson & VanBrackle, 2012).

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Numerous studies have observed that texts exhibiting lower-level mechanical errors or higher-level semantic and rhetorical errors are evaluated as lower quality (e.g., Breland & Jones, 1982; Figueredo & Varnhagen, 2005; Jeong, Li, & Pan, 2017; Kreiner, Schnakenberg, Green, Costello, & McClin, 2002; Morin-Lessard & McKelvie, 2019; Vignovic & Thompson, 2010). Because writing is subjective, flexible, and expressive, evaluators sometimes explicitly or implicitly assume that the writing directly reflects the writer (akin to a correspondence bias; see Bauman & Skitka, 2010). When a text exhibits many errors, the authors may be judged as less intelligent, less knowledgeable, less conscientious, less caring, and so on. Indeed, studies have shown that the presence of writing errors impacts perceptions of authors' ability and personality in academic writing (Figueredo & Varnhagen, 2005; Kreiner et al., 2002), professional communication (Vignovic & Thompson, 2010), and informal communication (Boland & Queen, 2016; Cox, Cox, & A. D. Cox, 2017).

These findings inspire a particular concern for how *students* evaluate writing (e.g., peer assessment). As novice writing evaluators (see Attali, 2016; Lim, 2011; Weigle, 1998), students may lack broad or deep knowledge about writing and thus may be ill-prepared to detect certain kinds of errors or evaluate them fairly (e.g., avoiding unwarranted personal inferences about authors). The current study builds upon prior research (Johnson, Wilson, & Roscoe, 2017) to further investigate how writing errors influence students' evaluations of writing quality and author characteristics. Whereas the previous study examined whether college students' ratings varied based on error typology, the current work employs factor analytic methods to better understand the nature of the ratings and their interrelations. Specifically, we consider whether students make multiple distinct evaluations versus fewer holistic judgments, and whether observed latent constructs reflect separate or integrated judgments about text and author. This line of research—both prior and current work—has meaningful implications for peer assessment and how students are trained to evaluate writing.

Students as Evaluators of Writing

Peer assessment is a popular and widely-used intervention for incorporating writing and feedback into diverse learning contexts (Li, Xiong, Hunter, Guo, & Tywoniw, 2019; Panadero & Jonsson, 2013; Topping, 1998, 2009). Peer assessment of writing can be used to directly enable and support instruction in writing courses (Fathi & Khodabakhsh, 2019; Gao, Schunn, & Yu, 2019) and can also support learning within and across other disciplines (Oshner & Fowler, 2004), such as math (Sluijsman, Brand-Gruwel, van Merriënboer, & Bastiaens, 2003), science (Patchan, Schunn, & Clark, 2011, 2018), history (Patchan, Charney, & Schunn, 2009), psychology (Patchan, Hawk, Stevens, & Schunn, 2013; Patchan & Schunn, 2016), and more. Evidence suggests that students learn from writing (Ackerman, 1993; Arnold et al., 2017; Bangert-Drowns, Hurley, & Wilkinson, 2004; Klein, 1999) and from evaluating and giving feedback on others' writing (Cho & MacArthur, 2011; Patchan & Schunn, 2015; see also 'learning by teaching,' Roscoe, 2014). Logistically, recruiting students as peer assessors reduces workload burdens for instructors, thus enabling more writing assignments, writing practice, and iterations of feedback and revising. Finally, research has also demonstrated that students can provide overall reliable, valid, and useful evaluations (Falchikov & Goldfinch, 2000; Gielen, Tops, Dochy, Onghena, & Smeets, 2010; Li et al., 2016; Panadero, Romero, & Strijbos, 2013; Ramon-Casas, Nuño, Pons, & Cunillera, 2019; Schunn, Godley, & DeMartino, 2016). In short, there are numerous reasons to encourage peer assessment of writing in educational settings.

Nonetheless, students are neither expert writers nor evaluators. More expert and experienced evaluators draw from a richer, more nuanced, and more comprehensive understanding of writing. However, as novice writing evaluators and developing writers, college students and adolescents possess incomplete and fragmented writing knowledge and skills that impact their ability to evaluate text. In studies that directly compare student assessors to instructors (i.e., novices versus experienced evaluators), students have provided feedback that was similar to the instructors' feedback yet with a few consistent differences. Students' feedback tends to be shorter, more positive, and focuses less often on high prose or substantive issues (Patchan et al., 2009; 2013; Cho, Schunn, & Charney, 2006; Topping, Smith, Swanson, & Elliot, 2000). For example, Varner, Roscoe, & McNamara (2013) compared high school students' self-assigned scores to their instructor's scores, and used natural language processing tools to reveal textual features associated with such ratings. Students focused on a more limited set of superficial characteristics (e.g., average word length and shallow cohesion) than the teacher (e.g., lexical diversity and sophistication, deep cohesion, elaboration, and organization).

Several studies compared students' feedback to their peers versus their instructor's feedback. In general,

students were more positive than the instructors, but with increasing expertise (i.e., lower-ability undergraduates vs. higher-ability undergraduates vs. graduate students vs. postgraduate students) this difference decreased (Patchan et al., 2009; Cho, Schunn, & Charney, 2006; Topping et al., 2000). Expertise also affected the focus of the feedback provided. For example, Patchan et al. (2009) compared peer feedback generated by history undergraduates to their history instructor and a writing instructor. The history instructor primarily noted issues with the history content, whereas the writing instructor focused on solutions to high prose issues. The students usually fell somewhere between the two instructors. Patchan et al. (2011) also compared peer feedback generated by physics undergraduates versus their non-native English-speaking graduate student teaching assistants (TAs). The students provided longer comments and focused more often on high prose than the TAs, and they provided feedback about the physics content just as often as the TAs. Overall, students are able to assess writing and writing errors, but tend to focus on superficial issues or complementary issues compared to teachers (e.g., Topping, et al., 2000).

Prior Study

In a previous study, Johnson et al. (2017, and see Method) focused specifically on college students' evaluations of writing as a function of writing error patterns, and further considered how these evaluations extended to judgments about authors' personal characteristics. That study addressed two primary research questions: how do lower- and higher-level errors influence students' ratings of (1) writing quality and (2) author characteristics?

To answer the above questions, the researchers constructed a set of essays that exhibited 'no errors,' only 'lower-level errors' (e.g., spelling, grammar, and punctuation), only 'higher-level errors' (e.g., ideas, argument, and organization), or both. Participating students then rated four essays that each (a) exhibited a distinct error pattern and (b) appeared to be written by different authors. Ratings included eight writing traits (e.g., conventions, organization, sentence fluency, and voice) and eight author traits (e.g., intelligence, generosity, kindness, and knowledgeability). Researchers analyzed trait ratings as distinct judgments—means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations (see Johnson et al., 2017) were reported for each trait and each error pattern. The authors also reported average 'writing trait' and 'author trait' ratings that aggregated all traits within their respective categories.

Johnson et al. (2017) observed that the presence of writing errors led college students to perceive both writing quality *and* authors more negatively. When essays exhibited errors, students gave significantly lower ratings regarding writing traits (e.g., conventions, organization, and sentence fluency, and also lower ratings on eight author traits (e.g., generosity, kindness, and intelligence. These effects were observed for both lower-level mechanical errors (e.g., spelling and grammar) and higher-level conceptual and rhetorical errors (e.g., missing theses, contradictory arguments, and off-topic examples). Importantly, the effects were stronger for lower-level errors. Some college students did not notice the higher-level errors at all (i.e., gave equivalent ratings to essays with 'higher-level errors only' versus essays with 'no errors'). A key finding, however, was that students indeed made unwarranted judgments about authors based on writing errors—there was no reason to infer that a person was less generous, kind, or loyal due to typos or muddled arguments, and yet students appeared to make such inferences.

One limitation of the prior study is that analyses of either separate or aggregate ratings implied assumptions about how the judgments were (or were not) interconnected. It is possible that students generated distinct evaluations for each trait (i.e., eight writing traits and eight author traits). For instance, when rating 'sentence fluency' and 'organization,' students may have considered these text qualities independently. Likewise, students may have made separate judgments about authors' 'kindness' or 'generosity.' An alternative possibility is that students conceptually combined one or more traits—that is, students' assessments of sentence fluency and organization, or of kindness and generosity, may have been driven by a muddled or blended understanding of these constructs. More importantly, the same unanswered questions apply to whether students evaluated writing quality separately from author characteristics. Perhaps students made only a *single* holistic judgment that a text was 'good' or 'bad,' which then influenced their ratings of *all* individual writing and author traits.

A more technical way to frame these questions is in terms of the latent constructs employed by student raters (i.e., factor analysis). Do aspects of writing quality (e.g., conventions and organization) load on one or more latent factors? And, are those factors separate from author traits (e.g., intelligence and generosity)?

Alternatively, perhaps writing quality and author characteristics load on a single latent factor, implying that they are, in practice, a singular assessment construct. A related issue is how various error patterns influence this interplay between writing and author judgments. Are these evaluations more or less interwoven when a text is relatively free of errors, exhibits only lower-level errors (e.g., spelling), only higher-level errors (e.g., illogical arguments), or both kinds of errors? Prior research has found that different error patterns are not perceived equally by student raters (Johnson et al., 2017), and thus the presence of different errors might plausibly affect students' latent assessment constructs.

- RQ1: Do college students' evaluations of writing quality traits load on a single construct, relatively few constructs, or a variety of distinct constructs? In other words, to what extent do writing assessments represent holistic versus nuanced evaluations?
- RQ2: Do college students' evaluations of author traits load on a single construct, relatively few constructs, or a variety of distinct constructs? In other words, to what extent do author assessments represent holistic versus nuanced evaluations?
- RQ3: Do college students' evaluations of writing quality and author characteristics load on separate latent constructs or overlapping latent constructs? In other words, to what extent are writing and author assessments interconnected, perhaps indicating a risk of bias?
- RQ4: Does the presence or absence of lower-level errors or higher-level errors affect observed latent assessment constructs? In other words, do error patterns influence the manner in which students evaluate writing quality or author characteristics (i.e., as distinct versus holistic judgments)?

With respect to peer assessment of writing, answers to these questions have implications for the extent to which students' evaluations of writing may incorporate interpersonal biases and how training might decouple or address this overlap.

Materials and Methods

The current work entails an extended new analysis of previously collected data. Complete details about data collection (i.e., population, sampling, measures, and materials) is reported in Johnson et al. (2017). However, essential methodological details are reiterated here for clarity.

Participants

Undergraduate students (n = 70) from a large university in the southwestern United States were recruited from Introduction to Psychology courses and compensated via course credit. Participants self-reported a mean age of 20–21 years (M = 20.7, SD = 4.7), with 34.3% identifying as female. Participants identified as African-American (2.9%), Asian (15.7%), Caucasian (42.9%), Hispanic (8.6%), Middle Eastern (22.9%), or Other (7.1%, including multiethnic individuals). The sample was primarily freshmen (54.3%), but also included sophomores, juniors, and seniors. Participants reported a range of academic majors including aviation, business, computing, engineering, life sciences, or other/undeclared.

Research Design and Essay Materials

The study employed a one-way, within-subjects design in which all participants read and rated a total of four essays that each demonstrated a different error pattern: *No Errors*, *Low-Level Errors Only*, *High-Level Errors Only*, or *All Errors*. The essays were constructed by the researchers (see Johnson et al., 2017), but participants were informed that each essay was authored by another student. Specifically, the researchers created essays ostensibly written by four different student authors who expressed unique positions, arguments, and examples. Participants were not given information about the supposed student authors' supposed background (e.g., race or native language) or writing tools (e.g., access to spelling and grammar checking software).

To construct the essay stimuli, the researchers initially drafted four original argument essays in response to a prompt on 'patience' that asked, 'Is it better for people to act quickly and expect quick responses from others rather than to wait patiently for what they want?' These initial essays were revised until all or most mechanical

and conceptual errors were removed—subsequently referred to as *No Errors* essays. For *Low-Level Errors Only* essays, every paragraph was modified to include errors in spelling and homophones, capitalization, sentence fragments or run-ons, commas or apostrophes, and verb-noun or tense agreement. However, these essays still contained clear thesis statements, topic sentences, and relevant examples. In contrast, *High-Level Errors Only* essays were mechanically correct but modified to exhibit missing thesis statements and topic sentences, missing evidence, off-topic examples, and contradictory evidence. Finally, *All Errors* essays included both error patterns. Altogether, each of the four error patterns was implemented for each of the four 'student authors,' resulting in 16 total essays. All essays were about 600-650 words in length. To confirm that the constructed essays demonstrated the intended experimental conditions, four expert raters categorized the error pattern of all stimulus essays. Raters exhibited 95.3% accuracy (i.e., experts' categorizations matched the intended patterns) and three of the four raters exhibited perfect accuracy, suggesting that the essay creation process was successful.

Participants were randomly assigned to read and rate four essays such that each error pattern and supposed student author were encountered only once. The sequence of error patterns and authors, along with the error-author pairings, were systematically randomized across participants to control for order effects. Importantly, participants had no knowledge of the experimental manipulation or the intended error pattern of the essays.

Measures

Background Survey

Participants reported their age, gender, race/ethnicity, school year, and academic major at the start of the study.

Writing Quality Ratings

Immediately after reading each essay, participants rated eight writing quality traits. Six traits were selected based on the Six Traits Writing Rubric (Spandel, 2000): *Conventions*, *Ideas and Content*, *Organization*, *Sentence Fluency*, *Voice*, and *Word Choice*. Two additional traits, *Enjoyment* and *Persuasiveness*, sought to elicit evaluations of how pleasurable and convincing the essays were, respectively. Participants were introduced to the traits along with brief, concrete descriptions framed as question prompts (see Table 1). However, formal rubric-referenced training was not provided because our aim was to investigate students' perceptions of writing, author, and errors rather than adherence to a rubric (i.e., a detailed rubric might have heavily influenced the perceptions). Participants rated their agreement with a series of statements (see Table 1) on a scale of 1 ('Very Strongly Disagree') to 10 ('Very Strongly Agree') (one statement per trait).

Author Characteristics Ratings

Participants judged eight student author traits: *Creativity*, *Generosity*, *Hard-working*, *Intelligence*, *Kindness*, *Knowledgeability*, *Loyalty*, and *Thoughtfulness* (see Table 1). Several traits were somewhat more intellectual (e.g., Creativity, Intelligence, Knowledgeability, and Thoughtfulness) and others were more interpersonal (e.g., Generosity, Hard-working, Kindness, and Loyalty). Participants again rated their agreement with a series of statements (see Table 1) on a scale from 1 ('Very Strongly Disagree') to 10 ('Very Strongly Agree').

Procedure

Participants completed the study in a single session (60-90 minutes) that included informed consent and all rating tasks. Ratings of each essay were made immediately after reading that essay. Participants reviewed only one essay at a time.

Data Analysis

Exploratory Factor Analysis

To assess whether raters' latent judgments of writing quality and author characteristics were distinct or overlapping (RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3), we conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using Mplus v.8.0 software (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017). Four separate EFAs were conducted for each of the four essay types: No Errors, Low-level Errors, High-level Errors, and All Errors (RQ4). Each EFA included all eight essay quality and eight

Table 1

Writing and Author Traits, Prompts, and Assessment Statement

Traits	Description Prompt	Assessment Statement
Writing Traits		
Conventions	Does the essay show correct use of spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and grammar?	The essay correctly followed writing conventions (spelling, punctuation, and grammar).
Enjoyable	Is the essay enjoyable or interesting to read?	The essay was enjoyable and interesting to read.
Ideas and Content	Does the essay include a clear main idea? Are ideas supported with relevant details?	The essay contained good ideas and content (main ideas and supporting details).
Organization	Is the essay logically organized? Does the essay include a clear introduction and conclusion?	The essay was organized well (structure, introduction, and conclusion).
Persuasive	Is the essay persuasive and convincing?	The essay was persuasive and convincing.
Sentence Fluency	Does the essay have a smooth flow? Does the essay show effective sentence variety?	The essay demonstrated effective sentence fluency (rhythm, flow, and variety).
Voice	Does the essay convey a clear personality? Does the essay demonstrate awareness of the audience?	The essay demonstrated a clear voice (personality and sense of audience).
Word Choice	Does the essay include carefully chosen wording? Does the essay include vivid images?	The essay used effective word choice (precise and vivid wording).
Author Traits		
Creativity	Is the author a creative and innovative person?	The author is a creative person.
Effort	Is the author a hard-working person?	The author is a hard-working person.
Generosity	Is the author a generous and giving person?	The author is a generous person.
Intelligence	Is the author an intelligent and smart person?	The author is an intelligent person.
Kindness	Is the author a kind and caring person?	The author is a kind person.
Knowledge	Is the author a knowledgeable and well-read person?	The author is a knowledgeable person.
Loyalty	Is the author a loyal and supportive person?	The author is a loyal person.
Thoughtfulness	Is the author a thoughtful and reflective person?	The author is a thoughtful person.

author characteristics variables (i.e., 16 variables per EFA). Maximum likelihood with robust standard errors (MLR) was selected as the estimation method due to the small sample size ($n = 70$) and because skewness and kurtosis statistics for several essay quality variables indicated statistically significant departures from univariate normality. MLR estimation is robust against violations of normality assumptions, and more appropriate for use in small samples, than the default estimation procedure of maximum likelihood (Byrne, 2013).

Given the small sample size, three methods were implemented to evaluate the adequacy of the sample size for exploratory factor analysis (EFA). For each EFA, we first considered the Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) statistic, which reports values ranging from 0.00 to 1.00. Within this range, values between 0.70-0.80 signify 'good' sampling adequacy, 0.80-0.90 are 'very good,' and values above 0.90 are 'excellent' (Field, 2013). Second, we considered the number of variables whose communalities were above 0.60. Variable communality is the proportion (ranging from 0.00 to 1.00) of the variance that a measure shares with other measures. MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang, and Hong (1999) stated that when all communalities are above 0.60, smaller sample sizes ($n <$ 100) may be acceptable. Finally, we also considered the number of factor loadings per factor that were ⩾ .60. Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) stated that a factor with four or more loadings ⩾ 0.60 is reliable regardless of the sample size (see also Beavers et al., 2013). These sampling appropriateness metrics are reported for each analysis.

Prior to proceeding with EFA, it was also necessary to ensure the presence of sufficient covariation among the observed variables. Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 2, and Tables 3 and 4 present the correlation matrices. With a handful of exceptions, correlations were generally moderate to strong, indicating that EFA was appropriate. Given the moderate to large correlations among the measures within each essay type, an oblique rotation was selected, which allows for correlations among the extracted factors. This approach generates a simple structure while allowing the factors to be correlated. Thus, EFA models were estimated to test between one and six latent factors. An upper limit of six factors was selected because that would result in factors with

fewer than three variables, which would likely terminate the estimation procedures.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Observed Ratings of Essay Quality and Author Characteristics

Traits	No Errors		Low-Level Only		High-Level Only		All Errors	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Writing Traits								
1. Conventions	8.69	1.47	4.36	2.61	8.28	1.62	4.32	2.74
2. Enjoyable	7.67	1.97	5.54	2.71	7.59	1.89	5.12	2.83
3. Ideas and Content	7.89	1.57	6.37	2.32	7.20	2.03	5.91	2.66
4. Organization	8.39	1.47	6.50	2.75	7.35	2.12	5.64	2.73
5. Persuasiveness	7.80	1.67	5.58	2.74	7.08	2.19	5.10	2.62
6. Sentence Fluency	8.36	1.35	5.41	2.70	7.41	2.06	5.00	2.68
7. Voice	8.03	1.87	6.39	2.48	7.83	1.84	5.85	2.62
8. Word Choice	7.97	1.59	5.85	2.71	7.69	1.83	5.56	2.55
Author Traits								
9. Creativity	6.91	1.83	5.83	2.32	6.52	1.84	5.47	2.27
10. Generosity	6.67	1.46	5.82	2.17	6.07	1.74	5.44	2.05
11. Hard-working	7.68	1.78	5.76	2.40	7.12	2.06	5.50	2.42
12. Intelligence	7.83	1.64	5.64	2.27	7.20	1.83	5.43	2.45
13. Kindness	6.92	1.73	6.02	2.13	6.68	1.78	6.02	2.13
14. Knowledgeability	7.69	1.92	5.83	2.58	7.13	2.09	5.52	2.62
15. Loyalty	7.08	1.81	5.98	2.07	6.55	1.89	5.72	2.18
16. Thoughtfulness	7.70	1.52	6.32	2.22	6.90	1.95	5.72	2.34

Note. N = 70. Traits 1-8 are ratings of essay quality traits. Traits 9-16 are ratings of author characteristics.

Table 3

Correlations among Ratings for No Errors Essays and Low-Level Error Only Essays

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.
1. Conventions	-	.39	.38	.63	.43	.58	.40	.62	.06	.17	.35	.51	.30	.37	.29	.37
2. Enjoyable	.52	-	.66	.53	.59	.69	.65	.54	.59	.31	.38	.57	.25	.52	.13	.45
3. Ideas and Content	.43	.76	-	.58	.81	.65	.61	.35	.51	.29	.36	.42	.30	.56	.17	.50
4. Organization	.49	.69	.75	-	.55	.58	.42	.58	.27	.27	.25	.45	.29	.36	.20	.47
5. Persuasiveness	.46	.85	.80	.76	-	.62	.57	.43	.48	.25	.38	.53	.22	.53	.18	.47
6. Sentence Fluency	.58	.68	.54	.73	.67	-	.69	.64	.40	.41	.45	.66	.31	.56	.18	.40
7. Voice	.47	.67	.67	.75	.68	.71	-	.46	.18	.31	.33	.45	.39	.34	.19	.35
8. Word Choice	.59	.66	.61	.70	.59	.72	.79	-	.23	.33	.45	.66	.37	.46	.28	.27
9. Creativity	.50	.68	.64	.58	.67	.58	.63	.70	-	.48	.29	.45	.31	.53	.13	.31
10. Generosity	.52	.52	.49	.56	.53	.48	.60	.67	.68	-	.33	.38	.76	.37	.54	.54
11. Hard-working	.56	.64	.58	.58	.63	.52	.69	.72	.69	.71	-	.53	.38	.49	.49	.38
12. Intelligence	.57	.69	.72	.63	.70	.55	.65	.73	.75	.68	.77	-	.39	.65	.23	.39
13. Kindness	.28	.45	.49	.53	.46	.37	.51	.51	.55	.80	.56	.58	-	.41	.53	.47
14. Knowledgeability	.64	.68	.67	.56	.68	.55	.62	.67	.75	.63	.71	.87	.48	-	.31	.50
15. Loyalty	.37	.59	.51	.55	.56	.43	.50	.52	.60	.76	.55	.62	.79	.60	-	.42
16. Thoughtfulness	.36	.62	.63	.68	.71	.56	.65	.62	.63	.66	.59	.73	.62	.68	.68	-

Note. Correlations *above* the diagonal are for ratings of No Errors essays. Correlations *below* the diagonal are for ratings of Low-Level Error Only essays. Correlations ≥ .23 are statistically significant at *p* < .05. Correlations ≥ .30 are statistically significant at *p* < .01.

Table 4
Correlations among Ratings for High-Level Error Only Essays and All Errors Essays

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.
1. Conventions	-	.59	.57	.46	.51	.55	.44	.61	.49	.47	.53	.64	.36	.53	.31	.53
2. Enjoyable	.72	-	.76	.69	.79	.69	.64	.72	.70	.60	.63	.70	.61	.67	.51	.69
3. Ideas and Content	.60	.71	-	.74	.81	.68	.61	.69	.67	.57	.68	.70	.48	.65	.45	.59
4. Organization	.56	.61	.78	-	.70	.64	.55	.60	.55	.43	.65	.68	.58	.53	.42	.52
5. Persuasiveness	.63	.71	.86	.80	-	.75	.67	.71	.57	.51	.59	.73	.43	.64	.37	.59
6. Sentence Fluency	.59	.61	.63	.61	.77	-	.70	.77	.54	.48	.49	.64	.42	.42	.30	.55
7. Voice	.49	.59	.69	.71	.68	.72	-	.69	.48	.36	.46	.60	.30	.44	.15	.52
8. Word Choice	.53	.63	.75	.71	.81	.76	.74	-	.53	.49	.55	.73	.42	.56	.29	.51
9. Creativity	.53	.60	.66	.54	.65	.55	.58	.59	-	.69	.73	.66	.55	.71	.48	.64
10. Generosity	.50	.59	.63	.49	.62	.60	.63	.58	.77	-	.63	.59	.72	.65	.61	.62
11. Hard-working	.55	.58	.70	.67	.67	.59	.69	.64	.53	.69	-	.73	.61	.78	.68	.75
12. Intelligence	.55	.57	.71	.59	.72	.62	.58	.62	.76	.72	.74	-	.62	.69	.41	.69
13. Kindness	.35	.41	.54	.44	.53	.48	.47	.56	.62	.75	.58	.61	-	.60	.59	.71
14. Knowledgeability	.62	.66	.79	.64	.77	.66	.63	.68	.67	.70	.81	.83	.53	-	.59	.70
15. Loyalty	.41	.50	.63	.57	.65	.55	.66	.63	.64	.76	.69	.71	.80	.66	-	.67
16. Thoughtfulness	.41	.53	.74	.59	.70	.59	.62	.59	.60	.71	.77	.72	.65	.81	.76	-

Note. Correlations *above* the diagonal are for ratings of High-Level Error Only essays. Correlations *below* the diagonal are for ratings of All Errors essays. Correlations ≥ .23 are statistically significant at $p < .05$. Correlations ≥ .30 are statistically significant at $p < .01$.

When evaluating the results of the EFA analyses, four metrics were inspected to select the optimal factor solution and determine whether to retain or omit a given factor. First, Kaiser's criterion (1974; see also Ruscio & Roache, 2012) was used to select the appropriate number of factors, which retains factors whose eigenvalues are ≥ 1.00. In addition, scree plots were examined to identify the point of inflection. The number of factors above the point of inflection were retained. Second, parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) was used to retain the number of factors whose eigenvalues are larger than the corresponding eigenvalues from the parallel analysis (see also Ruscio & Roache, 2012). Third, factors were retained if corresponding variables demonstrated appreciable loadings in the range of ≥ 0.60. Extracted factors were dropped if they had no corresponding variables with appreciable loadings. Fourth, factor solutions were selected based on their interpretability. Ultimately, EFA is a statistical method to arrive at theoretical understanding of a phenomenon. Therefore, an *interpretable* EFA solution is preferred when there are competing models and the other selection criteria are unclear.

Finally, three model fit indices were inspected to determine models of latent judgments: chi-square statistics, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger & Lind, 1980), and standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). First, non-significant chi-square values indicate a good fitting model. In the absence of a non-significant chi-square value, models with lower values are considered better fitting than models with higher values. Second, when available, RMSEA is a measure of model fit that accounts for the number of parameters in the model. RMSEA values less than 0.05 indicate good fitting models; values greater than 0.10 indicate poor fitting models (Brown, 2006; Kenny, 2014). Third, SRMR evaluates differences between model-implied correlations and the correlations observed in the data (Brown, 2006). SRMR values less than 0.08 indicate good fit; whereas, 0.00 indicates perfect fit.

Results

Overview

Across all four error patterns, a two-factor solution was generally optimal and the observed latent factors were largely consistent (see RQ4). The first and most dominant factor tended to include all or most of the eight writing quality traits, along with ratings of the student authors' intellectual ability to a lesser extent (e.g.,

intelligence, knowledge, or creativity). Thus, in answer to RQ1, students generally made holistic judgments about writing quality rather than distinct judgments along one or more writing traits. However, in answer to RQ3, it appears that this construct also incorporated aspects of author evaluations. For this reason, this factor might be labeled W*riting Quality and Skill*—a holistic evaluation of the quality of the essay that also reflects authors' writing ability and mental resources. The second and less dominant factor consistently included interpersonal student author traits perhaps indicative of authors' personality (i.e., generous, kind, or loyal) and sometimes included traits related to effort or conscientiousness. In answer to RQ2, it appeared that students made holistic judgments about authors' interpersonal characteristics rather than nuanced evaluations of individual qualities. Overall, this second factor might be labeled *Author Personality*.

Writing Quality and Skill was consistently and positively correlated with Author Personality. Thus, although they may be separate judgments, they do influence each other. Poor quality writing reflects negatively on the author as a person; writers who seem less kind or generous may inspire readers to be much more critical. With regard to RQ4, consistency across error patterns suggested that the presence of different errors did not dramatically change how students rated writing or authors, although semantic and rhetorical errors may inspire broader judgments of the authors' personality. That is, student raters may view such errors as more 'revealing' about the author than are spelling or grammatical errors. This subtle pattern is discussed further in results for each error pattern.

Writing and Author Ratings of 'No Errors' Essays

For the No Errors essays ratings, metrics of sampling adequacy indicated that it was appropriate to proceed with EFA. The KMO statistic was 0.83 ('very good') and 13 of the 16 variables exhibited communalities greater than or equal to 0.60—only slightly below the criterion suggested by MacCallum et al. (1999).

Analyses considered models from one to six latent factors. All models converged except the six-factor model, which was omitted (see Table 5). After considering all criteria, a two-factor model was selected as the optimal and most parsimonious model. Kaiser's criterion and the scree plot indicated a three-factor model, but the parallel analysis favored a two-factor model. Inspection of the factor loadings also favored a two-factor model. All models yielded a significant chi-square statistic, which indicated possible model misspecification. RMSEA was below the 0.10 threshold only for the five-factor model, and SRMR was acceptable for the four-factor model (0.04) and the five-factor model (0.03).

The pattern matrix for the two-factor solution is presented in Table 6. Nine variables loaded on the first factor with values of 0.60 or higher, and three variables meeting this criterion loaded on the second factor (i.e., slightly below the threshold of four or more variables per factor; see Beavers et al., 2013; Gaudagnli & Velicer, 1988). The first and second factors explained 47% and 12% of the shared variance, respectively.

The first factor comprised all eight writing quality ratings and one author characteristic rating (i.e., Intelligence). A second author characteristic (i.e., Knowledgeability) was just below the threshold for inclusion (loading = 0.58). This factor suggests two findings. First, raters were generally making a holistic evaluation of writing rather than distinct judgments of conventions, organization, fluency, and so on—perhaps indicating a halo effect (e.g., Engelhard, 1994; Knoch, Read, & Randow, 2007; and see Gansle, VanDerHeyden, Noell, Resetar, & Williams, 2006). Second, writers' intellectual abilities (i.e., intelligence and perhaps knowledgeability) seemed to also be embedded in judgments of writing quality.

The second factor comprised three author characteristics (i.e., Generosity, Kindness, and Loyalty), all of which were interpersonal rather than intellectual. No writing quality ratings loaded on this factor. This pattern suggests that judgments of authors' *personality* were distinct from judgments of writing or intellectual *ability* when evaluating texts without lower- or higher-level errors. However, the two factors were moderately correlated, $r = .46$, $p < .05$, suggesting that although writing and personality judgments were separable, they did influence one another. Writing perceived as lower quality may have led to harsher judgments of authors' generosity, kindness, and loyalty. Conversely, perhaps perceptions of the author as unkind or disloyal (e.g., stemming from reactions to essay content) led raters to be more critical of the writing. Although a correlation does not permit a clear determination, the former interpretation seems more likely.

Table 5

Model Fit Results for the Four Exploratory Factor Analyses

Error Type	Recommended Factor Solution			Model Fit Statistics		
	Kaisers Criterion	Scree Plot	Parallel Analysis	χ^2 (df)	RMSEA [CI95%]	SRMR
No Errors						
1 factor				275.75*** (104)	0.15 [0.13, 0.18]	0.11
2 factors			**2 factors**	**207.42*** (89)**	**0.14 [0.11, 0.16]**	**0.07**
3 factors	3 factors	3 factors		169.20*** (75)	0.13 [0.11, 0.16]	0.06
4 factors				169.61*** (62)	0.16 [0.13, 0.19]	0.04
5 factors				84.31** (50)	0.10 [0.06, 0.14]	0.03
Low-Level						
1 factor				269.92*** (104)	0.15 [0.13, 0.17]	0.07
2 factor	**2 factors**	**2 factors**	**2 factors**	**204.03*** (89)**	**0.14 [0.11, 0.16]**	**0.05**
3 factor				160.38*** (75)	0.13 [0.10, 0.16]	0.04
4 factor				90.36* (62)	0.08 [0.04, 0.12]	0.02
5 factor				99.32*** (50)	0.12 [0.08, 0.15]	0.02
High-Level						
1 factor				257.71*** (104)	0.15 [0.12, 0.17]	0.08
2 factor	**2 factors**	**2 factors**	**2 factors**	**148.72*** (89)**	**0.10 [0.07, 0.13]**	**0.04**
All Errors						
1 factor			1 factor	248.61*** (104)	0.14 [0.12, 0.16]	0.07
2 factors	**2 factors**	**2 factors**		**169.97*** (89)**	**0.11 [0.09, 0.14]**	**0.04**
3 factors				135.18** (75)	0.11 [0.08, 0.14]	0.04
4 factors				125.14*** (62)	0.12 [0.09, 0.15]	0.03

Note. N = 70. CI95% = 95% confidence interval for the RMSEA. Bold font indicates selected factor solution.
 ***p < .001; **p < .01; *p < .05.

Writing and Author Ratings for 'Low-Level Errors Only' Essays

Sampling metrics indicated that it was appropriate to proceed with EFA. The KMO statistic was .93 ('excellent'), and initial communalities of all variables were greater than or equal to .60.

Models with one to six factors were considered. All but the six-factor model converged, which was omitted (see Table 5). After considering model fit criteria, a two-factor model was selected as optimal. Specifically, Kaiser's criterion and the scree plot indicated a two-factor model, although the parallel analysis favored a one-factor model. Inspection of the factor loadings also led to favoring a one or two-factor model. All five models yielded statistically significant chi-square values, indicating some misspecification to the model. The RMSEA dropped below the 0.10 threshold for the four-factor model. The SRMR became acceptable starting with the two-factor model and decreased with each successive model. The other models had insufficient numbers of appreciable loadings on one or more variables to warrant a meaningful factor.

The pattern matrix for the two-factor solution is presented in Table 6. The first factor had nine loadings of 0.60 or higher, and the second factor had three loadings that met this criterion (i.e., slightly below the threshold of four or more variables per factor). The first and second factors explained 64% and 8% of the shared variance among observed variables, respectively. The first factor comprised seven writing quality ratings (i.e., all traits except Conventions) and two author characteristics (i.e., Intelligence and Knowledgeability). One additional author characteristic was slightly below threshold (i.e., Creativity, loading = 0.56). The second factor comprised three interpersonal author characteristics (i.e., Generosity, Kindness, and Loyalty).

Overall, these findings largely replicate patterns from the No Errors essays. When evaluating texts with low-level errors only, raters seemed to make a holistic judgment of writing quality that incorporated the authors'

Table 6

Exploratory Factor Analysis Pattern Matrices for Essay Error Types

Rating	Essay Error Pattern							
	No Errors		Low-Level Errors		High-Level Errors		All Errors	
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 1	Factor 2
Writing Traits								
Conventions	**0.60***	0.16	0.49*	0.16	0.49*	0.23	**0.73***	-0.05
Enjoyable	**0.83***	-0.06	**0.94***	-0.10	**0.63***	0.32*	**0.77***	0.01
Ideas and Content	**0.83***	-0.06	**0.90***	-0.08	**0.69***	0.24	**0.85***	0.07
Organization	**0.81***	0.00	**0.81***	0.03	**0.61***	0.23	**0.92***	-0.11
Persuasiveness	**0.69***	-0.12	**0.96***	-0.11	**0.84***	0.07	**0.95***	-0.02
Sentence Fluency	**0.85***	0.01	**0.81***	-0.07	**0.91***	-0.09	**0.74***	0.07
Voice	**0.85***	0.04	**0.73***	0.12	**0.88***	-0.15	**0.63***	0.20
Word Choice	**0.69***	0.12	**0.62***	0.26	**0.86***	-0.01	**0.81***	0.05
Author Traits								
Creativity	0.40*	0.24	0.56*	0.33	0.28	0.59*	0.28	0.56*
Generosity	0.01	**0.87***	0.04	**0.91***	0.09	**0.72***	0.03	**0.86***
Hard-working	0.38*	0.29	0.48*	0.40	0.15	**0.77***	0.41	0.48*
Intelligence	**0.65***	0.15	**0.63***	0.31	0.56*	0.38*	0.35	0.55*
Kindness	-0.03	**0.86***	-0.04	**0.88***	0.00	**0.77***	-0.15*	**0.94***
Knowledgeability	0.58*	0.21	**0.65***	0.23	0.17	**0.72***	0.57*	0.37
Loyalty	-0.04	**0.66***	0.14	**0.72***	-0.23*	**0.92***	0.04	**0.85***
Thoughtfulness	0.36*	0.42*	0.52*	0.35	0.17	**0.73***	0.29	**0.61***
Variance Explained	47%	12%	64%	8%	62%	10%	66%	8%

Note. $N = 70$. Factors rotated using Oblimin rotation. Appreciable factor loadings (≥ 0.60) are indicated using bold font. *$p < .05$.

intellectual abilities, and seemed to make a separate judgment of authors' personality. The two factors were again moderately correlated, $r = .64$, $p < .05$, and the relationship was stronger than with No Errors essays.

Writing and Author Ratings for 'High-Level Errors Only' Essays

Sampling metrics indicated that it was appropriate to proceed with EFA. The KMO statistic was .89 ('very good'), and initial communalities for 15 of the 16 variables were greater than or equal to .60.

Only the one- and two-factor models converged (see Table 5); models of three or more factors were thus omitted. After considering model fit criteria, a two-factor model was selected as optimal. Kaiser's criterion, the scree plot, and the parallel analysis all favored a two-factor model. Both models yielded a significant chi-square statistic, indicating some misspecification to the model. The RMSEA for the one-factor model was 0.15, indicating a poor-fitting model. The RMSEA of the two-factor model yielded a minimally acceptable value of 0.10. The SRMR for the two-factor solution was 0.04, indicating adequate model fit.

The pattern matrix for the two-factor solution is given in Table 6. The first factor had seven loadings of 0.60 or higher, and the second factor had six loadings that met this criterion. The first and second factors explained 62% and 10% of the shared variance among observed variables, respectively. The first factor comprised seven writing traits (i.e., all except Conventions) and no author characteristics, although Intelligence was just below threshold (loading = 0.56). The second factor comprised six author traits (i.e., Generosity, Hard-working, Kindness, Knowledgeability, Loyalty, and Thoughtfulness), and Creativity was just below threshold (loading = 0.59).

These patterns both corroborate and diverge from prior findings. First, raters again seemed to make broad writing quality evaluations and author personality judgments that were distinct but related ($r = .64$, $p < .05$), with a similar magnitude as Low-Level Errors Only essays. Although not significant, Intelligence somewhat loaded on the writing quality factor but not the author personality factor—again suggesting that perceived intellectual abilities play a role in writing judgments. However, the author personality factor included many more characteristics in this model. In addition to interpersonal traits like being generous or kind, this factor also included work ethic and thoughtfulness along with possible intellectual traits.

The critical difference between this model and prior models was the presence of higher-level writing errors, such as disorganization, missing arguments, and illogical examples. Compared to essays exhibiting no errors or only lower-level errors (e.g., spelling and grammar), raters seemed to make more sweeping evaluations of the authors themselves.

Writing and Author Ratings for 'All Errors' Essays

Sampling metrics indicated that it was appropriate to proceed with EFA. The KMO statistic was .92 ('excellent'), and initial communalities of all variables were greater than or equal to .60.

Models for the one- through four-factor solutions converged, but not the five-factor and six-factor solutions, which were omitted (see Table 5). Based on review of model fit metrics, the two-factor solution was retained as the optimal model. Kaiser's criterion and the scree plot recommended the two-factor solution although the parallel analysis pointed to a one-factor solution. Inspection of factor loadings revealed that the three-factor solution only had one appreciable loading (i.e., a loading ⩾ .60) on the third factor, and the four-factor solution had no appreciable loadings on the fourth factor. All models yielded a significant chi-square statistic, indicating some misspecification to the model. RMSEA values presented similar information. In all cases, the RMSEA exceeded 0.10, although the lower bound of the 95% confidence interval for the two-factor solution dropped below this threshold. The SRMR for the two-factor solution was 0.04, indicating adequate fit.

The pattern matrix for the two-factor solution is presented in Table 6. The first factor had eight loadings of 0.60 or higher, and the second factor had four loadings that met this criterion. The first and second factors explained 66% and 8%, respectively, of the shared variance among the observed variables. The first factor comprised all eight writing quality traits and no author characteristic ratings, although Knowledgeability was just below threshold (loading = 0.57). The second factor comprised four author characteristic ratings (i.e., Generosity, Kindness, Loyalty, and Thoughtfulness), with two others near the threshold (i.e., Creativity, loading = 0.56; and Intelligence, loading = 0.55).

The pattern for All Errors essays was most similar to the model for High-Level Errors Only essays, although the model again corroborated prior results. Raters seemed to make a holistic judgment of writing quality that included elements of intellectual ability, and distinct but strongly related judgments of authors' personality ($r = .75$, $p < .05$). Essays that exhibited both kinds of errors also demonstrated the strongest correlation between factors. As above, the presence of higher-level writing errors seemed to result in somewhat broader evaluations of the authors—not just interpersonal traits (e.g., loyalty and kindness) but also effort and intellectual traits.

Discussion

For better or worse, writers are judged by their audience, and these evaluations encompass both the text and the authors themselves (Cox et al., 2017; Figueredo & Varnhagen, 2005; Authors, 2017; Vignovic & Thompson, 2010). Moreover, such assessments are consequential. Outside of school, employers may make hiring decisions based on writing skills or personal characteristics 'revealed' through one's writing (Hoover, 2013); teachers might make judgments about students' capabilities or conduct (e.g., Johnson & VanBrackle, 2012); and individuals may even make decisions about potential roommates (Boland & Queen, 2016). Although readers' perceptions of writing errors can be inaccurate, biased, and unfair, the impact of those perceptions cannot be disregarded.

The current paper follows on prior research (Johnson et al., 2017) to further investigate relationships between college students' judgments of writing and author as a function of perceived writing errors. Unanswered questions pertained to whether evaluations of writing (RQ1) and author (RQ2) represented holistic or nuanced judgments, the degree of overlap between writing and author assessment constructs (RQ3), and the influence of error patterns on observed latent constructs (RQ4).

Current results suggest that students tended to form holistic impressions of writing quality and authors rather than distinct judgments about individual traits. Analyses consistently generated models wherein most variables loaded on relatively few factors that explained over half the variance (59-74%). The first factor included all or most writing traits, and the second factor comprised multiple author characteristics. Student raters appeared to make holistic judgments rather than nuanced judgments. In practice, college students did not make distinct evaluations of conventions, persuasiveness, word choice, and so on. All of these variables were likely considered together to form a collective evaluation or a subset of traits dominated the perception of all others.

Results also suggest that there is subtle overlap in judgments of writing and author. In particular, the dominant construct in all models—tentatively labeled *Writing Quality and Skill*—tended to incorporate all or most writing traits along with several 'intellectual' author traits. Assessments of whether an essay was well-written were conflated with perceiving authors as smart or informed. A second construct, *Author Personality*, seemed to focus on writers' perceived 'interpersonal' traits (e.g., generosity, kindness, and loyalty) with little to no contribution from writing quality. In contrast to intellectual abilities, interpersonal qualities seemed to be judged separately from writing quality. In all cases, however, these two constructs were significantly and positive correlated (rs > .60). Thus, although the two judgments are separable, they very likely influence each other. In accord with prior research, higher writing quality may lead students to perceive their peers as more giving, friendly, or trustworthy; and favorable beliefs or biases toward the author based on the content of their essay may lead to more forgiving review of the essay.

A subtle influence of error pattern was perhaps observed on latent judgments of writing and author. The presence of higher-level writing errors seemed to trigger more sweeping (or less focused) judgments of author personality and to attenuate the connection between writing quality and intellectual traits. This effect was most noticeable for essays that exhibited *only* higher-level errors of disorganization, missing arguments, and illogical evidence. In this case, the Author Personality construct comprised Generosity, Hard-working, Kindness, Knowledgeability, Loyalty, and Thoughtfulness, whereas for other error patterns the contributing variables focused on interpersonal traits. One possibility suggested by the data is that higher-level errors were not penalized to the same degree as lower-level errors. When rating such essays, higher-level errors may have been perceptible but less salient, which also reduced the salience of personality judgments. Consequently, student raters provided more global or vague evaluations of the author.

There were several limitations to the current study that should be addressed in future research. First, the sample size was relatively small for conventional EFA analyses. Although the within-subjects design was strong for assessing the effects of different error patterns on student raters' perceptions (i.e., the purpose of the original study, Johnson et al., 2017), a sample of 70 participants was somewhat low for conducting EFAs. Multiple checks of data adequacy for EFA were implemented, including the KMO statistic, number of variables with communalities greater than .60, and number of factor loadings per factor. Importantly, for all analyses, these checks indicated that the sample was acceptable. Nonetheless, it would be worthwhile for future modeling to build on current findings using larger samples. Future studies also represent an opportunity to recruit more diverse samples or introduce other manipulations (see below) to further explore perceptions of errors, writing quality, and authors.

Other limitations pertained to the essay stimuli. First, for consistency, all essays were argument essays constructed in response to the same prompt about 'patience.' This design did not afford testing for prompt-based effects, such as whether certain topics draw students' attention to technical aspects of writing quality or to characteristics of the authors. Similarly, this design does not permit exploration of genre effects. For example, an argument essay about the value of patience is likely to seem more personal in nature than an expository text about a scientific phenomenon. Thus, judgments about authors' personality may have been more salient in this study. In future work, it will be useful to manipulate the genre of the essay stimuli (e.g., argument, expository, or narrative) along with the presence or absence of self-references (e.g., first-person pronouns and anecdotes).

It is worth noting, however, that prior research on perceptions of writing and authors have been conducted with a variety of writing types ranging from formal classroom assignments to informal emails.

Implications for Peer Assessment

Given that evaluations of writing, errors, and authors can be conflated, one set of implications for peer assessment of writing pertains to how these effects might be mitigated or under what conditions they are exacerbated. Students are often skeptical of peer assessment and express doubts that their peers are capable of performing reliable and valid assessments, particularly when course grades are at stake (Gielen, Peeters, Dochy, Onghena, & Struyven, 2010; Kaufman & Schunn, 2011; van Zundert, Sluijsmans, & van Merriënboer, 2010). Students may be worried that their peers are forming personal or intellectual judgments and then biasing their reviews and scores based on these judgments. The results of the current study suggest that this is a plausible concern. If students recognize that they are making such judgments about other students, a reasonable interpersonal inference is that their peers are doing the same (see Panadero, 2016; Panadero et al., 2013; van Gennip, Segers, & Tillema, 2009).

Masked review policies are often instituted to avoid possible bias or unfairness in peer assessment (e.g., Kaufman & Schunn, 2011; Panadero & Alqassab, 2019) and scholarly publishing (e.g., Lee, Sugimoto, Zhang, & Cronin, 2013). In principle, by obscuring the identities or backgrounds of their peers (e.g., name, race, gender, or nationality), student assessors cannot use this information to offer biased assessments or interpretations. However, the essay rating task employed in this study was effectively blind—student raters were given no information about the supposed authors—yet text and author judgments were still overlapping or strongly correlated. Thus, 'blind review' did not solve the problem of making personal judgments about authors based on perceived writing errors.

A more direct approach may be to provide additional training to students that counteracts unwarranted inferences about their peers (e.g., Goodwin, 2016; May, 2008; Soltero-González, Escamilla, & Hopewell, 2012) and improves writing assessment literacy (see Crusan, Plakans, & Gebril, 2016; Weigle, 2007). Traditionally, expert raters are trained and assessed based on inter-rater agreement (e.g., Huot, 1990; Jonsson & Svingby, 2007), yet such agreement does not guarantee a lack of bias. Instead of disregarding inferences about author characteristics and errors, high agreement could simply indicate that raters are making similar interpretations (e.g., conflating writing skill and intellectual ability). Thus, training that explicitly tackles correspondence bias or other social-perceptual biases (e.g., May, 2008) may be particularly beneficial for student raters who lack writing knowledge or proficiency. For instance, training focused on perspective-taking (i.e., considering the perspectives of others in terms of point of view, location, or time) has been shown to reduce the occurrence of the fundamental attribution error among adults (e.g., Hooper, Erdogan, Keen, Lawton, & McHugh, 2015). One avenue for future research may thus be to incorporate perspective-taking exercises into peer assessment training. Students can be taught to be more mindful of how written products may not reflect the true circumstances or identity of the writer (e.g., frequent typos may reflect writing under high time pressure rather than 'laziness' or 'lack of intelligence').

In addition, research on rubrics has shown that they can improve peer (and self) assessment validity and reliability (Jonnson & Svingby, 2007; Panadero, Romero, & Strijbos, 2013; Panadero & Jonsson, 2013). In a recent meta-analysis, students who were trained to provide ratings demonstrated greater learning gains than those who completed the peer assessment without training (Li et al., 2019). Notably, the current study did not employ detailed assessment rubrics or rubric-referenced training. Participants were provided with brief descriptions of eight writing traits and eight author traits (see Table 1), but were not given detailed criteria or benchmark examples. This method was implemented because the aim was to assess perceptions of errors rather than adherence to a rubric or checklist. However, although the traits and terms were fairly straightforward, participants likely possessed differential understanding of the concepts (e.g., epistemological beliefs about 'intelligence' and 'knowledge' or personal experiences with 'generosity' and 'kindness'). In future research, a plausible hypothesis is that rubric-based training would result in more distinct trait judgments—the underlying factor structure might exhibit a larger number of latent assessment constructs rather than a few holistic constructs. It is unclear whether such training would reduce, exacerbate, or have no effect on the occurrence of personal author judgments or the connections between writing and author evaluations. To further explore these outcomes, rubric-based approaches might be further enhanced via concrete strategies for avoiding personal judgments about authors when assessing writing or writing errors. Rubrics and exemplars could not

only clarify the meaning of 'conventions,' 'sentence fluency,' 'loyalty,' or 'creativity,' but also establish criteria for when judgments about such traits are (or are not) warranted.

Conclusion

Writing skills are critical for success in academic, professional, and social settings. Although a great deal of attention is paid to teaching writing and evaluating writing products in reliable and valid ways, current research suggests that focus should also be directed to underlying relationships among perceptions of writing and writers. Moderate to strong links were observed between ratings of 'writing quality and skill' and 'author personality,' and these relationships were strengthened in the presence of perceived writing errors. It makes sense that writing errors could or should have a valid impact on writing quality judgments. However, the spillover onto perceptions of authors' personal characteristics may be representative of latent biases, perhaps stemming from differences in education, identity, culture, and so on. As the stakes for writing performance increase, it is important for assessors and policymakers to take steps to recognize and mitigate these effects.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

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Trilinguals' Identity Synergism Through Pragmatic Skills

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Recent studies on bilingualism and pragmatics paid little attention to trilingual speakers. This investigation examined the trilinguals' identity synergism by drawing on their linguistic repertoire and discursive identity through pragmatic skills. For this purpose, twenty advanced EFL learners with Persian and Turkish as their mother tongues were homogenized through IELTS and played roles in Persian, Turkish, and English languages. For modeling, three monolingual native speakers of the English language responded to the English version of written discourse completion tests taken from the same role-plays. The data underwent content analysis to extract and codify the themes. The results revealed a synergy among the trilinguals' discursive systems when performing apology, complaint, refusal, and request speech acts. Multidirectional transfers among the trilinguals' Turkish, Persian, and English languages developed a form of English communication that was different from that of the native speakers' model. Gestures and mimes were the non-verbal strategies employed more in the trilinguals' Turkish and English languages than their Persian. This study helps researchers and teachers gain insight into identity, pragmatics, and multilingualism.

Keywords: synergic identity, trilingual learner, pragmatic skill, pragmatic transfer, speech act

Introduction

In recent decades, the cognitive aspects of language learning have been in the limelight of various ELT studies all over the world. Since learning arises in social, historical, and cultural interactions (Vygotsky, 1978), educational achievements fall under the influence of sociocultural issues (Block, 2007). Palovskaya and Lord (2018) maintained that the knowledge of the English language and the students' sociocultural backgrounds have essential influences on the students' language performances. In Kachru's view (2003) concerning the varieties of English used in diverse sociolinguistic contexts, English language speakers fall into three circles, i.e., the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle, with each one forming a local identity for its speakers all over the world (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Modiano, 2008; Ochs, 2008). In the Inner Circle or norm-providing contexts such as the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, people adopt the English language as their mother tongue or first language. The Outer Circle or the norm-developing circle is the English of non-native and multilingual settings such as Malaysia, Singapore, India, Ghana, and Kenya, where English is the second language of the former colonies of the UK or the USA. The Expanding Circle or norm-dependent circle indicates countries like China, Japan, Greece, and Poland, where people learn English as a foreign language. The reflections of the world Englishes or the localized variants of English in the world have encouraged researchers to conduct some bilingual and multilingual studies. These inquiries have examined issues such as domain analysis, language choice, code-switching, and cross-cultural discourses (e.g., Hyrkstedt & Kalaja, 2003; Thumboo, 2002). A multilingual person concurrently communicates with various languages, including English, in the local contexts. It is noteworthy that no one expects people from countries like India, Nigeria, and Singapore, who have experienced a colonial past, to achieve native-like proficiency in English (Sridhar, 1986).

Another important development in applied linguistics has been the concept of English as Lingua Franca (ELF). According to Kuo (2006), the Englishes of native speakers are not at the heart of research in international communication anymore, and researchers should consider the English of non-native speakers in their inquiries. This claim provides the background for conflicting attitudes toward ELF, i.e., a variety of English language used

by non-native speakers, and a partial and instrumental knowledge to be taught in second language pedagogy (Kuo, 2006).

According to Lim and Hwang (2019), ELF has been an acceptable form of English communication. People with different first languages communicate with each other, and even the native speakers of English should learn ELF norms if they hope to communicate efficiently in an ELF community (Jenkins et al., 2011). According to Jenkins (2012), ELF users employ their bilingual or plurilingual resources to develop their cultural identity. They apply these resources to signify support for efficient communication rather than the correct usage of the standard English language. Jenkin's (2000, 2002) studies on ELF pronunciation revealed that ELF users speak more like their interlocutors to keep solidarity in their communication. In this way, ELF differs from English as a foreign language (EFL) since the EFL learners' target model is standard English, while ELF speakers strive to communicate efficiency. In other words, ELF users create multi-lingua-cultural identity over a national lingua-cultural identity (Baker, 2009). ELF for the advocators of world Englishes, or English varieties of post-colonial nations, is a monolithic or single global variety (Jenkins, 2012). Despite their judgments, ELF and world Englishes are both results of the spread of English beyond its native contexts in which the speakers create sociocultural identities, and do not follow the native speakers' norms (Seidlhofer & Berns, 2009). However, while the varieties of English seem restricted in Kachru's (2003) World Englishes, ELF is closely involved in the globalization processes. (Jenkins et al., 2011). ELF is not the process of learning English to communicate like native speakers, but non-native speakers of English benefit from their multilingual resources, which English native speakers lack. Then, despite the native speakers of English who perceive EFL processes like code-switching as a gap in English knowledge, ELF identifies these processes as a crucial multilingual pragmatic resource (Jenkins et al., 2011).

The above review implies that the mastery of knowledge domains is not enough for English learners, and they have to develop a related identity through the identity-transforming process (Palanac, 2019). This local identity affects the learners' way of thinking and using languages (Llurda, 2004) to such an extent that an interrelation develops between language and identity (Khatib & Ghamari, 2011). Lingua-cultural identities also influence the ELF learners' accent preferences (Sung, 2016). The language learners shape new social networks in their language learning contexts (Riley, 2006; Ushioda, 2009), and their discourses, as well as their identities, are manifestations of this cultural membership (Brown et al., 2005). Thus, the focal purpose of the present inquiry is to examine the linguistic systems of Iranian trilinguals who adopt the institutionalized varieties of English in the Expanding Circle (Kachru, 1986), which differ from those of British or American standard English. If acquiring a language means a new identity construction (Llurda, 2004; Seidlhofer, 1999), then the bilinguals may hold two or more identities coincidently (Kondo, 2008), and they do not merely duplicate the native speakers' language norms (Kasper, 1997). In learning English as an international language, the learners' pedagogical models and identities are valued. Here, the learners don't need to be familiar with native speakers' norms to communicate in the world Englishes (Ishihara & Cohen, 2004). Given this premise, the bilinguals' linguistic features, and identities may be different from that of native speakers of English, and this has been the main impetus for conducting the present study.

Literature Review

Several impressive studies on communicative competence (e.g., Ellis, 2008) have led researchers to its constitutive elements. These elements are grammatical, discoursal, strategic, and pragmatic competences (Canale, 1983, as cited in Takkaç Tulgar, 2016), among which pragmatic competence, was chosen as the focus of the present study. Pragmatic competence deals with an individual's linguistic choices, linguistic limitations, and linguistic impacts in communication (Crystal, 1997). In Crystal's (1985, as cited in Takkaç Tulgar, 2016) view, pragmatics involve the study of the language users' preferences, interactional contexts, and the impacts of their speech on the other participants. According to Tajeddin et al. (2015), linguistic appropriateness is different from pragmatic appropriateness. Linguistic appropriateness refers to linguistic performance or the actual manifestation of grammatical utterances. Pragmatic appropriateness, on the other hand, is the members' awareness of the social and cultural norms of a community (Rose & Kasper, 2001), including its identities (Llurda, 2004; Seidlhofer, 1999). Thus, learning a language is not merely understanding the grammar and the vocabulary of that language, but the appropriate use of the learned components for communication (Bayat, 2013). Consequently, when people from two different cultures communicate, their cultural backgrounds, which

are deeply grounded in their contexts, influence their interactions (Al-Issa, 2003). These interactions develop between the discourse and the context of use (Paltridge, 2012), and constructs the pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is a context-dependent concept (Kondo, 1997) that contains speech or communicative acts (Al-Ghanati & Roever, 2010; Austin, 1962; Cohen & Shively, 2007; Searle, 1975). Cohen (1997, as cited in Allami & Naeimi, 2010) reported that EFL learners cannot reach the highest levels of pragmatic competence because of their limited EFL contexts. However, the inquiries on ELF pragmatics have reached different results, as ELF focuses on efficient communication and not the EFL learners' target model of standard English. According to Jenkins et al. (2011), the research on ELF pragmatics has mainly centered on ELF speakers' cooperation in conversations, ELF strategies like repetition for signaling non-understanding in communication, in-group identity construction against intelligibility or shared resources like idiomatic expression, and utilizing discourse markers like chunking. It is worthy to note that earlier studies on pragmatic competence mostly took the linguistic aspects of monolingual or bilingual learners into account, and less was attention paid to trilingual learners' pragmatic skills or speech acts.

Earlier bilingual and multilingual studies mostly examined code-switching, which refers to the use of code-mixing between the languages of a bilingual or multilingual in intra-sentential or inter-sentential forms (Chan, 2018). People employ code-switching to perform their pragmatic functions since it helps them to convey their meanings better and make their communication work (Cogo, 2007, as cited in Chan, 2018). Code-switching indicates the bilingual or multilingual member's culture and identity in a community of practice (Klimpfinger, 2007). In a study conducted in Hong Kong, Wang and Kirkpatrick (2015) investigated the implementation of the trilingual policy. They noticed that the trilingual policy and its educational effectiveness varied significantly across schools. Chan (2018, 2019) observed that trilinguals held Hong Kong identity and applied code-switching among Cantonese, English, and Putonghua, with the dominant use of the forms Cantonese-English or English-Putonghua. According to his findings, using Pure-Cantonese, Pure-English, or Pure-Putonghua made communication difficult in Hong Kong. In the same direction, Gonzales' (2016) study on trilinguals in the Philippines revealed that intra-sentential code-switching occurred more than inter-sentential code-switching, and trilinguals mostly tried word-level switches when there was no chance of morphological code-switching. In another study on the translanguaging framework, Choi (2019) observed unique and complicated trilingual practices, such as translation and code-switching. They employ these communicative strategies to satisfy the communicative needs of their interlocutors.

It is noteworthy that recent studies conducted on bilingualism and multilingualism did examine some pragmatic aspects like the transfer of pragmatic skills. Studies like Döpke (2000), Hulk and Müller (2000), and Müller and Hulk (2001) suggested various interplays between the two developing languages of bilinguals. These interactions appear in positive or negative pragmatic transfers. Negative transfers indicate the use of L1 pragmatic knowledge, which seems to vary from those of target language norms, and positive transfers denote L1 pragmatic knowledge practice, which is compatible with L2 norms. These transfers pass mostly from the pragmatic and cultural competence of the bilinguals' first languages to their target language (Kasper, 1992).

Bilinguals manifest these pragmatic transfer processes in their speech acts. The speech acts in pragmatics are request, refusal, complaint, apology, regret, forgiveness, responsibility, and offering redress. Request (Brown & Levinson, 1987), as a face-threatening act, makes the hearer do something directly or indirectly, and it is available to speakers in all languages of the world (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Saying no directly or indirectly to a request, invitation, and suggestion or offer signifies the refusal speech act. According to Cohen (1996), an indirect refusal requires a high level of pragmatic competence, and different strategies are requires across languages and cultures to avoid giving offence (Al-Eryani, 2007; Siebold & Busch, 2015).

Another aspect of the speech act is the complaint, which is an expression of annoyance or disappointment about some wrongdoing (Monzoni, 2009). It occurs when the speaker tries to persuade the hearer to do something to repair the damage (Searle, 1975), and Vásquez (2011) has divided it into direct and indirect forms. Apology as a universal act of face-saving and politeness (Cohen & Olshtain, 1983) has been explored in different languages by Bataineh and Bataineh (2008) and Chamani and Zareipur (2010). Fraser (1981) organized the apology speech acts into nine categories, i.e., apology announcement, obligation to apologize, offering an apology, requesting acceptance of apology, regret for the offense, requesting forgiveness, acknowledging responsibility for the offending act, promising forbearance from a similar offending act, and offering redress.

Pragmatic competence includes various skills and speech acts (Backus & Yağmur, 2017), which refer to the social aspect of discourse or sociopragmatics. This social aspect of discourse is the origin of a member's identity in the speech community (Brown et al., 2005). This identity is multiple, shifting, in conflict, and related to social, cultural, and political contexts. In other words, identity is created, maintained, and negotiated through discourse (Varghese et al., 2005). Since bilinguals benefit from two discursive systems (Kasper, 1992), they are capable of combining several identities (Davies & Harré, 1990), which can have a strong influence on learner achievement (Aliakbari & Amiri, 2018). These identities show a continuum of in-group to out-group memberships (Duszak, 2002), which all are different and take place in conversational contexts (Davies & Harré, 1990). The question is whether the bilinguals deploy their discursive systems separately, or they create an interaction between the two systems in their communication. To reply to this question, conducting the present study appeared to be urgent.

The present study focuses on pragmatic skills and identity (Brown et al., 2005) in Iran, which is located in Kachru's (2003) Expanding Circle. The reviewed studies concerning pragmatics mainly dealt with pragmatic appropriateness (Tajeddin et al., 2015), pragmatics and identity (Llurda, 2004; Seidlhofer, 1999), EFL/ELF contexts and pragmatics (Kondo, 1997; Allami & Naeimi, 2010), speech acts (Al-Ghanati & Roever, 2010), and pragmatic transfers (Döpke, 2000). These studies examined monolingual or bilingual learners, and some reflected trilinguals' code-switching (Chan, 2018) and translanguaging (Choi, 2019) in various contexts. The synergy among trilinguals' pragmatic skills seems to be a gap in the previous studies; therefore, to bridge this gap, the current inquiry examined the trilinguals with Persian and Turkish as their first language and English as a foreign language. This study is an attempt to explore synergy among the identities created for each of these three discursive systems by performing some pragmatic skills. The pragmatic skills, including request, refusal, complaint, apology, regret, forgiveness, responsibility, and offering redress, all at once, were given less attention in earlier studies, particularly when the synergy of trilinguals' pragmatic skills was concerned. Those few studies on identity synergism merely viewed synergy in the personal or social identities of two different individuals (Heger & Gaertner, 2018), or the couple's identity synergy, i.e., fusion (Walsh & Neff, 2018). Another interesting issue of the present study is the gestures and mimes applied by the trilinguals throughout their role-plays. Gestures and mimes as other aspects of pragmatics were rarely noted in previous studies.

The purpose of the study

Knowing another language means having a new identity (Llurda, 2004; Seidlhofer, 1999). Discourse shapes identity and has a social aspect called pragmatics (Brown et al., 2005), which consists of a variety of skills (Backus & Yağmur, 2017).

The present study assumed that trilingual participants might create different discursive identities through their pragmatic skills. It aimed to investigate the trilinguals' identity synergism through performing some role-plays in Persian and Turkish as their native languages and English as their target language. Thus, this study tried to answer the following questions:

1. How do the trilinguals deploy discursive identities through pragmatic skills (speech acts) in various contexts?
2. Which discursive identity is more prevalent for the trilinguals to construct identity synergism: English, Persian, or Turkish?

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were twenty advanced EFL learners who acquired Persian and Turkish as their first languages in childhood and were selected via convenience sampling. According to Dörnyei (2007), the researchers should try convenience sampling when participants possess certain key features that are related to the purpose of the investigation. An IELTS test was administered before the data collection to delineate the participants' levels of English proficiency. The advanced level of proficiency was the accepted level for the present study.

The participants of this study were twenty trilinguals (Table 1) who acquired Persian and Turkish as native languages and English as a target language. The participants learned the English language to the advanced level in English language institutes and were both females and males selected conveniently. The key requirement in selecting the participants was their ability to use the three languages, i.e., Persian, Turkish, and English. The participants acquired Persian and Turkish concurrently as their native languages.

Table 1
Trilingual Participants

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	7	35.0	35.0	35.0
	Female	13	65.0	65.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

Materials

For collecting the data, the current study has applied the Written Discourse Completion Tests (WDCTs) and role-plays taken from Liu's study (2006). The participants took the Persian, Turkish, and English versions of WDCTs. All versions were equivalent in terms of formats and contents. For modeling purposes, three monolingual English native speakers also received the English version of WDCTs. The researchers benefited from the native speakers' models since they compared the participants' English language productions with those of native speakers.

Data Collection Procedure

The data collection of the present study was conducted in two phases. In phase one, three native speakers of the English language from California, United States of America, received the English version of the WDCT for modeling purposes. The trilingual participants received English, Turkish, and Persian versions of WDCTs through social media such as telegram. In a WDCT, the participants had to give their responses to situations designed to elicit certain pragmatic functions.

In phase two, the participants had to perform the English, Turkish, and Persian versions of WDCTs separately through role-plays. A counter-balancing technique was used to avoid the introduction of confounding variables in creating those situations. For this reason, the participants received the role-plays separately based on their language formats, i.e., English, Turkish, and Persian, over three weeks. The participants performed the role-plays. The researchers videotaped the role-plays after obtaining permission from the participants as an ethical issue.

Data Analysis

By applying content analysis as one of several qualitative methods, the study analyzed the data, and the meaning of the data was interpreted (Schreier, 2012). Therefore, content analysis reduced the data to concepts that described the research phenomenon (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). In other words, a coding scheme was developed to extract and codify the dialogs of the participants in the role-plays and WDCTs.

Results

The present study has collected its data via WDCTs and role-plays designed by Liu (2006). In the first phase, the participants created some situations through WDCTs in the forms of some speech acts such as apologizing, refusing, complaining, accepting, and requesting in three languages, i.e., Persian, Turkish, and English. In the second phase, the participants performed those generated situations through role-plays.

Samples of naturally occurring speech acts were encoded using modified version strategies outlined by Fraser (1981), Olshtain (1989), Cohen (1996), Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), and Vásquez (2011). The researchers assigned a code to each strategy from A1 to D. Table 2 presents the apology strategies and their codes:

Table 2

Illocutionary force indicating strategies and their codes

Code	Strategy	Examples
A.		*Illocutionary Force Indicating Apology*
A1	Expressing regret	Persian: Kheili kheili ozr mikham
		Turkish: Chokh ozr istiram
		English: I'm very sorry for
A2	Requesting apology acceptance	Persian: Mazarat mikham fekr nemikardam biofte
		Turkish: Otubus sorati chokedi sak dushdo, chok chok bagheshla
		English: Let me apologize as my suitcase was heavy and I could not put it there correctly.
A3	Acknowledging responsibility for an offending act	Persian: Aslan havasam nabud
		Turkish: Deghat elamadem
		English: I did not wish it to happen.
A4	Offering redress	Persian: Khesaratesho jobraan mikonam
		Turkish: Najur jobran eliem
		English: I will pay for that.
B.		*Illocutionary Force Indicating Complaint*
B1	Hint	Persian: Ghasde mozahemat nadashtam
		Turkish: Nakhabar goimishiz ghonshi.
		English: Sorry for bothering you.
B2	Annoyance strategy	Persian: Man farad emtehan daram.
		Turkish: Man estirem darsemi yetishiim.
		English: I need to study for the exam.
B3	Direct accusation strategy	Persian:Bacheha kheili shologh mikonan.
		Turkish: Lotf eleyosuz oshakhlarin saket eliosuz.
		English: Your kids are very noisy.
B4	Indirect accusation strategy	Persian: Lotfan ye emshab molahezeye man ro bokonid.
		Turkish: Bir ghad raayat eliin.
		English: There is so much noise. Could you please ask the kids to play quietly?
C.		*Illocutionary Force Indicating Refusal*
C1	Direct refusal	Persian: Man emruz kar daram nemitunam bishtar az saate edari bemunam.
		Turkish: Ishim var galamirim vala.
		English: I have a problem. I should go.
C2	Indirect refusal	Persian: Aghaye rais man vaghean ahamiate in projaro dark mikonam ama tavalode madarame.
		Turkish: Mazerat estirim manim moshkelem var, ejaze versus man tez gedem.
		English: Sorry sir, but I have my own plan after work.
D.		*Illocutionary Force Indicating Acceptance of a Request*
D1	Direct request	Persian: Yekam pul dari be man bedi?
		Turkish: varin mana pul verain?
		English: Is it possible to give me money?
D2	Indirect request	Persian: Dooste aziz baraye bargasht be khane be kami pul niaaz daram,
		Turkish: Manim pulem tukanib, eva gemmaghish pulum yok
		English: I left my wallet at home.
D3	Direct acceptance of a request	Persian: Iraadi nadare har kodumo mikhain entekhab konid.
		Turkish: Iraad yok, har nama san istiasan entekhab ela.
		English: It doesn't matter; you can change with what else you want.
D4	Indirect acceptance of a request	Persian: Moshkeli nist jenab maghaze motaalegh be khodetune.
		Turkish: Uz maghazaizde. Har biren estiriiz ghabel yohkde.
		English: As you wish.

The first situation offered apology speech acts. Some participants started their speeches with regret for the offense and applied intensifiers to make it more polite in all three languages. Some others opened their communications by asking the hearer to accept an apology. Acknowledging responsibility for the offending act was what all the participants did next. Offering redress was what the participants expressed at the end of their conversations. (Table2).

The native speakers of the English language did not open their conversations with apology acceptance, but they regretted the offense again. After asking the hearer to accept an apology, the trilingual participants expressed their regret for the offense. The English native speakers also started their conversations with regret for the offense. The purpose of using intensifiers in this part of the communication was to minimize the face-threatening acts. They also raised politeness issues. Acknowledging responsibility for the offending act was what all the participants did next. They all offered redress at the end of their conversations.

The results of the above analyses revealed that the trilingual participants were almost equal in the use of various strategies for apology speech acts (Table 3). The tables note the trilinguals' higher application of requesting apology acceptance (Persian 21.5%, Turkish 20.5%, English 20.8%) and acknowledging responsibility (Persian 26.6%, Turkish 26%, English 26%) than the native speakers of English as presented in Table 4 (16.7%). In expressing regret and offering redress, native speakers of English demonstrated a higher percent (33%) in comparison to the trilinguals.

Table 3
Trilinguals' illocutionary force indicating apology

Code	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
		Apology in Persian			
A1	Expressing regret	22	27.8	27.8	27.8
A2	Requesting apology acceptance	17	21.5	21.5	49.4
A3	Acknowledging responsibility	21	26.6	26.6	75.9
A4	Offering redress	19	24.1	24.1	100.0
	Total	79	100.0	100.0	
		Apology in Turkish			
A1	Expressing regret	19	24.1	26.0	26.0
A2	Requesting apology acceptance	15	19.0	20.5	46.6
A3	Acknowledging responsibility	19	24.1	26.0	72.6
A4	Offering redress	20	25.3	27.4	100.0
	Total	73	92.4	100.0	
		Apology in English			
A1	Expressing regret	20	25.3	26.0	26.0
A2	Requesting apology acceptance	16	20.3	20.8	46.8
A3	Acknowledging responsibility	20	25.3	26.0	72.7
A4	Offering redress	21	26.6	27.3	100.0
	Total	77	97.5	100.0	

Table 4
Illocutionary force indicating apology for native speakers of English

Code	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
A1	Expressing regret	6	6.0	33.3	33.3
A2	Requesting apology acceptance	3	3.0	16.7	50.0
A3	Acknowledging responsibility	3	3.0	16.7	66.7
A4	Offering redress	6	6.0	33.3	100.0
	Total	18	18.0	100.0	

The other situation asked the participants to form a complaint, and the participants began it with a hint (Table 2). The accusation strategies employed by the trilingual participants were uttered both directly and indirectly in these three languages. They displayed an interaction among the trilinguals' language competencies. In this type of strategy, English native speakers were more indirect and polite. The last complaint strategy applied by the participants was the annoyance strategy. This strategy revealed no variances from what the native speakers of English reported (Table 2).

Tables 5 shows that the trilingual participants equally followed the complaints strategies, i.e., hint (25%), accusation (25%), and annoyance (25%) in Persian, Turkish, and English, while the native speakers of English language handled 16.7% hint, 16.7% annoyance, 56.7% indirect complaint strategies, and 10% direct complaint ones (Table 6). The trilingual participants created both direct and indirect complaints, although the direct complains (15%) were observed more than indirect ones (10%). The English native speakers were more indirect (56.7%) in making the complaint.

Table 5
Trilinguals' illocutionary force indicating complaint

Code	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
			Complaint in Persian		
B1	Hint	20	24.1	25.0	25.0
B2	Annoyance strategy	20	24.1	25.0	75.0
B3	Direct accusation strategy	24	29	30.0	90.0
B4	Indirect complaint	16	19.2	20.0	100.0
	Total	80	96.4	100.0	
			Complaint in Turkish		
B1	Hint	20	24.1	25.0	25.0
B2	Annoyance strategy	20	24.1	25.0	75.0
B3	Direct accusation strategy	24	29	30.0	90.0
B4	Indirect complaint	16	19.2	20.0	100.0
	Total	80	96.4	100.0	
			Complaint in English		
B1	Hint	20	24.1	25.0	25.0
B2	Annoyance strategy	20	24.1	25.0	75.0
B3	Direct accusation strategy	24	29	30.0	90.0
B4	Indirect complaint	16	19.2	20.0	100.0
	Total	80	96.4	100.0	

Table 6
Illocutionary force indicating complaint for native speakers of English

Code	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
B1	Hint	3	3.0	16.7	16.7
B2	Annoyance strategy	3	3.0	16.7	33.4
B3	Direct complaint	2	2.0	10	43.4.
B4	Indirect complaint	10	10.0	56.7	100.0
	Total	18	18.0	100.0	

Refusal strategies were indirectly reached by the participants, although there were some that were stated directly and could be mostly detected in the Turkish language (Table 2). In these strategies, the pragmatic transfers from pragmalinguistic to sociopragmatic knowledge were apparent among the trilinguals' linguistic systems. The participants employed more first language norms than target language in their English communication due to the cultural differences and the context of use. The trilingual participants gave excuses for leaving the window open and mitigated the face-threatening acts by applying remedy utterances at the end of their talks. Some others modified their context by asking the hearer to close the window.

Table 7 shows that the trilinguals indirectly employed the refusals in Persian (65%), while direct refusals (75%) occurred more than indirect ones (25%) in Turkish. It also indicates that the trilinguals equally applied both direct (50%) and indirect (50%) refusal strategies when communicating in English. However, the native speakers of the English language applied the indirect strategy in their refusal speech acts (Table 8).

Table 7
Trilinguals' illocutionary force indicating refusal

Code	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
		Refusal in Persian			
C1	Direct refusal	7	7.0	35.0	35.0
C2	Indirect refusal	13	13.0	65.0	100.0
	Total	20	20.0	100.0	
		Refusal in Turkish			
C1	Direct refusal	12	12.0	75.0	75.0
C2	Indirect refusal	6	6.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	20	20.0	100.0	
		Refusal in English			
C1	Direct refusal	12	12.0	75.0	75.0
C2	Indirect refusal	6	6.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	20	20.0	100.0	

Table 8
Illocutionary force indicating refusal for native speakers of English

Code	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
C2	Indirect refusal	3	3.0	100.0	100.0
	Total	100.0	100.0		

In the last situation, i.e., acceptance of a request, some participants applied lengthy speeches, and the cultural differences made the participants implement more native languages' norms in English communication.

The trilingual participants employed both direct (35%) and indirect (15%) requests in Persian, Turkish, and English (Table 9). In accepting the requests, trilingual participants performed more indirectly in Persian (42.5%) and Turkish (37.5%), but they applied both direct (20%) and indirect (30%) acceptance in English communication, although the direct examples were more common. The native speakers of the English language (Table 10) made use of indirect requests (50%), but they accepted the request directly (50%).

Discussion

The current study has strived to examine the trilinguals' discursive identities through performing pragmatic skills such as apology, complaint, refusal, and request. Since identity and language behaviors are interrelated (Heger & Gaertner, 2018) by learning English as an international language, the learners construct an identity that influences their way of thinking and language uses (Llurda, 2004). Many studies have focused on identity construction. Ochs (2008) believed that individuals negotiate their identities through language, while Lightbown and Spada (2006) proposed that people shape a new identity by learning a new language. Khatib and Ghamari (2011) also found an intertwinement between language and identity. The study conducted by Heger and Gaertner (2018) on identity and language behaviors led the researchers of the present study to focus on the trilinguals' speech acts and examine the actual interactions among the trilinguals' language identities.

Since the present study falls into the third or Expanding Circle of Kachru (2003), the researchers expected the participants to depend more on native speakers' norms. Despite that, the findings displayed a synergy among

Table 9

Trilinguals' illocutionary force indicating requests

Code	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
		Request in Persian			
D1	Direct request	14	14.0	35.0	35.0
D2	Indirect request	6	6.0	15.0	50.0
D3	Direct acceptance	3	3.0	7.5	57.5
D4	Indirect acceptance	17	17.0	42.5	100.0
	Total	40	40.0	100.0	
		Request in Turkish			
D1	Direct request	14	14.0	35.0	35.0
D2	Indirect request	6	6.0	15.0	50.0
D3	Direct acceptance	5	5.0	12.5	62.5
D4	Indirect acceptance	16	16.0	37.5.0	100.0
	Total	40	40.0	100.0	
		Request in English			
D1	Direct request	14	14.0	35.0	35.0
D2	Indirect request	6	6.0	15.0	50.0
D3	Direct acceptance	8	8.0	20.0	70.0
D4	Indirect acceptance	12	12.0	30.0	100.0
	Total	40	40.0	100.0	

Table 10

Illocutionary force indicating requests for native speakers of English

Code	Strategy	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
D2	Indirect request	3	3.0	50.0	50.0
D3	Direct acceptance	3	3.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	6	6.0	100.0	

the trilinguals' linguistic systems when they lacked the appropriate target norms in English language communication. In other words, the trilinguals employ the first language norms when they lack enough pragmatic knowledge in English language communication. In this way, the present study validates Jenkins' (2011, 2012) claims concerning ELF users' ability to access their bilingual or plurilingual resources to support efficient communication rather than the correct usage of the standard English language. The trilinguals' identity synergism falls in line with the fusion theory of Heger and Gaertner (2018), who examined identity synergism. Their claim regarding identity synergism implies a reciprocal group-serving among the members of a community. Of course, according to the present study, this identity synergism or reciprocal activations of identities occurs inside the trilinguals' linguistic systems in performing the speech acts in Persian, Turkish, and English languages. The findings revealed that the trilinguals employ their first languages to prevent any breaks in performing their speech acts. They also supported the study conducted by Walsh and Neff (2018) concerning the degree of identity fusion. Identity fusion indicates that a higher degree of identity synergism encourages individuals to communicate with fewer threats and conflicts. The participants of the current study sought to communicate their meanings synergically by practicing the verbal and non-verbal linguistic assets of their native and target languages. Therefore, it confirmed Goertzel's report (2009) about the construction of a mechanism called cognitive synergy, since the trilinguals tried to apply their trilingual cognitive knowledge synergically. This cognitive synergy was performed more effectively in combination with non-interactional and isolated performance, such as communicating in the target language, i.e., English.

The present study also supported the last decade of bilingual research (e.g., Döpke, 2000; Hulk & Müller, 2000; Müller & Hulk, 2001) on the existence of contacts and potential interactions within the bilingual linguistic systems. The findings proved the trilinguals' dependence on translating and incorporating the pragmatic norms

and cultural values of their first languages when they clashed with those of English. It conforms to Choi's (2019) report regarding the trilinguals' practices such as translation and code-switching. In the present study, the trilinguals' code-switching mostly occurred in Turkish and Persian communication rather than when using English. Then, the present study conflicts with earlier bilingual and multilingual studies (e.g., Chan, 2018, 2019; Klimpfinger, 2007) that considered code-switching to be an essential strategy in trilinguals' English communication. According to Chan (2018, 2019), using pure-Cantonese, pure-English, and pure-Putonghua in Hong Kong make communication difficult for trilinguals. The Iranian trilinguals communicated in pure Turkish and pure Persian without any difficulties, while their English communication required some trilinguals' practices such as translation and pragmatic or conceptual transfers.

The data obtained from the participants' speech acts illuminated the concept of identity synergism. In apology speech acts, the trilinguals did not perform all the strategies of apology listed by Fraser (1981). For instance, requesting hearer acceptance of an apology and acknowledging responsibility for an offending act were not observed in the data. The participants expressed regret for the offense and offered redress instead. Because of the cultural differences and the lack of sufficient pragmatic competence in the target language, the participants did not perform some strategies like announcing an apology, expressing obligation for an apology, requesting forgiveness for an offense, and promising forbearance from a similar offending act. Thus, this investigation is more in line with Bataineh and Bataineh (2008), who examined the Japanese language in Jordan in the apology speech act. This study asserts that in a Japanese apology, it is enough to say I am sorry, but in Jordan, an explanation for the offense is necessary.

This study also strengthened Cohen and Olshtain's (1981) research concerning Hebrew learners of English and the apology speech act. Their investigation revealed fewer traits of semantic formulae in the apology of non-native speakers than native speakers. It also identified the occurrence of some transfers of Hebrew features in their apology strategies. The data from the trilinguals proved that these transfers did not occur in all apology strategies. In other words, the transfers from native languages, i.e., Persian, and Turkish to English, as the target language of the participants, occurred when acknowledging responsibility for the offending act and offering redress. In the other apology strategies, no transfers happened, and the participants employed the same formulaic structures in these three languages as the result of synergism among the language competences. Hence, the trilinguals principally preferred the apology in Persian, Turkish, and English, whereas for the native speakers of English, the expression of regret was most favored.

For the complaint strategies, the present study supported Bikmen and Marti's (2013) study on common complaint strategies, i.e., requests, hints, and annoyance. This study also revealed the urgency and emotion in the trilinguals' complaints when making the addressee stop the wrongdoing. The native speakers of English lacked this urgency and emotion. Thus, this investigation validated Tanck's (2004) findings regarding Korean non-native speakers' (NNSs) senses of urgency in questions and requests. The Korean NNSs added emotional requests and personal details to their complaints, which were irritating to Americans. The trilinguals were both direct and indirect in their complaint speech acts and their transfers were mostly positive from their native languages, i.e., Persian, and Turkish to the target language, i.e., English (Kasper, 1992).

Chen (1996) classified the refusal speech acts into an expression of regret, a direct refusal, and an excuse. The data analysis of the present investigation verified the results of Chen's (1996) investigation since the trilinguals tried these three strategies to create refusal speech acts. Han and Burgucu-Tazegül (2016) approved the frequent preferences of the participants for using indirect refusal strategies rather than direct ones. They found that Turkish EFL learners' pragmatic transfers coincided with their refusal strategies, and L1 pragmatic transfers decreased with an increase in EFL proficiency. Although the present study was able to validate the high frequency of indirect refusals, it also observed direct refusals, notably in Turkish communications. Since Persian and Turkish were the trilinguals' native languages, in this investigation, the pragmatic transfers occurred from both languages to English.

Although Mehrpour et al. (2016) surveyed pragmatic transfers in choice and content of semantic formulae, they disregarded non-verbal pragmatic transfers. They claimed there were differences in the sociocultural norms of English, Persian, and Kurdish in the refusal speech acts. The authors of the present study were highly skeptical of their findings as the trilinguals of this study demonstrated synergy in their pragmatic skills when constructing the refusal speech acts. These strategies were different from what the English native speakers of this study manifested. Mehrpour et al. (2016) ascertained the norm differences within English, Persian, and Kurdish

languages. For them, the transfer of refusal speech acts mostly occurred from Kurdish as an L1 but not from the L2, i.e., Persian to the L3, i.e., English. For the present investigation, multidirectional transfers occurred in Persian and Turkish as the native languages (L1) and English as the target language. Consequently, the interactions between the Persian and Turkish language systems influenced the trilinguals' English communication. By analyzing the trilinguals' Persian, Turkish, and English communication, this study found pragmatic, semantic, and syntactic transfers among the mentioned linguistic systems.

In the request speech acts, the participants modified the requests and practiced internal modifiers or fillers more specifically, compared to external modifiers. Meanwhile, they tried pragmalinguistic formulae, e.g., Can you …? Would you …? I need …, to express the requests without paying special attention to the modification devices. Cook and Liddicoat (2002) proved this issue in their study. In his study, Eslami-Rasekh (1993 discovered more direct strategies along with mitigators employed by Persian speakers). They do this to soften the illocutionary force. In other words, the non-native speakers create long speeches, in contrast to the native ones, to soften and intensify their communicative acts. The present study observed more indirect speech acts than direct ones in the trilinguals. Their speeches were also shorter than those of the native speakers of English. These results authenticated the study conducted by Jalilifar (2009), whose findings revealed the overuse of indirect strategies on the part of high-proficiency learners and the overuse of direct strategies by low-proficiency learners.

For offer, acceptance, and refusal speech acts, the cultural differences of the native languages, i.e., Persian and Turkish and the target language, i.e., English, made the trilinguals apply more native-like norms in English communication. This validated Davies and Harré (1990), who reported that identity was a context-bound issue. It also strengthened Brown et al. (2005), who determined that discourse or cultural membership shaped students' identities, and Al-Issa (2003) who investigated culture and its influence on an individual's interactions, interpretations, and apprehensions.

 One significant result of the roles played by the trilinguals was the importance of non-verbal strategies in conveying meanings, which the previous studies overlooked. In the offer of repair, the trilinguals reported non-verbal strategies, such as gestures and mimes, more in Turkish and English communications than Persian, whereas, for the verbal strategies, the opposite was the case. The trilinguals transferred these non-verbal strategies from Turkish to English communication. Another issue regarding the video-recorded data was the volume of the trilinguals' voices in Turkish, but they communicated normally in Persian and English.

Conclusion

Nowadays, pragmatics and speech acts have attracted the attention of many researchers of applied linguistics. The present investigation has attempted to examine the gaps in this new human endeavor in the hope of finding synergy among the different linguistic systems of trilinguals. For this purpose, it has investigated the trilinguals who have acquired Persian and Turkish as their mother tongues and English as a foreign language in English language institutes.

The results revealed that in various speech acts, such as apology, refusal, complaint, and request, the native languages, i.e., Persian and Turkish, influenced the target language when compared with the English native speakers' norms. This impact is a positive interaction or multidirectional transfer among the trilinguals' native linguistic systems and their target language. As an example, for the acceptance of a request, the data revealed that not only did the first languages, i.e., Persian and Turkish influence the trilinguals' English communication, but the target language, i.e., English influenced their English communication as well.

This study concluded that the trilinguals may employ various identity resources to construct a mechanism using their trilingual knowledge called cognitive synergy, which allowed the languages to be used more effectively in combination than in isolation. Thus, by learning the English language, the trilinguals have created a new identity along with new pragmatic norms that synergistically work with the existing language systems, i.e., Persian and Turkish. In other words, to avoid any misunderstandings and interruptions in communication, the individuals make use of all the linguistic assets and conceptual strategies in a synergic way.

The findings of this investigation may give researchers of multilingual issues new insights into what is happening in the mind of trilinguals. Teachers who face the challenges of multilingual realities may also find the results of the present study of interest. The findings can additionally provide educational decision-makers with a vision of trilingual contexts as a principal problematic issue in order to develop a common strategy for training trilingual teachers as well as the teachers of trilinguals through enhancing, renewing, and planning the educational programs.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Teacher-research: Agency of Practical Knowledge and Professional Development

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Educational research has generally attracted negative criticism for its generalisability, contextual independence, and inadequacy in addressing teachers' practical problems in their unique educational settings. Moreover, as classrooms are always complicated environments, teachers are therefore encouraged to become active researchers of their own classrooms in order to maximize their instructional performance and provide optimal learning opportunities for their students within their particular context. To promote teachers' self-inquiry into their own practices, this paper will first define what teacher research is, followed by arguments for its need and significance in the teaching profession. Suggestions to help teachers become engaged in classroom inquiry are provided after commonly reported difficulties are reviewed. This paper is expected to provide considerable insights for classroom teachers as well as school administrators in their search for practical, concrete, and contextually-rich knowledge.

Keywords: teacher-researcher, reflective teacher, teacher inquiry, practice-based inquiry, professional development

Teacher research (TR) or teacher inquiry takes many forms and serves a range of purposes, but it is conducted by teachers, individually or collaboratively, with the main purpose of understanding teaching and learning in context and from the perspectives of those who interact with one another daily in the classroom (Miller & Shinas, 2019). TR, which is also described as teacher inquiry (Dana & Yendol-Silva, 2003; Stremmel, 2007), action research (Schutz & Hoffman, 2017; Vaughan & Burnaford, 2016), classroom research (Medgyes, 2017) and practice-based inquiry (Walton & Rusznyak, 2016), is designed by practitioners to seek practical solutions to issues and problems in their professional lives (Miller & Shinas, 2019; Stremmel, 2007; Stringer, 2007). (For the purposes of this paper, these words will be interchangeably used to indicate teachers' systematic study of their own practice). This inquiry is also a journey from difficulties to problem-solving and empowerment when novice teachers develop increasing levels of professional expertise and ability to reflect on and improve their instruction (Cochran-Smith, 2012). In this research, teachers are researchers who are able to self-analyze their work and share their knowledge and experience with fellow teachers (Medgyes, 2017). The students in this research are not treated as subjects but as co-researchers, and their multiple voices and perspectives are included for interpretations (Alexakos, 2015).

A defining feature of TR is the teacher's dual role as practitioner and researcher within the classroom, where they encounter real problems, experience obstacles, and examine why things are as they are on a daily basis. What makes TR different from teaching reflectively is their commitment to a disciplined method and systematic procedures for gathering and analyzing data (Borko, Liston, & Whitcomb, 2007). In other words, TR is intentional and systematic inquiry done by teachers with the goals of gaining insights into teaching and learning, becoming more reflective practitioners, affecting changes at their educational settings, and improving the learning abilities of students (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999; Farrell, 2015; Miller & Shinas, 2019). TR thus stems from teachers' own questions about their daily classroom practice, followed by teachers' collecting and analyzing data, measuring and reflecting on the impact of their instruction, and then adjusting their teaching in response to the findings of analysis (Vaughan & Burnaford, 2016). Although their questions and reflections are context-specific, they enable teachers to relate particular issues to theories of teaching and learning by documenting and analysing such issues.

Opinion Article

Distinct from conventional educational research, which examines teacher knowledge and practice from an outsider perspective by employing quantitative methods and epistemologies embedded in the literature, TR primarily uses qualitative methodologies to examine teaching practice from the inside. This type of research is appreciated and valued in response to questions about the relevance of quantitative studies in addressing the complex nature of teaching and learning (Stremmel, 2007). Despite the continued debate about the value and limitations of quantitative approaches in educational research (Davis, 2007), there has been a shift from an exclusive reliance on quantitative methods to the various applications of qualitative methods (e.g., journals, direct observation, field notes, interviews, and artifacts) in the study of teaching and teacher education (Borko et al., 2007; Davis, 2007). There are two major categories of TR: conceptual and empirical (Cochran-Smith & Lytle,1993). Conceptual research, which is theoretical and philosophical, includes teachers' essays, conversations, stories, and books that represent extended interpretations and analyses of various aspects of teaching. The latter involves the collection, analysis, and interpretation of data by the teachers who attempt to create new knowledge, which may be called local knowledge, about teaching and learning, but that knowledge will contribute to improving their classroom practice. Although there is a tendency for the products to be published or presented to academic audiences, TR must be first and foremost accessible and relevant to those who conduct it and those in situations where it is immediately applicable. Moreover, because TR aims to make a difference in the lives of those who encounter real issues and problems in particular settings, at particular moments, and in the lives of particular individuals and groups, teachers are often in the best position to ask and answer questions about their teaching and students' learning (Alexakos, 2015; Miller & Shinas, 2019). With the crucial role of teachers as researchers in their own teaching contexts, this paper plans to discuss the rationale for teachers to be classroom researchers, followed by the potential challenges they may encounter in conducting classroom research, and ends with suggestions for helping them become their own classroom researchers.

Why should teachers be researchers?

Educational research has historically been criticized for not only its incomprehensibility and inaccessibility to classroom teachers but also its apparent lack of relevance to classroom practices (Hoong, Chick, & Moss, 2007; Medgyes, 2017; Sato, 2018). As claimed by Hiebert, Gallimore, and Stigler (2002), the knowledge produced by educational researchers, or research knowledge, is characterized by its generalisability and contextual independence while the knowledge classroom teachers need is practical, concrete, and contextually rich. Educational research knowledge is thus generally lamented for not adequately addressing teachers' questions and offering unusable answers to their practical questions.

To bridge the so-called research-practice gap, classroom teachers should not act as mere implementers of research knowledge but as active constructors of knowledge. As argued by Stremmel (2007), teaching is a process of continual inquiry and renewal; teachers should be questioners. In fact, "teaching is not a purely technical activity where the end goal is pre-determined and achieved by applying precise methods" (Anwaruddin, 2019, p. 10). For pedagogies to be effective, teachers are expected to question the impact of their teaching on the students because teaching strategies work differently in different contexts for different students (Alexakos, 2015; Farrell, 2018; Loughran, 2002; Miller & Shinas, 2019). Schön (1983, 1987) also depicts teaching as a cognitive process of exploring problems or dilemmas identified by the teachers themselves. In doing so, teachers ask questions that other outsiders or academic researchers may not perceive or deem relevant.

Furthermore, as each classroom contains unique complexities and uncertainties within its own local settings, the teaching decisions teachers make require their understanding and the contextually responsive modification of their research-based knowledge. Classroom teachers should thus learn more about their students before making decisions regarding the appropriate teaching approaches for them. Although students are often overlooked or not viewed as valid resources, collecting and analyzing data taken from students and their classroom is considered a valuable resource. Sometimes teaching approaches or activities deemed to be effective by teachers or experts may not be perceived this way by students. In fact, through analyzing their data, teachers can understand the effectiveness of their teaching from a new or different perspective, which can often be significant and quite different from that of renowned experts. Moreover, by inquiring into their classroom life, teachers can better understand their own practice and the culture of their classroom and schools, then use that knowledge to continually reform, refine, and change their practice and build greater practical

knowledge for themselves. Evidence also suggests that teachers who have been involved in research are open to new ideas and possibilities regarding which strategies might work best for their students that the vast existing literature cannot provide. In fact, as confirmed by Alexakos (2015, p. 41), "researching our practice is an opportunity to learn". Different from positivistic-type research that is conducted to find laws or law-like generalizations, TR is about learning, changing, developing, and implementing practices that assist the learning and teaching of the researcher and all involved. Such research gives teacher-researchers more authentic, useful, and valuable knowledge than the research knowledge generated by academic researchers

For teachers to improve their understanding of their students and selves, pedagogy and practice, and for their professional abilities to be enhanced, they need to utilise both external and internal sources. The external sources include experts, academic researchers, teacher trainers, and supervisors, as well as students or other participants in the educational system. The internal resources for teachers include their self-reflection, which is often ignored in their professional development. When teachers carry out systematic enquiries into themselves and by constantly looking into their own actions and experiences, they can better understand themselves, their practices, and their students. By collecting, analyzing, and evaluating the information about what goes on in their classroom, teachers can identify and better understand their strengths and weaknesses in their own practices and their underlying beliefs, which may then lead to changes and improvements in their teaching (Kostiainen et al., 2018). By following this reflective approach to teaching, teachers make sense of different dimensions of their teaching and, to this end, teachers develop their professional dispositions of lifelong learning, mindful teaching, and self-transformation, instead of the transmission of given knowledge and skills to their students through prepackaged materials (Mills, 2000; Stringer, 2007). Becoming teacher-researchers thus enables teachers to develop a better understanding of themselves, their classrooms, and their practice through the act of reflective inquiry (Loughran, 2002; Stremmel, 2007).

Moreover, when teachers conduct research, their voices can also be heard in discussions about instructional issues and student learning, implementing pedagogical innovations, and curriculum reforms with administrators, policymakers, and researchers (Alexakos, 2015). It is because they have insights into their teaching practices with concrete support for what works best for their students (Schutz & Hoffman, 2017; Vaughan & Burnaford, 2016). In fact, in responding to the needs of their own students within the classroom, teachers have tested the possibilities. Teacher inquiry thus allows teachers to enrich their knowledge and develop the teaching skills needed to assess and respond instructionally. Additionally, such in-depth discussions with policymakers could put teacher-researchers in collaborative contact across departments, disciplines, and grade levels and with colleagues, principals, school counselors, or other stakeholders in their teaching and learning environment. Such collaborations could provide insights, make positive changes in the school environment, and improve student outcomes.

Finally, from their frequent self-inquiry into their own practices and participation in reseach and discussions with others, teachers develop a sense of ownership with the constructed knowledge, and this sense of ownership creates an inquiry stance towards their teaching (Dana & Yendol-Silva, 2003). By cultivating this inquiry stance, teachers play a critical role in enhancing their own professional growth, which can lead to meaningful changes for students. Besides this, in actualizing this stance by engaging in action research, teachers also develop their personal theory of research-based knowledge, which is "sufficiently flexible to guide actions in varied and constantly changing contexts" (Cain & Allan, 2017, p. 721). As asserted by Kincheloe (2011), teacher knowledge is espistemological, complex, situational, and multidimensional with multiple interpretations because teaching and learning are (re)produced and (re)developed in changing relationships within contexts that embrace conflicts and different perspectives. Because of the unpredictable nature of teaching and learning, their personalized research-based theories, practical experiences, and wisdom play an important role in making instantaneous decisions for their own teaching contexts and contributing to their existing knowledge about teaching and learning.

Potential Challenges

Although recent literature has acknowledged the value of TR for nurturing teachers' personal and professional growth, many teachers still remain uninvolved or attach little importance to classroom-based research. What are the sources of their apparent reluctance to conduct research?

As reported in a large-scale international study on English language teachers' conceptions of research by Borg (2009), a lack of time, inaccessibility of relevant published research, and a lack of practical relevance were among the key barriers to teachers' engagement with research. In fact, their disengagement in research is understandable when they are overburdened with school-related duties that take up most of their non-teaching time. Additionally, besides limited access to research databases at their schools, teachers lost their interest in reading research papers because the advice academic researchers give was too abstract and irrelevant to their specific school contexts (Hoong et al., 2007; Medgyes, 2017; Sato, 2018). Furthermore, it is mistakenly assumed that the teacher's main job is to help students learn effectively while researching, documenting, and generating new knowledge about teaching is the job of academic researchers working in research centers or universities (Hoong et al., 2007; Renandya & Floris, 2018). In Borg's (2009) study, teachers also reported that they did research merely to meet the requirements of their higher education, and their motivation to undertake research would peter out once their desired qualifications were obtained.

However, according to Renandya and Floris (2018), contextual factors (i.e., lack of time and proper support) rather than teachers' lack of interest and ability could account for the low percentage of teachers undertaking formal classroom inquiry. Due to their time limitations, it is difficult for teachers to keep themselves updated about recent developments in language learning and teaching. They thus need recent and relevant resources provided as a basis for contextualizing their own classroom-based research to get started with. In fact, teachers are believed to be capable of doing practice-based inquiry because they do informal and ongoing research every day on their teaching and how they can design and deliver more effective and engaging language lessons. For example, when they reflect on their completed lesson, thinking back about what they did right (or wrong) and making plans for ways they can improve their teaching, they are in fact doing research on their classroom. Likewise, when they invite a colleague to observe their lesson and then discuss the strengths and weaknesses of their lesson, they are researching their teaching.

In addition to the unavailability of pedagogically oriented-research studies that teachers can then use as a model for their own research, what challenges teachers tends to be their lack of necessary preparation and adequate understanding of how to do research. As revealed in Renandya and Floris (2018), teachers had difficulties asking pedagogically sound research questions, collecting useful classroom data, going about analyzing and making sense of this data, and drawing useful pedagogical insights from the research. This is because they generally are not taught how to research their teaching and student learning, analyze classroom interactions, and know what constitutes knowledge. Furthermore, Hoong et al. (2007) described teachers' concerns about the dual role of teachers-researchers in classroom research that could compromise the work of teaching and/or research in an unproductive way. Therefore, how to handle the interaction between the dual purposes of teaching and research once teachers step into the classroom as teacher-researchers also requires proper training.

How can classroom teachers become researchers?

For teachers to engage in research, appropriate and sufficient assistance in terms of additional time allocation, availability of related resources, inquiry stance disposition, and research strategies is needed. While the last two conditions entail teachers' own practice for their professional growth and development, schools or institutions in charge should facilitate the first two.

Schools/institutions' proper support
As stated by previous scholars (Borg, 2009; Farrell, 2015; Loughran, 2002; Renandya & Floris, 2018), teachers' motivation to do research is likely to be impeded by their heavy workload as well as their lack of time and resources. It is therefore the schools and policy-making organizations that should provide appropriate assistance to encourage teachers to do research.

Teaching, learning, and research are interrelated and dialectically entangled processes (Alexakos, 2015; Stremmel, 2007); besides balancing teaching and researching time for teachers, schools should make research one of teachers' major tasks. This could fine-tune teachers' mistaken assumption that doing research is only the job of academic researchers (Hoong et al., 2007; Renandya & Floris, 2018). In fact, teaching is not merely actions and activities but also reflection, speculation, questioning, and theorizing. When teachers have supported evidence to indicate that their inquiry activities provide them with solutions to their teaching problems and benefit students' learning, their interest in doing research is likely to be bolstered. Furthermore,

TR can only bear fruit when teachers are given the flexibility and encouragement to improve their programs. School leaders thus need to balance the documented school curriculum with set-aside time to meet the emerging needs and research interests of the teachers. When teachers receive school leaders' permission to implement desirable changes, teachers will be more inclined to inquire into their practices and make necessary adjustments to their teaching.

It is generally believed that school principals' leadership plays an important role in promoting TR in different ways (Stremmel, 2007). Thus, another kind of support from school leaders to facilitate teachers' engagement in doing research is the accessibility to professional groups. These groups are necessary for teachers when help is needed or when they can have deliberate conversations with colleagues about their practices at school. These peer-groups could be formal and informal associations of teachers or "teacher professional learning communities" (TPLC) where participants with the same interests and similar values about teaching and learning work collaboratively and collegially in order to improve student learning (Dana & Yendol-Silva, 2003; Vangrieken, Meredith, & Kyndt, 2017, p. 48). According to Vangrieken et al. (2017), these communities can be organized using top-down to bottom-up approaches which aim to provide different opportunities for teachers' formal and informal learning, respectively.

The top-down organized communities are initiated by the schools and mostly led by a facilitator (an officially trained educator) and aim to teach something to the participating teachers. These communities are similar to traditional professional development programs where the main purpose is to transfer knowledge. Such programs support the learning of beginning teachers by creating environments in which novices can work with expert practitioners and enabling veteran teachers to renew their own professional development as well as assume new roles as mentors. TPLC programs can also be developed from schools' connections with universities or research centers to provide teachers with short-term support. In other words, schools should create opportunities for teachers to work or consult with university faculty or academic researchers to ensure the teachers' commitment to rigor in research. This allows school and university educators to engage jointly in research and rethink practice together, thus creating an opportunity for the profession to expand its knowledge base by putting research into practice and practice into research. However, as reported in Dana and Yendol-Silva (2003), to be effective this model requires special attention paid to teachers' needs and the schools' sociocultural and material contexts where research-based knowledge is supposed to be applied.

Different from the first type of communities, bottom-up structures for TPLC are constructed based on teachers' learning needs and experiences, and they are in line with the concept of informal teacher learning. These communities are established through schools' connections with groups of teachers who can learn from and share with each other through structured and reflective conversations when engaging in continuous cycles of their action research (identifying problems, collecting data to gain insights into the problems, analyzing data, making improvements in practice based on what was learned, and sharing learning with others). As emphasized in Vangrieken et al. (2017), teacher colleagues are an important resource that could provide special contexts to teachers' learning, so well-developed TPLCs build teachers' competence for learning, positively impact their teaching practice and student achievement, and result in schools' continuous improvement. In fact, research conducted by teachers or among teachers and administrators provides a unique look at the program from different perspectives of students, curriculum, and teaching and learning (Stremmel, 2007). In summary, whether in partnership with other teachers or teacher-educators, teachers themselves are viewed as knowledge generators, and their partnerships allow for supportive and reciprocal relationships in the research process (Dana & Yendol-Silva, 2003; Stremmel, 2007; Vangrieken et al., 2017).

Suggestions for teachers' self-development of inquiry stance and research strategie

Begin with an inquiring question
No matter how teachers do their classroom research, they have to begin with a significant learning and teaching problem that will then be turned into workable research questions (Renandya & Floris, 2018; Stremmel, 2007). However, unlike academic research, which normally begins with an extensive review of the literature to identify a research gap, TR or practice-oriented research, begins with a practical problem that teachers want to solve. After the problem is identified, teachers need to combine their theoretical/intuitive knowledge and experience with students or even refer to the experiences of seasoned colleagues to develop questions and assumptions

(hypotheses) about the problem. These questions are carefully developed after teachers' thorough observation and deliberation about why certain things are happening in the classroom. These questions are not aimed at superficial solutions, but rather involve the desire to understand teaching or students' learning in profound ways. For example, *How or what can I do to increase my students' levels of engagement in my speaking class?* or *How can I facilitate editing-revising activities with my students who are used to teacher-centered approaches in their paragraph-writing classes?*. Then, data is collected through various means, such as experiments (using new teaching techniques), surveys, video-recorded lessons, classroom observation, students' improvement (grades), interviews, and journals. With the data gathering and analysis, teachers' assumptions about the problem may be reformed or reconstructed. Ultimately, the findings are first shared with students, colleagues, and members of the educational communities and then used to address and/or further reflect on the original problem. This inquiry cycle continues until the teachers have the answers to their questions about learning and teaching problems identified in their own classroom.

Resolve the conflict of the dual roles of teachers-researchers

As reported in Hoong et al. (2007), this reseach process is messy and disorderly due to the interaction between the dual purposes of teaching and research. To reduce the degree of the unproductive conflicts between the research and teaching goals when doing research, teachers need to clearly identify the research focus – whether it is on students' learning or on the work of teaching. If the focus is on the former, conflict is more likely to emerge. If that is the case, teachers should continue what they think a teacher is supposed to do in that context because giving the situation another focus (teaching) would result in a clearer picture of what the teacher intends to investigate about student learning. Another way to control the interactional effect of teaching and research agendas in the classroom is the proper division of teacher-researcher work across the boundary of the classroom. In particular, teachers should consciously focus on the research goals outside the classroom, while in class they give students whole-hearted devotion to their teaching. In other words, teachers should focus primarily on the teaching task while keeping their research intents of the project at the back of their mind for most parts of the lesson. Hoong et al. (2007) used the foreground/background metaphor to describe this relationship. In their description, both research and teaching goals are at work in the classroom, but they do not share equal prominence in the teacher-researcher's practice. When teachers enter the classroom, the teacher-at-work is at the foreground and teaching goals become the main driving force for instructional choices and actions. However, the research intents are not altogether absent, but are actively working in the background to influence the thoughts and actions of the teacher. Doing this, their research purposes do not weigh on them while teaching, and this enables them to carry out both the goals of teaching and research in a productive way.

Become reflective practitioners

Classrooms have long been viewed as a research facility and teachers' own learning environment where they can learn more about their students and the effectiveness of their own teaching performance (Loughran, 2002; Miller & Shinas, 2019; Schön, 1987). Schön (1983, 1987) argues that defining and solving problems stimulates teachers' inquiry and motivates them to participate in an active search for the answers and more effective teaching strategies. This process can be done by teachers' systematic examination of their instruction, classroom activities, and learners' reactions. Therefore, to gain a new level of insight into their teaching and student learning, reflective teachers always have central knowledge questions in mind, such as *What happened?, What was the nature of the problem?, Why did events take place as they did?, What were my intentions?, What did I do and why did I do it?, What ideas or feelings prompted my actions?, Did my actions lead to the outcomes I intended?, Did my actions correspond with my intentions?, How did my knowledge, my understanding, and my personal theoretical framework affect my own behavior?*, and *Given new knowledge, what will I do differently?*. Finding the answers to these questions requires teachers to assume a dual role of being the teacher in the class on one hand, and of the critic who sits in the audience watching and analyzing the entire performance on the other hand. The critics utilize the information gathered to develop ways of adjusting the teaching, and then apply them for their improvement of the future lessons. If the adjustments prove successful, teachers will adopt them, otherwise they should not. However, as both learners and curriculums change over time, teachers' reflection should be an ongoing process. Previous scholars (Kostiainen et al., 2018) also acknowledge that such a continuous reflection will support teachers' development of a reflective and inquiry-based stance to teaching. In fact, by utilizing these internal resources, teachers know things about themselves, their own abilities, and their students that other people are not aware of, and that knowledge will make them the most knowledgeable and appropriate person to help themselves improve their instructional practices (Mills, 2000; Stringer, 2007).

To promote classroom teachers' reflective ability, Mermelstein (2018) proposes five practical suggestions for them to follow as separate steps or as an entire cycle depending on teachers' reflection purposes. While the first four suggestions offer more immediate feedback and data that can be applied almost immediately in many situations, the fifth suggestion offers a written account that can be revisited throughout a teacher's career. The first suggestion is that teachers should visit and/or observe both novice and experienced teachers in action to learn what works successfully and what does not. When they notice the errors of others, they can gain insights into whether or not they make similar errors in their classroom that had previously gone unnoticed. Second, they can videotape their own teaching for self-reflection and analysis. It is important to place the recording device unobtrusively and ensure that it can capture a view of the entire classroom and all participants at all times. Another option is to design and implement surveys or questionnaire to get precise and specific answers from the participants in their classroom for later analysis. These instruments will provide teachers with valuable information regarding students' opinions, beliefs, attitudes, and evaluations on the teaching. A fourth suggestion is to conduct interviews with students regarding the effectiveness of the teaching. Interviews can also be conducted with supervisors, peers, students, and even parents to obtain further useful information for improvement. A final suggestion is that teachers should keep both formal and informal types of journals or a portfolio of their own teaching successes and failures. The former is a systematic recording of their own successful and unsuccessful teaching experiences while briefly noting their feelings about a particular practice is considered as the later. In fact, for the purpose of improving and changing practices, journals/portfolios should not merely include a list of what worked and did not but also teachers' feelings and emotions regarding what has happened in the classroom. As explained by Farrell (2018), reflective teachers are not only looking back on their past actions and events but are also taking a conscious look at emotions, experiences, actions, and responses, and then using that information to add to his or her existing knowledge base and reach a higher level of understanding.

Conclusion

In conclusion, classroom teachers should realize that research is doable because it stems from their own teaching practices. Being aware of their own practices and beliefs that underpin them, becoming active participants in their classroom research and eventually constructing their own knowledge are crucial for classroom teachers to perform their instructional duties to the maximum potential and provide optimal learning opportunities for their students (Alexakos, 2015; Mermelstein, 2018). As stated by Wiliam (2019), classrooms are too complicated for academic researchers to tell teachers what to do; teachers need to know about research so that they can have evidence of what works and what does not within their particular context. Through self-inquiry, teachers gain the necessary professional competence for making better judgements and taking effective actions in any ambiguous situation, which enhances their professional practice and performance in a changing and uncertain environment. In other words, engagement in teacher inquiry is an integral and powerful component to support teachers' active and lifelong learning, enhance their practical experiences in the knowledge-based profession, and cultivate their inquiry stance toward teaching that will serve them, their students, and the field of education well for the duration of their career (Miller & Shinas, 2019). Loughran (2002) and Mathew, Mathew, and Peechattu (2017) state that the secret to success for teachers in self-inquiry is their desire to make a difference for students, their disposition to include students in the processes of learning, their curiosity about what would make their students' learning better, and their willingness to improve their teaching practice.

Teachers are the greatest assets of any education system, the essential elements in a positive learning environment, and the key to high-quality education (Liu & Xiu, 2019). Teacher education thus plays a vital role in reforming and strengthening the education system of any country. Although teachers can develop professionally in a multitude of ways, including involvement in TPLC and participation in professional development activities, classroom inquiry is viewed as a means by which practitioners can develop a greater level of self-awareness about the nature and impact of their performance, an awareness that creates opportunities for professional growth and development (Alexakos, 2015; Mermelstein, 2018; Sato, 2018). Miller and Shinas (2019), however, argue that teacher inquiry is most effective when it is framed and supported by a systematic and carefully scaffolded process. This process requires guidance from experienced teachers and language teacher-educators and support from leaders and policymakers because teachers are often

overburdened and have little time, insufficient preparation, as well as limited energy or resources to do classroom research. It is generally believed that when teachers systematically and critically study their own teaching practices, they can then make a larger contribution to their teaching community by sharing their insight and experiences. In doing so, a much wider understanding of teaching and learning can be gained from a variety of resources that will bridge the research-practice gaps in educational knowledge and change educational practice for the better.

Acknowledgement

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Margaret Cargill and Sally Burgess (Eds.), *Publishing Research in English as an Additional Language: Practices, Pathways and Potentials.* Adelaide: The University of Adelaide Press, 2017; 260 pp., ISBN 9781925261523 (hbk).

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Cargill and Burgess (2017) in their e-book entitled *Publishing Research in English as an Additional Language: Practices, Pathways and Potentials* aimed to add to students' and researchers' knowledge about academic writing for publication. This book consists of 12 chapters and was published by University of Adelaide Press. The first chapter of the book is about the life-history study of humanities scholars' responses to research evaluation policies in Spain. The second chapter is on research hardship in the social sciences. The third chapter is about academic advising, authors' editing, and translation in a graduate degree program. The fourth chapter covers different approaches to editing and their implications for the author-editor relationship. The fifth chapter is about the effectiveness of the CCC model in enabling and assessing change in text editing knowledge and skills in a blended-learning postgraduate course. In Chapter 6, the book focuses on the factors needed for the selection of appropriate journals by researchers. In Chapter 7, journal conventions and practices are the focus, and information on medical research is also provided. Mentor training and development is a key focus of Chapter 8. In Chapter 9, interactions between a research supervisor and a group of master's and PhD students in a Chinese hospital was explained in the context of advising them on their research papers for publication. Chapter 10 is on plagiarism. Chapter 11 focuses on proper answers to externally imposed pressure. Finally, in Chapter 12, several unconventional aspects of academic writing were reported.

Chapter 1 is an attempt to focus on ways in which scholars respond to the changes in national and institutional policies that occur as a result of the
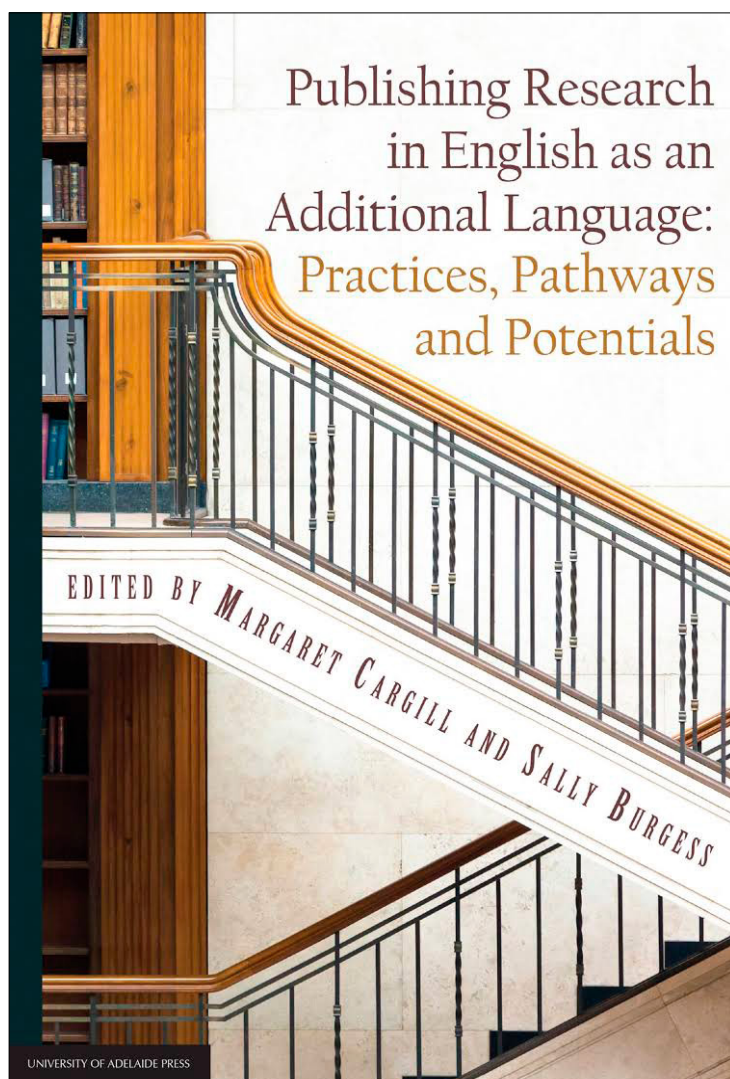
increasing pressure to publish in English. In this chapter, Burgess investigates changes in publication practices in Spain and the implications of these changes in the context of research assessment. The chapter focuses on the effect of these policies on Spanish scholars and can be compared with the experiences of scholars in many other contexts. To write this chapter, the life-history approach adopted by Connell and Wood (2002) was utilized. This approach was investigated by Connell (2006) in a series of case studies of Spanish humanities scholars.

Chapter 2 presents some research challenges in the social sciences. This chapter first argues that in the social sciences it is both relevant and important for the field of English for Research Publication Purposes (ERPP) and ERPP teachers to engage in methodology brokering the language development of learners while considering the global epistemological expectations of hardship in social research. In the next step, the chapter presents a description of the research writing matrix, in which language issues are addressed through the dialogic development of epistemologically credible research questions and an increased understanding of the underlying logic of the structure of research genres in the social sciences. Finally, the chapter shows how in a transcultural, critical-pragmatic pedagogy, inexperienced research writers can demonstrate their understanding of research rigour for their own communities, including data collection, analysis, and expected language structures.

In Chapter 3, DiGiacomo addresses the issue of intervention by examining the degree and nature of such interventions in a text produced by a novice author, in this case a doctoral candidate in the field of cultural anthropology preparing a thesis to be submitted in English in the context of the European Doctorate program. In this chapter, Cadman observes tensions in her role as an ERPP teacher, DiGiacomo sees challenges in the multiple roles she performs as co-supervisor of students' theses, copy editor, post-translation editor, and translator.

In Chapter 4, the authors carried out a comparative intervention study to probe their respective approaches to revising non-native English speakers' texts. The comparison of interactions between in-house and freelance editors with texts and with their author-clients is shown by the researcher. The researcher emphasizes using margin comments as key data points to help the authors when they are hoping to publish in international journals. In fact, the use of different approaches where the authors face problems publishing their research is mentioned.

In Chapter 5, Linnegar addresses how the CCC Model is effective in enabling and assessing change in text-editing knowledge and skills in a blended-learning postgraduate course with respect to the approach in which text editing quality is evaluated based on the five key levels of intervention: content, text type, structure, presentation, and wording. Linnegar in this chapter also describes a training program employing a blended-learning methodology in which a model termed the CCC model is used. The advantage of this model is the criteria used for the assessment of quality in text editing across the five levels of intervention with regard to the dimensions of consistency, correspondence, and correctness.

Chapter 6 provides information about the credibility of open access emerging journals. In this chapter, Bocanegra-Valle first explores open access journals in the humanities, an area of research publication practice. Next, she notes that open access publication was once seen as partly dubious compared to privatized academic publishing, where the managers acquire large profits through subscription fees and, more recently, payments for individual downloads.

Chapter 7 mostly explores the degree of variability in the rhetorical structure of research papers published in different high-impact English language journals within a single sub-discipline of medicine: immunology and allergies. The results report that in the particular sub-discipline under study, two groups of journals that differ at both the macro-structural and micro-structural levels show a more or less promotional rhetorical style. It also mentions that the type of rhetorical variation identified in this study can mainly be explained in terms of three factors: readership expertise, journal scope, and the prevalent rhetorical practices in long-established versus emergent journals and their target audiences.

Chapter 8 is an attempt to lay the groundwork for discussions among scientists publishing research in English from Indonesia. In fact, this chapter focuses on mentor training and development. It also mentions that the pressure to publish papers in international journals can be for the sake of increasing PhD students who must publish their research findings based on their universities' requirements for PhD graduation. Added to the above-mentioned information, the chapter reports outcomes recorded immediately post-intervention and findings from an interview study conducted after the participants had spent 12 months to learning how to publish research findings.

Chapter 9 focuses on research supervision towards publication in a Chinese hospital. The study was part of a larger project that author conducted in the Orthopedics Department of a major Chinese hospital to investigate how research takes place in the department. The chapter, in the first step, provides a brief overview of the benefits of medical students' engagement in research and the challenges for Chinese hospitals in terms of their supervision. Next, it outlines the theoretical background of the study, as it was based on some tenets drawn from cultural-historical activity theory. Finally, the authors explored a supervisor's verbal communication while conducting research supervision at a Chinese hospital.

Chapter 10 addresses the geopolitics of academic plagiarism. First, it discusses how serious an offence academic plagiarism is. In fact, it mentions that, in different countries, plagiarism, like other forms of academic corruption, is not viewed with quite the same degree of criticism. Next, the author mentions some definitions of plagiarism. For example, modern dictionaries define academic plagiarism as the appropriation of the writings or ideas of another or as literary theft. Finally, the chapter deals with the usefulness and limitations of Gemeinschaft/ Gesellschaft model.

In Chapter 11, the authors mention the government policy reforms in many Asian countries to advance their own country's capacity to access and contribute to international knowledge repertoires. In this study the research context is Vietnam, and the pressure is for English language teachers to become researchers and conduct and publish research in ways accepted by Western academics. The research also aims to perceive how Freire's (1970) distinction between transformative and transmissive pedagogies is used in three classrooms through the interaction between recently encouraged innovative practices and conventional practices in which instructors control students' learning.

Finally, Chapter 12 deals with several unconventional aspects of academic writing, which include double-edged acknowledgments, a dangerous ESP textbook, an imaginary author, a public confession of pique, unusual imperatives, a highly critical review, narratives in the form of allegories or alternative histories, an egregious contract offer, and an attempt to modify biodata conventions. The chapter shows that authors can sometimes be ingenious or playful in their writing. For example, in their acknowledgments and footnotes, they detail how divergences from journal conventions are made not just by senior academic scholars but also those beginning their careers.

All in all, the challenges faced by scholars who need to publish in English as an additional language are covered in this book. The planning of writing, choosing a suitable target journal, using various methods employed by instructors and professional editors to help scholars plan their work, the CCC model, the guiding comments of supervisors, and the inline and margin comments of editors are some way to overcome the challenges academic writers face.

It is also clear that support offered to scholars as they aim for publication needs to be tailored to the particular culture, context and language experience and how to understand and deal with academic plagiarism.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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"Improve the language", "Have your paper edited", "Write clearly", "Make your writing focused" are some of the most confusing comments non-native writers in English receive from reviewers of international journals. These comments state the fact that there is a problem, but do not necessarily explain what the actual issue is, which makes it nearly impossible to solve for writers who did not develop in the English-speaking community and do not possess the relevant background knowledge. Natalie Reid in her book *Getting Published in International Journals: Writing Strategies for European Social Scientists (2nd edition)* gives clear explanations what reviewers' comments imply and what exactly needs to be changed in the paper. Or, even better, anticipated and avoided altogether while working on the manuscript.

The purpose of the book is to explicate "the unwritten rules of English rhetoric" (p. 3) and specific strategies that help non-native English writers implement those rules and get published in international journals. The author draws on her broad experience of working with academic texts in the capacity of a teacher and an editor. This makes the recommendations very practical and highly relevant to anyone writing an academic text in English. At the same time, "the unwritten rules of English rhetoric" presented in the book will be helpful to manuscript editors and potentially even reviewers who might learn ways to understand where the writers' problems come from and how they can be addressed. Clear explanations of linguistic concepts throughout the book and key definitions in Part I make this publication accessible to academics with no or limited linguistic background.

"The unwritten rules" are features of Anglo-American rhetorical tradition characteristic of this linguistic community. The difficulty here is that these rules are expectations, conventions, or even obligations that are
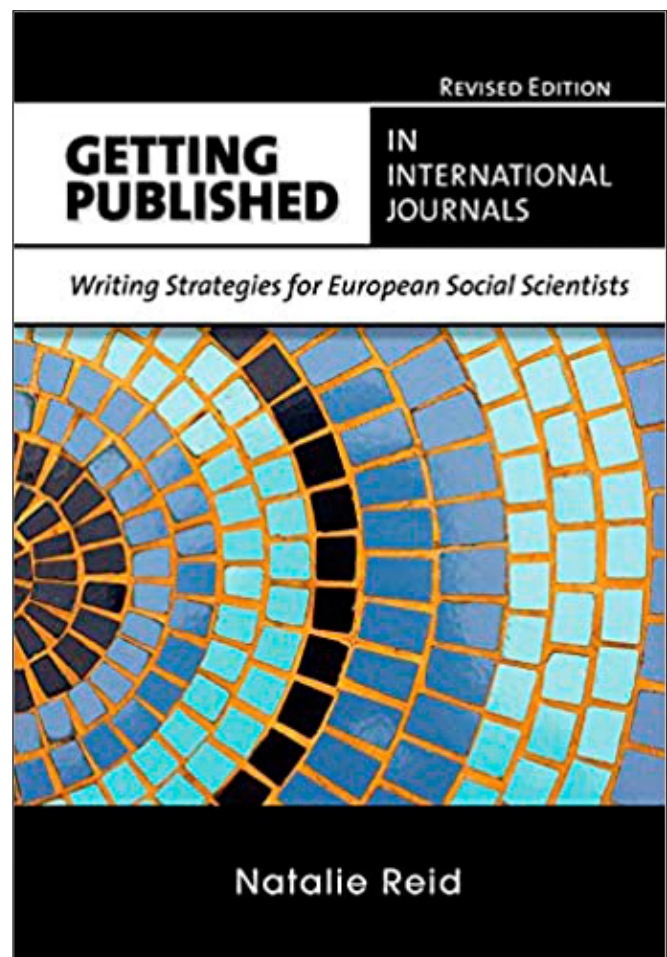
engrained in the English-speaking education, so they are generally subconscious, but well familiar to those who went through the system. Therefore, those who did not do it will struggle to understand what is required of them, while English language speakers might find it difficult to explain those conventions.

Starting with the "psychology of reading" (p. 3), or putting us in the position of the readers of our texts, the author takes us through specific expectations that English readers will have. First and foremost, the readers expect the writer to respect their effort; therefore, they appreciate clarity and lack of ambiguity on the level of both language and organization. This is otherwise known as English being a writer-responsible language and its belonging to low-context cultures (according to Hofstede's cultural dimensions). Secondly, readers want writers to show respect to their time by being concise and compact in expressing their ideas. Thirdly, writing is expected to be linear and argumentative rather than allusive, descriptive, or narrative. The last two principles are closely related to the theory of contrastive rhetoric (Connor, 1996), widely used in this book. These three expectations are brought together by the overarching principle that writing serves as a means of producing knowledge and is seen as a reflection of one's thinking process (Lea, 1998, Lea & Street, 2006, Kozak, 2020). That is why poor writing can undermine the research it presents, making an unfavourable impression on the reviewers.

The approach of raising awareness and presenting the theory that underpins the writing conventions seems particularly suitable for academics. Rational people tend to appreciate more explicit explanations rather than a prescriptive set of rules, since it is easier to subscribe to something that makes sense instead of adhering to something because it is said to be true.

Although awareness of Anglo-American writing conventions is beneficial for writers in various disciplines, the book presents a specific focus on writing for Social Sciences. It is indeed believed that each discipline or group of disciplines is characterized by its own writing genres and norms that a successful writer should be familiar with. Therefore, discussing writing in the discipline with examples from relevant texts is likely to be more helpful (Wingate, 2012).

Parts II, III, and IV start with readers' expectations, move on to general writing strategies, and then list specific techniques and language frames that help meet those expectations. This order of presenting information seems to be one of the most noticeable strengths of the book. Unlike some writing manuals organized by language means or discourse level, *Getting Published in International Journals* is built on the function-based principle, according to which we need to begin with identifying a rhetorical or communicative goal. This goal is actually determined by the writing norm and the readers' expectations presented at the beginning of each Part. Only after that the means of achieving this goal are presented, and this way, they fit into a bigger writing picture. For example, discussing consistent pronouns without explaining that they hold the text together and ensure clarity leaves them a yet another isolated grammar rule, which should be tracked at the stage of proofreading. Another common approach in writing books is organizing information by the level, from whole-text to paragraphs, sentences and then to words. Some may consider it appropriate for teaching purposes, but for researchers working independently, it makes it very hard to locate the necessary strategy. This is why grouping specific techniques and language items according to the function they fulfill, rather that the linguistic principle or the level they belong to, is highly beneficial from the practical point of view. In this case, writers can determine what they need to do – make the text concise, ensure clarity, organize ideas – and then easily find tools in a corresponding chapter of the book.

The second feature that distinguishes *Getting Published in International Journals* from similar publications is its cross-cultural nature. It is manifested in a comparative analysis of writing conventions in different cultures. Although presented briefly (e.g. pp. 17, 22, 138, 182), these parallels and contrasts highlight the differences and help bring out the expectations inherent to the Anglo-American writing tradition. By becoming more aware of researchers' native writing features along with the target rhetorical tradition, the readers can gain a deeper understanding of English conventions and of what needs to be changed in their own writing approach to ensure their English texts meet these expectations. The English norm often presented by itself without any comparisons, may contribute to the impression that it is the absolute truth, and writers may form a belief that other rhetorical traditions including their own are deficient or plain wrong. It is by presenting a variety of writing norms in an unbiased way that we promote the attitude to them as being different without the negative connotations of being inferior.

One of the most difficult to implement writing norms is its internal logic, or argumentation in a text. This aspect of discourse is almost always subconsciously familiar to members of a particular linguistic community; therefore, it is hard to grasp for members of other communities, but mandatory for successful communication. The Anglo-American approach is described in Chapter 13 "How to Develop and Frame a Logical Argument". Understanding expectations of English readers presented in earlier Parts, the readers can understand why English logic is linear, explicit, chronological, and deductive, moving from general to specific. Overall, argumentation in this rhetorical tradition follows Aristotelian reasoning, including appeals to logos, ethos, and pathos. Apart from this model, however, the Toulmin model of argumentation could have been introduced in this chapter as well, since it is a good operational pattern of thought organisation, which can contribute to coherence and strength of research writing.

When developing her arguments in the book, Reid resorts to a variety of supporting points. It includes theoretical background, empirical and anecdotal evidence from the author's editing experience. Extracts from published and unpublished texts serve as examples of good writing and less successful attempts that are then thoroughly analysed. The book seems to be an effective balance between different modes of informing and engaging with its readers. Apart from descriptions and arguments, it includes helpful checklists (e.g. tips for ensuring clarity pp. 25-26), metaphors ("every English text is a self-contained universe" p. 156), lists of framing language and sample statements fulfilling a certain function (e.g. countering objections p.167), diagrams (e.g. p. 166), tables (comparing British and American versions), and personal stories highlighting the impression that different quality texts produce on the target audience. The reader is approached from various directions, but even higher engagement could have been achieved through short analytical or reflective tasks.

The book goes beyond the writing process itself and speaks about essential pre-writing and very common post-paper-writing stages. They include selecting journals and dealing with reviewers' comments covered in Parts V and VI respectively.

The author refers to the selection process as "mesolevel journal analysis" (p. 200), which is based on a number of publications enabling the writer to draw reliable conclusions without making the process too time-consuming. To maximise efficiency and chances of publication, the analysis should be done before starting the paper. By encouraging writers to answer a set of questions, this approach will first help eliminate the journals that are not suitable for publishing the research. After that the author provides guidelines for a closer analysis of articles already published in the selected journal to make sure the contribution is the same in format and style. As Reid argues, the writer and the editor know that the paper is a good fit for a particular journal when "looks exactly like a paper that the journal has already published" (p. 199).

Part VI focuses on the post-writing stage of making revisions. It gives recommendations on how to plan and conduct self-editing and proofreading along with specific most common style and language problems to avoid. The part also includes the main differences between two varieties of English, British and American, which should be found in the paper and made consistent before submission. Finally, the author shared strategies and language patterns useful for writing cover letters and responses to reviewers' comments. This is an essential part of the book which does not pertain to writing a paper per se, but is still a significant stage of the submission process, which proves challenging to many researchers regardless of their experience.

Overall, the book *Getting Published in International Journals: Writing Strategies for European Social Scientists (2nd edition)* by Natalie Reid is a successful combination of theory-based explanations, stories from writing and editing experience, practical recommendations, examples of effective and ineffective texts, and useful language frames. All these enable the reader to become familiar with the Anglo-American rhetorical tradition and to acquire linguistic means to adhere to it, but perhaps more importantly the book explains the rationale behind the tradition, the implications, and the consequences of not observing the conventions. Therefore, it not only teaches European social scientists to write effectively, but also creates powerful motivation to actually do so.

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