jle

JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE & EDUCATION

HIGHER SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
NATIONAL RESEARCH UNIVERSITY

Contents

Second Language Teaching and Teacher Education in Diverse Contexts

Bui Phu Hung[1], Tatiana A. Baranovskaya[2]

[1]University of Economics Ho Chi Minh City

[2]National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Bui Phu Hung, University of Economics Ho Chi Minh City, 59C, Nguyen Dinh Chieu Street, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam.
E-mail: buiphuhung@yahoo.com

Introduction

Second language teaching and learning research shows some topics of remaining interest to researchers and practitioners. Class performances have been uninterruptedly explored, although a vast amount of research on language pedagogy and applied linguistics have suggested particular implications for second language (L2) education. The concept that a pedagogical approach can fit all contexts is no longer valid. The student-centered approach has inspired investigations into learners' needs, beliefs, and performances and provided evidence that learning outcomes sometimes do not meet teachers' and learners' expectations. Learner variables and contextual factors are included in research testing established hypotheses and investigating arising problems, such as technology-mediated learning and emergency teaching due to the outbreak of Covid-19.

Stapleton (2013) gathered data submitted to a conference hosted by The Japan Association for Language Teaching for three decades and identified some research interests in the field of language teaching. Language Skills and Classroom Content (including English for specific purposes) remained the most strands, followed by Teacher Education. Classroom Pedagogy also received more researchers' attention. There was a growing research interest in The Socio-Cultural Theory, Vocabulary, Motivation, and Second Language Acquisition. This made Paul Nation, Lev Vygotsky, Zoltan Dornyei, and Rod Ellis become four of the most cited scholars in the field. The number of teacher-researchers as L2 speakers increased significantly. However, Grammar received less researchers' attention. A comparison with submissions to some other conferences in the field showed some overlaps of arising trends.

This special issue consists of eleven articles reporting contextualized research on various topics. The first eight articles aim to improve language teaching and learning effectiveness by investigating teachers' and learners' beliefs and learning outcomes from educational interventions. The last three articles report research on teacher-related concerns with implications for L2 pedagogy and teacher development.

The Focus of This Special Issue

Kaspul Anwar, M. Faruq Ubaidillah, and Urip Sulistiyo examined L2 teachers' use of classroom management techniques in secondary schools in rural settings in Indonesia. They argue that L2 teachers should employ appropriate classroom management techniques to create a learning environment, which helps students achieve the expected goals. The findings showed both local and global problems. The authors also argue for the improvement of the L2 learning environment and teachers' professional development.

Otmane Omari, Mohammed Moubtassime, and Driss Ridouani investigated 365 undergraduate students' beliefs of self-efficacy at three Moroccan universities. Self-efficacy or self-confidence to perform a specific task well. A breakdown of students' responses to a questionnaire in a Likert-scale of 1-5 showed the students' moderate level of self-efficacy. Also, the junior students demonstrated a higher level of self-efficacy than the sophomore students. The evidence showed the impacts of the social contexts and learners' initial motives on their self-

efficacy beliefs. The authors argue for the improvement of Moroccan students' self-efficacy to increase their academic achievements.

Flora Komlosi-Ferdinand investigated students' attitudes and social-emotional responses to local and foreign teachers in Mongolian bilingual schools. The results showed that the local students showed more respect and discipline with the local teachers than foreign teachers. A factor responsible for such discrimination was cultural identity partly because the local teachers were aware of the values in Mongolian culture. However, the students considered the foreign teachers friendlier and more outgoing. Also, social and behavioral development constituted the students' attitudes because they could communicate with the local teachers better in their native language. In other words, sharing a common language was another factor in making people understand, which, in turn, form community ties.

Faisal Mustafa, Usman Kasim, and Asnawi Muslem were inspired by learner-centered education and explored the effectiveness of intervention of learning by teaching. Learning by teaching is believed to improve students' active learning. This study employed pretest-posttest between-group design and involved 46 Indonesian EFL university students: 22 students in the experimental group and 24 students in the control group. The students involved in the experimental group were required to have group discussions before they performed their teaching, but the control group received the teacher-led instruction. The data analyses showed that there was no significant difference in the posttest scores of the two groups. One underlying reason for such an insignificant difference was that learning by teaching needs adequacy of time to help learners master the content they teach. Besides, the participants' low proficiency level was a barrier to their understanding of the materials they were assigned to teach. However, interestingly, the students who learned by teaching demonstrated a significant growth of their teamwork skills.

In the sixth article of this special issue, Ana Cecilia Villarreal Ballesteros, Irlanda Olave Moreno, and Lizette Drusila Flores Delgado provide an interesting idea that uses conceptual metaphors used by pre-service teachers in reflections of their pedagogical beliefs. The conceptual metaphors, or cognitive metaphors, which one uses show the mental representations of information across domains. The researchers collected and analyzed data from texts written by 42 L2 teacher students. The results showed that conceptual metaphors used by the pre-service teachers did not reflect contemporary literature in L2 pedagogy although the input they received from their professors and materials provided updated perspectives on L2 pedagogy. The teacher's practice reflects both the theories that they have learned and their realities.

Rastislav Metruk introduces a concept of defining a good and effective L2 teacher. This article compares the discrepancies in Slovak pre-service and in-service secondary L2 teachers' beliefs of the attributes of a good and effective teacher. The participants most highly agreed that six important attributes of an L2 teacher were about the teacher's roles both inside and outside the classroom. The differences in the pre-service and in-service teachers' ratings mainly reflected their professional background. The author argues for the most critical categories which make up a good and effective L2 teacher: 1. being aware learner differences, 2. having appropriate L2 pedagogy, 3. encouraging learner autonomy, 4. having good classroom management strategies, and 5. being good-looking.

The practice of student evaluation of teaching has been an increasing interest in the last decades. Students' constructive evaluations are deemed to improve the quality of teaching and learning. Different cultures take different views of this practice. Irina S. Morozova, Aleksey A. Chusovlyankin, Elena A. Smolianina, and Tatyana M. Permyakova qualitatively investigated how Russian-speaking students evaluated the quality of L2 teaching at National Research University Higher School of Economics, Russia. These researchers applied the natural semantic metalanguage theory to analyzing the students' feedback. The students' ratings showed they more highly evaluated the elements closely associated with the teacher. These researchers argue that the teacher is a crucial part of effective L2 teaching.

In many contexts, female teachers' professional development is restricted although they make up a large proportion of the labor force in education. The distinct characteristics of effective L2 teachers and teaching show requirements for L2 teachers than those in other fields. Khloud Al-Bdeerat, Basil Alqarraleh, and Abdel Rahman M. Altakhaineh introduce an interesting empirical study on academic challenges confronting female L2 teachers. The researchers collected quantitative data from female L2 teachers in Jordanian secondary

schools. The results showed that female L2 teachers in Jordan encountered more challenges from students and the community than the other observed factors. The authors argue that cultural values were partly responsible for such challenges.

English as lingua franca (ELF) has inspired a vast amount of research on ELF-associated problems. Communication problems are potential among L2 speakers. Thomas A. Beavitt and Natalia G. Popova investigated Russian scientists' use of English articles in their submissions for publication in international journals. The results showed that the wrong choice and omission of English articles led to semantic and structural problems at the phrase and sentence levels. This article provides implications for L2 education and text analysis.

Research on L2 education has been increasing more than ever in the last decades, with L2 researchers' contributions. However, some arising concern is about the ethical issues which the researchers have considered in their studies. Training L2 teachers in ethical codes is overlooked in some contexts. The last article arouses awareness of ethical issues in L2 education research. Farideh Samadi , Khalil Motallebzadeh, Hamid Ashraf, and Gholam Hassan Khajavy aim to explore 272 Iranian L2 teachers' awareness of ethical issues. The authors argue for the development and introduction of ethical guidance in L2 teacher education programs. The authors call for immediate action associated with research ethics in the Iranian context.

The articles in this special issue report quantitative and qualitative research on various topics conducted in different contexts. They can provide thought-provoking questions. They may motivate further investigations in L2 education and consider Journal of Language and Education a venue to share their empirical studies.

References

Stapleton, P. (2013). Using conference submission data to uncover broad trends in language teaching: A case study of one conference over 30 years. *Language Teaching Research, 17*(2), 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168812460808

The Challenges Facing Female English Language Teachers in Secondary Schools in Jordan

Khloud Al-Bdeerat[1], Basil Alqarraleh[2], Abdel Rahman M. Altakhaineh[3]

[1] Khadeja Bint Khwaylid School, Al-Karak, Jordan

[2] Al Ain University, Abu Dhabi, UAE

[3] The University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Abdel Rahman M. Altakhaineh, The University of Jordan, Amman, 11942, Jordan. E-mail: tkabd@yahoo.com

This study aimed to identify the obstacles facing female secondary teachers of English in Al-Qaser Directorate of Education in Al-Karak, Jordan. For the purpose of the study, a quantitative approach was adopted. The sample was randomly selected and included 170 female English language teachers. A questionnaire consisting of 29 items covering five domains was administered and 150 questionnaires were returned. The results showed that these teachers faced many academic challenges and obstacles in various domains, such as in the student, community, and parent domains, as well as teacher skills, curriculum, and school environment domains. The results also revealed that there were statistically significant differences in the challenges and obstacles faced by the teachers in terms of the experience variable. The study, thus, recommends adopting a more effective strategy to improve the school environment and having a suitable psychological context for female English teachers in order to enhance the quality of the students' learning outcomes.

Keywords: Teaching English, Female English teachers, Challenges, Academic experience, Jordan

Introduction

Nowadays, teachers face many challenges, such as the spread of behavioural and academic problems that threaten the educational system in most of the schools. These problems have a direct influence on the teaching and learning process. These include forgetting school equipment, frequent absenteeism, poor concentration, hyperactivity, inappropriate talk in the classroom, disobedience, aggressiveness, and refusal to complete tasks and schoolwork (Al-Amarat, 2017).

English language teaching is a difficult mission in countries that regard English as a foreign language such as Jordan where the teaching of English has grown quickly in recent years (Alkhawaldeh, 2010). This rapid increase combined with the great diversity of English language learners represent a challenge to English language teachers in this country and in other countries that have a similar situation. As a result, there is a need to improve educational policies, curricula, materials, and management, as well as teacher training (Khong & Saito, 2013). In particular, teachers struggle with their beliefs and training, the reality of the classroom, and the requirements of parents and students and hence, all these factors need to improve quickly (Paran, 2012).

Because of the above changes, teachers' knowledge and skills have to increase; English language teachers today need to be critical thinkers in order to face these challenges and select suitable classroom approaches. In addition, they need to immerse themselves in the literature of different fields such as psychology, sociology, and instructional science (Karatas & Karaman, 2013). The knowledge and skills they will learn from exploring these disciplines may help them improve their approach and teaching methods which, in turn, may improve the teaching-learning experience.

One main element in preparing English language teachers is the competency and knowledge to make them effective teachers. Within the framework of professional development, various types of knowledge have been

studied, with a focus on content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and curriculum knowledge (Alkhawaldeh, 2010). This framework helps teachers recognise the importance of thinking about their current knowledge and reflect on their experience, which helps them decide how they can develop their capacity to plan their future teaching methods by using the above types of knowledge. This may demonstrate that having one type of knowledge is insufficient on its own to make an individual a good teacher as other types of knowledge are essential to improve their professional development as teachers.

In addition, classroom management is considered the most important element in the teaching process and a basic requirement, but is also considered one of the main problems facing teachers because it consumes so much time and effort, and is a critical factor in the teacher's success or failure (Al-Amarat, 2017; Burden, 2020). This is because effective teaching and learning cannot occur in a poorly managed classroom. Specifically, if students are disrespectful and disorderly with no clear procedures and rules to guide their behaviour, chaos becomes the norm, making both teachers and students suffer.

English language teaching has always been a subject of concern for education policymakers around the world because teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) is not easy and requires a good and effective teacher (Brwon, 2009; Çelik, Arikan, & Caner, 2013). For this reason, teachers need to be knowledgeable in various teaching methods and skills to be able to teach English language effectively. Moreover, teaching EFL in the Middle East and Jordan in particular has been the subject of researchers such as Karatas and Karaman (2013) and Alkhawaldeh (2010), particularly the challenges and obstacles that teachers face.

In general, teachers and some principals believe that the teaching environment must be orderly and quiet, thinking that a quiet classroom means effective teaching. Although sharing ideas and information via various communicative activities taking place at the same time may lead to noisy classrooms, it would be a mistake to conclude that in such classrooms students are not learning (Al-Amarat, 2017). The data to support this argument was provided by Al-Amarat (2017) based on a sample of 196 teachers from a public school in Tafila province.

In this context, this study reviews the obstacles facing female teachers in secondary schools in the Al-Qaser directorate in Al-Karak city in Jordan. It also tries to suggest some solutions to solve such obstacles in order to provide better services to female school students in Jordan. Consequently, the educational leaders and decision makers in the Jordanian Ministry of Education can suggest some tips to minimise the side effects of these obstacles in order to enhance both teachers' and students' learning and teaching experiences. This study focuses on the challenges encountered by female teachers in Al-Karak, since such a community has not been given due attention. In addition, based on the researchers' experience as teachers in this province in Jordan, these challenges are increasing with no solution in sight due to the lack of research in this domain. Thus, this study aims to bridge this gap. This study is important as it explores an under-investigated community in Jordan and attempts to provide solutions to the challenges they encounter, and thus, improve the learning environment and the well-being of the female teachers involved.

Literature Review

Key Points

Three main factors need to be considered at this point. The first is the obstacles or barriers that prevent the action or progress of a process; an obstacle can be material or nonmaterial, but always stands in the way of progress (Dhillon & Wanjiru, 2013). In this study, it is the number of obstacles faced by female English language teachers at Al-Qaser Directorate of Education. For example, female teachers do not have enough training pertaining to modern teaching methods, e.g. using technology inside the classroom. The second point is female teachers of the English language to students in the Ministry of Education, Jordan.[1] This category of teachers was selected because they are amongst the most who encounter challenges in Al-Karak. This is because the majority of schools in that governorate are public ones; these schools face considerable difficulties in hiring

---

[1] It is worth pointing out that male English teachers may have the same difficulties/obstacles. However, due to time limitations and the conservative nature of Al-Karak city, it was difficult for the first author/researcher to collect data from male teachers. Thus, it is recommended to conduct another study investigating challenges faced by male teachers.

specialized female English teachers because most of these teachers prefer to work in the capital of Jordan, Amman. The final factor to consider is the secondary school context, which consists of two levels, from 11th to 12th grades.

Conceptual Framework

The level of education of a country determines its place among other countries in the world. In particular, countries with high achievement levels in education and research lead the world, because a good education level in any country will affect living standards and convert the population of a country into useful human capital; as such, it is an agent of positive change (Saeed et al., 2013).

English is now the lingua franca of the world and is the most prevalent global language, embraced by almost all nationalities. No longer limited to its native nations, such as the UK and USA, the number of people who use English as a means of communication greatly exceeds the number of its native speakers (Ahmad, 2003). Military, political, and cultural factors have all played a significant role in the deployment of English around the world, and the technological revolution and new e-learning systems have also contributed to English becoming the most important means of communication at present. As access to technology increases worldwide, there is an increased need to learn English. Roughly, 55% of all written content on the internet is in English. It is the language of science and technology, and the first official language of the United Nations. Hence, English is the most popular language even within regions where native languages are considered necessary (Alzayyat, 2014).

Teaching English in Jordan

In Jordan, English was the only foreign language to be taught before and after the independence of 1946. After independence, English was taught in all Jordanian schools from the early age of eleven, for just one hour once per week. After the 1990s, English began to be taught alongside Arabic in all Jordanian schools from the age of six. This has given the English language a unique position in Jordan (Awajan, 2010). Today, English remains one of the most important foreign languages that a student learns during the last three grades of high school education. The number of hours per week allotted to English varies from one discipline to another: one hour in sciences, and two hours in humanities. However, in the 1990s the number of hours allotted to English changed, for example seven hours in sciences and nine in humanities. This means English is being used extensively in all Jordanian schools compared to previous years (Alzyat, 2014).

English is taught in Jordanian schools as a foreign language, due to its importance as the language of communication in all fields in the world (Awajan, 2010). English teaching in Jordan is a necessity for academic, work, and personal purposes. First, it forms the basis of the scientific knowledge that will be used in academic areas such as business, health, computing, and arts. Second, the labour market requires job seekers to have a good command of English to facilitate communication with clients and businesses. Being fluent in English helps the job seeker to find a better job; and, therefore, English is needed to meet and communicate with people, to travel, and to use the internet and social media (Alkhawaldeh, 2010).

In 1962, there were fewer than 22 teachers of English in secondary schools, but the number increased dramatically from 1962–2013, and now there are thousands teaching in Jordanian secondary schools. This has also increased the number of people learning English, because most jobs in Jordan require it from their employees or candidates (Alzyat, 2014). English now even competes with Arabic, and in many sectors English is the first language used, for instance, in the tourism sector, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, higher scientific study, businesses, and airports. This has given English a unique position in Jordan, and also increased its spread across the country (Awajan, 2010).

As far as English language teaching objectives in secondary schools are concerned, the Jordanian Ministry of Education (MOE) works on planning, upgrading, implementing, and evaluating all educational components for students, teachers, and staff, including curricula, educational materials, facilities, and other related issues. Concerning the objectives of teaching English language culture as set by the Jordanian Ministry of Education, there are multiple goals and outcomes that lay behind teaching English to Jordanian pupils[2]. The Ministry indicates that "the EFL curriculum should help the students to internalize Islamic and Arabic culture, which

---

[2] Ministry of Education. (2006). General guidelines and general specific outcomes. EPC.

should be used to understand, appreciate, and interact with people of different identities" (English Language Curriculum, MOE, 2006, p.9).

The MOE[3] has laid down a list of guidelines that stress the integral role of foreign language education in developing Jordanian students' language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The guidelines assert the following: an emphasis of knowledge economy competencies, integration of information and communication technologies, a new role for students by giving students opportunities to define their own ways of reaching outcomes, a new role for teachers to help students learn and communicate effectively by giving greater consideration to individual learning needs, and a variety of instructional strategies to ensure that all students achieve learning goals.

Moreover, the MOE[4] set a group of goals that must be achieved at each grade in the English language curriculum. Notably, the goals relating to the secondary curriculum aim to prepare students in a number of ways. First, they focus on communicating ideas, information, and feelings effectively for a variety of purposes in written, spoken, and visual forms to interact and cooperate with others to achieve goals. Second, they would like students to be able to think critically, and to make a value judgment on texts in light of Islamic and Arab culture and values. Third, they would like the students to acquire a positive attitude towards English and realise its importance as a means of promoting mutual understanding among peoples and countries. Finally, students need to be able to apply the skills and strategies that are necessary for the positive utilisation of electronic technology in lifelong learning contexts and in real-life situations to gather and produce new ideas.

English Language Teachers
Education is a process of behavioural change and development that occurs continuously throughout every stage of life. Teachers are active in every stage of that process. The formation of desirable behaviour in students is closely linked to the motivation levels of the teacher, as well as the teacher's attitude and behaviour. Low motivation levels in the teacher, who is in a critical position in the education and schooling process, has a negative impact on the achievement of high standards in education (Kocabas, 2009).

English language teachers have great responsibility, should make extra effort, and be more motivated than other teachers in order to improve foreign language achievement. Therefore, preparing future foreign language teachers for their careers is a complex process that requires reflection, opportunities to apply theory to real-life situations, and a network for the exchange of ideas and support (Gardner, 2001). English language teachers use a range of course books and materials, plus a variety of audio-visual aids. A strong emphasis is placed on dialogue and role-playing, but more formal exercises, language games, and literature are also used. There are many typical tasks that may be carried out by teachers, including: classroom management; planning, preparing, and delivering lessons to a range of classes and age groups; preparing and setting tests, examination papers, and exercises; marking and providing appropriate feedback on oral and written work; devising, writing, and producing new materials, including audio-visual resources; organising and being involved in social and cultural activities such as sports competitions, school parties, dinners, and excursions; attending and contributing to training sessions; participating in marketing events for the language school; preparing information for inspections and other quality assurance exercises; freelance teaching on a one-to-one basis; and basic administration, such as keeping student registers and attendance records (Burden, 2020; Teevno, 2011).

Additionally, teachers must have a good command of English and a relevant qualification, and also show evidence of the following characteristics: a friendly and confident manner; good planning and organisation skills; the ability to work under pressure; flexibility and an adaptable teaching style; creative skills and ideas for planning practical and interesting lessons; excellent spoken and written communication skills; effective listening skills; and sensitivity, tolerance, and patience (Khong & Saito, 2013).

Teachers can face difficulties when adapting to emerging issues in the changing ELT (English Language Teaching) praxis. For instance, in past years, shifts in focus have included changes in teaching the four language skills, with an interest in discoursal functions, the role of technology in instructional processes, and

---

[3] Ibid
[4] Ibid

more emphasis on the role played by learners; in this regard, teachers are also "battling with the conflict between their beliefs, their training, the realities of the classroom, the demands of parents and learners, [and] the requirement to demonstrate immediate attainment" (Paran, 2012, p.457).

Due to these and other changes, expectations of teachers' knowledge and skills have increased. Today's language teacher is expected to think critically, reflect on changes in the world, and implement appropriate teaching methods in the classroom. To develop knowledge that will support effective teaching, language teachers need to immerse themselves in the literature of various fields such as psychology, sociology, and instructional science (Canagarajah, 2012).

With the growing movement toward cooperative learning, more teachers are using activities in which students take an active role. Sharing ideas and information with various activities occurring at the same time can make for noisy classrooms, but, as noted above, it would be a mistake to conclude that students are not learning (Hamasha, 2000).

Obstacles Facing English Language Teachers

English language teachers face various academic, administrative, and professional challenges. This section explains these obstacles in general.

Obstacles as a Result of Professional Development
The success of any educational system depends on good and well-resourced teachers. Although teachers cannot easily be replaced with any kind of instructional materials, teaching is a profession that needs frequent updating. In this vein, female teachers should be alert to new changes around the world. Likewise, they need to remain continuously abreast of the latest theories, research, and other additions to the pool of knowledge. It has been observed that female teachers who are not competently sound and up to date are unable to handle the diverse changes and variations in their society, country, and humanity at large. On the contrary, female teachers who obtain the latest knowledge and develop their skills can effectively manage the process of teaching and learning, and indeed they teach and learn better (Filter & Horner, 2009).

Effective female teachers also need to be successful learners. Nevertheless, the professional development of female teachers has not been given appropriate attention in Pakistan. As a result, they may be less able to solve students' academic and societal issues. Additionally, it is possible that students graduating from (government) schools have weaker communication skills and find it hard to deal with the problems of life (Elyas & Al Grigri, 2014).

Obstacles as a Result of Physical and Learning Resources
The lack of teaching and learning aids in schools creates difficulties in the teaching process, especially for females. Some schools for girls do not even have basic materials such as blackboards, attendance registers, offices, libraries, laboratories, and up-to-date books. The majority of girls' schools also have a lack of classrooms or proper playgrounds for the physical development of both students and teachers (Dhillon & Wanjiru, 2013). This has created serious problems for female teachers, as they cannot provide the students with wider opportunities for learning and development. Even though teachers are expected to cover the entire curriculum, under the given conditions they fail to create meaningful a learning environment in schools (Hussain, 2001).

Obstacles as a Result of Community Involvement
Teachers are not given due respect in their society, and thus the teaching profession is constantly losing qualified people in favour of other professions. Only those of low calibre and ability join the teaching profession. Schools are communities in miniature, and teachers are important change agents, mentors, and academic leaders in society. Teachers regularly face negative remarks from parents, as any the poor performance of students is linked to the performance of the teachers (Deaeghere, Williams, & Kyeyune, 2009), without the realisation that the performance of students is also associated with the school administration and parents. It is therefore an injustice only to hold teachers responsible for the bad results of students on examinations. There is a lack of awareness by parents and the community that they are equal stakeholders in the development of the students (Cho & Reich, 2008).

Obstacles as a Result of Overloaded Classes

There are no measures of work in some schools, either due to the ignorance of the administration or lapses by female teachers in setting a procedure for school work. In many schools, mostly in far-flung areas, there is a shortage of female teaching staff, and this situation overburdens other teachers in the schools (Borich & Tombari, 2004) and creates more pressure on teachers, which can have negative impacts on their health. In this context, teachers try to cover the syllabus at the cost of the quality of the teaching and learning. Teachers cannot pay individual attention to many students, even though this is a great psychological and social need for this (Dhillon & Wanjiru, 2013).

Obstacles as a Result of Supervision

The process of supervision is filled with bureaucratic underpinnings. In essence, the purpose of supervision is to develop and improve the performance of teachers and students. Conversely, the process of supervision is characterised by the notion of inspection, during which time supervisors can create an environment of fear (Khong & Eisuke, 2014). The supervisors behave like kings and treat the teachers like slaves and inferiors. This trend has created mistrust and affected the spirit of cooperation among teachers, and between teachers and the administration. Instead of providing constructive feedback, the supervisors give orders to the teachers, and hence no improvement takes place (Cho & Reich, 2008).

Obstacles as a Result of Coordination and Cooperation

The system of education must have a mechanism of coordination. This problem has taken root due to weak communication between policymakers, staff, parents, and the community. The poor coordination in the system has promoted misunderstandings between these stakeholder groups (Hararsh & Kawaldh, 2009). Teachers remain on the receiving end in all areas, such as in the making of the curriculum or any other education policy; that is, teachers participate only in the implementation not in the development. This leads to the creation of a culture of blame. There is even a lack of coordination between teachers and principals (Khong & Saito, 2013).

Obstacles as a Result of the Prevailing Curriculum

Curriculum development is a centralised activity, and schools are supposed to implement the set curriculum without manipulation. In this regard, the teachers' role is that of implementer. They cannot contribute to the curriculum development process or its evaluation, and they are not provided with refresher courses to stay in line with updated syllabi (Cho & Reich, 2008). These factors have left teachers ignorant of many aspects of the curriculum, and this ultimately affects not only their own performance but also the process of teaching and learning in schools. In many cases, teachers are unaware of the aims or goals of the curriculum for certain levels and this creates gaps in the understanding of the curriculum and its effective implementation. However, in developed countries, teachers are invited to participate in the process of curriculum design and development, and indeed their input is considered vital for the improvement of the education system (Deaeghere, Williams, & Kyeyune, 2009).

Obstacles as a Result of Textbooks

Textbooks are a very important aspect of the teaching and learning process, and their development is a highly specialised area of curriculum development. However, school teachers face a problem of instruction due to the non-availability of quality textbooks. Due to the culture of multilingualism and medium of instructions in schools, there is an environment of uncertainty, difficulty, and fatigue, and a lack of understanding by both female teachers and students. Moreover, there is a lack of training of female teachers on how to implement, or explain concepts from, different textbooks (Dhillon & Wanjiru, 2013).

Previous studies

Several researchers (e.g. Alkahtani, 2017; Alzyaa, 2014; Seals et al., 2017; Sentance & Csizmadia, 2017; Tambwe, 2019 *inter alia*) have investigated the challenges that school teachers encounter. For example, Alkahtani (2017) noted that the greatest challenges were the lack of training and the work equipment. Alzyaat (2014) studied the problems of teaching the English language and culture in Jordanian public schools. The sample of this study consisted of a) 400 students: 231 females and 169 males, and b) 50 English language teachers: 37 females and 13 males. Two questionnaires were designed to collect data from the teachers and students, respectively, and a quantitative method was used to analyse the data obtained. The findings showed that the problems of

teaching the culture associated with the English language already existed among students, teachers, and the English language curriculum, which constituted a gap in teaching and learning English.

Elyas and Al Grigri (2014) aimed at identifying the obstacles to teaching English in public schools in Saudi Arabia from the viewpoint of teachers and supervisors. A mixed-method approach was adopted using two instruments for data collection: a closed-ended questionnaire and an open-ended interview, eliciting quantitative and qualitative data. A total of 50 questionnaires were distributed to teachers and supervisors of the English language, and followed up with open-ended interviews with six English language teachers and supervisors. The findings revealed that there was: a scarcity of development programmes and in-service training, weak in-service training programmes, low student motivation, an overuse of traditional teaching methods, infrequent use of teaching aids and modern technology, and a lack of school supplies and language laboratories.

A study by Akasha (2013) aimed to cover the challenges facing Arabic-speaking ESL students and teachers in middle school classrooms. Two Arabic-speaking ESL students and eight teachers in public middle schools in Washington State participated in this exploratory study. The sample consisted of 100 students and 100 teachers. Data sources included teacher and student interviews, classroom observations, and a parent survey. The study concluded that several important challenges for teachers and students exist, including a lack of time, language support, and cultural knowledge.

As far as teaching experience is concerned, Kini and Podolsky (2016) reviewed 30 students concerning how teaching experience increases over time. The researchers concluded that teaching experience is positively associated with students' attendance and achievement. Similarly, Al-Amarat (2017) conducted a study aimed at investigating the classroom problems facing teachers in public schools in Tafila province and the proposed solutions. The sample consisted of 196 teachers and the results indicated that there were many behavioural and academic problems facing these teachers. The study also found statistically significant differences between gender, level of school, and teaching experience in the behavioural problems for males in the basic school and those with less than five years' work experience.

Izadpanah (2011) investigated teachers' opinions and beliefs on the place of target cultural information in English language teaching, as well as related practices and applications in EFL classrooms in the higher education context. The study showed that the teachers mostly defined culture in the sociological sense, such as values and beliefs. Their definitions in the framework of ELT slightly shifted towards more visible culture, such as food and clothing. The study also revealed teachers' positive attitudes towards incorporating cultural information in their instruction.

Awajan (2010) investigated the motivational level of English language teachers in Jordan and identified teachers' motivational factors. To achieve the aim of the study, the researcher used semi-structured interviews and an English language questionnaire. A sample of 100 secondary school teachers from Amman's Second Educational Directorate were randomly selected to respond to the questionnaire. The study showed that they were motivated because they liked their jobs, teaching would help them in their future, teaching gave them security for their families, and it is prestigious to be an English language teacher.

A study by Filter and Horner (2009) investigated the relationship between problem behaviours and academic variables in classrooms. Functional behavioural assessments were conducted with two elementary school fourth graders. Two behavioural support interventions were developed for each participant. One was designed using a competing pathways model that combined behavioural and academic support, and linked the intervention components to the functional assessment results. The second was drawn from the literature. The results indicated that function-based academic interventions resulted in significantly fewer problem behaviours than were observed during non-function-based interventions. The results lend support to the idea that interventions for problem behaviours in the classroom context will be more successful if based on functional behavioural assessments.

Hararsh and Kawaldh (2009) aimed to identify patterns of control implemented by classroom teachers to maintain discipline in the classroom in the Al-Mafraq District of Education. The study sample consisted of 210 teachers who were given a questionnaire covering 35 data items. The results indicated that the patterns of

KHLOUD AL-BDEERAT, BASIL ALQARRALEH, ABDEL RAHMAN M. ALTAKHAINEH

classroom interaction were as follows: proactive type style, insulting, and authoritarian. Furthermore, Clunies-Ross, Little, and Kienhuis (2008) investigated the relationship between primary school teachers' self-reported and actual use of classroom management strategies. The sample consisted of 97 teachers from primary schools in Melbourne, and again data were collected by questionnaire. The findings indicated that teacher self-reports accurately reflected actual practice in that relatively minor forms of student misbehaviours were a common concern for teachers. Teachers spent a considerable amount of time on behavioural management issues. In addition, the findings revealed that the use of predominantly reactive management strategies had a significant relationship with elevated teacher stress and decreased student on-task behaviour.

Hamasha (2000) aimed to identify the administrative problems that faced newly appointed teachers in the first three grades of schools in Irbid and to define these problems in terms of sex and qualifications. The study revealed a significant relationship (α=0.05) in the degree to which administrative problems exist for newly appointed teachers of grades 1-3 due to gender, but there was no significance (α=0.05) in the degree to which administrative problems existed for these teachers due to their qualifications.

Based on the previous literature, it can be concluded that a few studies have examined the problems that face female English language teachers. This study investigates the academic challenges and obstacles faced by English female teachers in secondary schools in the Jordanian setting of Al-Qaser directorate; although it examines the obstacles they face, these are not linked to their gender *per se*. In addition, the Jordanian educational process faces many obstacles related to the nature of the education process, and therefore hard work is needed to bridge the gap between the current educational reality and the desired situation. The significance of this study stems from; firstly, its focus on the types of academic obstacles facing an under-investigated teacher community in Al-Karak province in Jordan, namely female English language teachers. Secondly, its aim to motivate these teachers to face their obstacles and find a solution for them. Finally, this study aims to encourage decision makers to take steps that help these teachers solve such problems. In particular, the study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What level of obstacles is faced by female English teachers in secondary schools at Al-Qaser Directorate of Education from their own perspective?
2. Are there any statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the obstacles faced by female English teachers in secondary schools at Al-Qaser Directorate of Education due to the teachers' experience, age, or qualifications?

Methodology

Population and Sample

The population of the study consisted of all female teachers in secondary schools in the Educational Directorate of Al-Qasar, totalling 250 female teachers, and the study sample was comprised of 150 female teachers who were randomly selected. Table 1 shows the sample distribution.

Table 1
Sample Distribution

	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
	Diploma	20	13.33
Qualification	Bachelor's Degree	100	66.67
	Postgraduate	30	20
	Less than 5 years	40	26.67
Experience	From 5–10 years	80	53.33
	11 and more	30	20
	From 20–25 years	15	10
Age	From 26–34	90	60
	More than 35	45	30

Instruments

A questionnaire was designed consisting of 20 items and three dimensions (see Appendix I), and each question used a five-point Likert scale. To check its validity, the questionnaire was given to a number of experts and professors at Mutah University, and to supervisors and teachers to ascertain the appropriate wording for the questionnaire items. In addition, the validity check led to added items and domains, thus the final instrument contained 29 items and covered five dimensions (school environment, students, community and parents, teachers' skills, and the curriculum). For reliability, Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the stability of the questionnaire and the value obtained was 85.14, which is considered suitable for the study. The participants voluntarily participated in the study and their identities were anonymised.

Procedure

Several steps were taken to conduct this study. First, the necessary permissions were obtained to conduct the study. Second, the study population was identified as female English language teachers in the Al-Qaser Directorate of Education. Third, the questionnaire was prepared and its validity and reliability were extracted. Fourth, the questionnaire was personally distributed to the study sample; 150 questionnaires were returned, which is valid for statistical analysis. Fifth, the data were collected and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences System (SPSS, ver.20). Finally, the results of the study were extracted and discussed, and a set of recommendations were proposed.

Analysis

To analyse the data, means, standard deviation, and a two-way ANOVA were used.

Results and Discussion

Results Related to the First Question

What level of obstacles is faced by female English teachers in secondary schools at Al-Qaser Directorate of Education from their own perspective?

The findings and statistical analysis for this part are illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviation of the First Question

No	Dimensions	Means	Std. Deviation	N
1	School Environment	3.58	1.16	150
2	Students	3.83	1.26	150
3	Community and Parents	3.80	1.25	150
4	Teachers' Skills	3.59	1.19	150
5	Curriculum	3.65	1.24	150
Total		**3.6963**	**1.2266**	**150**

Table 2 shows that the mean average for the answers to the first question (m=3.69) was high and the standard deviation (SD) was 1.22. As shown in Table 1, the student dimension came first (m=3.83), followed by the community and parents dimension (m=3.80), the curriculum dimension (m=3.65), the teachers' skills dimension (m=3.59), and finally the school environment dimension (m=3.58). At the dimension level, the results were as follows:

First Dimension: School Environment
Table 3
Means and SD of the First Dimension

No	Items	Means	SD	N
1	School buildings and environments are not suitable	3.66	1.21	150
2	Emotional and psychological support from the school principal is not enough	3.50	1.11	150
3	Classes are crowded	3.50	1.18	150
4	School facilities are suitable	3.72	1.23	150
5	The classroom is always clean	3.59	1.19	150
6	English language teachers' opinions / suggestions are taken seriously	3.65	1.24	150
7	Safety at school is taken into consideration	3.46	1.16	150
Total		**3.58**	**1.16**	**150**

As shown in Table 3, item 1 'school facilities are suitable' had the highest mean score (m=3.72), while that of 'safety at school is taken into consideration' had the lowest mean score (m=3.46); this means that female teachers faced many challenges in the school environment, for example the lack of safety. Moreover, the insufficient emotional and psychological support from the school principal was also a major stumbling block facing English female teachers. These results reveal that real obstacles were faced by the female English teachers in secondary schools related to the school environment. This may be attributed to the fact that the Directorate is not concerned with the quality of buildings and number of classes, or the lack of appropriate student seating or modern teaching tools. This result is in line with Hussain (2001) who noted that the school environment created many challenges for female teachers since they cannot provide the students with enough good opportunities for learning and development in a meaningful and suitable learning environment.

Second Dimension: Students
Table 4
Means and SD of the Second Dimension

No	Items	Means	SD	N
1	Students understanding what is taught	3.64	1.16	150
2	Neatness/cleanliness of the students	3.83	1.25	150
3	Students' level in English classes	3.91	1.25	150
4	Most learners commonly use mother tongue in school	3.89	1.19	150
5	Pupils have difficulties with English sounds that are not found in their mother tongue	3.90	1.24	150
Total		**3.83**	**1.26**	**150**

As shown in Table 4, the item 'students' level in English classes' had the highest mean score (m=3.91), while the item 'students understanding what is taught' had the lowest (m=3.64). This result may mean that the female teachers faced many challenges in dealing with students, including the fact that most learners used their mother tongue in school and students had difficulties with English sounds not found in their mother tongue. This result reveals that there were real obstacles facing these female English teachers related to their students, who did not care about their English language class and used Arabic as their mother tongue, which made English learning difficult. Additionally, some students could not understand what was being taught and they did not ask for help with the lesson because they did not know the importance of the English language in daily life. This issue can be resolved through making their class environment more engaging and helping them realise the impotence of English Language in their classes and their daily life (Hazaymeh & Altakhaineh, 2019; Zibin & Altakhaineh, 2019).

Third Dimension: Community and Parents
Table 5
Means and SD of the Third Dimension

No	Items	Means	SD	N
1	Parents showing positive attitudes towards English language teachers	3.59	1.15	150
2	Parents are unaware of the importance of English language	4.35	1.16	150
3	Parents cooperate with English language teachers	3.61	1.17	150
4	English language teachers are respected by the community	3.66	1.26	150
Total		**3.80**	**1.25**	**150**

As shown in Table 5, the item 'parents are unaware of the importance of English language' scored the highest (m=4.35), while the item 'parents show positive attitudes towards English language teachers' scored the lowest (m=3.59). This result means that students' parents did not care about their children's English language learning. Therefore, these female English teachers faced serious obstacles related to the community and parents, as the parents did not know the importance of English language, and did not cooperate with the teachers or respect them. This result concur with the findings of Cho and Reich (2008) who noted that there is a lack of awareness by parents and the community that they are partially responsible for their children's behaviour and academic achievements. In a similar vein, the poor coordination between parents and teachers causes delaying in the development of the students (Hararsh & Kawaldh, 2009).

Fourth Dimension: Teachers Skills
Table 6
Means and SD of the Fourth Dimension

No	Items	Means	SD	N
1	Teachers are well prepared to teach English at all levels in high school	3.56	1.15	150
2	There are no conferences related to English language teaching and learning	3.50	1.16	150
3	Teacher needs to enhance workshops on using specific aids for teaching English language	3.68	1.15	150
4	Teachers need many training programmes	3.55	1.17	150
5	English language teachers have a desire to teach	3.56	1.14	150
6	English language teachers have good knowledge and experience with a variety of teaching methods	3.55	1.16	150
7	English language teachers collaborate with each other	3.71	1.14	150
8	EFL teachers have team spirit	3.70	1.15	150
9	English language teachers have knowledge of the language's systems (phonetics, morphology, phonology, and syntax)	3.57	1.16	150
10	English language teachers are aware of English language methods	3.56	1.14	150
Total		3.59	1.19	150

As shown in Table 6, the item 'English language teachers collaborate with each other' scored the highest (m=3.71), while the item 'there are no conferences related to English language teaching and learning' scored the lowest (m=3.50). This result means that the female English language teachers tried to work well, but were faced with many challenges, such as a lack of professional development opportunities related to English language teaching. This result reveals that the female English teachers faced obstacles related to their teaching skills, which may be attributed to the absence of any courses or training workshops for teachers of English. Moreover, when an English teacher is committed to a specific book, she does not gain new experience, and so the teacher faces academic challenges teaching students. These results are in line with Alkahtani (2017) who suggested that the greatest challenges teacher regularly encounter were a lack of training and work equipment.

Fifth Dimension: Curriculum
Table 7
Means and SD of the Fifth Dimension

No	Items	Means	SD	N
1	Pressure from curriculum demands inhibits creative and innovative language teaching	3.63	1.13	150
2	Simultaneously teaching English and Arabic has no effect on acquiring English	3.65	1.13	150
3	Local English varieties are more common as opposed to Standard English	3.66	1.15	150
Total		**3.65**	**1.24**	**150**

Table 7 shows that the mean average for the answers regarding the curriculum was (m=3.65), or high, and the SD was 1.24. Table 7 also shows that the item on local English varieties being more common as opposed to Standard English had the highest score (m=3.66), while the item on pressure from curriculum demands inhibiting creative and innovative language teaching had the lowest (m=3.63). This result means that the curriculum created some challenges for the female English language teachers and reveals that real obstacles were faced by them related to the curriculum. This may be due to the fact that the English language curriculum does not achieve the desired educational goals and that the English language curriculum development was not commensurate with the requirements of the times.

Results Related to the Second Question

Are there any statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leqslant 0.05$) in the obstacles faced by female English teachers in secondary schools in the Al-Qaser Directorate of Education due to teachers' experience, age, or qualifications?

This question is divided into three parts. Firstly, we investigated whether there were any statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leqslant 0.05$) in the obstacles faced due to teachers' experience levels. To answer this question, a one-way ANOVA test was used, as shown in Table 8.

Table 8
One-Way ANOVA Test of the Experience Variable

Variables	Means	SD	F	Sig
Less than 5	3.67	1.16	8.845	0.000
5 to 10	3.69	1.18		
11 and more	3.71	1.15		

Table 8 shows that the (f) value was (8.845) and sig (0.000), which means that there were statistically significant differences in the academic challenges and obstacles faced by these female English teachers due to teachers' experience level. The more experienced the teachers are, the more they are able to meet challenges and resolve problems related to students' achievements (Kini & Podolsky, 2016). In fact, Kini and Podolsky (2016) concluded that teachers continue to improve in their effectiveness as they gain more experience in their teaching profession.

Second, we examined whether there were any statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leqslant 0.05$) in the obstacles faced due to the teachers' age. To answer this question, a one-way ANOVA test was used, as shown in Table 9.

Table 9
One-Way ANOVA Test of the Age Variable

Variables	Means	SD	F	Sig
Less than 5	3.67	1.16	8.845	0.000
26–34 years	3.83	1.12		
35 and more	3.81	1.17		

Table 9 shows that the (f) value was 0.355 and sig 0.785, which means there were no statistically significant differences in the academic challenges and obstacles faced by these female English teachers due to their age.

Third, we investigated whether there were any statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the obstacles faced due to the teacher's qualifications. To answer this question, a one-way ANOVA test was used, as shown in Table 10.

Table 10
One-Way ANOVA Test of the Qualifications Variable

Variables	Means	SD	F	Sig
Diploma	3.44	1.26	2.254	0.106
Bachelor	3.91	1.15		
Postgraduate	3.73	1.18		

Table 10 shows that the (f) value was (2.254) and *p*-value (0.106), which means there were no statistically significant differences in the academic challenges and obstacles faced by the female English teachers due to the teachers' highest education degree. This agrees with Hamasha (2000) who found that there was no significance ($\alpha=0.05$) in the degree to which administrative problems exist for these teachers due to their qualifications.

It is clear that real obstacles were faced by these female English teachers, including school environment, students, community and parents, teachers' skills, and the curriculum. The findings are consistent with those of several other studies. In terms of scarcity and weakness of development and in-service training programmes, the current study agrees with Hamasha (2000) and Clunies-Ross, Little, and Kienhuis (2008). This result may be due to the level of organisation and management applied by the Al-Qaser Directorate not being sufficiently efficient, as there are many obstacles in the school environment, as well as a lack of encouragement and concern among officials for female English teachers.

There were statistically significant differences in the obstacles facing female English teachers due to the their experience levels. This study suggests that the teachers with more experience are able to solve problems and can remove the obstacles and challenges that stand in the way of the educational process. There were no statistically significant differences in the obstacles facing female English teachers due to their age or qualifications, possibly because they face the same obstacles; and being older or more qualified does not necessarily mean they will have a better ability to face challenges and obstacles when teaching English.

Conclusion

The study investigated the obstacles facing female English secondary teachers in the Al-Qaser Directorate of Education in Al-Karak, Jordan. For this purpose, a questionnaire with 29 items covering five domains was distributed. The results of the study showed that many academic challenges and obstacles were faced by the teachers in the student and community/parent domains, as well as the teacher skills, curriculum, and school environment domains. The study results also show that there were statistically significant differences in the challenges and obstacles faced by female English language teachers due to their experience level. In light of these results, it is recommended that more effective strategies be adopted to improve the school environment and ensure the suitability of the psychological situation of female English teachers. It is also recommended that more training courses be conducted to improve teachers' ability to face the challenges and obstacles of the English language teaching process. It is also suggested that there is a need to conduct more research on the challenges faced by English language teachers. Finally, improvements should be made to the infrastructure in secondary schools in general, and in the Al-Qaser Directorate of Education, in particular, in terms of providing adequate classrooms and modern tools for teaching.

Since this study focused on the academic obstacles facing female English language teachers in Al-Karak, further research can be conducted to compare these results with those related to male teachers in order to determine whether both genders encounter the same challenges. Furthermore, studies that examine other types of obstacles such as behavioural ones can also be conducted to explore other areas of difficulties that need to be addressed. Finally, another study could make a comparison between the challenges faced by teachers in public and private schools.

Acknowledgments

Conflict of interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Ahmad, M. (2003). Professional difficulties facing secondary school English language teachers and its effect in classroom performance in northern governorates of Palestine [Unpublished Master's thesis]. Al-najah National University.

Akasha, O. (2013). Exploring the challenges facing Arabic-speaking ESL students & teachers in middle school. *Journal of ELT and Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 12-31.

Al-Amarat, M. (2017). The classroom problems faced teachers at the public schools in Tafila Province, and proposed solutions. *International Journal of Education Sciences*, *3*(1), 37-48. https://doi.org/10.1080/0975112 2.2011.11890007

Alkahtani, A. (2017). The challenges facing the integration of ICT in teaching in Saudi secondary schools. *International Journal of Education and Development using ICT*, *13*(1), 32-51.

Alkhawaldeh, A. (2010). The challenges faced by Jordanian English language teachers at Amman 1st and 2nd directorates of education. *College Student Journal*, *44*(4), 836.

Alzyat, F. (2014). Problems of teaching English language culture in Jordanian public schools [Unpublished Master's thesis]. Middle East University.

Awajan, N. (2010). Factors that enhance English language teachers' motivation in Jordanian secondary public schools [Unpublished Master's thesis]. Middle East University.

Borich, D., & Tombari, L. (2004). Educational assessment for the elementary and middle school classroom (2nd ed.). Pearson Education Inc.

Brown, A.V. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal*, *93*(1), 46-60. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00827.x

Burden, P. (2020). *Classroom management: Creating a successful K-12 learning community*. John Wiley & Sons.

Canagarajah, A. (2012). TESOL at forty: What are the issues? *TESOL Quarterly*, *40*(1), 9-34. https://doi. org/10.2307/40264509

Çelik, S., Arikan, A., & Caner, M. (2013). In the Eyes of Turkish EFL Learners: What makes an effective foreign language teacher? *Online Submission*, *20*, 287-297.

Cho, S., & Reich, G. (2008). New immigrants, new challenges: High school social studies teachers and English language learner instruction. *The Social Studies*, *99*(6). https://doi.org/10.3200/TSSS.99.6.235-242

Clunies-Ross, P., Little, E., & Kienhuis, M. (2008). Self-reported and actual use of proactive and reactive classroom management strategies and their relationship with teacher stress and student behaviour. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *28*(6), 693-710. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410802206700

Deaeghere, J., Williams, R., & Kyeyune, R. (2009). Ugandan secondary school head teachers' efficacy: What kind of training for whom. *International Journal of Educational Development*, *29*(3), 312-320. https://doi. org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2008.03.001

Dhillon, J., & Wanjiru, J. (2013). Challenges and strategies for teachers and learners of English as a second language: The case of an urban primary school in Kenya. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *3*(2), 14-24. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v3n2p14

Elyas, T., & Al Grigri, W. (2014). Obstacles to teaching English in Saudi Arabia public schools: Teacher's and supervisor's perceptions. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, *2*(3), 74-89.

Filter, K., & Horner, R. (2009). Function-based academic interventions for problem behaviour. *Journal of*

Education and Treatment of Children, *32*(1), 1-19.

Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation: Past, present and future. http://publish.uwo.ca/gardner/docs/GardnerPublicLecture1.pdf.

Hamasha, S. (2000). Administrative problems facing the newly appointed teachers in the first three grades in Irbid government schools [Unpublished master's thesis]. Yarmouk University.

Hararsh, M., & Kawaldh, S. (2009). The patterns of control implemented by the classroom teachers in order to maintain disciplinant in the classroom in Al- Mafraq District of Education. *Journal of Damask University*, *25*(1-2), 443-465.

Hazaymeh, W., & Altakhaineh, A. R. M. (2019). The effect of flipped classroom instruction on developing Emirati EFL learners' pragmatic competence. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, *18*(10), 89-111. https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.18.10.6

Hussain, S. (2001). *Education in Pakistan*. Allama Iqbal Open University.

Izadpanah, S. (2011). The review study: The place of culture in English language teaching. *US-China Foreign Language*, *9*(2), 109-116.

Karatas, P., & Karaman, C. (2013). Challenges faced by novice language teachers: Support, identity and pedagogy in the initial years of teaching. *International Journal of Research in Teacher Education*, *4*(3), 10-23.

Khong, T., & Saito, E. (2013). Challenges confronting teachers of English language learners. *Educational Review*, *66*(2), 210-225. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2013.769425

Kini, T., & Podolsky, A. (2016). *Does teaching experience increase teacher effectiveness? A review of the research*. Learning Policy Institute.

Kocabas, I. (2009). The effects of sources of motivation on teachers' motivation levels. *Education Journal*, *129*(4).

Momen, H. (2009). Language and multilingual in scientific communication. *Singapore Medical Journal, 50*(7), 654-656.

Paran, A. (2012). Language skills: Questions for teaching and learning. *ELT Journal*, *66*(4), 450-458. https://doi:10.1093/elt/ccs045

Saeed, M., Ahmad, I., Salam, M., Badshah, R., Ali, S., & ul-Haq, S. (2013). Critical analysis of problems of school teachers in Pakistan: Challenges and possible solutions. *Journal of Education and Practice, 4*(4), 169-175.

Seals, C., Mehta, S., Berzina-Pitcher, I., & Graves-Wolf, L. (2017). Enhancing teacher efficacy for urban STEM Teachers facing challenges to their teaching. *Journal of Urban Learning, Teaching, and Research*, *13*, 135-146.

Sentance, S., & Csizmadia, A. (2017). Computing in the curriculum: Challenges and strategies from a teacher's perspective. *Education and Information Technologies*, *22*(2), 469-495. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-016-9482-0

Tambwe, M. A. (2019). Challenges facing the implementation of a competency-based education and training (CBET) system in Tanzanian technical institutions. In J. Lugalla & J. Ngwaru (Eds.), *Education in Tanzania in the era of globalisation: Challenges and opportunities* (pp. 242-255). Mkuki na Nyota. https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctvh8r02h.24

Teevno, R. (2011). Challenges in teaching and learning of English at secondary level class X. *International Journal of Human Resource Studies*, *1*(2), 27-35. https://doi.org/10.5296/ijhrs.v1i2.1029

Warsi, J. (2004). Conditions under which English is taught in Pakistan: An applied linguistic perspective. *SARID Journal*, *1*(1), 1-9.

Zibin, A., & Altakhaineh, A. R. M. (2019). The effect of blended learning on the development of clause combining as an aspect of the acquisition of written discourse by Jordanian learners of English as a foreign language. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, *35*(2), 256-267. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.12327.

Exploring EFL Teachers' Classroom Management: The Case of Indonesian Remote Secondary Schools

Kaspul Anwar[1], M. Faruq Ubaidillah[2], Urip Sulistiyo[3]

[1]STAI Ahsanta Jambi

[2]Universitas Negeri Malang

[3]Universitas Jambi

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Kaspul Anwar, English Education Department, STAI Ahsanta Jambi, Jambi, Indonesia. E-mail: kaspulanwar.as@gmail.com

Geared by the scant number of studies on EFL teachers' classroom management in remote secondary schools in Indonesia, this study seeks to investigate teachers' involvement in classroom management complexities and to what extent they deal with such predicaments. Data were collected through interviews with the teachers within three months and analyzed narratively. The findings suggest that they encountered multi-facet complexities such as (a) lacking learning facilities in terms of electricity supply, (b) students' demotivation and inability to use English, and (c) teachers' dilemmas in applying the new curriculum. To deal with such quandaries, the teachers made use of (a) a teacher-centered approach, (b) group learning, (c) students' row seating positions, and (d) non-integrated language skills learning. The implications of this study are discussed at the end of the paper.

Keywords: Case study, classroom management, EFL teacher, secondary school

Introduction

This study seeks to construe how four Indonesian EFL teachers dealt with complexities they encountered in terms of classroom management in remote secondary schools and to what extent they employed strategies for solving the problems. We reported on a case study to uncover the phenomenon since this approach caters to a wide array of portrayals of the participants' voices, agencies, and enactment in their classroom management discourses. In relation to this, scholars have recently explored how classroom management is geared by teachers (see, for example, Egeberg, Mcconney, & Price, 2016; Eisenman, Edwards, & Cushman, 2015; George, Sakirudeen, & Sunday, 2017; Jalali & Panahzade, 2014; Kubat, 2018; Liu & Babchuk, 2018; Selcuk, Kadi, Yildirim, & Celebi, 2017). The results have informed uniform findings that classroom management is essential for teacher-student interactions and negotiations (Dikmenli & Çifç, 2016).

Theoretically, studies on classroom management deal with several aspects concerning the organization of classwork such as relationships with parents, teaching materials, overcrowded classrooms, seating arrangements, noise, and social-cultural activities (Macías 2018). This is consistent with the research reported by Sieberer-Nagler (2016), which unveiled that the teacher's roles in the classroom encompass implications for classroom management, including creating the setting, decorating the room, arranging the chairs, speaking to children and handling their responses, putting routines in place, developing rules, and communicating those rules to students. Furthermore, Aliakbari and Heidarzadi (2015) affirmed that investigating teachers' competence in managing a classroom is crucial. The reason is that teacher performance in the class and strategies used to manage the class play a pivotal role in influencing the achievement and learning of students. Previously, Pedota (2016) found that effective classroom management strategies such as motivating, challenging, and engaging students will not only help improve the students' behavior in their academic endeavors but also provide the key for students to understand how to act morally and ethically in society.

22

Anchored by the aforementioned rationales, the purposes of this case study are to examine (1) what complexities the teachers encounter in the context of classroom management and (2) what strategies they employ to deal with such problems during their classes. A recent study about classroom management in the Indonesian context has been previously carried out by Habibi et al. (2017, 2018) who listed six emerging issues related to classroom management, including (1) teachers' attitudes toward new technology for teaching, (2) schools' inadequate equipment, (3) too many students, (4) small rooms, (5) students' insufficient amounts of practice, and (6) too many students. However, these studies have yet to specifically focus on foreign language education in remote areas. Identifying the problems of teaching English at secondary schools in terms of how the teachers manage their classrooms is needed to bring some insights into what should be done by the teachers to better improve their quality of teaching. An in-depth study researching how EFL teachers struggle when working with their students in remote schools would inform policymakers with some perspectives on how to support the teachers with adequate teaching and learning resources as it was reported by Rahmadi and Istiqamah (2016) that educational inequality between remote areas and urban cities does exist. To fill this gap in the literature about teaching English in remote schools, we explored the EFL classroom management of secondary school teachers within a remote area of Indonesia, including problems encountered and strategies they employed to deal with them. The research questions were twofold: 1) in the context of classroom management, what complexities do the teachers encounter? and 2) what strategies do they employ to deal with such problems during their classes?

Literature Review

Research Focus on Classroom Management in General and in EFL Contexts

Almost three decades ago, Brophy (1988) defined classroom management as "the action taken to create and maintain a learning environment conducive to the attainment of the goals of instruction - arranging the physical environment of the classroom, establishing rules and procedures, maintaining attention to lessons and engagement in academic activities" (p. 2). In the context of Indonesia, the Ministry of National Educations in 2013 announced that classroom management is a set of procedures and skills that allows a teacher to control students effectively to create a positive learning environment for all. In a recent study, Liu and Babchuk (2018) conveyed that classroom management is related to the complicated and dynamic interaction between students and teachers in the process of promoting academic, social, and emotional development in a classroom setting. This is why "teachers must deal with unexpected events and control the students' behavior using effective classroom management strategies" (Sieberer-Nagler, 2016, p. 163).

Furthermore, two decades ago, Martin, Yin, and Baldwin (1998) divided classroom management into three main areas or dimensions, namely instructional management, people management, and behavior management. In the revised and revisited study, Martin, Yin, and Mayall (2008) contended that these three dimensions work together to create teachers' classroom management styles and guide their efforts to attain appropriate instructional objectives. According to Martin et al. (2008), instructional management includes all aspects such as overseeing seat work, organizing daily routines, and distributing materials, while the people management dimension pertains to what teachers believe about students as persons and what teachers do to develop the teacher-student relationship. Although related to discipline, the behavior management dimension is different in that it focuses on pre-planned efforts to prevent misbehavior rather than the teacher's response to it. Specifically, Martin et al. (2008) explained, "this facet including establishing rules, forming a reward structure, and providing opportunities for student input" (p. 11). Additionally, after a few changes, Martin and Sass (2010) developed a new classroom classification that consists of behavior management and instructional management. Thus, Sass, Lopes, Oliveira, and Martin (2016), in a study about the evaluation of behavior and instructional management, found that some aspects related to behavior and instructional management include student control, instructional style, setting rules, and the regulation of student misbehavior.

On the other hand, Sieberer-Nagler (2016) revealed that the most critical concerns related to classroom management are discipline, students' motivation, students' social and emotional problems, support from parents, and violence. For a productive learning environment, "it is also important to generate goodwill, respect, and cooperation" (p. 163–164). Habibi et al. (2018) stated that the beneficial outcome of proper

management in the classroom enables the comfort of the learning and teaching process. Similarly, Billingsley, McKenzie, and Scheuermann (2018) uncovered that a poorly managed classroom that relies solely on reactive consequences for student misbehavior was often associated with a multitude of adverse student outcomes.

To the best of our data and knowledge, many studies have discussed classroom management in the context of EFL and ESL classrooms (Aliakbari & Heidarzadi, 2015; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Haukås, 2016; Kazemi & Soleimani, 2016). For instance, in a study investigating the relationship between EFL teachers' classroom management approaches and the dominant teaching style, Aliakbari and Heidarzadi (2015) revealed that classroom management approaches and teaching styles are related to one another. Furthermore, reflecting on ESL teachers' beliefs in classroom practices, Farrell and Bennis (2013) investigated and compared teachers' beliefs by observing classroom practices. They found that teachers' beliefs were not always realized in classroom practices but were directly related to the context of teaching. The study also unveiled that language teachers need to be challenged to reflect on teachers' existing beliefs and their classroom teaching practices.

In terms of a study about problems and coping strategies for EFL classroom management, Merç and Subaşı (2015) elaborated on classroom management problems and coping strategies of Turkish teachers. Their study reported that classroom management is very much needed for an effective teaching-learning process. They also argued that effective teaching and management activities are one of the most significant variables in the teaching and learning process. Merc and Subasi further argued that by learning classroom management efficacy, teachers as educators and educational researchers could design effective teaching practices. More specifically, in a study investigating students' attitudes toward teachers' affective factors in EFL classrooms, Ranjbar (2016) found that teachers' self-confidence, culture, attitude toward native English speakers and the language, lack of anxiety (class and topic management), and motivation are the affective factors that most affect students' English language learning.

The Current Condition of Schools in Remote Areas of Indonesia

In the context of Indonesia, remote areas are defined as areas that prioritize agriculture as their principal economic activity, including natural management with the structure of functional areas for rural settlements, governments, and social services, such as schools (Mulyana, 2014). Furthermore, according to Luschei and Zubaidah (2012), studies about teacher training in rural Indonesian schools reported that many educational institutions in Indonesia are located in remote areas. In these remote areas, teachers face unique and challenging working conditions, including the need to teach "multi-grade" classes that combine children of different ages, grades, and abilities. Additionally, a teacher in a remote area may have difficulty managing small-group activities in their classes. Many teachers, as the respondents in this study, did not receive any training on how to teach effectively. Simultaneously, some teachers designed their own learning materials. Rahmadi and Istiqamah (2016) found that the gap in educational quality between remote areas and urban cities is immense. People who live in remote areas do not have access to equal educational quality due to the limited teacher resources and educational provisions.

Several problems were found in the Indonesian educational context, such as (a) teachers teaching multi-grade classes, (b) too many students, (c) poor school facilities, (d) inadequate infrastructure, and (e) demotivated teachers (Oplatka, 2007). Furthermore, issues such as "(1) handling large-sized classes, (2) limited space and resources, and (3) the lack of requirements to teach different content to children with different abilities in the same classroom" also emerged (Luschei & Zubaidah, 2012, p. 342). In remote areas of Indonesia, the teacher is more likely to teach multiple subjects, making it possible that they were highly qualified in only some of the subjects they teach. However, it is difficult to recruit and retain new teachers not just because of the highly qualified teacher requirement, but because of their unique teaching conditions. The teacher must not only have the required credentials but should also be aware of the nature of small schools and their facilities (Barley & Brigham, 2008).

In response to the issues discussed earlier, we attempt to portray how teachers in remote-based schools enact classroom management. We will focus on English as a foreign language teaching since research in this area has not been explicitly explored in the Indonesian remote school contexts. In sum, we argue that researching classroom management in remote schools will yield new perspectives for teacher training programs and policymakers since teaching in remote areas will be attributed to teachers' professional identity development,

materials use, student engagement, and policy enactment. These factors are critical for investigation in the teacher education context. Although previous studies have explored classroom management in schooling sectors (Habibi et al., 2017; 2018), unfortunately, they have not specifically discerned foreign language learning in remote areas such as English language teaching. Thereby, this study seeks to investigate remote areas EFL classroom management. To guide the study, two research questions were put forth: 1) in the context of classroom management, what complexities do the teachers in remote areas encounter? and 2) what strategies do they employ to deal with such problems during their classes?

Method

This study employed a qualitative case study approach (Creswell, 2012; Elliott, 2005; Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2013; O'Donoghue & Punch, 2003) to explore the EFL classroom management of secondary school teachers in remote areas of Indonesia, including problems and coping strategies. Creswell (2012) asserted that case studies are generally conducted to explore situated phenomena in natural settings. The present study focused on exploring the EFL classroom management of secondary school teachers, including problems and coping strategies at two secondary schools in Jambi, Indonesia. Next, we introduce the research site and the four participants, with pseudonyms for anonymity. Then, we describe the data sources and analysis.

Research Site and Participant Recruiting Procedure

We conducted the study at two secondary schools in remote areas of the Jambi Municipality, the southern part of Sumatra Island, Indonesia. The schools selected were based on purposeful sampling with a convenient case strategy. This sampling procedure was used to access the existing data with ease (Creswell, 2012).

Table 1
Participants' Background Information

No	Names	Age	Bachelor Degree	Masters Degree	Current Status	Experience
1	Nana	53	Major	Major	Handles 3 classes	<15 years
2	Nani	48	Major	None	Handles 3 classes	<15 years
3	Rina	56	Major	None	Handles 4 classes	<15 years
4	Rini	47	Major	Non-Major	Handles 3 classes	<15 years

Prior to commencing the study, we obtained permission from the National Unity and Politics Agency (Kesbangpol) of Jambi Province, Indonesia. Regarding research ethics, the participants were asked to read, complete, and sign a consent form that indicated they willingly volunteered their time for the study, and they also reserved the right to withdraw their participation in any phases of this research. The participants involved in this study were four English teachers from two secondary schools. Their names were made into the pseudonyms Nana, Nani, Rina, and Rini (see Table 1). All the teachers have been teaching English in public secondary schools in Jambi Municipality.

Data Collection

Empirical data were collected through individual semi-structured interviews. Each session of the face-to-face interviews was recorded using a smartphone for a period of 30-45 minutes. The interviews were conducted using the participants' national language (Bahasa Indonesia) to avoid misunderstandings and to expand the understanding of the phenomena investigated in this study. During the interview, we asked the teacher participants about problems they faced in teaching English at secondary schools. These problems were related to student learning behavior during teaching and learning processes, a common problem encountered by students for speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills, teachers' comments regarding problems faced with the teaching materials, teaching performance, and school support. Then we asked how they deal with such problems.

Data Analysis

To analyze the data, pattern coding proposed by Miles et al. (2013) was employed, whereby we developed provisional codes based on the research questions that were addressed by the topics and questions from the interviews. Coding helped in constructing effective labeling and retrieving data processes (Miles et al., 2013). All the transcripts among the four participants were analyzed and compared to identify similarities and differences, reread line-by-line in order to find regularities and emerging themes as well as sub-themes among the data (Jati, Fauziati, & Wijayanto, 2019; Muyassaroh, Asib, & Marmanto, 2019). In this process, we first read the transcripts to obtain a global understanding of the interview results. Afterwards, we grouped similar data into one theme based on our global view of the interview results. In grouping the data, we opted for the most salient voices which were, from our perspective, closer to the emerging themes.

Trustworthiness

To ensure the integrity of the research, Lincoln and Guba (1990) proposed that researchers need to do members checks by returning copies of the interview data, findings, and final report to each participant. This approach was carried out to guarantee that each participant agreed with the data that was extracted from them, which also allowed the researchers to use the data in the present study. This process ensured that our data were valid and reliable for qualitative interpretations.

Results and Discussion

Problems of Teaching English at Secondary Schools

In light of the participants' data obtained from the interviews, the analysis revealed that the teachers encountered multiple problems in teaching English at secondary schools. The areas where the teachers faced problems in the process of managing their classrooms were (a) learning facilities in terms of electricity supply, (b) students' interest and ability in English, and (c) teachers' pedagogical knowledge.

Lack of Electricity Supply

One of the problems that the teachers faced was a shortage of learning facilities in terms of electricity resources to support their teaching strategies. The teachers in this study complained that even though their school met a certain high and medium standard of school management and quality, not all classes in their school had electricity support. This situation makes teaching activities challenging. This situation is reflected in Nana's statement. She shared:

> The use of additional tools to support teaching strategies is not very diverse; for example, the use of LCDs and the internet due to a lack of electricity resources. (Nana)

In a similar vein, Nani also commented on a similar condition she has to face when dealing with the use of electricity to support her teaching using media. It is depicted in her comment:

> As a teacher, I really want to teach using media to help students achieve their goals of learning. However, my school is located in the suburbs with limited electricity supply so I can not rely much on the power supply, so I use conventional nonelectronic media. (Nani)

Rini, one of the teachers who was frustrated with this situation, expressed her frustration in the following comment:

> Electricity supply and internet access are very limited. I try to do my best so that students understand the material I provide with these limitations. (Rini)

In line with Rini, Rina, another teacher participant, mentioned that it is a bit hard for her school to compete with other schools in the city as her school is in suburban areas that have less electricity supply. She contended:

> The school is equipped with computers and projectors to help teachers deliver his or her teaching materials to the students, but without adequate power to turn them on, all of the equipment becomes useless. (Rina)

The problem faced by the teachers in this present study, in the context of lack of electricity supply, was also found in other studies conducted in the Indonesian context (e.g., Febriana, Nurkamto, Rochsantiningsih, & Muhtia, 2018; Mulyana, 2014; Rahmadi & Istiqamah, 2016). Hence, the complaints of these teachers are also quite reasonable. Livingstone (2012) examined the importance of integrating ICT and the internet in education in general and its relation to language teaching and found that (a) it is used to enable the widespread sharing of valuable resources in both traditional and interactive forms, affording the means of collaborative learning distributed over time and place as needed and (b) it is enacted for the learning of foreign languages with special educational needs. Meiring and Norman (2005) also reported that ICT plays a significant role in both enabling and enhancing the foreign language learning experience of students with special educational needs. Additionally, integrating ICT in ESL/EFL is a trend nowadays. Finally, Young (2003) suggested that the policy, curriculum, design, pedagogy, and the whole school supporting system (e.g., electricity and internet) should be updated and reinforced.

Students' Interests and Ability in English

The students' backgrounds and students' interest in learning English have contributed to creating difficulties for Nani, Rina, and Rini when they are teaching English to students. This is similar to what Madalińska-Michalak and Bavli (2018) found in their study about challenges in teaching EFL in Poland and Turkey. They revealed that some of the students' fear to speak and answer questions were associated with the students' background and other factors outside the classroom. Many students, especially those from low-socio-economic backgrounds, experienced familial challenges and faced other stressful factors such as limited vocabulary and a lack of confidence that kept them from performing well in the classroom. This was also experienced by teacher participants in the present study. Nani, Rina, and Rini reported that one of the problems they faced was that their students were not enthusiastic in the learning process, lazy about doing homework, and feared performing in front of the class. They reported that the students from middle to lower-income family backgrounds tend to have less engagement, a lack of attention, and less willingness and motivation to learn. It is depicted in these three narratives:

> From the independent tasks given to the students, I found some students dis not finish their assignments [reason] lack of attention (engagements) from their parents (Nani).

Most of the students in my class came from middle to lower economic backgrounds. This is why I think most of them are not enthusiastic about the learning process (Rina).

On the other hand, Nana, another teacher participant in this study, found that the low willingness of the students to learn English is because this language is not used in daily conversation.

> English is a foreign language for the students, and they feel that they will not use English in their daily lives. (Nana).

What the teacher participants tried to explain in this study is commonly held, especially in countries where English is not spoken as the students' first language (Souriyavongsa, Rany, Abidin, & Mei, 2013).

To sum up, the teachers' problems with the students' background and interest in learning English in this study corroborate recent studies such as parents' lack of engagement in education (Ceka & Murati, 2016), parents' low involvement in children's English education, students' unwillingness to communicate (Lee & Hsieh, 2019; Riasati, 2018; Riasati & Rahimi, 2018), students' low motivation for learning EFL (Liu, 2020), and language barriers between mother tongue and English as a foreign language (Saneka & Witt, 2019; Souriyavongsa, Rany, Abidin, & Mei, 2013).

On the other hand, Nani was the only one who faced the problem of the students' ability to understand English lessons. She articulated this in the following comment:

My students have difficulty pronouncing English words. These words are new to them; that is why these students need help to pronounce the words correctly (Nani).

This finding is also confirmed by Boakye and Ampiah (2017), who found that students were handicapped because of their inadequate knowledge of the English language and because they did not have the basic knowledge expected of them. In the Indonesian context, this finding is also similar to what Sayuri (2016) found in fresh pre-service teachers. The study conveyed that among 24 challenges in learning English, pronouncing English words was deemed the most difficult part. These challenges occur because they did not having self-confidence, were afraid of making mistakes, experienced shyness around others, felt nervous, were inhabit in speaking English, and practiced infrequently.

Teachers' Difficulties Applying the 2013 Curriculum

Concerning the implementation of 2013 curriculum, three of the teacher participants reported some problems in the implementation of the curriculum. Nana, for example, encountered complexities when enacting the curriculum. She reported that she experienced difficulties applying the curriculum when her students had low abilities and poor proficiency in English. Nana explained:

I still use the KTSP curriculum. In these models, students are introduced to the skill of listening first, then speaking, followed by reading and writing. This is not effective, but I am forced to do it because my students are not ready to learn the English language all in once (Nana).

This is the reason why she still applies the KTSP (henceforth, School-Based Curriculum, or SBC) curriculum framework. Applying the KTSP framework gives her the opportunity to teach English skills separately rather than using the 2013 curriculum framework, which requires the teachers to teach English skills via an integrated approach. What is reported in this study confirms the findings of previous research conducted by Widiati, Suryati, and Nurhayati (2018), who uncovered that in the real field of teaching, teachers face various challenges, including planning and implementing a lesson based on the 2013 curriculum. However, teachers' dilemmas uncovered in this study stem from their inadequate professional learning (Qoyyimah, Singh, Doherty, & Exley, 2019) and because of their lack of commitment to implementing the curriculum (Park & Sung, 2013).

Rina and Rini also experienced some difficulties implementing the 2013 curriculum in their classrooms. They pointed out that:

The 2013 curriculum requires the teachers to integrate the four skills of English into one learning activity. It is not easy to do that with poor facilities and learning support (Rina).

As an English teacher, I need training about the newest curriculum, but I teach in a remote area, which made me have less opportunity to get the training. It seems that the government does not prioritize the teachers from remote schools to have training or a workshop regarding the curriculum (Rini).

This finding indicates that teachers do not yet have sufficient qualifications to implement the 2013 curriculum. Therefore, it is important for the government, in this case, the Ministry of Education and Culture (henceforth, MoEC) to provide equitable training for teachers to help them implement the new curriculum (Sulistiyo, 2016; Sulistiyo, Haryanto, Widodo, & Elyas, 2019; Yuwono, 2005).

Teachers' Coping Strategies

Coping with a Lack of Electricity Supply
In the context of dealing with electrical problems, aside from students' backgrounds and the low interest in learning English faced by Nani, Rina, and Rini, students' poor understanding, and teachers' weak pedagogical practice, the teacher participants in this study copied learning material, prepared pictures and videos from home and brought them to the class, which enabled them to improvise some of the needed materials to support their teaching strategies. These strategies were used by teachers since their schools do not provide sufficient electricity for computers, internet, and other audio-video facilities. Therefore, what the teachers did in this

study aimed to select texts and activities at precisely the right level for the students, as what was found by Howard and Major, 2004. It is depicted in a conversation with Rini:

> I usually look for and prepare sources of learning materials at home. For example, I have printed pictures from home. For listening, I download the sources from YouTube, then to play it, I use portable speakers. (Rini)

On the other hand, Nani made use of nonelectrical teaching devices to cope with the problem.

> My school is located in the suburbs with limited electricity supply and I can not rely much on the power supply, so I use conventional nonelectrical media. (Nani)

Despite the lack of electricity to implement ICT in the learning process, teachers are required to think creatively, including utilizing appropriate alternative learning media with their students, even traditional media, as Nani did. Theoretically, creative thinking in teaching "will enable the students to solve problems in both educational and personal contexts effectively" (Kettler & Lamb, 2018, p. 164). Additionally, according to Bajracharya (2016), the choices of the teacher to choose conventional media in the learning process is still effective because of its ease of use and low cost.

Coping with Students' Low Interest and Ability in English

In terms of students' interest and ability to learn English, the teachers had different solutions to solve these problems. For instance, Nani and Rini encouraged students in the learning process by inviting high and low-achieving students to take part in small groups discussions. The goal was that one or two students who were active in the group could motivate their friends. These groups competed and indirectly encouraged students to be actively involved in the class. This strategy is depicted in Nani's and Rini's narratives:

> Working in a small group is one of my ways to encourage students to learn English in a more interesting way. (Nani)

> Engaging students is very challenging, but by having them learn in a group, it will make teacher's job easier. (Rini)

What has been done by Nani and Rini is in line with what is contended by Gremmen, van den Berg, Segers, and Cillessen (2016) who said that the goal of putting students into a small group was to provoke cooperation among the students. More importantly, the goal of grouping students is also to promote the quality of instruction and help students develop positive attitudes as well as to improve student achievement (Liu, 2008).

Meanwhile, Rina shared her way of dealing with such problems. To motivate students who did not actively participate in the class, she contended that the low-achieving students should be seated in the front row so that they were more focused and concentrated during the learning process. She commented that:

Seating the low-achiever students in the front row will help them concentrate and focus on the learning activities. This strategy works effectively to engage students in your teaching and learning activities. (Rina)

What Rina did was to utilize pedagogical approaches that support students' effective learning (Sentance & Csizmadia, 2017). However, based on the theory of classroom management in language teaching (Wright, 2005), the model of seating arrangement applied by the teacher in this study was known as the traditional rows model. Seating the students in fixed rows creates fewer opportunities for interactions and collaborative work (Contreas León & Chapetón Castro, 2017), and the number of interactions among students and teachers is ofter reduced (Correa, Lara, Pino, & Vera, 2017).

On the other hand, to deal with the students' inability to understand English lessons, Nani reported that, in this situation, she applied a teacher-centered approach. With this approach, she acted as a model for pronouncing and spelling English words well in front of the students. She pointed out that:

> The teacher acting as a role model in teaching and learning activities is an effective way to engage students for learning English in the classroom. (Nani)

In the EFL context, what was done and used by Nani (a teacher-centered approach) is known as a traditional method (Jeon & Hahn, 2007). However, the approach practiced by Nani in this study indicates the pattern of needs, beliefs, and behaviors that she believes can solve the problems in the classroom. Geared by a multidimensional construct framework (Grasha, 1996), teachers with a personal model teaching style make an effort to provide personal examples to teach the material and establish a prototype to instruct learners how to think and behave, demonstrate how to do things by acting as a role model, and encourage learners to observe and then to imitate them (Aliasin, Saeedi, & Pineh, 2019).

Coping with the Curriculum Dilemma
Nana explained that she did not apply the 2013 curriculum because her students were not ready yet to learn English skills via an integrated approach. This is why she chose to teach the English skills separately in accordance with the KTSP curriculum instead of the more recent 2013 curriculum. In line with Nana, Rina preferred using the previous curriculum to teach English to her students. She reported that:

> It is difficult to implement the new curriculum, so I just teach English skills separately in accordance with the KTSP curriculum. (Rina)

On the other hand, Rini has taken the initiative to learn about the 2013 curriculum by joining the English subject teacher's association (MGMP), where the English teachers in nearby areas can share information regarding the 2013 curriculum. She explained:

> I joined the local English teachers' association to get information on how to implement the 2013 English curriculum. (Rini)

The initiative undertaken by Rini was indeed necessary. With limited access to formal training provided by the government, choosing to join the MGMP was a good decision. Indriati (2018) argued that the MGMP focuses on supporting teachers to achieve their learning goals as well as supporting teacher professional development (Yulia, 2017). The MGMP sets five criteria for the success of the organization. They are (1) to encourage teachers to improve their ability and skill to plan and implement meaningful and joyful learning activities as well as build good characteristics among teachers and students; (2) to share experiences and give feedback between teachers such as problems faced by teachers when implementing their daily responsibilities and to propose solutions in accordance with the characteristics of the subject matter, teachers, school conditions, and communities; (3) to improve teachers' knowledge, skill, and behavior as well as their performances both in and out of the school or classroom including the implementation of the curriculum, character building, and the development of science and technology; (4) to provide teachers with opportunities to express their ideas through classroom action research; and (5) to develop some cooperation with other institutions and governments, as well to conduct conducive, effective, and enjoyable teaching and learning processes (Indriati, 2018).

This study has indicated that the teachers generally used various teaching strategies to deal with their problems in teaching English at remote secondary schools in Indonesia (Boakye & Ampiah, 2017; He & Cooper, 2011). They also employed diverse learning resources to cope with the limited support for teaching and learning in their schools, particularly for their professional development. In addition, teachers' active participation in the MGMP is also contributive for improving their teaching methodology and materials development.

Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the EFL classroom management of secondary school teachers within a remote area of Indonesia, including their problems and the coping strategies they employed. We argued that identifying the significant problems of teaching English at secondary schools in Indonesia drives us to respond to the question of what should be done in order to support teachers performing their role of teaching EFL in remote schools.

Interestingly, apart from all of the problems faced by the teachers in this study, such as (a) learning facilities in terms of electricity supply, (b) students' low interest and ability in English, and (c) teachers' problems applying the new curriculum, we found that the most significant problem appeared to be themselves. This is indicated by the problems they faced and the ways they dealt with them. Their actions showed that their pedagogical knowledge and practices are inadequate. For instance, the teachers in this study still used traditional approaches in their teaching (e.g., a teacher-centered approach and sitting the students in rows).

Therefore, it is crucial for future teacher training programs to prepare teachers with adequate pedagogical knowledge and practice. More importantly, this underpinning idea should be further built through pre-service teacher programs (Chen & Goh, 2011), including teaching knowledge, such as subject matter, pedagogy, and pedagogical content knowledge, and also teachers' professional digital competencies to support learner motivation and learner autonomy (Fernandez, 2014; Khotimah, Widiati, Mustofa, & Ubaidillah, 2019; Madalińska-Michalak & Bavli, 2018).

Furthermore, based on the findings of this study, practically, this study recommends that (1) teachers prepare manual learning media such as pictures and videos from home to overcome the lack of electricity supply in their schools, (2) the teachers need to identify their students' learning styles so the approach they use in teaching can be adjusted to their students' learning styles, and (3) in doing so, teachers have greater potential to experience and apply various models of learning practices that can motivate students to learn.

To conclude, although this paper focused on EFL classroom management in Indonesia, teachers in other EFL countries may also face similar problems. Therefore, the results of this study may have implications for educational administrators and educational policymakers with information regarding teachers' problems of teaching EFL at remote secondary schools. For the government, in this case, the Ministry of Education and Culture (MoEC) must conduct equitable training for teachers to have the ability to implement the 2013 curriculum, both in cities and in remote areas. However, if the government cannot cover all these teachers, then it needs to consider supporting the MGMP because this organization is able to reach teachers in remote areas.

Moreover, the results can cater to future teachers and help develop teacher training programs' insights into the factors that may impact the practice of classroom management. Additionally, the findings of this study also have implications for educational policymakers to help them match teacher training programs to practices and develop their conceptual understanding of management for successful teaching.

Despite the best attempts to conduct the current research, some limitations need to be acknowledged by other researchers who are willing to conduct the study in the area of teaching English in remote schools. Firstly, this study was conducted with a limited number of participants who teach EFL in secondary schools in remote areas. Thus, the findings of the study need to be verified with a larger number of participants across different provinces in Indonesia to achieve more generalizable results, including involving the students as participants. Secondly, this study examined the teachers' problems related to their classroom management practice using a qualitative case study (interview); therefore, further research can be conducted using other instruments such as questionnaires, open-ended questionnaires, and observation to verify the findings.

Conflict of Interest

Acknowledgments

References

Aliakbari, M., & Bozorgmanesh, B. (2015). Assertive classroom management strategies and students' performance : The case of EFL classroom. *Cogent Education*, *4*(1), 1012899. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2015.1012899

Aliakbari, M., & Heidarzadi, M. (2015). The relationship between EFL teachers ' beliefs and actual practices of classroom management. *Cogent Education*, *4*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2015.1039255

Aliasin, S. H., Saeedi, Z., & Pineh, A. J. (2019). The relationship between EFL teachers' perception of Task-Based Language Teaching and their dominant teaching style. *Cogent Education*, *6*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1589413

Alnefaie, S. K. (2016). Teachers ' role in the development of EFL curriculum in Saudi Arabia: The marginalised status. *Cogent Education*, *62*(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2016.1240008

Bajracharya, J. R. (2016). Strength of traditional and social media in education: A review of the literature. *IOSR Journal of Research and Method in Education*, *6*(6), 13-21.

Barley, Z., A., & Brigham, N. (2008). *Preparing teachers to teach in rural schools* [Report]. http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/edlabs

Billingsley, G. M., McKenzie, J. M., & Scheuermann, B. K. (2018). The effects of a structured classroom management system in secondary resource classrooms. *Exceptionality*, *26*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/09362835.2018.1522257

Boakye, C., & Ampiah, J. G. (2017). Challenges and solutions: The experiences of newly qualified science teachers. *SAGE Open*, *7*(2). https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244017706710

Brophy, J. (1988). Educating teachers about managing classrooms and students. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *4*(1), 1-18. https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(88)90020-0

Ceka, A., & Murati, R. (2016). Parents' perspectives: The role of parents in the education of their children. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(5), 61–64. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1440-1819.1952.tb01331.x

Chen, Z., & Goh, C. (2011). Teaching oral English in higher education: Challenges to EFL teachers. *Teaching in Higher Education*, *16*(3), 333–345. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2010.546527

Contreas León, J. J., & Chapetón Castro, C. M. (2017). Transforming EFL classroom practices and promoting students' empowerment: Collaborative learning from a dialogical approach. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *19*(2), 135–149. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.15446/profile.v19n2.57811

Correa, R., Lara, E., Pino, P., & Vera, T. (2017). Relationship between group seating arrangement in the classroom and student participation in speaking activities in EFL classes at a secondary school in Chile. *Folios*, *45*, 145–158.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Pearson.

Dikmenli, Y., & Çifç, T. (2016). Geography teachers' attitudes and beliefs regarding classroom management. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *5*(2), 283–291. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v5n2p283

Egeberg, H. M., Mcconney, A., & Price, A. (2016). Classroom management and national professional standards for teachers : A review of the literature on theory and practice. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *41*(7), 1–18. http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2016v41n7.1

Eisenman, G., Edwards, S., & Cushman, C. A. (2015). Bringing reality to classroom management in teacher education. *The Professional Educator*, *39*(1), 1–12.

Elliott, J. (2005). *Using narrative in social research: Qualitative and quantitative research.* SAGE.

Farrell, T. S. C., & Bennis, K. (2013). Reflecting on ESL teacher beliefs and classroom practices: A case study. *RELC Journal*, *44*(2), 163–176. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688213488463

Febriana, M., Nurkamto, J., Rochsantiningsih, D., & Muhtia, A. (2018). Teaching in rural Indonesian schools: Teachers' challenges. *International Journal of Multicultural and Multireligious Understanding*, *5*(5), 11–20. https://doi.org/10.18415/ijmmu.v5i5.305

Fernandez, C. (2014). Knowledge base for teaching and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK): Some useful models and implications for teachers' training. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, *60*, 79–100.

George, N., Sakirudeen, A. Ol., & Sunday, A. H. (2017). Effective classroom management and students' academic performance in secondary school in Uyo local government area of Akwa Ibom State. *Research in Pedagogy*, *7*(1), 43–56. https://doi.org/10.17810/2015.47

Grasha, A. F. (1996). Teaching with style: The integration of teaching and learning styles in the classroom. *Professional & Organizational Development Network in Higher Education*, *7*(5), 1–6.

Gremmen, M. C., van den Berg, Y. H. M., Segers, E., & Cillessen, A. H. N. (2016). Considerations for classroom seating arrangements and the role of teacher characteristics and beliefs. *Social Psychology of Education*, *19*(4), 749–774. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-016-9353-y

Habibi, A., Mukminin, A., Najwan, J., Haswindy, S., & Marzulina, L. (2018). Investigating EFL classroom management in Pesantren: A case study investigating EFL classroom management in Pesantren: A case study. *The Qualitative Report*, *23*(9), 2105–2123.

Habibi, A., Mukminin, A., Sofwan, M., & Sulistiyo, U. (2017). Implementation of classroom management by English teachers at high schools in Jambi, Indonesia. *Studies in English Language and Education*, *4*(2), 172–189. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v4i2.6104

Haukås, Å. (2016). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical approach. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *13*(1), 1–18. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2015.1041960

He, Y., & Cooper, J. (2011). Struggles and strategies in teaching: Voices of five novice secondary teachers. *Teacher Education Quarterly*, *38*(2), 97–116.

Howard, J., & Major, J. (2004). Guidelines for designing effective English language teaching materials. *The Tesolanz Journal*, *12*(10), 50–58.

Indriati, I. (2018). What can an English teacher network do? A story of professional development process in madrasah MGMP. In *The International English Language Teachers and Lecturers Conference (iNELTAL) 2018* (pp.60-65). *Universitas Negeri Malang*.

Islam, R. (2017). Investigating factors that contribute to effective teaching-learning practices: EFL/ESL classroom context. *English Language Teaching*, *10*(4), 15–21. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v10n4p15

Jalali, S., & Panahzade, V. (2014). Predicting language teachers' classroom management orientations on the basis of their computer attitude and demographic characteristics. *International Journal of Instruction*, *7*(2), 135–148.

Jati, A. F., Fauziati, E., & Wijayanto, A. (2019). Why do the students do disruptive behavior in English classroom? A case study on senior high school students in one of the small town in Indonesia. *International Journal of Language Teaching and Education*, 3(2), 130–141. https://doi.org/10.22437/ijolte.v3i2.7701

Jeon, I. J., & Hahn, J.-W. (2007). Exploring EFL teachers' perceptions of Task-Based Language Teaching: A case study of Korean secondary school classroom practice. *Asian EFL Journal*, *9*(1), 123–143.

Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2008). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.

Kazemi, A., & Soleimani, N. (2016). On the relationship between EFL teachers' classroom management approaches and the dominant teaching style: A mixed-method study. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, *4*, 87–103.

Khotimah, K., Widiati, U., Mustofa, M., & Ubaidillah, M. F. (2019). Autonomous English learning: Teachers' and students' perceptions. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *9,* 371-381. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v9i2.20234

Kubat, U. (2018). Opinions of science teachers for classroom management. *Journal Education and E-Learning Research*, *5*(2), 110–117. https://doi.org/10.20448/journal.509.2018.52.110.117

Kettler, T., Lamb, K. N., Willerson, A., & Mullet, D. R. (2018). Teachers' perceptions of creativity in the classroom. *Creativity Research Journal*, *30*(2), 164-171. https://doi.org/10.1080/10400419.2018.1446503

Lee, J. S., & Hsieh, J. C. (2019). Affective variables and willingness to communicate of EFL learners in in-class, out-of-class, and digital contexts. *System, 82,* 63-83. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.03.002

Lincoln, Y. S. & Guba, E. G. (1990). Judging the quality of case study reports. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *3*(1), 53–59. https://doi.org/10.1080/0951839900030105

Liu, H. (2008). An analysis of the effects of ability grouping on student learning in university-wide English classes. *Feng Chia of Humanities and Social Science*, *16*, 217–249.

Liu, M. (2007). Chinese students motivation to learn English at the tertiary level. *The Asian EFL Journal*, *9*(1), 126–146.

Liu, M. (2020). L2 motivation, demographic variables, and Chinese proficiency among adult learners of Chinese. *Journal of Language and Education*, *6*(2), 120-131. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2020.10341

Liu, X., & Babchuk, W. A. (2018). Developing classroom management strategies in non-native culture: A single case study developing classroom management strategies in non-native culture. *The Qualitative Report*, *23*(4), 779–800.

Livingstone, S. (2012). Critical reflections on the benefits of ICT in education. *Oxford Review of Education*, *38*(1), 9–24. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054985.2011.577938

Long, C., Ming, Z., & Chen, L. (2013). The study of student motivation on English learning in junior middle

school - A case study of No.5 Middle School in Gejiu. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(9), 136–145. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n9p136

Luschei, T. F., & Zubaidah, I. (2012). Teacher training and transitions in rural Indonesian schools: A case study of Bogor, West Java. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, *32*(3), 333–350. https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2012.711241

Macías, D. F. (2018). Classroom management in foreign language education: An exploratory review. *Profile: Issues in Teachers´ Professional Development*, *20*(1), 153–166. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v20n1.60001

Madalińska-Michalak, J., & Bavli, B. (2018). Challenges in teaching English as a foreign language at schools in Poland and Turkey. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *41*(5), 688–706. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2018.1531125

Martin, N. K., & Sass, D. A. (2010). Construct validation of the behavior and instructional management scale. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 26*(5), 1124-1135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.12.001

Martin, N. K., Yin, Z., & Baldwin, B. (1998). Construct validation of the attitudes & beliefs on classroom control inventory. *Journal of Classroom Interaction, 42*(2), 11-20.

Martin, N. K., Yin, Z., & Mayall, H. (2008). The attitudes & beliefs on classroom control inventory-revised and revisited: A continuation of construct validation. *Journal of Classroom Interaction*, *42*(1), 11–20.

Mearns, T., de Graaff, R., & Coyle, D. (2017). Motivation for or from bilingual education? A comparative study of learner views in the Netherlands. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *23*(6), 724-737. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2017.1405906

Meiring, L., & Norman, N. (2005). How can ICT contribute to the learning of foreign languages by pupils with SEN? *Support for Learning*, *20*(3), 129–134. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0268-2141.2005.00376.x

Merç, A., & Subaşı, G. (2015). Classroom management problems and coping strategies of Turkish student EFL teachers. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, *6*(1), 39–71.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2013). *Qualitative data analysis: A method sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Arizona State University.

Mulyana, W. (2014). Rural-urban linkages: Indonesia case study. Working Paper Series Nº 126. Working Group: Development with Territorial Cohesion. Territorial Cohesion for Development Program. Rimisp. https://rimisp.org/wp-content/files_mf/1422298454R_ULinkages_Indonesia_countrycase_Final_edited.pdf

Muyassaroh, M. N., Asib, A., & Marmanto, S. (2019). The teacher's beliefs and practices on the use of digital comics in teaching writing: A qualitative case study. *International Journal of Language Teaching and Education*, 3(1), 45–60. https://doi.org/10.22437/ijolte.v3i1.6502

Nadera, B. (2015). Promoting student motivation in EFL classroom: Through extended music education. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *199*, 368–371. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.520

O'Donoghue, T. A., & Punch, K. F. (2003). *Qualitative educational research in action: Doing and reflecting*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203506301

Oplatka, I. (2007). The context and profile of teachers in developing countries in the last decade: A revealing discussion for further investigation. *International Journal of Educational Management*, *21*(6), 476–490. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513540710780019

Paradewari, D. S., & Mbato, C. L. (2018). Language attitudes of Indonesians as EFL learners, gender, and socio-economic status. *Language and Language Teaching Journal*, *21*(1), 114–123. https://doi.org/doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.210112

Park, M., & Sung, Y. K. (2013). Teachers' perceptions of the recent curriculum reforms and their implementation: What can we learn from the case of Korean elementary teachers? *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, *33*(1), 15–33. https://doi.org/10.1080/02188791.2012.756391

Pedota, P. (2016). Strategies for effective classroom management in the secondary setting. *A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, *80*(4), 163–168. https://doi.org/10.3200/TCHS.80.4.163-168

Qoyyimah, U., Singh, P., Doherty, C., & Exley, B. (2019). Teachers' professional judgment when recontextualizing Indonesia's official curriculum to their contexts. *Pedagogy, Culture, and Society*, *28*(2), 183-203. https://doi.org/10.1080/14681366.2019.1625069

Rahmadi, A., & Istiqamah, I. (2016). Education in remote areas from teacher's perspective: A case study of East Kalimantan, Indonesia. In Z. Sakhiyya, I. M. A. Arsana & M. Rahmadewi (Eds.), *Education counts* (pp. 1-25). Perhimpunan Pelajar.

Riasati, M. J. (2018). Willingness to speak English among foreign language learners: A causal model. *Cogent Education*, *5*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2018.1455332

Riasati, M. J., & Rahimi, F. (2018). Situational and individual factors engendering willingness to speak English in foreign language classrooms. *Cogent Education*, *5*(1), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2018.1513313

Saneka, N. E., & de Witt, M. (2019). Barriers and bridges between mother tongue and English as a second language in young children. *South African Journal of Childhood Education*, *9*(1), 1-8.

Sass, D. A., Lopes, J., Oliveira, C., & Martin, N. K. (2016). An evaluation of the behavior and instructional management scale's psychometric properties using Portuguese teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *55*, 279–290. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.01.020

Sayuri, S. (2016). English speaking problems of EFL learners of Mulawarman University. *Indonesian Journal of EFL and Linguistics*, *1*(1), 47–61. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.21462/ijefll.v1i1.4 English

Selcuk, G., Kadi, A., Yildirim, R., & Celebi, N. (2017). A study on teacher candidates' competencies in classroom management. *Acta Didactica Napocensia*, *10*(4), 65–68.

Sentance, S., & Csizmadia, A. (2017). Computing in the curriculum: Challenges and strategies from a teacher's perspective. *Education and Information Technologies*, *22*(2), 469–495. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-016-9482-0

Sieberer-Nagler, K. (2016). Effective classroom-management & positive teaching. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(1), 163–172. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n1p163

Souriyavongsa, T., Rany, S., Abidin, M. J. Z., & Mei, L. L. (2013). Factors causes students low English language learning: A case study in the National University of Laos. *International Journal of English Language Education*, *1*(1), 179-192.

Sulistiyo, U. (2016). English language teaching and efl teacher competence in Indonesia. *Proceedings of ISELT FBS Universitas Negeri Padang*, *4*(2), 396-406.

Sulistiyo, U., Haryanto, E., Widodo, H. P., & Elyas, T. (2019). The portrait of primary school English in Indonesia: Policy recommendations. *Education, 3*(13), 1-15. https://doi.org/10.1080/03004279.2019.1680721

Usman, S., Akhmadi, & Suryada. (2007). Patterns of teacher absence in public primary schools in Indonesia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, *27*(2), 207–219. https://doi.org/10.1080/02188790701378826

Widiati, U., Suryati, N., & Hayati, N. (2018). Unraveling the challenges of Indonesian novice teachers of English. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *7*(3), 621–629. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v7i3.9824

Wright, T. (2005). *Classroom management in language education* (C. N. Candlin & D. R. Hall, Eds.). Palgrave Macmillan.

Young, S. S. C. (2003). Integrating ICT into second language education in a vocational high school. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, *19*(4), 447–461. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.0266-4909.2003.00049.x

Yulia, H. (2017). Empowering teachers to increase a quality of Indonesian's education. *Jambi-English Language Teaching*, *2*(1), 37-48.

Yuwono, G. (2005, November). English language teaching in decentralised Indonesia: Voices from the less privileged schools. In *AARE 2005 International Education Research Conference* (pp. 1-19). The University of Sydney.

Teaching is Not Always Easy: Mexican Pre-service English Teachers' Beliefs on Teaching and Learning

Ana Cecilia Villarreal Ballesteros, Irlanda Olave Moreno, Lizette Drusila Flores Delgado

Universidad Autonoma de Chihuahua

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Ana Cecilia Villarreal Ballesteros, Facultad de Filosofía y Letras, Universidad Autónoma de Chihuahua, C. Escorza 900, Col. Centro, Chihuahua, Chih., 31000, México. E-mail: avillare@uach.mx

One of the main goals of language teacher education programs is to prepare professionals who can respond to the growing demands for quality instruction. However, we often find that in second language acquisition training courses, teaching methodology and giving students experiences during practicum sessions has a limited impact on pre-service teachers' long established beliefs and ultimately on their practice. The purpose of this qualitative interpretative study is to explore the conceptual metaphors used by pre-service teachers when writing their teaching philosophy as a way of unveiling their underlying cognitive mappings. We propose that making future teachers aware of the entrenched metaphors they use to talk about teaching and learning might be a first step in changing their observable behavior. The results of this study show that in spite of exposure to current theories on teaching and learning and practicum courses, pre-service teachers tend to hold on to outdated theories. Nonetheless, their theories seem to be refined, strengthened, and modulated by the practicum experience that fosters the articulation of more detailed goals and the realization of shortcomings in their preparation. This work, in conjunction with strategies such as fostering reflection about pre-service teachers' practices, will help teacher trainers promote the integration of effective and context-appropriate ideas for improving language education.

Keywords: conceptual metaphors, teachers' beliefs, teacher education

Introduction

Large-scale research on education has shown that teacher performance is the first school-related factor accounting for students' achievement (OECD, 2005). If we want to increase the quality of learning in our schools we should be aiming at improving teacher education programs. One of the biggest challenges faced by universities is finding ways to contribute to the development of quality teachers. There are many topics in the field of teacher education that continue to be explored. Some topics identified in the literature of language teacher education programs are a focus on reflective practice (RP) and teacher cognition. According to Farrell (2019b) "reflecting in general is advocated by most teacher educators as being an essential skill that needs to be nurtured in all teachers" (p.2). The author advocates for continuing research that involves reflection that is both productive and social. Therefore, programs and teacher educators should continue to explore the integration of elements that promote reflection.

There are many questions that have been raised which have no definite answer: How do teachers learn how to teach? How is learning to teach different from other learning? What knowledge, skills, and attitudes do we hope teachers will learn? There are some aspects of teaching and learning that are common to all kinds of teachers but also each discipline or area of study relies on different mechanisms or skills. This is the case of Language Teacher Education (LTE) since learning a second language, as some speculate, might not be explained solely by general learning theories (Bley-Vroman, 2009; Lorenzo & Longa, 2003). One important step in the search for a theory of language teaching is to consider teacher cognition:

> Teacher cognition is also a fundamental element in teacher learning; drawing on constructivist theories of learning, it is now accepted in LTE that how and what teachers learn is shaped in no small way by their prior experience, knowledge and beliefs. (Borg, 2011, p. 218)

Teacher preparation programs need to address teachers' cognition as an important aspect for improving their efficacy. Mexican universities offering undergraduate degrees aimed at preparing language teachers are often structured in a linear and top-down progression. Therefore, programs provide some foundation courses in linguistics, applied linguistics, and learning and teaching theories followed by methodology courses, culminating in practicum courses. The underlying assumption is that students have to acquire formal knowledge that they will later be able to apply to their practice. In addition, some unqualified views assume that learning to teach is a matter of trial and error and teachers will eventually learn how to teach once they are on the job. However, research has shown that when students in education programs graduate, they are still unprepared to face the demands of teaching (Akcan, 2016; Ben, Andrés, & Steffen, 2012; Feiman-Nemser, 2001).

Some research on teacher preparation (e.g. Korthagen, 2004) concentrates on understanding what good teachers know and do and how they think, with the idea of transferring these findings to teacher education curriculums. However, knowing the characteristics of effective teachers does not necessarily provide an understanding of how they came to have these traits or what contributed to their preparation and, thus, may not aid pre-service teachers.

Programs and teachers faced with the difficult task of understanding how teachers learn to teach need to acknowledge that there are different moments in the process. First of all, students entering a teacher preparation program already have ideas and experiences in the field that they have indirectly and informally acquired during the many years they have been students in a classroom. In most cases, they have at least twelve years observing teachers. This type of learning is called *apprentice of observation* (Borg, 2004; Lortie, 1975). Teacher education, on the other hand, might last for around four years and the effects of this preparation sometimes have a limited impact (Johnson, 1994). During the first year of their professional life, teachers face a double challenge; they have to teach the courses assigned to them and they have to learn how to teach them through a process of survival and discovery (Alhamad, 2018; Wildman, Niles, Magliaro, & McLaughlin, 1989).

Some advanced education systems e.g. Finland Education (Sahlberg, 2010) acknowledge the importance of forming teachers during their first years on the job and provide induction programs for beginner teachers that last up to five years (Kansanen, 2003). After those first years on the job, teachers keep experimenting and consolidating their practice. Learning to teach often continues during their entire professional life although teachers tend to stabilize and reach some mastery after five to seven years of practice (Borko, Livingston, McCaleb, & Mauro, 1988).

Most teachers reach some stabilization and mastery of their job but the reality is that their performance does not always meet the expectations of quality teaching or reflect more recent approaches to teaching and learning (Feinman-Nemser, 2001; Feiman-Nemser & Remillard, 1996). It has often been pointed out that teachers' practice across generations remains unchanged. Although learning to teach is a multifactorial process, it has been recognized that beliefs and concepts of teachers towards the subject they teach and about teaching and learning have an important influence on their practice (Johnson, 2009). Furthermore, research shows that beliefs are not easy to change and that teacher education programs often leave prospective teachers' beliefs unchanged (Altan, 2012).

Research on Conceptual Metaphors

This study is based on the work on conceptual metaphor theory (CMT) developed by Lakoff and Johnson (2008). A metaphor is traditionally conceived as a literary trope based on an implicit comparison of two unlike things. However, Lakoff and Johnson argued that metaphors are pervasive in everyday language as a way not only to improve our understanding but also as a way of structuring our thoughts. Structural metaphors in essence help us to understand one kind of thing in terms of another. They propose that we draw upon experiences in one area of life in order to give fresh insights and understandings to experiences in another, thus creating new conceptual realities. In CMT, a conceptual metaphor is defined as "the systematic structuring or restructuring of one conceptual target domain, a coherent organization of experience, in terms of a source domain through

the projection of semantic features of one domain onto the other" (Ansah 2010, p.6). Usually target domains are more abstract while source domains are more concrete.

Conceptual metaphors in education have aroused the interest of researchers for several decades. One of the earliest and most influential works was that of Oxford et al. (1998). They identified several metaphors from a large and varied database of discourse produced by theorists, methodologists, teachers, and students. Metaphors were grouped into four major views, namely: social order, cultural transmission, learner-centered growth, and social reform. One major point they make is that all those involved in education should constantly reflect on their assumptions and goals and that metaphors are a good means for this reflection. This work in turn has generated similar venues of research. Farrell (2006) analyzed the metaphors used by three pre-service teachers before, during, and after their six-week practicum in Singapore. Only one the participants showed a significant shift in the metaphors he used at the beginning. Nonetheless, Farrell concluded that metaphors helped teachers make explicit their beliefs and by articulating those beliefs and reflecting on them they could track the source and relevance of those beliefs to their present teaching situation. This was consistent with Oxford et.al. (1998) who suggested that merely reflecting on teachers' views helps them widen their perspective and become aware of conflicts and incoherent ideas.

In education, metaphors have been used to explore the conceptions of teaching among university professors and their relation to both their practice and students' expectations (Wegner & Nückles, 2015); ideas about learning, learners, and knowledge among pre-service teachers beginning their teacher education programs (Karla & Bajeva, 2012); the shift of conceptions about teaching and learning among elementary school teachers after a year in their initial content and practice courses (Leavy, McSorlye, & Boté, 2007); and about teachers' attitudes towards educational reforms (Ungar, 2016). All these studies strongly support the use of metaphors from teachers for gaining insights into their conceptions and beliefs on different aspects of their professions through the use of elicitation tasks or interviews. At the same time, studies such Leavy, McSorlye, and Boté (2007) suggest that student teachers' beliefs are difficult to change in spite of instruction and practice experiences if they do not have adequate opportunities to engage in reflection.

Equally important is the use of metaphors in language teacher education, especially for English language teachers. Komorowska (2013) states that:

> By identifying the metaphors student teachers use, introducing new ones and analyzing them, teacher educators could more successfully counteract the impact of prior experience which often makes trainees teach the way they were taught in their school days. (p. 68)

Metaphors have been widely used in research concerning the characterization, understanding, and conceptualization of pre-service and in-service English teachers about their roles and their views on teaching and learning (e.g. De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000, 2002; Hatipoglu, 2018; Karagöz, Şükür, & Filiz, 2018; Lin, Shein, & Yang, 2012). However, some of the results have been somewhat contradictory. For example, while Lin, Shein, and Yang (2012) found that most of the metaphors used by Taiwanese student teachers were learner-centered and reflected a more constructivist view of learning, Karagöz, Şükür, and Filiz (2018) concluded that most senior pre-service EFL teachers in their study held to conventional roles such as the teacher as a provider of knowledge, guide, and cultural transmitter. Consistent with this last finding were the conclusions drawn by De Guerrrero and Villamil (2000) who found that teachers continue to identify with traditional roles although some roles depended on personal preferences, attitudes, and problems faced by teachers. On the other hand, Hatipoglu's (2018) study, in addition to exploring the metaphors used by teachers using the categorization proposed by De Guerrero and Villamil (2000), found some slight cultural differences among Turkish and German metaphors. The authors claim that while the metaphors used by German teachers were more animate, the ones used by Turkish seemed to be more behaviorist oriented.

Nonetheless, research on cultural differences between the metaphors used by pre-service teachers from different backgrounds has not been conclusive either. Can, Bedir, & Kiliańska-Przybyło's (2011) research focused on whether the ideas of EFL teachers from different cultural backgrounds (Polish and Turkish) were different. They found that they are not necessarily different but the frequency of the ideas across these groups and the underlying ideas might be different. They also point out that not all the differences might only be due to cultural factors but also to some personal and contextual variables.

Another close vein of inquiry to the previous research is the study of teachers' identity through the use of metaphors. An example of this is the work of Said (2013) who explored the identity of a novice language teacher through interviews in which the teacher recounted stories, anecdotes, and metaphors. The author found that, as the interview progressed, the teacher asserted more of her abilities and consequently her identity as a teacher developed. The author cautions that the metaphors might be culturally bound and suggests that more research must be conducted. Metaphors might not only be influenced by culture but they might also be determined by the teaching context in which the teachers practice or teach. For instance Nguyen (2016) investigated the identity of English teachers of young learners in Vietnam and found that the metaphors of 'mothers', 'artists', and 'trial judges' provided insight into the distinctive features of these teachers. These metaphors might be expected from teachers of elementary school kids but not necessarily from other teachers.

At the same time, metaphor research seems to be evolving into novel areas to explore other elements of English language teachers' education programs. For example, Yüksel (2019) used metaphor analysis to investigate the conceptualization of pre-service EFL teachers on the different aspects of the practicum, namely teaching practice, mentors, supervisor, students, lesson plans, and materials. This study is valuable because it can help teacher educators identify problematic areas that need attention. Finally, metaphor analysis has not only been used to explore teachers' views and beliefs about themselves but also to try to uncover the perception of the social value and social roles granted to educators (Alarcon, Vergara, Vásquez, & Torres, 2018) and to contrast their views of their role with the views of their students (Oktay & Osam, 2013).

Besides exploring topics related with the roles, views, and identity of teachers or student teachers at some particular point, several studies have pursued the investigation of changes or shifts that depict some professional and academic development. Some studies have attempted to elucidate the impact that courses and programs have on pre-service teachers' beliefs (Kavanoz, 2016; Şimşek, 2014). Others, as in the present research, have explored the changes of pre-service teachers as a result of taking a practicum course (İnceçay, 2015; Karavas & Drossou, 2010; Nagamine, 2012; Zhu, Rice, & Azhu, in production). Fewer have sought to investigate the changes teachers have once they are on the job (Erkmen, 2010). From these studies, we get mixed conclusions. Although it seems that one study confirms the superficial impact of education and courses on student teachers (Simsek, 2014), others report developments and alterations of their knowledge as a result of their teacher education program (Kavanoz, 2016). With respect to the effects on pre-service EFL teachers' tacit knowledge and beliefs as a result of the practicum, one author reports that there was no change and that practice had a major role in strengthening initial beliefs (Karavas & Drossou, 2010). On the other hand, two studies report that there was some change (İnceçay, 2015; Zhu, Rice & Azhu, in production) as a result of facing real-life contexts. In contrast, one study reported a significant change in the beliefs of pre-service teachers as a result of the practicum experience, although there were differences depending on the context in which the practicum took place. Finally, one of the latest studies seems to explore a promising venue of research, the impact service-learning has on EFL teacher candidates' underlying assumptions about foreign language teaching, their ideas of community service, and also their academic and personal learning (Simsek, 2020).

Regarding the methodologies used in metaphor change after the practicum, most studies used some kind of elicitation technique to help participants formulate their metaphors in writing through questionnaires, (e.g. Simsek, 2020) or through oral interviews (e.g. Nagamine, 2012) or both (İnceçay, 2015). Other studies presented participants with metaphors they could choose from (written or visual) and elicited reasons for their choice (Oktay & Osam, 2013). Only one study from the ones reviewed analyzed metaphors that were spontaneously produced by participants in the journals written in their practicum course (Dumlao & Pinatacan, 2019).

In the light of this literature review, our research project aimed at investigating the spontaneous production of metaphors in the teaching philosophies written by Mexican pre-service teachers at the beginning of their practicum course. Moreover, we sought to document the changes in their thinking and beliefs depicted in their post-practicum teaching philosophy. We believe that this project might shed light on various aspects of the literature reviewed. It seems that most education programs are geared towards non-traditional, constructivists, interactional conceptions of teaching and learning and many studies point to the persistence of traditional education depicted in the metaphor "a teacher as transmitter of knowledge" with a few counterexamples. Teacher education programs deal with several major problems in order to achieve the goal of quality and effective education (Farrell, 2019a). These include bridging the gap between theory and practice, making practice meaningful and significant for student teachers, and a lack of follow-up contact with teachers on the

job. We hope that this research can contribute on some of these aspects. We also hope to learn if the metaphors used by Mexican teachers seem to be culturally bound and can be applied in various social contexts, e.g. teachers as Victims (e.g. Alarcon, Vergara, Vásquez, & Torres, 2018).

Finally, research in this area has widely used elicitation techniques (interviews and completion tasks) that has purposefully lead to the production of metaphors with respect to some specific area of teaching or teachers (e.g. teachers' roles or their views on teachers and learners), and might not necessarily reflect the metaphors used by pre-service teachers when spontaneously describing their beliefs. It has been pointed out that making student teachers produce metaphors can complicate the thinking process (Nagamine, 2012)

This project was aimed at unpacking the beliefs of pre-service teachers as a way of making them aware of the implications of their practice. We believe that this is a first step that needs to be taken if education programs hope to make an impact on language teacher education. This study aims at contributing to research on pre-service teacher reflection.

Methodology

The current study adopted a qualitative design, in spite of quantifying the metaphors produced by participants in order to contextualize the data. We used content analysis in order to codify the key words that allowed us to identity the metaphors and other relevant discourse. The aim was not to make generalizations but to document and interpret first the initial ideas of pre-service English teachers and, in turn, track the effects of the tasks carried out by participants in the practicum course.

Context

The objective of this study was to uncover some of the metaphors used by pre-service teachers in an undergraduate program in a Northern Mexican public university. This four-and-a-half-year program in English prepares professionals in two areas: translation and English teaching, and is the only program at this university entirely instructed in English, which is a foreign language for most students and professors. The program began in 1982 and only until recently (six years ago) formally incorporated a practicum course. Before, practice for the students consisted in micro-teaching, observations, and service-learning. Student teachers have courses in linguistics, applied linguistics, English and British literature, writing and research, translation, and at least seven courses in TESOL and other education related areas. The students in their ninth semester are sent to schools of different levels from elementary to college for a TESOL practicum that lasts 16 weeks. Most of them have one or two mentors who are English teachers in the recipient schools and a supervisor who is a university professor. Three of the supervisors of this course participated in this research project. Student teachers have to complete several tasks, including observations, self-observations, videos of their own classes, journals, and lesson plans among other tasks. Many of the reforms in the program (e.g. the inclusion of practicum) stem from two different observed problems. One was the gap between theory and practice we had been observing in service learning, and then more systematically in the practicum course. Second, was that some of the activities in the practicum seemed to be failing their purpose. We saw that some pre-service teachers were not able to identify the problems they were having in their practice, nor did they seem to be able to come up with alternatives to improve their performance and the learning of their students. Most tasks aim at promoting reflective on-practice, and to a lesser extent in-practice. Moreover, we have been expanding the opportunities to discuss their reflections in small groups and to have more peer support.

Participants

The participants in the study were from a convenient sample (Creswell et. al., 2007) of students in their ninth semester taking the practicum course during three of the semester periods between 2015 and 2016 from different cohorts. Participation was voluntary and 42 (27 females and 15 males) out of the 47 students gave permission to use their texts for this project. Students were in their early 20s and some had previous teaching experience while others did not.

Data Collection and Analysis

For this project we used two tasks, one was the teaching philosophy they wrote at the beginning of the practicum course before they were even assigned a school and the other is called a post practicum teaching philosophy which was written at the end of their practice experience. Both of these assignments were collected in a teaching portfolio that students have to submit at the end of the semester. The corpus for this study were the texts from the students who granted their permission for use in this research project and they signed an informed consent form. The students receive detailed instructions, examples, and some guiding questions on how to write a teaching philosophy. In general they were instructed to write a Reflective Teaching Philosophy that included their beliefs about optimal teaching and learning, examples of how to put these beliefs into practice, and their goals—both teaching goals and goals for students' learning. None of the questions nor the guidelines prompted the student teachers to use metaphors, but while reading and analyzing their texts we saw that many of them used metaphors to make sense of their ideas about themselves as teachers and about teaching and learning.

We analyzed the texts written by the participants in order to understand what their discourse, and the metaphors in them, revealed about their conceptual framework before and after the practicum. For this, we

chose a qualitative approach, more specifically, content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) as a form of inquiry to analyze the discourse constructed by the participants. Segments of written discourse produced by the participants were connected to the different metaphors identified in the data, analyzing codes, and then constructing categories. To ensure reliability and validity, inter-coder agreement checks were conducted, the context was described in detail, and the original quotes were used with representative examples of the categories formed. The quotes used in the study might contain some grammatical or usage errors, but we decided to preserve the original form that the participants used to express their ideas.

Some of the first studies on CMT relied on the researchers' introspection and intuitions about how we use language. They often generated linguistic data that was later grouped in order to identify linguistic metaphors that were mapped according to metaphorical expressions to uncover the underlying concepts. The objective was to infer conceptual representations from the metaphorical expressions encoded in linguistic expressions. This procedure has been criticized for causing bias in the research and for not being systematic in the collection and analysis of data (Deignan, 2005). Thus, we adopted a method that has been proposed to systematize the analysis of metaphors (Heywood & Semino, 2007; Semino, 2007). We used The metaphor identification procedure (MIP), which consists of a series of steps that can aid in the identification and analysis of metaphors found in discourse collected from the data of language users as was the case in our study (Steen, 2002, 2010). Consequently, we identified all the sentences in the essays that expressed ideas about teaching, teachers, learning, and learners. Lakoff and Johnson (2008) claimed that behind metaphorical language are generalizations that reside not in language but in our way of thinking. The metaphors used to talk about something are good evidence of the concepts we hold. Moreover, the language used includes instantiations of our conceptual structuring and we can infer underlying beliefs and ideas that might influence our actions.

Following this procedure, the authors read the texts closely and identified the propositions in which the students expressed their ideas about how they understood the role of teachers and students and the teaching-learning process. These fragments were selected and imported into a database. The selections were then compared by the researchers and the discrepancies analyzed and discussed until an agreement was reached. These propositions, or chunks of discourse, were analyzed by highlighting any lexical items that had a more basic meaning than the one expressed in the context of the essay. E.g. *A teacher opens a door to the students*. In this example, we can see that the literal or primary meaning of the expression is different from the meaning conveyed in this sentence. A teacher does not literally open a door for the students. *Opening a door* is a conventional metaphor that expresses the idea that a teacher gives students' access to something else, perhaps a new opportunity. That something 'new' could be knowledge and skills, and the opportunities derived from them.

Thus, we proceeded to code these expressions as metaphorical in nature. By analyzing these two meanings and establishing a link of similarity between them, we were able to establish a metaphorical identification of the idea that the propositions communicated. Thus, we were able to establish metaphorical comparisons. The last

stage, in turn, involves making more specific connections between elements in the source domain, such as a person being in a room in which a door is being opened so there can be access to other places and opportunities and the target domain. This target domain involves analyzing which elements of the target domain fulfill a similar function. In our example, the teacher (through his work) gives students access to other possibilities in students' lives. Finally, the metaphorical mapping involves establishing entailments and inferences from the analogy proposed. From each metaphor, we established connections about the roles of students and teachers.

Towards the end of the semester, participants were asked to write their post-practicum teaching philosophy. These documents were expansions on their initial thinking and we found that they often reflected a sharp contrast between the participants' initial ideas and their ideas after the practicum course. This essay, as well as other reflection tasks, are shared in small groups with peers and supervisors. These papers were also used in the analysis in order to explore differences in their discourse and their metaphors on teaching and teachers.

Results

Pre-Practicum Metaphors

There were forty-one metaphors identified relating to various aspects of teaching and learning. Not all of the participants described their concepts and beliefs by using metaphors. We identified that some students did not express their ideas in this way, but rather they made other statements about their initial ideas. For example, one participant expressed his central idea about teaching and learning in this way, "A basic principle that I consider important would be motivation from the teacher because that would help both teachers and students to make a fun class" (J28). The results of the analysis are presented in the following table with token metaphors that exemplify the category. The sentences have been kept as they were written by L2 pre-service teachers without correcting or editing any grammar or writing mistakes.

Table 1
Categories and Metaphors Regarding Teacher Concept

Category	Token metaphors	f	%
1. Teachers as owners of knowledge/learning is receiving		17	41.5
	My goal as a teacher is to *provide* sufficient knowledge to my students, teaching is about being capable of *leaving something to the students* that can help them, My goal is *to give students tools* to achieve whatever they set their minds and hearts to		
2. Teachers as guides/learning is a journey		9	21.9
	Teachers *give guidance* and support, Teachers *help students to move forward*, As a teacher I basically seek to *be the guide for students*, The teachers *is just a guide* that the students can follow		
3. Teachers as climate/atmosphere controllers/learning is experiencing		5	12.3
	A teacher´s job is to *create an atmosphere* to develop skills, A teacher should *create a comfortable environment*, As a teacher I want to *give my students a peaceful and calm space* to learn		
4. Teachers as counselors/learning is a therapy		4	9.7
	We are there to *assist*, A friend you *can talk with* without feeling rear to be ridiculed, Teachers *help them develop* their one mind		
5. Teachers as fuel/farmers/learning is to catch fire/blossom		3	7.3
	You can be an *igniter* of capable and brilliant people, My objective as a teachers is to get others not only to learn what I have to teach but to spark for them to seek for their purpose in life, A teacher is the one who plants the seed of curiosity and questioning in his students		
6. Teachers and learners as discoverers/learning is discovering		3	7.3
	I think of all of us *(students and teachers) as discovering* something, I have to teach by to inspiring them *to seek for their purpose in life*, The goal of the teacher should be to *encourage students to discover*		
Total		**41**	**100**

These conceptual metaphors, as stated above, were not isolated but were repeated a number of times in the essays written by pre-service teachers, reinforcing the idea that they are part of the conceptual models used to understand their practice and profession.

Teachers as Owners/Possessors

This metaphor of the teacher as the owner of knowledge represents one of the most traditional views on education and perhaps one that most educators seek to eradicate in the conceptual system of future teachers, especially language teachers. In Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Freire (2018) uses a metaphor to examine the traditional pedagogy that he calls the banking model of education. The banking model of education suggests that teachers possess full knowledge and learners are empty receptacles to be filled with knowledge, like a coin bank. Education thus, becomes the act of depositing information.

It also entails the idea that knowledge is a *commodity* owned by the teacher and it can be provided, given, or transmitted to students. Furthermore, it implies that students are passive recipients of this commodity, thus conferring no role for them to play in the learning process. This is consistent with Sfard's (1998) proposed conceptualization of L2 learning into two main metaphors, with one of them being the acquisition metaphor. The acquisition metaphor purports the objectification of knowledge that is projected by other means. For example, this overarching conceptual metaphor is materialized in a more specific metaphor of the teacher as a 'tool provider' as illustrated in some of the metaphors produced by participants, e.g. "Teachers provide students with the necessary tools for life".

However, this metaphor of the teacher as 'tool provider' is nonetheless slightly different from the previous one of teachers as simply owners or possessors of knowledge, since it implies two things. One is that knowledge is not something that is simply provided by the teacher but it is also something that learners must work for to obtain by using the 'tools' given. Furthermore, this metaphor for knowledge and skills implies some kind of action from the students. This is supported by the verbs used in the examples above in which the students must find, achieve, and open something in order for the learning task to be completed.

Teachers as Guides/Companions

The second metaphor in the data was teachers as guides and companions in which the role of the teacher seems to be more symmetrical than in the previous metaphor. The use of this metaphor of the teacher as a companion rests on the assumption that learning is some kind of journey or trip that the students undertake with the teacher as a guiding companion. In contrast to the banking metaphor of education, in this paradigm there is an emphasis on the learner's outward performance. This view seems to be related to a cognitive apprenticeship approach to teaching that explores methods of helping students develop concepts and skills under the guidance of a teacher (Yilmaz, 2011). This theory emphasizes the teacher's ability to act like a facilitator or guide in the learning process of students. Instructors propose paths or routes of learning for students to undertake. The teacher models the learning process that students should follow. However, there are some entailments that can be further explored in this conceptualization of learning and teaching. For example, it assumes that there is just one road and it is perhaps the same for teachers and students and that the end point of this journey might be the same for everyone.

Teachers as Climate/Atmosphere Controllers

In this metaphor of teachers as climate or atmosphere controllers, there is a significant difference from the previous metaphors. This one emphasizes the role of the teacher in creating what they consider appropriate conditions for the students to learn. It potentially assigns a differential but active role for both students and teachers. While the teacher's responsibility is to create and control the context for learning, it is expected that students will act within this environment provided by the teachers. This metaphor emphasizes contextual elements in the learning process that the teacher can create and control so the elements are conductive to learning. The teacher seems to be responsible for the environment and space in which the students can learn.

This metaphor might be linked to perspectives of learning that consider the interaction of subjects and their environment and how they influence each other, for example the bio-ecological theory of Bronfenbrenner (2005) . In these statements on the role of teachers, pre-service teachers showed a concern for the importance of the classroom environment, which might vary from peaceful to dynamic or fun but nonetheless must be conductive to learning. It seems, however, that the responsibility of the learning environment relies mainly on the teacher.

Teachers As Counselors

In the teachers as counselors metaphor, we can identify a changing role in the concept portrayed by pre-service teachers. There is some evidence of an idea that depicts the role the teacher has in constructing a dialogue with the students, and interaction seems to be the key to learning. It is a way of conceptualizing teaching and learning that emphasizes the establishment of interpersonal relationship between teachers and students. This metaphor might be linked to a humanistic approach to education in which learning is seen as a personal act to fulfill potential. Moreover, this theory suggests that learning will take place if teachers act as a facilitators or counselors (Rogers, 1951, 1961). The facilitator should establish an atmosphere so learners feel comfortable to discuss ideas. Furthermore, the trust between participants should be in such a way that it is conductive to accepting mistakes and learning from them.

This relationship, however, is one that makes teachers and students co-responsible for the process of learning. Students express their views on teaching and learning more as a dialogue or a conversation in which the teacher can promote interactions with the students and this creates the opportunity to develop their own ideas and understanding based on their needs and not a pre-established teaching agenda.

Teachers as Fuel

The teacher as fuel or spark/seed metaphor gives us two unique metaphors; however, they have similar underlying principles. The fuel or spark sets a fire that burns and gives light, while a seed that is planted give life to new things. Both carry an assumption of a creative force. Moreover, it reflects a stance on teaching and learning that is more consistent with current constructivist theories (Gergen, 1995). Constructivism is about active learning, a contextualized process of constructing knowledge rather than acquiring it. The learner brings his/her past experiences and cultural factors to a current situation and each person has a different interpretation and construction of the knowledge process. It assumes that teachers make students begin the process of learning but that the learning is something that students construct. It also reflects that questioning and seeking is an important activity for students' own learning.

Teachers and Learners as Discoverers

This metaphor posits a more novel conception of teaching and learning in which the outcomes of education are not pre-established. It is also interesting that the process of discovery was posited not only for students but for teachers as well. It highlights the realization that although teachers are responsible for planning their courses, it is not until they are in a classroom and see the reactions of the students to the proposed activities that they will discover (along with the students) the things that can or cannot be accomplished. In this regard, teaching and learning is a social and interactional process with unknown effects.

Each of these student metaphors develops ideas, beliefs, and conceptions about teaching and learning found in the students' discourse. From their teaching philosophies, we were able to infer some of the teachers' roles pre-service teachers expressed through metaphors. This is evidence of how pre-service teachers position themselves and the impact teaching preparation courses have had on them.

Changes Post-Practicum

At the end of the course, the students had to re-read their initial teaching philosophy. They were asked to write any changes they had in their initial thinking and ideas on teaching and learning as a result of the practicum experience. One significant difference in the post-practicum teaching philosophies was that the fragments of text added had fewer metaphors than the first one. The teachers concentrated more on describing some of the difficulties they had and how they solved their problems rather than focusing on idealized goals as they had at the beginning. In this section, we are not concerned with quantifying the changes or how many students did or did not change. Instead, we are more interested in the kinds of changes they had, if any. We have a sense from reading the texts that most made an effort in depicting some kind of change, for no one left the text unchanged as a result of the instructions given. We believe that it would be very hard to decide if there was a significant change in each and every student. We assume that most if not all had some kind of change in their thinking and behavior but there is no definite way to attest to the change. We had their ideas expressed in the texts and we

decided to focus more on the quality of the changes they referred to. The following quotes from the participants in their post-practicum reflection depict some of these changes.

> "Overall I think this experience was very good because I see now that is not the same thing studying or preparing for being a teacher than being in front of a class and trying to control a group of people with different personalities and get them to understand and like your class" (D21)

> "At the beginning of my practicum, we were assigned to write a teaching philosophy. In the last meeting/class we were in, we discussed that at first we were all sugar coating the idea of a teacher, student, school, everything was extremely sugar coated. What kind of teacher am I? I still ponder about that question, because the answer is not as easy as it seems. I say what I think I am but not exactly what others think and that does indeed make a world of a difference." (F12)

As these two quotes show, their initial ideas were altered in some way after the experience of teaching in the schools to which they were assigned. It seems that their goals and expectations did not seem as clear as they appeared in the beginning. Now they are pondering what kind of teacher they are, and that it is one thing is to talk about something in their teacher education courses regarding teaching and learning and quite another to face the challenges of controlling a group of teens or children. In the second quote, the participant emphasizes the 'sugar coated' ideas she had at the beginning but more importantly that the ideas she has about herself might not be shared by others and that this makes a difference.

In the following table we present some comparisons of the kinds of changes evidenced in the post-practicum reflections by presenting some pre- and post-reflections of the same participants.

The content analysis of the reflection statements in Table 2 indicates that some pre-service teachers kept their metaphors after the practicum experience. For example, participant L15 still thinks that teachers should be guides for students and in that respect her metaphor remained unaltered. She additionally makes an emphasis in her pre-practicum reflection that teachers should respect their students and they should not focus only on grades. In her post-practicum reflections, however, she maintains the aspect of respect and not focusing on grades only but adds some ideas about the authoritative figure of teachers and how they must maintain discipline in the class and that they need to set boundaries. The practicum experience helped the participant to strengthen her metaphor but at the same time add new elements that might not have been considered at the beginning. This is similar to what happened to J19 and A27 who saw the role of the teacher as giving their students a key to open the world and providing the necessary skills and tools, respectively. The pre-service teachers also stated that their ideas did not change or change much after the practicum but they identified some needs in their preparation and changes in their performance. The first one mentioned the need to be more dynamic while the second felt the need to make consistent improvements. It seems that although the metaphors did not change much, the practice experience gave them the opportunity to experience some challenges and set more nuanced goals to accomplish in their professional lives. They articulated an understanding of teaching and learning that was more complex and grounded with a more realistic understanding of its difficulties.

The analysis also showed that the more difficulties that were reported in the post-practicum essays the less the pre-service teachers mentioned the ideals and goals they set for themselves before the practicum. This was revealed in the extracts of participants A4 and E38 in Table 2. The first one said that teaching was "the simple act of sharing all you have learnt" but in the post-practicum essay there was a modulation of that metaphor by saying that "teaching is like giving a part of yourself". Furthermore, the participant opened the reflection by pointing out that teaching is not easy, requires a lot of time, makes you realize things about yourself, and that the most significant thing they learned was about problem solving.

Table 2
Pre- and Post-practicum Reflections

Participant	Pre-practicum	Post-practicum	Changes
A.4	To me teaching is **sharing all your knowledge** to your students or to people. It is the simple act of sharing all you have learnt.	Teaching is **not always easy**… It **requires a lot of time** and dedication. Teaching is like *giving a part* of yourself to people, Teaching is **rediscovering yourself** because you **realize something about you, you did not know,** Something teaching taught me is **problem solving.**	From idealized to more realistic goals Realization of demands and problems Self-awareness
E.38	I teach **to make a change in the actual situation of the student's life,** to make them notice the reality of globalization and how important is the language for their future development as professionals, **making connections with real life situations**, engaging them with the continuous learning of English	I **still believe** that we as teacher need to be prepared in our classes **to make real life connections** to create a meaningful learning for our students… I have to **admit that working with kids is very harsh**, but you need to *find your own way* to awake them from their sweet comfort cloud they are living in… and **the over spoiled attitude they are showing** nowadays …	From general to specific goals Realization of difficulties Awareness of students realities
J19	Teaching is the ideas or principles taught by an authority, teaching is **the key to opening our world**. I believe we were brought to this world to make it better, I chose to contribute by teaching our young, **to give them that key** they need to succeed in this world.	My teaching philosophy **did not change much** I actually think i should **add more dynamic** things and I *still think* students learn better by playing games. One of the most important things I have learned thourout the practicum is that I need to **be more dynamic** & and **not give them too much work.**	Realization of weaknesses as a teacher
A27	This career **has provided me the necessary skills and tools** to become a prepared professional English teacher. Motivation, as well, is important to me… by **creating a friendly environment**…. Another principle is communication, Lastly, involvement is part of the basic principles of teaching and learning…. In conclusion, my teaching goals are **to provide the necessary skills and tools…**	Looking back and acknowledging my first teaching philosophy I **would keep mostly everything**…. To conclude, my teaching goals are to *always feel the need to of improvement*, **to be loyal to what I believe** is better for me and my students and to always **be remembered as a teacher who cared her students** and who always did the best she could.	From considering to have all they need to the realization of the need of continuous improvement strengthening beliefs
L15	The role of a teacher is **to be a guide to students**, and he/she has **to be always respectful to everyone's ideas**, because that is what defines every human being… it is important to have *this respect and tolerance*, so we can establish this relation teacher-student. And finally, something I would like to add to my philosophy of teaching, is that is would be awesome that teachers **not only focus on grades, but on effort from students**. We all know each person is different…	The role the teacher plays is more than just a motivator, **the teacher is a guide,** but as I stated before, not only for academic purposes… **the teacher must teach discipline** to the students… **a teacher one needs to mark their line**, teachers represent **the authority**… Respect is the base of any sort of relation teacher-student. I **still** hold my belief that **grades should not be the main focus** of **teaching**…	A guide for students From being respectful to respect with discipline, lines and authority

Similarly, participant E38 who set as an objective of his teaching "to make a change in the actual situation of the student's life and making connections with real life situations", now admits that "working with kids is very harsh" and that he needs to find his own way of dealing with the "over spoiled attitude" of students.

In sum, the findings of this study revealed that the teaching practicum for pre-service EFL teachers brought about some changes, if not in the metaphors used then in contributions to their development as teachers in several ways. First, it helped them to move from idealized to more realistic goals and expectations and from general goals of their practice to more specific goals to pursue. Furthermore, the experience brought to the fore the idea of the evolving nature of teacher preparation. As one of them pointed out at the beginning, the program had provided "all a teacher needed to be a professional English teacher" but in the final reflections realized that the teaching goal was to always feel the need for constant improvement. Overall, the participants reported a realization of the difficulties, realities, and weaknesses they face as newer teachers.

Discussion

Similar to other studies on metaphor analysis, this study found that Mexican pre-service English teachers spontaneously produced metaphors similar to those reported in previous studies. If we look at the categories provided in Oxford, et.al (1998) study and those used by Farrell (2006), the metaphors found in this sample span two categories, those of cultural transmission and learner-centered growth. The first one is depicted in the metaphors around the 'teacher as owner of knowledge' and the second was exemplified by the metaphors around 'teachers as guides, atmosphere controllers, counselors, fuel, farmers, and discoverers'. The other two categories of cultural transmission and social reformer were not found.

As for the roles described in the study by De Guerrero and Villamil (2000), some of those roles surfaced in the metaphors in this sample, namely those of cooperative leader, provider of knowledge, agent of change, nurturer, and provider of tools, which were replicated in the ones found in this study. The ones not found were the categories of innovator, artist, repairer, and gym instructor. The aspect that appears relevant in these findings is the prevalence of the categories of transmission and provider of knowledge that we categorized as the 'teacher as owner of knowledge' that accounts for 41.5 % of the metaphors produced by the pre-service teachers. This is disappointing in some ways because efforts have been made in this program, as is the case in most education programs in the world, to bring about a change in this traditional way of conceptualizing teaching and learning. This indicates that still more efforts need to be made in making constant connections between pre-service previous knowledge and the discussion of theories, methodologies, and pedagogic concepts in courses.

Another aspect worth commenting on is how these results relate to cultural aspects. From the study of Can, Bedir, and Kilianska-Przybylo (2011) contrasting Polish and Turkish student teachers' metaphors, we found similar metaphors to this group of Mexican teachers but with different frequencies of occurrence. In their study, both groups of Turkish and Polish pre-service teacher reflected the transmission metaphor but with less frequency than in this study. Furthermore, the results in this study are more consistent with those of Karagöz, Şükür, and Filiz (2018) and Oktay and Osam (2013) who found that most teachers' metaphors depicted more conventional and teacher-centered beliefs.

Nevertheless, we need to recognize that the rest of the metaphors produced by this group of teachers, which accounts for 58.5% of the remaining metaphors, were around roles representing the by category of learner-centered growth in Oxford et al. (1998). We regard this as positively reflecting the emphasis the program has been making towards more constructivists and interactional approaches to learning and teaching, which is similar to the the findings in the study of Lin, Shein, and Yang (2012).

Moreover, the analysis of the comparative reflections gives us some evidence that their ideas and beliefs were evolving as a result of the practicum experience. Some of the most significant realizations the student teachers had was that planning and preparation is important but the biggest challenge they face is their capacity to recognize and be aware of what goes on in their classes and with their students. They reported that they had to attune their planning and strategies to the reactions they got from the students and that their actions had to be adjusted and reassessed in the light of the interactions that took place in their classrooms. They recognized they had to be more dynamic or that they had to awaken their students from their sweet comfort, and that they have to develop problem solving skills. This can be interpreted as recognition of the situated condition of learning and its interactional dimension. Said (2013), who explored the identity of novice language teachers, found that as they progressed in their recounting of experiences, they began to assert more of their abilities and develop their teacher identity. We found that there were major changes in the metaphors used by teachers and that some metaphors were restructured or strengthened. We recognize that the seeming abandonment of idealized metaphors about teaching and learning such as "changing the students' lives" or "sharing all they have learnt" were due to contextual factors in the practicum. These students were working in complex contexts with large groups of children and adolescents in unfavorable environments (participants A4 and E38), while others who kept their ideas were working with advanced and highly motivated older students in high schools (e.g J19). Nonetheless, all of the participants showed some degree of change as a result of the practicum experience as reported in studies such as Nagamine (2012).

Overall, the results showed that there is a need to further investigate how education programs can continue triangulating theories and experiences. Jourdenais (2009) proposed that instead of a linear process in the

construction of language teacher education curriculums and courses there should be a constant interaction of three elements, public theories, personal theories, and practice, as depicted in the following diagram.

Figure 1
Language Teacher Education
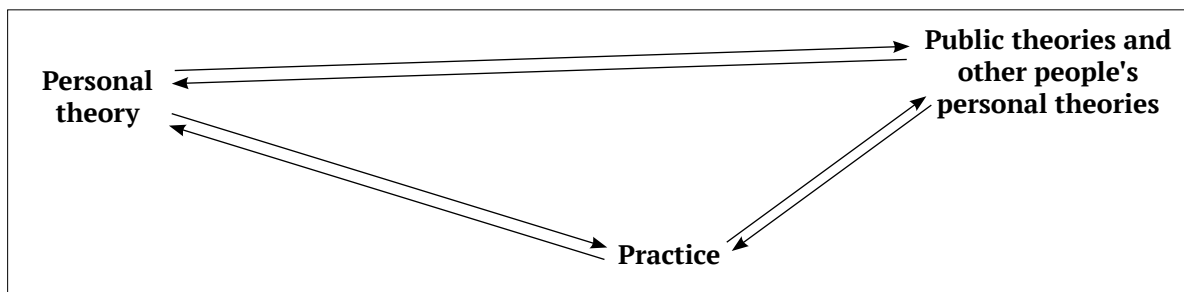
Note: Adapted from "Language Teacher Education", by R. Jourdenais, In M. H. Long & C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (p. 647), 2009, Blackwell. Copyright 2009 by Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

If we can achieve the constant interaction of these three elements, we can overcome the problem of disconnected theory and practice (Farell, 2019a) and the inefficacies of training to bring about change in student teacher beliefs (Altan, 2012; Can, 2019; Inozu, 2011; McCrocklin, 2020).

Conclusion

Educators and curriculum designers often assume that there is a direct relationship between the contents and activities proposed in teacher education programs and the impact these have on the beliefs and visions of pre-service teachers. It is taken for granted that the completion of certain tasks, passing exams, and some practice in teaching would lead pre-service teachers to reformulate their long-held beliefs based on their own experiences as students. In this study, the conceptions of pre-service teachers reflected in their metaphors depict some of their views on teaching and learning that might be disappointing for teacher educators, e.g. the metaphor of 'teachers as owner of knowledge' is still present in the conceptual system of some of the participants in this study. Moreover, some metaphors depict an idealized view of teachers. However, there is evidence that some pre-service teachers have developed a more complex understanding that captures other sides of the challenges of teaching and learning that are more consistent with current theories of second language acquisition.

The results of this study are to some extent consistent with those of Martinez, Sauleda, and Huber (2001) who found that teacher training is often effective in adding theoretical baggage but that the students' deep and tacit understanding that guides their actions mostly appears to be unaffected. However, this study shows the emergence of some important metaphors that should be part of the conceptual inventory of successful teachers. Furthermore, this study shows that the practicum experience does have an effect on some idealized beliefs on teaching and learning and that some might change or gain more insights into their initial thinking. However, there is some evidence that more sustained efforts are needed to overcome the previous concepts pre-service teachers have. Teacher educators need to make their students' conceptual systems be more explicit and enhance their reflection on the implications these concepts have for their actions as teachers. There is common agreement that reflection in and on practice needs to be enhanced but it also needs to be equally understood by teacher educators and pre-service teachers, and it has to be made more tangible and less vague for all (Hyacinth & Mann, 2014). Activities like the ones described in this study, we suggest, should also be linked to other activities of practice so there is a triangulation between thoughts, ideas, and actions implemented in real-life contexts by future teachers.

Although the aim of this project was not to make generalizations but to document and interpret the beliefs and concepts depicted in the metaphors of pre-service teachers and the effects of the practicum on pre-service EFL teachers, this study has the limitation of not triangulating the data with other sources of information such as interviews or the videos recorded during their practicum. Although we can infer that by reflecting on the

experience they were able to write about the differences between their initial ideas and their thinking at the end of the practicum, more research on the reflection process is needed in order to unveil teachers' cognition.

Learning to teach and teaching to learn are not easy enterprises and critical aspects of teaching should be investigated through various angles. This study of the metaphors used by future teachers is one aspect that can contribute to stimulating conscious reflection.

References

Akcan, S. (2016). Novice non-native English teachers' reflections on their teacher education programmes and their first years of teaching. *PROFILE Issues in Teachers› Professional Development, 18*(1), 55-70. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v18n1.48608.

Alarcón, P., Díaz, C., Vergara, J., Vásquez, V., & Torres, C. (2018). Análisis de metáforas conceptuales sobre la imagen social del profesorado en estudiantes de pedagogía [Conceptual metaphor analysis of teacher's social images in pre-service teachers]. *Onomázein. Revista de lingüística, filología y traducción, 40*, 1-27. https://doi.org/10.7764/onomazein.40.01

Alhamad, R. (2018). Challenges and induction needs of novice English as a foreign language teachers in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of Education and Literacy Studies*, *6*(1), 50-63. http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.6n.1p.50

Altan M., (2012). Pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language learning. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *35*, 481-93. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2011.643399

Ansah, G. N. (2010). The cultural basis of conceptual metaphors: The case of emotions in Akan and English. In *Lancaster University Postgraduate Conference in Linguistics & Language Teaching* (vol. 5, pp. 2-25). Lancaster University.

Ben, J., Andrés, S. H., & Steffen, K. (2012). *The experience of new teachers: Results from TALIS 2008*. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264120952-en

Bley-Vroman, R. (2009). The evolving context of the fundamental difference hypothesis. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *31*(2), 175-198. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109090275

Borg, M. (2004). The apprenticeship of observation. *ELT Journal*, *58*, 274-276. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/58.3.274

Borg, S. (2011). Language teacher education. In J. Simpson (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of Applied Linguistics* (pp. 215-228). Routledge.

Borko, H., Livingston, C. , McCaleb, J. & Mauro, L. (l988). Student teachers' planning and post-lesson reflections: Patterns and implications for teacher preparation. In J. Calderhead (Ed.), *Teachers' professional learning* (pp. 65-83). The Falmer Press.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (Ed.). (2005). *Making human beings human: Bioecological perspectives on human development*. Sage.

Can, C., Bedir, H., & Kiliańska-Przybyło, G. (2011). Is teaching culture-bound? A cross-cultural study on the beliefs of ELT teachers. In *Aspects of culture in second language acquisition and foreign language learning* (pp. 107-120). Springer.

Can, D. T., (2019). Pre-service EFL teachers' reflections: The contribution of teaching practicum on academic success and self-improvement. *PEOPLE: International Journal of Social Sciences, 4(3), 963-984*.

Creswell, J. W., Hanson, W. E., Clark Plano, V. L., & Morales, A. (2007). Qualitative research designs: Selection and implementation. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 35(2), 236-264. https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000006287390

De Guerrero, M. C., & Villamil, O. S. (2000). Exploring ESL teachers' roles through metaphor analysis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2), 341-351.

De Guerrero, M. C., & Villamil, O. S. (2002). Metaphorical conceptualizations of ESL teaching and learning. *Language Teaching Research*, *6*(2), 95-120.

Deignan, A. (2005). A corpus linguistic perspective on the relationship between metonymy and metaphor. *Style*, *39*(1), 72-91.

Dumlao, R. P., & Pinatacan, J. R. (2019). From practice to writing: Using reflective journal instruction in enhancing pre-service teachers' professional developments. *International Journal of Instruction*, *12*(4), 459-478. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2019.12430a

Erkmen, B. (2010). *Non-native novice EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Nottingham.

Farrell, T. S. (2006). 'The teacher is an octopus' uncovering pre-service English language teachers' prior beliefs

through metaphor analysis. *RELC Journal*, *37*(2), 236-248. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688206067430

Farrell, T. S. (2019a). 'My training has failed me': Inconvenient truths about Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE). *TESL-EJ*, *22*(4), n4.

Farrell, T. S. (2019b). Standing on the shoulders of giants: Interpreting reflective practice in TESOL. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, *7*(3), 1-14.

Feiman-Nemser, S. (2001). From preparation to practice: Designing a continuum to strengthen and sustain teaching. *Teachers College Record, 103*(6), 1023-1055.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Remillard, J. (1996). Perspectives on learning to teach. In F. Murray (Ed.), *The teacher educator's handbook: Building a knowledge base for the preparation of teachers* (pp. 63–91). Jossey-Bass.

Freire, P. (2018). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Bloomsbury publishing.

Gergen, K.J. (1995). Social construction and the educational process. In L.P. Steffe & J. Gale (Eds.), *Constructivism in Education* (pp. 17-39). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Hatipoglu, S. (2018). Eine vergleichende Studie zu Denkwelten von Deutschlehrern anhand von Metaphern [A comparative study of the realms of thinking by German Language teachers using metaphors]. *Alman Dili ve Edebiyatı Dergisi - Studien zur deutschen Sprache und Literatur, 39*(1), 65-79. https://doi.org/10.26650/sdsl.2018.1.39.0005

Heywood, J., & Semino, E. (2007). Metaphors for speaking and writing in the British press. *Language in the Media: Representations, identities, ideologies* (pp. 25-47). Continuum.

Hsieh, H.-F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research,* 15(9), 1277–1288. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732305276687

Hyacinth, T., & Mann, S. (2014). Reflective practice in Nigeria: Teachers' voices and experiences. *TESL-EJ*, *18*(3), n3.

İnceçay, V. (2015). "The foreign language classroom is like an airplane" metaphorical conceptualizations of teachers' beliefs. *Turkish Online Journal of Qualitative Inquiry*, *6*(2), 74-96. https://doi.org/10.17569/tojqi.48011

Inozu, J. (2011). Beliefs about foreign language learning among students training to teach English as a foreign language. *Social Behavior and Personality: An international journal*, *39*(5), 645-653. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2011.39.5.645

Johnson, K. E. (1994). The emerging beliefs and instructional practices of pre-service English as a second language teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *10*(4), 439-452. https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(94)90024-8

Johnson, K. E. (2009). *Second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective*. Routledge.

Jourdenais, R. (2009). Language teacher education. In M. H. Long, & C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 647-658). Wiley-Blackwell.

Kalra, M. B., & Baveja, B. (2012). Teacher thinking about knowledge, learning and learners: A metaphor analysis. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *55*, 317-326. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.509

Kansanen, P. (2003). Teacher education in Finland: Current models and new developments. In B. Moon, L. Vlăsceanu & C. Barrows (Eds.), *Institutional Approaches to teacher education within higher education in Europe: Current models and new developments* (pp. 85-108). Unesco – Cepes.

Karagöz, T., Şükür, M., & Filiz, S. (2018). Pre-service EFL teachers' metaphorical conceptualizations of an EFL teacher. *European Journal of English Language Teaching-Volume*, *3*(3), 44-59. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1173777

Karavas, E., & Drossou, M. (2010). How amenable are student teacher beliefs to change? A study of EFL student teacher beliefs before and after teaching practice. In A. Psaltou-Joycey & M. Matheoudakis (Eds.), *Advances in Research on Language Acquisition and Teaching: Selected papers of the 14th International Conference of the Greek Applied Linguistics Association, Thessaloniki* (pp. 261-276). Greek Applied Linguistics Association.

Kavanoz, S. (2016). Unveiling pre-service language teachers' conceptualizations of teachers of English through metaphors. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, *4*(10), 17-32. https://doi.org/10.11114/jets.v4i10.1690

Komorowska, H. (2013). Metaphor in language education. In *Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Perspectives on Second Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 57-72). Springer.

Korthagen, F. (2004). In search of the essence of a good teacher: Towards a more holistic approach in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 20*(1), 77-97. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2003.10.002

Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (2008). *Metaphors we live by*. University of Chicago press.

Leavy, A. M., McSorley, F. A., & Boté, L. A. (2007). An examination of what metaphor construction reveals about the evolution of pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *23*(7), 1217-1233. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.07.016

Lin, W. C., Shein, P. P., & Yang, S. C. (2012). Exploring personal EFL teaching metaphors in pre-service teacher education. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique*, *11*(1), 183-199.

Lorenzo, G., & Longa, V. M. (2003). Minimizing the genes for grammar. The minimalist program as a biological

framework for the study of language. *Lingua*, 113(7), 643-657. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0024-3841(02)00090-6

Lortie, D. (1975). *Schoolteacher a sociological study*. University of Chicago Press.

Martinez, M., Sauleda, N., & Huber, G. (2001). Metaphors as blueprints of thinking about teaching and learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*(8), 965-977. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(01)00043-9

McCrocklin, S. (2020). Comparing experiential approaches: Structured language learning experiences versus conversation partners for changing pre-service teacher beliefs. *International Journal of Society, Culture & Language*, 8(1), 70-81.

Nagamine, T. (2012). A metaphor analysis of pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs regarding professional identity. *The Asian EFL Journal*, *14*(2), 141-171.

Nguyen, C. D. (2016). Metaphors as a window into identity: A study of teachers of English to young learners in Vietnam. *System*, *60*, 66-78. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.06.004

Oktay, Y. B., & Osam, Ü. V. (2013). Viewing foreign language teachers' roles through the eyes of teachers and students. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *44*(44), 249-261.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. (2005). *Teachers matter: Attracting, developing and retaining effective teachers* [Overview]. OECD.

Oxford, R. L., Tomlinson, S., Barcelos, A., Harrington, C., Lavine, R. Z., Saleh, A., & Longhini, A. (1998). Clashing metaphors about classroom teachers: Toward a systematic typology for the language teaching field. *System*, *26*(1), 3-50.

Rogers, C. R. (1951). *Client-centered therapy: Its current practice, implications, and theory*. Houghton Mifflin.

Rogers, C. R. (1961). *On becoming a person: A therapist's view of psychotherapy*. Houghton Mifflin.

Sahlberg, P. (2010). The secret to Finland's success: Educating teachers. Stanford Center for Opportunity Policy in Education. http://www.nnstoy.org/download/preparation/Secret%20to%20Finland's%20Success%20-%20 Education%20Teachers.pdf

Said, S. B. (2013). 'A lighthouse on the beach' stories, metaphors, and anecdotes in teachers' personal recounts. *Bellaterra Journal of Teaching & Learning Language & Literature*, *6*(4), 1-15.

Semino, E. (2007). MIP: A method for identifying metaphorically used words in discourse. *Metaphor and Symbol*, *22*(1), 1-39. https://doi.org/10.1080/10926480709336752

Sfard, A. (1998). On two metaphors for learning and the dangers of choosing just one. *Educational Researcher, 27*(2), 4-13. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X027002004

Şimşek, M. R. (2014). A metaphor analysis of English teacher candidates' pre-and post-course beliefs about language and teaching. *Dicle Üniversitesi Ziya Gökalp Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 22, 230-247.

Simsek, M. R. (2020). The impact of service-learning on EFL teacher candidates' academic and personal development. *European Journal of Educational Research*, *9*(1), 1-17. https://doi.org/10.12973/eu-jer.9.1.1

Steen, G. (2002). Towards a procedure for metaphor identification. *Language and Literature*, *11*(1), 17-33. https://doi.org/10.1177/096394700201100103

Steen, G. (Ed.). (2010). *A method for linguistic metaphor identification: From MIP to MIPVU* (vol. 14). John Benjamins Publishing.

Ungar, O. A. (2016). Understanding teachers' attitude toward educational reforms through metaphors. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *77*, 117-127. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2016.03.008

Wegner, E., & Nückles, M. (2015). Knowledge acquisition or participation in communities of practice? Academics' metaphors of teaching and learning at the university. *Studies in Higher Education*, *40*(4), 624-643. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2013.842213

Wildman, M. T., J. A. Niles, S. G. Magliaro, and R. A. McLaughlin. (1989). Teaching and learning to teach: The two roles of beginning teachers. *The Elementary School Journal, 89*(4), 471-94.

Yilmaz, K. (2011). The cognitive perspective on learning: Its theoretical underpinnings and implications for classroom practices. *The Clearing House*, *84*(5), 204–212. https://doi.org/10.1080/00098655.2011.568989

Yüksel, İ. (2019). ELT pre-service teachers' conceptualization of teaching practice: A metaphor analysis of the dynamics of teaching practice. *International Journal of Higher Education*, *8*(4), 254-265. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v8n4p254

Zhu, G., Rice, M., Li, G., & Zhu, J. (2020). EFL student teachers' professional identity construction: A study of student-generated metaphors before and after student teaching. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2020.1777872

The Role of the English Article System in Developing Dialogical Context: A View from Russian Science

Thomas A. Beavitt, Natalia G. Popova

Institute of Philosophy and Law of the Ural Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Natalia G. Popova, Institute of Philosophy and Law, Ural Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences, Sofia Kovalevskaya str., 16, Ekaterinburg, 620108, Russian Federation. E-mail: ngpopova@list.ru

A common issue arising in international scientific communication concerns the use of zero, indefinite- and definite articles in English. While existing pedagogical approaches are successfully used to teach near-native competency in the use of English articles, the final stage of native-equivalent competency continues to evade even advanced ESL / EAP students, especially those whose first language (e.g. Russian) does not possess articles. Therefore, the present work is aimed at developing a conceptual approach to article use based on a consideration of the development of context in scientific communication. A literature review of some existing theoretical approaches shows a clear development from semantic and transformational-grammatical attitudes towards more pragmatic explicatory strategies based on dialogic communication. A qualitative content analysis of article errors appearing in the text of research papers written by Russian scientists and corrected by a native English editor revealed the presence of nine major article-related error types, of which the use of zero article with singular NPs instead of the definite article (Sx$\emptyset\sqrt{D}$) was the most common. NPs in sentences containing article errors were also evaluated according to Bickerton's NP semantic function typology, Hawkins' location theory and Liu and Gleason's major types. The hypothesis that Russian scientists, being highly educated, would generally tend to overuse *the, a* and *an* in an overcompensation for the tendency of less-well-educated Russians to drop articles when using English was not confirmed by the results of the content analysis. The analysis of article-use error types appearing in different sections of an IMRaD research paper showed that errors related to the overuse and underuse of the definite article *the* are particularly characteristic of the Introduction section. However, the largest number of article-related errors were found in the Discussion section, where the Sx$\emptyset\sqrt{D}$ error significantly outweighed other error types as compared with other sections. While existing conceptual approaches to explicating the function of the English article system have limited utility, a comprehensive system has yet to be developed. The authors recommend a dialogic approach for teaching the English article system to non-native speakers in the context of scientific communication.

Keywords: dialogic WE, definite article, contextual definiteness, noun phrases, Russian science, scientific communication, anaphor

Introduction

In the context of scientific communication, much attention has been focused on the structure of articles written for publication in academic journals. In particular, discussions have centred on the standardisation of such texts into the IMRaD[1] format, the identification of certain rhetorical "moves and steps" essential to the structure of styles of argumentation deemed "scientific" (Swales, 1990), as well as investigations into various linguistic factors (e.g. the appropriate use of different tenses in different sections (Hinkel, 2004), modality (Yang et al., 2015), pronouns (Taylor & Goodall, 2019), phraseology (Oakey, 2020), phrasal verbs (Alangari et al., 2020; Liu, 2012), hedges (Zanina, 2016), existential 'there' (Jiang & Hyland, 2020; Rasskazova et al., 2017), etc.) affecting the perceived publishability of scientific research papers in international journals, especially those indexed by the Web of Science and SCOPUS citation databases.

---

[1] Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion

In previous research, the authors of the present article focused on sociological issues associated with the standardisation of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) in the context of globalisation, problematising the apparent linguistic imperialism inherent in the IMRaD format, CLIL teaching technologies and English academic writing centres (Popova & Beavitt, 2017), as well as developing an understanding of the various definitions of "science" used in the framework of contemporary sociological analysis (Popova et al., 2018).

In this paper, we present a more detailed analysis of a particular linguistic problem affecting communication in Russian science, where English is widely used as a second language (ESL). The need to regularly publish research papers in English presents a considerable challenge to Russian scientists (Kirchik et al., 2012). Despite receiving instruction from linguistic specialists embedded in their respective institutions, and/or attending writing centres, Russian scientists continue to struggle with some aspects of the English language, resulting in the often-unavoidable requirement to pay for expensive services provided by native English editors prior to submitting their work for publication.

In particular, Russian EAP users struggle with the English article system (Chrabaszcz & Jiang, 2014), whose misuse, according to Randal Whitman, "is one of the most evident grammatical signs that a person is not a native speaker of English", thus comprising "one of the most formidable problems to overcome in teaching English grammar to foreigners" (Whitman, 1974, pp. 253–262). As Peter Master observes, while various teaching methodologies have been proposed in order to make this feature of English more accessible to the learner, "a few errors always remain and it seems in general that it is almost impossible for non-native speakers of English to arrive at the point where all article errors disappear, especially when their first languages do not contain an article system" (Master, 1995, pp. 183–184). At the same time, *the* ability to confidently deploy the most frequently-used word in the English language[2] comprises one of the most important stages in the transition to an advanced level of English competency; moreover, for writers who want to publish their work without relying on professional editing services, its mastery is non-optional.

Literature Review

In order to trace the development of understandings concerning the acquisition of competency in using the English article system, we present a review of the relevant literature.

Oliver Grannis notes that traditional accounts of definite article usage typically state it to follow "previous mention, generally in conjunction with the indefinite article" (Grannis, 1972, p. 279). However, he quotes the earlier work of Paul Christopherson to object that "there is a certain aversion to the use of a *the* form immediately after the word is introduced; a demonstrative is more usual in such cases" (Christophersen, 1939). Therefore, use of the definite article is "not a necessary consequence of previous mention" but rather "an option, subject to certain complicated stylistic constraints". Discussing these constraints in more detail, Grannis uses the example of the difference in meaning between "a bee stung me on the nose" and "the bee stung me on the nose" to problematise so-called "familiarity theory", i.e. the definite article is used to refer to that with which the speaker (or writer) is already familiar. Grannis shows that, in order to account for the semantic distinction between these examples, it is necessary to invoke a dialogue, since "the bee" is necessarily already familiar to *both* parties to the communication. Considering the distinction between determiners used in "have you seen the / my / a cat?" to show different degrees of familiarity, he observes that "the cat" is likely to be used with a family member, "my cat" with a neighbour, while "a cat" (followed by a description) is most appropriate in communication with a stranger (pp. 283–284). Grannis concludes that it is necessary to account for non-generic, productive uses of the definite article on the basis of "uniqueness within a given conversational situation", which must be thought of "in relative rather than absolute terms". Thus, definite article use involves a "complicated assessment of [the] listener's actual knowledge and probable expectations" as well as an invitation to "share in an attitude of uniqueness in respect to the concept in question" (p. 286).

Tracing the origins of the definite article in modern languages, Alan Somerstein refers to its emergence in Ancient Greek grammar, where its main function was to be "preposed to a great variety of adverbial expressions" in such a way that "an expression so prefixed could act as a noun phrase" (Sommerstein, 1972, p. 197).

---

[2] According to the Oxford English Corpus (OEC) and Corpus of Contemporary American English COCA

Sommerstein takes a transformational-grammatical (TG) approach to critique the earlier work of Paul Postal, in which English pronouns are considered as determiners whose following noun or noun phrase has been elided (Postal, 1969). While agreeing with Postal that such surface syntactic forms as pronouns should not be assumed to provide direct insight into corresponding deep syntactic forms, Sommerstein concludes that such an assumption would be just as misplaced with regard to the definite article.

Randal Whitman considers the article as performing a dual function of quantifier and determiner, "each of which is optional" (Whitman, 1974, pp. 253–262). For this reason, four distinct roles may be played by an article in a noun phrase (NP): (1) neither quantifier nor determiner; (2) quantifier alone; (3) determiner alone; and (4) both quantifier and determiner (p. 256). For this reason, the author recommends that the uses of articles should be taught in the following order: (1) quantity; (2) generic plural; (3) non-count nouns; (4) determiners; (5) generic articles (pp. 258–261).

In his book *The Roots of Language*, Derek Bickerton presents a study of the evolution of Hawaiian Creole English (HCE) via its antecedent form Hawaiian Pidgin English (HPE). Bickerton explains the transition from pidgin to creole according to the assumption that "speakers of different languages at first evolved some form of auxiliary contact-language, native to none of them (known as a pidgin), and that this language, suitably expanded, eventually became the native (or creole) language of the community which exists today" (Bickerton, 1981).

The evolution of creoles from English-based pidgins is of particular interest when considering article use. Bickerton demonstrates that, while in HPE articles only appear "sporadically and unpredictably", in HCE "the definite article *da* is used for all and only specific-reference NPs that can be assumed known to the listener […], the indefinite article *wan* is used for all and only specific-reference NPs that can be assumed unknown to the listener (typically first-mention use) [while] all other NPs have no article and no marker of plurality. This category includes generic NPs, NPs within the scope of negation – i.e., clearly nonspecific NPs – and cases where, while a specific referent may exist, the exact identity of that referent is either unknown to the speaker or irrelevant to the point at issue." (pp. 22–23).

John Hawkins also takes a TG approach to explain the conversion of underlying NP indefiniteness structures to corresponding surface definiteness structures (Hawkins, 1980, pp. 41–42). He shows that the surface definite articles in the italicised NPs in (1)–(3)

  (1) The aphasic resents the fact that everyone speaks a language.
  (2) I dislike the name Algernon.
  (3) I recalled the sweet little child that Harry used to be.

can be derived from the underlying indefinite structures italicised in (4)-(6)

  (4) That everyone speaks a language is a fact (which the aphasic resents).
  (5) *Algernon is a name* (which I dislike).
  (6) I recalled that Harry used to be a sweet little child.

Examining whether the definite article in such constructions can be shown to be "a surface definite article only, derivable from an underlying indefinite", Hawkins concludes that the conversion of the underlying indefinite to a surface definite is semantically motivated (pp. 42–63).

In an article published a decade later, the same author acknowledges that in the intervening period there has been a "growing understanding of the relationship between semantics and pragmatics", such that "many aspects of natural language understanding that were previously thought to be part of the conventional meaning of a given expression can now be shown to be the result of conversational inference" (Hawkins, 1991). Remaining within the TG paradigm, Hawkins cites implicature theory, originally proposed by Paul Grice and developed by Stephen Levinson in terms of interaction between Q(uantity)- and I(nformativeness)-implicatures, as "providing the right theoretical background for the kind of pragmatic-semantic-syntactic approach" initiated in his earlier work (p. 406). In order to discuss the property of uniqueness, which he shows, along with existence, to be "consistently required with definite descriptions" (p. 412), Hawkins designates a "general kind of knowledge of associative relationships between entities, such as the fact that any class at a university will have

a (unique) professor, which sanctions a first-mention *the professor* (even *Who is the professor?*) when students arrive for a new class at the beginning of the semester. Similarly, following mention of *a class*, the speaker can immediately talk of *the professor, the textbook, the final exam.*" Thus, members of a relevant linguistic community can predict that a particular class will have such unique members as "professor" and "textbook" based on the knowledge that such entities are typically included in the set that makes up such classes. Hawkins refers to such sets, used to define pragmatic parameters for the uniqueness of definite descriptions, as "P-sets" (pp. 408–409).

By the beginning of the 21st century, a more explicitly dialogical approach emerges in the work of Richard Epstein, who cites the accessibility theory of Ariel (1990) and the mental spaces theory of Fauconnier (1994) to argue that the function of *the* is to "signal the accessibility of a discourse referent" – or, more specifically, to denote "the availability of an access path through a configuration of mental spaces" (Epstein, 2002, pp. 341–342). Thus, for Epstein, the definite article serves as part of a set of "instructions for the construction of spaces, the introduction of elements into the spaces, the distribution of information over a given set of spaces and the accessibility of knowledge in a given space with respect to other spaces." From this perspective, it can be seen that all discourses have a starting point referred to in terms of "origin space", which, although "canonically identified with speaker reality", may unfold to include alternate "base spaces" that represent the respective realities of an interlocutor or third person. In a given discourse, such a base space provides an initial "viewpoint space", from which other spaces, such as the "focus space" to which structure is currently being added, can be accessed or created (p. 341).

Interpreting the role of the definite article according to the concept of accessibility[3] turns out to have counterintuitive consequences. While one might expect the definite article to demarcate NPs referring to highly accessible referents, Epstein convincingly demonstrates that this is not so using the following example:

    a. There's a cat in the yard. It's eating a mouse.
    b. There's a cat in the yard. #The cat is eating a mouse.

According to accessibility theory, although both *it* in (a) and *The cat* in (b) refer to the same uniquely identifiable entity introduced with the NP *a cat*, the unnaturalness of the definite article in (b) is due to the high accessibility of the referent. Therefore, in order to refer back to the cat with a NP in the subject position of the following sentence, it is necessary to use an anaphoric[4] expression – e.g. a pronoun – that indicates higher accessibility: the reason why the definite article is inappropriate in (b) is because it would connote lower accessibility than its referent (p. 340).

Citing Ariel (Ariel, 1990, pp. 22–30), Epstein lists four factors affecting accessibility: recency of mention, saliency, competition and unity (p. 344). He shows that in the example of

    (c) There's a cat and a dog in the yard. The cat is eating a mouse.

it is competition due to the presence of the dog that lowers the cat's accessibility, making the definite article a more natural choice than a pronoun, which would increase ambiguity due to competition between the two referents (p. 345)

Situating the question in a dialogic context, Epstein considers what specific factors motivate the choice of a definite description in a given situation and what interpretations an addressee is motivated to construct on encountering such an expression (p. 347). He goes on to discuss the role of the definite article in designating the prominence of entities in a discourse (pp. 349–357), assigning roles and values (pp. 357–363), contributing to shifts in points of view with respect to spaces (pp. 363–367), as well as underspecification (pp. 367–371), concluding that the definite article "is essentially a discourse processing instruction signalling that the means for interpreting the NP in which it occurs is available somewhere in the configuration of mental spaces, as long

---

[3] High accessibility corresponds to the immediacy with which items can be retrieved from short-term memory, while low accessibility characterises the retrieval of items from less immediate long-term memory

[4] In this context, *anaphora* (Greek: ἀναφορά, "carrying back") denotes structures used to refer to information previously introduced in the same text (or intertext).

as the appropriate spaces, elements and connections – i.e., access path – can be constructed by the addressee" (p. 371).

Taking a dynamic, speaker-oriented approach to describing the role of the definite article (as opposed to the hearer-oriented paradigm described by Hawkins (Hawkins, 1978), in which use of *the* depends not only on the speaker's referential intent, but also – crucially – on the speaker's assessment of the hearer's knowledge of the referent), Epstein shows that "speakers do not simply choose articles in a relatively passive way, responding chiefly to what they think hearers know, [but] often choose *the* even when they know that the hearer is not yet able to pick out the referent in question". Thus, the selection of articles is part of an "active, dynamic process of referent construction", in which interlocutors are prompted to accept certain referents into the discourse. As such, while the estimation of an interlocutor's knowledge is certainly relevant to the choice of article, it remains among other factors to be taken into consideration (pp. 371–372).

In his comparison of article-related material in corpuses and ESL grammars, Isaiah WonHo Yoo categorises uses of *the* into three main groups: referential, nonreferential and generic (WonHo Yoo, 2009). Referential forms are subdivided into anaphoric (i.e. second-mention), associative (anaphoric), situational, cataphoric (postmodification), unique reference and sporadic reference (pp. 268–269). Yoo also refers to the existence of two separate forms of zero article in English. Referring to his own earlier work (WonHo Yoo, 2008), as well as that of Andrew Chesterman (Chesterman, 2005) and Paul Christophersen (Christophersen, 1939), the author states that "the zero article, or $\emptyset_1$, precedes mass nouns and plural count nouns, whereas the null article, or $\emptyset_2$, precedes singular proper nouns and some singular count nouns" (p. 269). Examples of these quite distinct usages are provided as follows:

Athena loves $\emptyset_1$ milk and $\emptyset_1$ cookies.
Matthew was $\emptyset_2$ best man at my wedding.

Here, although zero article is used as expected with the uncountable mass noun "milk" and the plural count noun "cookies" to signify indefinite reference, the use of null article with "best man" connotes a greater degree of definiteness than if the definite article had been used. (Although the definite article could have been used here, it would tend to change the meaning of the proper noun or title "best man" to connote a superlative, i.e. although there were many good men at my wedding, Matthew was the best one).

In an effort to elucidate the English article system and pave the way for its successful acquisition by ESL learners, Russian linguists have developed a number of original concepts.

Taking a cognitive approach to investigating the article + noun structure in English, Alexander Smirnitsky suggests that the English article system serves to express the noun's logical-grammatical category, which is based on an opposition between abstraction and concretisation (Smirnitsky, 1959). Developing this idea, Yekaterina Dolgina analyses the choice of articles in terms of the human ability to perform categorisation procedures involving such cognitive operations as abstraction, classification and individualisation (Dolgina, 2008). According to Elena Kubryakova and Olga Iriskhanova, abstraction, which is based on the generalisation and dichotomisation of various categories (man and woman, writer and reader, good and evil), is generally indicated by a zero article (Kubryakova & Iriskhanova, 2007). Classification, which involves the identification of features typical of a certain class of notions or subjects, is marked by a noun with an indefinite article (*this chapter is an attempt to...*), while to denote cognitive processes of individualisation, which implies a narrowing of the meaning of a noun by distinguishing it among other subjects in a group, a definite article tends to be used.

Another productive research direction was to treat English articles as means of theme / rheme actualisation. Advancing the idea that they might play a "diagnostic informational" role, Boris Ilyish proposed that the indefinite article in "*The door opened and a young girl came in*" transforms the noun "girl" into a semantic predicate (Ilyish, 1948). Despite certain limitations, this theme / rheme concept continues to attract the attention of Russian linguistic researchers (Chernyakhovskaya, 1976; Khlabutina, 2011; Nikitin, 1997; Shevyakova, 1976).

According to the semantic approach taken by Vladimir Arakin, the definite article is treated as a lexical unit that includes the seme of individualisation, uniqueness or generalisation, while the seme of the indefinite article is stated to be that of classification (Arakin, 1989). However, according to Natalia Ogurechnikova, since articles merge functionally with speech events to mark speech units or "article syntagms", they can only convey information on the content and quantity of the thus-designated units.

In terms of empirical research, Dilin Liu and Johanna Gleason's study of the acquisition of proficiency in using the English article system evaluated the competency of 128 ESL low-, intermediate- and advanced students enrolled on an intensive English programme at a university in correctly using *the* when it is obligatory and avoiding its overuse when the indefinite or zero article would be more appropriate (Liu & Gleason, 2002). Liu & Gleason refer to Bickerton's (1981) typology of the semantic function of a NP, which analyses article use in terms of the combination of two discourse features: (I) whether a noun phrase (NP) denotes a specific referent (±SR) and (II) whether (it can be assumed that) the hearer knows the referent (±HK). Thus, NPs can be described as falling into four major semantic types:

1) Type 1 [−SR, +HK] "generic"; either the indefinite, definite – or, if plural, zero – article is used (*a / the tiger is a fierce animal / tigers are fierce animals*).
2) Type 2 [+SR, +HK] requires the definite article:
    a) unique (or conventionally assumed to be unique) referent (*the Pope)*;
    b) referent physically present (*Pass me the pepper please*);
    c) referent previously mentioned in the discourse (*the referent I previously mentioned)*;
    d) specific referent assumed to be known to the hearer (e.g., a resident in a small village with one church tells another resident – *My wife is at the church*).
3) Type 3 [+SR, −HK], where the indefinite – or, if plural, zero article – is used:
    a) first mention in the discourse of a [+SR] NP assumed to be unknown to the hearer (*Tom bought a car)*;
    b) first mention of a [+SR] NP that follows "existential have" and is assumed to be unknown to the hearer (*My computer has a new sound card*).
4) Type 4 [−SR,−HK], where the indefinite – or, if plural, zero article – is required:
    a) equative NPs (She is a single parent);
    b) NPs in a negation statement (*I don't have a car*);
    c) NPs in an interrogative sentence (*Do you have a pen?*);
    d) NPs in hypothetical statements (If I had had more money, I would have bought a new car).

Bickerton's classification indicates appropriate usage of articles as informed by user knowledge of their role in marking the various constraints governing the four main semantic NP types (pp. 2–3) Setting aside NP Types 1, 3 and 4, Liu & Gleason then refer to Hawkins' (1978) Location Theory classification of eight types of non-generic (p. 6) usages of the definite article: (1) 'anaphoric'; (2) 'visible situation'; (3) 'immediate situation'; (4) 'larger situation requiring specific knowledge'; (5) 'larger situation relying on general knowledge'; (6) 'associative anaphoric'; (7) 'unfamiliar usage with explanatory modifiers'; (8) 'unfamiliar usage with nonexplanatory modifiers'. Combining Hawkins' eight categories into four major types, Liu & Gleason distinguish between 'cultural' (larger situation usage requiring general knowledge), 'situational' (visible, immediate and requiring specific knowledge), 'structural' (unfamiliar usage with and without explanatory modifiers) and 'textual' (anaphoric including associative) usages of Bickerton Type 2 NPs where the non-generic definite article *the* is required (pp. 6–7).

To summarise, a number of distinct theoretical approaches have been taken to try to explain the uses of articles in English, including traditional, TG, evolutionary, pragmatic, cognitive, theme / rheme and semantic. Potentially useful classification schemes for structuring empirical research into article use based on these theoretical approaches include Bickerton's NP Semantic Type, Liu and Gleason's Major Type and Hawkins' Location Theory Type. The question of definiteness, which justifies the use of the definite rather than indefinite or zero article with a NP, is variously explicated in terms of familiarity, uniqueness, common knowledge and accessibility. Since all these theoretical approaches to explaining the question of definiteness turn out to reference a dialogue between speaker or writer and interlocutor or reader, in which context definiteness emerges, it makes sense to refer to a dialogic paradigm when considering didactic methodologies for teaching English article use to Russian scientists. As far as we are aware, no study has attempted to account for specific English article-use problems arising in the context of Russian science on the basis of existing theory. We

selected the existing theoretical models provided by Bickerton, Liu and Gleason, and Hawkins as the most applicable to our enquiry.

Research Problem and Hypotheses

In order to further examine the research problem concerning an explication of the incorrect or inappropriate use of English articles by Russian authors of research papers, we carried out a content analysis study based on a corpus of sentences derived from seven research papers written in the IMRaD format by Russian scientists in the fields of Organic Chemistry, Chemical Physics, Nanoscience, Marine Biology and High-Temperature Electrochemistry. These texts, aimed at publication in SCOPUS- and/or Web of Science-indexed international journals, had either been originally written in English or translated into English from Russian by a Russian translator. As such, although competently written, the texts were generally of a linguistic standard below that required for publication in international scientific journals and for this reason had been sent for correction by a professional native English editor[5]. The research problem was expanded to include the need to test the applicability of existing classification schemas to the problem of English article use by Russian scientists.

We hypothesised that Russian scientists, being highly educated, would generally tend to overuse *the, a* and *an* in an overcompensation for the tendency of less-well-educated Russians to drop articles when using English since the Russian language, in common with other Slavic languages, does not have an article system. In addition, we conjectured that NPs appearing in the Introduction section of a research paper, where there is likely to be a greater amount of confusion as to the definiteness of concepts, would be more likely to involve errors involving the definite article *the* (either overuse or underuse) than in other sections where the definiteness (or not) of NPs should already be clearer to both reader and writer.

Methodology

In order to test these hypotheses and elucidate the research problem, we decided to perform two separate analyses. The first of these was carried out at the level of the sentence in order to test the applicability of Bickerton's NP Semantic Type, Liu and Gleason's Major Type and Hawkins' Location Theory Type schemas, respectively. This schema analysis was performed on 77 sentences containing only one identified article-related error. The second analysis was carried out at the level of the individual NP in order to obtain quantitative information concerning the types of article-related errors in scientific reports written by Russian authors. For this purpose, we used a series of codes that capture all possible permutations of article-related errors, e.g. $Sx\emptyset\sqrt{D}$ represented a singular NP taking zero article when it should take the definite article. This error-code analysis was performed on 177 NPs derived from 123 sentences (i.e. including sentences containing more than one article-related error).

First, 123 sentences containing examples of article use deemed incorrect or stylistically-inappropriate[6] were extracted from the corrected versions of the manuscripts and pasted into a separate Microsoft Word file, leaving intact the tracked changes carried out by the editor. All extracted sentences included a main verb and at least one NP in which an article-related problem[7] required correction. Sentences containing additional corrected errors were only included if these other errors did not affect the use of articles. Each example sentence was then numbered and listed in two versions: original and corrected. Tracked changes to non-article related errors in the original sentence were accepted and the sentence was copy-pasted below to form the corrected version. Tracked article-related changes were then rejected in the original sentence and accepted in the corrected sentence. The relevant NPs were next underlined in both variants and any article (*the, a, an*) added by the editor was highlighted in italics in the corrected version.

---

[5] The research papers forming the basis for the content analysis reported here had all been corrected by Thomas Beavitt, one of the co-authors of the present paper, who has over ten years' experience working as a professional academic translator / editor / proof-reader.

[6] Article errors were categorised according to a process whereby the co-authors of the present article – each having relevant expertise, but in complementary areas – double-checked the categorisation of identified errors according to the logic of the presented schemas.

[7] Defined here as the incorrect or inappropriate use of definite, indefinite, zero (or null) articles, i.e. either an NP should have taken a definite or indefinite article but didn't, or a definite or indefinite article was used with an NP when a zero (or null) article would have been more appropriate.

Identification of NPs was carried out both with respect to the main verb and any verbs governing additional clauses, as well as relative to any genitive constructions e.g. with "of". According to the qualitative analysis approach, all NPs containing article-related errors were identified in the context of the research paper from which they were derived. Where NPs could be extended without involving any problematic genitive constructions, we did this in order to include the maximum quantity of explicit contextual information in the NP structure. Thus, in the following example, the underlined NP extends all the way to the verb

> "*The* results of mass density, molar volume and number density measurements are shown in Figure 1 along with the respective calculations."

whereas, in cases where issues were present in genitive constructions, e.g. with "of", the problematic NPs were separated, as in the example

> "*The* dependencies of *the* relative intensities of high-frequency characteristic bands of Raman spectra on composition are shown in Figure 9."

The example sentences were then analysed in a specially-designed database solution *NP-Analyser* based on the Filemaker Pro DBMS. First, both the original problematic and corrected variants of each sentence were entered into two respective fields of a database record in a table *Example_Sentences*. Each record was given a unique identifier, linked to its parent document and categorised according whether it appeared in the Introduction, Methods, Results or Discussion section of the paper. The NPs in 77 sentences containing only one problematic NP were categorised according to three semantic type classification schemas as shown in Tables 1, 2 and 3.

All 123 sentences containing article-related errors, including those sentences containing more than one article-related error, were then analysed according to the type of article-related error occurring in the NP. This exercise yielded a total of 177 problematic NPs featuring nine major error types, which were then imported into a new database table *NP_Article_Errors*. The use of relationships between tables allowed records from *Example-Sentences* and *NP_Article_Errors* tables to be viewed and analysed in portals on different layouts.

For example, the screenshot in Figure 1 shows the use of a portal to display records from the table *NP_Article_Errors* related to the table *Article_Error_Type* by the criterion of error code SxØ√D (singular NP takes zero article when it should take definite article). The drop-down list IMRaD_Section further restricts the display of related records in the portal to those that also conform to the filter *Discussion*.

Figure 1
Use of portal to display related records via multi-criteria relationship
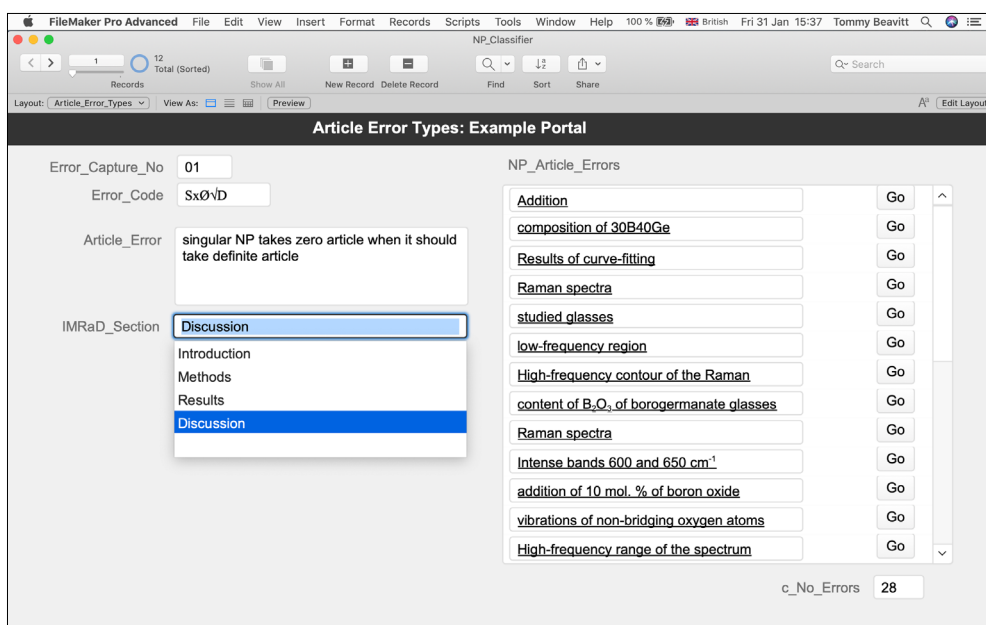
Results

The results of NP semantic function categorisation according to Bickerton's NP Semantic Type are as shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Sentence Analysis – Bickerton's NP Semantic Type

Type 1	Generic	0
Type 2	Unique, present, modified, previously mentioned or (assumed to be) known	39
Type 3	First mention in discourse or following existential have, assumed unknown to the interlocutor	14
Type 4	Equative, negative, interrogative and hypothetical objects	9
Unclassified		15
Total		**77**

It can be seen that none of the 77 NPs identified as problematic involved the generic definite article. 14 (18%) article problems related to NPs of Type 3 (first mention, assumed unknown), while 9 (12%) were associated with NPs of Type 4 (equative, negative, interrogative or hypothetical); in both of these semantic types, a singular NP should take an indefinite article and a plural should take zero article. The majority of identified article-related problems therefore concerned NPs of Type 2 (referents are unique, physically present, previously mentioned or specific and assumed to be known to the reader), for which a definite article is required. 15 of the sentences resisted Bickerton's classification and therefore fall outside the scope of the present work.

Those 39 sentences falling into Bickerton's NP Semantic Type 2 classification were then categorised according to Liu & Gleason's Major Type as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Sentence Analysis – Liu & Gleason Major Type

Structural	*The* is used with a first-mention noun that has a modifier.	24
Textual	*The* is used with a noun that has been previously referred to or is related to a previously mentioned noun.	7
Cultural	*The* is used with a noun that is a unique and well-known referent in a speech community.	6
Situational	*The* is used when the referent of a first-mention noun can be sensed directly or indirectly by the interlocutors or the referent is known by the members in a local community, such as the only dog in a family or the only bookstore in a town.	2
Total		**39**

Here it can be seen that nearly 62% (24) of problematic NPs were those whose semantic type was identified as 'structural', i.e. the definite article should be used with a first-mention noun that has a modifier (typically a genitive phrase with 'of'). 18% (7) problematic NPs were categorised as 'textual'; in other words, they refer back anaphorically to a referent that has already been mentioned in the text. 15% (6) of article errors concerned NPs categorised as 'cultural' (larger situation requiring general knowledge), while 5% (2) were associated with NPs whose semantic function was categorised as 'situational'.

To test the soundness of Liu and Gleason's Major Type construct, we also categorised sample Bickerton Type 2 NPs according to Hawkins' Location Theory Type as shown in Table 3.

From the data it can be seen that Hawkins' category of 'unfamiliar usage in NPs with explanatory modifiers' is fully captured by Liu & Gleason 'structural' type, with both categories accounting for 62% (24) of problematic NPs. Liu & Gleason's 'textual' type also fully captured Hawkins' 'anaphoric' and 'associative anaphoric' categories involving 18% (7) of problematic NPs. However, the 'cultural' and 'situational' uses in Liu & Gleason's typology seemed less well-suited for capturing article issues in scientific writing, where some discrepancies emerged with respect to Hawkins' location theory construct along with various internal consistencies.

Table 3
Sentence Analysis – Hawkins' Location Theory Type

Type 1	Anaphoric usage	Use of *the* when something is mentioned a second time and subsequently	6
Type 2	Visible situation usage	Use of *the* with a noun mentioned the first time to refer to something that both the speaker and the listener can see	1
Type 3	Immediate situation usage	Very similar to Type 2, the only difference being that the referent may not be visible	0
Type 4	Larger situation usage relying on specific knowledge	Use of *the* with a first-mention noun because it is known in the community	1
Type 5	Larger situation usage relying on general knowledge	Use of *the* with something that one can assume people from a country or around the world should know	1
Type 6	Associative anaphoric usage	Basically, the same as Type 1, the only difference being that first-mention *the* is used with a noun that is related to a previously mentioned noun, rather than being the same noun	1
Type 7	Unfamiliar usage in NPs with explanatory modifiers	Use of *the* with a first-mention noun that has an explanatory or identifying modifier in the form of a clause, prepositional phrase or noun	24
Type 8	Unfamiliar usage in NPs with nonexplanatory modifiers	Similar to Type 7, the only difference being that the modifier does not provide explanatory information	0
	Total		**34**

The results of analysing 177 problematic NPs according to nine major error types are as shown in Table 4.

Table 4
Types of article-related errors in scientific reports written by Russian authors

|		
Sx∅√D	Singular NP takes zero when it should take definite article	59
SxI√D	Singular NP takes indefinite when it should take definite article	12
Sx∅√I	Singular NP takes zero when it should take indefinite article	21
SxD√I	Singular NP takes definite when it should take indefinite article	18
SxD√∅	Singular NP takes definite when it should take zero article	21
SxI√∅	Singular NP takes indefinite when it should take zero article	5
Px0√D	Plural NP takes zero when it should take definite article	26
PxD√∅	Plural NP takes definite when it should take zero article	8
PxI√D	Plural NP takes indefinite when it should take definite article	1
SxPoss	Inappropriate use of singular possessive	1
PxPoss	Inappropriate use of plural possessive	1
UnCat	Uncategorisable error	4
Total		**177**

From Table 4, it can be seen that the most common (40%) type of article-related error produced by the authors of the analysed research papers involved a failure to use a definite article with a singular NP when required. Of these, 59 (33%) involved an incorrect use of zero article, while 12 (7%) involved an indefinite article use error. Another common error involved a failure to use an indefinite article with a singular NP when this was required (22%); here, zero article was used incorrectly in 21 cases (12%), while in 18 cases (10%) the definite article was incorrectly used. A slightly less frequent error affecting singular NP constructions concerned the overuse of definite (12%) and indefinite articles (3%) when a zero article would be preferred (total 15%). Article errors also applied to plural NP constructions; of these, 15% involved an incorrect usage of the zero article when a definite article would be preferred, 5% used a definite article when a zero article would have been more appropriate, while less than 1% involved the use of an indefinite article when a definite article was required. We also identified errors involving possessive constructions (a singular or plural possessive was used when a genitive construction with "of the" or an adjectivised NP would have been more appropriate), while around 2% of identified article-related errors were uncategorisable by the methods used in the present study.

In order to test the conjecture that NPs appearing in the Introduction section of a research paper would be more likely to involve errors involving the definite article *the* (either overuse or underuse) than in other

sections where the definiteness of NPs should already be clearer to both reader and writer, we analysed the incidence of article-related errors by IMRaD section. The results are presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2
Article errors by IMRaD section
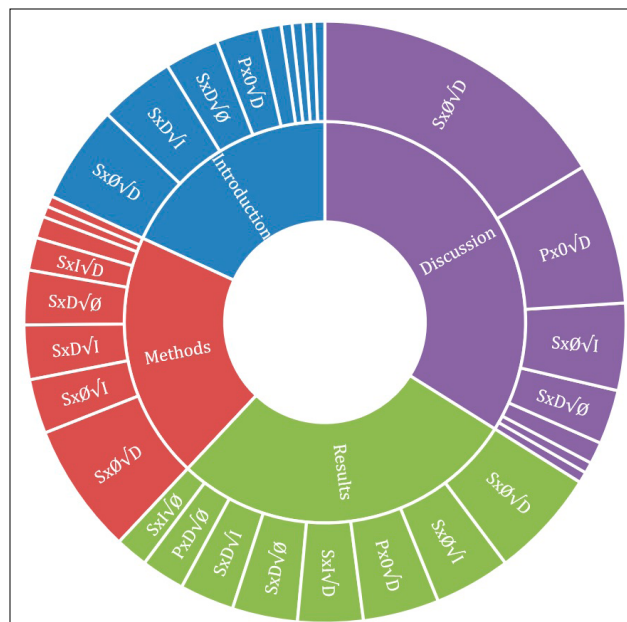
As can be seen from Figure 2, the largest number of article-related errors were found in the Discussion sections of the analysed research papers. Here, the most frequently encountered error was the use of zero article in singular NPs when a definite article should have been used (SxØ√D). Although this was the most frequently encountered error type in all IMRaD sections, it was markedly predominant in the Discussion section, while here the second-most frequent error type – the use of zero article in plural NPs when a definite article should have been used (Px0√D) – accounted for three times fewer errors. Conversely, in both Methods and Results sections, the second-most frequent error was the use of zero article in singular NPs when an indefinite article should have been used (SxØ√I). In the Introduction section, however, the SxØ√D-type error was closely followed by incorrect use of the definite article with singular NPs when the indefinite article should have been used (SxD√I).

Discussion

The hypothesis that Russian scientists would tend to overuse *the, a* and *an* in an overcompensation for the general tendency of Russians to drop articles when using English was not supported by the results of NP error analysis. On the contrary, by far the most frequent article-related error in the analysed sample involved zero article use when (in the estimation of the native English editor) the definite article would have been more appropriate; this finding applies to both singular (33%) and plural (15%) NP constructions. Conversely, only 12% (singular NP) and 5% (plural NP) of errors involved overuse of the definite article, while overuse of indefinite articles accounted for less than 3% of the errors affecting singular NPs. Perhaps unsurprisingly, given its well-understood role in enumerating the singular form, there was only one error (< 0.5%) involving erroneous use of the indefinite article in a plural NP.

Analysis of Errors Where Singular NP Takes Zero Instead of Definite Article (SxØ√D)

Since the most common source of article-related errors consisted in a failure to correctly use the definite article with NPs, we decided to analyse these errors in more detail. In terms of Liu & Gleason's functional NP typology,

we found that almost all of them *could*[8] be explained in terms of 'structural' usage, i.e. where *the* is used with a first-mention noun that has a modifier. Here, by far the most common type of modifier employed in such NP constructions involved genitive phrases with "of". For example, in

> *the* design of new materials having a low Ba concentration

the NP headword <u>design</u> is sufficiently modified (i.e. definitised) by the genitive complement <u>of new materials having a low Ba concentration</u> to warrant *the.*

In the case of

> *the* characteristic feature of which

the NP headword <u>feature</u> is sufficiently definitised both by the adjective <u>characteristic</u> and the genitive complement <u>of which</u>, where <u>which</u> functions as a pronoun that refers anaphorically to a previous NP.

In addition to NPs definitised by genitive complements with 'of', a number of other modifier constructions may be identified. For example, in the case of

> *the* so-called "germanate anomaly"

<u>"germanate anomaly"</u> can be seen as having been sufficiently definitised by the adjective phrase <u>so-called</u> to warrant *the.*

In the case of

> *the* other side

it is not so clear whether 'structural' is the most clarifying explanation. Perhaps it is also possible to think of *the* being used in a 'textual' or even 'cultural' sense? In any case, it seems clear that the headword <u>side</u> is definitised by the adjective <u>other</u> to the extent that it exists in opposition to a 'this side' that already exists in the present dialogic context.

Similarly, in the case of

> *the* studied glasses

<u>studied</u> functions not so much as a definitising modifier, but as a reminder that the particular <u>glasses</u> to which the discourse presently refers have not only been previously mentioned in the text, but indeed are of central concern to the entire communicative endeavour.

While

> *the* low-frequency region

may likewise be interpreted in terms of the headword <u>region</u> being 'structurally' definitised by the adjectival phrase <u>low-frequency</u>, here a better explanation may be in terms of a 'situational' NP function (since the referred-to <u>region</u> is present to both writer and reader in the form of a diagram).

Again, with

> *the* intense bands at 600 and 650 cm^{-1}

---

[8] We once more emphasise that many of the article use choices made by professional editors with English as a first language are stylistic rather than strictly grammatical; this principle also applies to the classifications of article errors presented in this research paper, which are often open to more than one possible interpretation.

it is possible to consider the headword <u>bands</u> as being definitised by the modifier <u>intense</u> and the locative prepositional phrase <u>at 600 and 650 cm^{-1}</u> ('structural'); however, here there is also a 'situational' aspect produced by the visual presence of a graph.

In the case of

> <u>*the*</u> <u>replacement of germanium by boron</u>

we can see a very typical 'structural' use of <u>*the*</u> in scientific language, where the headword <u>replacement</u> is actually a rather indefinite verbal noun; therefore, its definitising modification by <u>of germanium by boron</u> is highly 'structural', not to say formulaic.

Again, with

> <u>*the*</u> <u>40B30Ge composition</u>

the definitising modification of the headword <u>composition</u> by the abbreviation <u>40B30Ge</u> is clearly and typically 'structural'.

One or two examples of 'textual' (i.e. anaphoric) usage can be identified, e.g. the NP

> <u>*the*</u> <u>glass</u>

is used to identify a referent that appeared earlier in the text (if the definite article were dropped, as per the uncorrected sample, the statement predicated on this NP would appear to apply to glass in general).

Likewise, in

> <u>*the*</u> <u>current paper</u>

<u>current</u> functions not so much as a definitising modifier ('structural') as a discourse marker, whose function does not appear to be fully captured by either Liu & Gleason's 'textual' category or Hawkins' 'anaphoric' or 'associative anaphoric' descriptors.

Although in the cases of

> <u>*the*</u> <u>sol-gel method</u>

and

> <u>*the*</u> <u>non-trivial Berry phase of π</u>

the presence of modifiers definitising the headwords method and phase may be noted, it is probably better to explain this use of the definite article in terms of Hawkins' 'larger situation usage relying on specific knowledge' (simplified by Liu & Gleason into the broader 'cultural' category). Here both sol-gel method and non-trivial Berry phase are terms with which a specialist in the field of the respective research paper would be expected to be familiar.

Finally, we also found evidence of what Hawkins describes in terms of 'larger situation usage relying on general knowledge', also simplified by Liu & Gleason into 'cultural'. Here

> <u>*the*</u> <u>coastal zone</u>

> <u>*the*</u> <u>open sea</u>

> <u>*the*</u> <u>continental shelf in the southern part of the North Sea, English Channel and Irish Sea</u>

appear to be definitised by general (i.e. geographic) knowledge that any non-specialised reader might be expected to possess.

Analysis of Error Types by Frequency of Occurrence in IMRaD Sections

The conjecture that NPs appearing in the Introduction section of a research paper would be more likely to involve errors involving the definite article *the* (either overuse or underuse) than in other sections due to the definiteness of NPs being less clear received partial confirmation by our analysis of the incidence of article-related errors by IMRaD section (see Figure 2). In the Introduction section, the five most common article-related error types involved overuse or underuse of the definite article, while in the Methods and Results sections, the second-most frequent error was the use of zero article in singular NPs when an indefinite article should have been used (SxØ√I); in the Discussion section, this error (SxØ√I) was the third most frequent type.

A few examples of the kinds of errors involving overuse or underuse of the definite article in the Introduction section are discussed below:

> Since *the conductivity of these materials* is lower than those of BaCeO3 or BaZrO3, *the application of yttrates* is unlikely to be practical under real conditions.

Here it appears that, although the SxØ√D error concerning application of yttrates is purely 'structural', the failure to correctly use *the* with conductivity of these materials (SxØ√D) may be partially attributed to the author not realising that the anaphoric these sufficiently definitises materials (referred to earlier in the Introduction section).

> The summer maximum phytoplankton development period begins with *a bloom of nitrogen-fixing blue-green algae*.

Here, the author's use of a definite article with the NP bloom of nitrogen-fixing blue-green algae has been corrected by the editor to indefinite article (SxD√I). The reason for this is that the reader is being provided with new information about a seasonal bloom that occurs regularly. It should not be supposed that even a specialist reader will know the exact nature of such blooms; besides, even if he or she does, the way such information is conventionally presented in the Introduction section prohibits the use of the definite article.

A similar error occurs with

> The recent discovery of [the] type-I Weyl semimetals (WSMs) belonging to the TaAs family of compounds has stimulated research efforts to study new WSM candidates exhibiting breaking of either time-reversal or spatial inversion symmetry.

In this case, due to the NP being plural, the author's overuse of the definite article has been corrected by the editor to zero article (SxD√Ø). Again, since the reader is being provided with new information about a recent discovery, the way such information is conventionally presented in the Introduction section forbids the use of the definite article.

In the case of

> In such a situation, QAHE vanishes due to the Berry curvatures contributed from *the two Weyl pairs* cancelling each other out.

the author's use of zero article with a plural NP has been corrected with the definite article (Px0√D). Since a specialist reader may be supposed to already know that Weyl nodes always come in pairs, the use of the definite article can be seen here as 'cultural'; moreover, a non-specialist native English reader already knows that interacting pairs are already sufficiently ('structurally'?) definitised to take a definite article.

Similarly, with

> During autumn and winter seasons, a meandering frontal zone forms between the relatively cold coastal and warm marine waters; a similar phenomenon also occurs between <u>the</u> <u>relatively fresh coastal and relatively saline marine waters</u> during spring and summer.

the author's use of *a* with <u>relatively fresh coastal and relatively saline marine waters</u> has been corrected to <u>*the*</u> (SxIv√D); however, in this case it may be the competition between <u>relatively fresh coastal</u> and <u>relatively saline marine waters</u> that results in the definitisation of the combined NP.

The unexpectedly significant preponderance in the Discussion section of the error type involving use of zero article in singular NPs when a definite article should have been used (SxØ√D) also seems worthy of discussion. Here it would appear that Russian authors may not be comfortable with using *the* to refer to concepts already definitised within the present discourse (i.e. in the Introduction, Methods and Results sections).

For example, in

> <u>*The*</u> <u>results of curve-fitting</u> applied to <u>*the* Raman spectra</u> of <u>*the* studied glasses</u> are presented in Tables 2-4 for compositions 0B70Ge, 70B0Ge and 35B35Ge respectively.

the three NPs corrected with the addition of <u>*the*</u> (SxØ√D) have all been sufficiently definitised by their previous appearance in the earlier sections of the paper.

A similar consideration applies to plural NP constructions such as

> <u>*The* obtained dependencies</u> allow us to state that initially there is a weak change in properties until the ratio of B/Ge in the glass becomes equal to 2 (35B35Ge).

Here, the headword <u>dependencies</u> is not only definitised 'structurally' by the adjective <u>obtained</u> but has additionally been definitised 'textually' by previous discussion, i.e. it is an example of anaphoric usage.

Conclusion

The results of our review of the literature on the English article system show that, while much useful theoretical work has been done, a comprehensive explicatory system – or universal 'algorithm' – has yet to be developed. Our analysis of article-related NP errors produced by Russian scientists according to the categories developed by Bickerton, Hawkins and Liu and Gleason showed that, while useful, these typologies neither account for all errors nor provide hard-and-fast distinctions between the possible rationales according to which errors produced in non-native scientific writing are to be corrected. In particular, Liu and Gleason's attempted simplification of Hawkins' Location Theory construct into 'structural', 'textual', 'cultural' and 'situational' uses was seen to result in a reduced ability to capture article-related issues in scientific writing. Regardless of the typology used, however, a significant number of article errors were observed to occur whose solution could be explained according to more than one NP functional typology.

It can be seen that, especially as used in the Introduction and Discussion sections of an IMRaD research paper, the choice of definite, indefinite or zero (Ø) articles implies the emergence of a "dialogic WE" – i.e. in the terms of Epstein and Fauconnier, a shared mental space – in which the emerging contextual definiteness of specialised terms and concepts becomes part of the implicit – and, through the process of communication, explicit – knowledge shared between writer and reader (or speaker and interlocutor). In our opinion, while the majority of the theoretical work reviewed in this paper has some pedagogical value, the most productive approach to developing an understanding of the English article system for scientists would consist in drawing attention to the rhetorical role played by articles in the development of context according to a *dialogic paradigm*, in which, as proposed by Richard Epstein, articles function in the construction of sets of common mental spaces and the

distribution of information within these mental spaces, as well as helping to signal the accessibility of knowledge in a given space relative to other spaces.

In future work, we aim to carry out a larger-scale content analysis of English article-related errors produced by Russian scientists, as well as to develop a theoretical basis for categorising and explicating such errors as informed by an understanding of their role in structuring the developing context of scientific communication according to the paradigm of the "dialogic WE" of writer and reader. An additional relevant direction for future research would be to carry out a detailed examination of how the Russian language encodes the referentiality function of the English article system.

An Appendix, containing the list of article errors derived from research papers written by Russian scientists and forming the basis for the empirical research detailed in this paper, is available on request.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Alangari, M., Jaworska, S., & Laws, J. (2020). Who's afraid of phrasal verbs? The use of phrasal verbs in expert academic writing in the discipline of linguistics. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *43*, 100814. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.100814

Arakin, V. (1989). *Comparative typology of the English and Russian languages*. Prosveshhenie.

Ariel, M. (1990). *Accessing Noun-Phrase Antecedents*. Routledge.

Bickerton, D. (1981). *Roots of language*. Karoma Press. http://langsci-press.org/catalog/book/91

Chernyakhovskaya, L. (1976). *Translation and the structure of meaning*. Mezhdunarodnye otnoshenija.

Chesterman, A. (2005). *On definiteness: A study with special reference to English and Finnish* (Digitally printed 1st pbk. version). Cambridge University Press.

Chrabaszcz, A., & Jiang, N. (2014). The role of the native language in the use of the English nongeneric definite article by L2 learners: A cross-linguistic comparison. *Second Language Research*, *30*(3), 351–379. https://doi.org/10.1177/0267658313493432

Christophersen, P. (1939). *The Articles: A study of Their Theory and Use in English*. Einar Munksgaard.

Dolgina, E. (2008). The study of the articles in modern English: A cognitive approach. *Issues of Cognitive Linguistics*, *4*, 25–32.

Epstein, R. (2002). *The definite article, accessibility, and the construction of discourse referents*. Cognitive Linguistics, *12*(4), 333-378. https://doi.org/10.1515/cogl.2002.007

Grannis, O. C. (1972). The definite article conspiracy in English. *Language Learning*, *22*(2), 275–289. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1972.tb00088.x

Hawkins, J. (1978). *Definiteness and indefiniteness: A study in reference and grammaticality prediction*. Routledge.

Hawkins, J. (1980). On surface definite articles in English 'Proving underlying indefiniteness and explaining the conversion to definiteness'. In *The Semantics of Determiners (RLE Linguistics B: Grammar)* (vol. 24, pp. 41–66). Routledge.

Hawkins, J. (1991). On (In)definite Articles: Implicatures and (un)grammaticality Prediction. *Journal of Linguistics*, *27*(2), 405–442.

Hinkel, E. (2004). Tense, aspect and the passive voice in L1 and L2 academic texts. *Language Teaching Research*, *8*(1), 5–29. https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168804lr132oa

Ilyish, B. (1948). *Modern English language* (2nd ed.). Izdatelstvo literatury na angliiskom yazyke.

Jiang, F. (Kevin), & Hyland, K. (2020). "There are significant differences…": The secret life of existential there in academic writing. *Lingua*, *233*, 102758. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2019.102758

Khlabutina, L. (2011). Indefinite article as rheme actualization means in scientific discourse. *Philological Sciences. Issues of Theory and Practice*, *2*, 182–186.

Kirchik, O., Gingras, Y., & Larivière, V. (2012). Changes in publication languages and citation practices and their

effect on the scientific impact of Russian science (1993–2010). *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, *63*(7), 1411–1419. https://doi.org/10.1002/asi.22642

Kubryakova, E., & Iriskhanova, O. (2007). Linguistic abstraction in the names of categories. *The Bulletin of the Russian Academy of Sciences: Studies in Literature and Language*, *66*(2), 3–12.

Liu, D. (2012). The most frequently-used multi-word constructions in academic written English: A multi-corpus study. *English for Specific Purposes*, *31*(1), 25–35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2011.07.002

Liu, D., & Gleason, J. L. (2002). Acquisition of the article 'the' by non-native speakers of English: An analysis of four nongeneric uses. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *24*(1), 1–26.

Master, P. (1995). Consciousness raising and article pedagogy. In *In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds.), Academic writing in second language*: *Essays on research and pedagogy* (pp. 183–204). Ablex.

Nikitin, M. (1997). *Course on linguistic semantics*. Nauchnyj centr problem dialoga.

Oakey, D. (2020). Phrases in EAP academic writing pedagogy: Illuminating Halliday's influence on research and practice. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *44*, 100829. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.100829

Popova, N. G., & Beavitt, T. A. (2017). English as a means of scientific communication: Linguistic imperialism or interlingua? *Integration of Education*, *21*(1), 54–70. https://doi.org/10.15507/1991-9468.086.021.201701.054-070

Popova, N. G., Biricheva, E. V., & Beavitt, T. A. (2018). Three aspects of the phenomenon of science: In search for unity among sociologists. *The Education and Science Journal*, *20*(9), 35–55. https://doi.org/10.17853/1994-5639-2018-9-35-55

Postal, P. (1969). On so-called 'pronouns' in English. In D. Reibel & S. Schane (Eds.), *Modern studies in English* (pp. 201-223). Prentice-Hall.

Rasskazova, T., Guzikova, M., & Green, A. (2017). English language teacher development in a Russian university: Context, problems and implications. *Ampersand*, *4*, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amper.2017.01.001

Shevyakova, V. (1976). *Actual division of the sentence.* Nauka.

Smirnitsky, A. (1959). *Morfologija anglijskogo jazyka* [Morphology of the English Language]. Izdatel'stvo literatury na inostrannyh jazykah.

Sommerstein, A. H. (1972). On the so-called definite article in English. *Linguistic Inquiry*, *3*(2), 197–209.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge University Press.

Taylor, H., & Goodall, J. (2019). A preliminary investigation into the rhetorical function of 'I' in different genres of successful business student academic writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *38*, 135–145. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.01.009

Whitman, R. L. (1974). Teaching the article in English. *TESOL Quarterly*, *8*(3), 253–262. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586169

WonHo Yoo, I. (2008). A corpus analysis of (the) last/next + temporal nouns. *Journal of English Linguistics*, *36*(1), 39–61. https://doi.org/10.1177/0075424207306710

WonHo Yoo, I. (2009). The English definite article: What ESL/EFL grammars say and what corpus findings show. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *8*(4), 267–278. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2009.07.004

Yang, A., Zheng, S., & Ge, G. (2015). Epistemic modality in English-medium medical research articles: A systemic functional perspective. *English for Specific Purposes*, *38*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2014.10.005

Zanina, E. (2016). Strategic hedging: A comparative study of methods, results and discussion (and conclusion) sections of research articles in English and Russian. *Journal of Language and Education*, *2*(2), 52–60. https://doi.org/10.17323/2411-7390-2016-2-2-52-60

Empirical Evidence on the Effectiveness of the Learning by Teaching Technique among University-level English as a Foreign Language Students

Usman Kasim, Asnawi Muslem, Faisal Mustafa

Universitas Syiah Kuala

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Faisal Mustafa, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Syiah Kuala, Jl. Teuku Nyak Arief No.441, Kopelma Darussalam, Kec. Syiah Kuala, Kota Banda Aceh, Aceh 23111, Indonesia . E-mail: faisal.mustafa@unsyiah.ac.id

Learning via teaching has been accepted as one of the best ways to achieve a deep understanding of a topic. This research was aimed at seeking scientific evidence to support this claim by comparing the scores the university-level EFL students obtained through the learning by teaching technique and those obtained by students who were taught traditionally using a teacher-centered approach. The experimental group consisted of 22 students who were taught pedagogical content knowledge, i.e. English Language Testing, traditionally for half of the semester and then teaching students at another university afterward. The control group consisted of 24 students who were taught language testing traditionally by the same instructor for the whole semester. Both groups were given a test to measure their content knowledge achievement; one test at the beginning of the semester and one at the end of the semester. Two-way ANOVA was used to compare the two groups' scores, and find out how the differences in the scores was affected by the type of instruction. The results showed that there was significant evidence that the students' scores improved significantly in both groups. However, the difference in test scores between pre-test and post-test did not depend on the type of instruction. Because the experimental group could achieve the same performance as those of the control group regardless of the shorter instruction period, it can be concluded that learning by teaching has potential as an effective method for teaching pedagogical content knowledge. Suggestions for possible modifications of this technique are discussed in this paper.

Keywords: learning by teaching, workshops, pedagogical content knowledge, language testing, statistical evidence

Introduction

Teaching has been recognized as the best way to learn something in detail (Tsui, 2010). When students teach their peers, they undergo a process that Roscoe and Chi (2007) termed knowledge-building. It is a process of creating knowledge and integrating it into prior knowledge (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 2010). Furthermore, according to Roscoe (2014), this process is correlated to a deeper understanding. In addition, many teachers believe that they can understand a topic better after they teach the topic to their students (Blair et al. 2007). The knowledge-building that comes from the process of teaching other students is a result of the teaching preparation, their students' comprehension problems, and questions asked by their classes (Hunt & Hunt, 2005). For pre-service teachers, they will learn how to teach in addition to understanding the content by practicing teaching in front of a class (Graves, 1972).

The idea of learning by teaching others was first proposed as early as the beginning of the 17th century, if not earlier (Bowermaster, 1978). This idea was found in many early publications such as, among others, Allison (1976), Graves (1972), Change, Dec, and Feeney (1969), Frager and Stern (1970), and McWhorter and Levy (1971). In these publications, the authors implied that the students who were taught through the learning by teaching technique outperformed those who were taught by traditional instructor-delivered materials. Duran (2017) revealed that empirical research on the topic covered the areas of peer teaching, teaching preparation, and explaining materials. In addition, a survey by Grzega and Schöner (2008) showed that learning by teaching

was effective and efficient for learning content knowledge. However, there is limited empirical evidence on whether students teaching the materials to a real class learned better than those who were simply taught the materials. Therefore, this study compared scores between two groups of students using statistical analysis to seek scientific evidence on the effectiveness of learning by teaching in terms of students' achievement. The results of this study provide insights into how learning by teaching contributes to the learning of content knowledge.

Literature Review

The Emergence of the Learning by Teaching Technique

The idea of learning by teaching dates back to the era of John Comenius, a teacher, educator, philosopher, and writer who is considered the father of modern education. His famous wise words are "He who teaches others, teaches himself", found in his famous work Didactica Magna written circa 1631 (Bowermaster, 1978). However, this method has been practiced since the first century AD (Krouse, Gerber, & Kauffman, 1981). More proposals on learning by teaching were found in the second half of the 20th century, and it has become a subject of research ever since (Trovato & Bucher, 1980). Those research studies reported the process of learning by teaching implementation in a classroom. Topping (2005) states that this teaching technique was first implemented in language skill classrooms but it has now been introduced to a wide range of subjects.

Currently, the learning by teaching technique in Asia is being popularized by Turku University of Applied Sciences under the INDOPED (Indonesian Pedagogy) program financially sponsored by Erasmus++ (Munawar & Zulfahrizal, 2019). Its implementation is now restricted to the university level, with the intention of teaching content knowledge. The program has been implemented in five universities in Indonesia, supervised by five European universities (Kairisto-mertanen & Budiono, 2019). In Indonesia, the Ministry of Education has agreed to adopt this teaching technique and will financially support the implementation of this program. Therefore, scientific evidence of its effectiveness is urgently required.

Advantages of the Learning by Teaching Technique

The advantages of learning by teaching lie in what teachers do as preparation, which includes "organizing the content, selecting materials and teaching strategies, and preparing instruction according to the needs of a particular group of learners" (Gülten, 2013, p. 1409). In this preparation process, teachers need to read materials critically (Tsui, 2003), which improves teachers' understanding of the material. The learning components in this preparation process benefit the students being taught using the learning by teaching technique. Although planning activities for teaching is helpful for learning in the classroom, the focus of this technique is on exposing students to content knowledge, which seems convincingly achievable in this process (Podl & Metzger, 1994).

The advantage of lesson planning is also enhanced by the fact that students who are taught using the learning by teaching technique are pre-service teachers. Because they are pre-service teachers who are often inexperienced at teaching, they put more effort in reviewing the material in comparison to other class preparations such as planning activities, designing a syllabus, or preparing assessments (Derri et al., 2014). As a result, they will master the material, which is in line with the purpose of university classroom instruction (Hutagaol-Martowidjoyo & Adiningrum, 2019). This conclusion is supported by an experimental research study conducted by Bargh and Schul (1980), who found that students learn better when they believe that they need to re-teach the materials than those who learn for reasons such as for passing an exam.

The next process of learning by teaching is explaining the material to students or peers. Students review and evaluate the information they learn from the material while they are explaining it to others (Duran, 2017). This process increases the students' retention of the information (Fiorella & Mayer, 2013) and turns the information into knowledge (Duran, 2017). An experimental study conducted by Annis (1983) confirmed that students perform better when they are learning to prepare themselves for explaining the materials and actually do it. The reason for the effectiveness of this process is given by Roscoe and Chi (2007). They proposed that explaining

material to others allows students to experience reflective knowledge-building and deepen their already-built knowledge.

The last process of learning by teaching is the interaction with students. In this interaction, one of the most significant opportunities for learning occurs, i.e. questioning (Duran, 2017). This process includes the student tutors asking questions to stimulate student tutees' schemata and answering questions asked by the tutees. When asking questions, students need to assess what they already know in order to determine what they do not yet know (Chin & Osborne, 2008). According to Aflalo (2018), this question generation enhances learning because it improves students' cognitive abilities. The major benefit of questioning occurs when student tutors respond to questions (Roscoe & Chi, 2007). Albergaria-Almeida (2010) hypothesized that answering questions can improve a tutor's conceptual understanding of the materials.

Challenges with the Learning by Teaching Technique

In addition to its promised advantages, learning by teaching also poses some potential challenges for students and professors. Like the presentation technique, i.e. learning by presenting in front of the class in groups or individually (Tsang, 2017), the topic taught by a group or an individual only benefits the group or individual teaching it. There is very limited information from the literature about the effectiveness of this technique. Therefore, students taught using teaching by learning can only be expected to deeply understand the topic that they are teaching. However, this disadvantage can be minimized by including the rest of the class as the audience and providing some assessment activity at the end of the class. There is some consensus that students understand better when taught by their peers (Aburahma & Mohamed, 2017; Naeger et al., 2013).

Another possible challenge of the learning by teaching technique is that it requires a lot of effort on the part of students (Hutagaol-Martowidjoyo & Adiningrum, 2019) and professors alike (Fibra, 2019). When students are assigned to teach students outside their university or members of the public, the process is longer and more involved. The students need to negotiate with the head of the target institution and collaborate with the institution to recruit prospective students (Kasim, 2019). However, each of these steps in the preparation and teaching provides many other benefits for students, as listed by Fibra (2019). Students will learn skills required in a working environment, including complex problem-solving, critical thinking, creativity, people management, coordinating with others, judgement and decision making, service orientation, and negotiation.

The Current Study

The current literature has shown evidence that learning by teaching was an effective technique that can be used to teach procedural skills, conceptual skills, content knowledge, and soft-skills. The current research was intended to find out whether this technique is superior in terms of students' achievement of content knowledge. Therefore, this research was intended to answer the research question "Is there any significant difference in achievement between students taught using the learning by teaching technique and those taught using a teacher-centered approach?"

Methodology

Research Design

This research was a quantitative research study with a true-experimental design. The study involved two groups, where one group received the instruction using the learning by teaching technique, and the other received traditional instruction through lectures.

Participants

The data for this research study were collected using a pre-test and a post-test administered to two groups of undergraduate students majoring in the English Language Teaching Department at Samudra University, which is a state university in one of the districts in Aceh, Indonesia. The samples for the research were collected in a randomly selected language testing course. All students enrolled in the course were selected to be the research

participants. The university divided the course into two groups. For the purpose of this research, one of the groups was assigned as the experimental group and the other the control group. The students' participation in all class activities was a requirement for successful course completion, and thus only the students who participated in more than 75% of all activities were included in this research. The first group, i.e. the experimental group, consisted of 25 students and the second group, the control group, consisted of 30 students. The students were between 18 and 20 years of age, with an average age of 19 years old. The tests were conducted in a language testing course offered to 6th-semester students. A detailed description of the students is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Description of the research sample

Groups	Males	Females	Total
Experimental group	5	20	25
Control group	0	30	30

The pre-test was conducted at the beginning of the semester, and the post-test was administered at the end of the semester.

Research Procedure and Ethical Considerations

In this experimental research, *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices* written by Brown (2004) was used as the primary teaching material. The topics covered in the book are presented in Table 2.

Table 2
Topics covered in the language testing course

No	Topics	Workshop provided by	Group members
1	Introduction to language testing	-	-
2	Principle of language assessment	Group 1	4 students
3	Designing classroom language tests	Group 2	4 students
4	Standardized testing	Group 3	5 students
5	Standard-based assessment	-	-
6	Assessing listening	Group 4	4 students
7	Assessing speaking	Group 6	5 students
8	Assessing reading	-	-
9	Assessing writing	-	-
10	Authentic assessment	Group 5	5 students
11	Alternatives in assessment	-	-

As presented in Table 2, due to time limitations and the number of groups, not all topics were included in the workshop, although the remaining topics were taught traditionally by the professor.

The experimental group received traditional classroom interaction for half a semester, i.e. eight meetings, while the control group received a full semester of classroom instruction. After the second meeting, the students were placed into six groups consisting of four or five students, as in Table 2, to work on teaching preparation, which included seeking permission from the target institution, negotiating the schedule, requesting class participants, and preparing materials. Each group was assigned one of the topics to teach, as shown in Table 2. Students regularly had a group meeting outside of class to prepare the materials and invited their professor to help them with the preparation. While preparing the materials, the students also discussed how the materials could be presented. In the preparation period, the group members helped each another understanding the material and they worked together to design the teaching activities. They re-read the material together several times to gain a level of understanding adequate for teaching. Students kept asking questions to their peers and lecturer when they had a problem understanding the materials. Because they took turns teaching, they planned what they should say together, so their teaching performance was coherent. This preparation was significant because it helped the students build knowledge by asking questions and reading actively.

The teaching was delivered through a workshop, and the workshop participants were students also majoring in English language teaching at another state university in the same city. Before the workshop, the students prepared a banner and certificates for student trainers and workshop participants. They also designed a questionnaire for feedback from the participants. In the workshop, the group members took turns presenting the selected material. Each group took about 90 minutes to present the material and facilitate other learning activities. Other groups also participated in the workshop as observers. Although the students had been advised to employ innovative expert-recommended teaching methods and techniques, such as the jigsaw technique and the Student Team Achievement Division (STAD), none of the groups seemed to use any of those in the workshop. All of the groups started the class with an icebreaker activity, then presented the material using PowerPoint, and concluded the class by conducting a student understanding confirmation activity such as a written quiz or inviting volunteer participants to answer one or two questions orally. Since the students were majoring in English language teaching, they had completed many courses on language teaching. During the workshop, they seemed to incorporate some concepts of language pedagogy such as providing rewards, inviting participants to pay attention, presenting them with leading questions, and making an effort to promote engagement among the workshop participants.

Instrument

The pre-test was designed to be similar to the post-test. The test covered all the materials on the syllabus, with an average of five questions for each topic. The test was made of multiple-choice questions developed by the authors. The test consisted of 50 questions, where each question had a weight of one, and thus the possible score range was between 0 and 50. The questions on the test focused on students' ability to recall the concepts they had learned in the course. There was one correct answer for each question, accompanied by three other distractors. The distractors were meant to pull test takers away from selecting the right answer when they did not know the correct answer (Brown, 1996). In writing the distractors, the authors followed the distractor requirements proposed by Cohen (2012) and Allan (1992), i.e. the distractors should not be easily eliminated without knowing the correct answer, and they should not paraphrase each other. Based on the reliability analysis, the test was highly reliable, with the internal consistency of 0.77 based on Cronbach's Alpha at 95% confidence boundaries after reversing items that were negatively correlated. Hair et al. (2014) categorized this reliability level as higher than the acceptable level for a research study.

Data Preparation for Analysis

Prior to this analysis, the data were carefully analysed for normality distribution. The normality test was performed using the Shapiro-Wilk test because the sample size was smaller than 2,000. All statistical calculations in this research were performed using R, an open-source statistical package. The results of the normality test are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Test of data distribution

Groups	Test	Statistic (W)	p-value
Experimental Group	Pre-test	0.98193	0.9285
	Post-test	0.96371	0.5173
Control Group	Pre-test	0.94396	0.2387
	Post-test	0.97131	0.7413

Based on the Shapiro-Wilk test results shown in Table 3, all data were normally distributed (p > 0.05); therefore, parametric tests could be used for the data analyses.

Statistical Analysis

The scores obtained by the students in the pre-test and post-test for both groups were compared simultaneously using a two-way repeated measures ANOVA to find out whether each group's pre-test scores were significantly different to the post-test scores, and whether the improvement between the two groups were equal. A two-way ANOVA with interaction effect was also calculated to find out whether the differences in scores between the

pre-test and post-test were a result of the treatment. The differences and improvements were decided at a significance level of 95% ($\alpha = 0.05$). This small significance level was used to avoid type 1 errors, i.e. to reject the null hypothesis when it is actually true (Stangor, 2011).

Results

For better visualization of the data, Table 4 presents the descriptive statistic based on five number summary and standard deviation for all data used in this research study. The five number summary includes minimum (Min) and maximum (Max) scores, first quartile (Q1), which is the score higher than 25% of other lowest scores, third quartile (Q3), i.e. the score lower than 25% of other highest scores, and median (Med).

Table 4
Descriptive statistics

Test	n	Min	Q1	Med	Q3	Max	Mean	sd
Pre-control	22	9	14	16	18	21	15.6	3.67
Post-control	22	12	15.25	18.5	20.75	26	18.5	3.74
Pre-Exp.	24	7	12.75	15	17	23	14.71	3.69
Post-Exp.	24	11	14	16.5	20	27	17	4.15

Table 4 shows that the scores were very low for both groups even after the treatment. They could only answer about half of the questions correctly in the post-test. The mean scores were also low although there were some improvements after the treatment.

Two-Way ANOVA Test

For the first analysis, the scores between the pre-test and post-test for experimental and control groups were calculated simultaneously using a two-way repeated measures ANOVA. For this purpose, students who were absent in one of the tests were not included in the analysis. As a result, there were 24 students in the experimental group and 22 students in the control group. The results of the ANOVA test are presented in Table 5.

Table 5
Results of two-way ANOVA for pre-test and post-test of both groups

Measure	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Teaching technique	1	0.524	0.523	2.305	0.13248
Tests (pre-test and post-test)	1	2.405	2.405	10.586	0.00161**
Residuals	89	20.22	0.2272		

Note. *p< 0.05, **p<0.01

Table 5 shows that there was significant evidence that the scores obtained by the students in both groups were statistically significant, $F(1, 89)=10.586$, p=0.001 with an effect size of 0.10. However, the differences between the pre-tests and post-tests was not significantly different between the two groups, $F(1, 89) = 2.305$, p > 0.05.

Two-Way ANOVA with Interaction Effect

The finding in the previous analysis shows that the scores for both groups improved significantly. To determine whether the improvement was due to the treatment, another ANOVA test was calculated. The results of the two-way ANOVA with interaction effect are provided in Table 6.

Table 6

Results of two-way ANOVA with interaction effect

Measure	DF	SS	MS	F	P
Treatment	1	32.6	32.58	2.23	0.13895
Tests (pre-test and post-test)	1	153.9	153.92	10.54	0.00166**
Treatment and tests	1	2.2	2.19	0.15	0.69972
Residuals	88	1285.8	14.61		

Note. *p< 0.05, **p<0.01

Table 6 shows that the interaction effect between scores and method of instruction was non-significant, $F(1, 88) = 0.15$, p = 0.699. Therefore, the difference in test scores between pre-test and post-test does not depend on the method of instruction.

Discussion

The objective of this research was to determine whether students who were taught through the learning by teaching technique outperformed those taught by using traditional teacher-centered instruction. Based on the results of two-way ANOVA, the research results did not show any evidence of differences in content mastery between students taught using the learning by teaching technique and those taught using a teacher-centered approach. However, both groups showed significant improvement in scores before and after the treatment, regardless of the type of teaching technique employed.

These results are unexpected but interesting. Previous publications have agreed that learning by teaching is a good teaching technique to promote content mastery (Allison, 1976; Blair et al., 2007; Matsuda et al., 2013; Mills, 1995; Podl & Metzger, 1994; Tsui, 2010). However, we did not find any statistical evidence that the learning by teaching technique was better for content mastery than traditional teaching and learning techniques. One possible reason for this unexpected result is explained by the discrepancy in the number of meetings for classroom instruction. The learning by teaching group had half a semester of instruction, and the other half of the semester was used for teaching preparation. Meanwhile, the control group was given a full semester of instruction. Based on the results of the analysis, the experimental group could still match the achievement of the control group regardless of the lower number of meetings for traditional instruction. Therefore, the similar achievement levels in the two groups can be interpreted as a success for the experimental group. Another possible reason for this unexpected result is explained by the nature of the technique, where students were only taught one topic. Therefore, they only learned the given topic and had little interest in learning the rest of the topics in the syllabus. However, they observed their classmates when they were teaching, and thus it was possible for them to pick up some information from the activities. The better mastery of the assigned material through the learning by teaching technique seemed to compensate for course mastery in general, which had contributed to their ability to match the achievement of the control group, which received far more instruction.

The failure to outperform the control group was exaggerated by the fact that the students were assigned to work in groups. While working in groups, each member of the group was usually responsible for a particular part of the topic. If they did not work in a group and have discussions with the other group members when preparing the materials, each member would have only mastered a small fraction of the material. Therefore, if content mastery is the only target of teaching, the implementation of the learning by teaching technique at five universities in Indonesia, as suggested by Kairisto-mertanen and Budiono (2019), should be adjusted to ensure that all groups teach all of the topics on the syllabus.

As much as this teaching technique has a primary weakness of inhibiting better content mastery, students are provided with many other benefits that equip them with the skills they need for the 21st century. In this research, students had to work in a team to prepare for the workshop, and thus they continued to develop their teamwork skills. Teamwork is one of the most significant skills required for their future careers. In fact, Gray (2016) listed nine other required skills in 2020, in addition to teamwork, as follows:

1. Complex problem solving
2. Critical thinking
3. Creativity
4. People management (teamwork)
5. Coordinating with others
6. Emotional intelligence
7. Judgement and decision making
8. Service orientation
9. Negotiation
10. Cognitive flexibility

According to Fibra (2019), students could learn eight of those skills, including teamwork, through the learning by teaching technique. In our research, students practiced critical thinking when they planned their workshop and prepared their teaching materials. Based on our observations, they started the workshop by presenting interesting icebreakers, which required creativity because each of the students in the class needed to come up with different icebreakers. In addition, because the students were asked to conduct the workshop off campus, they needed to contact and work with a partner university, where they practiced coordinating with others and utilizing their negotiation skills. The department at the partner university where they conducted the workshop had not conducted any academic or non-academic collaborative work recently. Therefore, the students felt that they needed to maintain the well-established reputation of their department by making the workshop participants pleased with their workshop and service. Therefore, they needed to practice a very significant skill, service orientation. Finally, although the content mastery was not as successful in the current research, students should enjoy being workshop facilitators, feel that they were useful to the participants, and most importantly think that they learned more by participating as the instructor, as revealed by Naeger et al. (2013).

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the results above, the implementation of the learning by teaching technique needs to be modified for optimal content mastery. First, since students seemed to focus more on their assigned topic, all students should be present as non-participant observers in every workshop, as in the present study. This way, they can be asked to write a review of the topics discussed by their classmates in the workshop. In writing the review, they need to first pay very close attention to their classmates' presentations and they also need to read the materials critically in order to be able to write a good review, as revealed by Yu (2019). To ensure that the students do so, the professor can explicitly instruct them and include it in their grading.

In the current research, not all topics could be accommodated in the workshop due to time limitations because the professor spent half of the semester teaching students before they started to organize the workshops. To accommodate all of the topics, the workshop can be conducted every week (for a course that meets once a week). The students should have finished preparing the materials before the class. To reinforce the need for early preparation, the professor can ask the groups to help the professor facilitate the class discussion. Therefore, not only will they benefit from earlier preparation, but they will also benefit from the professor's feedback, classmates' questions, and an opportunity to confirm their mastery of the material.

Limitations and Recommendations

The results of the current research are subject to some limitations. First, the sample size was rather small for a conclusive generalizable quantitative research study. Should the sample size be bigger, such as 30 for each group, the researchers would be more confident in generalizing the results of the research to the context outside the current research context. Second, the students' English proficiencies were mixed, and most of them had a lower level of English proficiency, which could affect their understanding of the test materials. Therefore, the results of the current research might not apply to advanced EFL learners or to courses taught in the students' L1. Third, each group of students in the class was asked to teach only one topic, which was a different topic from the other groups. The results might have been different if all groups were asked to teach the same topic. Finally, the current research only focused on content mastery. Further research needs to address whether the students' 10 significant worker skills listed by Gray (2016) significantly improved through the implementation of the learning by teaching technique.

Conclusion

The objective of this research was to find out whether the learning by teaching technique could improve students' content mastery better than the current teaching practice. To answer the research question, a course offered for students of the English Language Teaching Department at Samudra University in Aceh, Indonesia, was randomly selected. The students enrolled in the course were divided into two groups. The groups were randomly placed in control and experimental groups. The learning by teaching technique was implemented in the experimental group with half of the semester spent on instruction followed by students' hosting workshops for students from another university, while the control group was taught using a teacher-centered approach for the entire semester. The data were collected by administering tests at the beginning and the end of the semester. The conclusion was made through two-way ANOVA to analyze whether the groups improved their content mastery after one semester, and whether the improvement was significantly different between one group and the other. The analysis results showed that the students' scores improved significantly, but the improvement was similar between the two groups regardless of the smaller amount of instruction for the experimental group. This results suggest that the teaching by learning technique has potential because the students in the experimental group could match the performance of the control group who received more instruction.

Acknowledgement

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Aburahma, M. H., & Mohamed, H. M. (2017). Peer teaching as an educational tool in pharmacy schools; fruitful or futile. *Currents in Pharmacy Teaching and Learning, 9*(6), 1170–1179. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.CPTL.2017.07.026

Aflalo, E. (2018). Students generating questions as a way of learning. *Active Learning in Higher Education*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787418769120

Albergaria-Almeida, P. (2010). Classroom questioning: Teachers' perceptions and practices. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2*(2), 305–309. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.015

Allan, A. (1992). Development and validation of a scale to measure test-wiseness in EFL/ESL reading test takers. *Language Testing, 9*, 101–119.

Allison, R. D. (1976). Learning by teaching. *Journal of College Science Teaching, 6*(2), 101-108.

Annis, L. F. (1983). The processes and effects of peer tutoring. *Human Learning: Journal of Practical Research & Applications, 2*(1), 39–47

Bargh, J., & Schul, Y. (1980). On the cognitive benefits of teaching. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 75, 593–604. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.72.5.593

Blair, K., Schwartz, D. L., Biswas, G., Leelawong, K., & Schwartz, D. L. (2007). Pedagogical agents for learning by teaching: Teachable agents. *Educational Technology, 47*(1), 56–61.

Bowermaster, M. (1978). Peer tutoring. *The Clearing House, 52*(2), 59–60.

Brown, D. (2004). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices*. Longman.

Brown, J. D. (1996). *Testing in language programs*. Prentice Hall Regents.

Change, S., Dec, N. N., & Feeney, J. (1969). Learning by teaching. *Change in Higher Education*, *1*(6), 59-63.

Chin, C., & Osborne, J. (2008). Students' questions: A potential resource for teaching and learning science. *Studies in Science Education, 44*(1), 1–39. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057260701828101

Cohen, A. D. (2012). Test-taking strategies and task design. In G. Fulcher & F. Davidson (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language testing* (pp. 262–277). Routledge. http://dx.doi.org/10.4324/9780203181287.ch18

Derri, V., Papamitrou, E., Vernadakis, N., Koufou, N., & Zetou, E. (2014). Early professional development of physical education teachers: Effects on lesson planning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *152*, 778–783. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SBSPRO.2014.09.320

Duran, D. (2017). Learning-by-teaching. Evidence and implications as a pedagogical mechanism. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International, 54*(5), 476-484. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2016.1156011

Fibra, A. (2019). Fostering good citizen and worker skills through learning by teaching projects. In L. Kairisto-mertanen & T. A. Budiono (Eds.), *INDOPED – Modernising Indonesian higher education with tested European pedagogical practices: Report on piloted pedagogical practices* (pp. 84–95). Turku University of Applied Sciences.

Fiorella, L., & Mayer, R. (2013). The relative benefits of learning-by-teaching expectancy. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 38, 281–288. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2013.06.001

Frager, S., & Stern, C. (1970). Learning by teaching. *The Reading Teacher*, *23*(5), 403–405. https://doi.org/10.1021/cen-09122-educ

Graves, R. L. (1972). Learning to teach by teaching. *English Education*, *3*(2), 88–95.

Gray, A. (2016). The 10 skills you need to thrive in the fourth industrial revolution. *World Economic Forum*. https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2016/01/the-10-skills-you-need-to-thrive-in-the-fourth-industrial-revolution/

Grzega, J., & Schöner, M. (2008). The didactic model Ldl (Lerner durch Lehren) as a way of preparing students for communication in a knowledge society. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 34*(3), 167-175. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02607470802212157

Gülten, A. Z. (2013). Am I planning well? Teacher trainees' voices on lesson planning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *93*, 1409–1413. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.053

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2014). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Hunt, T. J., & Hunt, B. (2005). New voices. *The English Journal*, *93*, 80–83.

Hutagaol-Martowidjoyo, Y., & Adiningrum, T. S. (2019). Students teaching students: Do they really learn by teaching others? In L. Kairisto-mertanen & T. A. Budiono (Eds.), *INDOPED – Modernising Indonesian higher education with tested European pedagogical practices: Report on piloted pedagogical practices* (pp. 72–83). Turku University of Applied Sciences.

Kairisto-mertanen, L., & Budiono, T. A. (2019). *INDOPED – Modernising Indonesian higher education with tested European pedagogical practices: Report on piloted pedagogical practices*. Turku University of Applied Sciences.

Kasim, U. (2019). The implementation of the learning by teaching method at Syiah Kuala University. In L. Kairisto-mertanen & T. A. Budiono (Eds.), *INDOPED – Modernising Indonesian higher education with tested European pedagogical practices: Report on piloted pedagogical practices* (pp. 113–121). Turku University of Applied Sciences.

Krouse, J., Gerber, M. M., & Kauffman, J. M. (1981). Peer tutoring: Procedures, promises, and unresolved Issues. *Exceptional Education Quarterly*, *1*(4), 107–115.

Matsuda, N., Yarzebinski, E., Keiser, V., Raizada, R., Stylianides, G. J., & Koedinger, K. R. (2013). Studying the effect of a competitive game show in a learning by teaching environment. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education, 23*, 1–21. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40593-013-0009-1

McWhorter, K. T., & Levy, J. (1971). The influence of a tutorial program upon tutors. *Journal of Reading, 14*(4), 221–224.

Mills, M. (1995). Learning by teaching. *Science Scope*, *18*(5), 44–45.

Munawar, A. A., & Zulfahrizal. (2019). Project Hatchery: Infusing creative learning methods into the electronic course classroom. In L. Kairisto-Mertanen & T. A. Budiono (Eds.), *INDOPED - Modernizing Indonesian higher education with tested European pedagogical practices: Report on piloted pedagogical practices* (pp. 17–24). INDOPED Project.

Naeger, D. M., Conrad, M., Nguyen, J., Kohi, M. P., & Webb, E. M. (2013). Students teaching students. *Academic Radiology*, *20*(9), 1177–1182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.acra.2013.04.004

Podl, J. B., & Metzger, M. T. (1994). Learning by teaching: An exhibition instead of an exam. *The English Journal*, *83*(4), 61–66.

Roscoe, R. D. (2014). Self-monitoring and knowledge-building in learning by teaching. *Instructional Science*,

42(3), 327–351.

Roscoe, R. D., & Chi, M. T. H. (2007). Understanding tutor learning: Knowledge-building and knowledge-telling in peer tutors' explanations and questions. *Review of Educational Research*, *77*(4), 534–574. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654307309920

Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (2010). A brief history of knowledge building. *Canadian Journal of Learning and Technology*, *36*(1), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.21432/T2859M

Stangor, C. (2011). *Research methods for the behavioral sciences* (4th ed.). Cengage Learning.

Topping, K. J. (2005). Trends in peer learning. *Educational Psychology, 25*(6), 631–645. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410500345172

Trovato, J., & Bucher, B. (1980). Peer tutoring with or without home-based reinforcement, for reading remediation. *Journal of Applied Behavior Analysis*, *13*(1), 1308112. https://doi.org/10.1901/jaba.1980.13-129

Tsang, A. (2017). Enhancing learners' awareness of oral presentation (delivery) skills in the context of self-regulated learning. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, *21*(1), 39-50. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787417731214

Tsui, A. B. M. (2003). *Understanding expertise in teaching: Case studies in ESL teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Tsui, M. (2010). Interteaching: Students as teachers in lower-division sociology courses. *Teaching Sociology*, *38*(1), 28–34. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X09353887

Yu, S. (2019). Learning from giving peer feedback on postgraduate theses: Voices from Master's students in the Macau EFL context. *Assessing Writing*, *40*, 42–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.ASW.2019.03.004

Qualities of a Good and Effective Teacher: Slovak EFL Pre-Service and In-Service Teachers' Perspectives

Rastislav Metruk

University of Žilina

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Rastislav Metruk, Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Humanities, University of Žilina, Univerzitná 8215/1, 010 26 Žilina, Slovakia. E-mail: rastislav.metruk@fhv.uniza.sk

A plethora of researchers have attempted to examine the characteristics of a good and effective teacher in order to enhance the process of teaching foreign languages. In line with those explorations, this study aims at performing a comparison between Slovak pre-service EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers' and Slovak in-service EFL teachers' perceptions of a good and effective language teacher. To achieve this objective, a convenient sample of Slovak university EFL students who were pre-service teachers (n = 74) and Slovak lower-secondary and upper-secondary school teachers (n = 63) were employed in the study. Using a 57-item Likert-type questionnaire, independent-samples t-tests were conducted to investigate the potential differences between the perceptions of the pre-service teachers and in-service teachers. Moreover, the 10 highest-mean and 10 lowest-mean items of both groups were analyzed. The research results revealed that statistically significant differences (p ≤ 0.05) were detected in only 12 of the 57 items. Furthermore, a closer examination of the differences and the items with the highest and lowest means indicated that the pre-service teacher participants favored traditional teaching more than their in-service teacher counterparts, who preferred CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) to a greater extent. The potential implications of these findings indicate that the fundamental principles of CLT such as employing plenty of pair-work and group-work activities, facilitating learners' autonomy and responsibility for their own learning, or varying classroom interaction strategies deserve more careful attention during pre-service teacher training.

Keywords: good and effective language teacher, pre-service teacher, in-service teacher, EFL learner, Communicative Language Teaching, traditional teaching

Introduction

Learning a foreign language is undoubtedly a complex process as one has to master both language skills and systems (Hundarenko, 2019; Hojatpanah & Dashtestani, 2020; Kapranov, 2020; Lacková, 2019; Leláková & Šavelová, 2020; Putrawan, 2019; Stognieva, 2019; Todaka, 2020) in order to become an effective language user. Moreover, language conveys knowledge as well as cultural data and it mirrors the important and specific thoughts of individuals (Namaziandost, Sabzevari & Hashemifardnia, 2018). Therefore, being a good and effective language teacher is not an easy task and one has to display a number of characteristics in order to become a successful instructor. Al-Mahrooqi, Denman, Al-Siyabi, and Al-Maamari (2015) maintain that possessing knowledge of these features enables instructors to enhance their pedagogical practices by allowing them to improve their positive characteristics. Moreover, teachers are allowed to find ways to overcome those features that are less valued or regarded as inappropriate in a specific teaching/learning context, hence the need for further investigation in this area.

Although it is typically the position of a facilitator that language teachers hold (and despite the fact that recently, the teacher-centered learning model has shifted towards a learner-centered learning model [Namaziandost et al., 2019]), foreign language instructors occupy an instrumental role when it comes to effective language learning and teaching. "Considering the degree of the teacher's influence, it is important to understand what teachers should do to promote positive results in the lives of students – with regard to school achievement, positive attitudes toward school, interest in learning, and other desirable outcomes" (Stronge,

80

2018, p. 3-4). Moreover, this day and age places high demands on instructors due to the fact that modern technologies have heavily influenced all parts of human society, including education. Examining the qualities of a good and effective teacher, as perceived by both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers, can be, therefore, potentially beneficial to researchers, instructors, and students themselves. Furthermore, it should be emphasized that the possible mismatches between the perceptions of students and teachers may negatively influence students' satisfaction with the language class and could have a negative impact on their ultimate achievement (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016).

Teachers' effectiveness and quality of teaching has been of considerable interest to researchers and scholars for quite some time, largely concentrating on the specific traits and behaviors that are believed to constitute successful teaching (Çelik, Arikan, & Caner, 2013). Some scholars tried to analyze teacher effectiveness from the standpoint of students, others from the teachers' viewpoint, and some attempted to examine this issue by uncovering the differences between the perceptions of the two groups (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016). However, in the context of Slovak EFL teaching and learning, such research seems to be absent; thus, this study attempts to fill in the gap and shed more light on characteristics of good and effective EFL teachers in the Slovak context. Moreover, the teacher-centered approach has shifted towards the learner-centered way of teaching, but upfront teaching still seems to exist to a certain degree in a number of countries, including Slovakia. The outcomes of this research could then be utilized to point out which characteristics of the traditional teaching approaches still appear to be prevalent within the context of Slovak EFL teaching from the pre-service and in-service teachers' standpoints. Additionally, the research results may be evaluated and compared with other studies performed in different countries, which could contribute towards the existing knowledge of effective EFL teachers, a concept that can be regarded as an endless attempt within the unstable and dynamic field of teaching English.

Background Literature

Foreign language teachers and students may have either similar or different opinions on effective language teaching, and the intersection of the two concepts has ramifications for language learning and teaching effectiveness (Moradi & Sabeti, 2014). The notion of a good teacher has been examined from several standpoints over the past several decades, but it should be noted that most of the explorations have been carried out in the Western contexts with a tendency to analyze teachers across disciplines (Zhang & Watkins, 2007). Several studies, however, have been undertaken in the non-Western contexts, including the Middle East nations such as the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, Yemen, Oman, or Iran. The literature offers various significant findings regarding the features related to effective EFL teaching and learning (Al-Mahrooqi, Denman, Al-Siyabi, and Al-Maamari, 2015).

Numerous studies examining the characteristics of good and effective EFL teacher from the standpoint of a learner have been conducted to date (e.g., Barnes, 2013; Çakmak and Gündüz, 2018; Delaney, Johnson, Johnson, & Treslan, 2010; Demiroz & Yesilyurt, 2015; Febriyanti, 2018; Ghasemi & Hashemi, 2011; Javid, 2014; Kourieos & Evripidou, 2013; Lee, 2010; Mutlu & Özkan, 2017; Sabbah, 2018; Sandholtz, 2011; Zadeh, 2016).

For instance, the study by Demiroz and Yesilyurt (2015) aimed at examining how prospective English teachers at two English language departments in Turkey (Department of English Language Teaching and Department of English Language and Literature) perceive effective foreign language teachers. The findings indicated that statistically significant differences exist between the two groups in favor of the English language teaching department.

Sandholtz (2011) examined the descriptions of effective and ineffective teaching experiences provided by pre-service teachers at a public university in California, which led to four interrelated conclusions. First, when describing their effective and ineffective experiences, most of the pre-service teachers were not focused on management, but rather on instructional practices. Second, the subjects seemed to be developing their personal capacity and inclination towards issues in relation to understanding. According to Stanholtz (2011), "They mentioned student understanding more frequently when describing ineffective instruction rather than effective instruction, suggesting an inclination to recognize signs of students' misunderstanding" (p. 42-43).

Third, they determined alternate approaches to reduce students' confusion and improve their understanding. Finally, the pre-service teachers did not demonstrate the in-depth reasoning of accomplished teachers; the candidates displayed the potential to critically explore their practice and sharpen their judgement.

Other study conducted by Çelik, Arikan, and Caner (2013) surveyed 998 undergraduate students at a state university at Turkey regarding successful English language teachers. Based on the survey, an effective language teachers can be someone who exhibits fairness in decision-making, is successful in reducing students' anxiety, demonstrates enthusiasm, teaches pronunciation well, teaches speaking skills adequately, has a sound knowledge of vocabulary, teaches reading skills adequately, has sound knowledge of grammar, is adept at providing explanations in Turkish (mother tongue), is good at classroom management, and teaches writing skills adequately.

Kourieos and Evripidou (2013) also sought to identify the characteristics that are assigned to effective EFL teachers as perceived by Cypriot university students. On the basis of the participants' responses, an effective EFL teacher no longer has a directive and authoritarian personality, but apart from other characteristics, an instructor is an individual who takes into account their students' individual differences, anxiety, interests, and abilities.

On the other hand, there are also a number of studies that were focused on revealing the differences between the perceptions of students and teachers in terms of effective language teachers. For instance, Alimorad and Tajgozari (2016) compared the views of high school students and instructors on effective teachers in different cities in Iran. It was found that the perceptions of students differed dramatically from those of their teacher counterparts. The instructors preferred a more traditional approach, while the students tended to favor the communicative approach. Furthermore, different perceptions between males and females were also detected.

In a similar way, the results of the study performed by Park and Lee (2006) indicated that on the whole, the opinions on effective language teachers as perceived by instructors were significantly different from those of the Korean high school students in all three categories (English proficiency, pedagogical knowledge, and socio-affective skills). The teachers regarded English proficiency the highest while the students considered pedagogical knowledge to be the most important.

According to Brown (2009), whose study attempted to identify and compare teachers' and students' ideals of effective teacher behavior at the University of Arizona, the students appeared to favor a grammar-based approach, while their teacher counterparts seemed to prefer a more communicative classroom, which was supported by the detection of significant differences in areas such as target language use, error correction, or group work. Other studies that demonstrated that statistically significant differences exist between the university students' and teachers' perceptions of effective EFL teachers include Katooli and Abdolmanafi-Rokni (2015), Ramazani (2014), and Tok (2010).

On the other hand, the study by Al-Mahrooqi, Denman, Al-Siyabi, and Al-Maamari (2015), which aimed at exploring this issue in the Arab Gulf, produced different outcomes. The yielded results suggest that Omani students and teachers generally agree about the significance of all characteristic categories, assigning special importance to the categories of English language proficiency and treating students equally. Another study by Alzobiani (2020), which examined the extent to which students' and teachers' perceptions differ, also indicated that there was no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of Saudi EFL students and teachers regarding the characteristics of effective teachers. The quantitative analysis of the results in the study conducted by Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009) also showed that the responses of students (university, high school, and language institute students) differed from those of the teachers in only eight instances out of the 46 items in the questionnaire on the perception of an effective English language teacher.

Apparently, further examination in this area, especially in countries where such investigation is yet to be conducted, is necessary as the differences (whether subtle or broad) in perceptions of good and effective teachers play a substantial role in either improving or hampering the process of language learning. Thus, this study attempts to perform a comparison between the perceptions of the Slovak pre-service and in-service teachers regarding good and effective EFL instructors.

In order to achieve the research aim, the following research questions were formulated:

1. What are the most important and the least important characteristics of a good and effective EFL teacher according to Slovak pre-service teachers?
2. What are the most important and the least important characteristics of a good and effective EFL teacher according to Slovak in-service teachers?
3. How are Slovak pre-service teachers' opinions and attitudes towards a good and effective teacher different from those of Slovak in-service teachers?

Materials and Methods

Research background

The notion of good and effective language teaching as perceived by both Slovak pre-service and in-service teachers was the primary focus of this research. The employed research instrument was the questionnaire, which was distributed to both groups of participants. Afterwards, the obtained data were statistically analyzed, the results interpreted, and conclusions drawn.

Participants

The participants of this study were formed by two groups: Slovak university EFL learners studying in the Teaching English as a Foreign Language program at a Slovak university – the pre-service teachers, and Slovak lower-secondary and upper-secondary teachers – the in-service teachers.

The pre-service teachers comprised a total of 74 learners, 56 males and 18 females. On average, they were 21.5 years of age, all of them holding Slovak nationality and residing in Slovakia. The average number of years they had been studying English was 12.9 and their level of English was between B2 and C1.

The total amount of in-service teachers participating in this study was 63, four males and 59 females. The average age was 37.5 years and their qualification distribution was six novice teachers, 16 independent teachers, 20 teachers with the first attestation, and 21 teachers with the second attestation. Looking at the type of school they taught at, 29 of them worked as teachers at lower-secondary schools and 34 of them were employed as upper-secondary teachers.

Instrument and Procedures

The research method employed in order to gather the necessary data was a 57-item Likert-type questionnaire. A Likert scale (named after Rensis Likert who was the first person to use a scale with restricted number of points in order to measure the level of agreement) is the most common form of a restricted interval scale item (Privitera & Ahlgrim-Delzell, 2019). The instrument, which was developed by the author after a rigorous review of the literature on the qualities of good and effective teachers, is a modified version of existing questionnaires on teacher effectiveness and perceptions of good teacher characteristics by Al-Mahrooqi, Denman, and Al-Siyabi (2015), Moradi and Sabeti (2014), and Shishavan and Sadeghi (2009). The questionnaire was revised and modified three times with the help of the author's peers and colleagues. The final version of the instrument comprised 57 items concerning the qualities of a good and effective teacher. Using the Cronbach's alpha formula, the internal consistency (questionnaire reliability coefficient) was calculated at 0.94, which can be regarded as high for the purposes of this study.

The questionnaire was distributed via Google Forms to both groups. The participants were required to indicate the importance of items by selecting the best choice out of the four options (1 = unimportant quality of a good and effective teacher, 2 = slightly important quality of a good and effective teacher, 3 = moderately important quality of a good and effective teacher, 4 = very important quality of a good and effective teacher). For example:

A good and effective EFL teacher is someone who should:

Be well prepared for each lesson.	1	2	3	4
Be able to provide clear instructions for tasks.	1	2	3	4
Be able to present content to students in a meaningful way.	1	2	3	4

The subjects were reassured that there were no right or wrong answers, just those that were right for them so as to examine their perceptions of good and effective teaching.

Data Analysis

In order to perform the comparison between the pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' perceptions of a good and effective teacher, 57 independent-samples t tests (between the perceptions of pre-service teachers and in-service teachers) were carried out. Auerbach and Zeitlin (2014) maintain that the p value in social sciences is typically set at 0.05 ($p \leqslant 0.05$). This means that those questionnaire items whose p value equaled or was lower than 0.05 were deemed statistically significant in this study. The items are statistically analyzed in the results section.

Results

In order to examine the perceptions of both groups of participants more carefully, the ten highest-mean and lowest-mean qualities of a good and effective EFL teacher were extracted.

Table 1 shows that six items that received the highest means in both groups of participants were the same (items 2, 3, 25, 33, 35, and 37). Only one of the five characteristics is connected to the level of communicative ability, and that is item 33 "have good communication skills". Another two items that both groups regarded as the most important were "be able to present content to students in a meaningful way" and "be able to provide clear instructions for the task". These two qualities represent the basic competences every language teacher needs to have. The last two items that were shared were "being fair and correct (with feedback, giving turns, attending to individual differences)" and "be polite and respect the personality of students".

The pre-service teachers added other items to the list of the most important characteristics of a good and effective teacher, most of them being unrelated to the communicative ability of a teacher: "arouse students' motivation for learning English", "be helpful to students inside and outside the classroom", and "build a positive relationship with students but focus on retaining a professional distance". The final item, which was somehow connected with the language competence of a teacher, was "speak audibly and clearly".

The in-service teachers, on the other hand, added some items also directly related to actual teaching: "provide opportunities to use English through meaningful tasks and activities", "be creative; use various methods and techniques in teaching", "be knowledgeable (have both subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge)", the last one also being connected to the language competence of a good and effective teacher. The last item for the teachers, similar to the student-added items, was mainly connected with the nature of classroom relationships (how a good and effective teacher should approach their learners): "show interest in students (e.g. by remembering their names, etc.) and their learning".

Table 2 (items with the lowest means) displays an even greater degree of similarity since seven of the ten items were the same for both groups (items 5, 10, 29, 41, 42, 43, and 44). Two of the items are connected to actual teaching: "give a reasonable amount of homework/home assignments" and "be aware of current teaching techniques". The other two items are related to teachers' qualifications and experience: "have more than five years of experience teaching English" and "have a university degree in teaching". The remaining items can be regarded as unrelated to "direct teaching": "be familiar with the social and cultural backgrounds of learners", "be neat and tidy in appearance", and "know English culture well".

Table 1

Questionnaire Items with the Highest Means for Students and Teachers

	Pre-service Teachers			In-service Teachers	
Item no.	**Item**	**Mean**	**Item no.**	**Item**	**Mean**
3	Be able to present content to students in a meaningful way.	3.81	2	Be able to provide clear instructions for tasks.	3.87
2	Be able to provide clear instructions for tasks.	3.80	3	Be able to present content to students in a meaningful way.	3.86
25	Be fair and correct (with feedback, giving turns, attending to individual differences).	3.80	25	Be fair and correct (with feedback, giving turns, attending to individual differences).	3.86
50	Speak audibly and clearly.	3.78	33	Have good communication skills.	3.84
37	Be polite and respect the personality of students.	3.76	6	Provide opportunities to use English through meaningful tasks and activities.	3.78
16	Arouse students' motivation for learning English.	3.65	35	Be patient (allow for students' questions, comments, and participation).	3.76
33	Have good communication skills.	3.65	32	Show interest in students (e.g. by remembering their names, etc.) and their learning.	3.75
22	Be helpful to students inside and outside the classroom.	3.62	37	Be polite and respect the personality of students.	3.73
35	Be patient (allow for students' questions, comments, and participation).	3.62	19	Be creative; use various methods and techniques in teaching.	3.73
36	Build a positive relationship with students but focus on retaining a professional distance.	3.62	27	Be knowledgeable (have both subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge).	3.7

Table 2

Questionnaire Items with the Lowest Means for Students and Teachers

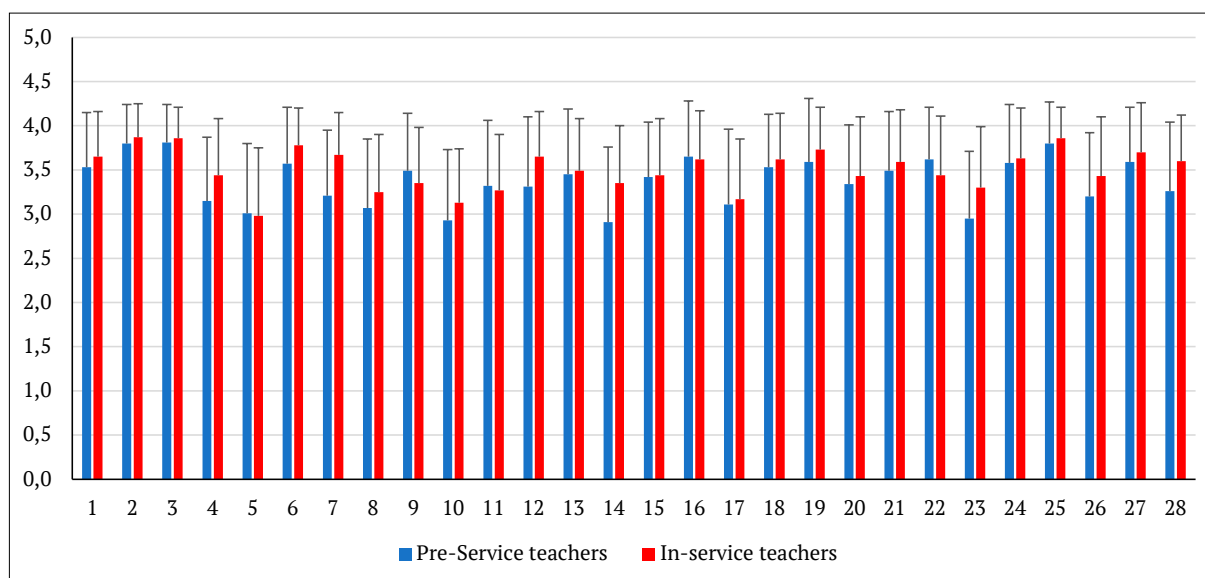|	Pre-service Teachers			In-service Teachers	
Item no.	**Item**	**Mean**	**Item no.**	**Item**	**Mean**
42	Have more than five years of experience teaching English.	2.28	42	Have more than five years of experience teaching English.	2.35
43	Be familiar with the social and cultural backgrounds of learners.	2.61	43	Be familiar with the social and cultural backgrounds of learners.	2.89
29	Be neat and tidy in appearance.	2.68	5	Give a reasonable amount of homework/ home assignments.	2.98
14	Employ plenty of pair work and group work in which his/her learners can practice English.	2.91	41	Have a university degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.	3.08
10	Know English culture well.	2.93	29	Be neat and tidy in appearance.	3.10
23	Support the notion that fluency is somewhat more important than accuracy.	2.95	10	Know English culture well.	3.13
48	Vary class interaction strategies (e.g. use group and pair work, drama, role-plays, debates, etc.).	2.95	17	Diagnose learners' learning problems.	3.17
5	Give a reasonable amount of homework/ home assignments.	3.01	44	Be aware of current teaching techniques.	3.19
41	Have a university degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.	3.01	8	Be up-to-date (e.g. use the Internet and recent technologies in teaching).	3.25
44	Be aware of current teaching techniques.	3.03	11	Teach English in English - use as little L1 (mother tongue) as possible.	3.27

Other items marked as the least important by the pre-service teachers were directly connected with some of the basic principles of communicative language teaching (CLT): "employ plenty of pair work and group work in

which his/her learners can practice English", "support the notion that fluency is somewhat more important than accuracy.", and "vary class interaction strategies (e.g. use group and pair work, drama, role-plays, debates, etc.)".

The in-service teachers' remaining items that were marked as the least important were "diagnose learners' learning problems", "be up-to-date (e.g. use the Internet and recent technologies in teaching).", and "Teach English in English - use as little L1 (mother tongue) as possible", the two last items being directly related with actual teaching.

In order to investigate whether statistically significant differences existed between the two groups, 57 independent-samples t-tests were run. The table that includes all the items can be found in the appendix. All mean values of both pre-service teachers and in-service teachers along with standard deviations are illustrated in Figures 1 and 2. The items that indicate the statistically significant difference ($p \leq 0.05$) between the pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' perceptions are shown in Table 3.

Figure 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Items 1-28

Figure 2
Means and Standard Deviations for Items 29-57
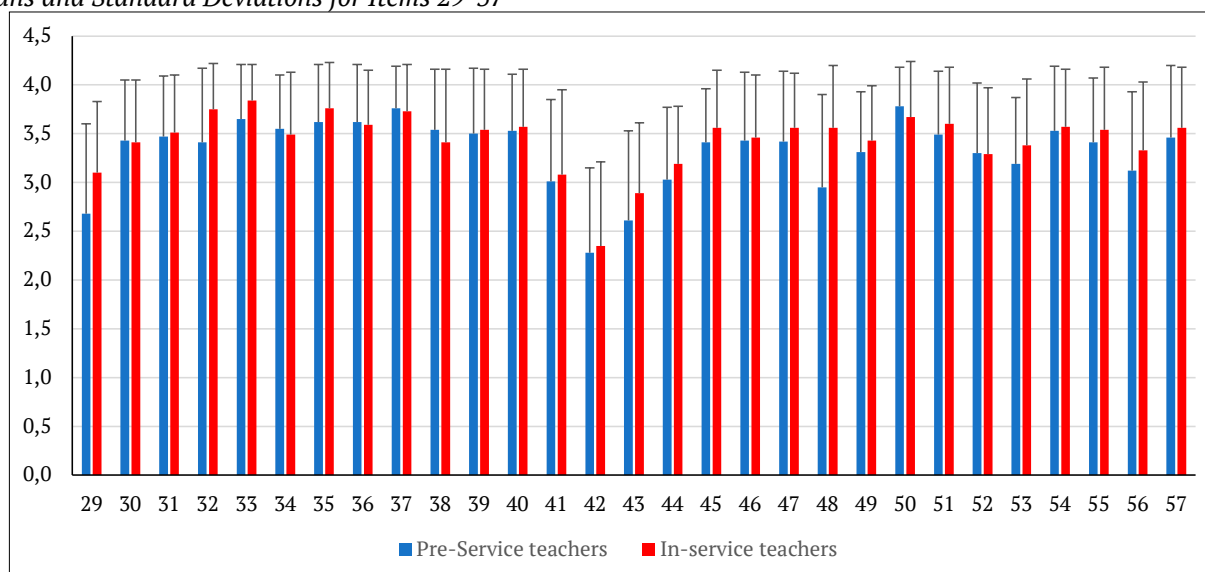
Table 3

Significantly Different Questionnaire Items (p ≤ 0.05)

No.	Item	Pre-service Teachers		In-service Teachers		p value
	A good and effective EFL teacher is someone who should:	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
7.	Facilitate learners' responsibility and autonomy.	3.24	0.74	3.67	0.48	0.00
12.	Establish clear classroom rules that everyone understands and obeys.	3.31	0.79	3.65	0.51	0.00
14.	Employ plenty of pair work and group work in which his/her learners can practice English.	2.91	0.85	3.35	0.65	0.00
23.	Support the notion that fluency is somewhat more important than accuracy.	2.95	0.76	3.30	0.69	0.00
28.	Be flexible.	3.26	0.78	3.60	0.52	0.00
29.	Be neat and tidy in appearance.	2.68	0.92	3.10	0.73	0.00
32.	Show interest in students (e.g. by remembering their names, etc.) and their learning.	3.41	0.76	3.75	0.47	0.00
48.	Vary class interaction strategies (e.g. use group and pair work, drama, role-plays, debates, etc.).	2.95	0.95	3.56	0.64	0.00
4.	Personalize his/her teaching to students' lives, needs, concerns, goals, and interests.	3.15	0.72	3.44	0.64	0.01
6.	Provide opportunities to use English through meaningful tasks and activities.	3.57	0.64	3.78	0.42	0.02
33.	Have good communication skills.	3.65	0.56	3.84	0.37	0.02
43.	Be familiar with the social and cultural backgrounds of learners.	2.61	0.92	2.89	0.72	0.05

The pre-service teachers and in-service teachers held statistically significant opinions on 12 out of the 57 items (Table 3). It should be emphasized that the in-service teachers attached greater importance to all of the statistically significant items (items 4, 6, 7, 12, 14, 23, 28, 29, 32, 33, 43, and 48).

Six of the items (4, 6, 7, 14, 23, and 48) can be directly related to actual teaching, arising out of the primary principles of CLT: "personalize his/her teaching to students' lives, needs, concerns, goals, and interests", "provide opportunities to use English through meaningful tasks and activities", "facilitate learners' responsibility and autonomy", "employ plenty of pair work and group work in which his/her learners can practice English", "support the notion that fluency is somewhat more important than accuracy", and "vary class interaction strategies (e.g. use group and pair work, drama, role-plays, debates, etc.)".

Furthermore, the in-service teachers believed more strongly that they should set clear classroom rules, be flexible, be neat and tidy in appearance, show interest in students, have good communication skills, and be familiar with students' social and cultural backgrounds (items 12, 28, 29, 32, 33, and 43).

Discussion

Within the highest-mean items (Research question no. 1), six characteristics (items 2, 3, 25, 33, 35, and 37) were the same for both groups. The pre-service teachers added to the six qualities that the teacher ought to arouse their students' motivation, be helpful both inside and outside the classroom, build a positive relationship with students, and speak audibly and clearly. Most of these features refer to the nature of classroom relationships. In contrast, the in-service teachers, apart from showing interest in students, also added some features directly related to actual teaching: providing opportunities to practice English through meaningful activities, being creative and using various methods and techniques, and having both subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. This suggests that apart from being interested in their students, it is also the way

the language is taught and what the professional background of a teacher is. The above-mentioned features represent (to a great deal) teachers' characteristics arising out of the principles of CLT. This might be considered a good sign due to the fact that traditional ways of teaching, along with teacher-centeredness, may still be prevalent in a number of countries worldwide, including Slovakia and the Czech Republic (Metruk, 2018).

Taking the lowest-mean items (Research question no. 2) into account, seven items (items 5, 10, 29, 41, 42, 43, and 44) were identified as the least important for both groups. Interestingly, the pre-service teachers' three lowest-mean items concerned CLT: employing plenty of pair work and group work activities, supporting the notion that fluency is somewhat more important than accuracy, and varying classroom interactional strategies. This indicates that the pre-service teachers may not prefer being taught with the use of some of the basic principles of CLT (pair work or group work, a greater focus on fluency, using more interaction strategies, etc.).

The in-service teachers' remaining three items included diagnosing learners' learning problems, being up-to-date, and using as little L1 as possible. Being up-to-date and using the Internet and recent technologies in teaching can be regarded as a difficult and complex matter due to the fact that instructors do not generally seem to possess the required skills and are automatically expected to use the new affordances in order to facilitate the learning process (Metruk, 2020). Therefore, they sometimes seem reluctant to use new technologies and attach high importance to them. However, not using as little L1 as possible is not in line with one of the primary principles of CLT, and this finding somewhat supports the notion of traditional teaching approaches such as the grammar-translation method. On the whole, however, it can be concluded that the pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' opinions overlap when it comes to both the highest-mean items and the lowest-mean items in terms of the perception of a good and effective teacher.

As far as the differences between the pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' perceptions of a good and effective teacher are concerned, apart from six items mostly related to the nature of classroom relationships (e.g. setting clear classroom rules, being neat and tidy in appearance, or being familiar with students' social and cultural backgrounds), six of the items with statistically significant differences were directly connected to CLT: personalizing teachers' teaching in accordance to students' lives, needs, or concerns; facilitating the responsibility and autonomy of learners; providing opportunities to use English through meaningful activities and tasks; employing plenty of pair work and group work activities; attaching a higher importance to fluency; and varying classroom interactional strategies. Thus, within this research question, the findings suggest that the pre-service teachers attached significantly lower importance to some typical characteristics of CLT in comparison to their in-service teacher counterparts. This research finding is in line with, for example, Brown's study (2009), but contradicts the study of Kourieos and Evripidou (2013), for instance, who indicate that the Cypriot learners wanted a learner-centered approach to a greater extent. The findings possibly indicate that EFL learners may still favor the traditional ways of teaching over CLT, where teachers represented the most important part of the teaching and learning process, employing the so-called teacher-centered approach. This may be a direct impact of this approach, which is still a dominant way of teaching in a number of countries across many school subjects.

All in all, taking into account the degree of differences between the pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' perception, it can be concluded that the statistically significant differences were detected in only 12 instances out of the 57 items. Thus, it can be interpreted that no statistically significant differences were observed within the majority of items (79%) and that the pre-service teachers and in-service teachers tended to disagree in only 21% of cases. Overall, general agreement exists on the qualities of a good and effective language teacher. Therefore, the findings of this study appear to corroborate the results of the studies conducted by Al-Mahrooqi, Denman, Al-Siyabi, and Al-Maamari (2015) as well as Shishavan, and Sadeghi (2009), but seem to be in contrast to studies carried out by Alimorad and Tajgozari (2016) and Park and Lee (2006).

Conclusion

This paper attempted to investigate the differences in pre-service teachers' and in-service teachers' perceptions of a good and effective language teacher.

The research results indicate that six out of the ten highest-mean items (e.g. be able to present content in a meaningful way, be able to provide clear instructions for the task, or be fair and correct) and seven out of the ten lowest-mean items (e.g. give a reasonable amount of homework, have more than five years of teaching experience, or know English culture well) overlap. Some of the highest-mean items, however, differed. While the pre-service teachers included items related to the nature of classroom relationship (e.g. arouse students' motivation for learning English or build a positive relationship with students, but retaining a professional distance), the in-service teachers included some items directly related to actual teaching such as being creative, using various methods in teaching, or providing opportunities to use English through meaningful tasks and activities.

Taking the different lowest-mean items into consideration, the pre-service teachers assigned much less importance to employing plenty of pair work or group work activities or to supporting the notion that fluency is somewhat more important than accuracy, which somewhat suggests their preference for traditional teaching approaches. The in-service teachers' lowest-mean items included being up to date or use as little L1 as possible. Therefore, some differences can be observed in terms of the different items – pre-service teachers possibly preferring traditional teaching to some degree, while support for CLT was more prevalent in the in-service teacher group.

The third research question attempted to detect the actual differences in the perceptions of good and effective language teachers. It has been observed that the significant differences were perceived within the following 12 instances (in each of the 12 cases, the teacher group assigned higher importance to these statements).

A good and effective teacher should:

1. Personalize his/her teaching to students' lives, needs, concerns, goals, and interests.
2. Provide opportunities to use English through meaningful tasks and activities.
3. Facilitate learners' responsibility and autonomy.
4. Establish clear classroom rules that everyone understands and obeys.
5. Employ plenty of pair work and group work in which his/her learners can practice English.
6. Support the notion that fluency is somewhat more important than accuracy.
7. Be flexible.
8. Be neat and tidy in appearance.
9. Show interest in students (e.g. by remembering their names, etc.) and their learning.
10. Have good communication skills.
11. Be familiar with the social and cultural backgrounds of learners.
12. Vary class interaction strategies (e.g. use group and pair work, drama, role-plays, debates, etc.).

It should be mentioned that most of the statistically different items represent the basic principles of CLT; based on these findings, the pre-service teachers favored traditional teaching approaches more than their in-service counterparts. This may also provide some stimulus for university teachers regarding their EFL didactic courses, suggesting they pay more careful attention when introducing the fundamental principles of CLT and ensuring that their prospective teachers will follow those principles when they become actual teachers. They need to understand that omitting, for example, pair-work and group work activities ignores one of the fundamental principles of contemporary approaches to teaching. Moreover, the items that were statistically different such as personalizing his/her teaching to students' lives, needs, concerns, goals, and interests or facilitating learners' responsibility and autonomy should also be discussed in more detail during the pre-service teachers university training so that these concepts, which are of major importance, are advocated later on when teaching at the lower-secondary or upper-secondary levels.

On the whole, however, it can be concluded that the pre-service teachers tended to generally agree with the in-service teachers on most of the items as only 12 out of the 57 items were significantly different. Thus, these findings support the results of other studies (e.g. Al-Mahrooqi, Denman, Al-Siyabi, & Al-Maamari, 2015; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009), but contradict the outcomes of other studies (Alimorad & Tajgozari, 2016; Park & Lee, 2006).

In spite of some limitations, e.g. the pre-service teachers being from only one Slovak university or the size of both research sample groups, it is apparent that further investigation needs to be conducted in this field, especially in countries where such research has not been carried out to date. The differences in the perception of good and effective language teachers may negatively influence the teaching and learning process. Therefore, these discrepancies require the careful attention of teachers and researchers. Future research, based on these outcomes, and taking into consideration the limitations of this study ought to help provide greater clarity in this regard and shed more light on the differences between pre-service and in-service teachers' perceptions of effective language teaching.

References

Al-Mahrooqi, R., Denman, C., Al-Siyabi, J., & Al-Maamari, F. (2015). Characteristics of a good EFL teacher: Omani EFL teacher and student perspectives. *SAGE Open, 5*(2). https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244015584782

Alimorad, Z., & Tajgozari, M. (2016). A comparison of Iranian high school teachers' and students' perceptions of effective English teachers. *SAGE Open, 6*(4). https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244016679212

Alzobiani, I. (2020). The qualities of effective teachers as perceived by Saudi EFL students and teachers. *English Language Teaching, 13*(2), 32-47. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v13n2p32

Auerbach, C., & Zeitlin, W. (2014). SSD for R: *An R package for analyzing single-subject data*. Oxford University Press.

Barnes, B., & Lock, G. (2013). Student perceptions of effective foreign language teachers: A quantitative investigation from a Korean university. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 38*(2), 19-36. http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2013v38n2.2

Brown, A. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*(1), 46-60. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00827.x

Çakmak, M., & Gündüz, M. (2018). Pre-service ELT teachers' perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers. *Gazi University Journal of Gazi Educational Faculty, 38*(1), 359-383.

Çelik, S., Arikan, A., & Caner, M. (2013). In the eyes of Turkish EFL learners: What makes an effective foreign language teacher? *Porta Linguarum, 20*, 287-297. https://doi.org/10.1186/s41239-019-0140-7

Delaney, J., Johnson, A., Johnson, T., & Treslan, D. (2010). *Students' perceptions of effective teaching in higher education*[Project Report]. Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, Newfoundland. https://research.library.mun.ca/8370/

Demiroz, H., & Yesilyurt, S. (2015). Effective foreign language teaching: Perceptions of prospective English language teachers. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 3*(11), 862-870. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2015.031112

Febriyanti, E. (2018). Investigating English department students' perceptions about a good English language teacher. *International Journal of Language Education, 2*(2), 83-95. https://doi.org/10.26858/ijole.v2i2.6378

Ghasemi, B., & Hashemi, M. (2011). The study of the characteristics of successful English language teachers from the viewpoint of the English language students of Islamic Azad University, Hamedan Branch. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences, 28*, 411-415. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.078

Hojatpanah, S., & Dashtestani, R. (2020). Electronic dictionaries as language learning tools for Iranian junior high school students. *CALL-EJ – Computer-Assisted Language Learning Electronic Journal, 21*(1), 79-96.

Hundarenko, O. (2019). Challenges of teaching academic writing skills in ESL classroom (Based on international teaching experience). *Revista Romaneasca pentru Educatie Multidimensionala, 11*(4), 70-83. https://doi.org/10.18662/rrem/158

Javid, C. (2014). Perceptive determination of Saudi EFL learners about the characteristics of an ideal English language teacher. *Research on Humanities and Social Sciences, 4*(8), 42-53.

Kapranov, O. (2020). In-service primary school teachers' account of phonetically difficult words in English as a foreign language. *Research in Language, 17*(3), 297-315. https://doi.org/10.2478/rela-2019-0018

Katooli, S., & Abdolmanafi-Rokni, S. (2015). A comparative analysis of students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching in Iran. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research Volume, 2*(8), 57-75.

Kourieos, S., & Evripidou, D. (2013). Students' perceptions of effective EFL teachers in university settings in Cyprus. *English Language Teaching, 6*(11), 1-16. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n11p1

Lacková, M. (2019). Investigation of ESP vocabulary through corpus. *Forlang. International Conference* (pp. 88-

93). Technical University of Košice.

Lee, J. (2010). The Uniqueness of EFL Teachers: Perceptions of Japanese Learners. *TESOL Journal, 1*(1), 23-48. https://doi.org/10.5054/tj.2010.214881

Leláková, E., & Šavelová, N. (2020). Conjunctive adverbials used by Charlotte Brontë in the novel "Jane Eyre". *International Journal of English Linguistics, 10*(3), 48-58. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v10n3p48

Metruk, R. (2018). *Researching speaking: Teaching and assessment*. Palacký University Olomouc.

Metruk, R. (2020). Confronting the challenges of MALL: Distraction, cheating, and teacher readiness. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning, 15*(2), 4-14. https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v15i02.11325

Moradi, K., & Sabeti, G. (2014). A comparison of EFL teachers and EFL students' understandings of 'highly effective teaching'. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98*, 1204-1213. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.535

Mutlu, A., & Özkan, Y. (2017). Pre-service English language teachers' views of the effective teacher and teaching. *Mediterranean Journal of Humanities 7*(1), 213-231. https://doi.org/10.13114/MJH.2017.332

Namaziandost, E., Neisi, L., Kheryadi, Nasri, M., & Heidari-Shahreza, M. (2019). Enhancing oral proficiency through cooperative learning among intermediate EFL learners: English learning motivation in focus. *Cogent Education, 6*(1), 1683933. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2019.1683933

Namaziandost, E, Sabzevari, A., & Hashemifardnia, A. (2018). The effect of cultural materials on listening comprehension among Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners: In reference to gender. *Cogent Education, 5*(1), 1560601. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2018.1560601

Park, G., & Lee, H. (2006). The characteristics of effective English teachers as perceived by high school teachers and students in Korea. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 7*, 236-248. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03031547

Privitera, G., & Ahlgrim-Delzell, L. (2019). *Research methods for education*. SAGE Publications, Inc.

Putrawan, G. (2019). A study on EFL learners' belief about translation as a learning strategy in Indonesia. Kervan – International Journal of Afro-Asiatic Studies, *23*(1), 235-249. https://doi.org/10.13135/1825-263X/3318

Ramazani, M. (2014). Mismatches in beliefs between teachers and students, and characteristics of effective English teacher: An Iranian Context. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98*, 1518-1527. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.573

Sabbah, S. (2018). Tertiary-level students' perceptions of the characteristics of effective English as a second language instructors. *International Journal of English Language Teaching, 6*(2), 1-24.

Sandholtz, J. (2011). Pre-service teachers' conceptions of effective and ineffective teaching practices. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 38*(3), 27-47.

Shishavan, H., & Sadeghi, K. (2009). Characteristics of an effective english language teacher as perceived by Iranian teachers and learners of English. *English Language Teaching, 2*(4), 130-143.

Stognieva, O. (2019). Teaching business English with TED talks: Putting ideas into practice. *Journal of Language and Education, 5*(2), 95-111. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2019.7995

Stronge, J. (2018). *Qualities of effective teachers* (3rd ed.). ASCD.

Todaka, Y. (2020). Extensive listening with instruction in how to help Japanese EFL learners improve English listening skills. *Academic Journal of International Education Research, 1*(1), 29-34. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.321540

Tok, H. (2010). Comparing teachers' and students' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching. A case study in Turkey. *International Conference on New Trends in Education and Their Implications (*pp. 405-413). ICONTE.

Zadeh, R. (2016). EFL learners' attitudes and perceptions about an effective English language teacher. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research, 3*(2), 148-156.

Zhang, O., & Watkins, D. (2007). Conceptions of a good tertiary EFL teacher in China. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(4), 781-790. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00103.x

APPENDIX A

Students' and teachers' means and standard deviations – all items

No	Item A good and effective EFL teacher is someone who should:	Students Mean	SD	Teachers Mean	SD	p value
1.	Be well prepared for each lesson.	3.53	0.62	3.65	0.51	0.20
2.	Be able to provide clear instructions for tasks.	3.8	0.44	3.87	0.38	0.28
3.	Be able to present content to students in a meaningful way.	3.81	0.43	3.86	0.35	0.49
4.	Personalize his/her teaching to students' lives, needs, concerns, goals, and interests.	3.15	0.72	3.44	0.64	0.01
5.	Give a reasonable amount of homework/home assignments.	3.01	0.79	2.98	0.77	0.83
6.	Provide opportunities to use English through meaningful tasks and activities.	3.57	0.64	3.78	0.42	0.02
7.	Facilitate learners' responsibility and autonomy.	3.24	0.74	3.67	0.48	0.00
8.	Be up-to-date (e.g. use the Internet and recent technologies in teaching).	3.07	0.78	3.25	0.65	0.13
9.	Make learning fun.	3.49	0.65	3.35	0.63	0.21
10.	Know English culture well.	2.93	0.80	3.13	0.61	0.11
11.	Teach English in English - use as little L1 (mother tongue) as possible.	3.32	0.74	3.27	0.63	0.64
12.	Establish clear classroom rules that everyone understands and obeys.	3.31	0.79	3.65	0.51	0.00
13.	Be upbeat (positive and enthusiastic; making you feel that the future will be good).	3.45	0.74	3.49	0.59	0.69
14.	Employ plenty of pair work and group work in which his/her learners can practice English.	2.91	0.85	3.35	0.65	0.00
15.	Teach how to learn English outside the classroom (teach language learning strategies).	3.42	0.62	3.44	0.64	0.81
16.	Arouse students' motivation for learning English.	3.65	0.63	3.62	0.55	0.77
17.	Diagnose learners' learning problems.	3.11	0.85	3.17	0.68	0.61
18.	Manage the class time well and use the time efficiently.	3.53	0.60	3.62	0.52	0.34
19.	Be creative; use various methods and techniques in teaching.	3.59	0.72	3.73	0.48	0.19
20.	Teach English adapted to students' English proficiency levels.	3.34	0.67	3.43	0.67	0.43
21.	Actively listen to students' opinions and let them express themselves.	3.49	0.67	3.59	0.59	0.35
22.	Be helpful to students inside and outside the classroom.	3.62	0.59	3.44	0.67	0.10
23.	Support the notion that fluency is somewhat more important than accuracy.	2.95	0.76	3.30	0.69	0.00
24.	Help students develop self-confidence in order to learn English well.	3.58	0.66	3.63	0.58	0.61
25.	Be fair and correct (with feedback, giving turns, attending to individual differences).	3.80	0.47	3.86	0.35	0.40
26.	Be disciplined and punctual.	3.20	0.72	3.43	0.67	0.06
27.	Be knowledgeable (have both subject matter knowledge and pedagogical knowledge).	3.59	0.62	3.70	0.56	0.3
28.	Be flexible.	3.26	0.78	3.60	0.52	0.00
29.	Be neat and tidy in appearance.	2.68	0.92	3.10	0.73	0.00
30.	Be available for students.	3.43	0.62	3.41	0.64	0.86
31.	Be open to constructive criticism.	3.47	0.62	3.51	0.59	0.74
32.	Show interest in students (e.g. by remembering their names, etc.) and their learning.	3.41	0.76	3.75	0.47	0.00
33.	Have good communication skills.	3.65	0.56	3.84	0.37	0.02
34.	Have a high level of English proficiency.	3.55	0.55	3.49	0.64	0.55
35.	Be patient (allow for students' questions, comments, and participation).	3.62	0.59	3.76	0.47	0.12
36.	Build a positive relationship with students but focus on retaining a professional distance.	3.62	0.59	3.59	0.56	0.73
37.	Be polite and respect the personality of students.	3.76	0.43	3.73	0.48	0.74
38.	Not lose his/her temper and get angry.	3.54	0.62	3.41	0.75	0.29

39.	Establish a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom.	3.50	0.67	3.54	0.62	0.72
40.	Monitor progress and provide learners with useful and constructive feedback.	3.53	0.58	3.57	0.59	0.66
41.	Have a university degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language.	3.01	0.84	3.08	0.87	0.65
42.	Have more than five years of experience teaching English.	2.28	0.87	2.35	0.86	0.66
43.	Be familiar with the social and cultural backgrounds of learners.	2.61	0.92	2.89	0.72	0.05
44.	Be aware of the current teaching techniques.	3.03	0.74	3.19	0.59	0.15
45.	Know how to assess learners' performance reasonably, correctly, and fairly.	3.41	0.55	3.56	0.59	0.13
46.	Regard errors as an inseparable part of the learning process; self-correction is encouraged.	3.43	0.70	3.46	0.64	0.81
47.	Have good and effective classroom management skills.	3.42	0.72	3.56	0.56	0.22
48.	Vary class interaction strategies (e.g. use group and pair work, drama, role-plays, debates, etc.).	2.95	0.95	3.56	0.64	0.00
49.	Be able to assess learners' strengths and weaknesses.	3.31	0.62	3.43	0.56	0.24
50.	Speak audibly and clearly.	3.78	0.4	3.67	0.57	0.19
51.	Be able to explain unfamiliar concepts in various ways.	3.49	0.65	3.60	0.58	0.27
52.	Come to class on time and finish on time.	3.30	0.72	3.29	0.68	0.92
53.	Be able to cooperate with colleagues to improve the current teaching practices.	3.19	0.68	3.38	0.68	0.10
54.	Be confident and have self-control.	3.53	0.66	3.57	0.59	0.65
55.	Have a positive attitude towards change and innovation.	3.41	0.66	3.54	0.64	0.23
56.	Participate in teacher professional growth events such as seminars, workshops, conferences, etc. in order to develop professionally.	3.12	0.81	3.33	0.70	0.10
57.	Be ready to learn new methods and teaching strategies.	3.46	0.74	3.56	0.62	0.41

The Language of Praise in Russian Students' Evaluation of Teaching

Irina S. Morozova, Aleksey A. Chusovlyankin, Elena A. Smolianina, Tatyana M. Permyakova

National Research University Higher School of Economics

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Irina Morozova, National Research University Higher School of Economics, ul. Makarenko, 18-17, Perm, 614017, Russian Federation.
E-mail: ismorozova.morozova@yandex.ru

Recent decades have seen a dramatic rise in student evaluation of teaching (SET). However, they have overwhelmingly focused on quantitative ratings, neglecting students' written feedback. This study addresses the lack of qualitative research on SET by applying a semantic theory and computational methods for analysing the language of positive feedback comments provided by students of the Higher School of Economics (HSE) in Russia. Analysing a corpus of student commentary about teaching also contributes to the theory of pragmatics as the approach to analysing qualitative evaluations of teaching is based on the premise that students' positive feedback can be treated as a sort of the compliment/praise speech act reflecting cultural specificity. Our findings showed that quantitatively the most common semantic pattern used by HSE students is ACTOR + (AUGMENTOR) EVALUATOR + PHYSICAL/MENTAL ACTION PERFORMED BY THE ACTOR + (AUGMENTOR) EVALUATOR. Thus, HSE students tend to praise the teacher more often than the other components of the teaching process and the teacher's behaviour, thoughts, and feelings are viewed as more important than skills and speech.

Keywords: positive evaluation, students' feedback about teaching, semantic patterns, the Russian language, text analytics

Introduction

Student evaluation of teaching (SET) is a common assessment tool used to measure teaching effectiveness and evaluate courses at colleges and universities. Studies of SET in higher education have dramatically risen over the past several decades; however they focus on quantitative ratings, assessing the reliability and validity of these measures, or improving their design (Cheng & Marsh, 2010; Richardson, Slater, & Wilson, 2007; Spooren, Brockx, & Mortelmanset, 2013). Apart from measurement scales in SET, students are invited to write open comments. Nonetheless, they are generally not taken into account, owing to the lack and challenges of systematic analysis and processing techniques for subjective commentary despite the fact that open-ended questions are more appropriate for formative evaluation (Alhija & Fresko 2009; Huxham et al., 2008). Thus, in spite of the growing body of literature on SET, student qualitative evaluations have been under-researched and there is a lack of theoretically grounded analysis of the language of SET. Besides, in the literature, more attention is given to negative commentary or criticism and their effects on teachers while students' positive comments are particularly more frequent than negative ones and generously praise teachers (Alhija & Fresko 2009). Students seem to regard qualitative feedback as more meaningful than quantitative feedback (Davison & Price 2009).

As Grainger (2018) showed, Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987) and Gricean pragmatics (Grice, 1975) can be useful for the analysis of different types of interaction. We suggest that the study of student positive commentary about teaching may also benefit from these theories using some concepts of traditional pragmatics (Austin, 1962; Leech, 1983; Searle, 1975). We base this on the premise that students' positive evaluation of teaching can be treated as praise or compliment speech acts (Holmes, 1988) reflecting cultural values (Herbert, 1986; Manes, 1983). It is claimed that despite being semantic universals, positive student feedback varies from one language to another, from culture to culture, and from society to society (Wierzbicka, 1991; Wolfson & Manes, 1980). Thus, the study of the language of praise in student evaluation of teaching may fill a gap in the speech act theory.

Despite extensive research of compliments across cultures (Herbert, 1989; Holmes, 1988; Lin, Woodfield, & Ren, 2012; Maíz-Arévalo, 2012; Seifoori & Emadi, 2015; Tang & Zhang, 2009) and in the foreign/second language classroom (Allami & Montazeri, 2012; Bai, 2015; Holmes & Brown, 1987; Huth, 2006), there has been little attention paid to complimenting and praise between teachers and students. A few studies that investigated this issue either suggested guidelines for effective teacher praise (Brophy, 1981) or focused on praise used by teachers to soften criticisms (Hyland & Hyland, 2001). Burnett (2002) also looked into the relationships between teacher praise and students' perceptions of the classroom. Suketi (2014) analyzed students' response to the compliment given in consultation. No literature on student complimenting or praising behaviors toward teachers was found. In this study, we investigate student complimenting and praising behaviour in the context of teacher evaluation.

Students' evaluation of teachers, particularly in higher education, has become a widely discussed subject. There were attempts to determine the relationships between SET scores and such factors as students' gender (Amin, 1994; Centra & Gaubatz, 2000; Thawabieh, 2017), expected grades (Chen, Wang, & Yang, 2017; Sarwar, Dildar, & Hussain, 2017) or overall satisfaction with the course (Ahmad, 2015). Yet very few studies have systematically investigated the content of students' written feedback while students were found to be generally willing to provide such feedback (Spencer & Schmelkin, 2002), and it be both negative and demotivating as well as positive and encouraging (Light & Cox, 2001).

There are a small number of studies related to the content of student feedback (Blair & Noel, 2014; Steyn, Davies, & Sambo, 2018), but these works restrict themselves to conventional thematic analysis eliciting factors and themes of student qualitative feedback. "Attention to the … language used has potential to reveal insight into students' relationships with teachers and the institution" (Stewart, 2015, p. 1-2). Nevertheless, only scant research exists on the language of students' feedback. For instance, Zaitseva, Milsom, and Stewart (2013) interpreted the qualitative data from student satisfaction surveys utilizing concept mapping software. Stewart (2015) analysed the extent to which students managed language through intensification or moderation of views and highlighted the asymmetry between positive and negative feedback. Rajput, Rajput, Haider, and Ghani (2016) presented a lexicon-based sentiment analysis of students' open-ended textual feedback using word clouds visualization techniques. Our study seeks to expand the linguistic perspective of SET as, being a window into the mind, language is one of the best ways to provide insight into underlying concepts and inform on academic and interpersonal experience.

Natural Semantic Metalanguage Theory

Linguists point out that languages are culture-specific (Humboldt, 1999; Sapir, 1929; Whorf, 1982). However, it is important to find common ground for making reliable comparison between languages, the so-called "true tertium comparationis" (Wierzbicka, 1996, p. 16). Wierzbicka's (1996) natural semantic metalanguage theory has become a noteworthy approach with considerable longevity and "a substantial output within the field of contemporary linguistics" (Goddard, 2008, p. 1).

In Wierzbicka's understanding, there are indefinable elements or absolute particles of meaning in all languages, "that are indefinable not because they are considered elementary in a particular language but in any kind of human language system" (Dziedziul, 2017, p. 256). Wierzbicka (1996) and Goddard (2008) suggest using this semantic cognitive core as a metalanguage that will allow us to compare different languages and cultures. Nevertheless, Wierzbicka (1996) points out that the natural semantic metalanguage does not imply that all languages are equivalent. The theory of elementary semantic units remains culture sensitive. It assumes the presence of words in a language, that have no direct equivalents in others, and that the superficial unique elements can be compared by extracting the elementary particles of meaning shared by all languages. "In plain words: it is not the meaning that is unique, but the sequence of universal elements that stand behind the word" (Dziedziul, 2017, p. 257)

The palette of the elementary units of meaning has been changing. However, despite wild fluctuations, their number has not exceeded 100 items (Tabakowska, 2001). Wierzbicka (1996) outlined the following elementary units of meaning (See Table 1).

Table 1
Elementary Units of Meaning

Elementary Unit	Word
Substantives	I, you, someone, something, people, etc.
Determiners	this, the same, other, etc.
Quantifiers	one, two, many, much, all, etc.
Mental predicates	think, know, want, feel, see, etc.
Non-mental predicates	move, there is, be alive, etc.
Space	far, inside, here, where, under, etc.
Speech	Say
Actions and events	do, happen, etc.
Evaluators	Good
Descriptors	Big
Time	after, along, before, now, when, etc.
Partonomy/ taxonomy	part of, kind of, etc.
Metapredicates	can, not, very, etc.
Intercausal links	because, if, like, etc.
Imagination/possibility	maybe, would, etc.
Words	Say

The present study aims to address the shortcomings of qualitative research on SET by applying a semantic theory and corpus-driven methodology. The research question to be answered is: What semantic patterns are commonly used by HSE students in their positive written comments about teaching?

Methodology

Participants

This study describes semantic patterns used by students of the Higher School of Economics in Russia when presenting praise in an institutional satisfaction survey.

In our study, the data analysed were drawn from Teaching Quality Assessment (TQA), a tool available on the Higher School of Economics (HSE) website. TQA is conducted at the end of each module in order to improve the planning and organisation of the teaching process. Undergraduate students across Year 1, 2, 3, and 4 are offered the opportunity to assess courses in which they had an examination in the current module or received a grade as part of an interim assessment. The name of the course and the teacher who taught it are reflected in the evaluation form. Students are invited to assess different aspects of the courses and the teachers' performance on a 5-point scale as well as to leave free-form written comments in a separate field, with the direct wording of the instruction: "Your comments: ___".

We obtained ethical approval from the HSE's ethics committee with the stipulation that we not use any direct quotes from the respondents. We retrieved and analyzed 363 anonymous positive comments about teaching from first through fourth-year students across six Bachelor's programmes (Business Informatics, Economics, History, Law, Management, and Software Engineering) for the academic years 2015/2016 and 2016/2017. We differentiated between positive and negative feedback using a teacher's overall score. If a teacher received a positive score (4 and 5), the following comment was qualified as positive while the comments following the teacher rating of 3 or below were negative. It is acknowledged from the outset that the dataset investigated here may not be substantial enough to generalize findings beyond the sample. However, as this was not the required purpose, the dataset is useful for exploring semantic models of the positive feedback language used by HSE students in Perm.

Assessments and Measures

The analysis of students' positive feedback about teaching was carried out in several steps: data preprocessing (tokenization, punctuation and stop word removal, and lemmatization), part-of-speech tagging (POS tagging), counting the number of occurrences of different parts of speech, calculating word occurrence and frequency, extracting semantic concepts from the notional words, and building semantic patterns of HSE students' positive feedback about teaching (See Figure 1). We refer to the sequences of semantic concepts that represent entities appearing in SET as semantic patterns for simplicity.

Figure 1
Student positive feedback analysis
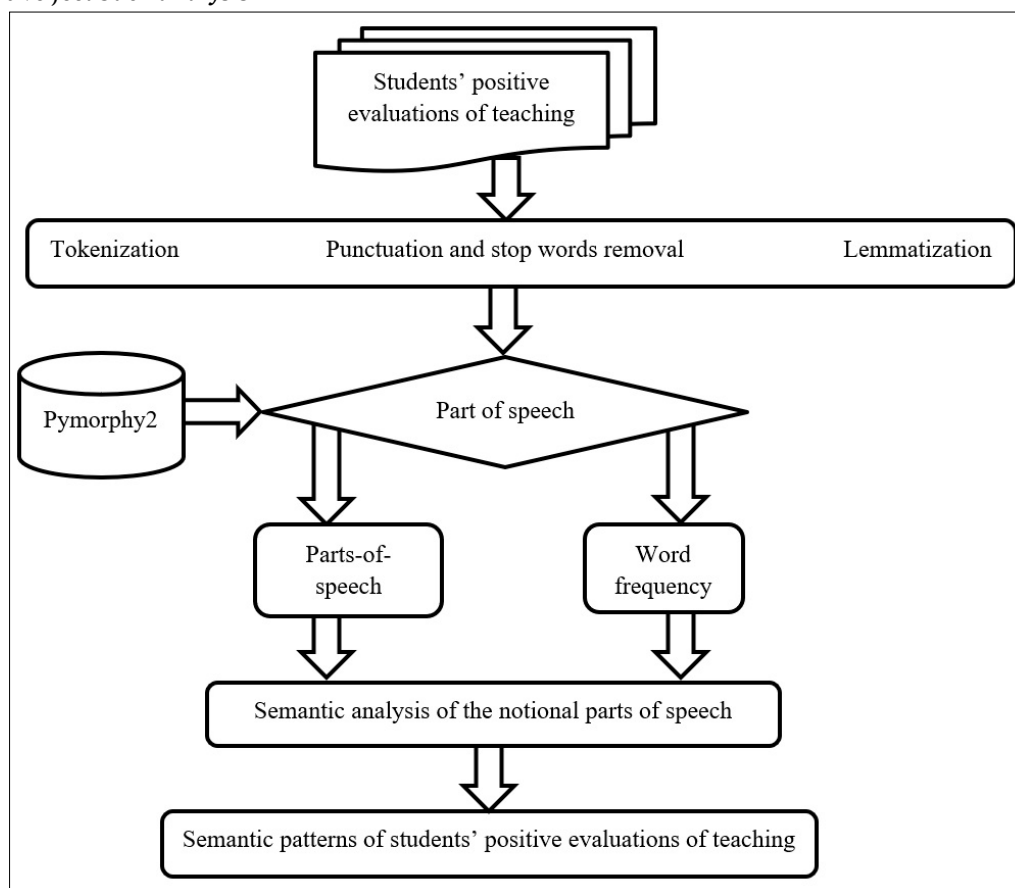
For the data analysis we applied Pymorphy2, a morphological analyser and generator for the Russian and Ukrainian languages. Pymorphy2 was implemented as cross-platform software in the Python programming language and is widely used in academic research. Pymorphy2 uses morphological word features and relies on large lexicons for the analysis of common words. For the Russian language, Pymorphy2 uses the OpenCorpora dictionary, available at OpenCorpora.org ($\sim 5 * 106$ word forms, $\sim 0.39 * 106$ lemmas) and converted from OpenCorpora XML6 format to a compact representation optimized for morphological analysis and generation tasks. Pymorphy2 provides users with methods to analyze, inflect, lemmatize, or tag words as well as with data about the word gender, number, part of speech, and root. For data processing, it is necessary to choose the correct analysis from a list of possible analyses. It is generally required to take the word context in account.

The retrieved comments were categorised as unstructured and noisy owing to the informal writing style, grammatical and spelling mistakes, use of abbreviated shortcuts, and incomplete sentences. Therefore, we preprocessed the data removing unwanted and noisy data. This stage of analysis comprised tokenization (breaking a stream of text into a list of words), punctuation and stop words removal, and lemmatization (grouping together the inflected forms of a word and analysing them as a single item). The tokenizer split the

input text into 5448 words. After that, we filtered function words and lemmatised the remaining 4193 notional words. The resulting data set was a list of 1294 lemmas serving as input for further processing steps.

Next was POS tagging. We marked up each lemma as corresponding to a particular part of speech and counted the number of occurrences for each part of speech elucidating their usage patterns. In our research, we also analysed word frequency by counting how many times each word was used in students' positive feedback comments. Finally, there was semantic analysis dividing the notional words into semantic categories and yielding semantic patterns of students' positive evaluation of teaching.

Results

As the first step of data processing, the morphological analyzer Pymorphy2 performed POS tagging marking up all the notional words as a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, or numeral (See Figure 2).

Figure 2
The word 'хороший' in Pymorthy2

```
In [5]:    import pymorphy2
           morph = pymorphy2.Morphanalyzer()
           morph. parse('Хорший')[0]

Out [5]:   Parse(word='хорший', tag-OpencorporaTag( 'ADJF,Qual masc,sing,nomn'),
           normal_form='хорший', score=0.8, methods_stack=((<DictionaryAnalyzer>,'хорший', 2998, @),))
```

As is illustrated in Figure 2, parsing the word *'хороший'* ('good') returns the following tags: ADJF, Qual masc, sing, nomn meaning *'хороший'* is a masculine singular adjective.

Next, we computed the number of occurrences for each part of speech (See Table 2).

Table 2
The Number of Occurrences of Different Parts of Speech

Part of speech	Total Number of Occurrences (7098)	Percentage (100%)
Noun	1704	24
Adjective	837	12
Verb	3860	54
Adverb	492	7
Pronoun	176	2.5
Numeral	29	0.5

As shown in Table 2, students' positive commentary about teaching was dominated by verbs, accounting for more than a half of all words in the dataset. Next, frequent were nouns (24%) and adjectives (12%), with adverbs, pronouns, and numerals lagging behind.

Further investigation narrowed down to the computation of word frequencies for each part of speech (See Tables 3-7).

Table 3
Occurrence of Notional Parts of Speech in Positive SET

Nouns	
Occurrence	**Word**
250	a proper name, e.g. Olga, Vladimir, Ivan
189	prepodavatel'
68	kurs
57	material
55	lektsia
47	seminar
36	student
35	predmet
27	znanie
24	rabota
22	vremya
20	vopros
19	distsiplina, para
17	primer
16	praktika
15	zanyatie
13	auditoria, chelovek
12	yazyk, zadanie
11	kontakt
9	god, podhod, informatsia, vozmozhnost', tema
8	interes, raz, podacha
7	forma, budustchee, yumor, novizna, shkola, ball, vyshka
6	delo, igra, blagodarnost', teoria
5	konsultatsia, diskussia, oblast', uroven', protsess + 10 words
4	kommentarii, kommunikatsia, opisanie, gruppa + 15 words
3	sovet, caryera, svyaz', reshenie, fakt, drug, rech, format + 20 words
2	primenenie, vospriyatie, formirovanie, upravlenie, metod, chast' + 55 words
1	raznoobrazie, nagl'adnost', instrument + 225 words
Total: **1704**	Total: **476**

Adjective	
58	*interesny*
52	*horoshy*
38	*kotory, zamechatel'ny*
34	*samy*
28	*takoi*
24	*svoi*
21	*bol'shoi*
20	*polezny*
18	*otlichny*
17	*prekrasny*
15	*kazhdy*
12	*real'ny*
11	*anglijsky*
10	*praktichesky*

9	*slozhny, lyubimy, uchebny*
8	*krutoi, ogromny, super, lyuboi*
7	*vysoky, danny, polozhitel'ny*
6	*razlichny, otzyvchivy*
5	*sovremenny, pon'atny, trebovatel'ny + 5 words*
4	*dostupny, yarky, neobhodimy, teoretichesky + 5 words*
3	*aktivny, competentny, nuzhny, dobry, glavny, + 15 words*
2	*umny, gramotny, erudirovanny + 45 words*
1	*velikolepny, original'ny, ideal'ny, bestsenny, prevoshodny, neobychny,nezauryadny + 110 words*
Total: **837**	Total: **230**

Verb	
280	*byt'*
155	*dat'/davat'*
140	*ob'asnyat'/ob'asnit'*
135	*hotet'sya*
100	*provodit'/vesti*
95	*rasskazat'*
90	*(po)nravit'sya*
80	*delat'*
75	*pomoch/ pomogat'*
70	*moch*
65	*slushat', ponimat' poluchat'/poluchit'*
60	*prohodit'*
55	*otvetit'/otvechat', rabotat', znat'*
50	*najti*
40	*umet', zainteresovat', potryasat',*
35	*prepodavat'*
30	*idti, prigodit'sya, (na)pisat', razbirat',*
25	*skazat', vstrechat', prihodit', tsenit' + 5 words*
20	*starat'sya, primenyat' + 10 words*
15	*videt', pokazyvat', hvalit', poluchat', motivirovat', reshat' +15 words*
10	*diskutirovat', sprosit', reshat', vybrat' + 35 words*
5	*organizovat',vnikat', vystupat', razobrzt' + 185 words*
Total: **3860**	Total: **244**

Adverb	
144	*ochen'*
35	*vsegda*
29	*interesno, mnogo*
14	*ponyatno*
8	*horosho, dostupno, bolee*
7	*dejstvitel'no, priyatno*
6	*yasno, bistro, nikogda*
5	*chetko, kruto, prekrasno, dostatochno, uzhe, legko, nastol'ko*
4	*posledovatel'no, chasto*
3	*otlichno, srazu, krajne*
2	*polezno, slozhno, tochno + 18 words*
1	*naglyadno, konkretno, udobno + 88 words*
Total: **492**	Total: **138**

Pronoun	
41	*ya*
31	*on*
25	*ona*
24	*my*
11	*eto*
8	*sebya*
6	*oni*
5	*vy*
4	*kto, nichto*
3	*ty, chto, chto-to, kto-to*
2	*nikto, mnogoe*
1	*mnogie*
Total: 176	Total: **18**

Next was semantic categorization of the notional words in positive SET. For this the semantic metalanguage particles, which either coincided with or helped create compound concepts of student positive comments, were used. According to the natural semantic metalanguage theory, substantives are universally divided into persons (Who is it?) and things (What is it?). Furthermore, there are categories describing those who act (Actor), the means by which they act (Tool), the objects they make or use (Artifact), and the properties of actors, tools, and artifacts (Property). Table 4 shows the semantic categories of the nouns used in students' positive feedback comments.

Table 4
Semantic Categories of Nouns in Positive SET

	Semantic category		Occurrence	Word
Person	Actor		583	prepodavatel'
Thing	Teaching Tools		590	kurs, lektsia, podhod
	Educational Artifacts	Material	329	plan, prezentatsia
		Mental	186	znanie, informatsia
	Property		16	adekvatnost', gumannost'

Example 1
Prepodavatel'
who? a person
teaches
does the teaching action
acts
actor
Prepodavatel' is an ACTOR

Example 2
Lektsia
what? a thing
a means of teaching
something used by a teacher
something used by an actor
Lektsia is a TOOL

Example 3
Presentatsia
what? a thing
a talk made by a teacher/student
something made by someone

an artifact
can be seen or heard
physical
relates to something physical
material
Presentatsia is a MATERIAL ARTIFACT

The adjectives were classified into two big groups: those attributing people and things. Each of the two groups consists of three semantic categories: determiners serving to express the reference of a noun, descriptors describing or identifying a person or thing, and evaluators giving an opinion about a person or thing. Table 5 shows different trends for attributing animate and inanimate nouns in positive SET. Nouns denoting people are overwhelmingly attributed by evaluators while those for things are more commonly used with descriptors.

Table 5

Semantic   Categories   of   Adjectives   in   Positive   SET

Category Adjective	Occurrence		Word
	Person	**Thing**	
Descriptor	24	221	uchebny, praktichesky, anglijsky
Determiner	69	87	danny, lyuboi, nekotory
Evaluator	305	131	interesny, horoshy, zamechatel'ny, otlichny, prekrasny

Example 4
Danny
used for a person/object
is referred to now
the nearest in space/time
used to differentiate between people/things
Danny is a DETERMINER

Example 5
Prekrasny
someone thinks about something that something is very good
Prekrasny is an EVALUATOR

Example 6
Uchebny
someone says about something that something is used for learning
someone says how something is used
someone describes the purpose of something
Uchebny is a DESCRIPTOR

Table 6 presents the semantic types of the verbs used in students' positive comments about teaching.

Table 6

Semantic   Categories   of   Verbs   in   Positive   SET

Semantic category	Occurrence	Word
Action/Event	1110	*delat', napisat', rabotat'*
Mental Predicate	1080	*videt', dumat', schitat'*
Metapredicate	110	*moch, umet'*
Non-mental Predicate	1000	*byt', udavat'sya, obladat'*
Speech	560	*govorit', izlagat', kommentirovat'*

Example 7
  Rabotat'
  do a job
  do something
  cause something to do
  Rabotat' is an ACTION

Example 8
  Schitat'
  to think about something that something is good/bad
  to count/calculate
  to judge about the number/value of something
  to have information about something
  to know something about someone or something
  Schitat' is a MENTAL predicate

Example 9
  Kommentirovat'
  to give an opinion about something
  to say your opinion about something
  to talk about something
  Kommentirovat' is SPEECH

The next table (Table 7) shows the semantic categories of the adverbs used by students to praise teachers. As seen in Table 7, students tended to intensify their positive opinion about teaching using augmentors.

Table 7

Semantic Categories of Adverbs in Positive SET

Semantic category	Occurrence	Word
Augmentor	240	*krajne, naibolee, ochen'*
Time	71	*vovremya, inogda, obychno*
Evaluator	133	*interesno, kruto, horosho*
Descriptor	40	*bystro, lakonichno, medlenno*
Space	8	*vezde, vyshe, zdes'*

Discussion

Our main finding is that students praised the teacher more often than the other components of the teaching process (e.g. means of teaching, teaching results). It aligns with Stewart's (2015) research and proves that an effective teacher plays a very important role in student achievement.

With reference to Wolfson (1980), our findings revealed that students tended to use more verbs than other notional parts of speech to compliment and praise teachers. To summarize the parts-of-speech patterns in Table 3, five semantic groups of verbs were found in students' positive feedback comments: actions/events, mental predicates, non-mental predicates, metapredicates, and speech verbs. Interestingly, the figures for actions, mental, and non-mental predicates were almost equal and considerably exceeded those for speech and metapredicate groups. This means that students value teachers for what they do, what and how they think, and how well they conduct a seminar or lecture rather than how they speak or what their personal expertise and skills are.

Both animate and inanimate nouns were attributed by adjectives of three semantic types: determiner, descriptor, and evaluator. The analysis showed that evaluators tended to attribute nouns denoting people while descriptors

overwhelmingly referred to things. Evaluators were also numerous among adverbs. Quantitatively, the most common semantic models of students' positive evaluation of teachers are as follows:

Actor + Evaluator + Action/Mental predicate + Augmentor/ Evaluator
Tool/ Artifact + Descriptor + Non-mental predicate + Augmentor/Space/Time

Although compliments are thought to be formulaic and lack originality in choice of lexical items and semantic structures (Manes & Wolfson, 1981; Wolfson, 1981), our results showed some unique characteristics of Russian compliments in the higher education context. One major difference was noted when examining the use of parts of speech. As mentioned above, we found that student positive evaluations of teachers in Russian were dominated by verbs, whilst previous research pointed out that the majority of Russian compliments were adjectival (Nguyen, 2013; Solodka, Sukhomlynsky, & Perea, 2018). Another difference that was noted in complimenting behaviour in the higher education context concerns thematic imperatives or topics chosen by Russian students to compliment teachers. Russian students tend to praise teachers for their actions (physical, mental, and non-mental) rather than their appearance, abilities, and personality traits occurring most in non-educational contexts (Issers, 2006; Kachevskaia, 2007; Shcheboleva & Sun', 2016).

The study of verbal representations of the complimenting speech act used by students of the Higher School of Economics in Russia offers insights into the system of values of the Russian student community. The prevalence of mental and non-mental verbs, expressing one's state (*to be, to have, to like, to think, to understand, to want,* etc.), represents Russian students' orientation value of "being" and "feeling". The orientation value of "doing" represented by action/event verbs (*to do, to get, to give, to help,* etc.) is less important for Russian students. Surprisingly, teaching delivery appears to be ranked the lowest in the verb classes. Russian students' complimenting behaviour is most often directed at interest, which manifests itself in the use of such lexemes as *to be interested, interesting,* and *interestingly/with interest.* These results compliment the study on the linkage between the teachers' emotional characteristics and personality type and students' estimation of the teachers' qualities (Busygina & Busygina, 2013).

However, this research has several limitations. It is based on feedback provided by students in just one campus of the Higher School of Economics at one point in time. So, no claims can be made that the obtained semantic patterns will be generalizable to all students' positive feedback, which was never the intention of this research. Different findings could be expected between different kinds of institutions and different cultures and languages, especially in weights of semantic groups in models. Nevertheless, addressing this limitation in our methodology may be an objective of future research. The study could also be extended to word collocations or sentence structures in student feedback and include age, gender, and nationality in the research. Moreover, the limited sample could not include negative comments, which might also contain the language of praise. It means that further studies should incorporate negative evaluations, to strengthen the validity of the results. Overall, the validity of quantitative ratings in SET and the improved design of evaluation measures can be tested in combination with the current findings and potential comparisons with negative comments.

Conclusion

Our study offers a new perspective on the theory of speech acts and reveals some patterns of interpersonal positioning in a single aggregated sample of student positive commentary. The findings provide information that concerns how expressive illocutionary acts are performed in the higher education context as well as how their implicit cultural meanings can be interpreted. It is expected that some aspects of students' evaluative language identified in this research may be universal.

The semantic models and their features can be applied in automatic reading of subjective commentaries to identify positive feedback and 'good' teachers. This application can fill the gap caused by the lack of systematic analysis and processing techniques for approaching open commentaries in students' evaluations. Because this study is on text analytics in semantic research, i.e. the application of the Python programming language and the OpenCorpora dictionary, its main contribution is processing a large number of user-generated texts as well as building semantic patterns of student positive commentary in the national language.

We also anticipate that a better understanding of the semantic structure and proposition of positive textual evaluation will allow educators to interpret students' subjective commentary more fully and improve both student learning and instructor performance, mainly through using them as guidance for the choice of instructors, knowing factors for faculty loads or rating biases, and students' expectations (Otto, Sanford, & Ross, 2008; Wongsurawat, 2011). Satisfaction with a teacher is assumed to facilitate learning and to positively impact learning outcomes. Particular recommendations for educational managers might include a better match of a teacher for a course and/or improvements in course selection by students.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Ahmad, S. Z. (2015). Evaluating student satisfaction of quality at international branch campuses. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 40*(4), 488-507. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2014.925082

Alhija, F. N. A., & Fresko, B. (2009). Student evaluation of instruction: What can be learned from students' written comments? *Studies in Educational Evaluation*, 35(1), 37-44. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2009.01.002

Allami, H., & Montazeri, M. (2012). Iranian EFL learners' compliment responses. *System, 40*(4), 466-482. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2012.10.010

Amin, M. (1994). Gender as a discriminating factor in the evaluation of teaching. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 19*(2), 135-143. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0260293940190206

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Harvard University Press.

Bai, G. (2015). On the pragmatic patterns of Chinese college English learners' compliment responses. *International journal of English linguistics, 5*(4), 106-119. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v5n4p106

Blair, E., & Noel, K. V. (2014). Improving higher education practice through student evaluation systems: Is the student voice being heard? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 39*(7), 879-894. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2013.875984

Brophy, J. (1981). Teacher praise: A functional analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 51*(1), 5-32. http://dx.doi/10.3102/00346543051001005

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage (Studies in Interactional Sociolinguistics)*. Cambridge University Press.

Burnett, P. C. (2002). Teacher praise and feedback and students' perceptions of the classroom environment. *Educational Psychology, 22*(1), 51-6. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410120101215

Busygina, A. L., & Busygina, T. A. (2013). Influence of the teacher's emotionality on the students' assessment of their pedagogical image. *Samara Journal of Science, 4*(5), 44-45.

Centra, J., & Gaubatz, N. (2000). Is there gender bias in student evaluations of teaching? *Journal of Higher Education, 71*(1), 17-33. https://doi.org/10.2307/2649280

Chen, Ch. Y., Wang, Sh. Y., & Yang, Y. F. (2017). A study of the correlation of the improvement of teaching evaluation scores based on student performance grades. *International Journal of Higher Education, 6*(2), 162-168. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijhe.v6n2p162

Cheng, J., & Marsh, H. W. (2010). National student survey: Are differences between universities and courses reliable and meaningful? *Oxford Review of Education, 36*(6), 693-712. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054985.2010.491179

Davison, E., & Price, J. (2009). How do we rate? An evaluation of online student evaluations. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 34*(1), 51-65. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930801895695

Dziedziul, P. (2017). The universal categories of praxeology in light of natural semantic metalanguage theory. *Libertarian Papers*, *9*(2), 249-276. https://doi.org/10.2307/409588

Goddard, C. (2008). Natural semantic metalanguage: The state of the art. In Goddard, C. (Ed.), *Cross-Linguistic semantics. Studies in language companion series* (vol. 102, pp.1-34). John Benjamins Publishing Company. https://doi.org/10.1075/slcs.102

Grainger, K. (2018). "We're not in a club now": A neo-Brown and Levinson approach to analyzing courtroom data.

Journal of Politeness Research, 14(1), 19-38. https://doi.org/10.1515/pr-2017-0039

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In Cole, P. & Morgan, J. L. (Eds.), *Studies in syntax and semantics: Speech acts* (vol. 3, pp. 41-58). Academic Press.

Herbert, R. K. (1986). Say "thank you" – or something. *American Speech, 61*(1), 76-88. https://doi.org/10.2307/454710

Herbert, R. K. (1989). The ethnography of English compliments and compliment responses. In Oleksy, W. (Ed.), *Contrastive Pragmatics* (pp.3-37). John Benjamins Publishing Company. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.3.05her

Holmes, J. (1988). Compliments and compliment responses in New Zealand. *Anthropological Linguistics, 28*(4), 485-508.

Holmes, J., & Brown, D.F. (1987). Teachers and students learning about compliments. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*(3), 523-546. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586501

Humboldt, W. (1999). *On language: On the diversity of human language construction and its influence on the mental development of the human species.* Cambridge University Press.

Huth, Th. (2006). Negotiating structure and culture: L2 learners' realization of L2 compliment-response sequences in talk-in-interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics, 38*(12), 2025-2050. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2006.04.010

Huxham, M., Laybourn, Ph., Cairncross, S., Gray, M., Brown, N., Goldfinch, J., & Earl, Sh. (2008). Collecting student feedback: A comparison of questionnaire and other methods. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 33*(6), 675-686. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930701773000

Hyland, F., & Hyland, K. (2001). Sugaring the pill: Praise and criticism in written feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 10*(3), 185-212. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(01)00038-8

Issers, O. S. (2006). *Kommunikativnye strategii i taktiki russkoi rechi* [Communicative strategies and tactics of Russian speech]. URSS.

Kachevskaia, A. A. (2007). *Kompliment kak verbal'noie sredstvo obshchenia* [Compliment as a verbal means of communication]. MSLU.

Leech, G. N. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. Longman.

Light, G., & Cox, R. (2001). *Learning and teaching in higher education: The reflective professional*. Paul Chapman.

Lin, Ch. Y., Woodfield, H., & Ren, W. (2012). Compliments in Taiwan and Mainland Chinese: The influence of region and compliment topic. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *44*(11), 1486-1502. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2012.06.012

Maíz-Arévalo, C. (2012). ''Was that a compliment?'' Implicit compliments in English and Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics, 44*(8), 980-996. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2012.04.004

Manes, J. (1983). Compliments: A mirror of cultural values. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 96-102). Newbury House.

Manes, J., & Wolfson, N. (1981). The compliment formula. In F. Coulmas (Ed.), *Conversational routine* (pp.115-132). Mouton.

Nguyen Thu Huong. (2013). K voprosu o leksicheskih sredstvah vyrazheniia komplimenta v sovremennoi russkoi i vietnamskoi kul'ture [Lexical means of the compliment in Russian and Vietnamese cultures]. *Global Scientific Potential. Philology*, *12*(33), 74-78.

Otto, J., Sanford, D. A., & Ross, D. N. (2008). Does ratemyprofessor.com really rate my professor? *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 33*(4), 354-368. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602930701293405

Rajput, Q., Haider, S., & Ghani, S. (2016). Lexicon-based sentiment analysis of teachers' evaluation. *Applied Computational Intelligence and Soft Computing, 2016*, Article ID 2385429. http://dx.doi.org/10.1155/2016/2385429

Richardson, J. T. E., Slater, J. B., & Wilson, J. (2007). The national student survey: Development, findings and implications. *Studies in Higher Education, 32*(24), 557-580. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070701573757

Saif, H., He, Y., Fernandez, M., & Alani, H. (2014). Semantic patterns for sentiment analysis of Twitter. In Mika, P., Tudorache, T., Bernstein, A., Welty, Ch. et al. (Eds.), *Lecture notes in computer science* (vol. 8797, pp. 324–340). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-11915-1_21

Sapir, E. (1929). The status of Linguistics as a science. *Language*, *5*(4), 207-214. https://doi.org/10.2307/409588

Sarwar, M., Dildar, M., Shah, A. A., & Hussain, S. (2017). Relationship among students' academic achievement, students' evaluation of teacher and students' evaluation of course. *The Dialogue*, *12*(1), 50-58.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1975). *A taxonomy of illocutionary acts*. University of Minnesota Press.

Seifoori, Z., & Emadi, S. E. (2015). A Contrastive study of American and Persian compliment speech act. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods,* 5(3), 543-549.

Shcheboleva, I. B., & Sun', M. (2016). Lingvokul'turologicheskie osobennosti komplimenta v russkom i kitaiskom jazykah [Linguocultural features of compliment in Russian and Chinese]. *Problemy prepodavania philologicheskih distsyplin inostrannym uchashchimsya, 4*, 449-455.

Solodka, A., Sukhomlynsky, V. O., & Perea, L. (2018). The speech act of complimenting as part of the Ukrainian, Russian and English-Speaking Communities: Ukraine and the USA. *Arab World English Journal, 9*(4), 39 -55. https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol9no4.3

Spencer, K. J., & Schmelkin, L. P. (2002). Student perspectives on teaching and its evaluation. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 27*(5), 397-409. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0260293022000009285

Spooren, P., Brockx, B., & Mortelmans, D. (2013). On the validity of student evaluation of teaching: The state of the art. *Review of Educational Research*, *83*(4), 598-642. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654313496870

Stewart, M. (2015). The language of praise and criticism in a student evaluation survey. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 45*, 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2015.01.004

Steyn, C., Davies, C., & Sambo, A. (2018). Eliciting student feedback for course development: The application of a qualitative course evaluation tool among business research students. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 44*(1), 11-24. https://doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2018.1466266

Suketi, T. M. (2014). *Analysis of compliment response strategies in consultation between students and teacher* [Undergraduate thesis]. Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana.

Tabakowska, E. (2001). *Kognitywne podstawy języka i językoznawstwa.* Towarzystwo Autorów i Wydawców Prac Naukowych University.

Tang, Ch. H., & Zhang, G. Q., (2009). A contrastive study of compliment responses among Australian English and Mandrian Chinese speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics, 41*(2), 325-345. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.05.019

Thawabieh, A. M. (2017). A comparison between students' self-assessment and teachers' assessment. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching, 6*(1), 14-20. https://doi.org/10.5430/jct.v6n1p14

Wierzbicka, A. (1980). *Lingua mentalis: The semantics of natural language*. Academic Press Australia.

Wierzbicka, A. (1991). *Cross-cultural pragmatics: The semantics of human interaction*. Mouton de Gruyter.

Wierzbicka, A. (1996). *Semantics: Primes and universals.* Oxford University Press.

Whorf, B. L. (1982). *Language, thought and reality: Selected writings of Benjamin Lee Whorf.* MIT Press.

Wolfson, N. (1981). Invitations, compliments and the competence of the native speaker. *International Journal of Psycholinguistics, 8*(4), 7–22.

Wolfson, N. (1983). An empirically based analysis of complimenting in American English. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition* (pp. 82-95). Newbury House.

Wolfson, N., & Manes, J. (1980). The compliment as a social strategy. *Papers in Linguistics: International Journal of Human Communication, 13*(3), 410-451. https://doi.org/10.1080/08351818009370503

Wongsurawat, W. (2011). What's a comment worth? How to better understand student evaluations of teaching. *Quality Assurance in Education, 19*(1), 67-83. https://doi.org/10.1108/09684881111107762

Zaitseva, E., Milsom, C., & Stewart, M. (2013). Connecting the dots: Using concept maps for interpreting student satisfaction. *Quality in Higher Education, 19*(2), 225-247. https://doi.org/10.1080/13538322.2013.802576

Factors Affecting Students' Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Moroccan Higher Education

Otmane Omari[1], Mohammed Moubtassime[2], Driss Ridouani[1]

[1]Moulay Ismail University
[2]Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Otmane Omari, Department of English,
Moulay Ismail University, Faculty of Letters and Humanities, B.P 11202 Zaytoun, Meknes, Morocco.
E-mail: o.omari@edu.umi.ac.ma

Self-efficacy, or confidence in one's ability to do a task, is a key element that affects students' motivation and performance. For that reason, the main purpose of this study was to collect specific information about students' self-efficacy and factors affecting it. This includes comparing the differences between three Moroccan universities representing public and private institutions in terms of students' self-efficacy. A sample of 365 undergraduate students responded to the questionnaire on self-efficacy for self-regulated learning on a 5-point Likert scale. The findings demonstrate that students' level of self-efficacy is moderate. With regard to the differences between the three universities, a slight difference was found in favor of the private one. Meanwhile, third-year students reported greater self-efficacy than first and second-year students. However, no statistically significant differences were found between male and female students. More importantly, the results reveal that students' living circumstances during the academic year and their initial motive behind enrolling in university affected their self-efficacy beliefs. Overall, this study provides teachers and practitioners with insights about self-efficacy that could be used to promote students' success in Moroccan universities.

Keywords: self-efficacy, self-regulated learning, higher education, student beliefs, EFL, Morocco

Introduction

A growing body of research, such as Schunk (1991), discussed academic motivation in terms of self-efficacy. The concept of self-efficacy was interpreted by Bandura (2010) as the beliefs in one's abilities that he/she can perform such tasks or activities. Since being first introduced by Bandura (1977), self-efficacy has been considered as a significant predictor of motivation. This is to say that understanding the motivation of students toward learning is more relevant through assessing their self-efficacy (Matthews, 2010). For instance, Pintrich (1994) confirmed that students who believe in their abilities participate in tasks that are hard and use deeper processing strategies than students who have low ability beliefs.

With regard to this argumentation, the question arises: Why do some students improve their self-beliefs while others always question their beliefs? Bandura (2010), in particular, provided four main sources that affect students' self-efficacy. The most influential source according to him is mastery experience. That is, the ability to develop strong beliefs from previous successful experiences. For instance, success in performing a task improves one's beliefs in his/her abilities; however, failure doing that task weakens the feeling of ability beliefs. The other self-efficacy sources according to Bandura are:
- Social modeling (vicarious experience), which has to do with the ability of students to learn new things while observing others;
- Social persuasion, which refers to the ability of students to put more effort toward accomplishing a task because they were informed through persuasion that they are capable of doing such things;
- Physiological or mood state, which is about the judgment of an individual's mood to enhance or weaken his/her ability beliefs.

In fact, self-efficacy for self-regulated learning seems crucial for institutions of higher education. Thus, examining factors that may affect it helps in the development of the institutions and allows them to plan

programs that could enhance students' self-efficacy, which will enhance their learning process (Van Dinther et al., 2011).

Within the Moroccan context, university students' performance and motivation toward learning have been an increasing problem. Motivation, for instance, is affected by other variables such as anxiety and students' efficacy beliefs. Thus, to enhance students' performance and motivation toward learning, it is important to examine their ability beliefs. It is also worth mentioning that there is a lack of research on university students' self-efficacy in the Moroccan context. For that reason, the main objectives of this study are to assess Moroccan university students' level of self-efficacy and compare the differences between their beliefs based on their institution, class level, gender, and professors' ability to motivate their students. In addition, this study aims to examine other factors, students' initial motives to join university and their living circumstances in particular, which may affect self-efficacy beliefs.

In general, this article investigated undergraduate students' self-efficacy beliefs and related factors in the context of Morocco, a country outside of Western European and American countries, which could promote the internationalization of the educational psychology field. In addition, the study yielded data that could potentially be informative and helpful with practical implications to improve students' self-efficacy and well-being. The following are the main research questions that this study sought to answer:
1. What is the level of Moroccan university students' self-efficacy beliefs and do these beliefs vary by institution, class level, professors' ability to motivate their students, and gender?
2. Do students' initial motives to enter a university and their living circumstances affect their academic self-efficacy?

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy was conceptualized by Bandura (1997) as "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (p. 3). The concept of self-efficacy gained popularity over the last two decades by being tackled in many studies (Stankov et al., 2014). Before introducing self-efficacy, Bandura talked about human motivation with a link to outcome expectations (Zimmerman, 2000). Later on, he distinguished between outcome and efficacy expectations. He interpreted efficacy expectations as being "the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes" (Bandura, 1977, p. 193). Additionally, Wang et al. (2013) discussed self-efficacy as an aspect of the self-regulation process. They also mentioned that within the self-regulation process, self-efficacy is often confused with self-confidence, self-concept, and self-esteem.

Several studies (e.g. Bong et al., 2012; Stankov et al., 2014; Zimmerman, 2000) differentiated between self-efficacy and self-concept because they are both confusing. For instance, Bong et al. (2012) linked self-efficacy to a person's capabilities, and self-concept to his/her feelings and being. More than that, they clarified that self-efficacy is developed through asking questions to check one's capabilities (in the form of 'can I?'). On the other hand, self-concept is developed through questions testing one's feelings (in the form of 'how do I feel?'). Consequently, they confirmed that answering self-efficacy questions resulted in the confidence in one's abilities to perform well while responding to self-concept questions revealed students' positive or negative judgments of themselves and their competencies. Additionally, Stankov et al. (2014) and Schunk (1991) confirmed that confidence is an accurate synonym of self-efficacy. This confidence or ability beliefs can be acquired and developed through many sources (Schunk, 2012).

Sources of Self-Efficacy

A study by Van Dinther et al. (2011) was conducted to illustrate and discover sources of self-efficacy beliefs and factors that affect these beliefs in higher education. They focused on reviewing the most recent studies that tackled this issue. Accordingly, goal-setting, rewards, modeling, task strategies, appraisal, feedback, and self-assessment or self-control were among the sources of efficacy beliefs that they reviewed, which can also affect students' self-efficacy in addition to Bandura's four main sources. Their findings confirmed the usefulness of Bandura's first three sources with some doubts about the second one (vicarious experience) because it relies on the conditions and the type of model used. Meanwhile, Bandura's first source (mastery experience) was found to be the strongest source that helps create a powerful sense of efficacy.

In fact, the aim of the previous study was to investigate the intensity of Bandura's four sources of efficacy. However, the fourth source (physiological state) was only mentioned in the review and was not discussed while analyzing the findings. This could be because some physiological/mood states (e.g. stress and anxiety) might have more negative than positive effects on self-efficacy unless the individual had already built a higher sense of ability beliefs. Therefore, it can be concluded that their findings confirmed the validity of the first three sources as the most effective sources of efficacy. Additionally, they asserted that a combination of all the sources displayed favorable results as a powerful way of enhancing self-efficacy beliefs. However, the fourth source should not be ignored, especially since new research (e.g. Slimani et al., 2017) found that emotional and mood states can enhance communication and guarantee the quality of a task.

In spite of all the previous facts, it is necessary to point out that "self-efficacy is task specific and differs from context to context" (Raoofi et al., 2012, p. 61). Thus, all the previous sources of self-efficacy beliefs should be tackled based on the context. This means that self-efficacy differs according to the domain of functioning (Zajacova et al., 2005; Zimmerman, 2000). Due to that difference, self-efficacy beliefs should be measured according to specific contexts and settings (Gaffney, 2011). As reported by Zajacova et al. (2005), it is more beneficial to assess academic self-efficacy instead of general self-efficacy when dealing with education. They defined the term academic self-efficacy as "students' confidence in their ability to carry out such academic tasks as preparing for exams and writing term papers." (p. 679).

More importantly, academic self-efficacy also includes competence and judgments about oneself to accomplish academic activities (MacPhee et al., 2013). In this specific setting, self-efficacy has been found to affect students' abilities (Gaffney, 2011). For instance, Chan and Lam (2008) conducted a study to investigate the impact of competition on learners' self-efficacy while using vicarious learning. The study involved 71 students who were appointed to either a competitive or a non-competitive classroom. The findings revealed that vicarious learning decreased students' sense of ability beliefs in a competitive classroom. On the other hand, students in the non-competitive classroom did not show any change. According to these results, it was suggested that students in the non-competitive classroom might not focus on outperforming others because of their mastery experience, which is known as the most effective source of self-efficacy.

Self-Efficacy and Academic Achievement

Research revealed that self-efficacy has a great effect on students' self-regulation, motivation, and outcomes (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). Meanwhile, self-efficacy was found to be a powerful predictor of performance (Jinks & Lorsbach, 2003). In a recent study, Weda et al. (2018) found a significant relationship between academic performance and self-efficacy beliefs. In the same way, Ngoc Truong and Wang (2019) found a positive correlation between self-efficacy and students' English performance. Additionally, a recent study by Sun and Wang (2020) confirmed that students' writing proficiency could be predicted through assessing their writing self-efficacy.

In fact, self-efficacy has a great effect on an individual's choice of settings and activities, persistence, and coping efforts (Bandura, 1977; Schunk, 1991). However, it was also found that self-efficacy alone cannot produce the desired outcome when the requested skills and knowledge are absent (Schunk, 1995). For instance, some cases require better skills, hard performance, and carry more risks than others (Bandura, 1977). In spite of this, self-efficacy beliefs are beneficial because they increase learners' competence and outcome expectations to achieve better results (Schunk, 1995). These facts lead us to a quote from the Roman poet Virgil "They are able who think they are able" (as cited in Pajares, 2002, p. 120).

In the same way, Mills et al. (2007) assured us in their study that teachers should cultivate and reinforce their students' self-efficacy beliefs since these beliefs were found to be related to academic success. Furthermore, their findings affirmed the significance of self-efficacy for self-regulation to achievement. The aim of their study was to check the influence of self-efficacy on the achievement of university students studying French (N = 303). Their findings demonstrated that female participants displayed higher self-efficacy for self-regulation than male participants. Meanwhile, this study confirmed that efficacious students employ strategies that are more convenient.

Recently, Ngoc Truong and Wang (2019) conducted a study to examine self-efficacy beliefs of university students learning English as a foreign language (N = 767). Their findings confirmed that mastery experience is a significant source of self-efficacy and that there is a positive relationship between English proficiency and self-efficacy beliefs. On the other hand, their results demonstrated no significant differences between females and males in terms of self-efficacy beliefs.

Within the Moroccan context, Benmansour (1999) investigated the motivational orientations and self-efficacy of 289 high school students learning mathematics. This study also confirmed that students' self-efficacy can be considered a predictor of their motivation and strategies use. Her findings demonstrated that high school students reported a moderate level of self-efficacy where the males' mean was higher than that of females. Moreover, this study confirmed that motivation is an important element in increasing students' beliefs in their abilities as discussed in several studies (e.g. Bartimote-Aufflick et al., 2016; Fenning & May, 2013; Ghonsooly & Golparvar, 2012; Karimzadeh, 2016; Omari et al., 2018; Zajacova et al., 2005; Zimmerman, 2000). In fact, self-efficacy is among the strongest motivational predictors of studying and outcome achievement (Mills et al., 2007). Accordingly, studying factors that may affect academic self-efficacy could enhance academic achievement.

Factors Affecting Academic Self-efficacy

Chan and Lam (2010) conducted two studies at the same time to examine the impact of four types of evaluation feedback on learners' self-efficacy beliefs. In the first study, they focused on providing students with formative or summative feedback. Formative feedback supplies students with strategic information that helps them correct their learning goal orientation and achieve the desired outcome; whereas the main point of summative feedback is to provide students with only the results of what they have done without giving them any information concerning goals achievement. In the second study, they provided students with norm-referenced feedback or self-referenced. The former focuses on giving students feedback on their performance or results in comparison with others. On the contrary, self-referenced feedback focuses on providing students with comments about their improvement in comparison with their previous achievement. The study revealed that both formative feedback and self-referenced feedback strengthen students' self-efficacy. On the contrary, summative feedback and norm-referenced feedback weaken students' self-efficacy. Thus, this research advised teachers to use formative and self-referenced evaluation as their feedback to enhance students' academic self-efficacy.

Other factors such as family, social, and cultural influences may affect students' academic self-efficacy beliefs. For instance, students' beliefs in their abilities can be affected by vicarious experiences (e.g. observing models like peers or parents) (Usher & Pajares, 2008a). Schunk (1995) asserted that the type of support and encouragement provided by the parents could affect students' self-efficacy beliefs. He mentioned that parents and teachers could make a difference and enhance students' self-efficacy by motivating them to develop their skills, providing them with the needed learning resources, and by teaching them self-regulatory strategies.

Similarly, Schunk and Pajares (2009) pointed out that educated parents positively influence students' learning processes and help them develop and foster their self-efficacy beliefs. Meanwhile, Fan and Williams (2010) conducted a study to examine whether parents' involvement in their children's education predicted their self-efficacy or not. The findings showed that parents' involvement affected students' self-efficacy toward English. As they reported, the involvement of parents increases the students' sense of competence. In fact, the parents' role in enhancing the students' sense of efficacy can be achieved through making them aware that "academic success is a matter of desire, effort, and commitment" (Pajares, 2002, p. 123). Meanwhile, it should also be noted that past research has confirmed a reciprocal effect between self-efficacy and interest (Cordova et al., 2014; Lent et al., 2006; Silvia, 2003; Tracey, 2002; Tracey & Hopkins, 2001). In general, parents' and teachers' efforts to enhance students' self-efficacy beliefs can provide good results whatever the living circumstances of the learners.

In Morocco, most university students live with their parents or family during the academic year unless the university is located elsewhere. For that reason, students' living circumstances could vary from, for instance, living alone, living with parents, or living with a friend/classmate in a shared room or apartment. In fact, more research is required about the impact of these circumstances on university students' self-efficacy. A recent unique study by Koçak and Canli (2019) investigated the self-efficacy beliefs of 386 university students studying

sports according to the place they were raised. Their findings demonstrated that participants who were raised in a province or district reported higher self-efficacy beliefs than those who were raised in a village. On the other hand, no significant differences were found among students' self-efficacy levels with regard to gender, age, and class level.

Concerning self-efficacy and gender, several studies found that differences between males' and females' self-efficacy were not significant (Azar, 2010; Clutts, 2010; Vuong et al., 2010; Yoestara & Putri, 2019). However, the findings of Vogt et al. (2007) and Altunsoy et al. (2010) demonstrated that the differences in the scores between males and females were significant in favor of males. On the other hand, significant differences in favor of female participants were found in other studies (e.g. MacPhee et al., 2013; Mahyuddin et al., 2006; Mills et al., 2007). In terms of class level and self-efficacy, some studies (e.g. Ağgül Yalçin, 2011; Altunsoy et al., 2010) confirmed that the differences between class levels were significant. Their findings also confirmed that students' ability beliefs increase as their class level increases.

Methodology

Participants

The current study involved 365 undergraduate university students from multiple regions in Morocco. A quantitative method was used where data were collected using pen and paper questionnaires. It is worth noting that these questionnaires were completed anonymously by the participants. The data collection was carried out in the middle of the second semester in three universities in Morocco: Moulay Ismail University (MIU) in Meknes, Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University (SMBAU) Dhar El Mehraz in Fez, and Al Akhawayn University (AUI) in Ifrane. The latter is a private institution of higher education; however, both MIU and SMBAU are public institutions of higher education. These universities enroll students from different social classes. Students from MIU and SMBAU do not pay fees, as these universities are open access and do not require an entrance exam. On the contrary, students from AUI pay fees and they are required to take an entrance exam.

This study was conducted in English using a nonrandom sampling method. Meanwhile, the target population was undergraduate university students and the participants were selected for reasons of convenience and accessibility. For that reason, undergraduate students from the departments of English at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities in both MIU (n=116) and SMBAU (n=139) participated in that study. This was not the case for AUI students (n=110) as there is no department of English at that university and English is the main medium of instruction. AUI participants were from the Department of Communication Studies as the latter is more compatible to the department of English in public universities.

Altogether, 400 questionnaires were distributed, of which 365 were completed, 14 were incomplete (6 from MIU, 5 from SMBAU, 3 from AUI), 11 were rejected due to honesty matters (5 from MIU, 4 from SMBAU, 2 from AUI), and 10 were not returned (6 from MIU, and 4 from SMBAU). With regard to gender, about 58% of the students who participated in this study were females whereas only 42% were males. Females were represented more than males because many male participants did not agree to participate. In addition, participants were from different levels as follows: 121 from the first year (33.20%), 118 from the second year (32.30%), and 126 from the third year (34.50%).

Instrument, Procedure, and Materials

In the current study, an educational psychology instrument was used to examine participants' self-efficacy. Demographic information was also employed to collect demographic data. University students' self-efficacy was evaluated through a students' self-efficacy scale. This scale measured participants' self-efficacy within the category of self-efficacy for self-regulated learning. In general, the administered questionnaire was composed of two main sections. The first section involved demographic information questions whereas the second one involved the self-efficacy scale.

Demographic information

A set of questions were included in the demographic information section to collect participants' gender, class level, and university. In addition, this section comprised a multiple-choice question about students' living circumstances during the academic year (*Where do you live during the academic year? alone, with parents, in a shared room/apartment*). Other specific questions were also involved in the first part of the questionnaire. These questions were used to examine participants' motive behind enrolling in university (Multiple response question: *Why did you decide to go to university?*), and whether they felt that their professors motivated them or not (*Do you feel that any of your professors are motivating you to do your best and work hard?*).

Students' Self-Efficacy Scale

The students' self-efficacy scale in this study was adapted from Zimmerman et al. (1992). In fact, the authors provided two scales of self-efficacy in their study. The first one measured students' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning (11 items); whereas the second one measured their self-efficacy for academic achievement (9 items). Researchers found that items that were designed to assess self-regulated learning efficacy (first scale) were mostly associated with academic self-efficacy (Choi et al., 2001). Thus, the first scale from Zimmerman et al. (1992) was the one used in this study. A pilot study was then used to test the adapted scale (11 items) and the demographic information form. This was carried out to test whether the questionnaire was appropriate and comprehensible, and that the items were clearly understood and consistent. The first version of the questionnaire was distributed to 30 undergraduate English majors at the University of Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah in Fez. Participants in this pilot study were asked whether they experienced any obstacles or difficulties while filling in the questionnaire. Their remarks and feedback were taken into account while making up the questionnaire's final version.

Ten items assessing participants' ability to employ and practice different self-regulated learning strategies were included in the scale's final version (See Appendix). Sample items that assessed students' "self-efficacy for self-regulated learning" included "*Indicate how well you can finish homework assignments by the deadlines, how well you can take class notes, and how well you can participate in class discussions*". The concept '*internet*' was added to the fifth item upon listening to the remarks of students in the pilot study and since it is now widely used to get access to online books and information. Thus, the fifth item was changed to "*Indicate how well you can use the library/internet to get information for class assignments*". In addition, two items from the same scale were gathered to form only one item. This was the case for the sixth item, "*Indicate how well you can plan and organize your classwork*".

In general, the whole scale was revised and some terms were modified to be relevant for higher education (e.g. *schoolwork* changed to *classwork* – *school subjects* changed to *class subjects*). Students reacted to the scale of self-efficacy on a 5-point Likert-type scale from (1) "*not well at all*" to (5) "*very well*" with a midpoint at (3) "*somewhat*".

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24 was used to code and analyze the data. In terms of the scale's reliability, Zimmerman et al. (1992) performed a Cronbach's alpha reliability tests and achieved a coefficient of .87. Meanwhile, Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons (1988) proved in a validation study that one factor underlay the items. Across studies, different Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .78 to .87 have been reported by researchers (Britner & Pajares, 2006; Pajares, 1996; Pajares & Graham, 1999; Usher & Pajares, 2006, 2008b).

A reliability analysis was performed to measure the reliability of the current scale. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .83 was found for the scale of self-efficacy in this study. Moreover, the "Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted" test demonstrated that all of the scale items were reliable and that the alpha (α) value would decrease if any of the items were deleted. Therefore, this result confirmed the scale's reliability and validity in the current study.

Concerning data analysis, descriptive statistics including means (M) and standard deviations (SD) were performed on every variable. In addition, one-way ANOVA tests and a set of t-tests were carried out to discover whether the variances between variables were statistically significant or not.

Overall, a nonrandom sampling technique was employed as a procedure in this study. Additionally, the clarity of the questionnaire was tested via a pilot study. During this stage, remarks and observations were gathered and taken into consideration while making up the final version of the questionnaire. After that, pen and paper questionnaires were distributed and anonymously completed by the participants.

Results

Descriptive Results

Research Question One

What is the level of Moroccan university students' self-efficacy beliefs and do these beliefs vary by institution, class level, professors' ability to motivate their students, and gender? To answer this research question, several tests were conducted to examine inter-group variances in terms of self-efficacy for self-regulated learning.

Students in this study reported a moderate level of self-efficacy for self-regulated learning with a mean of (M = **3.56**, SD = 1.02). In general, students within each university did not show a high difference in their self-efficacy total score. For instance, the highest mean of self-efficacy was that of students from AUI (M = 3.67, SD = 0.98). However, the scores of the self-efficacy scale for MIU and SMBAU students were very close, (M = 3.53, SD = 1.03) and (M = 3.50, SD = 1.05) respectively.

Related to that, a one way ANOVA test was carried out (see Table 1) to discover whether the variances between the institutions in terms of self-efficacy were significant or not. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the scores for the three institutions at the p<.05 level [F (2,362) = 5.10, p = 0.007]. Meanwhile, post hoc comparisons using the TUKEY HSD test showed that the self-efficacy mean for AUI students (M = 3.67, SD = 0.98) was statistically different from that of MIU (M = 3.53, SD = 1.03) and SMBAU (M = 3.50, SD = 1.05) students. However, the mean of students from MIU did not statistically differ from that of SMBAU students and vice versa. Taken together, these results suggest that the self-efficacy of AUI participants was significantly different and higher than that of students from MIU and SMBAU.

Table 1
ANOVA test for institution and self-efficacy

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.744	2	1.372	5.102	.007
Within Groups	97.335	362	0.269		
Total	100.079	364			

In terms of the highest and lowest items, "*being able to take class notes*" (M = 3.89, SD=1.01) was the highest rated item and "*being able to study when there are other interesting things to do*" (M = 3.01, SD = 1.01) was the lowest. Regarding the detailed scores of self-efficacy items within each university, means ranged from (M = 2.94), which falls between not too well and somewhat, for item 10 "*I can participate in class discussions*" to (M = 4.04), which falls within pretty well, for item 4 "*I can take class notes*". Both means of item 4 (highest) and item 10 (lowest) were scored by MIU students. Meanwhile, the majority of the highest means for most items were scored by AUI students. For instance, AUI students rated their abilities to "*finish homework assignments by the deadlines*" (M = 3.96) and their "*ability to participate in classroom discussions*" (M = 3.94) higher than MIU students (respectively, M = 3.35, M = 2.94) and SMBAU students (M = 3.33, M = 3.19).

On the other hand, students of SMBAU rated their "*abilities to plan and organize their classwork*" as the highest (M = 3.41) compared with students of MIU (M = 3.37) and AUI (M = 3.34). However, their abilities to "*finish*

homework assignments by the deadlines" (*M* = 3.33) and to "*arrange a place where they can study without distraction*" (*M* = 3.27) were the lowest compared with participants from the other universities. Additionally, students of MIU rated their abilities to "*study when there are other interesting things to do*" as the lowest (*M* = 2.95) in comparison with the others. Details of self-efficacy means and standard deviation of items within each university could be found in the Appendix.

Regarding class level, third-year university students' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning mean score across all three universities was higher (*M* = 3.69) than the mean score of second-year (*M* = 3.53) and first-year (*M* = 3.46) students. The mean of self-efficacy for third-year students at MIU was 3.76; however, the means were somewhat similar for second and first-year students (respectively *M* = 3.50; *M* = 3.51). Within SMBAU, the mean of self-efficacy for third-year students was 3.59; and it was 3.36 for second-year and 3.41 for first-year students. Concerning participants from AUI, the lowest mean of self-efficacy was that of first-year students (*M* = 3.50). Meanwhile, second-year students from AUI scored higher than first-year students (*M* = 3.64). On the other hand, third-year students' mean was the highest within AUI and within the other universities (*M* = 3.79).

Within the same variable, a one way ANOVA was performed to compare the class level effect on students' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning. The findings demonstrated that there was a statistically significant effect for class level on students' self-efficacy for the three class levels at the p<.05 level [F (2,362 = 5.78, p = .003]. Post hoc comparisons indicated that third-year students' self-efficacy (M = 3.69) was significantly different from that of first-year (M = 3.46) and second-year students (M = 3.53). On the contrary, the mean of second-year students did not significantly differ from the mean of first-year students. This means that the self-efficacy of third-year students is statistically different and higher than that of both first and second-year students.

In terms of professors' ability to motivate their students and self-efficacy, all of the students who reported that their professors motivated them within the three universities displayed higher self-efficacy and their mean scores were higher (*M* = 3.69) than those who stated the opposite (*M* = 3.42). The highest mean was that of AUI students, who indicated that their professors motivated them (*M* = 3.79) as demonstrated in Table 2.

To discover whether there were significant differences between the self-efficacy scores of students who reported that their professors motivated them (group 1) and those who said the opposite (group 2), an independent samples t-test was carried out. The test indicated that the difference in the scores between the first group (*M* = 3.69) and the second one (*M* = 3.42) was significant, t (362) = 2.74, p = .007.

Table 2
Means of self-efficacy based on whether students feel that their professors motivated them or not

Institution		SE Mean	N
	Yes	3.64	81
MIU	No	3.39	35
	Total	3.53	116
	Yes	3.60	103
SMBAU	No	3.37	35
	Total	3.50	138
	Yes	3.79	82
AUI	No	3.54	28
	Total	3.67	110
	Yes	3.69	266
Total	No	3.42	98
	Total	3.56	364

Note. Yes = my professor motivates me to work hard. No = my professor does not motivate me.

With regard to self-efficacy and gender, the females' mean for self-efficacy was (*M* = 3.59) and the males' mean was (*M* = 3.51). Meanwhile, females within MIU scored a mean of 3.64, which falls near to the 'pretty-well' level to self-regulate their learning. Males within the same university scored lower on the self-efficacy scale (*M* = 3.42). Similarly, the mean of self-efficacy for females within SMBAU (*M* = 3.51) was higher than the mean of

males (*M* = 3.43). On the contrary, the self-efficacy mean of males within AUI (*M* = 3.69) was a little bit higher than that of the females (*M* = 3.63).

An independent samples t-test was performed to compare the means of self-efficacy between male and female participants. The findings demonstrated that the difference in the means between males (*M* = 3.51) and females (*M* = 3.59) was not significant, t (363) = -0.24, p = .81. Thus, this confirms that the difference between the two groups (males and females) in terms of self-efficacy is not statistically significant and that the differences between the means were likely due to chance.

Research question two
Do students' initial motives to enter a university and their living circumstances affect their academic self-efficacy? To answer this research question, several tests were performed.

A one way ANOVA was conducted to find out if there was a significant effect from students' living circumstances during the academic year on self-efficacy. The results showed that the effect of students' living circumstances on their self-efficacy was statistically significant at the p<.05 level [F (2,359 = 6.55, p = .002]. Post hoc comparisons indicated that the self-efficacy of students who reported that they live alone (M = 3.75, SD = 1.01) was statistically different from the ones who said that they live with their parents (M = 3.47, SD = 1.07) (see Table 3 below). On the contrary, the mean of students who reported that they live in a shared room/apartment (M = 3.57, SD = 0.97) did not significantly differ from that of the other mentioned groups. It is also worth mentioning that students who live alone in the three institutions demonstrated higher levels of self-efficacy (AUI, M = 3.86; SMBAU, M=3.76; MIU, M=3.60) than the ones who live in a shared room/apartment (AUI, M = 3.50; SMBAU, M = 3.75; MIU, M = 3.47) or with their parents (AUI, M = 3.31; SMBAU, M = 3.56; MIU, M = 3.54) as demonstrated in Table 3 below.

Table 3
Means of self-efficacy based on participants' living circumstances and university

Students' living circumstances during the academic year	University	SE Mean	N
Alone	MIU	3.60	31
	SMBAU	3.76	22
	AUI	3.86	49
	Total	3.75	102
With parents	MIU	3.54	56
	SMBAU	3.56	95
	AUI	3.31	16
	Total	3.47	167
Shared room/apartment	MIU	3.47	27
	SMBAU	3.75	22
	AUI	3.50	44
	Total	3.57	93

The participants pointed out that the most common reasons why they joined their university involved either an interest in their subject of study or their desire to achieve a higher degree, as shown in Table 4 below. It is worth noting here that this item was a multiple response question (select all that apply). The responses were selected based on the answers and feedback of the participants in the pilot study. The participants were allowed to select more than one reason why they joined their university. Concerning students' mean scores of self-efficacy according to their initial motive behind joining their university, the mean score of those who mentioned that they enrolled in university to achieve a higher degree was the highest (*M* = 3.76) compared with that of those who were interested in their subject (*M* = 3.69), advised by a teacher or a family member (*M* = 3.54), and the ones who joined university because it was their only possible option (*M* = 3.24).

More specifically, the lowest score was that of participants from MIU who declared that they joined their university because it was the only possible option (*M* = 3.20). The other highest means were M = 3.84 for AUI students and M = 3.78 for SMBAU students who mentioned that their decision was because of their desire to

get a higher degree. This was followed by a mean of M = 3.67 for MIU students who decided to go to university because they were advised by a family member or a teacher, a mean of M = 3.71 for AUI students, and M = 3.68 for MIU students who stated that they were interested in their subject.

Table 4
Means of self-efficacy based on participants' initial motive behind joining university

		N	Responses %	Mean of Self-efficacy	
				Checked	Unchecked
	Interested in their subject	173	41.1%	3.69	3.55
	Advised by a teacher/family member	24	5.7%	3.54	3.57
Why did you decide to go to university? ª	To achieve a higher degree	157	37.3%	3.76	3.46
	The only choice	57	13.5%	3.24	3.65
	None of the above	10	2.4%	3.49	3.57
	Total	421	100%		

Note. N total is based on responses.
ª Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

Several independent samples t-tests were performed to discover whether the differences between students' means of self-efficacy with regard to their initial motive to join university were significant or not. The tests displayed that the differences in the scores were significant between participants who checked that they decided to join university because of an interest in their subject (M = 3.69) [t (363) = 4.34, p = .006], desire to achieve a higher degree (M = 3.76) [t (363) = 4.74, p = .001], it was their only choice (M = 3.24) [t (363) = -5.23, p = .001], and those who did not check any of the mentioned reasons (respectively, M = 3.55; M = 3.46; M = 3.65). These results suggest that students' interest in their subject of study and their willingness to get a higher degree really do have a positive impact on their self-efficacy. Moreover, studying at university because it is one's only choice shows that it has a negative impact on students' self-efficacy. Specifically, our results show that when students go to university because it is their only choice, their self-efficacy for self-regulated learning decreases.

Discussion

Summary of Findings

The participants in this study reported a moderate level of ability beliefs. Meanwhile, students from AUI showed somewhat higher self-efficacy beliefs than participants from the other universities, although there was not a big difference between the scores. Participants from MIU and SMBAU reported the same degree of self-efficacy. Within self-efficacy items, the results indicated that students' ability beliefs to take class notes were the highest. On the other hand, their beliefs to study in the presence of other entertaining activities were the lowest. Moreover, self-efficacy beliefs to participate in class discussions and to finish homework assignments by the deadlines of participants from MIU and SMBAU were moderate. On the contrary, AUI students displayed higher-ability beliefs to finish homework assignments by the deadlines and also participate in class discussions than participants from the other universities.

In terms of self-efficacy within class levels, the findings demonstrated that all third-year undergraduate students were more efficacious than first and second-year students. Similarly, students who live alone during the academic year were found more efficacious than those who live in a shared room/apartment or with their parents. The results also revealed that participants who joined their university because it was their only possible option were less efficacious than those who were interested in their subject or wanted to achieve a higher degree. Students within the two latter cases displayed more ability beliefs to self-regulate their learning. In the same way, all of the participants who said that their professors motivated them to work hard and do their best were found more efficacious than those who said the opposite.

Research Question One

The findings revealed that the participants possessed a moderate level of self-efficacy for self-regulated learning (M = **3.56**). This is consistent with the findings of Benmansour (1999). The results also demonstrated that there was a tenuous difference between learners' self-efficacy within the three universities. The achieved results of students' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning may explain the common complaints of some professors and practitioners in higher education toward students' low performance. As confirmed by the results, students' low performance could be due to the moderate beliefs in their abilities. Previous studies (e.g. Ngoc Truong & Wang, 2019; Weda et al., 2018; Zajacova et al., 2005) found a significant correlation between academic performance and self-efficacy beliefs. Meanwhile, students from AUI displayed a slight difference in terms of self-efficacy, but it was less than what was expected since AUI is a private institution and it offers more facilities to its students. This means that learners' beliefs in their abilities are not an issue of being enrolled in a private or a public university. According to Van Dinther et al. (2011), the most important thing is to offer students a classroom where they can study within a safe environment. Therefore, it is all about students' beliefs that they can do certain activities within certain circumstances.

In the same way, the participants within the three universities did not display a high difference in their self-efficacy with regard to class level. However, all third-year students were found more efficacious than first and second-year students. This could be because third-year students have developed more strategies in terms of self-regulation. More than that, this difference between third-year students and the others could be due to their mastery experience. The latter was classified by Bandura (2010) as the most effective source of self-efficacy beliefs. Thus, the results of the current study support this fact. Each year students acquire new things and develop strategies that in return affect their belief in their abilities. These findings support previous claims that students develop self-efficacy beliefs as they advance (e.g. Ağgül Yalçin, 2011; Altunsoy et al., 2010; Meece et al., 2006).

The findings also demonstrated that all of the participants who declared that their professors motivated them to work hard were more efficacious than those who indicated the opposite. These results suggest that motivating students really does have an effect on students' self-efficacy. Specifically, our results show that when students are motivated by their teachers, their self-efficacy for self-regulated learning increases. This finding confirms Schunk's (1995) assertion that teachers could make a difference and enhance students' self-efficacy by motivating them to develop their skills, providing them with the needed learning resources, and teaching them self-regulatory strategies.

Additionally, it is worth mentioning that a link was found between students' beliefs about whether their professors motivated them or not and their initial motive behind joining their university. For instance, students in this study who joined university due to the fact that it was their only possible option were found more likely to declare that their professors did not motivate them. It is also important to mention that other participants from the same class revealed that their professors motivated them. This is to say that the reason behind students' enrollment in a university could have an effect on their overall motivation as confirmed by Omari et al. (2018).

Concerning gender, the results of this study demonstrated that no statistically significant differences were found between males' and females' self-efficacy and that the differences between the means were likely due to chance. This is consistent with the findings of Ngoc Truong and Wang (2019) and other studies (Azar, 2010; Clutts, 2010; Koçak & Canli, 2019; Vuong et al., 2010; Yoestara & Putri, 2019). However, although the differences between males' and females' self-efficacy beliefs were significant in favor of males in some studies (e.g. Altunsoy et al., 2010; Vogt et al., 2007), other studies (e.g. MacPhee et al., 2013; Mahyuddin et al., 2006; Mills et al., 2007) indicated that females usually report greater ability beliefs than males. Meanwhile, Mills et al. (2007) pointed out that this disparity between self-efficacy beliefs of males and females is because female students tend to designate more time to course work. In fact, some students may feel lazy toward course work. Most of the time, laziness makes students unwilling to do class work or participate in voluntary work. Accordingly, this can explain why some participants (mostly females) agreed to participate in this study more than others (mostly males).

Research Question Two

Other findings in this study demonstrated that participants who do not live with their parents over the academic year reported higher efficacy beliefs than those who live with their parents. Taking into consideration the findings of some studies that parents' support affects students' self-efficacy (e.g. Fan & Williams, 2010; Schunk, 1995), we can conclude that students who are away from their parents probably receive more verbal and financial support than those who live with their parents. This may be also due to the fact that learners who live away from their parents appreciate and value their parents' financial and emotional support. Thus, they try to develop learning strategies to give something in return to their parents (such as learning achievements). It is also worth noting that most students in Morocco depend on the financial support of their parents/family to complete their undergraduate studies. For that reason, students who live alone may receive encouragement from their parents/family and this could play a crucial role in making their beliefs higher as research has confirmed the significance of social persuasion as a source of self-efficacy (Bandura, 2010). Parents' education also plays a crucial role as a variable that improves students' self-efficacy. Previous studies have confirmed that educated parents help with enhancing students' self-efficacy (Schunk & Pajares, 2009).

The results of this study showed that students who decided to join their university due to an interest in their subject or to obtain a degree were more efficacious than those who enrolled in their university because it was their only choice. Thus, it can be concluded that initial motives affect students' beliefs in their abilities. In other words, students who accept that going to university is their only choice may not have strong beliefs in their abilities. In the same way, they may consider themselves unable to perform such tasks because they lack interest. Hence, they will report a degree of self-efficacy according to their initial reasons behind joining the university. Similar findings were achieved in a previous study by Omari et al. (2018) concerning students' motivation. The findings of this study support their results because motivation and self-efficacy are interrelated. These results are also compatible with other studies that confirmed the reciprocal effect between self-efficacy and interest (Cordova et al., 2014; Lent et al., 2006; Silvia, 2003; Tracey, 2002; Tracey & Hopkins, 2001). Overall, our results confirm that when students go to university because it is their only choice, their self-efficacy for self-regulated learning decreases.

Implications and Limitations

In this study, self-efficacy provides information that can help professors and researchers draw an idea in their minds concerning students' beliefs in their abilities. Those beliefs according to Zimmerman et al. (1992) are considered determinants of students' aspirations. The findings of this study have implications on students' regulation and behavior toward learning. An efficacious student puts in more efforts and does not give up easily while performing a difficult task. Moreover, the findings of the current study indicate that giving more importance to self-efficacy for self-regulated learning helps learners perform better. For that reason, university professors should encourage their students to talk about their self-efficacy beliefs, for instance while performing a task to enhance their learning. Including self-efficacy scales in articles or handouts could be also of great benefit. Meanwhile, university professors should consider the variables and elements that affect the self-efficacy of students, especially the ones that weaken learners' self-efficacy beliefs. The findings of this study could facilitate and clarify the techniques that should be used to strengthen students' beliefs, which will positively affect their performance. In general, the findings alongside with the framework presented in the literature might play a crucial part in the improvement of Moroccan universities.

On the other hand, the results of the current study could be restricted to a population similar to students at an undergraduate level from Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University, Moulay Ismail University, and Al Akhawayn University. In addition, the current study was limited to participants from the department of English at SMBAU and MIU, and other students who master English (AUI). This was with the purpose of examining participants' self-efficacy for self-regulated learning. Meanwhile, the collected data were limited to 365 participants because of the encountered difficulties while convincing others to take part in the study. Hence, the generalization of the findings might be only to learners from the same mentioned universities.

Overall, more research in different Moroccan universities is necessary to evaluate self-efficacy for self-regulated learning in the Moroccan context. Future researchers should focus on sampling from specific contexts. Additional research is also required concerning the impact of teachers' feedback on learners' academic

achievement and self-efficacy, especially within higher education. Moreover, further research is also needed regarding the differences between students who live alone and those who live with their parents in terms of their self-efficacy beliefs and reasons for these differences, if applicable.

Conclusion

In general, the results of this study indicate the importance of self-efficacy beliefs to enhance students' learning performance. This study shows that students' living circumstances during the academic year, their level of education, their point of view on whether any of their professors motivated them, and their initial motive behind enrolling in university could be considered as predictors of self-efficacy. Moreover, this study demonstrates that learners who live far away from their parents during the academic year could be more efficacious than others who live with their parents. Meanwhile, first-year students may have fewer beliefs in their abilities than third-year students. Similarly, the ability of professors to motivate their students as well as joining a university for a good reason or a goal could increase one's self-efficacy beliefs. More importantly, the small difference between universities with regard to self-efficacy for self-regulated learning confirms that studying in a public or a private institution does not matter. In fact, what matters most in learning is the ability to provide a classroom where students can study in a safe environment. Again, this proves Virgil's quote that "They are able who think they are able" (as cited in Pajares, 2002, p. 120).

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Ağgül Yalçin, F. (2011). Investigation of science teacher candidates' self-efficacy beliefs of science teaching with respect to some variables. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, *3*(3), 1046–1063. https://doi.org/10.18844/gjhss.v3i1.1774

Altunsoy, S., Çimen, O., Ekici, G., Atik, A. D., & Gökmen, A. (2010). An assessment of the factors that influence biology teacher candidates' levels of academic self-efficacy. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *2*(2), 2377–2382. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.340

Azar, A. (2010). In-service and pre-service secondary science teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about science teaching. *Educational Research and Reviews*, *5*(4), 175–188. https://doi.org/10.5897/ERR09.243

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, *84*(2), 191–215. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191

Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. W.H. Freeman and Company.

Bandura, A. (2010). Self-efficacy. In *The corsini encyclopedia of psychology*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470479216.corpsy0836

Bartimote-Aufflick, K., Bridgeman, A., Walker, R., Sharma, M., & Smith, L. (2016). The study, evaluation, and improvement of university student self-efficacy. *Studies in Higher Education*, *41*(11), 1918–1942. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2014.999319

Benmansour, N. (1999). Motivational orientations, self-efficacy, anxiety and strategy use in learning high school mathematics in Morocco. *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies*, *4*(1), 1–15.

Bong, M., Cho, C., Ahn, H. S., & Kim, H. J. (2012). Comparison of self-beliefs for predicting student motivation and achievement. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *105*(5), 336–352. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220671.2011.627401

Britner, S. L., & Pajares, F. (2006). Sources of science self-efficacy beliefs of middle school students. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, *43*(5), 485–499. https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.20131

Chan, J. C. Y., & Lam, S. F. (2008). Effects of competition on students' self-efficacy in vicarious learning. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *78*(1), 95–108. https://doi.org/10.1348/000709907X185509

Chan, J. C. Y., & Lam, S. fong. (2010). Effects of different evaluative feedback on students' self-efficacy in learning. *Instructional Science*, *38*(1), 37–58. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-008-9077-2

Choi, N., Fuqua, D. R., & Griffin, B. W. (2001). Exploratory analysis of the structure of scores from the multidimensional scales of perceived self-efficacy. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *61*(3), 475–489. https://doi.org/10.1177/00131640121971338

Clutts, D. W. (2010). *Mathematics self-efficacy of community college students in developmental mathematics courses*. Liberty University.

Cordova, J. R., Sinatra, G. M., Jones, S. H., Taasoobshirazi, G., & Lombardi, D. (2014). Confidence in prior knowledge, self-efficacy, interest and prior knowledge: Influences on conceptual change. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *39*(2), 164–174. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2014.03.006

Fan, W., & Williams, C. M. (2010). The effects of parental involvement on students' academic self-efficacy, engagement and intrinsic motivation. *Educational Psychology*, *30*(1), 53–74. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410903353302

Fenning, B., & May, L. (2013). "Where there is a will, there is an A": Examining the roles of self-efficacy and self-concept in college students' current educational attainment and career planning. *Social Psychology of Education*, *16*(4), 635–650. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-013-9228-4

Gaffney, A. L. H. (2011). Measuring students' self-efficacy for communication. *International Journal of Art & Design Education*, *30*(2), 211–225. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1476-8070.2011.01702.x

Ghonsooly, B., & Golparvar, S. E. (2012). General English university students' self-efficacy and their achievement. *Iranian EFL Journal*, *8*(3), 153–173.

Jinks, J., & Lorsbach, A. (2003). Introduction: motivation and self-eefficacy belief. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, *19*(2), 113–118. https://doi.org/10.1080/10573560308218

Karimzadeh, K. (2016). Do self-regulation, self-efficacy, and motivation predict listening comprehension? *The Iranian EFL Journal*, *12*(2), 99–119.

Koçak, Ç. V., & Canli, U. (2019). Investigation of academic self efficacy of university students in the sports area. *Asian Journal of Education and Training*, *5*(1), 56–62. https://doi.org/10.20448/journal.522.2019.51.56.62

Lent, R. W., Tracey, T. J. G., Brown, S. D., Soresi, S., & Nota, L. (2006). Development of interests and competency beliefs in Italian adolescents: An exploration of circumplex structure and bidirectional relationships. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *53*(2), 181–191. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.53.2.181

MacPhee, D., Farro, S., & Canetto, S. S. (2013). Academic self-efficacy and performance of underrepresented stem majors: Gender, ethnic, and social class patterns. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy*, *13*(1), 347–369. https://doi.org/10.1111/asap.12033

Mahyuddin, R., Elias, H., Cheong, L. S., Muhamad, M. F., Noordin, N., & Abdullah, M. C. (2006). The relationship between students' self efficacy and their English language achievement. *Malaysian Journal of Educators and Education*, *21*, 61–71.

Matthews, P. H. (2010). Factors influencing self-efficacy judgments of university students in foreign language tutoring. *The Modern Language Journal*, *94*(4), 618–635. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01057.x

Meece, J. L., Anderman, E. M., & Anderman, L. H. (2006). Classroom goal structure, student motivation, and academic achievement. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *57*(1), 487–503. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.56.091103.070258

Mills, N., Pajares, F., & Herron, C. (2007). Self-efficacy of college intermediate French students: Relation to achievement and motivation. *Language Learning*, *57*(3), 417–442. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00421.x

Ngo, H., Spooner-Lane, R., & Mergler, A. (2017). A comparison of motivation to learn English between English major and non-English major students in a Vietnamese university. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, *11*(2), 188–202. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2015.1094076

Ngoc Truong, T. N., & Wang, C. (2019). Understanding Vietnamese college students' self-efficacy beliefs in learning English as a foreign language. *System*, *84*, 123–132. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.06.007

Omari, O., Moubtassime, M., & Ridouani, D. (2018). Assessing Moroccan university students' English learning motivation: A comparative study. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *9*(1), 81–88. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.9n.1p.81

Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs and mathematical problem-solving of gifted students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *21*(4), 325–344. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1996.0025

Pajares, F. (2002). Gender and perceived self-efficacy in self-regulated learning. *Theory into Practice*, *41*(2), 116–125. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4102_8

Pajares, F., & Graham, L. (1999). Self-Efficacy, motivation constructs, and mathematics performance of entering

middle school students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *24*(2), 124–139. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1998.0991

Pintrich, P. R. (1994). Student motivation in the college classroom. In K. W. Prichard & R. M. Sawyer (Eds.), *Handbook of college teaching: Theory and applications* (Issue 2, pp. 23–43). Greenwood Press.

Raoofi, S., Tan, B. H., & Chan, S. H. (2012). Self-efficacy in second/foreign language learning contexts. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(11), 60–73. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n11p60

Schunk, D. H. (1991). Self-efficacy and academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, *26*(3–4), 207–231. https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.1991.9653133

Schunk, D. H. (1995). Self-efficacy, motivation, and performance. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, *7*(2), 112–137. https://doi.org/10.1080/10413209508406961

Schunk, D. H. (2012). *Learning theories : An educational perspective* (6th ed.). Pearson Education, Inc.

Schunk, D. H., & Pajares, F. (2009). Self-efficacy theory. In K. R. Wentzel & A. Wigfield (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation at school* (pp. 35–53). Taylor and Francis.

Silvia, P. J. (2003). Self-efficacy and interest: Experimental studies of optimal incompetence. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *62*(2), 237–249. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S0001-8791(02)00013-1

Slimani, K., Messoussi, R., Bourekkadi, S., & Khoulji, S. (2017). An intelligent system solution for improving the distance collaborative work. *2017 Intelligent Systems and Computer Vision, ISCV 2017*, 1–4. https://doi.org/10.1109/ISACV.2017.8054987

Stankov, L., Morony, S., & Lee, Y. P. (2014). Confidence: The best non-cognitive predictor of academic achievement? *Educational Psychology*, *34*(1), 9–28. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2013.814194

Sun, T., & Wang, C. (2020). College students' writing self-efficacy and writing self-regulated learning strategies in learning English as a foreign language. *System*, *90*, 102221. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102221

Tracey, T. J. G. (2002). Development of interests and competency beliefs: A 1-year longitudinal study of fifth-to eighth-grade students using the ICA-R and structural equation modeling. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *49*(2), 148–163. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.49.2.148

Tracey, T. J. G., & Hopkins, N. (2001). Correspondence of interests and abilities with occupational choice. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *48*(2), 178–189. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.48.2.178

Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2006). Sources of academic and self-regulatory efficacy beliefs of entering middle school students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *31*(2), 125–141. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2005.03.002

Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2008a). Sources of self-efficacy in school: Critical review of the literature and future directions. *Review of Educational Research*, *78*(4), 751–796. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654308321456

Usher, E. L., & Pajares, F. (2008b). Self-efficacy for self-regulated learning: A validation study. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *68*(3), 443–463. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164407308475

Van Dinther, M., Dochy, F., & Segers, M. (2011). Factors affecting students' self-efficacy in higher education. *Educational Research Review*, *6*(2), 95–108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2010.10.003

Vogt, C. M., Hocevar, D., & Hagedorn, L. S. (2007). A social cognitive construct validation: Determining women's and men's success in engineering programs. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *78*(3), 337–364. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2007.11772319

Vuong, M., Brown-Welty, S., & Tracz, S. (2010). The effects of self-efficacy on academic success of first-generation college sophomore students. *Journal of College Student Development*, *51*(1), 50–64. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.0.0109

Wang, C., Schwab, G., Fenn, P., & Chang, M. (2013). Self-Efficacy and self-regulated learning strategies for English language learners: Comparison between Chinese and German college students. *Journal of Educational and Developmental Psychology*, *3*(1), 173–191. https://doi.org/10.5539/jedp.v3n1p173

Weda, S., Samad, I. A., Patak, A. A., & Fitriani, S. S. (2018). The effects of self-efficacy belief, motivation, and learning strategies on students' academic performance in English in higher education. *The Asian EFL Journal*, *20*(9.2), 140–168.

Yoestara, M., & Putri, Z. (2019). Gender and language course participation differences in the university students' self-efficacy of TOEFL. *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, *1232*(1), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-6596/1232/1/012035

Zajacova, A., Lynch, S., & Espenshade, T. (2005). Self-efficacy, stress, and academic success in college. *Research in Higher Education*, *46*(6), 677–706. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-004-4139-z

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Self-Efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(1), 82–91. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1016

Zimmerman, B. J., Bandura, A., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1992). Self-motivation for academic attainment: The role of self-efficacy beliefs and personal goal setting. *American Educational Research Journal*, *29*(3), 663–676. https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312029003663

Zimmerman, B. J., & Martinez-Pons, M. (1988). Construct validation of a strategy model of student self-regulated learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *80*(3), 284.

APPENDIX

SELF-EFFICACY ITEMS AND THEIR MEANS WITHIN EACH UNIVERSITY

Self-Efficacy Items	University	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
HOW WELL CAN YOU:				
1. Finish homework by the deadlines?	MIU	116	3.35	0.83
	SMBAU	139	3.33	0.93
	AUI	110	3.96	1.00
	Total	**365**	**3.55**	**0.92**
2. Study when there are other interesting things to do?	MIU	116	2.95	0.99
	SMBAU	139	2.99	1.02
	AUI	110	3.08	1.03
	Total	**365**	**3.01**	**1.01**
3. Concentrate on class subjects?	MIU	116	3.90	0.92
	SMBAU	139	3.84	1.07
	AUI	110	3.69	0.83
	Total	**365**	**3.81**	**0.94**
4. Take class notes?	MIU	116	4.04	0.96
	SMBAU	139	3.85	0.94
	AUI	110	3.78	1.15
	Total	**365**	**3.89**	**1.01**
5. Use the library/internet to get information for class assignments?	MIU	116	3.68	1.24
	SMBAU	139	3.71	1.08
	AUI	110	3.79	1.12
	Total	**365**	**3.73**	**1.15**
6. Plan and organize your classwork?	MIU	116	3.37	1.07
	SMBAU	139	3.41	1.08
	AUI	110	3.34	0.99
	Total	**365**	**3.37**	**1.04**
7. Remember information presented in class and textbooks?	MIU	116	3.52	0.95
	SMBAU	139	3.59	0.88
	AUI	110	3.81	0.78
	Total	**365**	**3.64**	**0.87**
8. Arrange a place to study without distractions?	MIU	116	3.60	1.22
	SMBAU	139	3.27	1.18
	AUI	110	3.67	0.97
	Total	**365**	**3.51**	**1.12**
9. Motivate yourself to do classwork?	MIU	116	3.89	1.01
	SMBAU	139	3.75	1.07
	AUI	110	3.59	0.90
	Total	**365**	**3.74**	**0.99**
10. Participate in class discussions?	MIU	116	2.94	1.11
	SMBAU	139	3.19	1.23
	AUI	110	3.94	1.01
	Total	**365**	**3.36**	**1.12**

Note. AUI = Al Akhawayn University; SMBAU = Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University; MIU = Moulay Ismail University.

Developing a Model for the Evaluation of Iranian EFL Teachers' Awareness of the Code of Ethics in Research

Farideh Samadi[1], Khalil Motallebzadeh[1,2], Hamid Ashraf[1], Gholam Hassan Khajavy[3]

[1]Islamic Azad University
[2]Tabaran Institute of Higher Education
[3]University of Bojnord

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Khalil Motallebzadeh, Department of English, Torbat-e Heydarieh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Torbat-e Heydarieh, Razavi Khorasan Province, Iran. E-mail: k.motalleb@iautorbat.ac.ir

Conducting educational research is not an arbitrary practice. When implementing educational research, teachers, as researchers, need to adhere to ethical rules and norms. Thus, developing an instrument for evaluating English as foreign language (EFL) teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research can guide Iranian ELT professionals to work towards setting standards in the assessment of Iranian EFL teachers' professional development and may assure consistency in EFL teachers' quality assurance. The principal determination of the present study was to develop a scale to evaluate EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics for conducting research in Iran. This work's theoretical framework is based on the most influential ethical issues and elements in research in Samadi, Motallebzadeh, Ashraf, and Khajavy's (2020) study. To this end, 272 Iranian EFL teachers (chosen using convenience sampling) participated in the analysis to fill out the scale in the piloting stage. The scale consisted of five main categories: (F1) Before the beginning of the research, (F2) the Beginning of the research, (F3) Gathering the data, (F4), Analyzing the data, and (F5) Writing, reporting, sharing, and storing the data. The first draft of the scale consisted of 60 items. As part of the validation procedure, the reliability of this scale was determined through Cronbach's alpha, and its validity was measured by running a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) through a structural equation modeling approach. After performing the CFA, it was found that the questionnaire had high construct validity. Finally, the statistical findings were presented, and the implications of the ELT domain were given. The findings provide empirical evidence that provides a framework for assessing and evaluating EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research

Keywords: Code of ethics, EFL, Research, Teachers' awareness, Iranian

Introduction

Inquiries into English as a foreign language (EFL) acquisition or education has extended positively during recent years. Research plays a crucial part in education. Research attempts to uncover new knowledge through critical and systematic investigations and peer review. It also "aims to generate (new) information, knowledge, understanding, or some other relevant cognitive good, and does so by utilizing a systematic investigation" (Baer, 2010, p. 14).

Teachers are expected to keep abreast of the changes and improvements in their field. As such, they need "to be knowledgeable consumers of educational research" (Best & Cahn, 2006, pp. 107-119).

Furthermore, teachers' performances in their classrooms require constant examination. To do this, they need to compare their practices with different methods applied in similar circumstances by other teachers. They may carry out action research to find out if a procedure works for them or if they need to try something else with a specific pupil or classroom.

Research Article

FARIDEH SAMADI, KHALIL MOTALLEBZADEH, HAMID ASHRAF, GHOLAM HASSAN KHAJAVY

Conducting educational research is not an arbitrary practice. When implementing educational investigations, teachers, as researchers, need to adhere to ethical rules and norms. In addition, an essential aspect of research is unpredictability in terms of the results of research, its potential benefits, and the risks involved (Baer, 2010). Ethics, in addition to culture, customs, habits, regulations, and even traditions, is an important issue that builds a society. The term 'ethic' has various meanings based on the context. "Sometimes, ethics means moral values; other times, it means legal limitations on behavior and understood community standards (Özturk, 2010, p. 394). Ethics are standards of right and wrong that specify what people ought to do or ought not to do in social situations. It is a set of social practices (Davies, 2004). Ethics refers to standards for defining levels of goodness or interest. Ethics is commonly loaded with affective judgments about ideas, matters, actions, etc.

Ethical issues in research are vital. They help researchers avoid the production of false information. They promote the search for perception and precision as the basic aim of any study. Furthermore, honesty, openness, systematisms, and records are essential requirements for conducting research. In addition, investigators have a duty to "preserve the lifespan, healthiness, self-esteem, trustworthiness, independence, and intimacy of private data of research participants" (World Medical Association, 2013, pp. 2191-2194). Ethical conduct is similarly crucial for cooperative tasks since it urges an atmosphere of trustworthiness, responsibility, and interactive honor with investigators. This is particularly critical regarding "data sharing, co-authorship, copyright guidelines, confidentiality," and other factors. Furthermore, researchers should comply with ethical norms in order for the community to support and trust their research. The people of the community need to be assured that investigators are following suitable ground rules regarding matters like people's benefits, informed consent, and conformity to the rules, accountability, security, and confidentiality. Whether these ethical issues are considered influences the integrity of the research project significantly (Mazur, 2007).

Ethical issues are essential in research, as well as in any other educational activity, and researchers should adhere to these ethical issues in every step of their research. Ethical education is vital at every point of our lifespans. Nevertheless, it is very difficult to functionalize how to define and show the levels and restrictions of ethics (Farhady, 1999).

Regarding the importance of ethical issues in research, many academic institutions and departments have developed codes that define ethical behavior to guide researchers with regard to the relevance of ethical issues. Such codes and standards include notions like informed consent, confidentiality, fairness, accountability, confidentiality, and objectivity. Such codes and standards also provide primary guidelines. However, investigators still face specific concerns that are not clearly discussed in these codes, and this allows researchers to make decisions to prevent misconduct (Mazur, 2007). Furthermore, as professionals, teachers as researchers are required to follow a set of rules for ethical conduct in research. In addition, a validating tool for assessing ethical conduct is needed.

A significant amount of research in past decades has been conducted and has added to our knowledge about teaching, testing, and assessing (Malta, 2012, Sterling & Gass, 2017; Thrasher, 2011). However, ethics has not been treated as a significant and critical topic in English language teaching (ELT) research. For instance, Thrasher (2011) investigated a code of ethics in language testing. Malta (2012) developed a code of ethics and practice for teachers. As there is not any questionnaire about teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research found in the literature in the field of language teaching, a gap (lack of a model for ethical codes in research for Iranian EFL teachers) is present.

In order to fill this gap, a scale reflecting the code of ethics in research was designed and validated in this study. The present study also proposes a new code of ethics model to be used by Iranian EFL teachers who carry out ELT research.

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical foundation of the current research is founded on ethical principles suggested by the claims of Samadi, Motallebzadeh, Ashraf, and Khajavy (2020). Our study was the first published with the same aim as the

current study. The researchers' intention was to develop an inventory for the Iranian EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics for research contextualized for Iran. As teachers' awareness of the code of ethics is not found in any questionnaires in the literature, we cannot compare the results. Thus, this study has its own novelty in this way. The study revealed that EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research is synergistically influenced by a range of factors: (a) Before the beginning of the research, (b) the Beginning of the research, (c) Gathering the data (d) Analyzing the data, and (e) Writing, reporting, sharing, and storing the data. In addition, Cresswell (2014) classified ethical considerations in research (a) prior to the beginning of the study, (b) at the beginning of the study, (c) while collecting and analyzing the data, and (d) while reporting, sharing, and storing the data.

Cohen et al. (2007), in their book "Research Methods in Education," presented a set of initial ethical principles that researchers should consider when conducting educational research (e.g., informed consent, ethical problems endemic in particular research methods, and responsibilities to the research community).

They argued that before the beginning of the research process, some steps must be taken (e.g., paying attention to codes of the ethics, obtaining essential permissions, asking a trusted colleague to study the research plan and look for potential sources of misleading consequences, and planning the study in such a way that reduces the possibility that the findings will be misleading).

They also mentioned that at the beginning of a study, the researchers should consider a number of issues, such as selecting an influential research problem, not forcing participants to sign consent forms, disclosing the aim of the research, respecting the standards and charters of national cultures, being responsible to the academic world, and developing the research's credibility.

Under the category of gathering data, they remarked that researchers should consider a number of issues, such as not deceiving participants, refraining from exploiting participants, implementing the study competently and with due concern for the honor and welfare of the participants, and having legal obligations to human subjects.

They also stated that while analyzing the data, researchers should refrain from being native, refrain from disclosing only positive findings, respect the privacy of subjects, and not fabricate the data, among other considerations.

Finally, regarding factors related to the underwriting, reporting, sharing, and storing of data, researchers should consider some issues as non-plagiarizing, non-disclosing of information that would harm participants, providing safe storage of information and controlling access to it, among other issues.

Empirical Studies

Shamoo and Resnik (2015) proposed some ethical principles that should be followed when conducting research: (1) honesty, (2) objectivity, (3) integrity, (4) carefulness, (5) openness, (6) respect for intellectual property, (7) confidentiality, (8) responsible publication, (9) responsible mentoring, (10) respect for colleagues, (11) social responsibility, (12) non-discrimination, (13) competence, (14) legality, (15) animal care, and (16) human subjects protection. MacColl, Cooper, Rittenbruch, and Viller (2005, pp. 23-25) examined some of the "ethical problems relevant to performing anthropological action research to clarify and promote distributed collaboration."

In another study, Koulouriotis (2011, pp. 1-15) examined "the ethical considerations of three education researchers collaborating with foreigner English-speaking participants" by means of qualitative data analysis. The researchers are concerned about five issues in research ethics, including (1) informed consent, (2) language and translation, (3) positionality, (4) voice, and (5) working with research ethics boards (REBs).

Guo, Tao, and Gao (2019) mentioned that as seen in the analysis of language teacher education-related studies, it can be argued that future work will continue to examine core issues to produce concrete results for language teacher training. Language teacher education, language teacher awareness, and teacher learning could trigger cognitive changes (e.g., beliefs, awareness, experience, and understanding). Thus, they could be core issues

that need more attention. Professional learning for language teachers frequently takes place in highly demanding situations, as language teachers often need more money, time, and space to cope with the increasingly complex nature of language teaching. Therefore, we need to focus on various analytical resources (e.g., identity and agency) and insights (e.g., dynamic system theory) to analyze and appreciate what drives language teachers to learn and what supports that drive. Therefore, researchers need to dig into language teachers' motivation and dedication, which receives only a small amount of research attention compared to language learning motivation. Not only will a greater understanding of language teachers' motivation promote continuing professional learning, but it will also improve the learning experiences of students.

We are aware that "language learning and teaching occurs in a dynamic environment, influenced by a variety of circumstances and relationships inside and outside the boundaries of classroom walls" (Gao, 2019, p. 162). The nature of language teaching needs to be thoroughly researched so that specific results can inform the pedagogical decisions of language teachers. Moreover, since language teachers are becoming increasingly important in helping language learners build semiotic tools for self-affirmation in low-resource contexts, it is important for language teachers to become aware of contextual mediations on language learners and their learning.

Ngozwana (2018, pp. 19-28) investigated the ethical difficulties that were specialized in a qualitative research methodology in an African context. These difficulties were related to the concepts of "withdrawal from the study, anonymity and confidentiality." Parsell, Ambler, and Jacenyik-Trawoger (2014) examined some of the reasons underlying educational researchers' challenges in obtaining ethics approval by considering the methods of collaborative action studies. They contradicted ethics clearance. They also provided details of the ongoing process that ultimately results in the approval of ethics, paying particular attention to the different perspectives on the notions of "coercion" and "confidentiality."

In the work of Popoola et al., (2017), the structural equations model in the R programming language was developed and validated to investigate the effect of explicit and implicit strategies of formalizing ethics for decreasing academic cheating by students. Researchers discovered "a significant mediating effect of implicit ethics institutionalization on the relationship between explicit ethics institutionalization and educational cheating among business students" (p. 29). Finally, they argued that academic managers should focus on implicit types of formalization of ethics to regulate student educational cheating.

Dixon and Quirke (2018) carried out a qualitative review of the chapters of ethics in 18 high-selling undergraduate textbooks applicable to courses in research methodology in the sociology field in the USA and Canada. Their findings revealed how experiments were seen as the study plan that were expected to affect the subjects negatively. They also found that "textbooks promote a procedural rather than nuanced approach to ethics and that content in ethics chapters is out of step with scholarly research in research ethics" (p. 12).

According to Sterling and Gass (2017), research ethics are the cornerstone of modern data collection, yet training in various areas of research ethics are often lacking in applied linguistics. Their article explores the reactions that members of the field have towards scenarios in which the ethicality of action cannot be easily identified as right or wrong. Survey respondents read 10 scenarios in which actors completed ambiguous ethical actions and then rated them for (1) their level of ethicality, (2) the frequency of similar issues, and (3) how frequently the respondent believed researchers faced similar issues. The results indicated that situations involving materials covered during ethical review training were rated as being less ethical when compared to items that revolved around issues of academic integrity. Counter-intuitively, experienced researchers rated scenarios as being intrinsically more ethical, indicating that time spent in the field might result in a more lax view of ethics. Finally, participants relied heavily on ethical review board requirements to guide their decisions about what is ethical and what is not. Taken together, these data indicate that a further discussion of research ethics is needed in the field, especially regarding the elements of academic integrity and ethically gray areas.

Olsthoorn and Schut (2018) in their study titled "The ethics of border guarding," tried to (1) describe border guarding as a comparatively rule-guided carrier; (2) outline the purpose and basis of the ethics education that provides border guards for their profession; and (3) suggest a research agenda for the future that develops our understanding of (1) and (2) and helps boost the ethical education of border guards.

According to new research, the growing concern for ethics in applied linguistics may be attributed to attempts to stem the rising incidence of ethical lapses in order to ensure that the core ethical principles of (1) respect for persons, (2) yielding optimal benefits while minimizing harm, and (3) justice are preserved. By inviting applied linguists to evaluate their methodological practices and those of their peers, De Costa et al. (2020) also argue for the need to develop the ethical dispositions of emerging applied linguists, with a view to create a more robust field.

To develop codes of ethics for other issues, Kafi, Motallebzadeh, and Ashraf (2018) constructed a Professional Ethical Code for Universities' Educational Background according to relevant documents and a semi-structured interview and intended to adapt it to the needs of Iranian EFL university instructors. The full literature review led to four main categories (commitment to the profession, learners, society, and organizations) being included in the code, with several sub-categories for each.

Finally, however, there has not been any attempt to develop a scale for evaluating Iranian EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research. The present study aims to fill this gap by replying to the following research question.

Q: Is the newly designed questionnaire investigating EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research valid and reliable?

Methodology

Participants

The respondents in this study included EFL teachers at public and private high schools and English language institutes (N=272). They were selected using convenience sampling, and the participation was entirely optional. It included men and women of various ages and years of teaching experience. The participants had graduated in various English fields such as literature, translation, and teaching with a master's or doctorate degree. The researchers used online platforms and in-person self-administered questionnaire distribution. Most of the participants received the questionnaire via email or social networks like Telegram and WhatsApp, but for others the questionnaires were carried out in-person.

Instrumentation

EFL Teachers' Awareness of the Code of Ethics
The Ethical Code of Research Scale is a questionnaire that was designed by the researchers involved in this study. The main factors of this inventory were determined by the theoretical framework of this study. The answers were given on a 5-point Likert scale. The scale includes 59 items and assesses EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research through five subscales: (1) Before the beginning of the research, (2) the Beginning of the research, (3) Gathering the data, (4), Analyzing the data, and (5) Writing, reporting, sharing, and storing the data. To validate the procedure, the reliability of this scale was obtained using Cronbach's alpha and its validity was measured by the CFA's Structural Equation Modeling approach.

Procedure

This study aimed to construct a scale investigating an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research in Iran. According to the categories and standards proposed by Samadi, Motallebzadeh, Ashraf, and Khajavy (2020), almost all of the phases of the development and validation of the questionnaire were carried out in accordance with the instructions provided in Dornyei's (2010) questionnaire development manuals. The investigators went through the following phases to create a reliable and valid questionnaire.

Phase one: Accumulation and generation of items: The first and foremost step for any instrument creation is to study the relevant documentation. This phase has two goals: (1) analysis of the available tools and (2)

establishing a strong theoretical basis for the instrumentation. The items here were adopted from different references such as Cohen et al. (2007), Cresswell (2014), Koulouriotis (2011), and Shamoo and Resnik (2015).

Phase two: Rating scale design: The rating scale used here was a 5-point Likert scale. The investigators selected the choices from among the five options, including strongly agree, agree, no idea, disagree and strongly disagree.

Phase three: The private data section: Personal demographic details used in this inventory included data about sex, age, years of teaching experience, level/s they teach, highest degree earned, and major of study.

Phase four: Experts item checking: Upon item development in the preceding phases, the investigators assembled a group of five experts and non-experts on which to test their comprehensibility and accuracy.

Phase five: Items and item revision: Revisions and modifications were made to items.

Phase six: Piloting and analysis of items: In this stage, the designed questionnaire was distributed among EFL teachers. Finally, the designed questionnaire went through a pilot study to examine 1) the content and understandability of the items, and 2) the psychometric features of the questionnaires such as their reliability and validity. The data analysis of these draft questionnaires presented evidence of the questionnaires construct validity to understand whether this instrument actually measured the constructs they claimed they are measuring. This analysis was performed through AMOS using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

Phase seven: Reliability index: The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient was used to test the internal reliability of the questionnaire in this analysis.

Phase eight: Validation: The validity of the scale was measured by running CFA through Structural Equation Modeling approach.

Finally, the model of EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research was proposed.

Results

Test of Normality

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was employed to test the normality of the spread of the data. This technique is used to specify if the dispersion diverges from a relative normal distribution. If the p-value is non-significant ($p > .05$), we can assume that the distribution of a sample does not vary significantly from a normal distribution, thus it is normal when the p-value ($p < .05$) is significant, then the distribution is not ordinary. Table 4.1 reports the findings of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

Table 1
The Results of the K-S Test

	Statistic	df	Sig.
F1	.73	272	.06
F2	.73	272	.06
F3	.64	272	.09
F4	.41	272	.11
F5	.69	272	.07

In the Research Inventory, the received sig value for all sub-constructs of the Code of Ethics was higher than .05: F1=.06, F2=.06, F3=.09, F4=.11, and F5=.07. Thus, it may be inferred confidently that the data is normally spread across all variables and parametric tests can be utilized.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.2 displays the descriptive statistics of the code of ethics' sub-constructs in the research scale, including mean, standard deviation, and maximum and minimum scores. In the following section, comparisons of these scores are presented. Because the number of items in the different subscales of this scale varied, an average item score was calculated for each sub-construction, varying from one to five in the last column. The potential score range for F1 and F4 with six items each varies from 6 to 30, for F2 with 10 items between 10 and 50, for F3 with 20 items between 20 and 100, and for F5 with 17 items between 17 and 85 points.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics of Sub-Constructs of the Code of Ethics in the Research Scale

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean per item
F1	272	6.00	30.00	24.55	4.03	4.09
F2	272	10.00	50.00	37.74	5.87	3.77
F3	272	21.00	105.00	84.23	13.17	4.21
F4	272	6.00	30.00	19.41	4.92	3.23
F5	272	17.00	144.00	68.36	11.04	4.02
Overall Scale	272	60.00	328.00	234.31	31.03	3.97

The five sub-constructs in Table 4.2 included: (F1) before the beginning of the research, (F2) the Beginning of the research, (F3) Gathering the data, (F4), Analyzing the data, and (F5) Writing, reporting, sharing, and storing the data. As shown in Table 4.2, among the five sub-constructs of the Code of Ethics in the research scale, F3 (Gathering the data) had the highest mean score (4.21) and F4 (Analyzing the data) had the lowest mean score (3.23). The minimum score for the overall scale was 60 and the maximum score is 328. The mean score of overall scale is 234.31 with a standard deviation of 31.03. Furthermore, the table shows that the number of participants was 272 in this study.

Validation involves gathering any piece of information that helps us justify our interpretations of the test results. This process includes calculating the reliability and construct-related validity of the instruments (Ary, Cheser, & Sorensen, 2010).

The designed questionnaire went through a pilot study to examine 1) the content and the understandability of the items, and 2) the psychometric characteristics of the questionnaires including the reliability and validity. The sample of the pilot study included 272 teachers of TEFL. A section was added to the beginning of the questionnaires introducing the purpose of the research, in addition to some demographic information such as the participants' years of teaching experience, gender, age, degree, major, and the number of articles that have been published. The teachers answered the questionnaires. The data analysis of these draft questionnaires included providing proofs for the construct validity of the questionnaire to examine whether this instrument really measured the constructs they claimed were being measured. This analysis was performed through Amos using confirmatory factor analysis.

To determine the questionnaire's reliability, Cronbach's alpha test was used. This index is highly useful when computing the internal consistency of a scale. The following parts report these indexes for all subscales of the designed questionnaire.

In this part, all the different subcomponents of the teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research scale were examined one by one.

As the statistics show, the designed questionnaire obtained appropriate Cronbach's alpha indexes as a whole, as well as in its sub-constructs: F1=.81, F2=.81, F3=.94, F4=.79, and F5=.85. This table also indicates that the reliability of the overall questionnaire was .94, which suggests very good reliability for the scale with this sample. It should be added that because one item was deleted in this part of the study, in the final draft of the questionnaire, the numbering of items changed (See Appendix A for the questionnaire).

Table 3

Number of Items and Cronbach's Alpha Indexes Following Item and Reliability Analysis for the Teachers' Awareness of the Code of Ethics in Research Scale

Scale	Subscales	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research scale	F1	6	.81
	F2	9	.81
	F3	20	.94
	F4	6	.79
	F5	17	.85
	Overall	**58**	**.94**

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the validity of the developed scale investigating EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research. The relationship between each sub-factor of the proposed model was evaluated based on the CFA analysis, and the results are displayed in Figure 1. The goodness of the fit indices was used to test the model fitness. See Figure 1 for the model by all parameter loadings.

Table 4 displays the goodness of the fit indices. In this research $\chi2/df$ should be smaller than 3, GFI and CFI should be more than .90, and RMSEA should be lower than .08 in order to have a fit model.

Table 4

The Goodness of the Fit Indices

	X2	df	X2/df	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
Acceptable fit			<3	>.90	>.90	<.08
Model	4107.33	1558	2.59	.95	.93	.07

According to Table 4, all the goodness of fit indices were inside the reasonable range. Therefore, the questionnaire enjoyed acceptable validity. $\chi2/df$ was smaller than 3, GFI and CFI were more than .90, RMSEA was lower than .08. Figure 1 shows a CFA model of the teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research scale.

Figure 1

CFA Model of the Scale for Teachers' Awareness of the Code of Ethics in Research
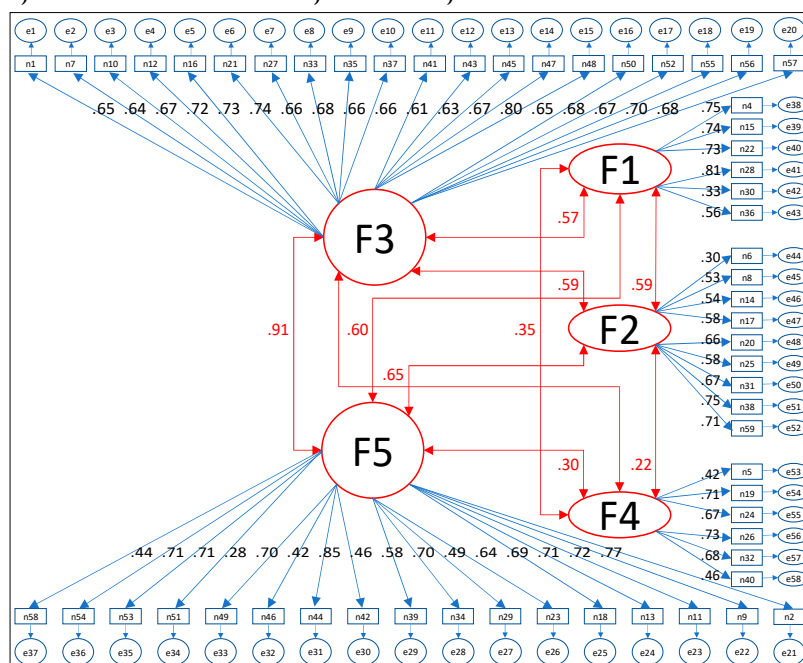
Note: F1= Before the beginning of the research, F2= the Beginning of the research, F3= Gathering the data, F4= Analyzing the data, and F5= Writing, Reporting, sharing, and storing the data.

As Figure 1 illustrates, teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research scale has 5 sub-constructs. Loadings of the first factor, before the beginning of the research, with 6 items ranged from .33 to .81. Loadings of the second factor, the beginning of the research, with 9 items ranged from .30 to .75. Moreover, loadings of the third factor, gathering the data, with 20 items ranged from .60 to .74. In addition, loadings of the fourth factor, analyzing data, with 6 items ranged from .41 to .79. Finally, loadings of the last factor, writing, reporting, sharing, and storing the data, with 17 items, ranged from .44 to .77. There were positive significant correlations between all five sub-constructs. The highest correlation was between F3 and F5 (.91) and the lowest correlation was between F2 and F4 (.22). Therefore, the scale enjoyed acceptable validity.

Discussion

The primary objective of the present research was to construct a scale of EFL teachers' awareness of the code of research ethics in the Iranian context.

Various pedagogical implications arose from the outcomes of this research. Based on the findings obtained, the study reveals a new model of EFL teacher awareness of the code of ethics in research, which can help research institutions with recruitment. The findings of this study can also be used to promote professionalism in ELT, and they can be considered as complementary features alongside professional development programs regarding language teaching and research. They also constitute a basis for developing and implementing teacher education policies and teacher training programs. Likewise, such a study could have consequences for EFL instructors and educational supervisors in terms of enhancing their success in ELT field research. Thus, the outcomes of this study can guide Iranian ELT professionals as they work towards setting standards in research for Iranian EFL teacher professional development. Ethical codes can be considered one of the most realistic ways to provide proper insights for EFL teachers regarding how to address different ethical issues that may be related to research.

Furthermore, the findings of this study may inform EFL teachers about the importance of caring about ethical issues in research and trying to keep themselves up to date on this important matter. They must raise their awareness of research ethics in the ELT domain. In fact, the ethical issues that emerged from the interviews showed that Iranian EFL teachers should improve their ethical conduct in research.

Teacher educators, therefore, play a crucial role in guiding EFL teachers towards an understanding of the code of ethics in science. They need to arrange workshops and courses, such as in-service training courses for teachers, with the specific goal of developing teachers' awareness, knowledge, and expertise and concentrate on research that can help teachers conduct research ethically.

The questionnaire went through a pilot study. The data analysis of the draft questionnaires presented proofs of the questionnaire's construct validity to see whether this instrument really measured the constructs they claimed to be measuring. This analysis was performed through Amos using CFA. Cronbach's alpha index was used to test the questionnaire's reliability. Analyzing the reliability of teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research questionnaire showed that it achieved an acceptable Cronbach's alpha of .94.

In addition, a CFA was used to check the validity of the developed EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research scale. The relationship across each sub-factor of the offered model was evaluated based on the CFA analysis. All goodness of fit indices were within a reasonable range. Therefore, the scale had reasonable validity.

In terms of designing and validating a scale to investigate teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research, no study has been conducted. However, a variety of scales have been planned and tested for other issues. For example, Motallebzadeh, Kafi, and Ashraf (2018) developed a professional ethics code for a university academic context. Their study was designed for the context of universities, although the present study was in the context of high schools and language institutes. In addition, their scale included all four components of the code of professional ethics (namely the commitment of teachers to learners, the commitment of teachers to society, the commitment of teachers to their profession, and the commitment of teachers to organizations). However,

the present study included five components. Nevertheless, both studies were conducted in the EFL context of Iran.

Ethics and ethical principles are culture-bound. They may differ in diverse cultural settings and contexts. Therefore, further research projects can be administered in other countries with different cultural backgrounds and in various contexts, which might yield dissimilar but interesting results. They will, however, pave the way for a cross-comparison of discoveries. Further work can be carried out to examine the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research with other variables such as the professional development of teachers and the variables related to teachers. Further research can be implemented to design and implement a practical study in the form of a survey to gauge Iranian teachers' degree of familiarity with these ethical considerations or other dimensions or sub-dimensions of research ethics in applied linguistics.

(De) Limitations of the Study, and Suggestions for Further Research

This investigation had some limitations. The participants of the study were chosen using convenience sampling. Another limitation was related to the issue of one country (Iran), as different countries have different systems of education. Thus, the findings were considered within only one country. This study should be repeated with more participants from various parts of the world and with methods that guarantee a high level of randomization and greater generalizability. This can also lay the foundation for cross-comparisons of the findings. Difficult policies of data collection in different countries make it impossible to compare different countries' codes of ethics.

This study had some delimitations too. These were imposed by the researcher to narrow the scope of this study. For the current study, only EFL teachers from different cities in Iran were included. In addition, the researcher tried to include a complete set of demographic data (both genders, and both novice and experienced teachers). However, there might be additional demographic characteristics and factors related to teachers' methods of reflective teaching and their critical thinking that are important but were excluded from the present study.

Ethics and ethical principles are culture-bound. They may differ in diverse cultural settings and contexts. Therefore, similar research can be carried out in other countries with different cultural backgrounds and in various contexts and such research might yield dissimilar yet interesting results. It could also become the basis for a cross-comparison of the findings. Further research can be implemented to explore the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research with other variables, such as teachers' professional development and teacher-related variables.

Conclusion

Even though literature on the EFL context provides little discussion on the investigators' ethical concerns as educators, the outcomes of this study indicate that this is a popular subject that should be addressed. In this study, EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research was developed and validated. The designed questionnaire achieved an appropriate Cronbach's alpha of .94 overall and for its sub-constructs. In addition, a CFA was used to determine the quality of the inventory. The relationship between each sub-factor of the proposed model was evaluated based on this analysis. All of the fit indices goodness values were reasonable. The inventory thus had acceptable credibility.

Despite the scarcity of examinations and models related to the code of ethics in research in Iran in an EFL context, promoting EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research is still a pertinent task, given the increasing need for ethical researchers in the era of globalization. As such, investigating teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research in Iran and other EFL contexts is of paramount significance.

Thus, the researcher hopes that the newly-developed instrument for evaluating the awareness of the code of ethics for research by Iranian EFL teachers will be given attention and eventually implemented at the national level so that we may assure consistency in EFL teachers' quality assurance. The ethical standards could be a starting point for researchers who teach foreign students how to speak English. Researchers constantly examine

their own practices, recognizing that ethics are the duty of the individual investigator and that ethical conduct is a continuous and iterative process.

The issues posed by this study are unlikely to be resolved quickly or neatly in the immediate future, and our goal here is not to recommend a set of rules to be followed by researchers. Indeed, this research clearly illustrates some aspects in which ethics play a central role in studies in the Iranian EFL context, and we expect that it will offer a chance for contemplation and consideration by researchers. We predict that by implementing these kinds of studies, research can be further progressed in the EFL profession. As Hostetler (2005) claims, "our ultimate aim as researchers and educators is to serve people's well-being" (p. 16). We will try to ensure that the voices of our subjects are heard by giving serious consideration to the ethical standards and matters concerning research in the EFL context (Koulouriotis, 2011).

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Ary, D., Cheser, L. Ch., & Sorensen, Ch. K. (2010). *Introduction to research in education*. Cengage Learning.

Baer, J. M. (2010). *European textbook on ethics in research*. European Commission.

Best, J. W., & Cahn, J. V. (2006). *Research in education.* Pearson Education, Inc.

The Council for the Teaching Profession in Malta. (2012). *Teachers' code of ethics and practice*. https://education.gov.mt/en/.../New%20Code%20of%20Ethics%20Doc%20EN.pdf

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. Routledge.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Sage.

Davies, A. (2004). Introduction: Language testing and the golden rule. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 1*(2), 97-107. https://doi.org/10.1080/15434303.2004.9671778

De Costa, P. I., Sterling, S., Lee, J., Li, W., & Rawal, H. (2020). Research tasks on ethics in applied linguistics. *Language Teaching*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0261444820000257

Dixon, Sh., & Quirke, L. (2018). What's the harm? The coverage of ethics and harm avoidance in research methods textbooks. *Teaching Sociology*, *46*(1), 12-24. https://doi.org/10.1177/0092055X17711230

Dornyei, Z. (2010). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Farhady, H. (1999). Ethics in language testing. *Moddaress Journal of Human Sciences, 3*(11), 447-464.

Freeman, N. K. (2000). Professional ethics: A cornerstone of teachers' pre-service curriculum. *Action in Teacher Education, 22*(3), 12–18. https://doi.org/10.1080/01626620.2000.10463015

Gao, X. (2019). The Douglas Fir Group Framework as a resource map for language teacher education. *The Modern Language Journal*, *103*, 161–166. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12526

Guo, Q., Tao, J., & Gao, X. (2019). Language teacher education in System. *System*, *82*, 132–139. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.04.001

Hostetler, K. (2005). What is "good" education research? *Education Research, 34*(6), 16-21. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X034006016

Kafi, Z., Motallebzadeh, Kh., & Ashraf, H. (2018). Developing, localizing & validating code of professional ethics through PLS-SEM: EFL university instructors' perspectives. *Cogent Education*, *5*(1), 1-23. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2018.1492340

Koulouriotis, J. (2011). Ethical considerations in conducting research with non-native speakers of English. *TESL Canada Journal, 5*, 1-15. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v28i0.1078

MacColl, I., Cooper, R., Rittenbruch, M., & Viller, S. (2005). Watching ourselves watching: Ethical issues in ethnographic action research. In *Proceedings of OZCHI 2005* (pp. 1-4). ACM.

Mazur, D. J. (2007). Evaluating the science and ethics of research on humans: a guide for IRB members.

Ngozwana, N. (2018). Ethical dilemmas in qualitative research methodology: Researcher's reflections. *International Journal of Educational Methodology*, 4(1), 19-28. https://doi.org/10.12973/ijem.4.1.19

Olsthoorn, P., & Schut, M. (2018). The ethics of border guarding: a first exploration and a research agenda for the future. *Ethics and Education, 13*(2), 157-171. https://doi.org/10.1080/17449642.2018.1443051

Özturk, S. (2010). The opinions of preschool teachers about ethical principles. *Journal of Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, *10*(1), 393-418.

Parsell, M., Ambler, T., & Jacenyik-Trawoger, Ch. (2014). Ethics in higher education research. *Studies in Higher Education*, *39*(1), 166-179. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2011.647766

Popoola, I., Garner, B., Ammeter, A., Krey, N., Beu Ammeter, D., & Schafer, S. (2017). How does ethics institutionalization reduce academic cheating? *Journal of Education for Business*, *92*(1), 29-35. https://doi.org/10.1080/08832323.2016.1274710

Samadi, F., Motallebzadeh, Kh., Ashraf, H., & Khajavy, H. (2020). *Developing a model for Iranian EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation)]. Islamic Azad University of Torbat-e Heydarieh.

Shamoo, A., & Resnik, D. (2015). *Responsible conduct of research* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Sterling, S., & Gass, S. (2017). Exploring the boundaries of research ethics: Perceptions of ethics and ethical behaviors in applied linguistics research. *System*, *70*, 50–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.08.010

Thrasher, R. (2011). The Role of a language testing code ethics in the establishment of a code of practice. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 1* (2), 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1080/15434303.2004.9671782

World Medical Association: Declaration of Helsinki. (2013). Ethical principles for medical research involving human subjects. *JAMA, 310*(20), 2191-2194.

Appendix

EFL teachers' awareness of the code of ethics in research scale

Dear respondent,

This survey is intended to explore the awareness of EFL teachers about the code of ethics in research when participating in the research process. The information that you reveal to us through this questionnaire is kept anonymous and will only be used for research purposes.

The items of this questionnaire cover areas related to the following headings: (1) Before the beginning of the research, (2) the Beginning of the research, (3) Gathering the data, (4), Analyzing the data, and (5) Writing, reporting, sharing, and storing the data.

A. Teachers' information: Please mark the part that best matches your status.

1. Years of teaching experience:
   Below 5 ☐   5-10 ☐   11-15 ☐   16-20 ☐   21-25 ☐   Above 25 ☐

2. Level/s you are teaching right now:
   Pre-intermediate ☐   Intermediate ☐   Upper-intermediate ☐   Advanced ☐

3. Gender:
   Male ☐   Female ☐

4. Age:
   20-29 ☐   30-39 ☐   40-49 ☐   50-59 ☐

5. Degree:
   MA. ☐   Ph.D. ☐   Others ☐

6. Your major of study:
   Teaching English ☐   English Literature ☐   English Translation ☐   Others ☐

7. Have you ever had research training courses?
   Yes ☐   No ☐

8. How many articles have you published so far?
   None ☐   1-3 ☐   4-6 ☐   6-8 ☐   More than 8 ☐

B. Please mark the part that best matches your status. There is no wrong or right answer.

No	Statement	Strongly disagree	Disagree	No idea	Agree	Strongly agree
	As an EFL teacher, in research, ….	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
1	I do not deceive participants about important aspects that would influence their willingness to participate.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2	I finalize proof of compliance with ethical considerations and a lack of conflict of interest.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3	I am careful with the reliability and validity of the instruments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4	I know how to conduct research.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5	I ignore the data that proves or disproves my personal hypotheses.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6	I feel responsible to the research community.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7	I conduct the research competently and with due concern for the honor and welfare of the participants.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8	I select an influential research problem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9	I feel a responsibility to provide safe storage for the informationI collect and control access to it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10	I ensure that all participants, not only an experimental group, receive the advantages from the effective treatments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11	I avoid duplicating or gradual publications.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12	I respect research site so that they are not left disorganized after a research study.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13	I retain raw data and other materials including procedures, instruments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14	I am sensitive to any locally established institutional policies or standards for implementing research.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15	I plan my study so as to reduce the possibility that findings will be misleading.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16	I keep careful records of data collection.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17	I develop the integrity of research.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18	I communicate my study results and share my findings with others.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19	I do not fabricate, falsify, or misrepresent data.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20	I respect my colleagues and treat them fairly.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21	I do not force the subjects to participate or sign consent forms and let them take part freely	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22	I discuss authorship for publication with my colleagues.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23	I communicate in clear simple, suitable language.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24	I choose the most suitable statistical analysis.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25	I seek to encourage the good of society and to avoid or minimize social harms.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26	I respect the privacy of participants and consider issues of anonymity and confidentiality.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27	I inform the participants about the likelihood risks included in the study and of potential outcomes for them.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28	I have received suitable approval from host institutions or organizations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29	I do not disclose information that would hurt participants.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30	I try to improve my professional research competency.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31	I respect standards and charters of domestic cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32	I refrain from disclosing only positive findings.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33	Before participating in the studyI get informed consent from the study participants.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34	I do not plagiarize or self-plagiarize.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35	I have legal obligations to human subjects.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36	I know relevant rules and institutional and governmental policies.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

37	I have a responsibility to be cautious of cultural, gender, religious, and other important differences within the study population.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38	I disclose the aim of the research.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39	I avoid misrepresenting authorship, evidence, data, results, or conclusions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40	I avoid "taking sides" and only negotiate the results that put the participants in a favorable light.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41	I promote trust with the participants.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42	I do not recruit ghost- writers to do my research or write my research text as the author.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43	I oppose discriminating against participants on the grounds of gender, race, nationality or any other irrelevant components of academic integrity and dignity.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44	I consider corresponding issues and ordering of the names.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45	I prevent or minimize bias or self-deception.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46	I cite funding resources.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47	I am honest with participants about communicating the purposes of the study.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
48	I compensate the participants for their time, attempts, and cooperation.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
49	I am exact in reporting the data.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
50	I keep a good relationship with the participants.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
51	I avoid overlapping publications and do not submit the article to two or more journals simultaneously.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
52	I try to minimize invasiveness by intervening with the participants or setting from which data are gathered.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
53	I am exact in my citations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
54	I am open to criticism and new ideas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
55	I avoid gathering detrimental information.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
56	I refrain from exploiting the participants.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
57	I respect probable power imbalances.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
58	I consider who the owner of the data is when writing, reporting, sharing, and storing the data.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
59	I avoid reckless mistakes and incompetence, and examine my own work and the work of my colleagues carefully and critically.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Attitudes toward the Use of Project-Based Learning: A Case Study of Vietnamese High School Students

Thao Quoc Tran[1], Tu Ngoc Phan Tran[2]

[1]Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology (HUTECH)

[2]Bui Thi Xuan High School

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Thao Quoc Tran, Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology (HUTECH), 475A Dien Bien Phu Street, Ward 25, Binh Thanh District, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. E-mail: tq.thao@hutech.edu.vn

It is universally acknowledged that project-based learning (PBL) plays a fundamental role in language teaching and the learning process. In some developed countries with advanced education, PBL has been applied to language teaching and learning widely and effectively. However, in the context of Vietnam, PBL is unlikely to be viewed as an integral approach to enhance students' self-directed abilities in their learning. This paper aimed at investigating EFL high school students' attitudes towards PBL when they implemented PBL with the new English textbooks at Bui Thi Xuan High School in Vietnam. This study involved one hundred and fifty-five EFL high school students in answering the questionnaire and forty students in responding to semi-structured interview questions. The quantitative data were processed by SPSS in terms of descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation, and frequency), and content analysis was used for analyzing the qualitative data. The findings of the study showed that EFL high school students expressed positive attitudes (i.e. cognition, affection, and behavior) toward PBL. The data from the semi-structured interview were coded and analyzed to make the results of the study clearer. These preliminary findings are hoped to contribute to a better understanding of the current perspectives of applying PBL into language learning in the Vietnamese context so that practical implications should be made in order to enhance the quality of teaching in English language education in Da Lat specifically and Vietnam in general.

Keywords: attitudes, high school students, PBL, Vietnamese EFL context

Introduction

Background

It is undeniable that project-based learning (PBL) is believed to be one of the ideal choices to teach students in modern classrooms. Bender (2012) indicated that when teachers utilize PBL, they change their traditional roles into the new modes of teaching. According to Dewey (1959), who is one of the pioneers of PBL, when students implement meaningful tasks related to problems in real-world situations, they can achieve more profound comprehension. Several researchers (e.g. Demir, 2020; Helle, Tynjala, & Olkinuora, 2006; Krajcik, Czerniak & Berger, 1999; Revelle et al., 2020) have regarded PBL as an alternative method for teaching because it is a powerful tool for encouraging students to engage more in solving real-world problems. As a matter of fact, PBL allows students to take part in learning activities as active and confident participants (Krajcik et al., 1994).

In terms of learners' attitudes, several studies have been conducted recently to achieve in-depth insights into this topic. Brown (2001) highlights the significance of attitudes on learners' learning processes. Similarly, attitudes are of importance to master a language and facilitate language acquisition (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Attitudes, along with cooperation in teamwork, self-concept, and 21st century skills are the key factors that help project-based learners reinforce their learning ability, attain insightful comprehension on conceptual knowledge, and promote their learner autonomy. Obviously, learning performance can be enhanced and facilitated when students have positive attitudes. However, students' performances and results in language acquisition may deteriorate if the students have negative attitudes (Tella, Indoshi, & Othuon, 2010). This

means that when learners have positive attitudes toward projects associated with their own lives, they tend to acquire knowledge to solve the problems in real life more efficiently.

At the tertiary level in Vietnam, there has been more research and teaching practice on PBL and students are more likely to be accustomed to this approach; however, at the high school level, EFL students are rarely given the chance to learn through PBL, and less research on PBL has been conducted on high school students. Comprehending the imperative roles of PBL to facilitate students' learning and create productive classroom environments for the students, the MOET attempted to introduce and apply PBL in the new ten-year English textbooks designed for the National Foreign Language 2020 Project. Projects are included in each unit to help promote learner autonomy for EFL high school students and life-long learning. At Bui Thi Xuan High School, students are more familiar with carrying out projects since they started learning English with the new textbooks in 2013. In order to have a profound understanding of the students' attitudes toward project-based learning, this study aimed at identifying the attitudes toward the use of PBL among high school students in grades 10, 11, and 12 at Bui Thi Xuan High School in Lam Dong Province, Vietnam. The research question was formulated for this study as follows:

- What are EFL students' attitudes toward the use of project-based learning in English language learning at Bui Thi Xuan High School?

Literature Review

Project-Based Learning

In terms of a pedagogical framework, PBL is regarded as an innovative approach in education. Bransfort, Brown, and Cocking (1999) define PBL as a powerful approach that encourages students to expand the knowledge they have learnt in a new context. Supplying another definition of PBL, Savery (2006) considers PBL to be a constructivist instructional method in which students are encouraged to work in groups or interact with each other to apply the knowledge in the classroom in order to solve problems in their real lives under the teacher's instruction. In short, PBL is a learner-centered approach that triggers students' collaboration and critical thinking skills through experience solving real-life problems.

Self-regulated language learning enhancement
As the major purpose of PBL is to assist students by enhancing their self-regulated language learning (SRLL), students primarily learn how to learn on their own when implementing PBL (Vaiz, 2003). As engaging in implementing PBL through the process of collecting information from different material sources as well as attaining knowledge via analysis and synthesis, students stand a greater chance of comprehending their lessons more thoroughly and applying them into their real-life situations. Through project implementation, their self-regulation in learning improves day by day (e.g., Hoang, 2009; Nguyen, 2017; Tran & Tran, 2019; Yilmaz, Yilmaz & Keser, 2020).

21st century skills improvement
PBL offers substantial benefits to learners as it encourages active inquiry and higher-order thinking skills (Thomas, 1998). Moreover, PBL helps them constitute improvement in self-reliance, attendance, and attitudes toward learning and then has a great influence on students' learning behaviors and even their performance (Thomas, 2000, Tran & Duong, 2013; Tran & Nguyen, 2020). Additionally, thanks to PBL, learners develop their 21st century skills including collaborative skills, creative skills, critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills, decision-making skills, communicative skills, etc., all of which are absolutely effective for their own lives and help improve their sense of responsibility (Dori & Tal, 2000; Nguyen, 2011; Pham, 2014; Tran & Tran, 2019).

Speaking competence development
PBL helps students enhance their speaking competence as it provides them with room for enriching their vocabulary (Torres & Rodríguez, 2017). Accordingly, students can express their own ideas, communicate appropriate messages and complete tasks in projects. These authors highlight that when students have a wide range of vocabulary, they can overcome their fear of speaking and become more confident. Likewise, it is PBL that enhances students' speaking skills in the classroom, i.e. students become more and more confident when

talking in front of the class (Pham, 2014). As a result, students are in favor of addressing their own experiences and cultures in the target language (Truong, 2017).

Opportunities for Self-Assessment
Railsback (2002) claims that PBL may engage culturally diverse learners as a wide range of learning opportunities are offered to students in the classroom. Furthermore, students can assess their learning process and their production on their own and provide constructive feedback to each other (Gubacs, 2004). When students assess themselves, they may take control of their studies and manage their learning more independently. This is meaningful to students as they can enhance their strengths or eradicate their weaknesses (Tran & Tran, 2019).

More Active Learning Engagement
It is universally believed that PBL triggers students' engagement in their learning (Cornell & Clarke, 1999). These authors also affirm that not only does PBL supply students with team collaboration and new skills while implementing hands-on activities but it also allows weak students to make progress at their own pace. Research on collaborative learning shows that when working in groups positively, students have a tendency to obtain higher learning outcomes than those who work in traditional classroom environments (Gillies & Ashman, 2000). This is because low achievers can receive explanations, aid, and support from their better partners, which helps them clarify the issues and build comprehension easily. Furthermore, planning, revising, and reflecting to complete projects may help students achieve expected outcomes in their learning (Nguyen, 2011).

Learner Attitudes
Many recent researchers have concentrate on conducting research on learner attitudes so as to achieve in-depth insights into this topic and investigate how attitudes affect learning acquisition. According to Rokeach (1969, as cited in Smith, 1971), "an attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or a situation, predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner" (p. 52). Gardner and Lambert's (1972) definition is that "an individual's attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent" (p. 36).

There are three components of attitudes, namely affective, cognitive, and behavioral factors. First, the affective component is seen as the emotional response towards an attitude object; therefore, there have been a number of studies on this issue. Eagly and Chaiken (1998) define the affective factor as the "feelings, moods, emotions, and sympathetic nervous system activity that people have experienced in relation to an attitude object and subsequently associate with it" (p. 272). These authors claim that the affective component is based mainly on emotional experiences and preferences. It reflects the likes or dislikes of a person towards an object. The affective factor should not be judged in terms of only the beliefs because emotion works simultaneously with the cognitive factor. Regarding PBL, when students have positive or negative attitudes towards PBL, they can have a great effect on their learning strategies (Railsback, 2002).

Second, the cognitive component of attitudes is beliefs, thoughts, and attributes that individuals express about an object. It is the general knowledge that a person possesses. It is based on how people think about the attitude objects. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004) state that the cognitive factor consists of information and perceptions. These two elements can be found through the mixture of experiences with attitude objects and information from different sources. The cognitive component reflects the ways people think about objects and their attributes towards the objects. In terms of PBL, it is believed that when people associate an object with positive attributes, they have more positive attitudes toward it.

Third, the behavioral component consists of a person's response towards attitude objects. According to Defleur and Westie (1963), it involves a person's response or reaction to doing something related to an attitude object. The behavioral component is in attempt to explain the participation of an individual in tasks as well as actions concerning an attitude object. It has a great influence on the ways individuals act or behave.

To sum up, the affective component is based on the emotions and feelings about attitudinal objects, whereas the cognitive component is related to perceptions, conceptions, and beliefs, and the behavioral component focuses more on the expressions of behavioral intention or action.

Previous studies

In order to explore and apply the new educational approaches or methods in the teaching and learning process, many researchers have recently concentrated more on PBL as an effective way to help students become more active in learning. Many studies by different researchers such as Baran and Maskan (2010), Kaldi, Filippatou, and Govaris (2011), and Van Rooij (2009) explored how PBL had great impacts on students' attitudes and their academic achievement. Moreover, the results showed that the use of PBL increases students' success in their learning process.

In terms of the students' attitudes towards PBL, only a few studies have recently been conducted. Han (2017) conducted a study in six secondary schools Korea with 840 students in order to investigate the students' attitudes towards science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) PBL and discovered the relationships between their attitudes and the interests in pursuing a STEM major. With the employment of a questionnaire using a 5-point Likert type scale, the results of the study showed that the students who had positive attitudes towards PBL were in favour of choosing STEM major in the future. In another study by Haryatti (2017), the researchers aimed to determine the students' attitudes towards the use of PBL in the application of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). 40 participants were involved in this study. The results revealed that the students' attitudes towards PBL were positive. In general, most of the recent studies indicated that students expressed positive attitudes towards PBL.

In the context of Vietnam, although a great deal of research has been implemented recently on PBL, a few of them focus on the students' attitudes towards PBL. Truong (2017) conducted a study at Vien Dong College to investigate the students' attitudes towards project work for fostering student autonomy in English speaking classes. Eighty-one students were chosen and the research instruments were an open-ended questionnaire, semi-structured interviews, and class observations. The findings of the study showed that students expressed positive attitudes towards project work as well as the possibility to improve their learner autonomy. In general, most of the recent studies indicated that EFL students express positive attitudes towards PBL. Pham (2014) conducted a survey at An Lao High School to investigate the students' attitudes towards PBL and its effects on students' English speaking skill. With the employment of tests, questionnaires, and interviews, the results of the study revealed that students showed positive attitudes towards PBL and it helped students improve their speaking performance. However, little research on EFL high school students has been done recently to identify their attitudes towards PBL.

Methodology

Research Site

The study was conducted in Bui Thi Xuan High School, which was chosen as one of three high schools in Lam Dong Province to implement the new English textbooks designed by the Ministry of Education and Training in Vietnam in 2013. In the new textbooks, one of the new sections introduced was projects, which encourage students to take the first step towards getting familiar with PBL.

Research Participants

The participants of the study were 155 EFL students from five classes of grades 10, 11, and 12 at Bui Thi Xuan High School, all of whom were using the new English textbooks of the Ministry of Education and Training in Vietnam. There were 155 copies of the questionnaire delivered to the high school students; however, 147 copies were returned and collected by the researchers. As for the gender aspect, the number of male students was 68 while that of female students was 79, which accounted for 46.3% and 53.7%, respectively. The age of the participants was divided into three main categories, including 15 years old, 16 years old, and over 16 years old with a frequency of 54, 59, and 34 respectively. The age of the participants across the three grades: 10, 11, and 12 was 36.73%, 40.14%, and 23.13%, respectively.

Table 3.1
Participants' general information

No.	Information		N=147	
			F	%
1	Gender	Male	68	46.3
		Female	79	53.7
2	Age	15 years old	54	36.73
		16 years old	59	40.14
		Over 16 years old	34	23.13

Note: F: Frequency; %: Percent

Research Instruments

As the nature of the study was mixed-method, quantitative and qualitative, two instruments were utilized: a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to collect the data. To ensure validity and reliability, the questionnaire along with the interview question were reviewed by an expert in the field of English language studies before it was delivered to the participants of the study.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed with 60 questions, separated into two parts, A and B: the participants' general information and the students' attitudes towards PBL. In part A, students were required to give their demographic information, including their gender, their age, their experience learning English, as well as the time they spent implementing projects. In part B, students were asked to fill out a questionnaire, in which a Likert Scale was used to gauge the students' responses. Part B aimed to investigate the students' attitudes towards PBL and the responses included '5' for Strongly Agree (SA), '4' for Agree (A), '3' for Neutral (N), '2' for Disagree (D) and '1' for Strongly Disagree (SD). In order to collect the best results, the questionnaire was translated into Vietnamese to make it easy for the students to answer and avoid misunderstandings. Cronbach Alpha α was at .905, so the reliability of the questionnaire was high.

Semi-Structured Interview

The semi-structured interview was chosen to prepare questions on each strategy in advance in order to cover the target aspects of the interview. The questions for interview were translated into Vietnamese language and the students also answered in Vietnamese. There was a pilot interview to see whether the questions obtained intended information.

Data Collection Procedure

The data collection was conducted from the end of April through the beginning of May in the academic school year 2018-2019. The questionnaire was delivered to students who learnt English with the new English textbooks. Before filling out the questionnaire, students were asked if anything needed to be explained. Each student spent at least fifteen minutes completing the questionnaire.

The interview was conducted with ten groups of students who were chosen randomly from five classes learning with the new English textbooks. The purpose of the interview was explained in advance. Each student spent five to seven minutes responding to the interview questions. The students' answers were recorded for content analysis. In regards to the semi-structured interview, ten groups of four students were invited for the interview. The interviews were conducted in Vietnamese and recorded for later analysis.

Data Analysis Procedure

This mixed methods design generated both qualitative and quantitative data. The quantitative data from the questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS 21.0 in terms of (mean, standard deviation, and frequency), and the meaning of the mean scores for the students' attitudes towards PBL were interpreted as follows:

- 1-1.80: strongly disagree
- 1.81-2.60: disagree
- 2.61-3.40: neutral
- 3.41- 4.20: agree
- 4.21 – 5.00: strongly agree

Qualitative data were collected and analyzed from semi-structured interview questions. Data were recorded and translated into English for research purposes only. After that, the data were analyzed by the logical analysis approach.

The responses from the interview were analyzed by using the content analysis approach, which means that three steps, viz. familiarizing and organizing, coding and recoding, and summarizing and interpreting were employed. The five groups' interviewees were coded from S1 to S40.

Results and Discussion

Results

As shown in Table 1, it is noted that the total mean scores of students' attitudes towards PBL was rather high (M=3.83; SD=.42). This means that high school students' attitudes towards the PBL were relatively positive.

Table 1
Total mean scores of attitudes towards PBL

No.	Students' attitudes towards PBL	N=147	
		M	**SD**
1	Students' attitudes towards PBL	3.83	.42

Note: M: mean; SD: Standard deviation

The results in Table 2 revealed that students expressed positive attitudes towards PBL in three components of attitudes (M=3.83; SD=.42). Furthermore, the students' attitudes for each separated component consisting of cognitive attitudes, affective attitudes, and behavioral attitudes were relatively high. Despite having the high mean scores, the students' responses to each component were not the same. It is evident that the students' responses to affective attitudes (M=3.99; SD=.55) were the highest components of the three attitude components, followed by the students' responses to cognitive attitudes (M=3.86; SD=.43). Compared with the two components mentioned above, those of behavioral attitudes ranked third (M=3.59; SD=.64).

Table 2
EFL high school students' attitudes towards PBL

No.	Attitudes	N=147	
		M	**SD**
1	Cognitive attitudes	3.86	.43
2	Affective attitudes	3.99	.55
3	Behavioral attitudes	3.59	.64
Total		3.83	.42

Note: M: Mean; SD: Standard deviation

Cognitive Attitudes

In terms of the high school students' cognition-related attitudes towards PBL, as shown in Table 3, it is evident that EFL high school students expressed positive attitudes towards PBL (M=3.86; SD=.432). The results of the study revealed that most EFL high school students agreed that PBL enhanced their speaking competence (M=4.16; SD=.794) and communicative skills when implementing PBL in the new English textbooks (M=4.03; SD=.939). Students found the importance of doing the projects in the English textbooks (M=3.79; SD=.796) and expanding their knowledge by doing the projects in the English textbooks (M=3.96;

SD=.906). With regard to self-regulated learning, the students also agreed that PBL helped them to enhance their self-regulated learning performance (M=3.95; SD=847). In terms of the students' attitudes towards the 21st-century skills, students recognized the improvement in their creative skills (M=3.88; SD=.784), decision-making skills (M=3.80; SD=.852), critical thinking skills (M=3.90; SD=.830), problem-solving skills (M=3.84; SD=.860), and communicative skills (M=4.03; SD=.939). Concerning learning assessment, the EFL high school students expressed agreement in their improvement of the ability to assess their own learning process (M=3.57; SD=.929) as well as assess their classmates' production on their own (M=3.70; SD=.895). Students also agreed that their learning outcomes improved after doing the projects in the textbooks (M=3.76; SD=.855).

Table 3
EFL high school students' cognitive attitudes towards PBL

No.	Cognitive Attitudes	N=147	
		M	**SD**
1.1	PBL helps me to enhance my self-regulated learning performance.	3.95	.847
1.2	I improve my creative skills when doing the projects in the textbooks.	3.88	.784
1.3	I improve my decision-making skills when doing the projects in the textbooks.	3.80	.852
1.4	I improve my critical thinking skills when doing the projects in the textbooks.	3.90	.830
1.5	I improve my problem-solving skills when doing the projects in the textbooks.	3.84	.860
1.6	I improve my communicative skills when doing the projects in the textbooks.	4.03	.939
1.7	PBL helps me to enhance my speaking competence.	4.16	.794
1.8	I improve my ability to assess my own learning process.	3.57	.929
1.9	I improve my ability to assess the production of my friends on my own.	3.70	.895
1.10	It is important for me to do the projects in the English textbooks I am using.	3.79	.796
1.11	It is important for me to expand my knowledge in the textbooks by doing the projects in the English textbooks.	3.96	.906
1.12	My learning outcomes improve after doing the projects in the textbooks.	3.76	.855
Total		**3.86**	**.432**

Note: M: mean; SD: Standard deviation

Qualitatively, it was shown that all of the students who answered the interview questions agreed that PBL played an important role in their English language learning. They explained:

> "PBL is important because it improves skills for EFL high school students for their future career." (S2)
> "PBL is a must as it forms the ability of using different soft skills for students." (S11)
> "It is important to do PBL as students to improve our skills and self-regulated learning." (S22)

Moreover, it was noticeable that PBL helped students improve their studies in various ways, some of which were listed as follows: skill improvements such as time management skill, technology skill, presentation skill, problem-solving skill, creative skill, critical thinking skill and self-assessment skill, SRLL performance, teamwork engagement, knowledge expansion, and others. For example, S10 reported, "When doing PBL, I improve my time management skills and know how to do a project before the deadline." Meanwhile, S2 admitted the improvement in SRLL thanks to PBL implementation.

With regard to 21st century skills, the EFL high school students expressed more agreement on improvements in the use of 21st century skills when they implemented PBL. It was obvious that collaborative skill and technological skill were the two skills that the EFL high school students improved the most when they implemented PBL. Additionally, communication skill, self-regulated learning skill, creative skill, critical thinking skill, problem-solving skill, decision-making skill, time management skill, and self-evaluation skill were believed to be indispensable in the globalized world.

In conclusion, it can be noted that PBL helps high school students improve their self-regulated language learning, their speaking competence as well as their 21st century skills including creative skills, decision-

making skills, critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills, and communicative skills. Their opportunities to self-assess their own projects as well as those of their friends also improved. More importantly, the EFL high school students recognized the importance of implementing PBL in the English textbooks as well as broadening their knowledge from the textbooks. As a result, they achieved the expected outcomes in their learning of English.

Affective Attitudes
Students' affective attitudes towards PBL were evaluated by six measured items. As shown in Table 4, the EFL high school students showed positive attitudes towards implementing different activities in PBL (M=3.99; SD=.558). Most of the EFL high school students agreed that they became more responsible to work in teams while implementing hands-on activities (M=4.14, SD=.799), found it helpful to work together to solve the problems with their friends (M=4.12; SD=.835), felt more confident searching for information through different sources on their own (M=4.03; SD=.860), and felt more confident expressing their own ideas in front of the class (M=3.80; SD=.899). As a result, they found it enjoyable to cooperate with their classmates to do the projects in the textbooks (M=3.87; SD=.974) as well as interesting to engage more in the classroom activities (M=4.00; SD=.868).

Table 4
EFL high school students' affective attitudes towards PBL

No.	Affective Attitudes	N=147	
		M	SD
1.13	I feel more confident searching for the information through different sources on my own.	4.03	.860
1.14	I find it interesting to engage more into the classroom activities.	4.00	.868
1.15	I find it enjoyable to cooperate with my classmates to do the projects in the textbooks.	3.87	.974
1.16	I feel more confident expressing my own ideas in front of the class.	3.80	.899
1.17	I become more responsible to work in teams while implementing hands-on activities.	4.14	.799
1.18	I find it helpful to work together to solve the problems with my friends.	4.12	.835
Total		**3.99**	**.558**

Note: M: Mean; SD: Standard deviation

Turning to the affective attitudes that help EFL high school students improve their studies when implementing PBL, from the data collected in the interview, it was evident that EFL high school students had positive affective attitudes towards PBL. Some students gave positive comments as follows:

> "Thanks to implementing PBL, I become more responsible when working in groups. I try to complete my assigned tasks on time." (S33)
> "I am more helpful when working in groups when I carried out the tasks in PBL. I am more eager to assist my friends if necessary." (S21)

In short, the EFL high school students thought they had more active learning engagement. When implementing PBL, they became more confident, helpful, enjoyable, and excited.

Behavioral Attitudes
The high school students' behavioral attitudes towards PBL were measured by five items. Although the means of behavioral attitudes were lower than those of cognitive and affective attitudes, their behavioral attitudes were rather positive (M=3.59; SD=.648). The results shown in Table 5 revealed that many students agreed that when they implemented PBL, they had more time to practice speaking skill (M=3.80; SD=.926) and self-regulated learning strategies (M=3.61; SD=1.017). Furthermore, the time for self-regulated learning increased more (M=3.41; SD=1.004). With regard to improvement in 21st-century skills, the participants expressed their agreement that they utilized various 21st-century skills when they did PBL in the textbooks (M=3.60; SD=.881) and they concentrated more on giving constructive feedback for their friends (M=3.59; SD=1.039).

Table 5
EFL high school students' behavioral attitudes towards PBL

No.	Behavioral Attitudes	N=147	
		M	**SD**
1.19	I spend more time for self-study when doing the projects in the textbooks.	3.41	1.004
1.20	I use different 21st century skills to complete my projects in the textbooks.	3.60	.881
1.21	I spend more time practicing speaking skill when doing the projects in the English textbooks.	3.80	.926
1.22	I pay attention to providing constructive feedback to my friends.	3.59	1.039
1.23	I spend more time for my self-regulated learning strategies when implementing projects in the textbooks.	3.61	1.017
Total		**3.59**	**.648**

Note: M: Mean; SD: Standard deviation

Aligning with the quantitative data, the qualitative data indicated that EFL high school students also showed positive behavioral attitudes towards PBL. Most of the interviewees agreed with this:

> "I become a more self-regulated learner as I spend more time on my learning to do the project. I have spent from three to five hours on self-learning at home." (S18)
> "It was difficult for me to assess my friends' work and products before, but now I know how to give feedback for my friends." (S35)

In summary, the EFL high school students expressed positive behavioral attitudes towards project implementation in the English textbooks. Some positive signs were listed as more time spent for SRLL performance, on self-regulated learning strategies, and for practicing speaking skills. The students also applied a wide range of 21st century skills during project implementation. Significantly, students concentrated on giving productive feedback to their friends.

Discussion

In this section, the study results are discussed to shed light on the issue presented in the research question. The results of this study revealed that EFL high school students expressed positive attitudes towards PBL in three attitude components, which consisted of cognitive, affective, and behavioral attitudes. This result of the current study is partially supported by the previous research carried out by Hoang (2012) and Truong (2017). It is noticeable that although several previous studies indicated the challenges that students may encounter when they undertook PBL, the EFL high school students in this study still expressed positive attitudes towards PBL.

In terms of cognitive attitudes, the participants expressed agreement that they enhanced their self-regulated language learning, their speaking competence, and their 21st-century skills by means of PBL. The findings on SRLL improvement by PBL partially had the same opinion with Hoang (2009) and Nguyen (2017), who agreed that thanks to PBL, students' self-regulation improved gradually. Some of the 21st century skills mentioned in this study were creative skill, decision-making skill, critical thinking skill, problem-solving skill, communicative skill, technology skill, time management skill, and self-assessment skill. The findings were aligned with Dori and Tal (2000), Nguyen (2011), and Pham (2014) on the integral roles of PBL towards the enhancement of 21st-century skills in creating an effective learning environment for students. Moreover, the EFL high school students also believed that it was of importance to implement PBL in the English textbooks and enrich their knowledge from the English textbooks.

Concerning affective attitudes, the EFL high school students agreed that they engaged more in an active learning environment. PBL helped them improve their confidence, helpfulness, sense of responsibility, and interest in learning.

With respect to behavioral attitudes, the EFL high school students expressed positive responses towards project implementation in the new English textbooks. Students believed that they became more self-regulated in their

language learning and applied more SRLL strategies as well as 21st century skills when they conducted their projects as Nguyen (2015) stated in his research. Furthermore, their speaking skill improved a lot as they spent more time practicing speaking in front of the class. This finding in affective attitudes was confirmed by Pham (2014) and Torres and Rodríguez (2017) about speaking skill improvements through PBL. In the same line with Gubacs (2004), this study indicated that another skill that students concentrated on more was the self-assessment skill, which they applied to evaluate their own projects as well as those of their friends. They paid more attention to providing productive feedback on their partners' projects. The findings supported the principles of PBL by Barron et al (1998) and Cocco (2006).

In short, besides the positive attitudes that EFL high school students had when they implemented PBL, they recognized the significance of PBL for their SRLL as well as the improvement of various 21st century skills.

The results of this study throw light on EFL high school students' attitudes towards PBL. With reference to cognitive, affective, and behavioral attitudes, the results of this study revealed that the students held positive attitudes towards PBL. In terms of cognitive attitudes, the students agreed that they enhanced their self-regulated language learning, their speaking competence as well as their 21st century skills through undertaking PBL. Relating to affective attitudes, the students believed that PBL helped them engage more in an active learning environment and improve their confidence, helpfulness, sense of responsibility, and interest in learning. In terms of behavioral attitudes, the students became positive towards project implementation in the new English textbooks. In short, the EFL high school students' attitudes towards PBL were positive.

In order to overcome the challenges of implementing PBL in high schools in Vietnam, some pedagogical implications are introduced below.

PBL – a Compulsory activity at High School in Vietnam.

PBL has to be made a compulsory activity for all students at high schools in Vietnam. EFL high school students are required to implement PBL more and more because it is obvious that both teachers and students are benefiting when implementing PBL. Furthermore, it is vital that when students implement PBL, they should be assessed using oral tests or fifteen-minute tests or even forty-five-minute tests (Tran & Tran, 2019). Hence, the employment of PBL in English language teaching and learning should be encouraged..

The Positive Changes in the Roles of High School Teachers and Students

In order to achieve their goals, it is important for students to be equipped with some essential skills and the readiness to shift into new ways to learn. When they are ready to shift into new active roles, utilize innovation pedagogy, and even change their personal beliefs, PBL can be implemented effectively and successfully (Truong, 2017). Moreover, when teachers can overcome problems such as poor school infrastructure and the lack of available resources and time, they can foster their students' creativity and enthusiasm by implementing PBL (Tran & Tran, 2019).

Students' Positive Attitudes Towards PBL

Students' positive attitudes towards PBL are also crucial factors to trigger students' eagerness and interests. When EFL students express positive attitudes towards the projects relating to their real lives, it is possible for them to acquire knowledge and apply it to solve the problems in real life more effectively and efficiently.

Adequate Training for High School Teachers and Students

It is essential that Vietnamese high school teachers, whose new roles are instructor, facilitator, supervisor, and monitor, be supplied with appropriate training by the MOET and the DOET. Besides being equipped with adequate skills, teachers should also be supplied with the process of project implementation as well as ways to evaluate students (Nguyen, 2017). Moreover, it is critical that the teachers who implement the project be experienced instructing students on to do projects. High school students in Vietnam, at the center of the learning process, should also be well prepared with the basic knowledge and soft skills to implement PBL effectively (Tran & Tran, 2019).

Support from stakeholders

It is essential to engage all of the stakeholders involved in PBL implementation in high schools. Along with the efforts of teachers and students, these stakeholders play an important role encouraging teachers and students to apply PBL in their language classrooms. Tran and Tran (2019) suggest that they should update and supply information for the students and teachers through a variety of sources. The MOET and DOET in each city or province in Vietnam should organize more training courses or design a forum to provide teachers with essential information on project implementation and evaluation.

Conclusion

This study has some limitations resulting from the nature and process of research that could affect the generalizability of the findings. First of all, although the study used both quantitative and qualitative with two instruments, including a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, it will be better if the researcher use pre-tests and post-tests in order to compare and contrast the results of the study. However, due to the time constrains, it was impossible for the researcher to carry out pre-tests and post-tests. Another limitation of this study is that it does not provide a complete picture of PBL among a large population. The number of participants, the students who studied the new English textbooks, was only at Bui Thi Xuan High School. It would be better if the participants of the study were expanded to other high schools in Lam Dong province for further studies.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Baran, M., & Maskan, A. (2010). The effect of project-based learning on pre-service physics teachers electrostatic achievements. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences, 5*(4), 243–257.

Barron, B., Schwartz, D., Vye, N., Moore, A., Petrosino, L., & Bransford, J. (1998). Doing with understanding: lessons from research on problem and project-based learning. *The Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 7(3), 271–311. https://doi.org/10.1080/10508406.1998.9672056

Bender, W. N. (2012). *Project-based learning: differentiating instruction for the 21st century*. Corwin Press.

Bradford, M. (2005). Motivating Students through Project-Based Service Learning. *T.H.E. Journal, 32*(6), 29-30.

Bransford, J. D., Brown, A. L., Cocking, R. R. (Eds.) (1999). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience and school*. National Academy Press.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Cocco, S. (2006). *Student leadership development: The contribution of project-based learning* [Unpublished Master's thesis]. Royal Roads University.

Cornell, N., & Clarke, J. (1999). *The cost of quality: evaluating a standards-based design project.* National Association for Secondary School Principals Bulletin.

DeFleur, M. L., & Westie, F. R. (1963). Attitude as a scientific concept. *Social Forces, 42*, 17-31.

Demir, C. G. (2020). An overview of project-based learning practices within the context of 21st century skills. In *Paradigm Shifts in 21st Century Teaching and Learning* (pp. 36-52). IGI Global.

Dewey, J. (1959). *Dewey on education*. Teachers College Press.

Dori, Y., & Tal, R. (2000). Formal and informal collaborate projects: Engaging in industry with environment awareness. *Science Education, 84*(1), 95-113.

Eagly, A., & Chaiken, S. (1998). *Attitude structure and function. Handbook of social psychology.* McGrow Company.

Gardner, R., & Lambert, W. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivations in Second Language Learning.* Newbury House.

Gillies, R. M., & Ashman, A.F. (2000). The effects of cooperative learning on students with learning difficulties in the lower elementary school. *The Journal of Special Education*, *34*(1), 19-27. https://doi.

org/10.1177/002246690003400102

Gubacs, K. (2004). Project-based learning: A student-centered approach to integrating technology into physical education teacher education. *Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance, 75*(7), 33-37. http://dx.doi.org/10.108 0/07303084.2004.10607272

Han, S. (2017). Korean students' attitudes toward STEM project-based learning and major selection. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice, 17*, 529–548. http://dx.doi.org/10.12738/estp.2017.2.0264

Haryatti, S. (2017). EFL Students' Perspectives of Applying CALL through Project-Based Learning. *UHAMKA International Conference on ELT and CALL (UICELL)* (pp. 23-24). UNPAM.

Helle, L., Tynjala, P., & Olkinuora, E. (2006). Project-based learning in post-secondary education – theory, practice and rubber sling shots. *Higher Education, 51*, 287-314. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10734-004-6386-5

Hoang T. N. D. (2009). Magazine as project-based learning. In S. Rilling & M. Dantas-Whitney (Eds.), *TESOL Classroom Practice Series. Authenticity in the classroom and beyond: Adult learners (pp. 37-45)*. TESOL, Inc

Hoang T. N. D. (2012). Making news: A successful example of project-based learning. *Language Education in Asia, 2012, 3*(1), 96-105. http://dx.doi.org/10.5746/LEiA/12/V3/I1/A09/Diem

Kaldi, S., Filippatou, D., & Govaris, C. (2011). Project-based learning in primary schools: Effects on pupils' learning and attitudes. *Education, 39*(1), 35-47. https://doi.org/10.1080/03004270903179538

Krajcik, J. S., Blumenfeld, P. C., Marx, R. W., & Soloway, E. (1994). A collaborative model for helping middle grade science teachers learn project-based instruction. *The Elementary School Journal*, 94, 483–497. https://doi.org/10.2307/1001838

Krajcik, J. S., Czerniak, CM & Berger, CF (1999). *Teaching science: a project-based approach*. McGraw-Hill College.

Nguyen T. V. L. (2011). Project-based learning in teaching English as a foreign language. *VNU Journal of Science, Foreign Languages, 27*, 140-146.

Nguyen V. K. (2015). Towards Improving ESP Teaching/Learning in Vietnam's Higher Education Institutions: Integrating Project-Based Learning into ESP Courses. *International Journal of Languages, Literature and Linguistics*, *1*(4), 227-232. https://doi.org/10.18178/ijlll.2015.1.4.44

Nguyen V. L. (2017). Promoting learner autonomy: Lesson from using project work as a supplement in English skills courses. *Can Tho University Journal of Science*, 7, 118-125. https://doi.org/10.22144/ctu.jen.2017.057

Pham T. T. H. (2014). *Developing students' speaking skill through Project-based learning* [Unpublished Master's thesis]. Vietnam National University.

Revelle, K. Z., Wise, C. N., Duke, N. K., & Halvorsen, A. L. (2020). Realizing the promise of project-based learning. *The Reading Teacher*, *73*(6), 697-710. https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1874

Savery, J. R. (2006). Overview of problem-based learning: Definitions and distinctions. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-based Learning, 1(1),* 9-20. https://doi.org/10.7771/1541-5015.1002

Schiffman, L. G., & Kanuk, L. L. (2004). *Consumer behavior* (8th ed.). Prentice Hall.

Railsback, J. (2002). *Project-based instruction: Creating excitement for learning*. Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

Tella, J., Indoshi, F. C., & Othuon, L. A. (2010). Relationship between students' perspectives on the secondary school English curriculum and their academic achievement in Kenya. *Educational Research, 1,* 390–395.

Thomas, J. W. (1998). *Project-based learning: Overview*. Buck Institute for Education.

Thomas, J. W. (2000). *A review of research on project-based learning*. Autodesk.

Torres, A. M. V., & Rodríguez, L. F. G. (2017). Increasing EFL learners' oral production at a public school through project-based learning. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 19*(2), 57-71. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v19n2.59889

Tran P. N. T. & Tran Q. T. (2019). The important roles of project-based learning in teaching English to high school students. *Proceedings of the 7th OPENTESOL International Conference 2019* (pp. 279-294).

Tran, Q. T. & Duong, M. T. (2013). The attitudes towards English language learning and use of self-regulated learning strategies among college non-English majors. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, *3*(7), 1-8.

Tran, Q. T., & Nguyen, D. X. (2020). Non-English-majored students' attitudes toward the use of Facebook-based activities in assisting English language learning. *Proceedings of the International conference: Language education for global conference: Finding authentic voices and embracing meaningful practices* (pp. 238-246). Vietnam National University – Ho Chi Minh Press.

Truong, T. T. C. (2017). Exploring Vietnamese students' attitude towards project works in enhancing autonomous learning in English speaking class. *The Normal Lights*, 11(2), 86 – 108.

Vaiz, O. (2003). *Use of portfolios (student development files) in project-based learning and its reflections on the learning process* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Hacettepe University.

Van Rooij, S. W. (2009). Scaffolding project-based learning with the project management body of knowledge (PMBOK®). *Computers & Education, 52*(1), 210–219. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2008.07.012

Yilmaz, R., Yilmaz, F. G. K., & Keser, H. (2020). Vertical versus shared e-leadership approach in online project-based learning: a comparison of self-regulated learning skills, motivation and group collaboration processes. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*, *32*, 628-654. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12528-020-09250-2

The Students, the Local and the Foreign: Drama of Identity and Language in Mongolian-English Bilingual Schools

Flora Komlosi-Ferdinand

University of Wales Trinity St David

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Flora Komlosi-Ferdinand, University of Wales Trinity St David, Carmarthen Campus, Carmarthen, SA31 3EP, United Kingdom.
E-mail: flora.komlosi@yahoo.co.uk

Education in bilingual schools aims to equip learners with balanced bilingualism, increased (bi)cultural capital and a global mindset. Nevertheless, in a growing number of countries only local children attend such institutions, where foreign teachers are the almost exclusive manifestations of 'globalness'. Dynamics among foreign and local teachers and students shape learners' attitudes, their learning outcome and identity formation to an unexpected degree. This often produces unhealthy perceptions and behaviour in the classroom, eventually resulting in students not benefiting from bilingual education to the expected extent. One of the oldest and one of the newest bilingual schools in Ulaanbaatar, Mongolia, were observed for this study. Local and foreign teachers of these schools contributed with their experiences in the form of unstructured interviews, while classroom observations shed light on students' attitudes. The findings reveal that students respect local educators more and display more respect and discipline with them. However, pupils are usually more emotionally attached to foreign teachers, confiding in them and seeking their company on a daily basis, yet refusing to be disciplined and to study for their classes. Students' unbalanced attitudes towards the two groups of teachers generated unease between the educators as well. This paradox created an unhealthy milieu in the schools and discouraged the development of a healthy perspective on (foreign) languages and identity. Teachers' attitudes further compromised learners' behaviour, as local educators stressed nationalism, while foreigners pressed towards the development of a more global mentality. Unfortunately, as none of the institutions had any policies to address this dilemma, eventually students developed behaviours contrary to the intended by the schools.

Keywords: bilingual schools, language and identity, foreign teachers, student attitudes, Mongolia

Introduction

The present investigation aims to decipher how Mongolian students' identity is shaped or further conditions their attitudes and social-emotional responses towards foreign and local teachers in English-Mongolian bilingual schools. The rapidly growing Mongolian economy nurtures the opening of new bilingual schools on a yearly basis (May, 2009). Parents with increasing wealth prefer to secure a more global education for their children, placing substantial importance on foreign language education, foreign curricula and cultural capital, defined as giving priority to life's cultural and intellectual assets as opposed to material ones (Bourdieu 1990, Weininger, 2003; Weenink, 2008). Among the objectives of bilingual education, there is the formation of both linguistically and culturally fluent students in Mongolian and in the foreign language, in the case of this study, English. While this idyllic scenario may be a challenge in itself, parents often enrol their offspring at a later age (sometimes at fifth grade or later) and envision their children to catch up with the rest of their peers only in a school term. Often, this proves to be an emotionally and foreign-language wise overwhelming situation (Milosevic, 2019). Standard international schools in Ulaanbaatar with full English curricula have monolingual teaching, that is, regardless of the nationality of the teachers, all subjects are taught through the medium of English (Bunnell, 2019). A few bilingual schools, however, offer a balanced number of teaching hours both in English and in Mongolian (Hill, 2015). The cultural landscape of these schools varies, most of the educators being local with some additional foreign teachers and (sometimes) administrators from different countries.

The number of foreign staff strongly varies among schools (Meneghella, Walsh & Sawagvudcharee, 2019), and a great number of cultural differences and attitudes towards teaching can be observed between the local and the foreign educators (Dos Santos, 2019). This considerably asymmetrical panorama activates observably different social-emotional responses from the mostly Mongolian students towards both groups.

Mongolian Society

Mongolia is a vast landlocked country situated in Central Asia, bordered by China and Russia. Although Mongolia's territory counts among the biggest in the world, its population is tiny, barely exceeding three million inhabitants, half of them being concentrated in the capital city, Ulaanbaatar (also spelled Ulan Bator). While Khalkha Mongol, the Mongolian dialect spoken around Ulaanbaatar, is the only official language of the country, Kazakh and other minor languages are spoken in different regions of the country. Mongolian is a rapidly changing society. Although the traditional social structure constituted of nomadic, herding families, is still revered and practiced in the countryside, the inhabitants of the capital and the two bigger cities, Darkhan and Erdenet, have undergone unprecedented economic growth and modernisation in the past decades (May, 2009; Hanson, 2004; Sarlagtay 2002). Between 1941 and the end of the communist era in the 1990's, the mostly illiterate Mongolian society became 93% literate and educated. The Mongolian communist government emphasised and provided education not only for children but for adults as well, this paving the way for a healthy wish and routine of education for the following decades (Hanson, 2004; May, 2009).

Nowadays, middle class and rich Mongolians travel abroad and believe that international education for their children is a basic requirement for a successful life. Nevertheless, many of the ancient elements of their culture are still practiced in everyday life, such as obedience towards the elders, the daily use of *deel*, the Mongolian traditional clothes, and rituals such as throwing milk in front of their houses in the morning for having luck. (Hanson, 2004). This creates a particularly interesting scenario in the country's bilingual school system, where both tradition and global mindsets coexist in a non-linear fashion. Although Mongolia during its history of invasions and being invaded has experienced many foreign cultures, it can be said that the Mongolian society has remained fairly isolated in its mentality and educational practices (Komlosi-Ferdinand, 2019; Hanson, 2004). Despite the fact that Mongolians continually try to globalise themselves, change does not come at a speed expected (Hanson, 2004). This is well reflected in the Mongolian educational scenery as well. Although schools and universities try to implement new and modern strategies, the already existing teaching and administrative structures still flourish. This can be observed at schools where the often low-morale of some teachers frustrated by the working conditions adds to the tense educational panorama (Rossabi, 2005). Additionally, in the educational context, corruption has become a serious problem, as students (or their parents) can forcefully demand better grades or special treatments from the educators (Hanson, 2004). This practice is extremely dangerous for Mongolia's new developing intellectual capital and international outlook. The question remains to what degree this ideology affects education in bilingual schools and learning attitudes and outcomes among students aiming for a more global lifestyle.

Literature Review

Identity and Emotions

As bilingual education is becoming more widespread, there is an existing concern at school and parental level about its outcome regarding learners' developing identities, world-view and their ability to maintain their cultural heritage (Heyworth, 2004). Fearon (1999) describes the term *identity* as the two strongly intertwined concepts of personal and social interpretation of ourselves that clarify an individual's concept about himself/herself and how he/she wants to be perceived by others. According to Sarlagtay (2002), the sense of identity in Mongolia has developed a troubled issue over the last decades. This became very apparent from the early 1990s, when Mongolian people started to reclaim their national identity and traditions, stating that '*excessive liberal cosmopolitanism is the current face of Mongolia. It has had negative results in Mongolian society today, which diminish national feeling and ignore patriotism among the population. If rising liberalism might be example of the opportunistic and adaptive ability of Mongolians, but it is harmful for Mongolia's existence as a nation*' (Sarlagtay, 2002, p, 103). As a result, Cohen (2004) points out that in the educational setting Mongolians often have doubts whether the foreign teachers' backgrounds, culture, ideologies and teaching styles will not interfere with

students' developing patriotic spirit. He further states that in order to prevent the foreign influence, in the early 2000s there was a clear intent to create a 'Mongolian English', which would only focus on using English language as a communication tool without the immersion in its cultural elements and language-related social features. Although this proposal has never become official, yet its message has deeply infiltrated into the Mongolian education system. Furthermore, Khongorzul, a professor interviewed in Cohen's study declared: *'If the popularity of English grows any more, it will become a virtual second language among our younger generation'* (Cohen, 2004, p. 21). As seen, the duality between preserving the national identity and globalising their mentality is an ongoing discussion among Mongolians. This article further discusses how the younger generations' emotions and self-definition can subsist in such context.

Komlosi-Ferdinand's (2020) recent study on academic emotions in the Mongolian classrooms draws attention on how Mongolian students' emotional state and learning outcome is heavily conditioned by the teachers' attitudes, emotional validation, and the classroom environment created the educator. Moreover, she states that '*Acknowledging and considering students' emotions may lead to a healthy power structure and balanced milieu in the classroom where most of the academic emotions may be turned and used as motivational agents'* (Komlosi-Ferdinand, 2020, p. 16). Similarly, Butler (2019) points out, that emotions and cognition are now inseparable entities in successful learning. Swain (2013, p. 195) reinforces this thought by stating that 'emotions are an integral part of cognition'. Therefore, as learners associate a different degree of discipline and distinct emotional states and communication models with both groups of teachers, in consequence, contrasting classroom scenarios, student-teacher power structures and learning dynamics can be observed in the classrooms. This differentiation may have a profound effect on the learning success and the emotional-behavioural landscape of the whole school. Furthermore, once these patterns of attitudes become fossilized, they mould learners' perspectives on cultural sensitivity and on the social-emotional-intelligence rooted in both languages (Komlosi-Ferdinand, 2020). Moreover, Hill (2018) highlights that students' actions, behaviour and social reality is built upon the perception and interpretation of past events. Thus, negative experiences may considerably harm students' future prospects, as the intended goal in attending bilingual schools is often to secure a place in foreign higher education institutions. Wang's (2012) study draws attention on how 'new rich' Chinese students from high cultural capital families prioritise knowledge acquiring, eventually becoming globally educated and socio-culturally intelligent individuals, while learners from medium cultural capital upbringing mostly wish to ensure a good diploma from foreign universities in order to build a career and economic status. However, low cultural capital families' intellectual journey ends with the child being accepted to a university and eventually acquiring the diploma, which will be of no further use except taking pride in it as a decorative element. Hence, comparing students' attitudes and social-emotional responses towards both groups of teachers may help to develop some new strategies and policies that would benefit in educating real 'internationally minded' and 'global citizens' at these institutions (Tanu, 2016).

Symbolic Violence and Habitus

Pierre Bourdieu's several works may have great impact on bilingual schools' organizational practices, as in such institutions, languages (mother tongue and foreign language) are not simple communication tools or school subjects but they correspond to identities, social space and status. Bourdieu (1996, p. 22) claims: '*the social space is indeed the first and last reality, since it still commands the representations that the social agents can have of it*'. Moreover, Bourdieu's (1990b) 'habitus theory' highlights how a value system established by the individual's social background will condition and operate further thoughts, perceptions, responses and activities in the everyday life. In the case of students attending bilingual schools, the particular significance of this lies in the two clearly differentiated groups of local versus foreign teachers and the social spaces and status attributed to them. The two groups of teachers may be differentiated in multiple levels, such as local and foreign, higher and lower social space, or high and low intellectual capital, defined as the individuals' knowledge, skills and experiences that can be used as a currency in a variety of interpersonal and workplace related contexts (Tamer, Dereli & Sağlam, 2014). Students' attitudes towards these groups, therefore, will shape not only their education, but the development of their own social spaces, sensibility, intellect and identity (Sweeney, 2017). Moreover, Bourdieu's (1998) symbolic violence theory draws attention to the fact that in most domains, two coexisting social spaces necessarily experience power-plays, the establishment of hierarchy, and in some cases (symbolic) violence. Symbolic violence is described as a psychological and non-physical force executed by the higher social classes, whose norms are often unquestionably and automatically accepted. Furthermore, throughout his life Bourdieu maintained the notion that intellectuals will necessarily constitute part of the

'ruling class', or dominant social space, because of their cultural capital (Bourdieu 1990; Weininger, 2003). As the two social spaces are necessarily given at bilingual schools, it is vital to unveil the specific factors on which the hierarchy is established and whether it is linear and stable throughout all domains and contexts.

Language and Power

'*Language is used to demonstrate power in numerous contexts and power too is used to give language a particular meaning in a particular context*' (Pătrașcu & Allam, 2017, p.168). This statement is reinforced by Ashcroft, Griffiths and Tiffin (1989), who state that language can and does metamorphose into an instrument via perceptions and consciousness of 'truth', 'power' and 'reality' become confirmed and accepted. Moreover, according to Arazzi (2014), language is an ability distinctive to humans, which creates and moulds our perception about 'reality'. Nevertheless, she also points out that this 'reality' is constantly affected and impacted by the individual's circumstances and environment. Similarly, Jørgensen (2006) states that instead of perceiving language as the final organisational system of reality, it is, in fact the tool to create this desired state. Furthermore, Fairclough (1989, p.3) declares that '*language has become perhaps the primary medium of social control and power*'. These definitions reveal well the depth of how a language may be used to converge, diverge or manipulate ideas and events in contexts where multiple languages and identities coexist. Moreover, how a language is spoken, read, written and interpreted impacts the individual's self-perception and social standing (Fairclough, 1989). This is particularly true in multilingual schools. Fairclough (1989) points out how school's 'hidden agendas' use discourse and power to shape perceptions on social structures and social classes. Ultimately, Lewin's (1951) force-field theory discusses how two major factors, driving and restraining forces affect either positively or negatively events moving toward the desirable direction or goal. This phenomenon represents well the delicate equilibrium among languages and identities in bilingual schools, while the identity of the driving forces and restraining forces is yet to be determined when applied to students.

Research Questions

It is safe to say that in Ulaanbaatar, most bilingual schools strive for balanced outcomes in their education. Furthermore, they offer a new, global perspective on foreign language learning and use for personal development, as well as try to promote a more open society. These new perspectives often take shape in foreign teachers, as they are viewed as 'ambassadors' of foreign lands, allowing insight into a variety of cultures and customs often perceived as relevant in order to understand better the socio-cultural context of the foreign language taught. However, these educators' socio-cultural background and sometimes unfamiliar behaviours and teaching styles from the viewpoint of the local students may provoke unexpected attitudes and teaching-learning dynamics between students and teachers (Heyworth, 2004). The researcher's perception was that Mongolian pupils become confused by the [often drastically] different teaching styles of foreign educators, which, in turn, undermines their attitudes towards both the local and foreign teachers. Moreover, pupils associate language and identity with very specific behavioural styles, creating an unhealthy emotional milieu at the schools. In the light of this, two research questions were investigated:
1. Does identity play a role in Mongolian students' perception on different levels of power and respect towards foreign teachers as opposed to locals?
2. What linguistic and cultural factors shape students' identity in bilingual schools?

Methodology

Research Context

As Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) point out, understanding and researching a situation often requires long-term immersion in the system. Moreover, as all factors, rather than a limited number of variables, have to be taken into account in understanding a phenomenon, the methodology chosen for this study was qualitative research through observation, both in class and outside the class, to analyse the key factors that may influence learners' behaviour from societal and linguistic viewpoints. In addition, in order to have a more in-depth view, the researcher collected data on a weekly basis in the form of unstructured interviews with English-speaking and non-English speaking teachers (some of them acting as administrators as well), and students. Content

analysis was applied to all the data. The observation and interviews happened between the 1st of September 2018 and the 1st of December 2019.

The Participating Schools

The investigation took place in one of the first English-Mongolian bilingual schools of Ulaanbaatar, with 25 years of history of bilingual teaching, and in a newly opened bilingual school with the same curricula. The number of pupils in the first school was around 800, while the second school had around 300 students at the time of the research. The ratio of local teachers to foreign teachers was 90:10 in both schools. Both institutions' educational policy can be classified as a strong form of bilingual education for bilingualism and biliteracy according to Baker (2011). These schools were particularly suitable for the investigation, since, although being bilingual schools, approximately 95% of the students in both of them were Mongolian native speakers whose socio-economic backgrounds were very similar. Therefore, the attitudes displayed were not biased by different cultural influences.

Participating Teachers and Students

A total of 27 English speaking teachers (foreign and local) in both schools were involved in the investigation. In addition, some of the participating bilingual teachers regularly helped with data collection from the non-English speaking teachers by translating or interpreting their contributions. There was no restriction on the teachers' subject, since the attitudes towards teachers' nationalities were investigated. The foreign teachers were from North America (9), Russia (2), Western Europe (4), India (1) and Australia (1). Of them 11 held at least an MA. The rest also had BAs and teaching diplomas. None of the teachers were volunteers. Of the English-speaking Mongolian teachers, 7 held at least an MA while the other three had BA in different fields. Amongst the 9 non-English speaking educators, all of them were qualified teachers, attending duties as both classroom and subject teachers.

In total, 11 groups and approximately 320 students were observed. As some students left throughout the year and some new came, the number of students observed was not exact. The older students (from fifth to eleventh grade) were particularly happy to collaborate, 28 of them sharing their thoughts in a very open fashion during the class observation and informal interviews.

Procedure

All data were recorded by taking notes during the weekly meetings with the teachers, unless they had some particular stories during the week (which happened very often both on the local and foreign sides). The class observations and the out-of-class (often informal) interactions with the students were recorded by taking notes on a daily basis (Wragg, 1978, 1999). All teachers and the older students were conscious of the aim of research. All information was shared on a voluntary basis and clear consent was given to observe their classes. In the case of the younger students, who were not able to understand the concept of the present research, the local teacher explained it in Mongolian and with simplified terms. When observing the younger students, the classroom teachers' permission was obtained, as they are fully authorised by the parents to make any decision regarding the pupils during school hours. The data were coded by selective coding, as described by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) and analysed by clustering units by relevant content and meanings (Hycner, 1985).

The data, being qualitative, required an inductive analysis. This encompassed reading, reflecting on, inferring from and interpreting the raw transcripts. From this process, the researcher developed interpretations of the data and derived explanations and understandings which fairly and comprehensively explained the phenomenon (Thomas, 2006; Cohen *et al.*, 2018).

Results and Discussion

The present study investigates Mongolian students' perceptions and behaviour towards foreign and local teachers and the educators' attitude, while aiming to unveil how students' language and identity formation is

affected by both groups. The findings based on the interviews and observation identify significant contrasts in learners' attitudes towards local and foreign teachers. The study also identifies some interesting points in teachers' attitudes which may incite counterproductive behaviour in students, leading to confusion about how their national identity and their new global perspective should be balanced. The first research question shed light on how students' perceived identity is shaped by the level of power and respect they attributed to the local and foreign teachers.

Observations

During the classroom observations, it was impossible to precisely and adequately measure teacher-power exercised, yet comparing the lessons of both local and foreign teachers, the results show that pupils are considerably more respectful and obedient towards the local educators. It became obvious that learners of all ages have the utmost fear of Mongolian teachers, displaying flawless obedience and submission towards them. During the local teachers' lessons, homework and projects were delivered properly and on time, without ever questioning the amount, aim or 'compulsoriness' of it. On the other hand, students would constantly find more or less subtle ways to express their general dislike for local teachers as often and openly possible. Among these, the usage of negative body language (that would suggest resistance), specific noises (sighing loudly) and sometimes insulting them in English whenever they perceived not to be understood were regularly observed. This scenario caused much distress for the teachers, which, in turn, provoked their anger and they exercised even more pressure on the students. Nevertheless, this form of classroom management resulted in optimal attitudes towards learning and intense eagerness to succeed during the lessons and exams.

The general approach towards foreign teachers was manifested mostly in the opposite fashion. Learners often and openly displayed affection both physically (hugs) and verbally by shouting in the classrooms and corridors the degree of love they feel for most of them. The company and coaching of foreign teachers were often preferred, and pupils made extra efforts to connect with them on the social media as well. However, during the teaching and learning part, an extreme paradox could be observed. The foreign teachers may have already started the class, yet many of the students perceived no reason to stop interacting loudly, walking in the class, or even leaving the premises during the lessons. In general, discipline was completely inexistent in the classes, regardless of how much the foreign teachers tried to achieve it. Homework and projects were very seldom done, and the notebooks were regularly left at home (if they ever existed or used for the intended purposes). Additionally, two other interesting facts surfaced during the foreign teachers' lessons. The first one being that, although the foreign teacher explicitly asked silence in the classroom, students limited this request only to speaking English, yet they freely continued their discussion in Mongolian. When the teachers expressed anger and explained that silence meant the total avoidance of emitting sounds in any language, students regularly, week after week acted surprised declaring that they were not actually speaking. When the foreign teachers requested an explanation about this behaviour, students seemed perplexed, and some of them insulted the foreign teachers in Mongolian, thinking that they wouldn't be understood. This proved to be quite unfortunate, since some foreign teachers were fluent in Mongolian. At that point, teachers would reply to them in Mongolian, making it clear that they understood the insult and it was inappropriate to say such things. Following a short silent moment caused by the surprise, students would switch language and would mostly try to speak Mongolian to the teacher or finding new ways to mimic the teachers' accent and tease them about it. Nevertheless, as both schools' policy forbade foreigners to speak any Mongolian in the classroom, learners were simply asked to switch back to English. The fact that students realised that some foreigners could speak their language, caused no change in their attitude towards them. Apparently, if foreigners had some power in the classroom, this happened exclusively regarding the English language.

Students' Opinions

The learners' viewpoints were very uniform. As voiced by a ninth-grade student during the interviews, pupils' attitudes towards Mongolian teachers are shaped this way mostly due to wanting to gain their 'mercy' and to '*navigate easier between the unrealistic expectations of the teachers*'. A fifth-grade student commented laughing: '*Well, it's all about survival… Mongolian teachers are very scary*'. This declaration was passionately confirmed by his peers, and can be linked to their regularity in doing and submitting projects and homework, since according to them, this is a *must*, otherwise the local educators will be '*very, very angry*'. Some of them even stated that '*Mongolian teachers can hurt us'*. This is not intended to understand literally. Learners explained that because of local teachers being knowledgeable about locally acceptable forms of verbal and psychological discipline, the menace seemed imminent and real to them. As a student expressed: '*My teacher will 'kill' me if I don't behave*

well and finish my homework. Later she will call my mother about it, and she and my father will punish me very hard'. The most often voiced idea by the students referring to their local teachers is the most descriptive of all: '*S/he is Mongolian…S/he is strong… We Mongolians*-switching automatically to plural-*are strong.*' The continuous mantra of this idea has strongly suggested students' perception about Mongolian teachers and Mongolians in general to have a '*strong identity and strong will*' as a nation and individually as well. When students were enquired about their behaviour with foreign teachers, the overwhelming majority agreed that as opposed to Mongolian teachers who cause emotional stress and treat students in a too '*strict*' and '*humiliating*' way, foreigners were '*weaker*', '*kinder*' and '*funnier*'. Moreover, the vast majority of students felt that lessons with foreigners were '*less disciplined*', '*more outgoing*' and 'emotionally '*more accommodating*'. According to them, they never realized that this might be disrespectful. They perceived foreigners being '*cooler*', therefore, they believed it was appropriate to behave '*cooler*' too. Thus, according to many of them, there was no need to prepare or submit the foreign teacher's homework on time, in fact the overwhelming majority in all grades saw no need to do any homework assigned by the foreign teacher at all. In the view of a sixth grader '*Foreign teachers are nice, because we don't have to do anything in their lessons.*' Another sixth grader added: '*We do what we want, there will be no consequences, but they will give as good grades anyway.*'

In the Mongolian teachers' opinion, students disciplined behaviour was the basic norm in their classes, being this the expected teacher-student power structure, which gives the foundation of Mongolian society's behavioural hierarchy. As echoing the voice of the majority, a local teacher commented: '*The reasons for this student behaviour in the classroom lays in our [Mongolian] culture. Here in Mongolia, it is a country-wide accepted belief to push children further than their capacity, to overload them with endless pages of homework, to openly humiliate them in front of each other and to completely disregard students' emotions and their specific circumstances. When students want to talk about emotions, problems with their families or learning difficulties, we just tell them to stop complaining*'. Other local teachers stated that at the expense of sounding too harsh, their love for children has nothing to do with the strong discipline they applied in the classroom: *'It is just how it have to be'.* Nonetheless, local teachers were still unhappy about the degree of discipline and respect displayed by the students towards them. Their most often voiced complaints were 1) children being completely spoiled by their parents and, 2) foreign teachers' often less formal teaching style corrupting the students' proper attitudes (Rossabi, 2005; Sarlagtay, 2002). A local English teacher voiced her frustration and fear by stating that '*children in bilingual schools become trapped between two potentially good worlds. Neither they are perfectly proficient in Mongolian language and culture nor they learn English properly. Their sense of identity…well, they haven't got a proper identity*'. Another general understanding and very strong pushing force among the local teachers was that of acting in harmony with the parents' wish, as they wanted their children to '*become good Mongolians'.* A teacher said: '*Parents expect us to raise children according to the traditions…to be good Mongolians before everything else.* As commented, '*in Mongolia, patriotism and a strong and unambiguous identity is a basic pillar of their culture'.*

In sharp contrast with the students' declaring '*cool*' the lessons with the foreigners, they did not perceive such classroom scenarios as a positive experience, and they felt '*anxiety for being unable to teach anything because of the noise and chaos*'. One of the foreign teacher stated that '*during the first half of the lesson, I just try to silence everybody, however, as soon as I give any order (to open their notebook, or else…) the whole class starts shouting again, walk around and some even get out of the classroom. This is never ending… it feels like they will never understand… I cannot, really just cannot teach anything*!' Foreign teachers regularly expressed their wish to change this situation, to learn how to handle students and to develop better teaching and disciplinary strategies. Yet, this positive attitude usually tired out after only a few hours in the beginning of the day. After the lessons, their perspective changed quickly. A teacher declared: '*When I get into the class, I am positive…after a few minutes, I just focus on surviving the lesson, the day, the semester and the school year'.* A teacher added: *'Every time I think they respect me a little bit, it takes just a few minutes to see the reality again'.* Notably, as it was part of the foreign curricula, foreigners had to teach concepts that would promote students' understanding of global matters. This, according to most of the teachers went '*very unsuccessful'.* One teacher stated: *They (the students) refuse to understand and learn anything about the world. Any attempt to widen their horizon results in their contra-attack stating how Mongolians are more powerful, have better ideas and are stronger'.* The occurrence of such declarations were confirmed by all foreign teacher and were referred as not an isolated incidence.

The Big Picture
Based on the accounts and observation, most students attributed considerably more power and respect to the local educators regardless of the subject used in the classroom in both schools. On the societal level, the

Mongolian teachers, being very much aware of the general expectations, learned to fulfil the parents' every wish regarding their child's specific needs, and the ways students are expected to be educated according the Mongolian system (Fairclough, 1989; Poole, 2019). Therefore, if parents' expectations were met, all parties perceived it as '*social balance'* that is proper part of 'Mongolness' (Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 1989). Part of this balance was synonymous of speaking the local language (Arazzi, 2014). Their mother tongue, the same language spoken by the parents, the language of the students' heart, in which they interact, dream and express their desires and sorrows, has a deeper emotional impact on them (Kaplonski, 2004). This was clear in most cases, as students assigned more value to their native language and to the local teachers capable of speaking it perfectly, but not to the foreign teachers who were fluent in Mongolian. Clearly, at this point, language, ethnicity and identity were unbreakably associated (Pătraşcu & Allam, 2017), and language and power became synonymous, even in circumstances that altered this bond for brief instances, such as lessons with foreign teachers (Ashcroft, Griffiths and Tiffin,1989; Fairclough, 1989; Jørgensen, 2006).

Paradoxically, foreign teachers enjoyed more emotional trust and confidence regarding learners' everyday lives, struggles, future plans and their frustration towards the Mongolian education system and local educators (Hanson, 2004). This phenomenon was particularly interesting, since due to many pupils' being deficient in the English language, often the whole meaning and particularly the depth of the communication with the foreigners was entirely lost, or just partly conveyed. This utmost capability of emotional adaptation was previously confirmed by a study on Mongolian students' emotions towards the teachers, which unveils that learners often mirror their teachers' conduct, manners and mood (Komlosi-Ferdinand, 2020). Nevertheless, this skill did not alter their sense of belonging and duty, when their identity, native language and social space had to be prioritised (Bourdieu,1996; Fairclough,1989; Feng Teng & Lixun, 2020).

The second research question explores the ways linguistic and cultural factors may shape students' identity in bilingual schools. The results unveil how manifestations of teacher-power condition students' national identity, attitudes and understanding towards foreign cultures and their values. Emotions, as a factor of possible divergence or convergence in the bilingual educational panorama is considered, while similarities, contrasts and strategic manoeuvres in teachers' behaviours are explored with the aim of identifying elements for possible future policies for bilingual schools.

Observations
A very conflicting and tense educational scenario unfolded in both schools. Mongolian teachers, ignoring the bilingual nature of the institutions, strongly reinforced their identity and linguistic power and tried to exercise control over the foreigners' teaching strategies, while foreigners strongly pushed students to think and behave in a 'global' way that placed little importance on their cultural and social values. As a result, learners were entrapped in an environment that, to the contrary of the intended goal by the school, caused divisions and power-games. Students, driven by their national identity, as propelled by local educators, attributed less value to the education by foreign teachers. This was further conditioned by the fact that learners were often disapproved and disheartened by foreign teachers, particularly if their English language skills were not high enough, attributing this to the students' perceived intellectual deficiency. Nevertheless, as foreign teachers' availability out of the classes and less formal attitudes contrasted strongly with local teachers' strict conduct, this attracted students towards developing a more foreign-style behaviour, even having limited comprehension about the foreign language. This duality produced a very interesting outcome, not necessarily in a positive fashion. As there was no existing policy by neither of the schools regarding the psychological features of bilingual education, and learners could observe the tension between the local and foreign teachers, this caused an emotionally negative and chaotic environment.

Students' Opinion
Learners associated Mongolia and Mongolian teachers with their own identity, yet the foreign teachers' influence and the fact that they had a sense of relax and carelessness with them, promoted their wish to modify their views to a certain degree. A ninth grade student stated: '*I am Mongolian and Mongolia is the best country... but I want to get out of here to study abroad and to live abroad*'. When asked, whether they will respect more foreign teachers in a foreign country, the same student replied: '*I do respect foreign teachers...they are cool...we don't have to do much with them, but at least they listen to us.*' As the conversation unfolded with several students of the same class, it became clear that they believe that education in countries other than Mongolia were thought to be much easier and undemanding. To illustrate this, a seventh grade student with the utmost

seriousness asked a foreign teacher: *'Well, actually, I haven't decided yet...what do you think should I pick Oxford or Cambridge?'* When asked, most students strongly declined the idea of attending a local university, as it was thought to provide '*worthless and corrupt education'*.

Teachers' Opinion

The current teaching panorama in bilingual schools presents a challenge for teachers. As reported by the local teachers, in traditional Mongolian culture parents allow children (particularly in early childhood) to behave in a very unconfined fashion, regardless of the consequences, expecting these 'sweet' childhood memories to move their offspring in the future to care for them. This behavioural pattern is usually magnified in wealthy families who have more means to support their children's every wish. This attitude is naturally transferred to school, where parents and children expect teachers to display understanding, supportive and even submissive attitudes. Local teachers are well-aware of these expectations and know how to handle specific socio-cultural issues, which at times may seem to be contradictory with the teachers' strictness. However, as having different cultural background and different educational practices, foreign teachers may react unexpectedly and even emotionally to these paradoxical expectations (Heyworth, 2004). In the light of this, Mongolian teachers often rather aggressively reminded both learners and foreign teachers that they were in Mongolia, and education should be embedded in the local culture, according to local values (Rossabi, 2005) and any other instruction can be ignored without consequences. A local teacher stated: '*Yes, I know that this is a bilingual school, and it is okay that kids learn English, but they are Mongolian!'* Another local teacher added: '*I always encourage children to respect every teacher...but, you know, they are Mongolians and really have to learn the Mongolian ways first, as this is the society they live in'*. Moreover, as many Mongolian teachers declare, lack of strategies and even anarchy are part of their culture (Baabar, 1990), and this can be perceived at the schools as well. The most immediate manifestation of this phenomenon reflects in the lack of consequences of any sort in any domains. A local teacher explained it this way: '*We Mongolians are strong and adapt to everything, this is our culture...and here (in the country and at the schools), believe me, there are many unexpected things happening'*. Interestingly, however, this seemed to be addressed mostly towards the foreign teachers, as locals had very low tolerance for '*unexpected'* events in their classrooms and daily working routine.

Most foreign teachers were uncomfortable with their Mongolian colleagues' ideas. A foreign teacher stated: '*They invite us here, because they (the school admin) want children to learn from us...but later we are just ignored by everyone.'* Foreign educators believed that bilingual education should be seen 'democratically' and that parents would opt for this type of expensive bilingual education because of the foreign presence, and the values attributed to them. Therefore, they often emphasized the importance of 'global-mindedness', which would often manifest itself in creating 'expat' style students, ignoring their cultural background and the fact that their first language, Mongolian, is strongly linked to their traditions and their societal standing (Heyworth, 2004). Additionally, foreigners often complained at an official level about being treated disrespectfully by their Mongolian colleagues in front of the students, which caused anger, frustration and tension in visible ways. A foreign teacher angrily stated: '*Day after day, I arrive to the classroom, but the local teacher refuses to get out...she continues to speak to the kids, collects notebooks...and when I remind her that my lesson has started, she visibly 'suffers' and behaves angrily. This sends a very, very wrong message to the kids'*. Another teacher declared: '*The students can see that we are just clowns here...then they treat us as such...they will think that all foreigners are just stupid'*.

The Big Picture

The question of how linguistic and cultural factors in bilingual schools can influence and mould their learners' identity is of particular importance. The aim of bilingual education should not cause divisions and create two restraining forces, but two driving or positive forces towards a healthy language and identity equilibrium as explained by Lewin (1951). The reports from the participants and the observations expose nationalistic behaviour from both groups of teachers (Cohen, 2004; Tamer, Dereli & Sağlam, 2014), which, in turn, shapes learners' perceptions and attitudes. In fact, children internalising contradictory social and emotional behaviours at school create a foundation for an unhealthy social disposition and a negative emotional milieu, which may affect successful learning (Swain, 2013; Butler 2019; Komlosi-Ferdinand, 2020). Although students reside in their own country, the observed and [sometimes] inspired negative attitudes in bilingual schools may discourage acceptance of diversity. This intolerance for heterogeneity, in turn, may manifest eventually not only in the classroom, but in personal relationships, at future workplaces and in attitudes with people perceived as socially, racially, economically or intellectually different (Hill, 2018). From the foreign perspective, teachers

are too often helpless when facing such events and have difficulties to design and implement teaching strategies that create balance between cultural needs and global attitudes (Sarlagtay, 2002; Jørgensen, 2006). At the same time, local teachers demonstrate being considerably more knowledgeable on how to manoeuvre in the mentioned educational-cultural maze and its widely accepted and long-standing cultural elements (Hanson, 2004).

The implications of such management involve more than a simple (dis)identification and biased behavioural patterns in Mongolian schoolchildren. As opposed to fostering international mindedness and flexibility of thought, it may endanger students' understanding of societal appropriateness, realistic world-view and may draw biased conclusion on the nature of acceptable emotional and communicational skills, while may nurture classist opinions (Tanu, 2016; Schippling, 2018). Currently, the bilingual education system in Mongolia shows traces of these fossilised behaviours and practice (Cravens, 2018). Moreover, if bilingual education and 'global mindset' are perceived only as a symbol of status for the parents, yet, within the schools 'Mongolian ways' are encouraged [and not in the sense of intellectual capital, but nationalism], the real purpose, value and potentially positive outcomes are easily lost. This loss can be considered even greater, if the result and consequence of such practices, instead of encouraging, discourages the learners' curiosity, love for diversity and cultural tolerance (Koh, 2014).

It is of key importance to state that most of the learners graduating from these institutions intend to study abroad, which makes it difficult to comprehend the lack of strategies offered by the schools to overcome the confusion, and to aim for more balance in developing appropriate perceptions about languages and identity (Fearon, 1999; Heyworth, 2004). On the other hand, a particularly thought-provoking contrast can be observed in Mongolian learners' attitudes and perceptions towards foreign languages and cultures in bilingual versus national educational systems. A previous study amongst Mongolian learners from the mainstream education system reported very positive attitudes, open-mindedness and flexibility towards foreign languages, cultures and their speakers (Komlosi-Ferdinand, 2019). Therefore, it becomes clear that the problem may not lie in the Mongolian society itself but the erroneous power practices allowed in bilingual schools attended by homogeneous, local children.

Such identity struggles are not unique to Mongolian schools, as bilingual education is always embedded in a sociolinguistic, political, cultural and philosophical context and it rarely reflects only educational preferences or curriculum choices (Baker, 2011; Appel & Muysken, 1987). This occurrence is well confirmed by an identical scenario reported by Fader (2007, p. 12) in a Hasidic school in New York. According to his report, children took more seriously and respected more the educators conducting their lessons in Yiddish, as opposed to teachers teaching subjects through the medium of English. In fact, during an interview an eleven-year-old student declared about his English teacher: '*S'iz nisht kan teacher. S'iz a babysitter*' ['That's not a teacher. That's a babysitter']. Somewhat similarly, in the Mongolian bilingual educational context, three coexisting social and cultural spaces were found, such as the local teachers, foreign teachers and the students, who already belonged to a peculiarly and unevenly mixed social space. It was, in fact, expected to have some minor misunderstandings based on cultural and linguistic differences, which could be seen as natural and not necessarily negative in any similar scenario. However, the behaviour of the local teachers confirmed well Bourdieu's (1998) symbolic violence theory, as Mongolian teachers vigorously exercised it, or at least attempted to do it, in the general teaching panorama against both students and foreigners. The Mongolian teachers were undoubtedly perceived as the higher social class and the bearers of the stronger cultural capital because of their knowledge of the students' culture, language and the strong collaboration with the parents. However, the cultural and educational differences displayed by the foreign teachers and the unconventional behaviour and attitudes of the students triggered (consciously or not) strong symbolic violence from them, possibly trying to nurture the social space considered proper by them and the parents. Here, by no means the foreign teachers are 'victimised', but rather the students, who would, or already have become confused regarding their own social spaces and status, and did not embrace the new, flexible and wider perceptions which the schools should have fostered. Furthermore, the Mongolian teachers' dominance in their field has strongly reinforced Bourdieu's (1990) habitus theory confirming Mongolian educators' role in shaping and strengthening early concepts of identity and their role in future behaviours and opinions. This became clear, as students' value system and responses often reflected the local teachers' attitude and thought processes, in perceiving foreign educators as deserving less respect and requiring less seriousness and effort in their classes. While the habitus theory describes perfectly the ways proper cultural and ethical standards can be instilled in students, in this particular case it manifested in a

'resistance-habitus' against the foreign teachers and the global values intended to be promoted by the schools. Therefore, the Mongolian teachers' attitude would have been understandable in the national educational system, but by no means in a bilingual educational context aiming to promote globalness. On the other hand, the foreign teachers' lack of knowledge and training of the local culture may have involuntarily triggered a stronger response in their Mongolian colleagues. Here, the responsibility of the schools clearly surfaces, as such complications must be identified, addressed and proper training and policies must be developed.

The present study identified some critical factors that determine, modify and/or bias learners' identity and attitudes towards local and foreign educators in Mongolian bilingual schools. Nowadays in Mongolia, bilingual schools' ethnic composition shows an almost completely homogeneous student population, and bilingual education is mostly manifested by the presence of foreign teachers, who embody the 'the other side' or the expected source of global education. The findings reveal that students' national identity is a crucial factor that differentiates their attitudes towards local and foreign teachers. On a daily basis, learners manifested noticeably more fear from, and respect towards local teachers, and the discipline and more positive learning outcome in their classes were obvious. The Mongolian teachers, being knowledgeable about the social expectations and the parents' wishes, educated learners according the Mongolian system (Fairclough, 1989; Poole, 2019). This was perceived very positively by them and the parents, as it was viewed as the manifestation of social 'balance' that is proper part of 'Mongolness' (Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 1989). The pillar of this balance was speaking the local language, synonymous to identity according to them (Kaplonski, 2004; Arazzi 2014). The inseparableness of language and identity was also manifested in the fact, that foreign teachers, even those who were capable to understand and speak Mongolian, were not taken seriously and were often ridiculed. Therefore, race and identity were unshakably associated, and power and language became commensurate (Ashcroft, Griffiths, & Tiffin,1989; Fairclough, 1989; Jørgensen, 2006). On the other hand, foreign teachers were perceived positively, but not seriously. As they were considered more outgoing and less strict, respect towards them was shown mostly in an emotional, friendly fashion, while their educational requirements were completely ignored, as often they were considered 'weaker' in comparison with the local teachers. Students' perception about the two groups of educators in their professional quality was heavily influenced by their national identity and by the social space and status (Bourdieu, 1996) reinforced and promoted by the local educators. Moreover, while their positive emotional attitude towards foreigners seemed not to alter their mindset and identity considerably (Fairclough,1989; Feng Teng & Lixun, 2020), it created a special social space not fully coinciding with the one intended by the Mongolian teachers. As seen, emotions, identity, language and power were heavily intertwined and proved to be the decisive factor that conditioned many of the decisions and attitudes in the schools (Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 1989; Jørgensen, 2006; Swain, 2013; Arazzi, 2014; Butler, 2019).

Very specific elements were identified that shape learners' identity and further cognitive and behavioural development in bilingual schools. Most importantly, local teachers could interact with pupils in their native language, the language of their hearts, which played essential part in their identity formation and is considered as an essential part of their culture. This confirmed Bourdieu's (1990) habitus theory, with particular emphasis on how learners' developing value system was conditioned by their ethnic, cultural and social background. In both schools, students received considerable pressure from local teachers to strengthen and further develop this habitus. Nevertheless, for learners manoeuvring between the local societal and cultural expectations and the foreign influence often led to confusion and inappropriate behaviour. This, as opposed to an ideal state described in Lewin's force-field theory, showed two pushing forces. Here, instead of moving towards a balanced state, students are pushed into two completely different directions, thus alienating any possible point of convergence between the two languages, cultures and the opportunity of developing a new global aspect of the pupils' identity. The presence of these two pushing forces created distress among the teachers as well. In line with Bourdieu's (1998) symbolic violence theory, locals exercised considerable symbolic violence on both learners and foreign teachers. In reality, local and foreign educators intended to provide the best educational strategies known by them, yet they proceeded according to their culturally acceptable approach, without proper understanding, tools and policies to stabilize the impending linguistic and cultural shock faced by the students. This phenomenon led to an academically and emotionally imbalanced environment in the schools. Therefore, the initial objective of educating bilingually and bi-culturally competent and balanced global-minded individuals has failed.

Conclusion

The present research has identified some key areas for improvement in bilingual schools. Since in a growing number of countries bilingual education has no real bilingual context and culture, and learners are from the same ethnic/linguistic background, the creation of new educational strategies is urgently needed. Both local and foreign teachers should attend specific inter-cultural courses especially designed for the educational panorama of the target country. Learners should have readily available resources and discussions with teachers and school psychologist, where foreign language and culture-related emotional intelligence and appropriate behaviours are taught. Moreover, school administration should design and display clear policies on the nature and aims of bilingual education, which is respectful towards the local culture, yet highlights the benefits of bilingualism and its cognitive and cultural advantages. While this study offers some insight into the drama of language and identity in bilingual schools in Ulaanbaatar, it is limited by its geographical location and by the specific culture where it was investigated. Further research is much needed on educational leadership in bilingual schools and the development of intercultural literacy courses. Finally, in Rhydwen's (1998, p.101) words: '*Language…is intimately connected with people and it cannot be treated simply as an intellectual puzzle to be solved.*'

Acknowledgements

References

Appel, R., & Muysken, P. (1987). *Language Contact and Bilingualism*. Edward Arnold.

Arazzi, W. E. (2014). *Language and power in the media: The Geoff Hunt murder-suicide* [Unpublished paper]. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Emma_Campbell44/publication/301302890_Language_and_Power_in_the_Media/links/571181d508ae4ef74524b40b/Language-and-Power-in-the-Media.pdf

Ashcroft, B., Griffiths, G. & Tiffin, H. (Eds.) (1989). *The Empire Writes Back: Theory and practice in post-colonial literatures*. Routledge.

Baabar. (1990). Büü Mart! In D. Snaeth & C. Kaplonski (Eds.) *The history of Mongolia (1028-1038)* (vol. 3, pp. 1001-1011). Global Oriental. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004216358_053

Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingualism and bilingual education*. Multilingual Matters.

Bourdieu, P. (1990). *In other words: Essays towards a reflexive Sociology* (M. Adamson, Trans.). Stanford University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1990b). *The logic of practice* (R. Nice, Trans.). Stanford University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1996). *Physical space, social space and habitus* [Lecture notes]. https://archives.library.illinois.edu/erec/University%20Archives/2401001/Production_website/pages/StewardingExcellence/Physical%20Space,%20Social%20Space%20and%20Habitus.pdf

Bourdieu, P. (1998). *Practical reason: On the Theory of action*. Stanford University Press.

Bunnell, T. (2019). *International schooling and education in the 'New Era': Emerging issues*. Emerald.

Butler, Y. O. (2019). Linking noncognitive factors back to second language learning: New theoretical directions. *System, 86*, 102-127. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.102127

Cohen, R. (2004). The current status of English education in Mongolia. *Asian EFL Journal, 6*(4), 1-29.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (Eds), 2018. *Research methods in education*. Routledge.

Cravens, X. (2018). School leadership in international schools: Perspectives and practices. *Peabody Journal of Education, 5*, 584-588. https://doi.org/10.1080/0161956X.2018.1515818

Dos Santos, L.-M. (2019). Recruitment and retention of international school teachers in remote archipelagic countries: The Fiji experience. *Educational Sciences, 9*(132), 2-16. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci9020132

Fader, A. (2007). Reclaiming sacred sparks linguistic syncretism and gendered language shift among Hasidic Jews in New York. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology, 17*(1), 1-22. https://doi.org/10.1525/jlin.2007.17.1.1

Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and power*. Longman.

Fearon, J. D. (1999). *What is identity (as We Now Use the Word)?* [Draft]. https://web.stanford.edu/group/fearon-research/cgi-bin/wordpress/wp-content/uploads/2013/10/What-is-Identity-as-we-now-use-the-word-.pdf

Feng Teng, M., & Lixun, W. (2020). *Identity, motivation and multilingual education in Asian Contexts*. Bloomsbury Academic

Hanson, J. (2004). *Nations in transition: Mongolia*. Facts on File.

Heyworth, M. (2004). *Intercultural Literacy and the International School* [Doctoral thesis, University of Tasmania]. Tasmania. https://eprints.utas.edu.au/423/2/02Whole.pdf.pdf

Hill, I. (2015). What is an 'International School'? *International Schools Journal, XXXV*(1), 60-70.

Hill, I. (2018). A subjectivist model of school leadership for international schools: Greenfield revisited. *Peabody Journal of Education, 93*(5), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.1080/0161956x.2018.1515827

Hycner, R. H. (1985). Some guidelines for the phenomenological analysis of interview data. *Human Studies, 8*, 279-303. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00142995

Jørgensen, K. M. (2006). *Power and language*. Aalborg Institut for Uddannelse. https://vbn.aau.dk/en/publications/sprog-og-magt

Kaplonski, C. (2004). Democracy comes to Mongolia. In D. Snaeth & C. Kaplonski (Eds.), *The history of Mongolia* (1039-1050) (vol. 3, pp. 1039-1059). Global Oriental. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004216358_057

Koh, A. (2014). Mobile Curriculum. In Arber, R., Blackmore, J. & Vongalis-Macrow, A. (Eds.), *Mobile teachers, teacher identity and international schooling* (pp. 25-41). Sense Publishers.

Komlosi-Ferdinand, F. (2019). New Language –New Emotions? The Role of Emotional Intelligence While Learning Foreign Languages in Mongolia. *Mongolian Journal of English Langauge and Culture Studies, 9*, 20-33.

Komlosi-Ferdinand, F. (2020). Academic emotions and emotional validation as motivating and demotivating factors in the ESL classroom: A Mongolian case study. *REIRE Revista d'Innovació i Recerca en Educació, (13)*1, 1-21. http://doi.org/10.1344/reire2020.13.127522

Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science*. Harper & Row.

May, T. M. (2009). *Culture and customs of Mongolia*. Greenwood Press.

Meneghella, K., Walsh, J., & Sawagvudcharee, O. (2019). Strategies to maximise staff retention among millenial teachers in Bankok international schools. *Asian Social Science, 15*(8), 70-85. https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v15n8p70

Milošević, O. (2019). The Importance of mother tongue maintenance in international schools. *Nastava i Vaspitanje, 68*(2), 251-263. https://doi.org/10.5937/nasvas1902251M

Pătraşcu, E., & Allam, M. (2017). *Language of power and world peace*. In Debating globalization. Identity, Nation and Dialogue (pp. 167-172), Tîgru Mures. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/338161767_LANGUAGE_OF_POWER_AND_THE_WORLD_PEACE

Poole, A. (2019). Teacher (in)discretion in international schools. *On Education Journal for Research and Debate, 2*(5), 1-5. https://doi.org/10.17899/on_ed.2019.5.1

Rhydwen, M. (1998). Strategies for doing the possible. In N. Olster (Ed.), Endangered Languages: What role for the specialist? *Proceedings of the Second FEL Conference, University of Edinburgh* (pp. 25-27). Foundation for Endangered Languages.

Rossabi, M. (2005). *Modern Mongolia*. University of California Press.

Sarlagtay, S. O. (2002). Current Mongolian cultural problems: Internal and external. *The Mongolian Journal of International affairs, 8*(9), 99-105.

Schippling, A. (2018). Researching international schools: Challenges for comparative educational research. *Revista Lusofona de Educação, 41*, 193-204. https://doi.org/10.24140/issn.1645-7250.rle41.12

Swain, M. (2013). the inseparability of cognition and emotion in second language learning. *Language Teaching, 46*(2), 195-207. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000486

Sweeney, C. (2017). *Social class, habitus and reflexivity: An analysis of trainee teachers' understandings* [Unpublished doctoral thesis]. University of Brighton.

Tamer, I., Dereli, B. & Sağlam, M. (2014). Unorthodox forms of capital in organizations: Positive psychological capital, intellectual capital and social capital. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 152*, 963 – 972.

Tanu, D. (2016). Unpacking 'Third Culture Kids': The transnational lives of young people at an international school in Indonesia. *Journal of Research in International Education, 15*(3), 275-276. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240916669081

Thomas, D. R. (2006) A general inductive approach for analysing qualitative evaluation data. *American Journal of*

Education, *27*(2), 237–46. https://doi.org/10.1177/1098214005283748

Wang, Y. (2012). Ethical intervention versus capital imaginaries: A class analysis of the overseas schooling choice of the Chinese 'New Rich'. *Joint AARE APERA International Conference, Sydney*. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED542343.pdf

Weenink, D. (2008). Cosmopolitanism as a form of capital: Parents preparing their children for a globalising world. *Sociology, 42*(6), 1089-1106.

Weininger, E. (2005). Pierre Bourdieu on social class and symbolic violence. In E. O. Wright (Ed.), *Approaches to class analysis* (pp. 119-171). Cambridge University Press.

Wragg, E. C. (1978). *Conducting and analysing interviews*. University of Nottingham, School of Education, TRC Rediguides.

Wragg, E. C. (1999). *An introduction to classroom observation*. Routledge.

Seven Deadly Sins: Culture's Effect on Scholarly Editing and Publishing

Lilia Raitskaya[1], Elena Tikhonova[2,3]

[1] Moscow State Institute of International Relations (MGIMO University)

[2] National Research University Higher School of Economics

[3] Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University)

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Elena Tikhonova, National Research University Higher School of Economics, 11 Pokrovsky Bulvar, Pokrovka Complex, room S313, Moscow, 109028, Russian Federation. E-mail: etihonova@hse.ru

The opinion piece aims to draw readers' attention to the effects cultures other than English-related ones exert on the processes of scholarly editing and publishing. Non-Anglophone writers with little academic English skills or a weak command of English tend to face desk-rejections or very difficult and time-consuming rounds of edits and revisions. Second-language researchers often are biased toward national schools of thought with the most prominent international research ignored. Such authors are unaware of the recent developments in their field on a global scale and are sometimes prone to misunderstanding scientific and academic genres in the internationally accepted mode. Non-Anglophone writers are also inclined toward native-language patterns of thought and, consequently, rhetorical schemas different from English. Such second-language researchers may have their specific understanding of ethics and criticism, responding to the latter in an unexpectedly harsh way. This combination of factors can lead to unoriginal, vague, unimportant, and unacceptable submissions to international journals, resulting in failures to disseminate their research globally. The authors share their approaches to curbing unpleasant and inefficient experiences for second-language contributors, editors, and reviewers.

Keywords: high-ranking journal, scholarly editing, rhetoric schema, international journal, academic genre, academic writing

Introduction

Scholarly writing, editing, and publishing are global in their nature. The internationalisation of science has had a great impact on the ways new knowledge is produced and disseminated, with some outstanding national practices still preserved. Scholarly writing cannot help being understood within historical, social, cultural, and epistemological contexts (Sadeghi & Alinasab, 2020).

Multilingual writers across the countries and disciplines operate in their national languages and often resort to English "to facilitate national scholarly exchange of ideas" (Salager-Meyer, 2014, p. 78). Scholarly sources that are considered high-ranking, mainstream, elite, top-tier, reputed, or centre scholarly sources are mainly produced in English (Salager-Meyer, 2014). As top-tier scholarly journals are essentially Anglophone, English second-language (L2) writers, or nonnative speakers (NNSs) (Flowerdew, 2001) across the globe are highly motivated "to communicate new knowledge in English" as their research will get better international visibility (Sheldon, 2011, p. 238). There are various motivational drivers that prompt researchers to get their manuscripts published in reputed English-language journals. The most cited reasons include collaboration or networking, the funding of research, promotion or tenure, and contributing to society (Lambovska & Yordanov, 2020).

Historically, in some regions and countries, there were traditional genres of science writing, nation-specific perceptions of criticism, and academic disputes. The cultural load of writing implies a fundamental relationship between language and culture. The cultural aspects occasionally impede understanding or even erect some barriers to successful scholarly communication.

Opinion Article

Anglophone editors and referees outline various generic problems in L2 writers' submissions. In addition to surface errors, a lack of proficiency in scientific writing skills, unintelligible writing, weak analysis, incorrect or inadequate methodology, inconclusive results (Somashekhar, 2020), the absence of authorial voice, parochialism, nativized varieties of English (Flowerdew, 2001), less facility of expression (Flowerdew & Wang, 2016), and occasional violations of ethics may occur.

Judging from our personal and professional experience and the surveys conducted among authors, reviewers, and editors, a number of issues were singled out that should not escape the attention of the wider scholarly community. We found, at least, seven issues closely connected to the cultural backgrounds of participants in the research-and-publishing process that editors and reviewers should be aware of.

Unchecked Responses to Critical Feedback from Reviewers and Editors

When reviewing submissions, difficulties, including misunderstandings, arise. Authors belonging to Eastern and non-Western cultures, i.e. cultures with high particularism, often tend to be more sensitive to criticism (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). If such writers are well-established or prominent authorities on a subject area at national levels, they are not inclined to thoroughly revise their submissions, especially if criticism is related to structuring their manuscript or their bibliographic base with a bias towards national schools of thought, with leading international publications fundamentally ignored.

In some countries (e.g. high particularism is evidenced in Venezuela, Indonesia, China, South Korea, and countries from the former Soviet Union), criticism is rather formal and is put into subtle figures of speech, specific to the language and culture. In particularism-based cultures, some criticism may follow a long list of laudatory compensatory statements. When reviewing submissions, we often face quite aggressive responses to criticism that is untypical of cultures based on universalism, which focuses on rules (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997).

Experience obtained by authors helps the process a great deal. They see how scholarly publishing operates in high-ranking journals and, finally, realize that in reviewing, it is not the criticism that matters but the quality of the submissions and final versions of the manuscripts.

Different Understandings of Some Aspects of Science Ethics

Ethics is not universal, despite the internalisation of science. Some national practices may differ from international norms. For example, in Eastern European countries and Russia, authors used to include texts of their published articles in monographs without any changes, as self-citation in such contexts was not considered unethical. In Israel, many researchers are in the habit of bringing out their previously published Hebrew-language articles in English, passing them off as original publications. The above examples are practice-related and need to be studied more broadly. With international practices coming to the fore, academics in the aforementioned countries are beginning to treat self-citation in the international mode. However, there are still practices in specific countries that may be in contrast with the internationally accepted ones.

National and international science editors and the greater publishing community must lead in spreading international norms of publishing ethics across disciplines and countries. Researchers at large should be informed of the changing ethical landscape. Experienced editors at international journals are certain to realize all the risks connected to submissions by non-core scholarly contributors.

Prominence of Research: International vs National

Citing local or internationally important sources and local or internationally prominent research themes are closely interrelated as the locality of research is usually linked to the national schools of thought. In the same sense, some authors (Anderson-Levitt, 2014) refer to the importance of research. Wide national differences exist in what is considered important or prominent. They are attached to topics central to a particular part of the globe (Anderson-Levitt, 2014).

In submitted manuscripts from some countries, we see that references are overwhelmingly attributed to publications authored by their countrymen. Such a bias is typical of countries less open to internationalisation where academics have limited access to international sources and databases like Scopus and Web of Science. They often have no subscriptions to high-tier journals in their areas of research. Unfortunately, such submissions may be deficient in their relevance and prominence. If authors are not aware of the recent global developments in their field, their research becomes focused on themes interesting only for local or national scientists.

Some non-Anglophone writers are multilingual and can reposition "their literary-academic presences from their national contexts" to a global one and dilute their authors' voices among the core scientific community (Larson, 2018, p. 521). The core here refers to the core in the discursive system as opposed to the periphery and semi-periphery seen as a combination of three elements: linguistic, epistemological, and material (Larson, 2018).

The core in the discursive system operates through English and argumentation complied with Cartesian scientific rationalism. Second-language writers, able to completely align with the core, tend to succeed in publishing in top-tier journals, but their voices are blurred within their national scholarly community. Some of them are disengaged from national science, especially if invited to conduct studies and lecture at foreign universities (Harbord, 2018).

Citing National Schools of Thought: Beating about the Bush?

Non-Anglophone scholarly writers who turn to academic and literary brokers or translating services as well as L2 writers with a weak command of academic English are rarely aware of the recent publications in high-ranking English-language journals. There are at least two pieces of evidence proving the statement: references in periphery journals and the share of general citations in high-ranking journals. For instance, a citation analysis of the six leading journals on higher education attracted only 2.2 percent originating from non-OECD regions (Tight, 2014).

Second-language contributors like those mentioned above are not in the habit of regularly reading new articles. Thus, the bibliographic base of these researchers' submissions is often dominated by national or occasionally regional authors. It is sometimes surprising to find that the cited articles miss the most influential research on the topic, narrowed to unknown names of academics whose articles are second-tier for the field or far from being original. Moreover, sources and articles cited in such submissions are often not covered by popular databases, have no digital object identifier (doi), and are nearly invisible for international readers. In other words, such citations are dubious and earn no credibility.

Submissions from contributors of this kind are likely to be rejected. They often lack many essential components, including novelty and prominence, originality, a contribution to the academic field, as well as adequate style, rhetoric schemas, and format.

National schools of thought must share their progress with the wider scholarly community, but only within the contexts of regional and global science. National science cannot remain and develop in vacuum as if nobody had researched anything before.

Mother-Tongue Based vs English-Language Patterns of Thought

Language-related patterns of thought translate into the rhetorical structure of the text. Consequently, "second-language researchers may be influenced by the rhetorical patterns of their native language" (Sheldon, 2011, p. 238). As those patterns in many languages are sometimes too far from the ones typical of English, native English editors and reviewers may misunderstand the message or become irritated by too detailed or superfluous information.

Fluent L2 writers tend to mimic lots of native English-language patterns in their writing, with their native language patterns interfering less as compared with novice second-language authors. The former still may

prefer submitting their manuscripts to international journals where global English is a norm, with non-Anglophone editors. The statement may be found quite disputable and needs further studying.

Nation-Specific Understanding of Genres of Scholarly Writing

Genres of written scholarly communication across the globe are becoming uniform. Genres are indissociable from social and procedural knowledge (Ketabi & Rahavard, 2013). Therefore, there are historical and cultural differences in understanding what each genre implies. Genres are aligned with patterns of thought, moves and steps, and lexical bundles. They may also be more or less preferred in particular disciplines. It can be challenging for L2 writers to realize that the same-named genres in their native language may have not much in common with the corresponding genres in English.

English Texts Produced by Native Speakers and L2 Writers: Rhetoric Moves and Steps

Proficient L2 scholarly writers may succeed in going along with English-language rhetoric schemas in their texts. However, mother-tongue interference occasionally distorts the rhetorical structure and, thus, is likely to lead to misunderstandings or a poor perception of the scholarly message. Academics, especially young and new-career, often let their L1 or native language influence rhetorical moves and steps in their English writing. Learning to naturally express thought according to rhetoric patterns of a language is the mastery level of fluency (Alamri, 2020).

The problem lies in very specific language-related patterns of thought. If English patterns are straightforward and close to formal logic, other languages are prone to zigzagging, either parallel or non-parallel, digression or going off the point (Kaplan, 1966). One more stigma of other language rhetoric is the scope of detailing and background. Some languages allow more backdrop information, or loosely associated sidelines of the story being told. For Anglophone editors or reviewers, such texts abound in excessive information or are overloaded and cumbersome to understand.

Submissions in humanities and social sciences written in English in accordance with such foreign schemas are often desk-rejected. Writings in sciences tend to become a little less important as key information is transmitted via formulas. Wording becomes second-tier and less meaningful. This kind of barrier may remain in place for a long time if academic writing and scholarly communication skills in English are not thoroughly compared to native-language patterns of thought. The language and culture of a specific country cannot help being considered in the approaches to teaching and learning scholarly communication in English (Voevoda, 2020).

Cultural differences will remain in place for many years to come. They may enrich science publishing by including an international perspective, cross-linguistic and cross-cultural issues, and objectivity of outside perspectives (Flowerdew, 2011). Editors and reviewers ought to factor them into their work. Second-language writers must learn about their impact while taking courses in academic English and writing for scholarly publication. L2 researchers' willingness to improve their skills relating to the culture-related components of writing is the key to progress (Raitskaya & Tikhonova, 2020).

Conclusion

There are a number of observations and recommendations that may be helpful for overcoming these hurdles.

First, one way to mitigate aggressive responses to reviewers' and editors' critical feedback is to describe all the requirements in detail, adding a kind of mildly worded recommendation instead of blunt statements regarding the deficiencies or faults in submissions.

Second, in order to internationalise national science, the academic community has to continuously review research ethics to fully meet the global norms. National associations of editors and publishers, as well as learned societies and universities ought to lead the social reinvention of ethical behaviour patterns, especially

breeches of ethics. The wider academic community needs to be involved to change the conflicting attitudes on misconduct in scholarly publishing.

Third, scholarly writers in periphery and semi-periphery countries are in need of a helping hand to get their bearings in areas of research on a global scale. Scientometrics centres or experts may be of assistance in refining the prominence of research conducted by periphery academics. Some national programmes can provide wider access to international databases and electronic libraries.

Fourth, concerted efforts of educators, journals and authors in periphery and semi-periphery countries could lead to a better comprehension of the field of study and directions for research on a global scale. It is essential for authors to actively rely on a wider bibliographic base. They must realize what their field of research is like globally and in comparison with national science. Unlimited access to international databases is also a prerequisite. That being said, it is simply not the opportunity, but the willingness to be kept abreast of recent internationally important contributions to the field that substantially matters. We believe that the greatest challenge is crossing the traditional boundaries of the field often limited to national or even institutional schools of thought as they develop more or less isolated from global science.

Fifth, patterns of thought in a foreign language often interfere with native patterns. Studying academic writing and writing for publishing skills can help improve the way second-language authors express their thoughts. Language brokers and native English proofreaders can efficiently raise the readability of scholarly writing.

Sixth, L2 authors study genres and the corresponding discourse both within academic English courses and when practising writing on their own. Reading the best samples of genres may be very useful.

Seventh, by knowing and following moves and steps in every piece of writing, L2 researchers are sure to succeed.

Practice makes perfect. Gaining experience takes years and many failed and successful submissions to reputed journals. Joint efforts among all the parties concerned will help writers overcome many of the hurdles and lead to positive outcomes.

Conflict of interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Alamri, B. (2020). A comparative study of Saudi and international journals of Applied Linguistics: The move–bundle connection approach. *Journal of Language and Education*, *6*(2), 9-30. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2020.10531

Anderson-Levitt, K. M. (2014). Significance: Recognizing the value of research across national and linguistic boundaries. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 15*(3), 347-354. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12564-014-9322-0

Flowerdew, J. (2001). Attitudes of journal editors to non-native speaker contributions. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35*(1), 121-50.

Flowerdew, J. & Wang, S. H. (2016). Author's editor revisions to manuscripts published in international journals. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 32,* 39-52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2016.03.004

Harbord, J. (2018). Language policy and the disengagement of the international academic elite. *Science Editing*, *5*(1), 32-38. https://doi.org/10.6087/kcse.115

Kaplan, R. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education. *Language Learning, 16*, 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1966.tb00804.x

Ketabi, S., & Rahavard, S. (2013). Cultural variations across academic genres: A generic analysis of intertextuality in master's theses introductions. *English Language Teaching, 6*(11), 148-159. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n11p148

Lambovska, M., & Yordanov, K. (2020). Motivation of researchers to publish in high-quality journals: A theoretical framework. *TEM Journal*, *9*(1), 188-197. https://doi.org/10.18421/TEM91-27

Larson, J. (2018). Other voices: authors' literary-academic presence and publication in the discursive world system. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education*, *34*(4), 521-535. https://doi.org/10.1080/01596 306.2016.1278357

Raitskaya, L., & Tikhonova, E. (2020). Overcoming cultural barriers to scholarly communication in international peer-reviewed journals. *Journal of Language and Education*, *6*(2), 4-8. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2020.11043

Sadeghi, K., & Alinasab, M. (2020). Academic conflict in Applied Linguistics research article discussions: The case of native and non-native writers. *English for Specific Purposes*, *59*, 17-28. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. esp.2020.03.001

Salager-Meyer, F. (2014). Writing and publishing in peripheral scholarly journals: How to enhance the global influence of multilingual scholars? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *13*, 78-82. https://dx.doi. org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.11.003

Sheldon, E. (2011). Rhetorical differences in RA introductions written by English L1 and L2 and Castilian Spanish L1 writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *10*, 238-251. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.08.004

Somashekhar, S. P. (2020). Art of scientific writing. *Indian Journal of Gynaecologic Oncology*, *18*(2). https://doi. org/10.1007/s40944-020-00382-y

Tight, M. (2014). Working in separate silos? What citation patterns reveal about higher education research internationally. *Higher Education*, *68*(3), 379-395. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-014-9718-0

Trompenaars, F., & Hampden-Turner, C. (1997). *Riding the waves of culture. Understanding the cultural diversity in Business*. Nicholas Brealey Publishing.

Voevoda, E. (2020). Intercultural communication in multicultural education space. *Training, Language and Culture*, *4*(2), 11-20. https://doi.org/10.22363/2521-442X-2020-4-2-11-20

The Dogme Approach: A Radical Perspective in Second Language Teaching in the Post-Methods Era

Quang Nhat Nguyen[1], Bui Phu Hung[2]

[1]Ho Chi Minh City University of Education

[2]University of Economics Ho Chi Minh City

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Quang Nguyen Nhat, Ho Chi Minh City University of Education, 280 An Duong Vuong Street, District 5, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. Email: nhatquang.ed@gmail.com

This paper aims to critically discuss the Dogme approach, an innovative pedagogy in English language teaching that was first developed by Thornbury (2000). Dogme is rooted in a conglomerate of compatible theories in second language learning and teaching. The most noticeable perspective of the Dogme approach may be that language teachers should not rely solely on prescribed coursebooks, but should instead teach tasks based on learners' problems and interests. In this article, the authors first conduct a critical review of second language acquisition, pedagogical theories, and post-methods era perspectives to express the aims and significance of this article. After that, the authors discuss different aspects of Dogme and figure out the room for Dogme in English language teaching in the post-methods era. Finally, the authors figure out gaps in research and give further pedagogical recommendations for English language teachers and learners.

Keywords: Dogme, Teaching Unplugged, second language pedagogy, material relevance, post-methods era, communicative language teaching

Introduction

A review of second language acquisition (SLA) and pedagogical theories has proven that SLA theories and pedagogical theories have significant and substantial impacts on perspectives and practices in language teaching. Mitchell and Vidal (2001) and Richards and Rogers (2001) believe that approaches and methods in second language teaching have both dynamics and diversity. In other words, advancements in socio-cultural theory (Van Boxtel, Van der Linden, & Kanselaar, 2000; Van de Pol, Mercer, & Volman, 2019), educational-psychological theory (VanPatten; Vallori, 2014; Wittwer & Renkl, 2008), neuroscience (Benati & Rastelli, 2018;), and technological advancements (Brown, 2009; Hartman, Townsend, & Jackson, 2019; Leutner, 2019; Rassaei, 2018) have made changes to human perceptions and conceptions of effective second language teaching. These advancements, eventually, turn into innovations in research and practices in second language teaching. All of these changes to the perspectives and practices in second language teaching have contributed to recent updates in second language teaching, especially with the introduction of Dogme.

Updates in second language teaching in the post-methods era have added teaching techniques that teachers should follow. Taking part in these tasks and activities, teachers can vary students' interaction patterns that facilitate a communicative environment for learners (Van de Pol, Mercer, & Volman, 2019). Teachers should also provide learning strategies to help learners become more confident and increase their autonomy (Almusharraf, 2018; Smith, 2008). Additionally, teachers should help students overcome their learning difficulties as this can help improve learner performance. Building a communicative and friendly learning environment may help encourage learners to speak out about their learning difficulties. Admittedly, certain methods may work best in certain situations only (Bell, 2003). As approaches and methods suggested in the past depend mainly on certain fixed beliefs about language teaching, they are challenged for their lack of practical application (Richards & Rogers, 2001). There exists a need for an innovative perspective for practice in which principles in second language teaching are well woven (Bell, 2003; Brown, 2014; Liu, 2004). Dogme,

which recommends critical pedagogy strategies, is not merely based on a single theory but a conglomerate of compatible perspectives in second language teaching. Meddings and Thornbury (2009) believe that Dogme is applicable in real language classes in different teaching and learning contexts.

This paper reviews the applicability of Dogme in the classroom. After the introduction of the purpose of the article, in the next part, the authors continue to describe the grounding theories as well as the fundamental concepts of Dogme. This article also suggests how to apply Dogme in the post-methods era after revisiting the arguments for and against the Dogme perspective. To conclude the review, the authors present research gaps as directions for further studies on Dogme.

An Introduction to Dogme – Teaching Unplugged

Thornbury (2000) introduces the Dogme approach, which is also known as Dogme or Teaching Unplugged, to second language teaching (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). This method is intended to liberate teachers from the burden of an over-reliance on the coursebook industry and create in-class authentic communication, as well as help bridge the gaps between the language taught at school and the language in real-life conversations. Leaving room for individual teachers to apply all their competencies, Dogme can be considered a movement, an approach, or even a teaching philosophy (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). The name Dogme takes inspiration from the Dogma95 movement in the film-making industry, where the directors, actors, and actresses commit a «vow of chastity» to minimize their reliance on special effects that may create unauthentic feelings from the viewers. Although based on the same perception, Dogme is more of a liberated learning and teaching ideology that allows teachers to create the English teaching and learning environments where the learner's here-and-now needs are adequately satisfied (Thornbury, 2000).

Theoretical Grounding and Hypotheses of the Dogme Approach

Dogme grew out of a conglomerate of compatible ideologies and theories. First, Dogme is based not only on theories of language teaching and learning but also on progressive, critical, and humanist educational theories. Adopting the Dialogic model, Dogme encourages students and teachers to communicate in order to exchange ideas (Thornbury, 2009), which is the prerequisite for education to occur. Stevick (1981) believes that the success of language learning and teaching does not depend mainly on materials and linguistic analyses, but on what is going on between students and teachers in their classroom. The nature of Dogme allows real conversations to take place in class. It enables teachers to truly teach and learners to access authentic incidental language occurring in real situations (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). From this point of view, Meddings and Thornbury (2009) propose that Dogme can shine a light upon embedded learning moments known as the "long conversation" (Mercer, 1995) to solve the inequity of power in the classroom. Only when both teachers and students value liberation in education will the process of learning and teaching language, particularly with Dogme, flourish.

In terms of second language teaching, Dogme shares the socio-constructivist grounding theory with several contemporary approaches, namely CLT, TBL, and CLIL. Dogme works on the radical idea that language develops through social communication and authentic interaction. Thornbury (2010) believes that Dogme teaching and learning should begin with students' here-and-now needs regardless of the influence of edu-business. This here-and-now need emphasizes the significance of people's personal experiences in a specific classroom. By realizing students' needs, teachers can scaffold the language learning process (Walqui & Lier, 2010). This collaborative process between teachers and students will gradually construct the learners' language interactively and communicatively (Breen, 1985). In other words, instead of relying on pre-made materials and books, teachers should identify students' needs right in the classroom and serve as the change agents. As McMullen and Hickendorff (2018) outline students' individual and learning variables, teachers are advised to understand such differences to stimulate students' interests and engagement in learning (Volet, Jones, & Vaurus, 2019). In reality, the practice of English language teaching shows that teachers should adapt to learners' differences and respond to students' needs consecutively.

Another significant milestone that led to the birth of Dogme was the introduction of Emergentism - beginning as a movement against the Stipulationism from the 1970s (Cangelosi, 2007). Language learning emerges through the interaction of social input and implicit linguistic patterns that create new connections between

neurons in human brains (Macwhinney, 1998). When learning a language, learners adapt their linguistic structures to the patterns of the conversation, through which language processing starts to rise. This processing is consistent with the perception that language acquisition means "learning to process language," not just learning the language (McCauley & Christiansen, 2019). Dogme follows the same idea of language emergence through dialogs, which allows learners to enhance the effectiveness of communication. Later on, through the action of language awareness-raising activities and focus-on-form tasks, learners can refine the interlanguage and get more proximate to the target language (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). Rooted in the ideas of radical education, socio-constructivism, and Emergentism, Dogme aims to (1) decenter teachers and equalize the politics in the classroom, (2) increase the authenticity of language emergence in language classrooms, and (3) liberate teachers from the burden of coursebooks and pre-made global materials (McCabe, 2005).

The Three Pillars of the Dogme Approach/ Teaching Unplugged

There are three underlying principles in Dogme, namely (1) conversational-driven teaching, (2) materials-light employment, and (3) emergent language (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). First, language teaching and learning should be communication-based and dialogue-based, which can result in a variety of interaction patterns. The fact that Dogme is conversational-driven means conversations are the course that creates intrinsic learning motivation coming from learners' real experiences, mediates learning to center learners and decenter teachers, scaffolds linguistic and intercultural development, and promotes socialization to help learners step out of their comfort zone. Vygotsky (1978) hypothesizes that language learning is a socio-cultural process in which teachers and learners engage in interactivity, from which knowledge develops. Regarding the teacher's roles in communication, Ratner and Bruner (1978) and Wass and Golding (2014) suggest that the tasks delivered by the teacher should match their students' level of proficiency and support or scaffold students' language development.

Second, Dogme advocates materials-light teaching practices. This deviation does not mean that Dogme is against the use of published materials and coursebooks. Still, it places learners in the center of the teaching and learning process. From the perspective of the communicative approach, Dogme welcomes materials that support the talk-meditated development of local discourse and foster the joint construction of knowledge in the classroom (Thornbury & Luke, 2001). This critical pedagogy was first proposed by Meddings and Thornbury's (2009) observation that many coursebooks overtly focus on grammatical points, but are lacking in developing learners' communicative competency. Although some published materials design tasks for students' pair or group discussions, many such tasks are for controlled practice or suggest unauthentic situations. Dogme proposes that it is the practice itself that helps learners use language freely, which aligns with other perspectives in learner-centeredness and develops learners' communicative competency.

Third, Dogme, in line with task-based learning, believes that language learning is a process in which language emerges from communication. As Ellis (2014) argues, similar to how toddlers learn their first language, second language learners mainly aquire the target language through incidental learning, not intentional learning. In particular, language emerges in two main inter-faceted ways: communicative activities and language production. Van de Pol, Mercer, and Volman (2019) also recommend that teachers provide students with opportunities to interact with peers with little control from the teacher. The teacher, in this circumstance, should facilitate language learning by leaving the room for the emergence of language and support students' language development (Meddings & Thornbury 2009). It is an authentic English environment in class that inspires language emergence. The language produced by the students helps teachers understand what they should do next to assist students' language development. Accordingly, learners should be allowed to challenge one another, suggest what they want and need to learn, ask questions, and judge the assigned tasks in a social-communicative setting. Ellis (2006) explains that Emergentism is supported by associative learning, probabilistic learning, and rational contingency. Ellis and Larsen-Freeman (2006, p. 577) also describe Emergentism saying:

Emergentists believe that simple learning mechanisms, operating in and across the human systems for perception, motor-action, and cognition as they are exposed to language data as part of a communicatively-rich human social environment by an organism eager to exploit the functionality of language, suffice to drive the emergence of complex language representations.

Criticisms of the Dogme Approach

Under the umbrella of the communicative approach, Dogme receives similar criticisms since there is a lack of consensus on the classroom framework and methodology to conduct a standard lesson (McMeniman, 1992). Teachers who apply Dogme are susceptible to being labelled as lazy, inconsiderate, or industrial, due to the flexible structures of Dogme (McCabe, 2005). It is a perennial challenge for teachers, especially novice teachers who are not experienced enough to react to the spontaneity of a classroom that emphasizes the importance of students' here-and-now needs (Luke & Thornbury, 2009). Even if communication and interactions occur in class, the teacher still cannot guarantee that these talks are educational and informative as they are not sure what dialogic types of conversations may yield beneficial effects (Harmer, 2012).

Another problem that Dogme faces comes from its pillars since it continuously focuses on the here-and-now needs when the students have to create the target language frequently. The need to communicate all the time may, in turn, build up a significant amount of stress, frustration, and embarrassment. Particularly, in non-Eurocentric contexts or other low-resource contexts, there are questions concerning the applicability of Dogme if the learners' linguistic and communicative competence is low (McCabe, 2005).

There is also the concern that inexperienced and non-native teachers may feel threatened when adopting a communicative approach or, in particular, Dogme, especially in an exam-oriented class. In underprivileged teaching and learning contexts where the class sizes are large, the stress that teachers suffer from is much more alarming (McCabe, 2005). Whether Dogme is suitable for beginners or examination-based classes is a common question (Li, 1998; Meddings & Thornbury, 2009). In countries like Vietnam or Turkey where the university entrance exams still consist of multiple-choice questions, the effectiveness of Dogme is usually called into question as teachers show no interest in trying new approaches that do not explicitly show a direct connection with the results of the tests. Under time constraints, both students and teachers are emotionally threatened when they take a dialogic and communicative approach to teaching and learning languages.

In general, the criticisms and concerns that Dogme encounters revolve around several major issues: the theoretical foundation of the conversation-driven perspective (Harmer, 2012), the under-preparedness of lesson structure structures, and the potential pressure on teachers and students in various learning contexts. Dogme can challenge inexperienced teachers who have an inadequate pedagogical repertoire, and limited access to resources. It may also face challenges regarding its applicability in classes of students with low levels of proficiency. Low-level students cannot interact with the teacher and peers effectively in the target language.

Taking on the Criticisms of Dogme

Teacher Liberation
There have long been opposing views amongst academics regarding the use of textbooks in education. Traditionalists such as Fasso, Knight, and Knight (2014) believed that the use of textbooks could help maximize students' development. Horsley, Knight, and Huntly (2010) also claimed that textbooks were considered indispensable to students of science and business in Australia. However, there should be a change in the concept of materials used in a particular course (Knight, 2015). Richards (2000) criticized teachers' over-reliance on textbooks by outlining their four main shortcomings. In many respects, textbooks cannot provide the basis for a comprehensive language course. Teachers should help their students learn and acquire language rather than complete exercises prescribed in the textbook.

Moreover, textbooks usually reflect the culture of the place they are published. Teachers should not adopt but adapt the available materials to be relevant to their educational contexts. The dependence on textbooks also reduces learner-centeredness. In fact, classroom tasks and activities should aim to satisfy learners' needs and help them accumulate the knowledge and skills required to achieve the expected outcomes. The teaching and learning of a second or foreign language should not be textbook-centered, and good teachers should create their own materials. They should not depend on a selected textbook. In the digital age, internet users can access relevant materials easily and quickly to meet their academic needs. Technology tools can help teachers and students access available resources that satisfy the expected outcomes. The concern that teachers cannot access resources to design their lessons should be considered an issue of the past (Ito, 2010; Palfrey & Gasser, 2008; Panto & Comas-Quinn).

The rise of Dogme is a response to foreign language teachers' over-reliance on coursebooks (Allwright, 1981; Harwood, 2010; McGrath, 2002; O'Neil, 1982; Swan, 1992; Tomlinson, 2003; Tosun & Cinkara, 2018; Ur, 1996) rather than authentic communication (Thornbury, 2009). Dogme does not suggest that teachers must not use materials in the classroom, but it proposes that second language teachers should be allowed to use their own materials to adequately design their lessons to meet the requirements of the course and students' needs.

It is mistakenly believed that Dogme may disadvantage inexperienced and non-native teachers since it is materials-light. While teachers cannot get totally separated from the coursebooks and exam-based courses, most of them welcome the application of Dogme. Both native and non-native speakers agreed that Dogme might curb the burden of lesson planning and materials development (Coşkun, 2017). Additionally, Dogme can allow non-native teachers to both follow the textbooks and create the opportunity for them to communicate in English (Xerri, 2012). Furthermore, non-native teachers might be free from their over-reliance on coursebooks and thus able to play a proactive role in communicating with their students (Sayed, 2016).

Dogme, to a certain extent, provides the base for teachers to liberate themselves from the lesson planning burden (Xerri, 2012). Based on three principles of Dogme, Xerri, in his role as a teacher-researcher, instead wrote post-lesson plans and reflected on their strengths and weaknesses. Xerri realized that there was an increase in learners' agency and confidence when the teacher started to take a backseat.

The Dialogic Nature of Dogme

To prove that the dialogues created in Dogme classes are more authentic than instructional, Chappell (2014) conducted qualitative research in the form of critical discourse analysis to consolidate the theoretical framework of the conversation-driven principle. The study also aimed to raise awareness among teachers about the significance of strategical management using different types of talk in the classroom to motivate the learners. The research results demonstrated that there were four types of talk in Dogme lessons: rote, recitation and elicitation, instruction/exposition, and discussion. Information-sharing activities that involved information exchanges and problem-solving were frequent in Dogme lessons. The inquiry dialogue type of talk in Dogme also created a large amount of cumulative knowledge-building as well as mutual respect among students. Additionally, the activities in the Dogme lessons created associations between grammatical forms and communicative functions through interpersonal exchanges among students. This testifies that Dogme creates incidentally learning opportunities through the four types of talk. The incidental learning process can facilitate students' natural language emergence and acquisition (Ellis, 1999). There was also a relationship between "Talk Dogme" and the linguistic developmental goals for both teachers and students to work towards. Chappell (2014) claimed that Dogme lessons promoted incidental spoken texts from both teachers and learners while creating clear linguistic goals for teachers and learners to achieve. Thus, Dogme could lead to increases in both the quantity and quality of incidental learning.

The Suitability of Dogme for Students at Various Levels

Another concern about Dogme is how to teach English communicatively to lower-level students. This is a challenge not only for Dogme but also other approaches to English language teaching and learning, for example, task-based learning (Ellis, 2014). However, the concern does not come from the approach itself and teachers must prepare their students to adapt to the new approach to enhancing their competence. All foreign language learners need communication and foreign language learners' unwillingness to communicate is more strongly related to their anxiety and beliefs than their levels of proficiency (Sener, 2014; Tan & Phairot, 2015). Tan and Phairot (2015) discovered that some Thai students exposed their unwillingness to communicate as a result of their familiarity with pedagogical practices that required them to listen more than to interact, low motivation to learn, and psychological problems. However, students may turn out to be more willing to communicate when these problems fade (Liu & Jackson, 2008; Pawlak, Mystkowska-Wiertelak, & Bielak, 2016).

The application of a conversation-driven approach in the classroom allows teachers to adapt to students' levels of proficiency flexibly. Since the introduction of Dogme in 2000, various studies have been conducted to prove its utility for students with different linguistic levels (Coşkun, 2017; Sayed, 2016; Solimani, Ameri-Golestan, & Lotfi, 2019; Xerri, 2012). To prove that Dogme is suitable for beginners, a study by Sayed (2016) examined level-one students in two "Writing One" classes. The research was conducted with 48 EFL level-one male students,

aged 16-18, in Writing One course at the College of Education and Arts, Nothern Borders University, Saudi Arabia. The researcher adopted a quasi-experimental qualitative design to compare the effectiveness of Unplugged teaching with that of the traditional approach. Following the idea of Dogme, in the experimental class, the teacher did not prepare any lesson plans and adopted conversation-driven process writing. After that, the learners sat the post-test to reassess their speaking and writing skills. The researcher found that teaching unplugged is promising for not only teaching speaking (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and interactional communication) but also writing skills (organization, mechanics, vocabulary and language use, ideas, and content). Teaching unplugged also helps students with language, self-development, and cooperative skills. Sayed's research is in line with the study of Coşkun (2017). In Coşkun's research, A2-level (CEFR) students were highly satisfied with the combination of Dogme and traditional lessons in their program, which means that lower-level students are less likely to feel threatened unless the teachers introduce the new approach too abruptly.

Concerning higher-level students, this unconventional teaching approach significantly surpassed the traditional method for developing students' skills. Take the English majors in Mohamad's study (2019), for example. Mohamed conducted a one-group pretest-posttest quantitative research project that revealed that Dogme could develop students' oral competence as well as efficacy. Unlike several other studies where researchers examined Dogme's effectiveness solely on learners' speaking performance on a test, this research underscored the psychological effects that Dogme had on learner's self-efficacy as it is closely related to how motivated learners were to study a new language. The researcher, therefore, sought answers to questions regarding Dogme's effects on developing English-major students speaking's skills and self-efficacy. The results showed that the students' scores improved significantly on both the speaking test and their self-efficacy levels. Additionally, the free nature of Dogme teaching suits the needs and desires of the students. This research also indicated that students could express themselves very confidently when they speak in a Dogme class.

To wrap up, although research projects about Dogme are small-scale, they signify that Dogme can meet the requirements of classes at different linguistic levels. (Meddings & Thornbury, 2009).

The Suitability of Dogme in Examination-Oriented Courses

One issue that may concern teachers is whether Dogme can ensure the effectiveness of courses that prepare students for exams. This circumstance is a common challenge in non-English speaking countries, where both teachers and students are subject to traditional expectations about the content of an EFL course, examination pressures, and the large sizes of English classes.

To ameliorate the concerns regarding the compatibility in exam-preparatory courses using Dogme, Xerri (2012) pointed out the immeasurable advantages Dogme brings about in an examination course. Xerri believes that Dogme can yield tremendous benefits in examination classes for non-native English teachers thanks to the radical pedagogy of Dogme. By incorporating the Dogme/Teaching Unplugged lessons in an examination-based course, teachers and students can counterbalance the practice of learning English to pass a test. From the interviews, students claimed that the Dogme lesson was a rewarding experience where they could maintain conversations with other learners whom they did not know well. Many of them believed that the lessons knocked down the wall of inhibitions about using English. With adequate and reasonable amounts of time spent on Dogme, the students realized that, besides taking tests, it is of paramount importance that they could communicate in English.

Besides communication, Dogme can also enhance students' scores on an exam. Coşkun (2017) conducted a qualitative research project to inspect the effects of Dogme on discrete grammar points that the exam required students to achieve. The study took place at three universities in Turkey (one private and two state-funded). The participants were one native and two non-native EFL teachers, together with 38 students from three one-year intensive EFL classes to prepare for professional EMI courses in the future. Noticeably, all the students were at the beginner level (A2-CEFR). The results of the research indicate that Dogme increases students' agency in exam-oriented classes. Some teachers also suggested that the Dogme lessons be incorporated into the grammar-based syllabus. Students and teachers participating in the research agreed that teachers could integrate Dogme lessons into the grammar-based program to work together with the concrete items designed for the test.

All in all, action research indicates that Dogme can work as a medium to counterbalance examination-oriented pedagogy. Dogme allows teachers and learners to adhere to the structures that the exam will test, while it also engages students in real contents. Dogme also provokes personalization and helps interpersonal relationships between students bond in exam-oriented English courses. Even if the teachers cannot apply this approach exclusively in all their lessons, it is still able to help teachers become more proactive in their diverse teaching contexts.

How to Apply the Dogme Approach in the Post-Method Era

One question proposed by many teachers and researchers is how to apply Dogme to technology-mediated learning when it also aims to encourage face-to-face communication. In fact, Dogme can also be applied to technology-mediated language learning while it still facilitates authentic conversations. Chapelle (2019) defines technology-mediated learning as an online or in-class learning mode in which students receive a digital task assigned by the teacher. Technology-mediated language learning has encouraged educators to develop online, offline, and blended programs. Technological advances allow for online socialization or interactions between the teacher and students and between students. This shows the possibility of spontaneous language use assisted by computers. It is Dogme that stresses the importance of spontaneous or incidental interpersonal communication. Advancements in technology have also provided teachers and learners with extensive inventories of materials from which they can select the ones most relevant to their teaching and learning purposes (Açıkalın, 2009; Lin & Yang, 2011). Christie (2016) claims that language teachers should aim to help develop learners' spontaneous language use during incidental social interactions because it demonstrates learners' authentic communication competencies in naturalistic settings by setting situations for spontaneous talks to take place. To help learners achieve communicative competence, classroom activities should be interesting.

Teachers can employ role-plays, games, and group discussions to help enhance learners' spontaneous talk (Richards & Renandya, 2005). Spontaneous language use is a result of learners' ongoing exposure to pragmatic resources (Taguchi, 2015). However, it is irrefutable that pragmatic knowledge may be underestimated in most textbooks and the diversity of the speech acts included is rather inadequately presented (Ren & Han, 2016). Dogme can combine with different technological tools as our society is constantly changing, and this is called Dogme 2.0. Teachers can combine Dogme philosophy with the other methods such as flipped classrooms or e-learning environments. However, what matters is that Dogme, as critical pedagogy, is transformative and seeks social changes (Thornbury, 2009).

Research Gaps

As a young teaching approach, there is a significant shortage of research projects on Dogme, although studies are still accessible here and there. It is, therefore, undeniable that most of these research articles on Dogme are small-scale and highly-localized, which opens up opportunities for further research projects that aim to explore the reliability and effectiveness of Dogme. It is also important to issue a call for additional empirical results as more studies are needed to test the hypotheses of Dogme and consolidate them further.

As an innovative perspective in English language teaching and learning, Dogme is a novel approach from which different aspects need to be investigated concerning students' and teachers' perceptions and experimental results should be collected in different contexts. This raises the question of how to develop students' reading skills if Dogme focuses on the here-and-now nature of the classroom. Whether Dogme can be applied to other courses in English such as English for specific purposes and English as a medium of instruction also needs investigation.

More research on the effects of Dogme in the digital age should be conducted. Researchers need to investigate how teachers can use social media resources as materials or if teachers can employ the spontaneity of Dogme in computer-assisted, mobile-assisted, and artificial intelligence-based settings. There is still a high demand for research on the necessity of written lesson plans and whether they can be replaced by post-lesson notes so that teachers can teach more freely (Greenhalgh, 2016).

Conclusion

It is important to address the potential of Dogme. As a newly developed approach first proposed by Thornbury in 2000, there should be a vast amount of research on its different aspects, such as its effectiveness, and teachers' and learners' reflections. However, our critical review theoretically supports the practicality and applicability of Dogme in English language teaching and learning.

First, contemporary perspectives and approaches in SLA and second language teaching are well woven to support it in the post-methods era. Instead of depending on a single theory or approach for language teaching, Dogme provides teaching strategies to be realistic in practice. In other words, Dogme bridges the gaps between theory and practice in language teaching to orientate teachers and learners towards what they should do in the classroom, depending on learner differences, such as needs and interests. This coursebook-free perspective provides a pathway for English language classroom practices. Teachers can design tasks for learners, offer them activities that meet their interests, and help them overcome their problems via teacher-student informal conversations rather than adhering to what has been predetermined in chosen coursebooks. This review first shed light on the theoretical foundations of Dogme, its characteristics, and its criticisms. Then, the researchers multilaterally answered the main questions and concerns related to Dogme, ranging from its nature, philosophy, and practicality to its adaptability in the post-methods era. This research, therefore, aims to provide teachers, school administrators, and policy-makers with some insight into a new liberal approach in language teaching.

Dogme, also known as Teaching Unplugged, is an innovative teaching philosophy. Although it is challenging to bring up all the issues proposed to question the efficacy of this radical approach, Dogme is a new ideology that is promising in cater to different needs and teaching contexts. Dogme liberates the teacher from the burden of teaching and builds rapport between teachers and students. While there is no perfect method or approach to language teaching, Dogme underscores the role of the teacher as a communication facilitator who creates an environment where language can emerge. With the advancement of information technology, Dogme can transform and integrate with other ideas of language teaching. Thus, it can help students flourish in this new era.

Teachers should not rely heavily on coursebooks, and teachers should consider the three pillars of Dogme to initiate exchanges between students to facilitate learning. Dogme should be reconciled eclectically with other methods to counterbalance the weight of exam-oriented lessons.

School administrators should come to terms with the fact that teachers should not always come to class with detailed lesson plans. Instead, teachers should sensitize themselves to their students' needs. They should avoid taking extremist points of view; for example, Dogme is anti-material and anti-technology. Regarding teaching English communicatively, Dogme will be beneficial for helping students exchange ideas through interactions. The application of Dogme may also change the atmosphere of the class from monotonous to be more meaningful and exciting.

For administrators, requiring teachers to write complicated pre-lesson plans may be illogical as teachers should motivate students, adapt to their needs, and adjust the lesson contents. In short, Dogme is a convincing format of teaching that can be accepted as a substitute to liberate teachers in language schools.

The misconception that novice teachers with limited experience may not have the needed competencies to apply Dogme can be resolved. Teacher colleges, teacher trainers, educational administrators, and educators should aim to develop teachers' capacities to meet the requirements of the language teaching position according to their special teaching contexts rather than relying on the pre-made set of teaching guides. Internships and probation periods are essential to help pre-service teachers acquire sufficient knowledge, competencies, and experience to be prepared for their teaching (Snoek, Swennen, & Van der Klink, 2011; Srinivasan, 2019). Educational institutions also need to create an environment to help teachers develop professionally because teachers' professional development contributes significantly to their teaching performance. School administrators can set up formal training and mentoring programs (Timperley, 2011), facilitate informal idea exchanges between teachers (Little, 2012), and create an environment in which administration and other factors enhance teachers' ongoing development (Postholm, 2018). That means the

experience and capacity of teachers depend mainly on the pre-service training model and contextual factors of the educational institutions in which they work. Curriculum developers should also be open to this so that teachers can adopt different approaches to implementing lessons.

Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Açıkalın, M. (2009). Pre-service elementary teachers' beliefs about the use of the Internet in the social studies classroom. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 32*(3), 305-320. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619760802553030

Allwright, R. L. (1981). What do we want teaching materials for? *ELT Journal*, *36*(1), 5-18. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/36.1.5

Almusharraf, N. (2018). English as a foreign language learner autonomy in vocabulary development: Variation in student autonomy levels and teacher support. *Journal of Research in Innovative Teaching & Learning, 11*(2), 159-177. http://doi.org/10.1108/JRIT-09-2018-0022

Barnes, B. D., & Lock, G. (2013). Student perceptions of effective foreign language teachers: A quantitative investigation from a Korean university. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *38*(2), 19-36. http://dx.doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2013v38n2.2

Barnes, D. (1976). *From communication to curriculum.* Penguin.

Bell, D. M. (2003). Method and post-method: Are they really so incompatible? *TESOL Quarterly, 37*(2), 325-336. ttp://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588507

Benati, A., & Rastelli, S. (2018). The teaching and acquisition interface in neurocognition research. *Second Language Research*, *34*(1), 3-17. http://doi.org/10.1177/0267658317732616

Breen, M. (1985). The social context for language learning - a neglected situation. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *7*(2), 135-158. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100005337

Brown, A. V. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*(1), 46-60. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00827

Brown, H. D. (2014). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (6th ed.). Pearson Education.

Bui, G., & Huang, Z. (2018). L2 fluency as influenced by content familiarity and planning: Performance, measurement, and pedagogy, *22*(1), 94-114. http://doi.org/10.1177/1362168816656650

Burgos, E. G. (2017). Use of the genre-based approach to teach expository essays to English pedagogy students. *HOW, 24*(2), 241-259. http://doi.org/10.19183/how.24.2.330

Cangelosi, A. (2007). The emergence of language: neural and adaptive agent models. *Connection Science, 17*(3), 185-190. http://doi.org/10.1080/09540090500177471

Chapelle, C. A. (2019). Technology-mediated language learning. In J. W. Schwieter & A. Benati, *The Cambridge handbook of language learning* (pp. 575-596). Cambridge University Press. http://doi.org/10.1017/9781108333603.025

Chappell, P. (2014). Engaging learners: conversation - or dialogic driven pedagogy? *ELT Journal, 68*(1), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cct040

Christie, C. (2016). Speaking spontaneously in the modern foreign languages classroom: Tools for supporting successful target language conversation. *The Language Learning Journal, 44*(1), 74-89. http://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2013.836751

Coşkun, A. (2017). Dogme: What do teachers and students think? *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning, 6*(2), 33-44. http://doi.org/10.5861/ijrsll.2016.1445

Ellis, N. C. (2008). The dynamics of second language emergence: Cycles of language use, language change, and language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(2), 232-249. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00716.x

Ellis, R. (1999). Learning a second language through interaction. In *Studies in Bilingualism* (pp. 3–31). John Benjamins

Ellis, R. (2014). Taking the critics to tasks: The case for task-based teaching. *Proceedings of CLaSIC* (pp. 103-117).

NUS.

Fasso, W., Knight, B. A., & Knight, C. (2014). Development of individual agency within a collaborative, creative learning community. In M. Khosrow-Pour (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of information science and technology* (3rd ed., pp. 7519-7528). IGI Global Press.

Felder, R. M., & Brent, R. (2013). Understanding student differences. *Journal of Engineering Education, 94*(1), 57-72. http://doi.org/10.1002/j.2168-9830.2005.tb00829.x

Forbes, K. (2019). The role of individual differences in the development and transfer of writing strategies between foreign and first language classrooms. *Research Papers in Education, 34*(4), 445-464. http://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.1452963

Gao, J. (2007). Teaching writing in Chinese universities: Finding an eclectic approach. *Asian EFL Journal, 20*, 285-297.

Gardner, H. (2011). *Frames of mind.* Basic Books.

Greenhalgh, K. (2016). *Eliminating unnecessary workload around planning and teaching resources.* Outwood Grange Academies Trust.

Hao, S., & Johnson, R. L. (2013). Teachers' classroom assessment practices and fourth-graders' reading literacy achievements: An international study. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 29*, 53-63. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2012.08.010

Harmer, J. (2012). *Essential teacher knowledge.* Pearson.

Harmer, J. (2015). *How to teach English.* Pearson Education.

Harmer, J. (2015). *The practice of English language teaching.* Pearson Education.

Hartman, R. J., Townsend, M. B., & Jackson, M. (2019). Educators' perceptions of technology integration into the classroom: A descriptive case study. *Journal of Research in Innovative Teaching & Learning, 12*(3), 236-249. http://doi.org/10.1108/JRIT-03-2019-0044

Harwood, N. (Ed.). (2010). *English language teaching materials.* Cambridge University Press.

Horsley, M., Knight, B. A., & Huntly, H. (2010). The role of textbooks and other teaching and learning resources in higher education in Australia: Change and continuity in supporting learning. *International Association for Research on Textbooks and Education (IARTEM) e-Journal, 3*, 43-61.

Ito, M. (2010). *Hanging out, messing around, and geeking out: Kids living and learning with the new media.* MIT Press.

Knight, B. A. (2015). Teachers' use of textbooks in the digital age. *Cogent Education, 2*(1), 1-10. http://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2015.1015812

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2017). Just learning. *Language Teaching, 50*(3), 425-437. http://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000106

Leutner, M. M.-J. (2019). Does modality play a role? Visual-verbal cognitive style and multimedia learning. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 35*(6), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.12381

Li, D. (1998). "It's Always More Difficult Than You Plan and Imagine": Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(4), 677. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588000

Lin, W., & Yang, S. (2011). Exploring students' perceptions of integrating Wiki technology and peer feedback into English writing courses. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique, 10*(2), 88-103.

Little, J. W. (2012). Professional community and professional development in the learning-centered school. In M. Kooy & K. van Veen (Eds.), *Teaching-learning that matters: International perspectives* (pp. 22-46). Routledge.

Liu, J. (2004). Methods in the post-methods era Report on an international survey on language teaching methods. *International Journal of English Studies, 4*(1), 137-152.

Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(1), 71-86. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00687.x

Luke, M., & Thornbury, S. (2009). *Teaching unplugged: Dogme in English language teaching.* Delta Publishing.

Macwhinney, B. (1998). The emergence of language. *Annual Review of Psychology, 49*(1), 199-227. http://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.49.1.199

McCabe, D. (2005). Dogme. *ELT Journal, 59*(4), 333–335. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cci062

McCauley, S. M., & Christiansen, M. H. (2019). Language learning as language use: A cross-linguistic model of child language development. *Psychological Review, 126*(1), 1-51. https://doi.org/10.1037/rev0000126

McGrath, I. (2002). *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching.* Edinburgh University Press.

McMeniman, M. (1992). Once more up the methodology road: A critical review of the communicative approach. *Asian Studies Review, 15*(3), 2–16. https://doi.org/10.1080/10357823.1992.9755374

McMullen, J., & Hickendorff, M. (2018). Latent variable mixture models in research on learning and individual differences. *Learning and Individual Differences, 66*, 1-3. http://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2018.05.008

Meddings, L., & Thornbury, S. (2009). *Teaching Unplugged.* Delta Publishing.

Mercer, N. (1995). *The guided construction of knowledge: Talk amongst teachers and learners.* Multilingual Matters.

Mitchell, C. B., & Vidal, K. E. (2001). Weighing the ways of the flow. *Modern Language Journal*, *85*(1), 26-68. https://doi.org/10.1111/0026-7902.00095

O'Neil, R. (1982). Why use textbooks? *ELT Journal*, *36*(2), 104-111. http://doi.org/10.1093/elt/36.2.104

Palfrey, J., & Gasser, U. (2008). *Born digital: Understanding the first generation of digital natives.* Basic Books.

Panto, E., & Comas-Quinn, A. (2013). The challenge of open education. *Journal of eLearning and Knowledge Society, 9*(1), 1-12.

Pawlak, M. (2019). How teachers deal with individual difference in the language classroom: Results of a study. *Neofilog, 52*(1), 179-195. http://doi.org/10.14746/n.2019.52.1.13

Pawlak, M., Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A., & Bielak, J. (2016). Investigating the nature of classroom willingness to communicate (WTC): A micro-perspective. *Language Teaching Research, 20*(5), 654-671. http://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815609615

Postholm, M. B. (2018). Teachers' professional development in school: A review study. *Cogent Education, 5*(1), 1522781. http://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2018.1522781

Purpura, J. E. (2016). Second and foreign language assessment. *Modern Language Journal, 100*, 190-208. http://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12308

Rassaei, E. (2018). Computer-mediated textual and audio glosses, perceptual style and L2 vocabulary learning. *Language Teaching Research*, *22*(6), 657-675. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168817690183

Ratner, N., & Bruner, J. S. (1978). Games, social exchange and the acquisition of language. *Journal of Child Language, 5*, 391-401. http://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000900002063

Ren, W., & Han, Z. (2016). The representation of pragmatic knowledge in recent ELT textbooks. *ELT Journal, 70*(4), 424-434. http://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccw010

Richards, J. C. (2000). *Beyond training: Perspectives on language teacher education.* Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (2005). *Communicative language teaching today.* SEAMEO Regional Language Center.

Richards, J. C., & Rogers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* Cambridge University Press.

Sayed, O. H. (2016). Teaching Unplugged: Does it have the Potential to Improve EFL Students' Speaking skills in a Writing Class? *Journal of Research in Curriculum, Instruction and Educational Technology*, *2*(3), 93-125. http://doi.org/10.21608/jrciet.2016.24505

Sener, S. (2014). Turkish ELT students' willingness to communicate in English. *ELT Journal, 3*(2), 91-109.

Smith, R. (2008). Learner autonomy. *ELT Journal, 62*(4), 395-397. http://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn038

Snoek, M., Swennen, A., & Van der Klink, M. (2011). The quality of teacher educators in the European policy debate: Actions and measures to improve the professionalism of teacher educators. *Professional Development in Education, 37*(5), 651–664. http://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2011.616095

Solimani, E., Ameri-Golestan, A., & Lotfi, A. (2019). Flipped vs unplugged instructions: Sailing EFL learners' oral proficiency through virtual and real learning communities. *International Journal of Instruction*, *12*(3), 459-480.

Srinivasan, R. (2019). Towards an understanding of the work of teacher education professoriate in India. *Higher Education for the Future, 6*(1), 101–114. http://doi.org/10.1177/2347631118802732

Stevick, E. (1981). *Teaching languages: A way and ways.* NewBury House.

Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are and should be ongoing. *Language Teaching, 48*(1), 1-50. http://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444814000263

Tan, K. E., & Phairot, E. (2015). Willingness to communicate among Thai EFL students: Does English proficiency matter? *The Journal of AsiaTEFL, 15*(3), 590-602. http://doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2018.15.3.2.590

Tharp, R. G., & Gallimore, R. (1988). *Rousing minds to life: Teaching, learning and schooling in social context.* Cambridge University Press.

Thornbury, S. (2000). A dogma for EFL. *IATEFL Issues*, *153*(2).

Thornbury, S. (2002). *How to teach grammar.* Pearson Education.

Thornbury, S. (2009). *Dogme: Nothing if not critical.* https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/dogme-nothing-if-not-critical

Thornbury, S., & Meddings, L. (2001). Using the raw materials. A Dogme approach to teaching language. *Modern English Teacher*, *10*(4), 40–43.

Thornburry, S., & Meddings, L. (2009). Dogme: A nest of NESTS? *IATEFL Global Issues SIG Newsletter* (pp. 15-19).

http://gisig.iatefl.org/resources/newsletters/15/GISIGNewsletter15.pdf

Timperley, H. (2011). *Realizing the power of professional.* McGraw-Hill Education.

Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (2003). *Developing Materials for Language Teaching* (2nd ed.). Bloomsbury Academic.

Tosun, Ö. Ö., & Cinkara, E. (2019). Coursebook dependency in secondary and tertiary-level EFL teachers. *HOW Journal, 26*(1), 81-105. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.26.1.445

Ur, P. (2012). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory.* Cambridge University Press.

Vallori, A. B. (2014). Meaningful learning in practice. *Journal of Education and Human Development, 3*(4), 199-209. https://doi.org/10.15640/jehd.v3n4a18

Van Boxtel, C. A., Van der Linden, J., & Kanselaar, G. (2000). Collaborative learning tasks and the elaboration of conceptual knowledge. *Learning and Instruction, 10*(4), 311-330. http://doi.org/10.1016S0959-4752(00)00002-5

Van de Pol, J., Mercer, N., & Volman, M. (2019). Scaffolding student understanding in small-group work: Students' uptake of teacher support in subsequent small-group interaction. *Journal of the Learning Sciences, 28*(2), 206-239. http://doi.org/10.1080/10508406.2018.1522258

VanPatten, B. (n.d.). Processing instruction: An update. *Language Learning, 52*(4), 755-803. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00203

Volet, S., Jones, C., & Vaurus, M. (2019). Attitude-, group- and activity-related differences in the quality of pre-service teacher students' engagement in collaborative science learning. *Learning and Individual Differences, 73*, 79-91. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2019.05.002

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society - the development of higher psychological processes.* Harvard University Press.

Walqui, A.d., & Lier, L. v. (2010). *Scaffolding the academic success of adolescent English language learners: A pedagogy of promise.* WestEd.

Wass, R., & Golding, C. (2014). Sharpening a tool for teaching: A zone of proximal development. *Teaching in Higher Education, 19*(6), 671-684. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2014.901958

Wittwer, J., & Renkl, A. (2008). Why instructional explanations often do not work: A framework for understanding the effectiveness of instruction explanations. *Educational Psychologist, 43*(1), 4964. http://doi.org//10.1080/00461520701756420

Xerri, D. (2012). Experimenting with Dogme in a Mainstream ESL Context. *English Language Teaching, 5*(9), 59-65. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n9p59

You, X. (n.d.). New directions in the EFL writing: a report from China. *Journal of Second, 13*, 253–256. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.09.002

Analyzing Digital Discourse. New Insights and Future Directions: Review

Anastasia Lazareva

MGIMO University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Anastasia Lazareva, English Language Department №4, School of International Business and Business Administration, MGIMO University, 76, Prospect Vernadskogo, Moscow, 119454, Russian Federation. E-mail: asyalazareva@gmail.com

Bou-Franch, P., & Garcés Conejos Blitvich, P. (2019). *Analyzing digital didscourse. New insights and future directions.* Palgrave.

Due to the increasing variety of digital messaging and texting in the contemporary digital discourse, proactively developing for over a quarter of a century, a great deal of writing researchers and educators in the sphere of discourse analysis have made their input into the study of the relevant changes and developments in online communication on the path from mere texting to imaging, including emoticons and emoji, photography usage, and video-support digital-based communication.

The monograph entitled Analyzing *Digital Discourse. New Insights and Future Directions, e*dited by Patricia Bou-Franch and Pilar Garcés Conejos Blitvich (2019) is the book aimed at investigating and accumulating the knowledge available at the present stage of digital technologies development concerning various types of digital communication and interactions and thus increases the awareness of academia in the field of digital discourse studies which in its turn has witnessed and experienced a tremendous booming development for the past 25 years. The galloping technologies of the new computer and gadget-based era could not but tell on the newly-generated discourse and are gaining pace further on.

Overall, the book is designed to come up with the precious data obtained upon thorough studies in the field of computer-related technologies discourse for the past two decades. The studies show the significance of analyzing online communication both at the micro and macro levels.

The book can also be useful for communicative digital practices and be certainly curious for people engaged in media sociolinguistics.

The authors employ a consciousness-raising approach as regards various aspects of digital discourse development and specifics of its usage on different purposes.
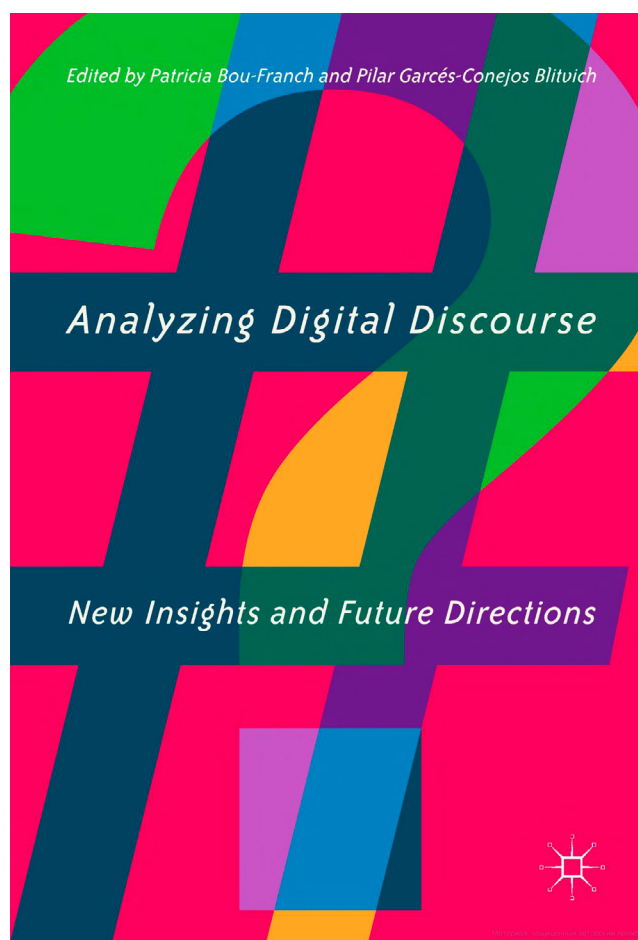
The book is an interesting and comprehensive read with 13 chapters forming 5 parts, progressing from the introduction to the digital discourse analysis and prospects of its future changes toward the computer–mediated communication and communication strategies and further to social media interdependence with the digital discourse.

Part I of the book focuses on the *Introduction to Digital Discourse: New Insights and Future Directions*, written by Pilar Garcés Conejos Blitvich and Patricia Bou-Franch . It comprises only 1 Chapter, speculating on digital discourse contemporary studies and various aspects. This chapter presents the notion of discourse as an intelligent mixture of language resources, social practices and technology base. At the same time the authors highlight, that with the time there has been a shift made from discourse as a language analysis to discourse as a reflection of society interactions.

Part II, in particular, *Past, Present and Future* covers also only 1 Chapter, though a substantial one, called *The Coevolution of Computer-Mediated Communication and Computer-Mediated Discourse Analysis* by Susan C. Herring methodly portrays digital discourse at early stages, its progressive development as well as future prospects, interdependence of computer-mediated interaction and computer-mediated discourse analysis. The author of this chapter considers how technological devices and advances of three different digital eras, namely, pre-Web, Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 influence textual presentation of its digital nature.

All in all, *Part I* and *Part II* lay the basement for the topic of the book, considering the possible themes and aspects for subsequent analysis and discussion.

Part III called *Multimodality* considers how people make use of the vast multimodal resources provided to them by modern digital technologies. In general, computer-mediated communication is highly multidisciplinary. This part of the research, comprising 4 absolutely subject-differentiated chapters appears to be the key one. In fact, *Part II* goes beyond discourse towards discourse pragmatics and multimodality of various forms of digital online communication. Here we consider 4 chapters, providing a close and research-based outlook on video-supported interaction patterns, multimodality in memes usage (*Chapter* 4 by Francisco Yus), comparison of digital and written quotations, forming a hybrid genre of political opinion review (*Chapter 5* by *Marjut Yohansson*) – which is quiet unpredictable a topic within the context of digital discourse, as well as gender-specific emoticons usage in relational social media practice (*Chapter 6*). Thus, from the chapters forming *Part III* we learn that multimodality and multisemioticity concepts are inherent for digital discourse and provide a number of directions for researches in this sphere.

Here as one of the chapters within the topic of digital discourse analysis (namely, *Chapter 3*) we get a curious presentation of a full transcription of a Skype video chat between a lecturer (the author herself) and one of her students concerning a research project. It's quite notable that the aim of the author is not just a mere analysis of the transcriptions but two-way decoding of both linguistic and non-linguistic components of the video chat, including pragmatics, modality, proxemics, kinesics, gaze patterns. All of which, in her opinion, should be incorporated into university studies as a multidisciplinary component.

Chapter 6 in this part called *Emoticons in Relational Writing Practices on WhatsApp: Some Reflections on Gender* authored by Carmen Pérez-Sabater   appears to be also remarkable enough as to draw the reader's attention to such a phenomenon as memes and with this purpose applicability of cognitive pragmatics theories as a means to study and decode them. Moreover, gender-differentiation in discourse is indeed a trendy and acute direction of modern studies which makes this Chapter quite valuable.

Part IV, in its turn, headlined *Face and Identity* concentrates on image creation phenomena in the digital discourse analysis and comprises 4 chapters.

The first one on the list in this part *Chapter 7* by *Camilla Vásquez* and *Addie Sayers China* focuses on the analysis of Amazon site customers' reviews on goods and the analysis of how gender stereotypes influence the discourse applied and applicable. It is arranged as a comparison of a parody review obviously gendering product marketing versus a neutral one. All this is performed to specify the patterns remarkable for different genders in providing reviews.

Chapter 8, called *Linguistic Expert Creation in Online Health Practices,* authored by Marie-Thérèse Rudolph von Rohr, Franziska Thurnherr and Miriam A. Loher presents a study concerning the importance of thorough language selection for medical online consultancy services to sound trustworthy and reliable for the patients receiving emails and messages on various healthcare issues.

Face and identity discourse analysis covers mostly social issues of self-presentation of a person while establishing communication online. All in all, for the time being there is a vast number of researches and studies on media interactions. Here digital technologies appear to be a mediator between the participants engaged into the process of personal, professional or business issues negotiating. In this aspect social media create new forms and modes for personal cosnstruction and identity dependent on the resources and multiple semiotic modes employed as well as individual strategies designed. Face and identity online could appear pretty much different from the offline ones through the adaptation of and adjustment to sometimes imagined networked groups, participants and audiences and utilization of various topics and language practices. It makes the users engage the discourse sometimes alien and quite unpredictable for each particular individual, keep the face or lose it, as it is highlighted in *Chapter 10*: *Losing Face on Facebook: Linguistic Strategies to Repair Face in a Spanish Common Interest Group* by Carmen Maíz Areválo.

In this aspect *Chapter 9* of this part, namely *How Social Media Shapes Identities and Discourses in Professional Digital Settings: Self-Communication or Self-Branding?* by Sandra Petroni is worthwhile. We can't but agree with the quote that "Social Media are a fertile ground for personal and professional identity construction" (p.257) as well as a multifocal path to global communication at large, that's where Web 2.0 is reigning. That's truthful indeed that participation in various messengers and social networks, whatever the name and purpose of those, makes the participants kind of transform and "recontextualize" their identity.

Sometimes one appears to be excessively influenced by the digital societal rules, trying to upgrade one's social status, self-perception and self-esteem on top, both extra and intra. Being taken in, social networking participants are very much likely to fall victims of self-promotion instincts instead of building valuable discourse practices. Such a narcissistic behavioral trend inevitably leads to self-branding, seeking likeness and recognition. Same as in professional and business discourse online people tend to market themselves, favor such practices that could shade their personality. They assume the air of being someone else or possessing such social or individual qualities that are out of reach offline for them.

In other words, online self-presentation is a "front stage actors" performance for them played with the purpose to boost their digital image which nowadays with the technologies an integral part of our livelihood is a part of a human overall reputation.

In *Part V Language and Media Ideologies, Chapter 11* authored by Antonio García-Gómez *Sexting and Hegemonic Masculinity: Interrogating Male Sexual Agency, Empowerment and Dominant Gendered Norms* proves a great topicality firstly for psychologists and sociologists and only secondly for linguists. It focuses on the free field for action mostly for teenagers to practice their sexuality in messaging (sexting) and interacting with peers. Meanwhile, as marked out by the author, this type of on-line communication "is gaining popularity among adults"(p.314). Thus, here the author is aiming at figuring out the essence of the discourse used on par with the risks and dangers such a type of social networking generates.

Chapter 12 by Maria Sifianou and Spiridoula Bella, called *Twitter, Politeness, Self-Presentation* overviews courtesy and impoliteness in Greek, figuring out as well if on-line and real-life communication may somehow alter the notions of it.

The last but not the least chapter of the part as well as of the monography itself is *Chapter 13* written by 3 authors – Rebecca Roeder, Elizabeth Miller and Pilar Garcés-Conejos Blitvich is presenting a relevant pilot study of students' awareness about the norms, standards, correctness and appropriate forms of the language used in messaging nowadays.

Adding up to its originality the book contains an array of numerous figures and tables illustrating the up-to-date researches in gender-related usage of Digital Discourse, self-presentation and imaging in social media,

usage of specific lexical units in digital-based communication, study of face-loss situations and face-repairing strategies and other.

The main and only drawback of the book is that some of the chapters use analysis of the data referring to the beginning of the Millenium years, while present-day reality could have provided more divergent research of the relevant issues accordingly. In this regard, a comparative analysis of various digital era data could be more persuasive, which is still just our humble opinion.

The book is a superb-quality, multi-faceted research that provides an impeccable analysis of digital discourse and worthwhile understanding of the past and modern trends in social digital forms and means of interaction as well as prospects for the near future.

What makes the book distinguishably valuable is the study of communication activity and corresponding discourse presented in different languages and digital platforms.

It appears novice that the authors view media platforms as not just social networking spaces but rather an integral part of life in society, creating new standards and norms of coexistence.

In sum, the book is a precious and irreplaceable for the time being research on digital discourse.

Successful Global Collaborations in Higher Education Institutions: Review

Baiba Briede

Latvia University of Life Sciences and Technologies (LLU)

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Baiba Briede, Faculty of Engineering, LLU, 5 J.Cakste blvd., Jelgava, Latvia, LV-3001. E-mail: baiba.briede@llu.lv

AI-Youbi, A., Zahed, A., & Tierney, W. (Eds.). (2020). *Successful Global Collaborations in Higher Education Institutions*. Springer International Publishing.

The role of universities and their co-operation should be in line with the emerging tendencies of the 21st century society given the progress of 4IR and sustainability goals in academic and research work.

The reviewed book entitled "Successful Global Collaborations in Higher Education Institutions" was published in 2020 in the Education Series of Springer International Publishing.

The book provides a panoramic analysis of the themes on global collaboration among universities touching problematic aspects and challenges. The book consists of the introduction, bio-notes on editors and contributors, and nine chapters grouped into three parts.

The introduction by the book editors Abdulrahman AI-Youbi, Adnan H. M. Zahed, William G. Tierney parses the scope of universities' international activities from the 20th century up to now with diverse forms in collaboration especially via Internet.

The first four chapters are included in Part One entitled "Implementation of Global Partnerships". It relates to global university collaborations, a striking feature of the 21st century higher education.

Chapter One by Abdulrahman Al-Youbi and Adnan H. M. Zahedwhich "King Abdulaziz University's Approach to International Collaboration" offers the terms "cooperation", "collaboration" and "partnership", their definitions and scope. The chapter moves on to some practical aspects of collaboration and cooperation in higher education, in general, and by King Abdulaziz University (KAU), in particular. The authors highlight the importance to keep a close link between knowledge/innovations, university, and industry in the contexts of local and global issues, such as climate, energy consumption, social problems, etc. The authors also touch upon institutional and budget aspects as well as the aspect of technical international cooperation explaining its nature, aims, and channels of cooperation. International collaboration in higher education in Saudi Arabia is also outlined in Chapter One. It gives a detailed description how this process is being developed at KAU. The authors explain how international agreements are administered. They show graphically how the International Advisory Board can enhance KAU's academic, scientific and community progress. The importance of the agreements with leading universities participated in international student programs and scientist programs is translated into recruiting of talented international students, strengthening academic excellence, publishing research results in authoritative scientific journals, etc. It is worth mentioning that the KAU idea of research groups (25) and collaboration with industry under the guidance of Research and Consulting Institute (RACI) brings a wide
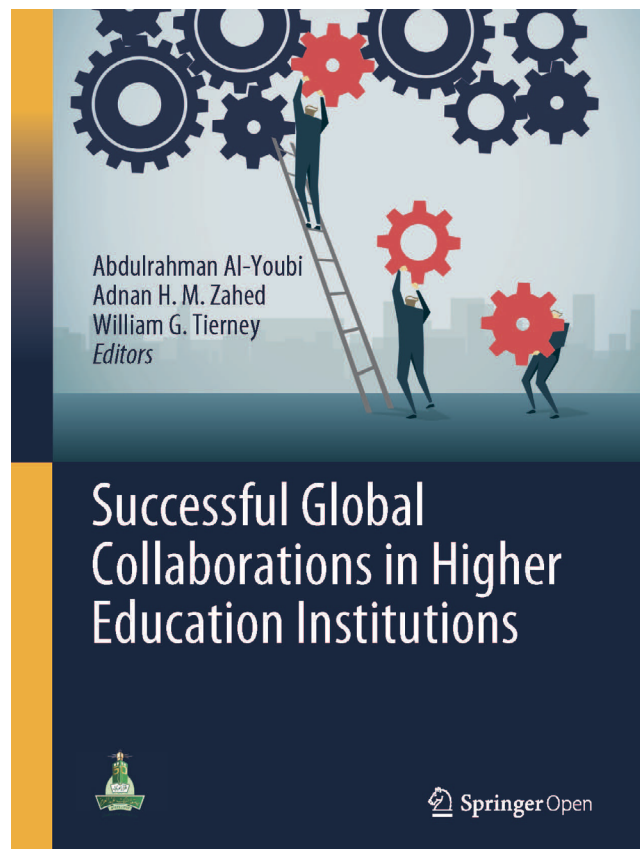
spectrum of opportunities in research proposals and services (5,000 researchers, more than 50 central laboratories in various fields and more than 200 expert houses comprising consulting in various sectors of the kingdom). The authors point out that KAU tends to participate in leading international, cultural, scientific, and research collaboration. The authors substantiate the line of development with statistics.

Chapter Two by William G. Tierney entitled "Creating an Organizational Climate for Global Partnerships: Challenges and Opportunities" consists of six sections. The author introduces his readers to globalization in tertiary education. The second section is focused on organizational culture as an important factor in promoting global partnership in higher education. The author advocates a broad concept of organizational culture stressing that it is highly important to understand both a certain organization's culture and the one of whom they will enter into a global partnership. The author also mentions aspects in organizational culture what practitioners have to consider developing the process of global partnership, and he explains the key words of the university organizational culture as mission, socialization, information, strategy, leadership, and environment.

The third and fourth chapters give a detailed analysis of globalization, its impact on tertiary education in the context of local and global needs. The author touches upon the peculiarities of global processes in tertiary education. The idea of adaptation to changes and finding ways how to be innovative in global conditions permeate the study. The author concludes that universities have to build an innovative culture to be able to meet all challenges in global partnership. The author's assessment of global partnership points to creativity and innovations as the buzz words in the environment of the university. The last two sections are focused on the means of developing global partnerships among universities creating innovative environments. The changing role of academic staff, the chosen model of internationalization, the role of the ministry and funding are crucial factors on which stable global partnerships depend.

Chapter Three "Global Citizens for the Twenty-First Century: The Role of International Partnerships in University Education" by Feridun Hamdullahpur comprises five sections. The analysis of the nature of international partnerships at universities in the context of education and research as well as work-integrated learning opportunities for the future is conducted throughout the chapter. Three levels of collaboration success are assessed: individual, institutional, and national and global impact. The author recognises that individual impact comes mainly from student exchanges, and thus the students can develop their careers, with companies having an opportunity to attract talented individuals. The author also enumerates barriers the exchange students face. Agreements could become instruments to limit them. As regards the institutional level, the author states that it mainly refers to research including joint research projects, co-authoring of research papers and the sharing of resources through joint research grants and research equipment use, and the examples of implementation of the research activities are mentioned. Further, national and global impact is described. The author states that one of outcomes is changes in the society because it implies creating of intellectual property, impact on regional and global economy by fostering innovations and international cooperation. Statistics on international students outside their home countries and benefits implementing the three levels are substantiated in the study.

The author looks into a range of university partnerships, with several cases from the University of Waterloo, Soochow University and Suzhou Industrial Park Joint Institute of Research and Education on Nanotechnology. The author mentions that the core of partnership is programmes and agreements that blend research, education, and commercialization and, thus, entrepreneurship and creator-friendly IP policy is developed.

The author highlights that the role of the university is crucial in partnership with this global network promoting the UN's 17 Sustainable development Goals, namely the United Nations Sustainable Development Solutions Network (SDSN). The author explains how the University of Waterloo expands its activities with SDSN and what its impact in Canada and the world is. Another example embraces risk management, economic sustainability, and actuarial science development in Indonesia. The overview of the University of Waterloo together with appropriate institutions in Canada shows the partnership links and how they help to increase the number and quality of Indonesian actuarial science graduates, strengthen the linkages among industry, government, and educational institutions. The chapter also makes a contribution on work-integrated learning and experiential education. The author dwells upon the opportunities and benefits students can get by means of the cooperation programmes. The study clearly demonstrates the importance of connections and activities

which open opportunities for students, faculty members, scientists, and society in the development of economics and knowledge.

Chapter Four "International Cooperation in East Asian Higher Education" by Gerard A. Postiglione shows why Asia is interested in global cooperation. Eastern Asia's motivation to become one of the centres of international cooperation and regional links is substantially explained against cultural traditions, historical affinities, and developmental experiences. The author also points to the reasons why the process of international cooperation in higher education is not developed enough and, therefore, five trends in the region to gain better outcomes of international cooperation are addressed. The author recognises that the growing population with rapidly expanding elementary and secondary education is the cause of the growing number of students in higher education.

Economic integration, knowledge-based economy, improved communication systems are outlined as instruments to improve international partnership in higher education. The chapter is related to the quality issues in higher education. Secondary school leavers' skills are aligned with the entrance requirements at universities. The problems of access and equity in higher education are outlined.

The second part entitled "International Collaboration and Knowledge Transfer" comprises three chapters on the analysis of collaboration implementation.

Chapter Five "International Collaboration as a Catalyst for Change: The Case of Nanyang Technological University, Singapore 2003–2017" by Guaning Su lists globalization aspects of Nanyang Technological University (NTU) in Singapore for the period of 15 years. The chapter outlines modern and further opportunities of NTU involvement in international partnerships' process. and the instruments are autonomous universities and National Research Foundation (NRF) with single programme funding up to 150 m Singapore dollars, and the author emphasizes that it gives a chance to recruit the very best from around the world. The author also highlights the importance of NRF and NTU in the development of internationalization of Singapore's higher education and research including also China programmes.

Chapter Six by Jozef Ritzen is entitled "Making Ideas Work for Society: University Cooperation in Knowledge Transfer". The chapter dwells upon positive effects of knowledge transfer (KT). It also presents this process in King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. The author emphasizes that all oil-rich countries on the Arabian Peninsula strive toward less economic dependency on oil revenues. He recognizes KT as one of the instruments which promotes development of the region. Therefore, the author highlights the importance of innovation and valorization which help to decrease oil dependency. Hewlett-Packard Companies successes are mentioned as bright examples in USA between universities research achievements and business development. The author also highlights KT links between business and universities in Europe. The author explains that KT in the region is focused on research and development investments.

Chapter Seven "Student Exchange: The First Step Toward International Collaboration" by Abdullah Atalar analyses student exchange programs as one of the most effective tools for preparing students to work in global conditions. The essence of undergraduate and graduate student exchange programs is briefly outlined in the context of STEM studies. Then the basic principles of exchange programs are revealed. The readers can also read about the advantages and disadvantages of exchange programs from students' and universities' perspectives. The author highlights that in spite of being out of comfort zone, exchange students are more successful in their studies and on the labour market. The author also presents two successful student exchange programs as EU Erasmus program and AFS-USA Program.

The chapter reveals other forms of international exchange as digital networks with opportunities to make university learning, teaching and collaborations more flexible, using video conferences, Moodle, Skype, Google Docs, and other mentioned tools. Further, the author gives brief information on exchange and dual degree student programmes as well as research workshops.

Part Three entitled "Challenges and Sustainability of Global Partnerships" consists of two chapters and highlights the challenges and ideas of sustainability universities have to meet in global partnership.

Chapter 8 "The Tricky Terrain of Global University Partnerships" by James Soto Antony reveals some aspects of cooperation and collaboration of US higher education institutions inside the country and abroad. It starts with a historical outlook in international relations in higher education starting from colonial times in the seventeenth century. The author presents examples of international partnerships. The examples are illustrated with diverse statistics giving a convincing insight into the development of international partnerships. Types of partnership are explained unambiguously with convincing examples.

The analysis of global partnerships brings out the four main challenges. The author substantiates each challenge with examples showing also the causes of partnership failures. The chapter also entails an explanation of implications and recommendations in the field of global partnerships focusing on forms, cultural differences, funding, importance of brands, and values.

Chapter 9 by Michael Lanfordentitled is headlined "Long-Term Sustainability in Global Higher Education Partnerships". It focuses on the importance of global partnerships showing aspects that can influence their sustainability. The author mentions threats, conditions that can improve the prospects of long-term sustainability.

The chapter covers four threats influencing sustainable development of global partnership. The threats, i.e. divergent motivations and goals, inadequate planning and funding volatility, leadership turnover and instability, and poor staff morale, are analysed in various contexts such as education peculiarities, relations, collaboration, cultures, communication, competitiveness, national interests, etc. The threats are illustrated by examples from higher schools in the context of various countries. The author focuses on improving global partnerships among higher education institutions. Items promoting successive development of partnerships are highlighted in the chapter.

Chapter Nine and the book end with items referring to the problems of legitimacy. The author reveals complexity of legal processes and societal aspects of global partnership.

The book is a contribution to understanding of processes of global partnership. Chapters are equally long and each of them reflects the raised problems deeply enough. The value of the book is indisputable for educators, researchers, PhD students, and all interested in the recent trends in higher education. The chapters step by step unfold the scope of global partnerships in higher education. Various models of international cooperation describe opportunities for universities and show what higher education establishments can learn from experiences in global partnership. The potential target group of the book are academic and administrative staff of universities, researchers, postgraduate and graduate students developing competence in global partnership.

Contents