jle

JOURNAL OF LANGUAGE & EDUCATION

HIGHER SCHOOL OF ECONOMICS
NATIONAL RESEARCH UNIVERSITY

Content

Opinion Articles

Systematic Reviews

Reviews

Academic Development in Research Focus

Elena Tikhonova[1,2], Lilia Raitskaya[3]

[1] HSE University

[2] Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University)

[3] Moscow State Institute of International Relations (MGIMO 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

Introduction: The editorial aims to revisit the field of academic development as it is being researched worldwide. The JLE editors analyse the notion, its origin, domains, and implementation trajectories in various countries.

Overview of Global Research on Academic Development: A short overview of the previously published research on academic development shows that most publications date between 2000 and 2020, with a focus on teaching and learning, trajectories in higher education, trends in practices of academic developers, and research as part of academic development. The authors also dwell upon the research competencies and support to the researchers that have become an integral part of academic development programmes in many countries.

Survey: To clarify the attitudes to academic development in the regions that took up academic development some ten years ago, a Survey on Perceptions of Academic Development was conducted among university staff in Russia. It found out the placement of academic development in higher education.

Conclusion: Summing up the key issues relating to academic development, the JLE editors outline the research agenda on academic development for potential authors.

Keywords: academic development, university, faculty, staff development, research, professional development, teaching, learning

Introduction

Academic profession includes teaching, research and service. The University as an institution is being transformed, with new challenges arising with time. The concept "academic development", as we know it now, came into being some forty years ago, spurred by spreading technologies in education. Though, some researchers consider twenty years as the period of the field development (Altbach, 2014). But already in the 1960s and 1970s there was an emphasis on teaching development in pursuit of the quality of education that was to a degree within modern perceptions of the academic development field. Thus, this aspect of academic development was promoted but in isolation to other aspects (Åkerlind, 2011). Before targeting research competencies, universities turned to meeting other non-core needs such as "development of leadership and management skills" (Åkerlind, 2011).

The different approaches to the period timing result from different domains that researchers include into the field of academic development. By now, academic development has turned into a system incorporated in higher education of some countries and supporting staff at universities in satisfying their needs. In other countries, academic development exists de facto or is overwise named.

At present, academic development forms an integral part of Anglophone educational systems and a nearly established research field. More countries are beginning to share the academic development discourse, though some of the related activities, policy tools, and realia have been there for years, though differently named.

The domains of well-established systems of academic development in Anglophone countries are based on national projects or any other nation-wide initiatives. This was the case in Australia, with its "Benchmarking Performance of Academic Development Units in Australian Universities". The latter included strategy,

policy and governance at institution, quality of learning and teaching, scholarship of learning and teaching, professional development, credit-bearing programmes in higher education, learning and teaching development, engagement, academic development unit effectiveness (CADAD, 2011).

There is another complex approach to academic development within which "six qualitatively different ways of experiencing development" are outlined, including work productivity, academic standing, work quality, breadth of understanding, contribution to a field or community (Åkerlind, 2005). Some researchers categorise "academic development work as academic, professional, or a mix of the two" (Fraser & Ling, 2014).

In response to the new challenges, academic development as a system within universities has broadened to cover support to students' learning and, to some point, research. The manifestation of higher education and growing international competition among universities have forced universities to invest more in research, becoming "research intensive" (Altbach, 2014).

A mixture of approaches to research as an essential part of academic development resulted from the role that research plays in the activities of university professors and lecturers. Whereas research is incorporated in the profession of university teachers at large, there are notable differences among the university requirements towards research and publications depending on academic positions and countries.

In Anglophone countries, a tenure-track professorship implies a teaching professor, who may be engaged in research. Moreover, though teaching and university service state the core of the activities of a tenure-track professor, a tenure is granted mainly based on research. Research professors are a separate category, and as such their research is funded in a different way. In non-Anglophone countries, professorships tend to focus on teaching with research as an essential, but incidental activity, with few exceptions.

The shift to research in academic development has become remarkable, with universities getting involved into university rankings. As most of the rankings are essentially based on university scholarly publications and their scientometrics, professors and lecturers have found themselves involuntarily bound to publish articles in highly reputed journals. Thus, research is formally incorporated into academic development systems at universities.

An Overview of Global Research on Academic Development

As of February 26, 2022, there are as many as 2,058 Scopus-indexed publications with "academic development" as the key word. The first record in Scopus dates to 1961. In the period between 1961 and 2003, the database registered annually from 1 to 19 publications. During 2004-2011, there were 27-79 publications a year. Starting from 2012, the annual numbers were over 100, with 191 and 205 in 2020 and 2021 respectively. The statistics for 2022 are incomplete (26 publications as of February 26, 2022).

The selected publications represent Social Sciences (48.8 %); Psychology (9.9 %); Medicine (9.7 %); Computer Science (6.3 %); Arts and Humanities (4.9 %): Engineering (4.5 %); Business, Management and Accounting (3.2 %), and others (with less than 2 %).

The leading source by the number of publications is the *International Journal for Academic Development* (233 publications). The most proliferate authors include A. J. Martin (12 publications); T. Roxa (11 publications); B. Leibowitz (10 publications).

The search for "academic development" keyword brought 1,512 results (as of February 28, 2022). The results were recorded from 1981 to 2022, with over 150 annually from 2017 and under 50 before 2010.

The source ranking first by the number of publications is the *International Journal for Academic Development* (132 publications), the leading world source with the focus on academic development.

The patterns and trends in the publications indexed in the Web of Science are very much in compliance with those in Scopus, as the *International Journal for Academic Development* is indexed in the both databases.

The prevailing topics in the most cited articles and reviews cover general issues, including the field scope and research approaches (Clegg, 2012; Fraser & Ling, 2014; Greertsema, 2016; Fyffe, 2018); teaching and learning (Barrow & Grant, 2012; Van Schalkwyk, Lebowitz, Herman, & Farmer, 2015); trajectories in higher education (Matthews, Lodge, & Bosanquet, 2014); trends in practices of academic developers (Jones et al., 2017; Sugrue, Englund, Solbrekke, & Fossland, 2018); research as part of academic development (Boyd & Smith, 2016); teacher identity (Van Lankveld et al., 2017).

A Survey on Perceptions of Academic Development

In 2013, Russia found itself among those countries that joined university rankings (QS). It spurred the universities in Russia to promote research and encourage their researchers to publish the results of their work more actively in international highly reputed journals. The researchers needed support in promoting their publishing activities. New mechanisms were introduced at the universities that reminded of academic development structures in the Anglophone countries.

To estimate what perceptions of academic development are prevailing among Russian educators, administration, faculty, and teaching staff at universities, we conducted a small-scale survey.

The survey aims are to find out:

- when the participants came across academic development for the first time;
- what academic development includes;
- what constitutes the difference, if any, between academic and professional development;
- in what ways academic development is integrated into universities.

Participants: 110 participants from six universities located in Russia, including

- 58 professors and lecturers (52.7%), 14 out of 58 are part-time administrators;
- 12 faculty staff (10.9%);
- 30 researchers with part-time teaching (27.3%);
- 10 teaching PhD students (9.1%).

The survey was anonymous and voluntary. All participants were informed of the survey aims and the further use of its results for research purposes. The survey was completed in February 2022.

25.5% of the respondents never heard of academic development. Only 14.5% came across the term within the previous 10 years. Another 30.9% learned about academic development within the last 5 years. The remaining 29.1% of the participant heard of the phenomenon some 1-2 years ago (see Diagram 1).

Diagram 1

The awareness of the educators, university faculty and teaching staff of academic development in the survey at Russian universities
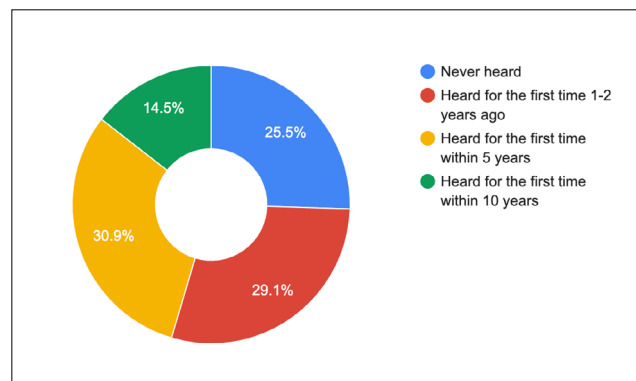
According to the respondents, the concept of academic development covers research competencies (45.5%); information competencies (12.8%); competencies relating to teaching and learning (10.9%); competencies relating to technologies in teaching and learning (10.9%); personal growth competencies (9.1%); academic writing (3.6%); other competencies, including professional development competencies (7.3%).

In the survey, there were judgements on academic development vs professional development that are rather common among university teaching staff in many countries. They include the following observations (slightly abridged):

- Academic development is aimed at enhancing research competencies for teaching purposes;
- Academic development is a complex activity, including fostering research, teaching and information competences of academic staff;
- Professional development is limited to the professional activity. Academic development entails efforts relating to efficient teaching at university and educational technologies;
- Academic development boils down to teaching

at university and educational technologies;

- Professional development is aimed at the higher quality of educational services in higher education by introducing new teaching techniques. Academic development targets university teachers' research directly or indirectly connected with the taught subjects;
- Academic development targets the educational institution on the whole;
- Academic development is linked to academia and research;
- Academic development is limited to research, scholarly writing, recognition in science;
- Academic development is a specially organised and directed activity for teaching and faculty staff to get engaged in educational business, new services and programmes of life-long learning;
- Academic development implies development of teachers' personality, fostering new competencies, building a successful career.

A mixture of notions, contradictory statements, and the above definitions points to the fact that not all universities worldwide have similar approaches to academic development.

There were another two questions in the survey giving an insight into the situation and perceptions of academic development as well as the depth it is incorporated in higher education in Russia (see Diagram 2 and Diagram 3).

Diagram 2

Survey Question 5. Is the term "academic development" used in any programme at your university?
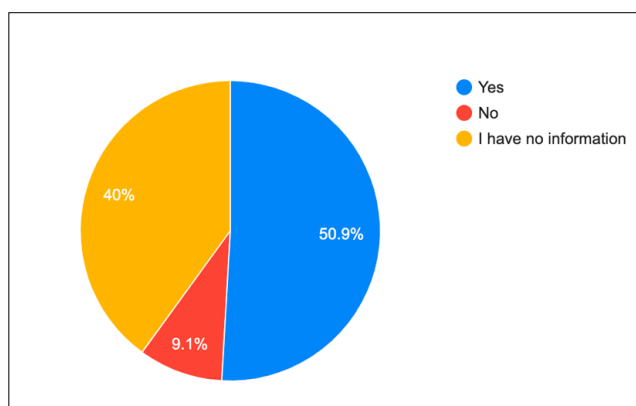
Diagram 3

Survey Question 5. Is the term "academic development" used in your university's internal communication and documentation?
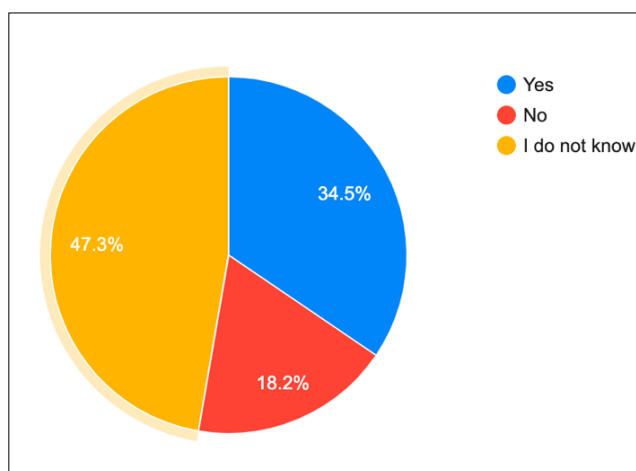
Judging by the results of the survey, the participants included university teaching and faculty staff who were unevenly aware of academic development. The contradictions in valuations and definitions reflected

insufficient or undue efforts to introduce academic development in the universities in Russia. Another explanation is that there might be various terminology used globally and locally. The comparable views are registered in other countries with similar conditions. Some additional research is necessary to get a more unbiased understanding of the situation.

Conclusion

Academic development is a rapidly changing field. The research responds to the new challenges universities and academic profession are facing worldwide. The JLE is willing to give preference to manuscripts on themes within the academic development agenda as the editorial board sees the importance and prominence of the field issues for higher education.

The JLE potential authors might focus on the domains that academic development contains. We attach a particular interest to research as a component of academic development programmes, including support to researchers in determining their publishing trajectory.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Åkerlind, G. S. (2005). Academic growth and development – how do university academics experience it? *Higher Education*, *50*, 1-32. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-004-6345-1

Åkerlind, G. S. (2011). Separating the 'teaching' from the 'academic': Possible unintended consequences. *Teaching in Higher Education, 16*(2), 183-195. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2010.507310

Altbach, P.G. (2014). The emergence of a field and training in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education, 39*(8), 1306-1320. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2014.949541

Barrow, M., & Grant, B. (2012). The "truth" of academic development: How did it get to be about "teaching and learning"? *Higher Education Research and Development, 31*(4), 465-477. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2011.602393

Boyd, P., & Smith, C. (2016). The contemporary academic: Orientation towards research work and researcher identity of higher education lecturers in the health professions. *Studies in Higher Education, 41*(4), 678-695. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2014.943657

Clegg, S. (2012). Conceptualising higher education research and/or academic development as "fields": A critical analysis. *Higher Education Research and Development, 31*(5), 667-678. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2012.690369

Council of Australian Directors of Academic Development (CADAD). (2011). *Benchmarking Performance of Academic Development Units in Australian Universities.* https://www.caullt.edu.au/wp-content/uploads/2017/02/Benchmarking_Report.pdf

Fraser, K., & Ling, P. (2014). How academic is academic development? *International Journal for Academic Development, 19*(3), 226-241. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2013.837827

Fyffe, J. M. (2018). Getting comfortable with being uncomfortable: A narrative account of becoming an academic developer. *International Journal for Academic Development, 23*(4), 355-366. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2018.1496439

Geertsema, J. (2016). Academic development, SoTL and educational research. *International Journal for Academic Development, 21*(2), 122-134. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2016.1175144

Jones, A., Lygo-Baker, S., Markless, S., Rienties, B., & Di Napoli, R. (2017). Conceptualizing impact in academic development: Finding a way through. *Higher Education Research and Development, 36*(1), 116-128. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2016.1176997

Leibowitz, B. (2014). Reflections on academic development: What is in a name? *International Journal for Academic Development, 19*(4), 357-360. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2014.969978

Matthews, K. E., Lodge, J. M., & Bosanquet, A. (2014). Early career academic perceptions, attitudes and professional development activities: Questioning the teaching and research gap to further academic development. *International Journal for Academic Development, 19*(2), 112-124. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2012.724421

Sugrue, C., Englund, T., Solbrekke, T. D., & Fossland, T. (2018). Trends in the practices of academic developers: Trajectories of higher education? *Studies in Higher Education, 43*(12), 2336-2353. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2017.1326026

Van Lankveld, T., Schoonenboom, J., Volman, M., Croiset, G., & Beishuizen, J. (2017). Developing a teacher identity in the university context: A systematic review of the literature. *Higher Education Research and Development, 36*(2), 325-342. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2016.1208

154

Van Schalkwyk, S., Leibowitz, B., Herman, N., & Farmer, J. (2015). Reflections on professional learning: Choices, context and culture. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 46*, 4-10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2015.03.002

Oral and Written Summarizing Strategy Training and Reading Comprehension: Peer-Mediated vs. Individualistic Task Performance

Zahra Aghazadeh, Mohammad Mohammadi, Mehdi Sarkhosh

Urmia University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Zahra Aghazadeh, Urmia University, Urmia, Iran. E-mail: zahra.aghazadeh.zm@gmail.com

Background: Drawing upon Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT), this study inspected the impact of spoken and written summary training on intermediate EFL students' long-term reading comprehension in individual and peer-mediated conditions.

Method: 120 Iranian EFL intermediate male and female learners aged 16 to 18 years were randomly assigned into two main conditions (i.e., individual and peer-mediated). Moreover, each condition was divided into spoken, written, and no summary groups. The treatment lasted for six sessions, and then a delayed post-test, summarization scale, and a researcher-developed collaboration scale were administered at the end of the study.

Results: The outcomes of one-way ANOVA revealed that summary training was efficacious in improving EFL students' reading skills. However, the verbal summary group exceeded the written and control groups. In addition, the findings of the independent-samples t-test demonstrated that the learners' reading skills in peer-mediated groups significantly improved in the delayed post-test compared to their counterparts. Similarly, the findings emerging from the analysis of the questionnaires highlighted both instructors' and the students' positive perceptions on summarizing strategies and collaboration in the classrooms.

Implication: The implications are presented concerning the effectiveness of summary training and peer-mediation in EFL reading courses.

Keywords: peer-mediation, perception, reading skill, socio-cultural theory, summarizing strategy training

Introduction

Collaborative learning has its roots in Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT), which regards learning as a social activity based on an interaction between the learner and a context (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). Mediation, the most fundamental theme in SCT, highlights that in performing tasks, the instructors or more knowledgeable peers ought to support or provide scaffolding to the less competent learners to help them move toward the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) elucidated by Vygotsky (1978) as the gap between learners' independent performance and when guided by more capable peers. A significant educational consequence of ZPD is its focus on interaction in learning and teaching contexts. As a corollary, one way to promote social interaction in the classroom is to engage learners in collaborative pair or group works (e.g., Nassaji & Tian, 2010; Swain, 2010).

Based on the social constructivist view, the primary origin of cognitive tasks is the external tasks. Once people interact, their cognitive processes are activated, which take place on the inner-psychological or social module and encompass both mental and language development. Differently stated, external tasks are converted into mental activities by internalization processes (Fahim & Haghani, 2012). With regard to second language (L2) education, this implies that students build knowledge first cooperatively as a shared task, and after that, they turn it into a mental one via internalization processes. This co-construction of information involves students in cognitive development that could be an essential avenue for L2 acquisition (Swain & Lapkin, 2002).

As it is axiomatic, collaborative learning, as a learner-centered method, is backed by Input, Output, and Interaction hypotheses. In cooperative learning classrooms, since the group members' language levels are approximately equal, the input the learners

---

Research Article

receive from each other is comprehensible, learners' output is increased due to decreased teacher talk. Consequently, negotiation and interactional adjustments augment meaningful interaction among learners, contributing to linguistic and cognitive developments (Jacobs & Renandya, 2019). Another most outstanding theory to which cooperative learning clings is Social Interdependence Theory, which affirms that learners should be accountable for their and others' learning, and gradually proceed from other-regulation to self-regulation (i.e., autonomous learning), which is the most cherished conviction in collaborative learning (Veldman et al., 2020).

Research on language learning strategies has recently gained popularity (e.g., Chamot & Harris, 2019; Oxford & Amerstorfer, 2018; Thomas & Rose, 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). Thereby, using strategies is one of the prominent parts of reading instruction, leading to better comprehension (Oxford, 2017). Anderson (1991) suggested that reading strategies are a learner's various techniques to accomplish effective reading comprehension. Successful readers are equipped with a myriad of strategies and know how to utilize them effectively (Milla & Gutierrez-Mangado, 2019). Summarizing is a strategy that relates reading to speaking or writing; moreover, it is a top-down process that can attract students' attention who enjoy an analytical bottom-up approach (Nuttall, 1996). As Ozdemir (2018) has remarked, summarization indicates the degree of reading comprehension and needs to be incorporated in all reading studies. Moreover, researchers have demonstrated that summarizing is a complicated cognitive skill that nurtures and flourishes in the long run (e.g., Brown & Day, 1983; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Winograd, 1984).

Earlier investigations document that learners can be trained in summarizing (e.g., Cheng & Su, 2012; McDonough et al., 2014; Yasuda, 2015). In the first language (L1) context, Rinehart et al. (1986) explored the influence of summary instruction on 70 learners' L1 reading and studying behaviour. The participants were trained in summarizing and then were requested to respond to comprehension questions. The findings revealed that the instruction improved learners' recall of more critical ideas in the passages and enhanced the study time. Furthermore, Bean and Steenwyk (1984) studied how summary instruction influenced the L1 reading skill of learners. The experimental groups that received training in summarizing in L1 outperformed the control group in the comprehension test. These investigations explored the association between reading skills and summarization in the L1 context. Nevertheless, they neglect to consider the impact of summarization instruction, particularly oral

summarization, on reading comprehension regularly and over time, which is an issue that the present research examines.

It is also worth mentioning that reading remains problematic for most EFL students (Gorusch & Taguchi, 2010; Mehrpour & Rahimi, 2010), particularly Iranian EFL learners (Karbalaei, 2011), due to the predominance of the traditional reading method (Memari Hanjani & Li, 2017). Collaborative learning is not applied, and the educational system is oriented toward competitive and individualistic learning (Memari Hanjani & Li, 2017). Teachers curb learners' active roles in reading and their opportunities to interact with one another (Rocca, 2010; Zou, 2011). Admittedly, teachers' lack of time to encourage learners to write or tell the summaries of the texts and learners' negative attitude toward writing are the principal reasons for this unsatisfactory situation in the Iranian EFL educational settings, which impedes instructors from moving learners toward employing effective strategies to help learners comprehend the texts (Zoghi, Mustafa, & Maasum, 2010). Moreover, Gow and Kember (1990) believe that collaborative learning techniques cannot be applied in Eastern and Asian contexts since the students are assumed to be more passive in these contexts. Hence, more inquiry seems necessary in this realm to obtain more accurate results in non-Western countries. Besides, as van Rijk et al. (2017) declared, while a substantial number of studies have concentrated on sociocultural theory (SCT) in practice, it has not been perspicuously addressed in reading research.

Very few attempts have been made to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the efficacy of summary writing (e.g., Huang, 2014; Marzec-Stawiarska, 2016; McDonough et al., 2014; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016), and also the effectiveness of collaboration in reading courses (e.g., Duxbury & Tsai, 2010; Fan, 2010; Khan, 2008; Pan & Wu, 2013), and if investigated at all, most have been done in Taiwanese and Thai EFL university contexts. In the Iranian EFL context, some studies (e.g., Khaki, 2014; Khoshsima & Tiyar, 2014; Yousefvand, 2013; Zafarani & Kabgani, 2014) concentrated merely on the efficacy of summary writing on learners' reading comprehension. Nonetheless, the above-mentioned studies did not delve beneath the effects of oral summarizing strategy training; therefore, the number of studies evaluating the benefits of summarizing strategy training in the spoken discourse is meager compared to the research assessing the advantages of summary writing. It is noteworthy to mention that the aforementioned studies have not employed a socio-cultural theoretical perspective that underlines the

prominence of social interactions in learning and development, which is thoroughly pertinent to the ultimate focus of this paper.

Indeed, the current query pinpoints written and spoken summarizing strategy instruction in which peer-mediation is central in the class based on the SCT model of language learning, and to the best of our knowledge, no such exploration has hitherto been carried out to delve beneath this particular issue. Another impetus for conducting this research is that less attention has been paid to uncover what happens in both pair and individual conditions in the Iranian EFL context and delineate its effectiveness on EFL students' reading skills in the long run. Focusing on the long-term influence of collaboration on students' reading comprehension provides another justification for its novelty. To recapitulate, the eminence of the study lies in the fact that no study before has appraised various summarizing strategies (i.e., verbal and written) under different conditions, including individual and collaborative, as well as the views teachers and learners hold toward summarizing strategies and collaboration all in one study. Although learners' and teachers' attitudes toward summarizing strategy and collaboration are regarded as overriding constructs in L2 reading, the fact is that their perceptions have remained relatively unexplored in the Iranian context. To this end, it is desirable to carry out surveys to obtain an in-depth comprehension of (1) what students are expecting of their teachers, (2) what beliefs they hold toward collaboration and summarizing, and (3) their application in EFL classes to account for how they approach L2 reading. Thereupon research into learners' and teachers' beliefs can enrich our understanding of collaboration and summarizing strategies. This is a virgin and pristine territory upon which more studies are needed. Hence, the research questions that guided data collection are as follows:

1. Is there a significant difference among patterns of summarizing strategy training regarding their delayed impact on EFL students' reading skills in individual conditions?
2. Is there a significant difference among patterns of summarizing strategy training regarding their delayed impact on EFL students' reading skill in collaborative conditions?
3. Is there a significant difference between collaborative and individual approaches regarding delayed effects on EFL students' reading skill?
4. What are EFL teachers' and students' perceptions toward summarizing strategies?
5. What are EFL teachers' and students' perceptions toward collaboration?

Correspondingly, the following research hypotheses were formulated:

HO1: There was no significant difference among patterns of summarizing strategy training (oral, written, and control group) in terms of their delayed effect on intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension in the individual condition.
HO2: There was no significant difference among patterns of summarizing strategy training (oral, written, and control group) in terms of their delayed effect on intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension in collaborative conditions.
HO3: There was no significant difference between collaborative and individual conditions in terms of delayed effects on intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension.

Method

Design

The current examination employed an experimental Pretest-Posttest Design, in which a pretest was conducted to ensure the comparability of the control group and experimental groups before the treatment. Then, the experimental groups received the treatment, and the control group proceeded with the default instruction. Finally, a post-test was administered to measure the extent to which the treatment was effective. Likewise, two questionnaires were used to measure the teachers' and learners' attitudes toward summarizing strategy and collaboration.

Participants

Through Preliminary English Test (PET), 120 homogenous intermediate EFL male and female learners out of the pool of 150 whose scores fell one standard deviation above and below the mean at Shokouh English Institute (SEI) in Salmas, Iran, were selected. Attendees had at least three years of EFL learning experience, aged between 16-18 years old, and spoke Turkish and Kurdish. They were randomly assigned into two core categories: peer-mediated (N= 60) and individual (N= 60). Moreover, each category was divided into three subcategories receiving different types of summarizing strategy training (i.e., verbal, written, and no summary). In addition to the students, ten teachers with at least six years of

experience participated in the study. Threats to internal validity were eliminated since the participants in this examination did not have any experience in summary writing and oral summary since there was no requirement to tell and write summaries in the institute and the secondary school curriculum. In addition, none of the attendees had participated in collaborative learning activities before.

Instruments

In order to explore whether the utilized scales in data collection were appropriate ones, reliability was needed to be investigated. Thereby, the internal consistency of the instruments was calculated by applying Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Proficiency Test

PET was implemented as a proficiency test which included 67 items, that is, listening (25 items), writing (7 items), and reading (35 items). The test enjoyed a good level of reliability ($\alpha = 0.81$). The scoring followed a binary criterion, with an incorrect response getting zero and the correct response receiving 1 point. The researchers scored the test.

Pre-test and Delayed Post-test

The researchers employed First Certificate in English (FCE) reading test to determine the participants' reading ability. The test contained 34 items with four reading tasks, including matching headings to paragraphs, answering multiple-choice items, choosing which sentence fits into gaps in a text, and deciding which short texts contain the given information. Before administering the test to the principal population of the study, the researchers piloted the test with a sample similar to the key population and estimated its reliability using α-Cronbach, which was 0.79. These tests were subjected to the same scoring procedure utilized in the PET test (i.e., correct response one score; incorrect response zero scores), and the researcher scored them. Basically, the researchers used the test to ensure that the participants' reading ability was not different from each other. Afterward, the same test was executed in the delayed post-test stage to look into the effect of treatments. It needs to be noted that the researchers applied the same test twice to ensure comparability regarding the difficulty of the comprehension questions and enhance the reliability of the results. Even though using the same test twice could make the learners learn from the test, to eliminate the practice effect, the answers of the pre-test were not discussed with the learners. Besides, to remove the memory effect, the delayed post-test was conducted a month later.

Questionnaires

The questionnaires encompassed an introductory section, a demographic characteristics section, and the main section. In the introduction, confidentiality, anonymity, and voluntary participation were clarified. The next section was an inquiry into the participants' data, including gender, age, educational level, and teaching experience (this option was included only in the teachers' questionnaire). The main section of the summarizing strategy questionnaire was adopted from the questionnaire designed by Nguyen and Nguyen (2017) and contained ten statements. Based on α-Cronbach, the credibility of learner and teacher questionnaires was 0.81 and 0.83, respectively. The main section of the collaboration questionnaire was designed according to the conceptual underpinnings of SCT and comprised eight statements. Based on α-Cronbach, the credibility of learner and teacher questionnaires was 0.83 and 0.80, respectively. Both scales were developed on a five-point Likert scale, whose responses varied from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. Moreover, the questionnaires were piloted with a group of English teachers and learners representative of the main participants and checked against the content validity by several EFL professors from the English department of Urmia University. Having ensured that the questionnaires possess appropriate qualities for use in the study, we administered them in the primary research.

Reading Passages

The participants in this study read, prepared, wrote, and told summaries of the texts selected from the intermediate Select Readings textbook, Second Edition. The researchers selected the same texts for all the groups. Therefore, five intermediate-level texts were chosen for reading purposes. Every session, only one reading passage was studied in the class, and the students wrote and told their summaries in collaborative and individual conditions.

Procedure

As stated earlier, the researchers utilized the PET test to select 120 intermediate homogeneous students. Subsequently, the candidates were randomly assigned into two dominant conditions (i.e., peer-mediated and individual). The learners in each condition were randomly assigned into verbal and written experimental groups and one control group. FCE reading test was carried out as a pre-test among all the attendees.

All the groups pursued the same curriculum, discussed the same topics, read the same books, and received identical pre-reading activities. Notwithstanding,

during the treatment, participants in the experimental groups (both verbal and written) received training on summarizing strategies expounded by Brown and Day (1983). This instruction entails identifying the topic sentences and main ideas of the paragraphs and writing them in their own words, removing redundant and repeated information, eliminating unimportant details, recognizing supporting sentences and paraphrasing them, generalizing the statements, relating new ideas mentioned in the text with their schematic knowledge, making connections among ideas integrated into the reading text, changing the order of the ideas, and using proper linking words to produce coherent texts. The teachers defined one step in each session, showed examples of that strategy, and provided learners with sufficient time to prepare their summaries. The students in the first experimental group got engaged in written summarizing. In the post-reading phase, the teachers asked the students in the individual group to jot down the summaries of the passages individually in the class, and the collaborative group wrote the summaries in pairs in the class each session and handed them to the teachers. The attendees in the second experimental group got engaged in verbal summarizing, which was audio-recorded using a smartphone. On the one hand, students were requested to prepare a verbal summary individually in the individual group and collaboratively in the collaborative group. On the other hand, the control groups followed the procedures used in the other groups for pre-reading, reading, and post-reading without any treatment. In other words, the control groups did not receive any particular instructions in summarizing strategies, and the teacher read and explained the passages sentence by sentence. The time of the instruction was equal among the groups. The treatment lasted six sessions (2 hours each session), and the delayed post-test was administered after a month. Finally, to perceive the teachers' and learners' points of view toward summarizing strategies and collaboration, the researchers asked the participants to fill out the questionnaires, except for the control groups.

Data Analysis

In order to test the hypotheses of the study, the researcher carried out some quantitative data analyses. The researcher used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20, to analyze the relevant quantitative data. The level of significance was set at 0.05. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of parametric tests, such as the normal distribution of the data. To satisfy this assumption, the most commonly used test of normality, Kolmogorov-

Smirnov statistic, was performed in the current study.

Having met the assumptions of parametric tests, we carried out a series of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests in the pre-test to establish homogeneity across the participants in both groups (i.e., peer-mediated and individual), and also in the delayed post-test to discover the possible influences of various treatment patterns. Furthermore, post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test were conducted in the delayed post-test stages to detect where the difference among the pairs existed. Correspondingly, an independent-samples t-test was run to analyze the variation between the collaborative and individual approaches in the delayed post-test. Finally, the researchers examined the items of the questionnaires in terms of their percentage to realize what the teachers' and learners' points of view toward summarizing strategy and collaboration were.

Results

The analyses of data are reported according to the research questions. First, the normality of the participants' scores using a One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was calculated in pre-tests for individual and collaborative conditions. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated that the samples were normally distributed in both individual (i.e., p=.55> .05) and collaborative conditions (i.e., p=.78> .05).

Results for the First Research Question

Quantitative Data Analysis for Individual Condition at Pre-test

Descriptive statistics demonstrates that the mean score and standard deviation of the reading pre-test in oral summarizing group are (M = 73.50, SD = 3.316), in written summarizing group are (M = 72.25, SD = 3.126), and in control group are (M = 73.60, SD = 3.393) in individual condition. According to the mean scores, there was no notable difference among the three groups in the pre-test, and ANOVA was employed to verify the candidates' homogeneity at pre-test (see Table 1). As can be seen from Table 1, there were no notable variations ($F = 1.05$, $p = .35>.05$) among the three groups at pre-test.

Quantitative Data Analysis for Individual Condition at Delayed Post-test

Based on the results of the descriptive statistics, the mean score and standard deviation of the delayed reading post-test in oral summarizing group are (M = 85.42, SD = 8.662), in written summarizing group

are (M = 83.31, SD = 10.190), and in control group are (M = 62.67, SD = 16.351) in individual condition. The mean scores indicated differences among the groups in the individual condition in delayed post-test. Table 2 exhibits ANOVA outcomes indicating the differences among the learners in individual approaches in the delayed post-test.

The outcomes intimated statistically outstanding variations (F = 23.36, p = 0.00<0.05) with a large effect size (= .42 > .13,= .40 > .13) among three groups at the delayed post-test, that is, the verbal summary group surpassed the written summary and control groups. To denote the precise spots of variation among the groups, Tukey *post-hoc* was employed (see Table 3).

Tukey HSD test outcomes represented an increase in the students' reading comprehension from pre-test to delayed post-test in spoken and written summary groups. Nonetheless, in the verbal summary group, the increase was higher. **Results for the Second Research Question**

Quantitative Data Analysis for Collaborative Condition in Pre-test
As descriptive statistics indicate, the mean score and standard deviation of the reading pre-test are M = 71.55, SD = 3.425 in the oral summarizing group, M =

71.45, SD = 3.590 in the written summarizing group, and M = 72.75, SD = 2.935 in the control groups. In addition to descriptive statistics, a one-way ANOVA was used to explain the participants' homogeneity in the pre-test. The outcome is illustrated in Table 4.

As Table 4 depicts, no difference (F = .94, p = 0.39>0.05) was obtained for three groups at pre-test.

Quantitative Data Analysis for Collaborative Condition in Delayed Post-test
According to the descriptive statistics, the mean score and standard deviation of the delayed reading post-test are M = 85.42, SD = 8.662 in the oral summarizing group, M = 76.87, SD = 10.155 in the written summarizing group, and M = 44.16, SD = 11.905 in the control group. The mean scores demonstrated variations among the collaborative groups in delayed post-test. Table 5 specifies ANOVA outcomes manifesting the differences among the learners in the collaborative category in delayed post-test.

The outcomes (F = 65.99, p = 0.00<0.05) with a large effect size (= .67 > .13,= .66 > .13) were in favour of the spoken summary group that performed better than the written summary and control groups. To display the precise spots of variation among the groups, Tukey *post-hoc* was deployed (see Table 6).

Table 1

ANOVA Results of Homogeneity Measures of Learners in Individual Category (Pre-test)

	Sum of Squares	*Df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	22.633	2	11.317	1.051	.356
Within Groups	613.550	57	10.764		
Total	636.183	59			

Table 2

ANOVA Results for Learners in Individual Category (Delayed Post-test)

	Sum of Squares	*Df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	6951.346	2	3475.673	23.365	.00
Within Groups	9371.747	63	148.758		
Total	16323.093	65			

Table 3

Tukey HSD for Learners in Individual Category (Delayed Post-test)

(I) Type	(J) Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower	Upper
Spoken Summary	Written Summary	-20.64182*	3.67742	.000	-29.4688	-11.8148
	No Summary	-22.74636*	3.67742	.000	-31.5734	-13.9193
Written Summary	Spoken Summary	20.64182*	3.67742	.000	11.8148	29.4688
	No Summary	-2.10455	3.67742	.835	-10.9316	6.7225
No Summary	Spoken Summary	22.74636*	3.67742	.000	13.9193	31.5734
	Written Summary	2.10455	3.67742	.835	-6.7225	10.9316

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

Tukey HSD test outcomes manifested that there was an increase in the students' reading comprehension from pre-test to delayed post-test in verbal as well as written summary groups; yet in spoken summary group, the increase was higher.

Results for the Third Research Question

Quantitative results of the difference between Individual and Collaborative Conditions in Delayed Post-test

As descriptive statistics reveal, the mean score and standard deviation are M = 77.13, SD = 15.84 for the collaborative condition and M = 61.73, SD = 20.88 for the individual condition. Based on the mean scores, there was a significant difference between the two conditions; therefore, to ascertain the possible variation between the learners' scores in collaborative and individual categories at delayed post-test, the researchers used independent-samples t-test the outcomes of which are illustrated in Table 7.

There was a considerable variation in learners' scores for collaborative condition (*M*=77.13, *SD*=15.84) and individual condition [M=61.73, SD=20.88; t (78) =4.77, p=.00 < .05], with a large effect size (= .22 > .13), i.e., the collaborative group outperformed the individual condition.

Results for the Fourth Research Question

Regarding their perspectives toward summarizing strategies, the students believed that they had problems in summarizing (60%). They stated that they adored summarizing texts (85%), though summarizing texts was far from easy (85%). Most of them disagreed that writing or telling a summary is a squandering of time (92%) and believed it is imperative to learn summary writing or telling strategy (95%). They concurred that it is better to teach summary telling or writing strategy explicitly (95%). They protested that writing or telling a long summary is better than writing or telling a summary (95%). Additionally, they disagreed that it is good to write or tell more in detail in summary (85%). In addition, they believed that the most cumbersome step in summary writing or telling is generating ideas (85%), and it is better to rehearse summary telling or to write more in class (100%). In sum, they had a positive attitude toward summarizing strategies.

Considering the teachers' attitudes toward summarizing strategies, the teachers were skeptical that students knew how to summarize a text very well (80%). They stated that students cherished summarizing texts (75%), and in their opinion, this task was not simple for the students (80%). They all objected that writing or telling a summary is a waste

Table 4

ANOVA Results of Homogeneity Measures of Learners in Collaborative Category (Pre-test)

	Sum of Squares	*Df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	20.933	2	10.467	.945	.395
Within Groups	631.650	57	11.082		
Total	652.583	59			

Table 5

ANOVA Results for Learners in Collaborative Category (Delayed Post-test)

	Sum of Squares	*Df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	19643.986	2	9821.993	65.998	.00
Within Groups	9375.805	63	148.822		
Total	29019.792	65			

Table 6

Tukey HSD for Learners in Collaborative Category (Delayed Post-test)

(I) Type	(J) Type	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower	Upper
Spoken Summary	Written Summary	-12.70773*	3.67822	.003	-21.5367	-3.8788
	No Summary	-41.25727*	3.67822	.000	-50.0862	-32.4283
Written Summary	Spoken Summary	12.70773*	3.67822	.003	3.8788	21.5367
	No Summary	-28.54955*	3.67822	.000	-37.3785	-19.7206
No Summary	Spoken Summary	41.25727*	3.67822	.000	32.4283	50.0862
	Written Summary	28.54955*	3.67822	.000	19.7206	37.3785

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

Table 7

Independent-Samples T-test for Collaborative versus Individual Approaches (Delayed Post-test)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	7.92	.00	4.77	78	.00	15.409	3.2267	9.025	21.79
Equal variances not assumed			4.77	78	.00	15.409	3.2267	9.021	21.79

of time for students (100%). Besides, it is crucial to teach summary writing or telling strategies in the class (100%). They conceded that it is prudent to explicitly teach summary writing or telling strategy (100%). However, they did not condone that writing or telling a long summary is better than writing or telling a shorter one (95%). Moreover, they believed that writing or telling more in detail in a summary is not a good idea (90%). Further, in their opinion, the most challenging step in summary writing or telling is generating ideas (95%), and learners had better practice summary telling or writing more in class (100%). To put it in a nutshell, most of the teachers had a positive conception toward summarizing strategies and their instruction in the classroom.

Results for the Fifth Research Question

Concerning learners' perceptions toward collaboration, the students preferred to work in tandem with friends because they could learn from each other (80%). They confirmed that they liked collaboration as they could help each other more (90%). Besides, collaboration was regarded to be far better because they interacted with each other and progressed more (93%). Most of them concurred that collaboration was beneficial because they could rectify each other (95%) and believed that they could learn more when they worked with a friend (75%). They agreed with the statement that they liked working with a friend as much as they could express their ideas freely (95%). They stated that collaboration was very utilitarian because it reduced stress and facilitated learning (98%). Further, they concurred that collaboration assisted them to share ideas and learn from each other (85%). To cut a long story short, they looked through rose-coloured spectacles at collaboration.

With respect to teachers' attitudes toward collaboration, the teachers believed that students preferred to work with a friend because they could learn from each other (95%). They affirmed students enjoyed collaboration because they could help each other more (97%) and they deemed collaboration was a lot better because learners interacted with each

other and improved more (95%). A vast majority of them agreed that collaboration was very beneficial because students could correct each other (90%) and believed that they could learn more when they worked with a friend (80%). They agreed that students cherished working with a friend as they could express their ideas freely (98%). They agreed that collaboration was highly favored since it lowered students' anxiety and facilitated learning (100%). Plus, they agreed that collaboration helped students share ideas and learn from each other (90%). In précis, the majority of the teachers had a positive attitude toward collaboration.

Discussion

Borrowing insights from the Vygotskian social constructivist notion of learning, we attempted to scrutinize the possible long-term impact of spoken and written summarizing strategy training on developing EFL learners' reading skill in individual and peer-mediated groups. In this study, all the null hypotheses were rejected. The results revealed that verbal and written summarizing strategy training effectively ameliorated students' reading comprehension; nevertheless, the spoken summarizing group outperformed the other two groups (i.e., written and control) in the long run. In addition, collaborative groups excelled the individual ones over time. Both teachers and learners staunchly supported using collaboration and summarizing strategies in their classes. The results of the present investigation are in congruence with the previous explorations indicating remarkable effects of summary writing on students' reading skills (e.g., Huang, 2014; Khaki, 2014; Khoshsima & Tiyar, 2014; Marzec-Stawiarska, 2016; McDonough et al., 2014; Mokeddem & Houcine, 2016; Yousefvand, 2013; Zafarani & Kabgani, 2014). In line with the findings of the current study, Aghazadeh et al. (2019) found that summary training was a suitable and essential technique in enhancing students' reading ability. For this reason, teachers ought to integrate summarizing strategy into reading lessons because it can assist learners in improving their reading comprehension.

Additionally, the results emanating from this research study intimated that applying collaboration in reading courses can bring about learners' higher performance in reading comprehension, which buttresses other researchers' studies on collaboration and reading comprehension (e.g., Aghazadeh et al., 2019; Duxbury & Tsai, 2010; Fan, 2010; Khan, 2008; Pan & Wu, 2013). In the same vein, Kuiken and Vedder's (2002) research disclosed the fact that the collaboration in which students built texts as a shared task provided them the opportunity to communicate meaningfully, generate outstanding and accurate texts, and involved them in mental processes that could be used in L2 acquisition.According to the results of this study, despite Gow and Kembers' belief (1990), the countries located in Asia can benefit from cooperative learning techniques. Consequently, their idea about the passivity of Asian learners is refuted, and instead, horizons of hope have been shown to the teachers and researchers interested in the field. Besides, the outcomes of the present query are in accordance with those of Abramczyk and Jurkowski (2020) and Nguyen and Nguyen (2017) in that participants' answers to the items of the questionnaires showed their positive attitudes toward collaboration and summarizing strategies.

Our study has several practical and conceptual implications for practitioners and educators and sheds light on augmenting the students' reading skills. From a theoretical perspective, the results can be considered a step forward to substantiating the existing theories. A theory that has implications for the use of collaboration is SCT, which emphasizes supportive interpersonal learning. In other words, the results provide evidence in favor of Vygotsky's (1978) notion of ZPD, which incorporates real and possible levels of growth. Individuals' current development is established by independent problem solving; whereas, they will need adults' guidance or cooperation with more competent peers to reach the possible level of development.

Consequently, individuals develop both linguistically and cognitively when they interact with their peers and adults who provide them with assistance or scaffolding. In language classrooms, the assistance or scaffolding occurs as the students engage in collaborative pair or group works (e.g., Nassaji & Tian, 2010; Swain, 2010). Furthermore, the outcomes substantiate the claim put forward by Ellis (2008), who maintains that learners may internalize their way of performing tasks when more competent individuals assist them in this process. It is assumed that social interaction promotes the learning process. Supporting the current results, Fahim and Haghani (2012) state that if a person would like to be an efficient language speaker, his/her commitment cannot lead to the mastery of the language without others' assistance.

In this study, the learners in the collaborative groups experienced a more relaxing atmosphere and more communication opportunities in the class and actively created written and spoken texts. As a result, they developed their reading comprehension skill more efficiently. Along the same lines, Nudee (2010) also found that cooperative learning creates a less threatening environment, boosts the amount of learner participation, and decreases competitiveness and the teacher's dominance. From a pedagogical vintage point, enhancing learners' reading comprehension ought to be perceived as one of the chief objectives of EFL teachers through the application of collaborative tasks in the long run. Students who work with other learners yield linguistically more accurate passages and statements than individual learners (Dobao, 2012). Moreover, learners need sufficient guidance to move from being contingent upon the teacher to reading independently. To accomplish this purpose, teachers should instruct summarizing strategies to the students, albeit time-consuming and cumbersome. In the same manner, teachers need to present the learners with ample and suitable chances to work on the target strategies collaboratively, and the aims and the virtues of group work should be enunciated clearly to the learners.

Since the provision of collaboration and summarizing strategy is a significant aspect of L2 reading, the current investigation can uncover the underlying perceptions that influence teachers' practices and assist in recognizing elements that can lead to the learners' reading comprehension more efficiently. The findings of the current research can be insightful for L2 educators in adapting collaboration and summarizing techniques to the needs of their students. Furthermore, insights gained from this study contribute to understanding learners' viewpoints toward collaboration and summarizing strategies since little learning will happen if there is a mismatch between the educators' and the learners' attitudes. We recommend instructors make their viewpoints more explicit to figure out their learners' perceptions and address the mismatches in their learners' perspectives.

The findings greatly benefit teachers who are unwilling to apply collaboration in their classes due to a lack of time and knowledge. In this way, as learners share and exchange knowledge, skills, and strategies, they can become more independent language learners. The findings can also inform

learners of the importance of learner autonomy and independence. It is implied that collaboration fosters interdependence, and as a consequence getting cognizant of the advantages of peer-mediation, more proficient learners can assist less capable partners through scaffolding and encourage them to maximize their self-reliance and accountability to build expertise independently. Teachers should revisit their techniques and adhere more strongly to implementing collaborative learning techniques. Teacher trainers should keep in mind that collaborative learning in pre-service and in-service programs lets the instructors consider students' viewpoints, culminating in a more practical classroom. Summarizing strategies and cooperation may be beneficial to policymakers and syllabus designers who are extremely worried about ameliorating learners' reading comprehension. This means that textbook designers are the most significant figures who should consider using summarizing strategies and collaborative learning techniques. They can design curriculum sections that incorporate summary writing and summary telling strategies and suggest collaborative learning. In the same vein, material developers can design and prepare materials that foster learners' collaboration. For instance, they can deploy task-oriented activities as almost novel learning and teaching tactics to develop EFL students' reading comprehension skills.

Conclusion

The overarching theme of the present study was to investigate the impact of spoken and written summary training on intermediate EFL students' long-term reading comprehension in individual and peer-mediated conditions. Moreover, teachers' and learners' perceptions toward summarizing strategies and collaboration were explored. The findings disclosed that verbal and written summarizing strategy training ameliorated students' reading comprehension. Nonetheless, the spoken summarizing group outperformed the other two groups (i.e., written and control), and the collaborative groups excelled the individual ones over time. Furthermore, both teachers and learners hold favorable views toward using summarizing strategies and collaboration in their classes. This study, akin to other research studies, is less than immaculate and has some drawbacks, and thus it is indispensable to interpret the findings of the study cautiously. As proficiency is a salient variable in language learning, it may affect the findings. Our results may likely be different in the case of other proficiency groups. Moreover, this study did not take into account gender in applying summarizing and collaboration

techniques. Eventually, it behooves future researchers to explore the role of gender in moderating the impact of cooperative learning on reading comprehension skills among EFL learners. In this research, the participants were selected from among language institute populations. Future researchers should examine the current topic with participants from other contexts, such as universities and high schools. Finally, future studies may look into the present issue by employing other data collection tools, including diaries, interviews, observations, think-aloud protocols, and other introspective and retrospective methods to yield more reliable findings.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Abramczyk, A., & Jurkowski, S. (2020). Cooperative learning as an evidence-based teaching strategy: What teachers know, believe, and how they use it. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *46*(3), 296-308. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2020.1733402

Aghazadeh, Z., Mohammadi, M., & Sarkhosh, M. (2019). The effect of summary training on intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension in individual and collaborative conditions. *Journal of Teaching Language Skills, 37*(4), 47-70. https://doi.org/10.22099/jtls.2019.33798.2695

Anderson, N. J. (1991). Individual differences in strategy use in second language reading and testing. *Modern Language Journal, 75*(4), 460-472. https://doi.org/10.2307/329495

Bean, T. W., & Steenwyk, F. L. (1984). The effect of three forms of summarization instruction on sixth graders' summary writing and comprehension. *Journal of Literacy Research, 16*, 297-306. https://doi.org/10.1080/10862968409547523

Brown, A. L., & Day, J. D. (1983). Macro rules for summarizing texts: The development of expertise. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behaviour, 22*(1), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0022-5371(83)80002-4

Chamot, A. U., & Harris, V. (2019). *Learning strategy instruction in the language classroom: Issues and implementation*. Multilingual Matters.

Cheng, Y.-S., & Su, S.-W. (2012). A genre-based approach to teaching EFL summary writing. *ELT Journal, 66*(2), 184-192. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr061

Dobao, A. F. (2012). Collaborative writing tasks in the L2 classroom: Comparing group, pair, and individual

work. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 21*(1), 40-58. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.12.002

Duxbury, J. G., & Tsai, L. L. (2010). The effects of cooperative learning on foreign language anxiety: A comparative study of Taiwanese and American universities. *International Journal of Instruction, 3*(1), 3-18.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Fahim, M., & Haghani, M. (2012). Socio-cultural perspectives on foreign language learning. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 3*(4), 693-699. https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.3.4.693-699

Fan, Y. C. (2010). The effect of comprehension strategy instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension. *Asian Social Science*, *6*(8), 19-29. https://doi.org/10.5539/ass.v6n8p19

Gorsuch, G., & Taguchi, E. (2010). Developing reading fluency and comprehension using repeated reading: Evidence from longitudinal student reports. *Language Teaching Research, 14*(1), 27-59. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168809346494

Gow, L., & Kember, D. (1990). Does higher education promote independent learning? *Higher Education, 19*(3), 307-322. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00133895

Huang, W. C. (2014). The effects of multimedia annotation and summary writing on Taiwanese EFL students' reading comprehension. *The Reading Matrix, 14*(1), 136-153.

Jacobs, G. M., & Renandya, W. A. (2019). *Cooperative learning in language education*. TEFLIN Publication Division.

Johns, A. M., & Mayes, P. (1990). An analysis of summary protocols of university students. *Applied Linguistics, 11*(3), 253-271. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.3.253

Karbalaei, A. (2011). Assessing reading strategy training based on CALLA model in EFL and ESL context. *Íkala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura, 16*(27), 167-187.

Khaki, N. (2014). Improving reading comprehension in a foreign language: Strategic reader. *The Reading Matrix, 14*(2), 186-200.

Khan, S. A. (2008). *An experimental study to evaluate the effectiveness of cooperative learning versus traditional learning method* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. International Islamic University Islamabad. http://prr.hec.gov.pk/jspui/handle/123456789//414

Khoshsima, H., & Tiyar, F. R. (2014). The effect of summarizing strategy on reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics, 2*(3), 134-139. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ijll.20140203.11

Kuiken, F., & Vedder, I. (2002). Collaborative writing in L2: The effect of group interaction on text quality. In S. Ransdell, & M. -L. Barbier (Eds.), *New directions for research in L2 writing* (pp. 169-188). Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. In B. VanPatten, & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 197-221). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Marzec-Stawiarska, M. (2016). The influence of summary writing on the development of reading skills in a foreign language. *System, 59,* 90-99. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.04.006

McDonough, K., Crawford, W. J., & De Vleeschauwer, J. (2014). Summary writing in a Thai EFL university context. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 24,* 20-32. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.03.001

Mehrpour, S., & Rahimi, M. (2010). The impact of general and specific vocabulary knowledge on reading and listening comprehension: A case of Iranian EFL Learners. *System, 38*(2), 292-300. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2010.01.004

Memari Hanjani, A., & Li, L. (2017). Cooperative learning pedagogy: A response to an urgent need in the Iranian EFL reading comprehension context. *Journal of Teaching Language Skills, 36*(3), 33-58. https://doi.org/10.22099/jtls.2017.27008.2370

Milla, R., & Gutierrez-Mangado, M. J. (2019). Language learning strategy reported choice by bilingual children in CLIL: The effect of age, proficiency and gender in L3 learners of English. *System*, *87*, 102165. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.102165

Mokeddem, S., & Houcine, S. (2016). Exploring the relationship between summary writing ability and reading comprehension: Toward an EFL writing-to-read instruction. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 7*(2 S1), 197-205. https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2016.v7n2s1p197

Nassaji, H., & Tian, J. (2010). Collaborative and individual output tasks and their effects on learning English phrasal verbs. *Language Teaching Research, 14*(4), 397-419. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168810375364

Nguyen, B. H., & Nguyen, T. K. N. (2017). Summarizing strategy: Potential tool to promote English as a foreign language (EFL) students' reading comprehension in a vocational school, Vietnam. *European Journal of Education Studies*, *3*(8), 51-72. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.834902

Nudee, N. (2010). *Effects of cooperative learning on writing ability of Thai secondary school students* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Prince of Songkla University. https://kb.psu.ac.th/psukb/handle/2010/8874

Nuttall, C. (1996). *Teaching reading skills in a foreign language.* Heinemann.

Oxford, R. L. (2017). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies: Self-regulation in context* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Oxford, R. L., & Amerstorfer, C. M. (2018). *Language learning strategies and individual learner characteristics: Situating strategy use in diverse contexts*. Bloomsbury.

Ozdemir, S. (2018). The effect of summarization strategies teaching on strategy usage and narrative text summarization success. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 6*(10), 2199-2209. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2018.061018

Pan, C. Y., & Wu, H. Y. (2013). The cooperative learning effects on English reading comprehension and learning motivation of EFL freshmen. *English Language Teaching, 6*(5), 13-27. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n5p13

Rinehart, S. D., Stahl, S. A., & Erickson, L. G. (1986). Some effects of summarization training on reading and studying. *Reading Research Quarterly, 21*(4), 422-438.

Rocca, K. A. (2010). Student participation in the college classroom: An extended multidisciplinary literature review. *Communication Education, 59*(2), 185-213. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634520903505936

Swain, M. (2010). 'Talking-it-through': Languaging as a source of learning. In R. Batstone (Ed.), *Sociocognitive perspectives on language use and language learning* (pp. 112-130). Oxford University Press.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2002). Talking it through: Two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*(3-4), 285-304. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(03)00006-5

Thomas, N., & Rose, H. (2019). Do Language Learning strategies need to be self-directed? Disentangling strategies from self-regulated learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 53*(1), 248-257. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.473

van Rijk, Y., Volman, M., de Haan, D., & van Oers, B. (2017). Maximizing meaning: Creating a learning environment for reading comprehension of informative texts from a Vygotskian perspective. *Learning Environments Research*, *20*(1), 77-98. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10984-016-9218-5

Veldman, M. A., Doolaard, S., Bosker, R. J., & Snijders, T. A. B. (2020). Young children working together. Cooperative learning effects on group work of children in Grade 1 of primary education. *Learning and Instruction, 67,* 101308. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2020.101308

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

Winograd, P. N. (1984). Strategic difficulties in summarizing texts. *Reading Research Quarterly, 19*(4), 404-425. https://doi.org/10.2307/747913

Yasuda, S. (2015). Exploring changes in FL writers' meaning-making choices in summary writing: A systematic functional approach. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 27,* 105-121. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.09.008

Yousefvand, Z. (2013, March 2-3). *The effect of strategy-based reading instruction on Iranian EFL graduate students' reading comprehension and their attitudes toward reading strategies instruction* [Paper presentation]. The First National Conference on Research in Teaching English, Translation, and Linguistics, Isfahan, Iran.

Zafarani, P., & Kabgani, S. (2014). Summarization strategy training and reading comprehension of Iranian ESP learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *98*, 1959-1965. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.629

Zhang, L. J., Thomas, N., & Qin, T. L. (2019). Language learning strategy research in System: Looking back and looking forward. *System, 84*, 87-92. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.06.002

Zoghi, M., Mustapha, R., & Maasum. T. M. (2010). Collaborative strategic reading with university EFL learners. *Journal of College Reading and Learning, 41*(1), 67-94. https://doi.org/10.1080/10790195.2010.10850336

Zou. W. (2011). The effects of cooperative learning on improving college students' reading comprehension. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1*(8), 986-989. https://doi.org/10.4304/TPLS.1.8.986-989

Perception of Prosodic and Aspectual Cues to Politeness in Teacher Directives in L1 and L2 Russian

Pavel Duryagin[1], Maria Fokina[2,3]

[1] Ca' Foscari University of Venice, Italy
[2] Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia
[3] Peoples' Friendship University of Russia, Russia

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Pavel Duryagin, Ca' Foscari University of Venice, Dorsoduro 3199, Calle Bernardo, Venice (VE), Italy, 30123. E-mail: *pavel.duryagin@unive.it*

Background: Several studies in interlanguage pragmatics have reported Russian directive speech acts to take a particular position within the dimensions of linguistic politeness and (in)directness, when compared to some Germanic and Romance languages extensively studied in this framework.

Purpose: The present paper aimed to investigate the role of language specific cues to politeness in Russian requests by examining their perception by native speakers and L2 learners in a scenario of teacher-student interaction.

Method: An experiment was conducted in which L1 and L2 groups rated the politeness of teacher directives in Russian on a discrete 7-point scale. Three variables were controlled for in the experimental design: the directness of the speech act (manifested in the choice between an imperative or an interrogative construction), verbal aspect, and the type of nuclear pitch accent.

Results: The obtained data generally corroborate existing studies, demonstrating that both native Russian speakers and learners of Russian with Chinese L1 do not judge as impolite direct imperative strategies employed in teacher requests. Though both groups of participants similarly relied on intonational cues in their judgements, the L2 learners did not perform target-like in evaluating the pragmatics of verbal aspect. Within the native group, the usage of imperfective verbs both in direct and conventionally indirect constructions was perceived as a highly salient indicator of impoliteness. Conversely, the size of this effect in L2 judgements did not reach a significance level, implying that this language specific cue is not acquired through incidental learning at pre-intermediate or intermediate proficiency levels.

Implication: Taken together, these findings highlight the importance of explicit pragmatic instruction even for students who have sufficient experience studying abroad; furthermore, they outline new directions for empirical studies in Russian from the perspective of interlanguage pragmatics.

Keywords: language teaching, interlanguage pragmatics, politeness, verbal aspect, prosody, L2 Russian.

Introduction

Cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics are fields of research that document how native speakers and language learners produce and comprehend various aspects of pragmatic meaning, such as the illocutionary force of speech acts, conversational implicatures, linguistic politeness, and impoliteness (Félix-Brasdefer, 2017). Cross-cultural studies contrast the evidence of L1 speakers' pragmatic behaviours obtained independently in different cultures, while interlanguage pragmatics compare the performances of L1 and L2 speakers and focus on the factors affecting the development of pragmatic competences in language learners, including the role

of formal instruction and study abroad (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Ishihara, 2010; Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

Early studies in these fields were dominated by the search of universality in politeness principles which resulted in the creation of Brown and Levinson's influential theory of negative and positive face in face-threatening speech acts (1987). This line of thought has been often criticised (Al-Duleimi et al., 2016; Culpeper, 2011; O'Driscoll, 2007; Song, 2017), partly for basing its main tenets on a small sample of languages biased toward so-called Western languages, primarily Germanic and Romance, and ignoring, for example, Slavic languages (Wierzbicka, 1985, 2003) or the variety of languages spoken in Asia (Ide, 1989).

However, the scope of studies in pragmatics has widened significantly over recent decades, as typologically different languages are increasingly being investigated; see, for example, a detailed review of pragmatic studies in Eastern languages in (Chen, 2010) and successful application of Brown and Levinson's theory in several recent case studies (Chen et al., 2013; Dickey, 2016; Kiyama et al., 2012). We aim to continue this trend by examining evidence from Russian, a language that is relatively understudied within the mainstream framework of cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics.

As with other languages, the most widely researched topic of pragmatic studies that examine Russian is *the speech act of request* that belongs to the category of directives in Searle's (1975) taxonomy. Research has revealed that, on the one hand, L1 Russian shares with extensively studied languages various mitigation strategies, including internal and external pragmatic modifiers (Formanovskaya, 1984; Grigoriev & Rubtsova, 2021; Iliadi & Larina, 2017; Larina, 2009; McCarthy, 2018; Ogiermann & Bella, 2020). On the other hand, a considerable amount of descriptive literature regarding linguistic politeness discusses the evidence of non-universal, specific linguistic cues for politeness utilised by L1 speakers of Russian (and, in some cases, other Slavic languages). However, knowledge about the actual usage and perception of these language specific features in L1 is largely based on researchers' intuitions and requires empirical testing; moreover, little evidence is available regarding their acquisition in L2. In the present paper, we experimentally examine common notions concerning three specific cues for politeness in Russian directive speech acts; namely, the neutral status of direct imperative constructions, the pragmatic markedness of imperfective verbal aspect, and the degree of politeness conveyed by two phonologically distinct combinations of accents.

One intriguing feature of Russian directive speech acts outlined in the literature is their position according to the notions of politeness and directness. Since Blum-Kulka's seminal work (1987), empirical research has demonstrated that these two dimensions are orthogonal, independent in nature (Félix-Brasdefer, 2006; Grainger & Mills, 2016; Haugh, 2015; Ruytenbeek, 2020; Yu, 2011). That is, while some conventionally indirect strategies can be perceived as polite, this does not necessarily stand for the most indirect strategies, such as hints. In fact, several studies argue that, contrary to English, a successful polite request in Russian does not require conventionally indirect strategies (e. g., Bezyaeva, 2002; Dong, 2009; Larina, 2009; Leech & Larina, 2014; Mills, 1992, 1993; Rathmayr, 1994; Wierzbicka, 2010; Zemskaya, 1997). Moreover, some of the studies

assume that the imperative is a 'prototypical means of expressing request in Russian' (Kotorova, 2015). Several papers report empirical data partially supporting this claim. Ogiermann (2009) reveals that the data elicited via a written discourse completion task from native speakers of English, German, Polish, and Russian indicate that Russian speakers demonstrate the highest preference for imperative requests (35 of 100 participants utilised imperative constructions in the context of 'asking a fellow student for lecture notes'). Ogiermann's data do not support the claim that interrogative requests in informal conversation are marginal or not preferred; however, the opposite result is revealed in Betsch's corpus study (2003). A more recent follow-up experiment (Ogiermann & Bella, 2020) that focussed primarily on the request perspective in various L1 and L2 conditions reveals that Russian speakers can adapt their request strategies in L2 English, more frequently opting for interrogatives and a speaker-oriented perspective than in their L1.

Existing studies on the choice of direct or indirect strategies in L2 Russian almost exclusively investigate the interlanguage of American learners. Mills (1993) reports that the data elicited from learners of Russian demonstrates that they were generally able to acquire target language request strategies, but only to a moderate degree, e.g., American learners of Russian utilised imperative verbs but only if 'framed by excessive efforts to justify the request'. Owen (2001) analyses requests from oral proficiency interviews by L2 Russian learners but does not find significant differences between native and non-native speakers' usage of direct strategies, as both groups employed them rarely. However, the usage of direct strategies was observed only in requests produced by the students tested after a term of study in Russia, while learners without the experience of language learning abroad avoided direct requests completely. Similarly, Krulatz (2015) reports only a small number of imperative constructions in email requests produced by native and non-native speakers of Russian. Finally, a study of requests for favour elicited through role-play in (Dubinina & Malamud, 2017) demonstrates that both native and heritage speakers of Russian predominantly relied on indirect strategies and interrogatives in formal and informal requests. Only a small number of imperative requests was attested, and these were exclusively in native speakers' data. The tendency to avoid direct strategies as demonstrated by heritage speakers is interpreted by the authors as a possible case of pragmatic transfer from English. Overall, the interlanguage studies indicate a lack of explicit pragmatic instruction concerning the usage of direct request strategies as well as a non-target-like performance from learners with English L1 even at advanced levels. According to

metalinguistic interviews, the learners themselves may be aware of this problem (Frank, 2010, pp. 85–86).

Though the notion of pragmatic neutrality (but not the frequent usage) of direct requests in Russian is generally accepted, this feature alone does not capture the complex picture of pragmatics in imperative mood. The pragmatic meaning of this form in Russian is further enriched by the opposition between two aspectual options: perfective and imperfective verbs. The complexity of pragmatic consequences for the choice of aspect in the Russian imperative (foremost of which are the issues regarding perceived linguistic politeness) has been a recurring topic in literature (Benacchio, 2002; Khrakovskiy, 1988; Lehmann, 1989; Paducheva, 2010; Tyurikova, 2008; Zorikhina-Nilsson, 2012). Researchers have reached a general consensus that in non-negated imperatives of terminative verbs, the perfective aspect is utilised when the action is mentioned for the first time and is seen as new or unexpected for the listener. The imperfective imperative, however, is seen as a form expressing an action that has already been introduced into the context and is self-evident both for the speaker and the listener (Wiemer, 2008). From these differences, a salient pragmatic meaning is derived: while the perfective imperative in Russian is 'the most natural and frequent form' that 'sounds more formal' (Benacchio, 2019), the imperfective counterpart 'does not mitigate, but rather emphasises the impoliteness of the utterance' (ibid.).

The most comprehensive explanatory approach to the pragmatics of aspectual opposition in Russian imperatives is posited by Benacchio (2002). Her proposal is based on Brown and Levinson's theory of negative and positive face (1987). Benacchio treats the choice of the perfective imperative as a form of negative politeness strategy (the apparent avoidance of interfering with the hearer's freedom of action), while the usage of the imperfective aspect is seen as a positive politeness strategy (oriented toward the positive self-image that the hearer personally claims and treating the hearer as a person whose wants are being respected). Consequently, the usage of positive politeness strategy in an inappropriate situation can provoke the effect of perceived impoliteness (Benacchio, 2002). Benacchio's interpretation of communicative strategies in the Russian imperative can further be applied not only to requests, but also to other speech acts, such as permissions, invitations, and wishes.

An important note for the present study is that the choice of aspect in the Russian imperative constitutes an obligatory part of explicit instruction in the practice of teaching L2 Russian and Russian as a foreign language. Educational standards for language certification list this topic as obligatory at TORFL-2 level (Test of Russian as a Foreign Language; the second level is equivalent to the B2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). However, both the notions of aspect and imperative are separately introduced to learners of Russian at earlier levels of proficiency, starting with A2. Only one empirical study to date has investigated the acquisition of aspect in the imperative mood from the perspective of interlanguage pragmatics. Tsylina (2016) studied the appropriateness judgements of the perfective and imperfective imperatives made by L2 learners and heritage speakers of Russian of comparable proficiency as well as by a control group of native speakers. Her data reveal that in non-negated imperative contexts, the judgements of heritage speakers were generally closer to native than those of L2 learners. As for the aspectual differences, L2 learners' judgements were less target-like in the imperfective condition. Additionally, the group of L2 learners rarely evaluated contexts as enabling both aspectual options as equally acceptable.

The majority of theoretical approaches to pragmatic meaning in the Russian imperative intentionally abstain from considering the role of prosody. However, since the creation of Bryzgunova's influential model of Russian intonation (Bryzgunova, 1980), both academic and instructional literature on the subject have consistently noted two distinct tunes that mark directive speech acts that contain imperatives. In Bryzgunova's model, these prosodic contours are referred to as IK-2 and IK-3 (IK being the abbreviation for *intonational construction*, while 2 and 3 are the index numbers of these tunes in the list of seven Russian tunes that are formally distinguished in the model). To make the present analysis more compatible with the mainstream framework of intonational phonology—the autosegmental metrical model (Beckman & Pierrehumbert, 1986)—we further refer to the two constructions utilising a more transparent autosegmental notation that generally follows the proposals posited by Igarashi (2006) and Rathcke (2017).[1] Namely, we analyse IK-2 as a combination of the nuclear pitch accent H*+L and the edge tone L%; additionally, we analyse IK-3 as a combination of the

---

[1] See the cited papers for the details regarding the phonetic differences and the justification of these labels. It should be noted, however, that these studies discuss the distinction between IK-2 and IK-3 in interrogatives (wh-questions and yes-no questions, respectively) rather than requests. In the present study, we accept Bryzgunova's assumption that the two tunes that mark the imperative in Russian are the same phonological entities as those utilised in interrogatives.

nuclear pitch accent L*+H and the edge tone L%.

Considering the pragmatic meaning of these tunes in the Russian imperative, Bryzgunova (1980) argues that IK-2 (H*+L L%) expresses a categorical request or demand, while IK-3 (L*+H L%, with the nuclear accent obligatorily associated with the verb) is utilised to convey a request that she characterises as softened, mitigated, and polite. The researcher emphasises, however, that the usage of this pragmatic cue is limited to the verbs with the meaning 'to do something for somebody' (Bryzgunova, 1973, p. 46). This notion has persisted for decades in academic descriptions of Russian intonation without any modifications. Additionally, Bryzgunova's model is widely utilised in teaching Russian as L2; therefore, various educational books and practical phonetics courses contain this piece of pragmatic instruction, including learning books by Mukhanov, Barkhudarova and Pankov, and Odintsova[2]. Importantly for the present study, these sources contain only perfective imperatives as examples of polite requests.

Similarly to the aspectual opposition, the choice of an interrogative tune in mitigated imperative requests in Russian can be analysed from the perspective of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. The most straightforward interpretation for the usage of L*+H L% is the speaker's decision to redress the hearer's negative face by combining direct grammar with a conventionally indirect yes-no question prosody (cf. the tag questions that often accompany imperatives in English: *Open the door, will you?*). Through this compromise, the speaker undertakes a partially negative politeness strategy. Consequently, the speaker avoids interfering with addressee's freedom of action but still unambiguously delivers the intention. However, despite frequent mentions of this pragmatic strategy in literature, no empirical data exist on how often it is utilised by speakers of Russian in authentic contexts or whether this form of mitigation is salient in native perception. The present paper aims to address the second question as well as investigate whether the adherence to this strategy is perceived by L2 learners.

To investigate the L2 perception of these markers of politeness in Russian directives, a group of Chinese learners of Russian were tested. Like Russian, Mandarin Chinese[3] was initially characterised in cross-cultural pragmatics as a language that exhibits a strong preference for direct imperative requests (Gao, 1999; Lee-Wong, 1994). However, the majority of subsequent studies report opposite findings and indicate that conventionally indirect strategies, which are primarily query preparatory, are in fact predominant in requests in various Chinese dialects (Dong, 2009; Lee, 2005; Lin, 2009; Ren, 2019; Rue & Zhang, 2008; Zhang, 1995). The experimental data reported in Fernández, Xu, Wang, and Gu's (2019) study are particularly relevant for the present work, as they illustrate that native Mandarin speakers equally rate the politeness in interrogative and imperative directive speech acts. Overall, the existing descriptions of requests in Russian and Chinese have a striking similarity: in both languages, direct imperative requests are demonstrated to be a socially acceptable, pragmatically unmarked strategy, although they are contextually determined and not frequently utilised. We add that contextual parameters, such as social distance between interlocutors and the level of imposition, are claimed to significantly affect the choice of pragmatic strategies in both languages.

Internal pragmatic modifiers utilised to soften the imposition in Chinese imperative constructions include terms of address, attention-getters, lexical politeness markers, verb reduplications, and understaters (Dong, 2009; Li, 2014; Ren, 2019). However, it is safe to say that none of these features correspond directly to the Russian aspectual marker. Similar assumptions can be made with respect to the prosodic marking of politeness that is attested in Russian imperative constructions. As indicated previously, the Russian accentual distinction between the polite request and the impolite demand is presumably manifested in the choice of nuclear pitch accents, which means that meaningful variations of pitch are expressed within prominent syllables. In Chinese, however, pitch variation is reserved for distinguishing lexical meaning and prosodic boundaries but is not normally utilised to convey pragmatic meaning (Peng et al., 2005). Existing research on pragmatic prosodic cues in Chinese (Fan & Gu, 2016; Gu et al., 2011) proves that politeness is

[2] Mukhanov, I. L. (2006). Intonatsiya v praktike russkoy dialogich-eskoy rechi [Intonation in practice of Russian dialogue] (4th ed.), p. 158. Russkiy yazyk. Kursy. Barkhudarova, E. L., & Pankov, F. I. (2008). Po-russki – s khoroshim proiznosheniyem: Prakticheskiy kurs russkoy zvuchashchey rechi [In Russian – with good pronunciation. A practical course in Russian phonetics], p. 70. Russkiy yazyk. Kursy. Odintsova, I. V. (2018). Zvuki. Ritmika. Intonatsiya: Uchebnoye posobiye [Sounds. Rhythmics. Intonation: A study book] (7th ed.), pp. 189–191. Flinta. Nauka.

predominantly marked via speech rate (rude speech is faster than polite speech), while the effects of mean pitch and fundamental frequency (F0) range on perceived politeness are found to be limited or insignificant.

Consequently, no pragmatic transfer—positive or negative, in the sense of Kasper's (1992) study—is expected in the acquisition of these language specific pragmatic features (the aspectual opposition and the distribution of pitch accents H*+L vs. L*+H) by Chinese learners of Russian. Since Chinese learners do not receive relevant explicit instruction until the upper-intermediate level, we hypothesise that, unlike native speakers, they do not comprehend these politeness markers. However, an alternative hypothesis is also viable, predicting the ability of pre-intermediate and intermediate Chinese learners of Russian to perceive language specific cues for politeness despite the lack of explicit pragmatic instruction. Since study abroad has been demonstrated to considerably enhance pragmatic competence, we cannot dismiss the possibility that Chinese learners who are enrolled at a Russian university and receive rich, regular input from their instructors (all of whom are native speakers of Russian with no knowledge of Chinese) can acquire these pragmatic competences through incidental learning and utilise this knowledge in their politeness judgements.

The present study aims to extend the current knowledge regarding L1 Russian speakers' perceptions of linguistic politeness in directives as well as the acquisition of language specific cues for politeness by L2 Russian learners. The hypotheses of the study are formulated as follows:

1. L1 Russian speakers do not perceive imperative constructions as less polite compared to conventionally indirect requests for action that are formulated as interrogatives.
2. Language specific aspectual and prosodic features affect L1 Russian speakers' perceptions of politeness in directive speech acts.
3. Assuming that L2 learners transfer their notions regarding the relative acceptability of direct strategies from their L1, we expect Chinese learners of Russian to behave target-like and not to perceive imperative constructions as less polite compared to interrogative requests for action.
4. Language specific aspectual and prosodic cues do not affect L2 Russian learners' perceptions of politeness in directive speech acts since these features cannot be transferred from L1 and are not provided to them in a form of explicit pragmatic instruction.

Method

Materials

To test the hypotheses, an experiment was conducted in which two groups of participants, native Russian speakers (NSs) and L2 learners of Russian with Chinese L1 (L2Ls), were asked to listen to directives in Russian and evaluate their politeness. Since pragmatic judgements are significantly influenced by contextual factors, the context for the experimental stimuli was set as a constant. Namely, the scenario of ordinary teacher-student interaction in class was chosen since it was presumed to be familiar both to NSs and L2Ls.

The set of *target stimuli* represented a scenario in which a teacher asks a student to perform an ordinary action in class (to read a task, to translate a text, to reveal what they have written, or to speak about themselves). This requires a clarification concerning the term for this type of linguistic action. The speech act that we model in the target items undoubtedly belongs to the category of directives in Searle's (1975) taxonomy ('attempts by the speaker to get the hearer to do something'); however, it is unclear whether it falls clearly within the group of requests (and not, for example, commands or orders). This terminological confusion is a known issue arising because different languages utilise different words to categorise speech events (Fitch, 2008). To avoid overgeneralisation, we further refer to the target items utilised in the experimental design as *teacher directives*, although we continue utilising the term *request* when speaking about evidence from other studies and the filler items utilised in the present study.

Three independent variables were manipulated in target items (see Table 1). First, the directness of the speech act was manipulated with two levels: direct (an imperative construction) and conventionally indirect (a yes-no question with a verb in the future tense). Second, in both conditions, the verbal aspect was subject to manipulation: both in direct and indirect constructions, the stimuli with imperfective and perfective verbs were tested.[4] Finally, the prosodic realisation of the imperative stimuli was manipulated in accordance with the existing descriptions of this feature: the imperatives with perfective verbs were recorded with both H*+L L% and L*+H L% tunes. The analysis of examples listed in previous descriptive

---

4 In contrast to imperative constructions, the pragmatic meaning of aspectual opposition in conventionally indirect requests is not extensively discussed in descriptive literature on Russian aspect. However, occasional examples of such an opposition can be found, for example, in Lehmann (1989) and Mills' (1993) studies. In this paper, we base our approach on Lehmann's observation that 'this functional continuum is not confined to the context of imperative. There is an analogous continuum in the context of tense' (Lehmann, 1989, p. 87).

studies illustrates that the rising tune L*+H L% is not normally utilised in directives with an imperfective imperative; consequently, such stimuli were not included in the experimental materials.

In total, by crossing three independent variables and by excluding presumably ungrammatical or pragmatically unacceptable combinations of variables, five types of target stimuli were obtained: three imperative constructions (with perfective verbs marked by H*+L and L*+H nuclear accents as well as with imperfective verbs marked by H*+L) and two interrogatives (containing imperfective and perfective verbs; in each case, the phrase is realised with the L*+H L% tune, which is obligatory for unmarked Russian yes-no questions). For each of the five conditions, phrases with four aspectual pairs of Russian verbs were created (in all pairs, imperfective verbs are listed before the perfective verbs): *показывать – показать* 'show', *переводить – перевести* 'translate', *рассказывать – рассказать* 'tell', *читать – прочитать* 'read'. Only the verbs with nonhomonymic forms of plural second person imperatives and plural second person future tense were utilised.

Table 1

Variables manipulated in target stimuli with examples

Verbal mood (directness of the speech act)	Tune	Imperfective aspect	Perfective aspect
Imperative (direct)	H*+L L% (IK-2)	Показывайте, что Вы написали! 'Show.Imper.Imperf. what you wrote!'	Покажите, что Вы написали! 'Show.Imper.Perf. what you wrote!'
Imperative (direct)	L*+H L% (IK-3)		Покажите, что Вы написали! 'Show.Imper.Perf. what you wrote!'
Indicative (conventionally indirect)	L*+H L% (IK-3)	Будете показывать, что Вы написали? 'Will you show.Fut.Imperf. what you wrote?'	Покажете, что Вы написали? 'Will you show.Fut.Perf. what you wrote?'

A total of 20 target stimuli (four verbs in five conditions) were elicited from a 30-year-old male native speaker of Standard Russian. The recordings were made in a quiet room with a headset and an omnidirectional DPA 4066 microphone. The presence of acoustic contrast manifested in an F0 peak alignment and scaling was verified via acoustic analysis of pitch contours in *Praat*[5]; see the comparison of the two contours in Figure 1.

In addition to the 20 target stimuli, 20 *filler items* were included in the experimental design. A reverse situation (compared to target items) was modelled in fillers: requests for action and for permission were performed by a female student and addressed to a teacher. Various direct and conditionally indirect request strategies available in Russian were employed in fillers. The requests for the teacher's action (to repeat the rule and to explain something one more

Figure 1.

Spectrograms and F0 contours of target items with H+L L% (left) and L*+H L% (right) tunes*

---
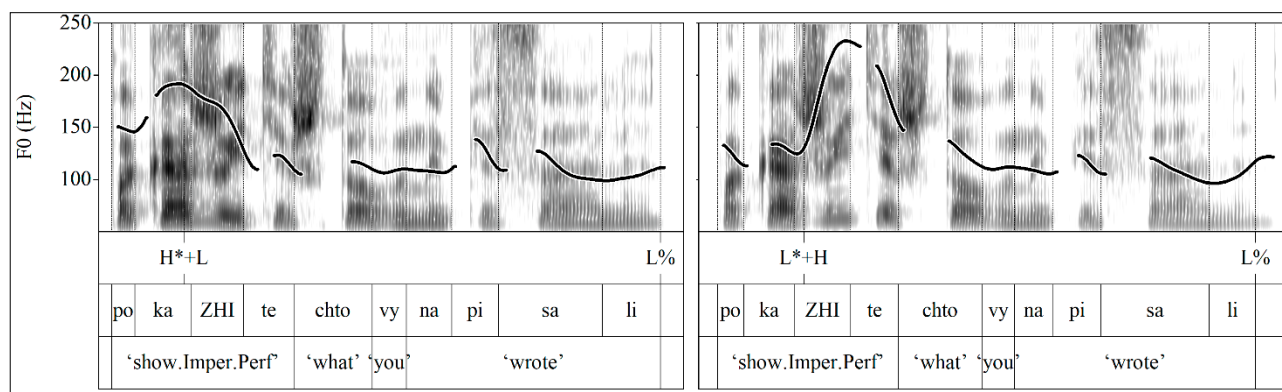
[5] Boersma, P., & Weenink, D. (2020). Praat: Doing phonetics by computer [Computer program].

time) were formulated with a *want* statement (*Я хочу, чтобы Вы. . . .*'I want you to. . . .'), a perfective imperative marked with H*+L nuclear accent, an interrogative with *can* in the present tense (*Можете. . . .* 'Can you. . . . ?'), an interrogative with an impersonal predicative adverb (*Можно. . . .* 'Is it possible to. . . . ?'), and a formulaic interrogative with the negated verb *can* in the conditional mood (*Вы не могли бы. . . .* literally, 'Couldn't you. . . . ?'). The requests for the teacher's permission (to go out and to ask a question) were formulated with a *want* statement (*Я хочу. . . .* 'I want to. . . .'), an interrogative with *can* in the present tense (*Я могу. . . .* 'Can I. . . . ?'), an interrogative with an impersonal predicative adverb (*Можно. . . .* 'Is it possible to. . . . ?'), an explicit interrogative request for permission with the verb *разрешить* (literally, 'Will you permit me to. . . . ?'), and a yes-no question with the verb in the future tense (e.g., *Я выйду?* literally, 'Will I go out?').

All 20 filler phrases were elicited from a 28-year-old female native speaker of Standard Russian following a procedure identical to the one utilised for the target items.

Procedure

Due to the restrictions of the COVID-19 pandemic emergency, the experiment was conducted online utilising the *PsychoPy* software (Peirce et al., 2019). Forty stimuli (20 target items and 20 fillers) were presented to the participants in pseudo-randomised order. Each experimental session was preceded by written instructions (in Russian for the NS group and in Mandarin for the L2L group) and a short training session in which the participants could familiarise themselves with the procedure.

During the self-paced task, the participants were first presented a picture of a young male teacher standing near a blackboard or a picture of a young female student raising her hand. After a short period of silence, the participants were presented with an aural stimulus: either a directive from the teacher or a request from the student, depending on which picture was displayed on the screen. After listening to the item once, the participants were asked to measure the politeness of the phrase by placing a red marker on a horizontal discrete scale from 1 to 7 in which only the extremes were verbally labelled as *very impolite* (Russian *очень невежливо*, Chinese 非常有礼貌) and *very polite* (Russian *очень вежливо*, Chinese 非常不礼貌), respectively. The participants executed the task at home with their own PCs, and they were not monitored during the experimental procedure. However, they were explicitly asked to complete the task without any help from others.

Participants

Two groups of participants were recruited for the experiment. The NS group included 30 monolingual speakers of Standard Russian residing in Moscow. One participant's data was excluded from analysis since it differed significantly from other participants' responses. This NS provided identical responses ('3') to 36 of 40 stimuli, while for other NSs, the number of most frequent identical responses ranged from 8 to 23. Consequently, the responses of the 29 NSs were analysed (20 female, mean age 39.7, σ = 15.2).[6]

The L2Ls were 45 students from Mainland China who study in different BA and MA programmes in Moscow. Since a vast majority of them, 43, were enrolled in Lomonosov Moscow State University (MSU), the data for two students enrolled in other universities were excluded from the analysis. All students from MSU, according to their Russian language teachers, reached no less than A2 and no higher than B1 levels of proficiency, except for two students whose levels were characterised by their teachers as B2 (their data was also excluded from the analysis). The remaining 41 MSU students had at least 15 months of experience studying Russian at the university: 27 of them were second-year students, and 14 were first-year students who had spent a preparatory year of studying Russian at MSU before being enrolled for their freshman year.

Preliminary analysis of the L2L group responses revealed that five participants (all from the same class) performed the task in an almost identical way, which was different from other students' data. Two responded '7' to all 40 stimuli, and the other three responded '7' to 27–29 stimuli and '6' to the remaining 11–13 stimuli. Their data were excluded from analysis. In total, the responses of 36 L2L participants were analysed (20 female, mean age 20.4, σ = 1.9).

Data Analysis

The data were statistically analysed via generalised linear mixed-effects regression models (GLMMs) utilising *R* packages *lme4* (Bates et al., 2015), *sjPlot*[7],

---

6 Since no age restrictions were established during recruitment, the age of NSs varies significantly and ranges from 20 to 70 years of age. No empirical data are available regarding the diachronic changes in the perception of aspectual and prosodic politeness markers in Russian. Consequently, we did not control for age differences in the present experiment and treated the NS group as a random sample of adult speakers of L1 Russian.

7 Lüdecke, D. (2020). sjPlot: Data Visualization for Statistics in Social Science. R package version 2.8.6 (2.8.6). https://cran.r-project.org/package=sjPlot

and *effects*(Fox & Weisberg, 2018). The details for each model are reported in the results section. All models were visually tested for normality and homogeneity of residual distributions and revealed no strong deviations. Following the recommendations in Levshina's (2015) work, the predictors in each model were tested for multicollinearity via *car* package (Fox & Weisberg, 2019); for neither of them the variance inflation factor (VIF) scores reached 5, which means that multicollinearity in the data is not a concern. The *p*-values reported below were calculated via the *sjplot* package and are based on degrees of freedom with Kenward-Roger's approximation. Following the standards of reproducible research, the data are made available and can be accessed online through the following link: https://osf.io/gu5cx/.

Results

Filler Items

Before reporting the results for target items, we briefly consider both groups' responses to the fillers. The main purpose of including filler items in the experimental design was to diversify the input and ensure that the participants did not become aware of the scope of the procedure. However, since some of the participants whose data were excluded illustrated indifferent reactions to the stimuli, we decided to analyse the fillers to ensure that the participants distinguished the most transparent cues for politeness. Separate GLMMs were fitted for both groups with the politeness rating as the dependent variable, random intercepts for participants and lexical words, and participant's gender and type of context (with the seven levels reported in the previous section) as fixed effects. The pairwise comparisons of

various context types indicated several significant differences, while the effect of gender in both models was insignificant ($p = .47$ for NSs and $p = .36$ for L2Ls). Model estimates for the fillers are plotted for compactness in Figure 2 and are briefly reviewed in the discussion section.

Target Items: NS Group

To analyse the responses to the target stimuli elicited from 29 NSs, a GLMM was fitted with the politeness rating as the dependent variable; random intercepts for participants and lexical verbs; gender, verbal aspect ('imperfective' vs. 'perfective'), directness of the speech act ('imperative', i.e., direct vs. 'interrogative', i.e., indirect), tune (H*+L L% vs. L*+H L%) and the interaction between verbal aspect and tune as fixed effects. The descriptive statistics and regression coefficients are summarised in Table 2. Robust effects of aspect ($p < .001$) and tune ($p = .007$) were found while no significant effects of other variables were present in the model.

TTarget Items: L2L Group

To analyse how the group of 36 L2Ls evaluated politeness in the target items, a GLMM was fitted with the same fixed and random effects structure utilised for the NS group. The descriptive statistics and regression coefficients are summarised in Table 3. The only significant effect observed in the L2Ls' data was the effect of tune ($p = .023$), while the effect of aspect did not reach the significance level, which was set at 0.05 ($p = .085$). None of the other predictors showed consistent effects on the politeness judgements in the L2L group.

Figure 2

NS and L2L models estimates (means and standard errors) for filler items
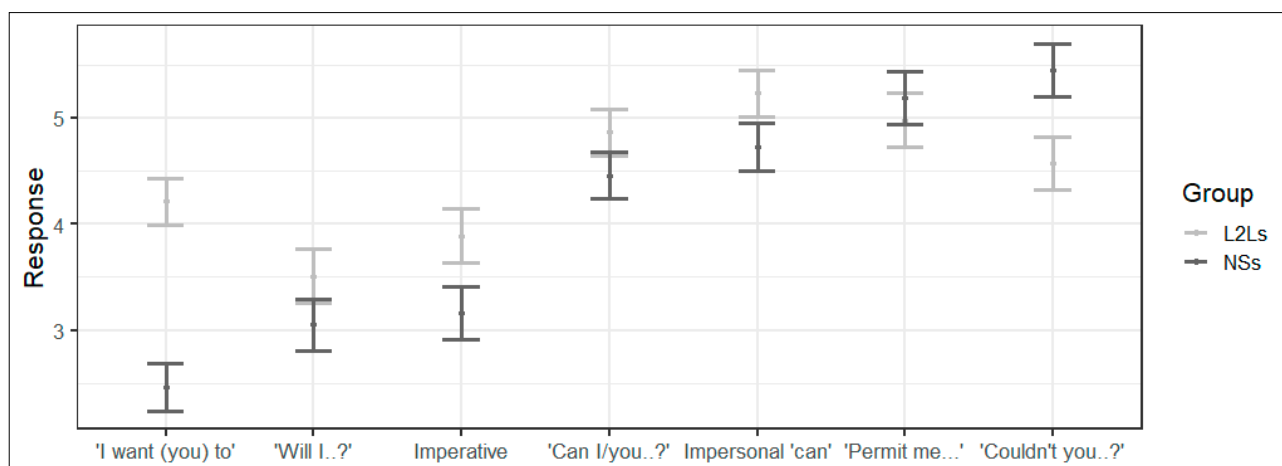
able 2

Regression results for responses to target items in NS group

Effect	Estimate	SE	95% CI LL – UL	p
Fixed effects				
Intercept	2.73	0.24	2.24 – 3.22	< .001
Aspect: perfective	1.00	0.13	0.75 – 1.26	< .001
Tune: L*+H L%	0.35	0.13	0.10 – 0.61	.007
Speech act: indirect	-0.03	0.18	-0.39 – 0.33	.889
Gender: male	0.09	0.38	-0.70 – 0.88	.818
Aspect: perfective * Speech act: indirect	0.24	0.18	-0.12 – 0.60	.197
Random Effects				
σ^2	0.96			
$\tau_{00\ participant}$	0.87			
$\tau_{00\ lexical\ word}$	0.02			
Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.163 / 0.565			

Note: Number of participants = 29; number of lexical words = 4; total *N* of observations = 576.
SE = standard error; *CI* = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit.

Table 3

Regression results for responses to target items in L2L group

Effect	Estimate	SE	95% CI LL – UL	p
Fixed effects				
Intercept	5.17	0.17	4.82 – 5.51	**< .001**
Aspect: perfective	0.18	0.10	-0.02 – 0.38	.085
Tune: L*+H L%	0.24	0.10	0.03 – 0.44	**.023**
Speech act: indirect	-0.08	0.15	-0.37 – 0.21	.576
Gender: male	-0.22	0.24	-0.70 – 0.26	.359
Aspect: perfective * Speech act: indirect	-0.08	0.15	-0.37 – 0.21	.582
Random Effects				
σ^2	0.75			
$\tau_{00\ participant}$	0.46			
$\tau_{00\ lexical\ word}$	0.00			
Marginal R^2 / Conditional R^2	0.024 / 0.396			

Note: Number of participants = 36; number of lexical words = 4; total *N* of observations = 709.
SE = standard error; *CI* = confidence interval; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit.

Discussion

Fillers

The analysis of filler items does not constitute the scope of the study; however, we illustrate these results briefly and utilise them to discuss the evidence for the general validity of the experimental procedure.

In Figure 2, the estimates for condition means and standard errors for each context type are plotted. As Figure 2 indicates, the NS group distinguished between three 'impolite' and four 'polite' student request strategies with mean model estimates under and over 4, respectively. The L2Ls' judgements generally tilt toward the 'polite' end of the continuum; however, the distribution of responses for the conditions 'Will I. . . . ?', imperative, 'Can I/you. . . . ?', and 'Impersonal can' follow the native pattern.

The largest differences between the two groups are found at the extremes of the native judgements'

continuum. First, while the NSs evaluated the *want* statements as clearly impolite, the L2Ls perceived them as neutral. This finding aligns with the existing data concerning *want* statement request strategies in Chinese (Lin, 2009; Rue & Zhang, 2008) and may be indicative of pragmatic transfer from L1. Second, the two strategies perceived as the politest by the NSs (the interrogative request for permission with the verb разрешите, i.e., 'permit', in the future tense and the ability query preparatory in the conditional mood) were not judged as very polite by L2Ls. A possible explanation of this difference is that these formulae are hyperpolite and rarely utilised in everyday communication (including the university setting). Consequently, they do not form a consistent part of learners' input and are not acquired at the pre-intermediate or intermediate proficiency levels.

Generally, though the results for student requests are to be treated with caution, they indicate that the participants did not respond indifferently to the stimuli and that the NSs and L2Ls employed similar strategies in evaluating some of the most frequent request formulae.

Target Items: NS Group

The data obtained from the NS group support previous findings regarding the language specific aspectual and prosodic cues to perceived politeness in Russian. The evidence we have found confirms the considerable degree of pragmatic markedness of the imperfective aspect in imperative directives. Our data indicates that in the investigated scenario (a teacher asks a student to perform an ordinary action in class), the choice of the imperfective verb is consistently perceived by NSs as impolite, while the choice of the perfective verb is seen as neutral. Adopting the analysis of politeness strategies in Russian imperatives conducted in Benacchio's (2002) study, we confirm that in the teacher directive scenario, NSs perceive the usage of positive politeness as an inappropriate imposition on the listener, while negative politeness conveyed via the perfective imperative is considered to be acceptable and neutral but does not lean toward the *very polite* extreme of the scale.

Our data confirm Lehmann's (1989) claim that the pragmatic markedness of aspect in Russian is not limited to the imperative mood. Since no significant interaction between the aspect and the directness of the speech act was found, we conclude that at least in future tense interrogatives (imperf. *Будете читать нам задание?* compared to the perf. *Прочитаете нам задание?* – both can be translated in English literally as 'Will you read us the task?'), the pragmatic meaning conveyed by the choice of aspect is similar to the one previously reported for the imperative.

The second robust effect observed in the NS data is the effect of tune. The participants perceived the rising L*+H L% tune (Bryzgunova's IK-3) as more polite than the falling one (H*+L L%, Bryzgunova's IK-2). Since no robust effect for the speech act type was found, we suggest that for the NSs, intonation is a more salient cue to politeness than the grammatical mood of the verb (the imperative constructions with L*+H are considered to be equally polite to the indicative mood interrogatives). This lends support to previous studies (e.g., Ogiermann, 2009), which claim that in Russian requests, unlike, for example, in English ones, the imperative mood is not perceived as less polite than the indicative mood *per se*, but rather the choice of the falling tune conveys this piece of pragmatic meaning. Our experimental design cannot be fully balanced due to the presumed unacceptability of some conditions' crossings (namely, the imperfective imperative with L*+H and the falling tune in interrogative requests); therefore, we recommend that further investigations are required to better assess the relative perceived politeness of direct and indirect request strategies in Russian. Future studies should also consider the role of negation in the indicative, as it is a common internal modifier in conventionally indirect requests in Russian (Dubinina & Malamud, 2017; Mills, 1992).

Target Items: L2L Group

Our data provide novel insights into the acquisition of language specific cues for politeness by L2 learners of Russian at the pre-intermediate and intermediate proficiency levels. Before focussing on the linguistic factors, we should note that, as the comparison of model intercepts reported in Tables 3 and 4 reveals, L2Ls generally assigned higher politeness ratings to the teacher directives in absolute values compared to the NSs. Since a similar pattern was attested in a majority of the fillers, we suggest that this difference in absolute ratings concerns general cross-cultural differences. Existing research on the topic indicates that Chinese students have more favourable perceptions of teacher-student relationships compared to American students (Bear et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2013) and tend to express a high degree of involvement and solidarity with the teacher in phatic communication (Ren & Liu, 2021). However, no relevant empirical data comparing Russian and Chinese students is currently available, so we prefer to remain agnostic on this account.

Another possible source of the higher absolute ratings attested in L2Ls' data is the age difference between the two groups of participants. While only a few NSs were university students, all L2Ls were enrolled at a university at the moment of testing and interacted with their language instructors and other university staff on a daily basis. This fact could provoke more favourable and cautious judgements of teachers' politeness on their part. However, since the primary focus of this study is linguistic politeness, we further abstain from evaluating the role of extralinguistic factors and concentrate our analysis on linguistic features that were controlled for in the experimental design as well as on the relative sizes of the linguistic effects attested in the L2L data.

One linguistic source of relatively high politeness ratings in the target items that are identifiable in the L2Ls' data is the size of the effect of verbal aspect. Since it does not reach the significance level (p = .084), we cannot claim that our participants utilised this cue to evaluate the politeness of teacher directives. This finding is expected since we intentionally chose a group of learners who are familiar with the main functions of aspect but have not received explicit instruction on its pragmatic markedness and whose L1 does not provide any relevant basis for the pragmatic transfer. Our expectations that this positive politeness cue can be acquired through incidental input were not met, although all L2L participants had at least 15 months of studying Russian abroad with native instructors. We conclude that aspectual marking of pragmatic meaning is not salient for Chinese learners of Russian at pre-intermediate and intermediate levels and, presumably, is acquired only through explicit instruction in class.

The only significant effect attested in the L2L data is the effect of tune. We note, however, that its size is smaller compared to the corresponding effect of pitch in native data. At first glance, the effects of tune, directness of the speech act, and the interaction of these predictors follow the native pattern. Like NSs, L2Ls relied predominantly on intonation in their evaluation of politeness and ignored the differences in mood when presented with directives pronounced with the rising tune typical of yes-no questions. We suggest two possible interpretations of these findings. First, if we assume that the L2Ls at their proficiency levels have successfully acquired the formal differences between the indicative and imperative moods in Russian and were able to correctly recognise the form of the verb, then we can treat the outcome as a case of positive pragmatic transfer from L1. As discussed in the introduction, in native perception, Chinese and Russian similarly treat direct request strategies as pragmatically unmarked. Our data indicate that L2Ls exhibit similar reactions in their perceptions of L2 stimuli and rate Russian imperative directives as neutral, which is only slightly less polite than the interrogative ones.

However, we note that the lack of effects for directness (and for the interaction between directness and aspect) in L2L data do not necessarily imply that Chinese learners of Russian successfully perceive the mood differences and treat them as pragmatically unmarked. Another viable explanation of the observed pattern is the inability of L2Ls to distinguish the indicative (future tense) and imperative forms of perfective verbs. These forms in Russian have similar grammatical affixes and, in fact, are often homonymic (but not in our data). Both grammatical categories are introduced in L2 class as early as the A2 level; however, they present difficulties to various categories of learners, including students with Chinese L1; see Skvortsova's (2019) study and the literature cited therein. Consequently, we cannot exclude the possibility that some of the L2L participants evaluated direct and conventionally indirect rising tune phrases as equally polite because they did not identify the grammatical mood differences in the target items and therefore based their judgements exclusively on intonational cues for linguistic politeness.

Generally, our data for Chinese learners of Russian corroborate the existing research on L2 learners' acquisition of internal pragmatic modifications in the speech act of request. Numerous previous studies of L2 production demonstrate that even at high proficiency levels, internal modifiers tend to be underproduced and pose greater difficulties than external modifiers (among recent studies, see, e.g., Hassall, 2012; Li, 2014; Ren, 2019; Savić et al., 2021; Woodfield, 2012; Woodfield & Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2010). Since the majority of these studies concentrate on lexical and syntactic modifiers, our study adds to this growing body of literature by examining the acquisition of morphological and prosodic features specific to Russian. It also indicates the necessity to address the pragmatic markedness of the Russian aspectual opposition in class since this marker of impoliteness, highly salient for NSs, may be unnoticed by L2Ls in the absence of explicit instruction, which can potentially cause pragmatic infelicities in production.

Conclusion

In the present exploratory study, we provided novel empirical evidence for the role of aspectual and

prosodic markers of politeness in Russian directive speech acts in native perception. Additionally, the perception of these pragmatic features by Chinese learners of Russian who reached pre-intermediate and intermediate proficiency levels after a considerable period of study abroad was tested, demonstrating that in their judgements, L2 learners predominantly relied on intonational differences and did not demonstrate consistent awareness of morphological cues for politeness. The analysis of participants' responses to filler items suggests that our methodology can be applied to a wider inventory of internal modifiers available in Russian, such as negation, conditionals, and ability modals. Investigating native and non-native perceptions of these linguistic features and their interplay within a speech act presents an interesting direction for future work.

The experimental design of the present study is limited in several ways; some of these shortcomings have been outlined in previous sections. Most importantly, by focussing on one group of L2 learners in a single moment of time, the present work does not provide a comprehensive picture of their pragmatic *development*. The importance of addressing temporal dimension in the acquisition of pragmatic competences by switching from cross-sectional and 'single moment' studies to longitudinal ones has been frequently emphasised in literature. The focus on *learning* and not merely the *usage* of pragmatics in L2 is required to better understand the role of pragmatic instruction in class settings and to identify effective teaching strategies. However, establishing a firm empirical basis for L2 research by examining native patterns as well as documenting the non-native competences at early stages of acquisition is fundamental for interlanguage studies as well, and we hope that our findings are beneficial in this regard.

Acknowledgements

Author contributions

Author contributions according to the CRediT (Contributor Roles Taxonomy) framework are stated below.

Pavel Duryagin: Conceptualization (lead), Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualization

Maria Fokina: Conceptualization (supporting), Investigation, Resources

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Al-Duleimi, H. Y., Rashid, S. M., & Abdullah, A. N. (2016). A critical review of prominent theories of politeness. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *7*(6), 262–270. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.7n.6p.262

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2013). Developing L2 Pragmatics. *Language Learning*, *63*, 68–86. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00738.x

Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B., & Walker, S. (2015). Fitting linear mixed-effects models using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software*, *67*(1). https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v067.i01

Bear, G. G., Yang, C., Glutting, J., Huang, X., He, X., Zhang, W., & Chen, D. (2014). Understanding teacher-Ssudent relationships, student-student relationships, and conduct problems in China and the United States. *International Journal of School & Educational Psychology*, *2*(4), 247–260. https://doi.org/10.1080/21683603.2014.883342

Beckman, M. E., & Pierrehumbert, J. B. (1986). Intonational structure in Japanese and English. *Phonology Yearbook*, *3*, 255–309. https://doi.org/10.1017/S095267570000066X

Benacchio, R. (2002). Konkurentsiya vidov, vezhlivost' i etiket v russkom imperative [Aspectual competition, politeness and etiquette in the Russian imperative]. *Russian Linguistics*, *26*(2), 149–178.

Benacchio, R. (2019). Verbal aspect and linguistic politeness in the Slavic imperative. *Quaderni Di Lavoro ASIt. Atti Del Convegno 'In Ricordo Di Alberto Mioni,' 22*, 137–153.

Betsch, M. (2003). Questions as indirect requests in Russian and Czech. In K. M. Jaszczolt & K. Turner (Eds.), *Meaning through language contrast* (vol. 2, issue 2003, pp. 277–290). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.100.18bet

Bezyaeva, M. G. (2002). *Semantika kommunikativnogo urovnya zvuchashchego yazyka* [Semantics of speech at the communicative level]. Izd-vo MGU.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1987). Indirectness and politeness in

requests: Same or different? *Journal of Pragmatics*, *11*(2), 131–146. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(87)90192-5

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

Bryzgunova, E. A. (1973). Osnovnyye tipy intonatsionnykh konstuktsiy i ikh funktsionirovaniye v russkom yazyke [Main types of intonational constructions and their functioning in Russian]. *Russkiy Yazyk Za Rubezhom*, *1*, 44–52.

Bryzgunova, E. A. (1980). Intonacija [Intonation]. In N. Švedova (Ed.), *Russkaja grammatika* (vol. I, pp. 96–120). Nauka.

Chen, R. (2010). Pragmatics east and west: Similar or different? In *Pragmatics across Languages and Cultures* (pp. 167–188). De Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110214444.1.167

Chen, R., He, L., & Hu, C. (2013). Chinese requests: In comparison to American and Japanese requests and with reference to the "East-West divide." *Journal of Pragmatics*, *55*, 140–161. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2013.05.012

Culpeper, J. (2011). Politeness and impoliteness. In *Pragmatics of Society* (pp. 393–438). De Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110214420.393

Dickey, E. (2016). Politeness in ancient Rome: Can it help us evaluate modern politeness theories? *Journal of Politeness Research*, *12*(2), 197–220. https://doi.org/10.1515/pr-2016-0008

Dong, X. (2009). *Requests in academic settings in American English, Russian and Chinese* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The Ohio State University.

Dubinina, I. Y., & Malamud, S. A. (2017). Emergent communicative norms in a contact language: Indirect requests in heritage Russian. *Linguistics*, *55*(1), 67–116. https://doi.org/10.1515/ling-2016-0039

Fan, P., & Gu, W. (2016). Prosodic cues in polite and rude Mandarin speech. *2016 10th International Symposium on Chinese Spoken Language Processing (ISCSLP)* (pp. 1–4). IEEE. https://doi.org/10.1109/ISCSLP.2016.7918491

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2006). Linguistic politeness in Mexico: Refusal strategies among male speakers of Mexican Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *38*(12), 2158–2187. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2006.05.004

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2017). Interlanguage Pragmatics. In Y. Huang (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Pragmatics* (pp. 416–434). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199697960.013.32

Fernández, C. H., Xu, C., Wang, S., & Gu, W. (2019). Perception of politeness in Mandarin speech by Spanish learners of Mandarin. In S. Calhoun, P. Escudero, M. Tabain, & P. Warren (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 19th International Congress of Phonetic Sciences* (pp. 2301–2304). Australasian Speech Science and Technology Association Inc.

Fitch, K. (2008). Directives. In W. Donsbach (Ed.), *The International Encyclopedia of Communication* (pp. 1326–1328). Wiley. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405186407.wbiecd041

Formanovskaya, N. I. (1984). Sposoby vyrazheniya pros'by v russkom yazyke (Pragmaticheskiy podkhod) [Means of expressing requests in Russian (a pragmatic approach)]. *Russkiy Yazyk Za Rubezhom*, *6*, 67–72.

Fox, J., & Weisberg, S. (2018). Visualizing fit and lack of fit in complex regression models with predictor effect plots and partial residuals. *Journal of Statistical Software*, *87*(9), 1–27. https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v087.i09

Fox, J., & Weisberg, S. (2019). *An {R} Companion to Applied Regression* (3rd ed.). Sage.

Frank, V. (2010). Adult Learners' Perspectives on the Acquisition of L2 Russian Pragmatic. *Russian Language Journal*, *60*, 77–94.

Gao, H. (1999). Features of request strategies in Chinese. *Lund University Department of Linguistics Working Papers*, *47*, 73–86.

Grainger, K., & Mills, S. (2016). *Directness and indirectness across cultures*. Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137340399

Grigoriev, I., & Rubtsova, S. (2021). Comparative analysis of politeness strategies in Russian and English dentistry texts. *Journal of Teaching English for Specific and Academic Purposes*, *9*(2), 217–228. https://doi.org/10.22190/JTESAP2102217G

Gu, W., Zhang, T., & Fujisaki, H. (2011). Prosodic analysis and perception of Mandarin utterances conveying attitudes. *INTERSPEECH-2011*, 1069–1072.

Hassall, T. (2012). Request modification by Australian learners of Indonesian. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis & H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Interlanguage request modification* (pp. 203–242). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.217.07has

Haugh, M. (2015). *Im/politeness implicatures*. De Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110240078

Ide, S. (1989). Formal forms and discernment: Two neglected aspects of universals of linguistic politeness. *Multilingua*, *8*(2–3), 223–248. https://doi.org/10.1515/mult.1989.8.2-3.223

Igarashi, Y. (2006). Intonational Patterns in Russian Interrogatives. In Y. Kawaguchi, I. Fónagy, & T. Moriguchi (Eds.), *Prosody and Syntax: Cross-linguistic perspectives* (pp. 175–196). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/ubli.3.11iga

Iliadi, P. L., & Larina, T. V. (2017). Refusal strategies in English and Russian. *RUDN Journal of Language Studies, Semiotics and Semantics*, *9*(3), 531–542. https://doi.org/10.22363/2313-2299-2017-8-3-531-542

Ishihara, N. (2010). Instructional pragmatics: Bridging teaching, research, and teacher education.

Language and Linguistics Compass, *4*(10), 938–953. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-818X.2010.00242.x

Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic transfer. *Second Language Research*, *8*(3), 203–231.

Khrakovskiy, V. S. (1988). Imperativnyye formy NSV i SV v russkom yazyke i ikh upotrebleniye [Imperative forms of imperfective and perfective aspect and their use]. *Russian Linguistics*, *12*(3), 269–292.

Kiyama, S., Tamaoka, K., & Takiura, M. (2012). Applicability of Brown and Levinson's politeness Theory to a non-western culture. *SAGE Open*, *2*(4), 215824401247011. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244012470116

Kotorova, E. (2015). Expressing REQUEST in German and Russian: A communicative-pragmatic field analysis. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *206*, 36–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.10.020

Krulatz, A. (2015). Judgments of politeness in Russian: How non-native requests are perceived by native speakers. *Intercultural Communication Studies XXIV*, *24*(1), 103–122.

Larina, T. (2009). *Kategoriya vezhlivosti i stil' kommunikatsii* [Category of politeness and communication style]. Rukopisnyye pamyatniki Drevney Rusi.

Lee-Wong, S. M. (1994). Imperatives in requests: Direct or impolite - observations from Chinese. *Pragmatics*, *4*(4), 491–515.

Lee, C. (2005). A cross-linguistic study on the linguistic expressions of Cantonese and English requests. *Pragmatics*, *15*(4), 395–422. https://doi.org/10.1075/prag.15.4.05lee

Leech, G., & Larina, T. (2014). Politeness: West and East. *Russian Journal of Linguistics*, *4*, 9–34.

Lehmann, V. (1989). Pragmatic functions of aspects and their cognitive motivation. In L. G. Larsson (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Second Scandinavian Symposium on Aspectology* (pp. 77–88). Almqvist & Wiksell International.

Levshina, N. (2015). *How to do Linguistics with R*. John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/z.195

Li, S. (2014). The effects of different levels of linguistic proficiency on the development of L2 Chinese request production during study abroad. *System*, *45*(1), 103–116. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.05.001

Lin, Y. H. (2009). Query preparatory modals: Cross-linguistic and cross-situational variations in request modification. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *41*(8), 1636–1656. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.12.007

McCarthy, M. M. (2018). A pragmatic analysis of requests in Irish English and Russian. *TEANGA, the Journal of the Irish Association for Applied Linguistics*, *25*, 121–137. https://doi.org/10.35903/teanga.v25i0.54

Mills, M. (1992). Conventionalized politeness in Russian requests: A pragmatic view of indirectness. *Russian Linguistics*, *16*(1), 65–78. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02529539

Mills, M. (1993). On Russian and English pragmalinguistic requestive strategies. *Journal of Slavic Linguistics*, *1*(1), 92–115.

O'Driscoll, J. (2007). Brown & Levinson's face: How it can — and can't — help us to understand interaction across cultures. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, *4*(4), 463–492. https://doi.org/10.1515/IP.2007.024

Ogiermann, E. (2009). Politeness and in-directness across cultures: A comparison of English, German, Polish and Russian requests. *Journal of Politeness Research*, *5*(2), 189–216. https://doi.org/10.1515/JPLR.2009.011

Ogiermann, E., & Bella, S. (2020). An interlanguage study of request perspective: Evidence from German, Greek, Polish and Russian learners of English. *Contrastive Pragmatics*, *1*(2), 1–30. https://doi.org/10.1163/26660393-bja10003

Owen, J. S. (2001). *Interlanguage pragmatics in Russian: A study of the effects of study abroad and proficiency levels on request strategies* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Bryn Mawr College.

Paducheva, E. V. (2010). Semantika i pragmatika nesovershennogo vida imperativa [Semantics and pragmatics of imperfective aspect in imperative]. In *Semanticheskiye issledovaniya* (2nd ed., pp. 66–83). Yazyki slavyanskoy kul'tury.

Peirce, J., Gray, J. R., Simpson, S., MacAskill, M., Höchenberger, R., Sogo, H., Kastman, E., & Lindeløv, J. K. (2019). PsychoPy2: Experiments in behavior made easy. *Behavior Research Methods*, *51*(1), 195–203. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-018-01193-y

Peng, S., Chan, M. K. M., Tseng, C., Huang, T., Lee, O. J., & Beckman, M. E. (2005). Towards a Pan-Mandarin system for prosodic transcription. In S.-A. Jun (Ed.), *Prosodic Typology* (pp. 230–270). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199249633.003.0009

Rathcke, T. (2017). How truncating are "truncating languages"? Evidence from Russian and German. *Phonetica*, *73*(3–4), 194–228. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1159/000444190

Rathmayr, R. (1994). Pragmatische und sprachlich konzeptualisierte Charakteristika russischer direktiver Sprechakte [Pragmatic and linguistically conceptualized characteristics of Russian directive speech acts]. In H. R. Mehlig (Ed.), *Slavistische Linguistik 1993*. Münchner Slavistische Beiträge.

Ren, W. (2019). Pragmatic development of Chinese during study abroad: A cross-sectional study of learner requests. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *146*, 137–

149. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2019.01.017

Ren, W., & Liu, W. (2021). Phatic communion in Chinese students' gratitude emails in English. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. Savić, & N. Halenko (Eds.), *Email Pragmatics and Second Language Learners* (pp. 129–150). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.328.05ren

Rue, Y.-J., & Zhang, G. (2008). *Request strategies. A comparative study in Mandarin Chinese and Korean*. John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.177

Ruytenbeek, N. (2020). Do indirect requests communicate politeness? An experimental study of conventionalized indirect requests in French email communication. *Journal of Politeness Research*, *16*(1), 111–142. https://doi.org/10.1515/pr-2017-0026

Savić, M., Economidou-Kogetsidis, M., & Myrset, A. (2021). Young Greek Cypriot and Norwegian EFL learners: Pragmalinguistic development in request production. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *180*, 15–34. https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PRAGMA.2021.04.006

Searle, J. R. (1975). A Taxonomy of Illocutionary Acts. In K. Gunderson (Ed.), *Language, Mind and Knowledge* (pp. 344–369). University of Minnesota Press.

Skvortsova, N. N. (2019). Semantika russkogo imperativa v aspekte usvoyeniya eye nositelyami uitayskogo yazyka [Semantics of Russian imperative and the aspects of its acquisition by Chinese learners]. In N. N. Khmel'nitskiy (Ed.), *Kitaysko-belorusskiye yazykovyye, literaturnyye i kul'turnyye svyazi: Istoriya i sovremennost'* (pp. 280–292). Belorusskiy gosudarstvennyy universitet.

Song, S. (2017). The Brown and Levinson theory revisited: A statistical analysis. *Language Sciences*, *62*, 66–75. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2017.03.006

Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

Tsylina, M. (2016). *Perception of pragmatic appropriateness of Russian imperatives: The case of L2 learners and heritage learners of Russian* [Unpublished master's dissertation]. University of Oregon. https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/80854186.pdf

Tyurikova, Y. (2008). *Expression of politeness/impoliteness via the aspectual forms in the imperative in Russian* [Unpublished master's dissertation]. The Ohio State University.

Wiemer, B. (2008). Zur innerslavischen Variation bei der Aspektwahl und der Gewichtung ihrer Faktoren [The inner Slavic variation in the choice of aspects and the weighting of factors]. In S. Kempgen, K. Gutschmidt, U. Jekutsch, & L. Udolph (Eds.), *Deutsche Beiträge zum 14. Internationalen Slavistenkongress Ohrid 2008* (pp. 383–409). Sagner.

Wierzbicka, A. (1985). Different cultures, different languages, different speech acts. Polish vs. English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *9*(2–3), 145–178. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(85)90023-2

Wierzbicka, A. (2003). *Cross-Cultural Pragmatics: The Semantics of Human Interaction* (2nd ed.). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110220964

Wierzbicka, A. (2010). Cultural scripts and international communication. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 43–78). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110214444.1.43

Woodfield, H. (2012). "I think maybe I want to lend the notes from you". Development of request modification in graduate learners. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis & H. Woodfield (Eds.), *Interlanguage request modification* (pp. 9–50). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.217.02woo

Woodfield, H., & Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2010). 'I just need more time': A study of native and non-native students' requests to faculty for an extension. *Multilingua - Journal of Cross-Cultural and Interlanguage Communication*, *29*(1), 77–118. https://doi.org/10.1515/mult.2010.004

Yang, C., Bear, G. G., Chen, F. F., Zhang, W., Blank, J. C., & Huang, X. (2013). Students' perceptions of school climate in the U.S. and China. *School Psychology Quarterly*, *28*(1), 7–24. https://doi.org/10.1037/spq0000002

Yu, K.-A. (2011). Culture-specific concepts of politeness: indirectness and politeness in English, Hebrew and Korean requests. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, *8*(3), 385–409. https://doi.org/10.1515/iprg.2011.018

Zemskaya, E. A. (1997). Kategoriya vezhlivosti: obshchiye voprosy — natsional'no-kul'turnaya spetsifika russkogo yazyka [Category of politeness: general issues — national and cultural specifics of Russian language]. *Zeitschrift Für Slavische Philologie*, *56*(2), 271–301.

Zhang, Y. (1995). Indirectness in Chinese requesting. In G. Kasper (Ed.), *Pragmatics of Chinese As Native and Target Language* (pp. 69–118). University of Hawaii.

Zorikhina-Nilsson, N. V. (2012). Intentsional'nost' grammaticheskogo znacheniya vidovykh form glagola v imperative: Teoriya rechevykh aktov i vezhlivost' [Intentionality of grammatical meaning of aspectual forms in imperative: Speech act theory and politeness]. In M. D. Voyeykova (Ed.), *Ot znacheniya k forme, ot formy k znacheniyu* (pp. 190–207). Yazyki slavyanskikh kul'tur.

Insights into ESP Vocabulary Learning Strategies Used by Vietnamese Tertiary Students

Tham My Duong[ID]

Ho Chi Minh City University of Economics and Finance

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Tham My Duong, Faculty of English, Ho Chi Minh City University of Economics and Finance, 141 Dien Bien Phu, District Binh Thanh, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. E-mail: thamdm@uef.edu.vn

Background: ESP vocabulary is pivotal for learners to master the ESP subject matter, so there has been growing interest in how vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) for ESP are used. In addition, understanding the underlying reasons for using VLS for ESP is indispensable.

Purpose: This paper aims at exploring VLS for ESP in terms of metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, memory strategies, determination strategies, social (discovery) strategies, and social (consolidation) strategies employed by Vietnamese tertiary students and their reasons for such VLS deployment.

Method: It involved 270 technical students from a higher education institution in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, who were conveniently selected. This mixed-methods research gathered data by means of a closed-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

Results: The findings unraveled that participants employed strategies for learning ESP lexical items moderately. Remarkably, the metacognitive strategies were the most frequently used among six groups of VLS for ESP, whereas social (consolidation) ones received the least attention. The results further uncovered that participants used VLS for ESP because of efficiency and regular practice, while lack of confidence and environment for practice hindered them from making use of VLS for ESP.

Implication: Such findings are expected to enrich the knowledge of how students learn ESP lexical items in the Vietnamese context and other similar ones.

Keywords: ESP, learning strategies, tertiary level, Vietnamese ESP context, vocabulary

Introduction

A wide range of researchers (e.g., Ghalebi et al., 2020; Jones & Durrant, 2010; Nation, 2001; Wanpen et al., 2013) have confirmed fundamental roles of vocabulary in learning ESP. Jones and Durrant (2010) pointed out that one of the greatest hindrances for a learner's mastering a second/foreign language is limited lexical range. What is more, Gifford (2013) asserted that those with a higher lexical proficiency are able to communicate more competently. Finally, in ESP context, vocabulary is essential for mastering ESP knowledge, which raises the question of the most efficient ways of ESP vocabulary acquisition.

ESP vocabulary plays a dominant role in ESP courses and the accompanying ESP materials. Harding (2007) viewed ESP vocabulary as a crucial element because learners need technical or specialized words to comprehend and explain the ESP subject matter. Likewise, Ghazal (2017) advocated that the extent to and the way in which vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) are employed can enhance learners' understanding of various genres. Furthermore, the findings of some studies (e.g., Cameron, 2001; Catalan, 2003) have indicated that VLS can help learners not only to acquire new words but also to retain them in the long-term memory. This means learners can learn new words faster and remember them longer when using VLS appropriately and effectively. In a similar vein, Wanpen et al. (2013) have indicated a growing demand for developing ESP competence and recognized VLS as one of the most important factors in attaining this goal. Furthermore, learners employ VLS as a tool to learn vocabulary and self-direct their own lexical learning. Thus, it is the independent learners who are supposed to be effective and successful in vocabulary learning (e.g., Nation, 1990, 2001; Oxford, 1990; Sedighi & Tamjid, 2016; Tran, 2020). In order to learn vocabulary effectively, learners should acknowledge the importance of VLS, i.e., provided they have a wider range of VLS, learners

Research Article

will be capable of mastering unfamiliar words more easily. Finally, Ellis's (1997) study has shown that learners' use of VLS is positively correlated with their academic achievement, i.e., the higher the academic achievement learners get, the more effectively they use VLS or vice versa.

Language learning strategies have been variously classified (e.g., O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). For example, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) have grouped VLS into three big types (metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, & social strategies), while Oxford (1990) classified them into two big categories: direct strategies (e.g., memory strategies, cognitive strategies, & compensation strategies) and indirect strategies (metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, & social strategies). On the basis of these classifications, Schmitt (1997) categorized VLS into two major groups: (i) discovery strategies (e.g., determination strategies & social strategies) and (ii) consolidation strategies (e.g., cognitive strategies, memory strategies, metacognitive strategies, & social strategies). In the meanwhile, Gu (2013, 2018) proposed an inventory of VLS for ESL learners with two main components, namely metacognitive strategies (e.g., beliefs about vocabulary learning & metacognitive regulation of vocabulary learning) and cognitive strategies (e.g., guessing strategies, dictionary strategies, note-taking strategies, rehearsal strategies, encoding strategies, & activation strategies). Given the fact that Schmitt's (1997) categorization of VLS is a comprehensible taxonomy which has been commonly applicable to numerous educational contexts (e.g., Catalan, 2003; Takac, 2008), it is employed in this study as well.

A variety of studies on VLS for ESP have been carried out in numerous contexts. Lessard-Clouston (2008) examined the VLS used by Canadian and foreign learners. Two instruments including a questionnaire and an interview were utilized for data collection. The results indicated that learners used different types of VLS including looking up the dictionary and glossary, drilling new words on the sheet of paper, taking written notes in class, writing word lists, creating flashcards, repeating written and oral words, and questioning the new words to others. Wanpen et al. (2013) did research to find out how engineering students utilized VLS. A questionnaire, a test, and an interview were used to gather data from 47 respondents. They found out that vocational students had a higher level of ESP vocabulary than general education ones, and they used VLS for ESP differently. In Vietnam, Tran (2012) conducted research on the use of VLS by ESP students. A questionnaire was administered to 100 students at Da Nang University.

The author found that students employed VLS in a wrong way without critical thinking. Le and Thach (2017) investigated 100 Vietnamese students' VLS use for ESP. They used questionnaire, semi-structured interview and learner diary for data collection and found out that participants employed discovery and cognitive strategies for ESP.

Regardless of the mentioned importance of vocabulary in general and specifically of ESP vocabulary, the use of VLS for ESP in some educational contexts is likely to be underestimated in ESP teaching and learning. ESP teachers tend to put more emphasis on teaching vocabulary and grammar needed to complete a task (i.e., product-oriented approach) rather than on developing students' strategies of learning ESP vocabulary (i.e., process-oriented approach). Consequently, students attempt to memorize ESP vocabulary without employing systematic VLS, so they are unable to retain ESP vocabulary in long-term memory. In the Vietnamese context, ESP courses have been designed and taught at vocational institutions with a focus on students' practical needs to meet the job requirements. Such ESP courses aim at enabling students to strengthen their ESP proficiency, to acquire specific professional knowledge and to use ESP appropriately in an English-speaking working environment. Nevertheless, there has been a lack of systematic instruction on using ESP VLS among Vietnamese tertiary students. This study endeavors to delve into the use of VLS by ESP students in the context of higher education in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. Specifically, this research attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent do Vietnamese tertiary students use VLS in the ESP courses?
2. What are the underlying reasons for their VLS use?

Method

Research Context and Participants

This mixed-methods research was carried out in the context of higher education in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. The English department of the selected university employs 13 language teachers with M.A. degrees in TESOL or Applied Linguistics who deliver the courses in General English and ESP. Students at this university are required to take two general English courses in the first two semesters and a 6-credit ESP course in the third semester.

A cohort of 270 students from six disciplines (e.g.,

Information Technology, Electrical - Electronic Technology, Mechanical Technology, Garment technology, Thermal Technology, & Automotive Technology) who were taking ESP courses were conveniently selected from the target population. As can be observed in Table 1, male students (84.4%) outnumbered female ones (15.6%). Regarding the grades, there was a very small number of high achievers, with no students achieving excellent grades in English (from 8.5 to 10), and only 3% obtained good grades (from 7.0 to 8.4). Strikingly, most of them scored average grades (35.2%) and pass grades (54.1%). A minority of them (7.8%) even failed the General English 2 exam. Concerning years of learning English, 193 out of 270 participants have learned English for more than 7 years, while the rest (27%) have learned English for 4-7 years.

Research Instruments

Two research instruments, namely a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were employed to gather data. The former was adapted from Schmitt's (1997) classification of VLS and it consisted of two parts: Part A asking for respondents' background information; Part B with 35 closed-ended items asking about the extent to which the respondents used VLS for ESP. According to Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy the items were divided into six groups (cognitive strategies: 5 items; determination strategies: 6 items: memory strategies: 8 items: metacognitive strategies: 5 items, social (consolidation) strategies: 7 items, and social (discovery) strategies: 4 items). The five-point Likert scale (from *never* to *always*) was employed. The

one-on-one interview was designed to gain an in-depth insight into the use of VLS in ESP. Both the questionnaire and the interview questions were first written in English and then translated into Vietnamese to ensure that the participants did not face any language difficulty in answering the questionnaire and interviews. To increase the validity and reliability of the study, the instruments were piloted prior to the main study, and a linguistics expert was invited to check the validity of the instruments (e.g., construct, content, criterion, and face) and to cross-check the accuracy of the translated versions.Furthermore, the Cronbach's alpha obtained for each of the six groups of items in the questionnaire is as follows: .73 for *social strategies – discover*, .87 for *social strategies - consolidate*, .88 for *memory strategies*, .74 for *cognitive strategies*, and .78 for *metacognitive strategies*. This means that the internal consistency of the questionnaire is acceptable.

Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

As regards the data collection, after the questionnaire and interviews had been piloted, the official questionnaire was administered to 270 second-year students. Respondents spent roughly 30-35 minutes completing the questionnaire. Following this, 25 students were voluntary for the follow-up semi-structured interviews. The 30-minute interviews which were conducted with each student in the self-study area were recorded for transcription.

The quantitative data obtained by the questionnaire were analyzed by SPSS software version 20.0. The

Table 1

Research Participants' Personal Information

		N=270	
		F	**%**
Gender	Male	228	84.4
	Female	42	15.6
Major	Information Technology	45	16.7
	Electrical - Electronic Technology Mechanical Technology	45	16.7
	Garment technology	45	16.7
	Thermal Technology	45	16.7
	Automotive Technology	45	16.7
		45	16.7
English grades	Excellent (8.5 → 10)	0	0
	Good (7.0 → 8.4)	8	3.0
	Average (5.5 → 6.9)	95	35.2
	Pass (4.0 → 5.4)	146	54.1
	Fail (below 4.0)	21	7.8
Year of English learning	Less than 3 years	0	0
	From 4 to 7 years	73	27
	More than 7 years	193	73

Note: F = Frequency; % = Percentage

descriptive statistics (i.e., mean: M and standard deviation: SD) was computed. The intervals for the mean scores were interpreted as follows: 4.21 - 5.00 (always), 3.41 - 4.20 (often), 2.61 - 3.40 (sometimes), 1.81 - 2.60 (seldom), 1.00 - 1.80 (never) (Kan, 2009).

The qualitative data from interviews were analyzed by the content analysis method within three steps. First, all the interviewees were coded as S1, S2, S3 to S25, and the interviews were carefully transcribed. Then, the transcripts were read, reread, and coded. Finally, major categories and their sub-categories were identified. In order to ensure the reliability and validity of data analysis, the translated version of the transcripts was returned to the interviewees for the meaning check-up, two raters in the field of English language studies were invited to re-analyze three randomly-chosen pieces of data, and the consented level of consistency on the results between the invited raters and the researchers reached 95%.

Results

As can be seen in Table 2, the participants generally employed VLS for ESP with the average mean score of 3.26. More specifically, metacognitive strategies had the highest mean score (M = 3.43, SD = .53), followed by memory strategies (M = 3.36, SD = .82),

determination strategies (M = 3.30, SD = .67), social (discovery) strategies (M = 3.29, SD = .64) and cognitive strategies (M = 3.26, SD = .36). The lowest mean score belonged to social (consolidation) strategies (M = 2.90, SD = .79). This can be understood that participants generally used VLS for ESP.

Metacognitive Strategies

Table 3 shows that metacognitive strategies were used most frequently. Specifically, the participants often '[did] ESP vocabulary exercises' (item 2: M = 3.58, SD = .67) and '[categorized]ESP lexical items to memorize them' (item 3: M = 3.43, SD = .82). Additionally, they often '[learned]ESP l lexical items from English magazines, newspapers, TV programs or internet resources and '[highlighted] ESP lexical items that [they] cannot remember', achieving the same mean scores (M = 3.42, SD = .78; M = 3.42, SD = .85 respectively). Nonetheless, students sometimes '[ignored] ESP lexical items when seeing them' (item 4: M = 3.30, SD = .76).

The qualitative data generated from the interviews revealed reasons for using the metacognitive strategies as follows.

> I learn ESP lexical items by writing them on a sticker. Then, I stick it at my learning desk. By doing so, I easily

Table 2.

Overall Results of Used VLS for ESP

VLS	N=270		Level	Interpretation
	M	SD		
Metacognitive strategies	3.43	.53	Often	3.41-4.20
Memory strategies	3.36	.82	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
Determination strategies	3.30	.67	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
Social (discovery) strategies	3.29	.64	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
Cognitive strategies	3.26	.36	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
Social (consolidation) strategies	2.90	.79	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
Average	3.26	.64		

Table 3

Metacognitive Strategies

Item	Metacognitive strategies	N = 270		Level	Interpretation
		M	SD		
2	Do ESP vocabulary exercises.	3.58	.67	Often	3.41-4.20
3	Categorize ESP lexical items to memorize them.	3.43	.82	Often	3.41-4.20
5	Highlight ESP lexical items you cannot remember.	3.42	.85	Often	3.41-4.20
1	Learn ESP lexical items from English magazines, newspapers, TV programs or internet resources.	3.42	.78	Often	3.41-4.20
4	Ignore ESP lexical items when seeing them.	3.30	.76	Sometimes	2.61-3.40

recognize the words I can and cannot memorize, and then I try to learn them all. Moreover, I often use this strategy because of its simplicity. (S4)

I often do a lot of exercises and tests to learn ESP lexical items because I want to know their meaning and use in contexts. (S14)

In a nutshell, compared to other categories of VLS for ESP, metacognitive strategies were utilized more regularly by the students. Strikingly, the most significantly used strategy was doing tests or exercises to check their understanding of ESP lexical items.

Memory Strategies

The results in Table 4 show that participants often '[grouped] ESP lexical items in terms of topics to learn (item 6: M = 3.65, SD = .96), '[learned] ESP lexical items by determining keywords in the context (item 10: M = 3.55, SD = 1.08) and '[used] contextual clues to learn the meanings of ESP lexical items (item 7: M = 3.43, SD = .92). However, they sometimes '[learned] the spelling of ESP lexical items' (item 8: M = 3.14, SD = .89), '[mimicked] pronunciation of ESP lexical items' (item 9: M = 3.24, SD = .99), and '[learned] the ESP lexical items' meanings in [their] own way' (item 11: M = 3.14, SD = 1.36).

Regarding the students' favorite memory strategies, some students of Automotive Technology and Electrical and Electronics Technology highlighted the keyword method as their preferred one.

I often drew pictures for new ESP lexical items to memorize them at ease. (S23)

I found it interesting and easy to learn ESP lexical items with the keyword method. (S14)

The students of Information Technology and Thermal Technology argued that it was the sentence making activity that helped them memorize lexical terms.

I made sentences with ESP lexical items so that I could memorize the use of the new words in sentences effectively. (S7)

In sum, the students tended to use meaning-based memory strategies such as grouping ESP lexical items, using contextual clues, and using key words to learn ESP lexical items.

Determination Strategies

As seen in Table 5, the participants often determined the meaning of ESP lexical items by 'guessing from textual context' (item 15: M = 3.60, SD = .98), 'using pictures in ESP field' (item 14: M = 3.47, SD = .89) and 'ESP vocabulary lists' (item 18: M = 3.43, SD = .84), and 'using flashcards' (item 19: M = 3.42, SD = .79). They also often [checked] the meaning of ESP lexical items in an English-Vietnamese dictionary' (item 16: M = 3.50, SD = .96). Notwithstanding, the participants used the strategies of determining the meaning of ESP lexical items by 'analyzing the part of speech' (item 12: M = 3.09, SD = .95) and 'suffixes and roots' (item 13: M = 2.97, SD = .86) and '[checking] the meaning of ESP lexical items in an English-English dictionary (item 17: M = 2.95, SD = .89) at a moderate level.

Qualitatively, one student of the Electrical-Electronics Technology department shared his VLS for ESP as follows.

I downloaded a list of ESP lexical items for my major. Then, I looked for the ESP lexical items I wished to learn, and I wrote them into flashcards to learn. (S16)

In a similar line, one student of the Automotive Technology department gave an explanation for using

Table 4

Memory Strategies

| Item | Memory strategies | N = 270 | | Level | Interpretation |
		M	SD		
6	Group ESP lexical items in terms of topics to learn.	3.65	.96	Often	3.41-4.20
10	Learn ESP lexical items by identifying keywords in the context.	3.55	1.08	Often	3.41-4.20
7	Use contextual clues to learn the meanings of ESP lexical items.	3.43	.92	Often	3.41-4.20
9	Mimic the pronunciation of ESP lexical items.	3.24	.99	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
8	Learn the spelling of ESP lexical items.	3.14	.89	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
11	Learn the ESP lexical items' meanings in your own way.	3.14	1.36	Sometimes	2.61-3.40

flashcards and provided another learning strategy:

> I often used flashcards because I could learn and review new words using flashcards at my convenience. Therefore, I was able to remember the words longer. (S25)

One student of the Information Technology department added that he chose wordlists as a favorite strategy because of its availability:

> I frequently utilized the English wordlists to learn because ESP lexical items were available in the list, so it was easy for me to learn them. (S5)

To sum up, the students preferred determination strategies relating to the meaning of vocabulary in the first language (e.g., guessing the meaning of ESP lexical items from textual contexts and using pictures, flashcards and English-Vietnamese dictionary to learn ESP lexical items) to those focusing on the features of vocabulary in the target language (e.g.,

using English-English engineering dictionary, doing morphological analysis of words, and analyzing parts of speech).

Social (Discovery) Strategies

Table 6 reveals that participants often '[asked] classmates for ESP lexical items' meanings' (item 23: M = 3.50, SD = .81) and '[looked] for ESP lexical items' meanings through group work activities' (item 24: M = 3.47, SD = .84). However, they sometimes asked teachers for 'ESP lexical items used in contexts' (item 22: M = 3.27, SD = .81), '[translating] ESP lexical items into Vietnamese' (item 20: M = 3.23, SD = 1.00) and 'an antonym or synonym of ESP lexical items' (item 21: M = 2.97, SD = 1.13). Accordingly, we conclude that the participants sought help from their peers for ESP lexical items rather than from their teachers.

To provide an explanation for the high use of social (discovery) strategies, one interviewee of the Information Technology department revealed the benefit of collaborative learning.

Table 5

Determination Strategies

Item	Determination strategies	N = 270		Level	Interpretation
		M	SD		
15	Determining the meaning of ESP lexical items by guessing from textual context.	3.60	.98	Often	3.41-4.20
16	Check the meaning of ESP lexical items in an English-Vietnamese dictionary.	3.50	.96	Often	3.41-4.20
14	Determining the meaning of ESP lexical items by using pictures in the ESP field.	3.47	.89	Often	3.41-4.20
18	Determining the meaning of ESP lexical items by using ESP vocabulary lists.	3.43	.84	Often	3.41-4.20
19	Determining the meaning of ESP lexical items by using flashcards.	3.42	.79	Often	3.41-4.20
12	Determining the meaning of ESP lexical items by analyzing the part of speech (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, adverb).	3.09	.95	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
13	Determining the meaning of ESP lexical items by analyzing suffixes and roots (e.g., conductor-suffix: -or; root: conduct).	2.97	.86	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
17	Check the meaning of ESP lexical items in an English-English dictionary.	2.95	.89	Sometimes	2.61-3.40

Table 6

Social (Discovery) Strategies

Item	Social (Discovery) strategies	N = 270		Level	Interpretation
		M	SD		
23	Ask classmates for ESP lexical items' meanings.	3.50	.81	Often	3.41-4.20
24	Look for ESP lexical items' meanings through group work activities.	3.47	.84	Often	3.41-4.20
22	Ask teachers for ESP lexical items used in contexts.	3.27	.81	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
20	Ask teachers to translate ESP lexical items into Vietnamese.	3.23	1.00	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
21	Ask teachers for an antonym or synonym of ESP lexical items.	2.97	1.13	Sometimes	2.61-3.40

I learned ESP lexical items by asking my classmates for ESP lexical items' meaning as I was unable to write down all the content that the lecturers had conveyed. (S15)

One student of the Thermal Technology department admitted that learning with friends helped him learn technical words better.

I often learned ESP lexical items in a small group of friends because I believed that I could learn ESP lexical items better. When learning ESP lexical items with friends, we could help cross-check ESP lexical items so that we remembered them longer. (S19)

In brief, the participants were more likely to use those social (discovery) strategies that involve their peers rather than teachers.

Cognitive Strategies

The results depicted in Table 7 indicate that participants often '[kept] an ESP vocabulary notebook to learn' (item 31: M = 3.44, SD = .86). Meanwhile, they had a tendency to sometimes 'listen to the audio files of ESP vocabulary lists many times' (item 29: M = 3.33, SD = .55) 'label ESP technical components of lexical items to learn their meaning' (item 30: M = 3.33, SD = .56). Additionally, the participants also sometimes '[took] notes of ESP lexical items in class for later review' (item 27: M = 3.30; SD = .54), '[did] exercises of ESP lexical items' (item 28: M = 3.16; SD = .49), and reviewed ESP lexical items 'by writing them many times' (item 26: M = 3.16; SD = .50), and 'by reading them many times' (item 25: M = 3.09; SD = .44).

For more details, the qualitative results disclosed underlying reasons for the use of cognitive strategies.

I brought my ESP vocabulary notebook so

that I could learn new words when possible. (S3).

I liked to write down ESP lexical items on the piece of paper and read them aloud or use flashcards done by myself because it was the best way for me to learn ESP lexical items. (S7)

I learned ESP lexical items by writing them repeatedly. This way really helped me remember their spelling correctly. (S22)

I often read ESP lexical items aloud, and this activity was fun and helpful for me to remember ESP lexical items. (S24)

In short, the results showed that students employed most of the cognitive strategies moderately except for keeping an ESP vocabulary notebook which they used most frequently.

Social (Consolidation) Strategies

As can be seen from Table 8, participants sometimes '[exchanged] ESP vocabulary cards and word lists with friends' (item 33: M = 3.05, SD = .91) and '[learned] ESP lexical items' meanings in a small group' (item 32: M = 3.02, SD = .92). Nonetheless, participants employed strategies of '[reviewing] ESP lexical items' meaning with friends after class' (item 35, M = 2.77, SD = .93) and '[used] ESP lexical items to communicate with foreigners' (item 34: M = 2.76, SD = .96) slightly less frequently than the other two strategies in the social (consolidation) strategies.

Qualitatively, most of the interviewees preferred collaborative learning. Specifically, a significant example is reported as follows.

I often reviewed the meaning of ESP lexical items with my friends. We played games, did

Table 7

Cognitive Strategies

Item	Cognitive strategies	N = 270		Level	Interpretation
		M	**SD**		
31	Keep an ESP vocabulary notebook to learn.	3.44	.86	Often	3.41-4.20
29	Listen to the audio files of ESP vocabulary lists many times.	3.33	.55	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
30	Label ESP technical components of lexical items to learn their meaning.	3.33	.56	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
27	Take notes of ESP lexical items in class for later review.	3.30	.54	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
28	Do exercises of ESP lexical items.	3.16	.49	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
26	Review ESP lexical items by writing them many times.	3.16	.50	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
25	Review ESP lexical items by reading them many times.	3.09	.44	Sometimes	2.61-3.40

Table 8

Social (Consolidation) Strategies

Item	Social (Consolidation) strategies	N = 270		Level	Interpretation
		M	SD		
33	Exchange ESP vocabulary cards and word lists with friends.	3.05	.91	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
32	Learn ESP lexical items' meaning in a small group.	3.02	.92	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
35	Review ESP lexical items' meaning with friends after class.	2.77	.93	Sometimes	2.61-3.40
34	Use ESP lexical items to communicate with foreigners.	2.76	.96	Sometimes	2.61-3.40

puzzles, or did exercises. These activities were exciting and useful because they enabled me to recall ESP lexical items for a long time. (S12)

However, some students revealed the drawbacks of group work such as noise, time constraint, and time management.

I was really irritated when my group mates focused on their gossip rather than our work. Some of them kept talking about topics irrelevant to our task. It was a waste of time. (S17)

When we worked in a group, every member wanted to raise their voices. Therefore, making noise is unavoidable. (S6)

In addition, more than half of the informants admitted that they did not communicate with foreigners using ESP lexical items because they felt bored and unconfident to do such a task alone, and there were very few opportunities for students to communicate with foreigners.

I felt shy when I talked with foreigners. I was afraid they might not understand what I was saying. (S11)

I got more excited and confident to start a conversation with foreigners when I went with my group mates. (S8)

I just used ESP vocabulary when I talked with my foreign teacher in the classroom. (S10)

To summarize, the students tended to employ the social (consolidation) strategies less frequently than the other strategy groups due to their psychological factors and lack of opportunities for practice.

Discussion

This study has revealed some remarkable findings. It was first found that the research participants employed VLS for ESP only to a limited extent. In other words,

they did not use the strategies in learning ESP lexical items very frequently. This result is consistent with the findings of some previous studies (e.g., Pham, 2010; Tran & Nguyen, 2017; Wanpen et al., 2013). In particular, Wanpen et al.'s (2013) study showed that vocational students did not oftentimes use VLS for ESP. In addition, Vietnamese non-English majors, especially those who study technology-based majors are generally considered not to be good at English. Furthermore, this study was dominated by male students (42 females and 228 males), which may have influenced the obtained result – the moderate use of VLS for ESP. This speculation is supported by that of studies conducted by Denton and West (2002) and Rudzinska (2013) which have found that female students were better at learning foreign languages than the male ones. In addition, unwillingness to take charge of their own learning and lack of chances to use ESP lexical items in real-life communication are identified as obstacles to using VLS for ESP in this study.

Metacognitive Strategies: Efficiency and Regular Practice

The respondents preferred metacognitive strategies to other groups of strategies. One of the plausible explanations for this may be that students may enjoy using strategies of which they are fully aware as asserted by Anderson (2005) who claimed that learners can navigate their own learning with metacognitive strategies. Such a finding is confirmed by studies carried by O'Malley et al. (1985) and Wanpen et al. (2013) who have stated that without metacognitive strategies, learners may not be able to see their learning progress, obtain accomplishments, and determine directions for future learning. In the Vietnamese context, the findings of this study are corroborated by Vo and Duong's (2020) study which concluded that the third-year non-English majors at a Ho Chi Minh-based college recognized the importance of metacognitive strategies. In particular, the strategies concerning goal setting, needs-based adjustment, and reflection were preferred. Therefore, it may be claimed that metacognitive strategies are the most useful ones in ESL vocabulary learning.

Furthermore, some participants reported that they

employed the metacognitive strategies regularly. It is possible that the respondents are more familiar with the use of metacognitive strategies because the teachers train them to use them in class. Consequently, the metacognitive strategy which involves 'checking understanding of ESP lexical items by doing tests' was one of the most commonly used VLS for ESP. It is true that EFL teachers frequently make use of tests to check their students' comprehension as Seliger and Shohamy (1997) affirmed that a test is used to collect data on learners' ability or knowledge of language and general proficiency in language acquisition research. According to the regulations applied for Vietnamese vocational schools including the surveyed college, the final grade of a subject is the average of scores obtained from attendance, progress tests (e.g., discussions, group assignments, projects, etc.), and final test. This means that students have a lot of opportunities to do tests during their learning process.

Determination Strategies: A Chance to Promote Learner Autonomy

Determination strategies, known as strategies for individual learning without any support or intervention from others, were used quite often by the participants. This means that they were able to take control of their learning with the use of learning strategies. Similarly, some previous studies (e.g., Baskin et al., 2017; Besthia, 2018; Tran, 2020) revealed that the determination strategies were employed most frequently by the university students compared to the other groups of VLS. In the 21st century, ESL/EFL learners should be encouraged to learn independently and be in control of their own learning (e.g., Benson, 2001; Little, 2009; Rivers & Golonka, 2009; Tran & Duong, 2018; Tran & Vo, 2019). In this study, the students were likely to employ most of the determination strategies frequently, so they may have a chance to promote their learner autonomy. This is confirmed by Nation (1990, 2001) who has pinpointed that learners' VLS is positively correlated with their learner autonomy. In other words, the more VLS learners use, the more autonomous they become. Although the students often used the L1 meaning-focused determination strategies, they encountered some difficulties in dealing with those associated with the characteristics of words in the target language. Hence, the support from the teacher, peers, or other resources (e.g., social (discovery) strategies) is indispensable in this situation.

Social (Consolidation) Strategies: Lack of Confidence and an Environment for Practice

In contrast to the high frequency of use of metacognitive and determination strategies, social (consolidation) strategies achieved the lowest overall mean score (M = 2.90). That is to say, these strategies were not in the students' priority list when they learned ESP lexical items. Such a finding is in alignment with that of Hamzah et al.'s (2009) study which has indicated that social strategies were one of the least often used strategies. Two strategies that received the least attention from ESP students belong to the group of social (consolidation) strategies. These are VLS: '[used] ESP lexical items to communicate with foreigners (item 34) and '[reviewing]lexical items' meanings with friends after class' (item 35). The lack of use of the former may be explained by the fact that students in this context may be shy, or they may not have ever had little chance to interact with English speaking people. This finding is supported by studies conducted by Vietnamese researchers (e.g., Hoang, 2018; Le & Thach, 2017) who have found that Vietnamese learners are in general shy to interact with foreigners. Another explanation could be found in their limited English language proficiency. The participants' background information revealed that more than half of the participants had poor English grades. Gardner and Lambert (1972) asserted that there is a strong correlation between learners' psychological characteristics (e.g., self-esteem, anxiety, motivation, and attitudes) and their academic learning achievement in language learning. Thus, if learners are not proficient in language skills, they may tend to be shy and unmotivated to use that language in communication or vice versa.

Regarding the latter strategy, it is likely that students may lack an academic environment where they can review ESP lexical items outside the classroom. Concerning the reason for the latter strategy, the participants revealed a similar problem as Tran's (2012) finding that Vietnamese students were unlikely to use ESP lexical items in communication for real life. This means that they had little chance to practice ESP lexical items with friends and people around them outside their classroom. This is particularly true for the Vietnamese non-English majors at this research site when they mostly used ESP lexical items to deal with learning tasks inside the classroom.

Conclusion

This research was conducted using two research instruments, namely the questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The main aim of the study was to explore the frequency of VLS the technical students used at an institution in Vietnam, and it has reached a

number of conclusions. First, ESP students preferred metacognitive strategies to other groups of VLS for ESP, e.g., memory strategies, determination strategies, social (discovery) strategies, cognitive strategies, and social (consolidation) strategies. Second, their use of VLS for ESP was influenced by such reasons as the usefulness of strategies, learners' psychology, and practicing opportunities.

Some practical implications are drawn in this study. Regarding learner autonomy, ESP students should use learning strategies to develop autonomous learning such as setting goals, creating study plans, managing their learning as well as evaluating their learning ESP lexical items together with VLS for ESP. In this sense, they should use VLS with a special focus on determination strategies more frequently since these strategies are essential for autonomous learners' lifelong learning. Furthermore, ESP students should try to use more social strategies because these are believed to benefit language. Specifically, they should be encouraged to take opportunities to communicate with foreigners. As for teachers, they should motivate students to employ VLS for ESP more frequently. Particularly, teachers should monitor their students' VLS, i.e., the teacher should first introduce VLS to students at the beginning of the course, and then observe and monitor their use.In addition, the findings indicated that five out of six strategy categories were employed moderately except for the often-used metacognitive strategies. That is, the students tended to use the metacognitive strategies more than the others. Therefore, EFL teachers need to offer an instruction on VLS use to broaden the range and frequency of strategies employed.

In spite of the theoretical and practical contributions of the present study, some drawbacks should be taken into consideration. Firstly, the sample was not gender-balanced. Hence, it is recommended that gender should be counted as a variable in further research. Secondly, learners' psychological factors was found to be an underlying reason for their moderate use of VLS, so future researchers can take this issue into consideration. Finally, this study involved only learners as the research participants. It is better if both teachers and learners can take part in the same study so that data triangulation can be conducted.

Acknowledgements

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Anderson, N. J. (2005). L2 learning strategies. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 757-771). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Baskin, S., Işcan, A., Karagöz, B., & Birol, G. (2017). The use of vocabulary learning strategies in teaching Turkish as a second language. *Journal of Education and Practice, 8*(9), 126-134.

Benson, P. (2001). *Teaching and researching autonomy in language learning.* Longman.

Besthia, W. (2018). A survey on vocabulary learning strategies: A case study of Indonesian EFL university students. *Journal of Research & Method in Education*, *8*(5), 29-34. https://doi.org/10.9790/7388-0805032934.

Cameron, L. (2001). *Teaching languages to children.* Cambridge University Press.

Catalan, R. (2003). Sex differences in L2 vocabulary learning strategies. *Applied Linguistics, 13*(1), 54-77. https://doi.org/10.1111/1473-4192.00037

Denton, K., & West, J. (2002). *Children's reading and mathematics achievement in kindergarten and first grade*. National Center for Education Statistics.

Ellis, R. (1997). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford University Press.

Gardner, R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning.* Newbury House.

Ghalebi, R., Sadighi, F., & Bagheri, M. (2020). Vocabulary learning strategies: A comparative study of EFL learners. *Cogent Psychology*, 7, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1080/23311908.2020.1824306

Ghazal. L. (2007). Learning vocabulary in EFL contexts through vocabulary learning strategies. *Novitas-Royal, 1*(2), 84-91.

Gifford, F. (2013). *How to enrich your vocabulary?* Cyber Tech Publications.

Gu, P.Y. (2003). Vocabulary learning in a second language: Person, task, context and strategies. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language TESL-EJ*, *7*(2).

Gu, Y. (2013). Vocabulary learning strategies. In C. A. Chapelle (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of applied*

linguistics. Blackwell Publishing. https://doi. org/10.1002/ 9781405198431.wbeal1329

Gu, Y. (2018). Validation of an online questionnaire of vocabulary learning strategies for ESL learners. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *8*(2), 325-350. https://doi.org/10.14746/ ssllt.2018.8.2.7

Hamzah, M. S. G., Kafipour, R., & Abdullah, S. K. (2009). Vocabulary learning strategies of Iranian undergraduate EFL students and its relation to their vocabulary size. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 11*(1), 39-50.

Harding, K. (2007). *English for specific purposes*. Oxford University Press.

Hoang, H. T. T. (2018). Difficulties in teaching and learning ESP vocabulary for nursing students at Thai Nguyen Medical College and some solutions. *Journal of Science and Technology-Thai Nguyen University, 183*(7), 129-134.

Jones, M., & Durrant, P. (2010). What can a corpus tell about vocabulary teaching materials. In A. O'Keeffe & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of corpus linguistics* (pp. 387-400). Routledge.

Kan, A. (2009). Statistical procedures on measurement results. In the H. Atilgan (Ed.), *Assessment and evaluation in education* (pp. 397-456). Ani Publications.

Lessard-Clouston, M. (2008). Strategies and success in technical vocabulary learning: Students' approaches in one academic context. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 34*(1-2), 31-63.

Le, H. P. H., & Thach, H. T. H. (2017). Students' strategies in learning English specialized vocabulary. *Journal of Science and Education, 44*(4), 35-43.

Little, D. (2009). Language learner autonomy and the European language portfolio: Two L2 English examples. *Language Teaching, 42*(2), 222-233. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444808005636.

Nation, I. S. P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. Newbury.

Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language.* Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition.* Cambridge University Press.

O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Mazanares, G., Russo, R., & Kupper, L. (1985). Learning strategies applications with students of English as a second language. *TESOL Quarterly, 19,* 285-96.https://doi. org/10.2307/3586278

Oxford, R. (1990). Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 15*(2), 103-116.https://doi.org/10.5070/ L411004984

Pham, L. T. P. (2010). *An examination of vocabulary learning strategies of first year students in USSH-VNUH* [Unpublished Master's thesis]. Vietnam National University.

Rivers, W. P., & Golonka, E. M. (2009). Third language acquisition theory and practice. In M. H. Long & C. J. Doughty (Eds.), *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 250-266). Blackwell Publishing.

Rudzinska, I. (2013). Are females better than males in communication in second language? *Journal of Education Culture and Society, 2,* 148-154. https:// jecs.pl/doi/10-15503-jecs20132-148-154

Schmitt, N. (1997). Vocabulary learning strategies. In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp.199-228). Cambridge University Press.

Sedighi, E., & Tamjid, N. H. (2016). The relationship between Iranian EFL learners' autonomy and their vocabulary strategies with a focus on gender. *The Journal of Applied Linguistics, 9*(18), 183-196.

Seliger, H. W., & Shohamy, E. (1997). *Second language research methods*. Oxford University Press.

Takac, V. P. (2008). *Vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language acquisition*. Multilingual Matters.

Tran, T. Q. (2020). Non-English majors' employment of autonomous English lexical learning strategies. *Ho Chi Minh City Open University Journal of Science, 10*(1), 43-54. https://doi.org/10.46223/HCMCOUJS. soci.en.10.1.540.2020

Tran, T. Q., & Duong, T. M. (2018). EFL learners' perceptions of factors influencing learner autonomy development. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences, 39*(1), 1-6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. kjss.2018.02.009.

Tran, T. Q., & Nguyen, T. G. (2017). The use of English vocabulary learning strategies among Vietnamese high school students. In *Proceedings of the Third International TESOL Conference Promoting ELT: Diverse Perspectives and New Horizons at Ho Chi Minh City University of Education* (pp. 223-232). Ho Chi Minh City University of Education Publishing House

Tran, T. Q., & Vo, D. Q. (2019). Tertiary English majors' perceptions of the importance of learner autonomy and autonomous language learning strategy use. *Proceedings of the International Conference: Autonomy and Motivation for Language Learning in the Interconnected World* (pp. 102-113). Vietnam National University – Ho Chi Minh City Press.

Tran, H. H. T. (2012). An investigation into the vocabulary learning strategy of ESP students in College of Foreign Language – The University of Da Nang. *A collection of research papers by students for the 8th conference at the University of Da Nang.* University Press.

Vo, T. T. T., & Duong, T. M. (2020). Non-English majors' perceptions and use of metacognitive strategies at a Vietnamese EFL context. *TNU Journal of Science*

and Technology, 225(12), 131-138.https://doi.org/10.34238/tnu-jst.3703

Wanpen, S., Sonkoontod, K., and Nonkukhetkhong, K. (2013). Technical vocabulary proficiencies and vocabulary learning strategies of engineering students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 88,* 312-320.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.08.511

Developing and Validating a Professional Development Inventory: Novice and Experienced Teachers' Perceptions in Focus

Masoomeh Estaji[©], Amir Parviz Molkizadeh

Allameh Tabataba'i University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Masoomeh Estaji, Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, South Allameh St, Modiriat Fly-over, Chamran Highway, Tehran, Iran.
E-mail: mestaji74@gmail.com

Background: In any successful education system, teachers as the main driving forces of the learning process are at the forefront. To fulfill their responsibilities efficiently, they need to enhance their knowledge and professional expertise. Hence, the evaluation of teachers' professional development is of paramount importance in EFL contexts.

Purpose: The present study was conducted to investigate the underlying factors constituting a newly developed teachers' professional development questionnaire in the EFL context of Iran.

Method: To this end, 242 Iranian EFL teachers with different experiences were conveniently requested to partake in this study. They were asked to respond to the questionnaire, which encompassed 76 items on a five-point Likert scale. After ensuring the reliability of the scale, to scrutinize the validity of the questionnaire, content validity and factor analysis were checked.

Results: The results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) revealed that the questionnaire involved 7 factors, representing the teachers' beliefs about various aspects of development, like means of development, needs, beneficiaries, motivators, methods, and obstacles of development. The results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) also demonstrated that the questionnaire consists of seven factors, loading on items and sub-components of the model.

Implication: This study can provide treasured pedagogical implications for EFL teachers, teacher educators, policymakers, and materials developers through raising their awareness and knowledge of teachers' professional development and its underlying components.

Keywords: EFL teacher, novice teacher, experienced teacher, professional development, validation, teacher perception

Introduction

As a key constituent of teacher education, professional development has long been acknowledged as one of the most operative means to boost teachers' professional abilities and attitudes, craft better schools, and eventually develop the learning process and student achievements (Borko & Putnam, 1995; Doyle, 1990; Guskey, 2000). To use Evans' (2011) term, the very aim of professional development is to change teachers' professional thinking, knowing, feeling, and doing. Teacher professional development has been described by Guskey (2002) as organized attempts to incur changes in teachers' classroom practices, their attitude and perceptions, and learners' learning outcomes. It is essential to teachers' ability to cope with educational innovation and manage various socioeconomic affairs internal and external to the school (Omar, 2014).

Teacher Professional Development (TPD) is a building block of every successful education system. As the main mission of No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) and as represented in Dewey's (1902) study, professional development has been suggested to ensure teachers' awareness, knowledge, skills, pedagogical practices, and qualities and support their personal and socio-emotional growth (Rodriguez et al., 2020). Professional development is an on-going and context-sensitive attempt (Schlager & Fusco, 2003), which concentrates on the teachers' growth to present high-quality instruction to the students (Avalos, 2011).

Hence, such a development can be gained through different activities by which the teachers can direct the students to high levels of academic success; the penultimate aim of education. Although in many educational milieus this concept has been dealt with limitedly, insufficiently, simplistically, and with a bad reputation (DeMonte, 2013), it is still the core of

Research Article

education as many teacher-related characteristics like teachers' effectiveness, autonomy, agency, and so forth are contingent upon their proper professional development. Likewise, as the values, knowledge, notions, and assumptions of teachers' professional development are different across contexts, more should be known about the elements and various dimensions of professional development. Despite its potential role in enhancing both pre-service and in-service teachers' quality, professional development in education has a bad reputation. Stakeholders contend that what the majority of teachers take as professional chances to learn are "thin, sporadic, and of little use with regard to developing teaching" (DeMonte, 2013, p. 1). Up against this claim, many researchers believe that if rich and inclusive professional development programs that cover different aspects of education are offered to teachers, the results (students' achievement) will be astonishing and eye-catching (e.g., Abell & Lee, 2008; Avalos, 2011; Harris & Sass, 2007; Vogt & Rogalla, 2009). Hence, professional development is by nature valuable and helpful for different stakeholders, provided that its pre-requirements are met.

Admitting its crucial role, numerous research studies in different parts of the world have been conducted in this area, the results of which point to different perceptions and beliefs of various stakeholders regarding professional development and its magnificent impact on diverse academic zones (e.g., Angrist & Lavy, 2001; Griffin et al., 2018; Gutierrez-Cobo et al., 2019; Kurtovic et al., 2019; Payne & Wolfson, 2000; Torff & Sessions, 2009, to cite a few). Despite the large number of PD studies being conducted worldwide, there is still a dearth of research in this domain to determine those dimensions and components of TPD that represent the recent changes and developments in the curriculum, norms and standards, and evaluation and assessment. The education context of Iran has not been an exception in this area, too, and over the past couple of decades, many studies have been done in this domain, utilizing diverse research tools to disclose the stakeholders' beliefs about professional development and its multiple effects on education (Ayyoobi et al., 2016; Kashani & Rostampoor, 2013). However, most of such studies have utilized questionnaires developed by the researchers of similar studies without focusing, specifically, on the sources, hindrances, features, representations, and beneficiaries of an effective professional development program, which are all critical aspects of TPD. Moreover, a limited number of studies have scrutinized EFL teachers' professional development in spite of the swift progression in the number of EFL teachers in Iran.

As stated previously, professional development takes various forms and can be achieved through different activities and practices within a discipline. Various theoretical models and conceptual frameworks have been proposed to present the focus and components of TPD, like the one suggested by Desimone and Garet (2015) considering the content, active learning, coherence, sustained duration, and collective participation as various dimensions of TPD or the one introduced by Buysse et al. (2009) with the three elements of the who, what, and how of PD. However, other researchers, who have used the models, have not found them comprehensive in terms of the theoretical foundation, underlying mechanisms, needs, and situational and contextual variations (McElearney et al., 2018; Siraj et al., 2019). What is crucial in this regard is, first, the development of a research-based and validated tool to assess teachers' professional development level with the aim of identifying their strengths and weaknesses and then offering them appropriate activities to be used in training courses to develop professionally. In other words, conducting focused studies in this area can facilitate the ground for the development of a concise and contextualized instrument to gauge the construct of EFL teachers' professional development. Motivated by such a gap in the present study, the researchers made an attempt to develop and validate a questionnaire, which could be used to inspect the perceptions of Iranian EFL teachers with varying experiences with respect to their professional development and its characteristics, forms, barriers, and realizations and enrich the available scales in this domain.

Literature Review

Professional development is concerned with numerous sorts of educational experiences related to one's work (Mizell, 2010). It may take different formats from formal processes (e.g., conferences, seminars, workshops, collaborative learning among members of a work team, and a course at university) to informal ones (e.g., discussions among work colleagues, independent reading and research, observations of a colleague's work, or other learning from a peer) (Arthur, 2016; Mizell, 2010; Petty et al., 2016). Teachers' professional development is of value in that, in any education context, there will be competent students if the teachers who are at the forefront are provided with the required education and training for teaching effectively. This echoes the idea that the accomplishment of any aspiring education reform initiative relies, mostly, on teachers' effectiveness and qualifications (Garet et al., 2001). Put it more tellingly, teachers' professional development, in general, is

concerned with instructors' learning, their ability to organize their learning, and change knowledge into practice to shape students' achievement (Avalos, 2011). It can help teachers not only to improve their knowledge about how to be more effective teachers but also it provides a forum through which they can share their concerns and their experiences (Creese et al., 2013).

As a growing research strand, professional development has witnessed a great surge of interest over the past few decades. Numerous studies have addressed the issue from the perspectives of different stakeholders, including the attitudes of teachers toward professional development, which were found to be dissimilar in different contexts (Silane Ruberto, 2003; Torff & Sessions, 2008, 2009), the characteristics of a successful professional development program (Smylie, 1988), the impacts of professional development on students' achievement (Angrist & Lavy, 2001; Avalos, 2011; Supovitz & Turner, 2000), in-service training, professional learning, and continuing education (Behzadi et al., 2019; Topolinski, 2014). Concerning the purposes which professional development programs wish to achieve, Payne and Wolfson (2000) maintained that the goal of professional development is to provide instructors with the required knowledge and expertise and increase students' attainment. Those involved in professions such as education, in general, and language teaching, in particular, intensively need to professionalize themselves and keep themselves updated considering the latest development happening in their discipline if they are to survive in the field. They should constantly amplify their knowledge and skills to implement the best educational practices. As pinpointed by Ingersoll (2003), referring to the data of the nationally representative Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) and the Teacher Follow-up Survey (TFS), the intricacy of teaching is abundant that nearly one-third of teachers quit their job during three years and 50% in five years. The challenge is by no means limited to novice teachers; experienced teachers also face numerous challenges in their teaching profession.

Like other teacher education cores, teacher's professional development is of different underlying layers and elements, making it the basis of successful education. In this regard, Guskey and Yoon (2009) examined the result of nine well-designed research studies on professional development and argued that it has three common elements, namely workshops, outside experts, and time. They maintained that teachers need time and appropriate practices to engage in a high-quality professional development,

deepen their understanding, and develop innovative approaches to teaching. As stated previously, professional development is a multi-faceted and complicated construct in teacher education with many factors affecting its formation and efficacy (Guskey, 2000; Yurtsever, 2013). It is just like a nested system inside which systems evolve from the other related (sub)systems (Stollar et al., 2006), which are all indicators of the interconnections and complexity of TPD components. In line with such an argument, Ninlawn (2015) ran a study on factors influencing professional development, and in the end, the researcher contended that factors such as innovative skills, communication and media awareness, computer, and Information Technology (IT) have a positive effect on teachers' level of professional development.

Similarly, in their recent study, Evers, Kreijns, and Van der Heijden (2016) argued that among the factors that can have an impact on teachers' professional development, organizational factors like learning climate and social support obtained from colleagues could operate as a positive resource for professional growth. Going further, Richards (2011) explored ten fundamental dimensions of language teaching expertise to plan for the professional development of English language teachers. More specifically, in his influential study, he emphasized the teachers' language proficiency, content knowledge and contextual knowledge, teaching skills, learner–centeredness, constructing a personal system of knowledge, beliefs, and understandings, being an active member of the professional community, and finally pedagogical reasoning skills.

Moreover, in their seminal study, Visser et al. (2010) figured out the crucial components of a professional development program to train teachers to apply curriculum innovation. They argued that teachers must be afforded sufficient chances to advance science content, instructional approaches, and assessment techniques. They also need chances to collaborate with other teachers and team up in a systematized network. They should talk over teaching and learning troubles and challenges, exchange features of good instructional practice, and address how to attain equipment and materials. In the same vein, conducting a meta-analysis on professional development programs, Capps et al. (2012) proposed a list of features of effective professional development programs that aim to promote scientific and inquiry-based teaching. The features encompassed offering prolonged time and support for the program, presenting real-life experiences to teachers, acting in accordance with standards, lesson development,

inquiry modeling, reflection, transference, and content knowledge (Yarema, 2015). In another study in Asia, Badri et al. (2016) conducted a research in Abu Dhabi to explore the teachers' perceptions of teaching and learning with a focus on teacher's professional development. They aimed to identify the perceptions of professional development needs, impacts, and the barriers confronted by teachers in secondary schools. In the results, they found professional development needs, barriers, activities, and forms of development as the factors underlying the teacher's professional development.

All these studies signify the fact that teachers' professional development as a path for invigorating teachers' knowledge and expertise is of crucial significance in the field of language education since language teachers (i.e., EFL teachers) work in a context wherein the means of instruction is the subject of instruction at the same time. The reviewed studies are also invaluable in that they pinpoint some of the constituting components of the construct of professional development in their findings, which helped the researchers during the construction of the questionnaire. Nevertheless, sparse opportunities have been provided for EFL teachers to develop their professional knowledge, and there is a shortage of investigation on EFL teachers' professional development within the educational context of Iran. The primary step in investigating EFL teachers' perceived level of professional development is designing, validating, and developing an exact and contextualized research instrument to assess the construct of concern accurately.

Yet, few studies in Iran have tried to develop a scale in this area, and that the development of such a scale can assist in identifying the ways by which teachers can strengthen and improve their teaching skills. As a case in point, Khany and Azimi (2016) validated a scale to measure teachers' PD. They began with an initial tentative model with 130 items and ran exploratory and confirmatory data analyses on a sample of 400 EFL teachers. In the end, 28 items were removed which left the scale 102 items to measure TPD by three components of knowledge, skill, and TPD programs. Likewise, Ayyoobi et al. (2016) conducted a descriptive-survey study in Iran and examined 400 high school teachers in Birjand to identify the components of teacher's professional development. Taking advantage of EFA and CFA, the researchers came across eight components for the construct of TPD, including thematic knowledge, learning environment, cooperation, educational technology, research base, educational designing, evaluation, and human resource development.

All in all, designing a research tool that can measure EFL teacher's beliefs about the influential factors, hindrances, realizations, features, and sources of professional development has been less examined in Iran. Consequently, the importance considered for knowing the strengths and weaknesses of EFL teachers' professional development and a lack of an inclusive instrument to measure professional development among Iranian novice and experienced EFL teachers urged the researchers to design and validate a new tool and enrich the relevant literature in this domain.

Methodology

Participants

The target participants of this study were 242 Iranian teachers, who were selected from the initial 400 participants, among which the questionnaire was distributed. As for their background, they were both TEFL, those who have formally studied Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), and non-TEFL, those who have studied other majors or have had English related university degrees, teacher participants. Moreover, they were teaching English at different language institutes in Tehran and Mashhad. Regarding their teaching experience, there were 58 novice and 184 experienced EFL teachers who were chosen from different English language institutes in Tehran and Khorasan province. They were all Persian speakers, including both male and female instructors, who had different academic degrees including BA, MA, and PhD. They had different levels of teaching experience, and their age ranged from 18 to 58 with a mean of 32.92. The participants of this study were chosen non–randomly using convenience sampling and based on their readiness to join in the study via online links and face-to-face meetings.

Instruments

The present study pursued two main stages in its process. First, a Teacher Professional Development questionnaire was developed, and then it was validated according to the collected data from 242 novice and experienced Iranian EFL teachers. The newly developed questionnaire included 76 items in a 5-point Likert scale with 1 signifying "strongly disagree" and 5 signifying "strongly agree" (Appendix A). In the following sections, the process of designing and validating the scale is explained comprehensively.

Data Collection Procedure

The first phase of this study began with an in-depth

review of the literature related to professional development to identify the related constructs of professional development. This was done to ensure the existence or absence of any models and instruments in the field of ELT. Concerning item generation, a mixture of both deductive and inductive approaches was utilized. In simple terms, the deductive approach to item generation includes a deep review of the literature, while an inductive approach depends on individual answers like requesting a sample from the target population to explain their emotions or behaviors (Cheng, 2017). Hence, the researchers not only had a thorough review of the literature on professional development but also had some semi-structured interviews with some expert EFL teachers to obtain more information. They were done for content selection and making an item pool for the questionnaire. It is essential to note that, following standard procedures is critical in developing a research instrument. Consequently, in this study, the standard procedures proposed by Dornyei (2003) were followed. Consequently, the comprehensive review of the relevant literature facilitated the ground for the researchers to design the first draft of the questionnaire, which included 80 items that dealt with the initial constructs and concepts related to teachers' professional development.

At the outset, the construct of professional development was defined theoretically as well as operationally. In simple words, the dimensionality of professional development was carefully identified as many constructs are multidimensional in the sense that they are comprised of several other related components. Hence, to assess such constructs, one may need to develop sub-scales to measure their different components. To this end, after defining the focal construct of the study, other sub-components were developed. Afterward, the questionnaire's format and the number of its comprising items were specified. Next, the content validity of the instrument was checked, and the degree of compatibility between the items identified in the literature and those represented in the focus group interviews was regarded as the content validity index of the scale. More specifically, to get the experts' opinion and assess the content validity of the questionnaire, five ELT experts were asked to peruse and evaluate the components and subcomponents of the newly developed questionnaire and give their recommendations for improving them. After checking the experts' views on the item's clarity and appropriateness, four items were deleted, and some were revised in both structure and the wording. Ultimately, 76 items remained for inclusion in the final version of the scale. The calculated content

validity, based on the Universal Agreement type of Scale-Level-Content Validity Index (S-CVI/UA), was found 0.87 revealing the relevance and clarity of the items.

In the second phase, to get some feedback on the structure of each of the items in the scale, check the component and sub-components, and ensure item redundancy, clarity, appropriateness, and readability, a pilot study was carried out on a sample of 50 Iranian EFL teachers with different experiences. Having the data collected in this phase, the researchers checked the reliability index of the questionnaire in order to ensure that the instrument brings about accurate data. The results of Cronbach's Alpha indicated that the newly developed questionnaire enjoyed a high level of reliability and internal consistency (α=.86). Finally, the developed questionnaire was analyzed through factor analysis (using Amos Software v.22) for weighing up the construct validity of the scale.

Data Analysis

The collected data of the current study were analyzed through EFA and CFA in order to determine the construct validity of the items by analyzing the strength of the relationship between the items. Using such analyses, the questionnaire items were categorized by the variables of the study in terms of fitness of the model to be evaluated. Likewise, the accuracy of the measurement of the structures is explored by the pertinent indices. In this stage, through CFA, it is determined whether or not the proposed and developed items can really measure what they purport to measure. It is also determined if the extracted factors are relevant to the other variables. In particular, CFA is run using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) as a complementary to EFA to make sure the extracted pattern has both convergent/divergent validity, and the extracted model enjoys goodness of fit (Kline, 2016).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Before analyzing the data, it was pre-processed for unengaged respondents. Thirty cases (17 constant answers and 2 cases with decreasing pattern in their answers, and 11 cases whose answers had standard deviations below 0.5) were omitted as unengaged responses as they had a decreasing pattern in their responses. Three missing responses were also replaced with the median of the nearby responses. The overall reliability was estimated in this phase, and the initial Cronbach's alpha turned out to be 0.92. The inspection

of item-total statistics to the reliability (Appendix B) showed that the deletion of five items (questions 1, 2, 22, 23, and 24) improves the reliability index. After discarding these items, the estimated reliability index became 0.93.

Exploratory Factor Analysis for the Designed Questionnaire

Construct-related validity refers to the degree to which the result of an instrument can "reflect the theory behind the psychological construct being measured" (Ary et al., 2010, p. 423). In simple words, the purpose is to indicate that the instruments do tap the psychological construct claimed to be measured by these instruments and nothing else. One of the common ways to establish the construct validity of an instrument is through the statistical procedure of factor analysis (exploratory and confirmatory) (Loehlin, 2004; Thompson, 2004). As

the purpose of the study was to do path analysis, the EFA was run using Maximum Likelihood (ML) extraction and Promax rotation to find the existing pattern. The first output table, that is the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measure (Table 1), shows statistics on the sampling adequacy for the analysis of the questionnaire (KMO = .83) which is acceptable according to Field (2005). Bartlett's test of sphericity was also found significant, with a p-value equal to 0.00, indicating large enough correlations between items; therefore, this sample can be considered adequate for running EFA.

The inspection of the initial variances explained showed the existence of 19 factors, explaining 55.40% of the total variance. However, 12 of the identified factors had less than 3 items with loadings above 0.4. Therefore, the EFA was rerun with 7 fixed factors. According to Figure 1 and Table 2, the 7 main factors explain 38.11% of the variance.

Table 1

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.83
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	8466.51
	Df	2850
	Sig.	.00

Figure 1

Scree Plot for the Professional Development Questionnaire
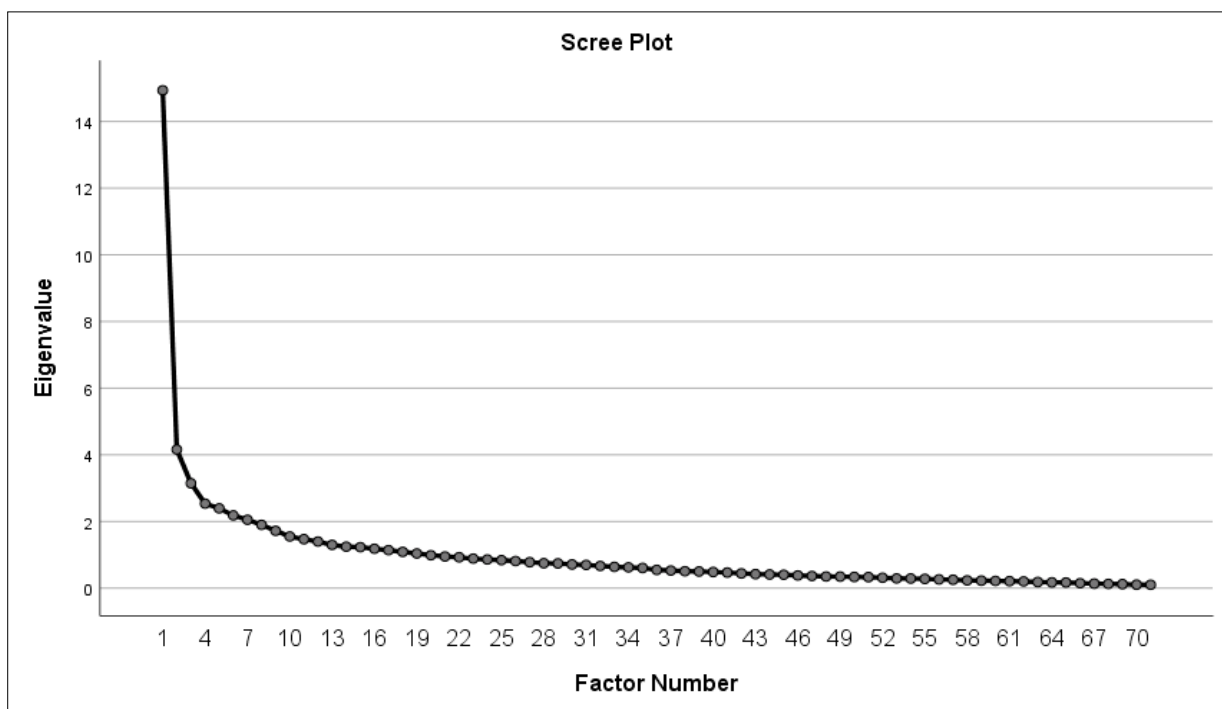
Table 2

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
	Total	*% of Variance*	*Cumulative %*	*Total*	*% of Variance*	*Cumulative %*	*Total*
1	14.93	21.03	21.03	14.29	20.13	20.13	11.29
2	4.15	5.85	26.89	3.46	4.88	25.01	9.40
3	3.14	4.43	31.32	2.41	3.40	28.41	9.76
4	2.53	3.57	34.89	2.06	2.91	31.32	6.84
5	2.39	3.37	38.26	1.82	2.57	33.89	4.30
6	2.18	3.07	41.34	1.59	2.25	36.15	4.60
7	2.05	2.89	44.23	1.46	2.05	38.21	3.01
.							
.							
.							
71	.10	.14	100.00				

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Table 3 presents the pattern of the 7 factor loadings after Promax rotation. 22 questions did not have loadings above 0.4 (suppressed in the table); thus, they were excluded from the questionnaire leaving the final scale with 49 items. The eliminated items have been highlighted in the scale presented in Appendix A.

Table 3

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7		Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Q03								Q30			.42					Q54	.58						
Q04								Q31			.49					Q55	.69						
Q05								Q32			.44					Q56	.65						
Q06						.43		Q33			.57					Q57	.57						
Q07								Q34			.42					Q58	.69						
Q08					.52			Q35								Q59	.64						
Q09					.86			Q36			.43					Q60	.48						
Q10					.76			Q37								Q61	.73						
Q11				.69				Q38								Q62	.64						
Q12				.58				Q39								Q63	.40						
Q13				.61				Q40								Q64							
Q14				.69				Q41			.45					Q65	.43						
Q15								Q42			.65					Q66		.40					
Q16				.42				Q43			.51					Q67							
Q17								Q44								Q68		.43					
Q18						.64		Q45								Q69		.40					
Q19						.56		Q46								Q70							
Q20						.69		Q47								Q71							
Q21						.64		Q48								Q72		.70					
Q25		.54						Q49	.40							Q73		.70					
Q26		.89						Q50								Q74		.85					
Q27		.82						Q51								Q75		.66					
Q28		.66						Q52	.60							Q76		.53					
Q29		.45						Q53	.59														

Note. Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization. a. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

Referring to the content of the questionnaire, it was evident that the obtained pattern kept the large proportion of the original categorization of the questionnaire with only a slight change: a factor (sixth factor) in the original questionnaire was omitted, as the loadings were lower than 0.4. Moreover, three questions from the seventh factor in the developed questionnaire showed loadings to the fifth one. The obtained factors from the analysis were, thus, named as follows: Factor 1: belief about development; Factor 2: means of development, Factor 3: needs of development; Factor 4: beneficiaries of development; Factor 5: motivators of development; Factor 6: methods of development; and Factor 7: obstacles of development.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Designed Questionnaire

In this study, as a supplement to EFA, CFA was utilized to provide evidence for the underlying structure of the designed questionnaire by using Amos software. Based on the CFA, first, the relationship between each item with its sub-factor and then the association between each sub-factor of the suggested model was analyzed. To check the model fit, the goodness of fit indices were used. The initial model based on the pattern matrix obtained above had χ2/df of 1.77, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) of .85, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) of .05, the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual of .06, and PClose of .00. In order to improve the model fit, the modification proposed by the software which had a positive threshold of 10 were taken into account. Figure 2 shows the modified model based on standardized estimates (Appendix B for values of standardized and unstandardized estimates as well as the covariances). Table 4 also shows the model fit measure of the initial model and the cut-off criteria for each index based on Gaskin and Lim (2016).

Figure 2

The modified model
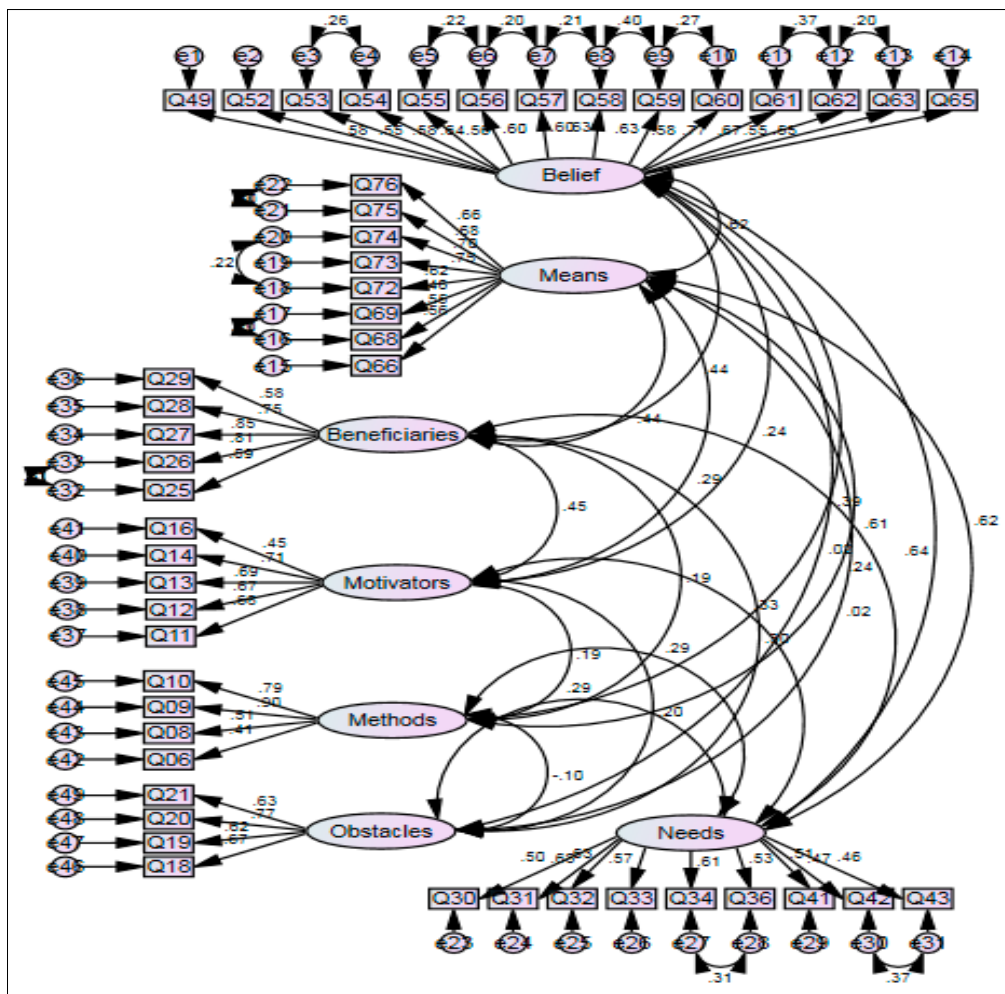
Based on the results reported above, the model can be considered as having excellent goodness of fit measures, according to Gasking and Lim (2016). Finally, the reliability and validity of the developed questionnaire were checked through composite reliability as well as Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion.

According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), Composite Reliability (CR) is a measure of reliability with less bias than Cronbach's alpha and values above 0.7 are acceptable. As reported in Table 5, the reliability indices for all factors in the model were acceptable. Moreover, according to them, the discriminant validity of a model can be examined by comparing the amount of the variance captured by the construct and the shared variance with other constructs. As reported in the table, the square root of average variance explained by each factor (the bold values in the table) was larger than the shared variances (values in their respective rows and columns). Therefore, the validity of the model was also ensured.

Discussion

The present study was a bid to explicate the development and validation of a research instrument for gauging EFL teachers' professional development

with various teaching experience levels. To this aim, a model was created through CFA as a supplement to EFA. The model was utilized to inspect the construct validity of a proposed seven-factor model. As pinpointed previously, the hypothetical model was developed based on an in-depth review of the literature pertinent to teacher professional development and was then scrutinized on a sample of 242 EFL teachers using EFA and CFA. Using CFA, the fitting results of the model and its indicators demonstrated that all the factors were measured by the matching questions of that factor. To be more specific, the seven components proposed by the model were well–substantiated by the gleaned data.

The seven components or factors of the instrument in this study include Beliefs, Means, Needs, Beneficiaries, Motivators, Methods, and Obstacles of teachers' professional development. The results are partially comparable to those of Badri et al. (2016), who explored teachers' perceptions of professional development and its underlying components in Abu Dhabi. The results of their study pointed to professional development needs, barriers, activities, and different forms of development as the underlying factors of teacher professional development. The findings can be attributed to the context of Iran and the background of the participants who might care about their immediate needs, motivators, obstacles,

Table 4

The Goodness of Fit criteria and obtained Indices

Measure	Cut-off Criteria			Obtained Results		
	Terrible	*Acceptable*	*Excellent*	*Initial Model*	*Modified Model*	*Evaluation*
χ2/df	>5	>3	>1	1.77	1.55	Excellent
CFI	<0.90	<0.95	>.095	0.85	0.09	Acceptable
SRMR	>0.1	>0.08	<0.08	0.06	0.06	Excellent
RMSEA	>0.08	<0.08	<0.06	0.05	0.04	Excellent
PClose	<0.01	<0.05	>0.05	0.00	0.78	Excellent

Table 5

Reliability and Validity of the Model

	Composite Reliability	*Fornell & Larcker Criterion*						
		Belief	*Means*	*Needs*	*Beneficiaries*	*Motivators*	*Methods*	*Obstacles*
Beliefs	0.89	**0.60**						
Means	0.83	0.62	**0.63**					
Needs	0.79	0.64	0.61	**0.65**				
Beneficiaries	0.84	0.43	0.43	0.60	**0.72**			
Motivators	0.77	0.24	0.28	0.32	0.45	**0.64**		
Methods	0.76	0.38	0.23	0.29	0.19	0.19	**0.68**	
Obstacles	0.77	0.01	0.02	0.29	0.29	0.19	-0.10	**0.67**

and methods to gain the desired level of professional development. In the present study, the two components of beneficiaries and motivators vary from those of Badri et al. (2016) which signifies the importance of factors that encourage teachers to partake in professional development courses and the stakeholders who can benefit from such courses. This means that EFL teachers in the context of Iran are concerned about the values and prompters of professional development programs, and that the beneficiaries of the programs play a part in the degree of participation in such courses.

The results are also relatively consistent with those of Ayyoobi et al. (2016), who conducted a descriptive-survey study in Iran and examined 400 high school teachers to identify the components of teacher's professional development. Applying EFA and CFA, they found eight components for the construct of teacher professional development, including thematic knowledge, learning environment, cooperation, educational technology, research base, educational designing, evaluation, and human resource development. Most of these factors resemble the "needs", "beliefs", and "methods" of promoting teachers' professionalism. This is again attributed to the context of Iran in which the teachers highlight needs analysis in all areas of education and the methods to fulfill such teachers' needs.

Quite differently, Khany and Azimi (2016) ran a study on validating a scale to measure teachers' professional development with an initial tentative scale of 130 items being distributed among a sample of 400 EFL teachers. The analyses led to the removal of 28 items in their sample, resulting in a final 102 teacher professional development inventory. Their proposed teacher's professional development scale comprised three components of knowledge, skill, and teacher's professional development programs, and all the items were categorized under such headings. What is fresh about the results of the current study is that the proposed scale goes beyond the three components of Khany and Azimi's (2016) inventory as teacher's professional development is a broad pedagogical domain which includes many sub-components that need to be examined. In examining the various components and dimensions of PD in relation to the teachers' perceptions and views, it is also crucial to consider Koellner and Jacobs' (2015) continuum with the specificity of PD activities at one end and adaptability at the other end. However, it is still unclear which dimensions or components of TPD are more or less adaptable.

As for the items in each of the extracted factors in the current research, the first component of teacher's professional development in this study included 14 items, each presenting a different view on what the definition of teacher's professional development is. The second component included 8 items concerning the means of development. The logic behind including various forms of instilling professional development in EFL teachers in the present scale is that the current teacher's professional development programs offered in many language education institutes, academies, or societies like Teaching English Language and Literature Society of Iran (TELLSI) are more concerned with theoretical issues rather than practical issues of what basically creates a professionally developed teacher in an EFL context. Put it more tellingly, such programs generally go for transferring theoretical rather than practical points. Nevertheless, EFL teachers need more practical ways or shortcuts to become familiar with different methods of teaching. Likewise, 9 items were related to the third component, which was on the needs for development. This component covered different areas in which the teachers might find themselves in need of development. This component and its items are consistent with Shabani et al.'s (2019) study in which the teachers expressed their needs for having in-service courses on management and communication skills, educational technology, assessment, and curriculum development. The fourth component, represented through 5 items, dealt with the implications of teacher's professional development for different parties or beneficiaries. The sixth component of the present scale was comprised of 4 items on teacher's professional development methods. Finally, the seventh component included 4 items dealing with different barriers or obstacles of teacher's professional development.

All in all, the present study calls for the need to develop EFL teachers professionally and design proper measures of professional development in light of EFL teachers' instant needs in non-native settings. Programs that cover the underpinning factors of professional development can develop our theoretical and practical understanding by presenting an evaluation of multi-competences involved in teacher professional development. By asking teachers' personal opinions about their desired professional development programs, the administrators can design courses, which are necessary for most EFL teachers. This scale sparks a light in Iranian EFL teachers and spurs them to grapple, constantly, with developing their professional level and have continuous progress in their career.

Conclusion

The current study aimed to give a vivid understanding of the various components of TPD by validating a scale in Iranian EFL context. The research results have suggested that there are 7 discrete components, encompassing the Beliefs, Means, Needs, Beneficiaries, Motivators, Methods, and Obstacles of teachers' professional development. In tune with the findings of the present study, which was prompted by an absence of a comprehensive scale for gauging EFL teachers' perception of professional development, it can be concluded that this scale can be used for the analysis of teachers' PD needs, their PD perceptions, and self-appraisal. Likewise, language and teacher training centers can take advantage of this validated research instrument to measure teachers' PD and get a clear image of their teachers' PD status. They need to assess the teachers' knowledge, skills, needs, competencies, and beliefs about PD programs to tailor such programs to the practical and immediate needs of the teachers. The components proposed in the developed scale are significant for the teachers, and they are expected to possess and translate them into their own daily teaching and learning practices in the classroom. Consequently, the results of the present study can be useful for EFL contexts both theoretically and practically. Theoretically, it can raise the stakeholders' knowledge of what constitutes a professional EFL teacher. Practically, the findings can improve and enrich the PD courses, which are mostly concerned with teaching language skills. As a case in point, researchers in the field of ELT can utilize this newly designed and validated questionnaire for EFL teachers' professional development to pinpoint the factors that lead to their professional growth. In the same manner, the questionnaire is of significance for language policymakers and materials developers in that they can consider its extracted factors, the concept, influential factors, preventive factors, beneficiaries, gaps, practices, perceptions, and techniques required to develop teachers' professional development, when they are developing ELT materials, syllabi, and curricula. Policymakers of education can also make macro-level plans and decisions in which all EFL teachers are expected to go through PD courses depending on their experience and needs. Finally, this study is beneficial for teacher education programs by demanding a shift in their conceptualizations of teacher training. Such programs can improve by incorporating effective issues related to teachers' professional development, which were presented in this study.

To bring the study to an end, it is worth noting that owing to the particularities and idiosyncrasies of every context, the application of the proposed questionnaire in the current study in other settings may need more contemplation, operationalization, and replication studies. However, the developed and validated instrument in this study can be a suitable tool for supervisors, coordinators, teacher educators, and researchers, determining the teachers' level of professional development in a similar EFL context.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Abell, S. K., & Lee, M. H. (2008). Making the most of professional development. *Science and Children, 45*(8), 62-69.

Angrist, J.D., & Lavy, V. (2001). Does teacher training affect pupil learning? Evidence from matched comparisons in Jerusalem public schools. *Journal of Labor Economics, 19*(2), 343-369. https://doi.org/10.1086/319564

Arthur, L. (2016). Communities of practice in higher education: Professional learning in an academic career. *International Journal for Academic Development*, *21*(3), 230-241.
https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144x.2015.1127813

Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., Razavieh, A., & Sorensen, C. K. (2010). *Introduction to research in education*. Hult Rinchart & Wiston.

Avalos, B. (2011). Teacher professional development in teaching and teacher education over ten years. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 27*(1), 10-20. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.08.007

Ayyoobi, F., Pourshafei, H., & Asgari, A. (2016). Codification and validation of professional development questionnaire of teachers. *International Education Studies, 9*(4), 215-224. https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v9n4p215

Badri, M., Alnuaimi, A., Mohaidat, J., Yang, G., & Al Rashedi, A. (2016). Perception of teachers' professional development needs, impacts, and barriers: The Abu Dhabi case. *SAGE Open, 6*(3), 2-9. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244016662901

Behzadi. A., Golshan. M., & Sayadian. S. (2019). Validating a continuing professional development scale among Iranian EFL teachers. *Journal of Modern Research in English Language Studies, 6*(3), 105-129.

Borko, H., & Putnam, R. (1995). Expanding a teachers' knowledge base: A cognitive psychological perspective on professional development. In T. Guskey & M. Huberman (Eds.), *Professional*

development in education: New paradigms and practice (pp. 35–66). Teachers College Press.

Buysse, V., Winton, P. J., & Rous, B. (2009). Reaching consensus on a definition of professional development for the early childhood field. *Topics in Early Childhood Special Education*, *28*(4), 235-243. https://doi.org/10.1177/0271121408328173

Capps, D. K., Crawford, B. A., Constas, M. A. (2012). A review of empirical literature on inquiry professional development: Alignment with best practices and a critique of the findings. *Journal of Science Teacher Education, 23*(3), 291-318. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10972–012–9275–2

Cheng, Y. S. (2017). Development and preliminary validation of four brief measures of L2 language–skill–specific anxiety. *System, 68*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.06.009

Creese, A., Norwich, B., & Daniels, H. (2013). *Teacher support teams in primary and secondary schools.* Rutledge.

DeMonte, J. (2013). *High–quality professional development for teachers: Supporting teacher training to improve student learning.* Center for American Progress.

Desimone, L. M., & Garet, M. S. (2015). Best practices in teacher's professional development in the United States. *Psychology, Society, and Education, 7*(3), 252-263. https://doi.org/10.25115/psye.v7i3.515

Dewey, J. (1902). *The child and the curriculum* (vol. 5). University of Chicago Press.

Dornyei, Z. (2003). *Questionnaires in second language research: Construction, administration, and processing.* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Doyle, W. (1990). *Themes in teacher education research: Handbook of research on teacher education.* Macmillan Publishing Company.

Evans, L. (2011). The shape of teacher professionalism in England: professional standards, performance management, professional development and the changes proposed in the 2010 White Paper. *British Educational Research Journal, 37*(5), 851-870. https://doi.org/10.1080/01411926.2011.607231

Evers, A. T., Kreijns, K., & Van Der Heijden, B. I. J. M. (2016). The design and validation of an instrument to measure teachers' professional development at work. *Studies in Continuing Education, 38(2),* 162-178. https://doi.org/10.1080/0158037x.2015.1055465

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS.* Sage Publications.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research, 18*(1), 39-50. http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3151312

Gaskin, J., & Lim, J. (2016). *Model fit measures*. AMOS Plugin. Gaskination's StatWiki.

Garet, M. S., Porter, A. C., Desimone, L., Binnan, B.

F., & Yoon, K. S. (2001). What makes professional development effective? Results from a national sample of teachers. *American Educational Research Journal, 38*(4), 915-945.https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312038004915

Griffin, C., Dana, N., Pape, S., Algina, J., Bae, J., Prosser, S., & League, M. (2018). Exploring teacher professional development for creating inclusive elementary mathematics classrooms. *Teacher Education and Special Education, 41*(2), 121-139. https://doi.org/10.1177/0888406417740702

Guskey, T. R. (2000). *Evaluating professional development*. Corwin Press.

Guskey, T. R. (2002). Professional development and teacher change. *Teachers and Teaching, 8*(3), 381-391. https://doi.org/10.1080/135406002100000512

Guskey, T. R., & Yoon, K. S. (2009). What works in professional development? *Phi Delta Kappan, 90*(7), 495-500. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F003172170909000709

Gutierrez-Cobo, M. J., Cabello, R., Rodriguez-Corrales, J., Megias-Robles, A., Gomez-Leal, R., & Fernandez-Berrocal, P. (2019). A comparison of the ability emotional intelligence of head teachers with school teachers in other positions. *Frontiers in Psychology,* 10, 1-8. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.00841

Harris, D. N., & Sass, T. R. (2007). *Teacher training, teacher quality, and student achievement.* [Unpublished manuscrip]. Grant R305M04121 from US Department of Education.

Ingersoll, R. (2003). *Is there really a teacher shortage?* Consortium for Policy Research in Education, University of Pennsylvania. http://depts.washington.edu/ctpmail/PDFs/Shortage–RI–09–2003.pdf

Kashani, M., & Rostampur, M. (2013). Education the most vital tool in sustainable development. *Social Sciences*, *67*, 81-89. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ies.v9n4p215

Khany, R., & Azimi, F. A. (2016). Validating an English language teacher professional development scale in Iranian EFL context. *Issues in Language Teaching 5*(1), 107-134.

Kilne, R. B. (2016). *Principles and practices of structural equation modeling* (4th ed.). The Guilford Press.

Koellner, K., & Jacobs, J. (2015). Distinguishing models of professional development: The case of an adaptive model's impact on teachers' knowledge, instruction, and student achievement. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *66*(1), 51-67. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487114549599

Kurtovic, A., Vrdoljak, G., & Idzanovic, A. (2019). Predicting procrastination: The role of academic achievement, self-efficacy and perfectionism. *International Journal of Educational Psychology, 8*(1), 1-26. https://doi.org/10.17583/ijep.2019.2993

Loehlin, J. C. (2004). *Latent variable models: An*

introduction to factor path and structural equation analysis. Lawrence Erlbaum.

McElearney, A., Murphy, C., & Radclie, D. (2018). Identifying teacher needs and preferences in accessing professional learning and support. *Professional Development in Education, 45*(3), 433-455. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2018.1557241

Mizell, H. (2010). *Why professional development matters.* Learning Forward.

Ninlawn, G. (2015). Factors which affect teachers' professional development in teaching innovation and educational technology in the 21st century under the Bureau of Special Education, Office of the Basic Education Commission. *Social and Behavioral Sciences, 197*, 1732-1735. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.07.228

Omar, C. M. Z. C. (2014). The need for in–service training for teachers and its effectiveness in school. *International Journal of Innovation Education and Research, 2*(11), 1-9. https://doi.org/10.31686/ijier.vol2.iss11.261

Payne, D., & Wolfson, T. (2000). Teacher professional development: The principal's critical role. *NASSO Bulletin, 84*(13), 13–21. https://doi.org/10.1177/019263650008461803

Petty, T., Good, A., & Putman, S. M. (2016) (Eds.). *Handbook of research on professional development for quality teaching and learning.* IGI Global.

Richards, J. C. (2011). *Competence and performance in language teaching.* Cambridge University Press.

Rodriguez, J. A., Condom-Bosch, J. L., Ruiz, L., & Oliver, E. (2020). On the shoulders of giants: Benefits of participating in a dialogic professional development program for in-service teachers. *Frontiers in Psychology, 11*(5), 1-10. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.00005

Schlager, M. S., & Fusco, J. (2003). Teacher professional development, technology, and communities of practice: Are we putting the cart before the horse? *The Information Society, 19*(3), 203-220. https://doi.org/10.1080/01972240309464

Shabani, M. B., Alibakhshi, G., & Bahremand, A. (2019). In-service professional development scale for EFL teachers: A validation study. *International Journal of Humanities, 25*(3), 63-78.

Silane Ruberto, J. (2003). *A study of the attitudes of veteran teachers toward professional development.* http://scholarship.shu.edu/dissertations/145

Siraj, I., Kingston, D., & Neilsen-Hewett, C. (2019). The role of professional development in improving quality and supporting child outcomes in early education and care. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Research in Early Childhood Education, 13*(2), 49-68. https://doi.org/10.17206/apjrece.2019.13.2.49

Smylie, M. A. (1988). The enhancement function of staff development: Organizational and psychological antecedents to individual teacher change. *American Educational Research Journal, 25*(1), 1-30. https://doi.org/10. 3102/00028312025001001

Stollar, S. A., Poth, R. L., Curtis, M. J., & Cohen, R. M. (2006). Collaborative strategic planning as illustration of the principles of systems change. *School Psychology Review, 35*, 181-197.

Supovitz, J. A., & Turner, H. M. (2000). The effects of professional development on science teaching practices and classroom culture. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 37*(9), 963-980. https://doi.org/10.1002/1098–2736(200011)37:9%3C963::aid–tea6%3E3.0.co;2–0

Thompson, B. (2004). *Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis: Understanding concepts and applications.* American Psychological Association.

Topolinski, C. C. (2014). *The influence of teacher leadership and professional learning on teachers' knowledge and change of instructional practices in low performing schools* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Western Michigan University. http://scholarworks.wmich.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1266&context= dissertations

Torff, B., & Sessions, D. (2008). Factors associated with teachers' attitudes about professional development. *Teacher Education Quarterly, 35*(2), 123-133. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11519-009-0040-1

Torff, B., & Sessions, D. (2009). Teachers' attitudes about professional development in high–SES and low–SES communities. *Learning Inquiry, 3*(2), 67-77. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11519–009–0040–1

Visser, T. C., Coenders, F. G., Terlouw, C., & Pieters, J. M. (2010). Essential characteristics for a professional development program for promoting the implementation of a multidisciplinary science module. *Journal of Science Teacher Education, 21*(6), 623-642. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10972–010–9212–1

Vogt, F., & Rogalla, M. (2009). Developing adaptive teaching competency through coaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(8), 1051-1060. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2009.04.002

Yarema, S. L. (2015). *The impact of a professional development program on teachers' practice and how context variables influenced such practice: A case study* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Wayne State University.

Yurtsever, G. (2013). English language instructors' beliefs on professional development models and preferences to improve their teaching skills. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 70*, 666-674. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.01.107

Appendix A

Teacher's Professional Development Questionnaire

Please answer each item by ticking the box corresponding to the option that best describes you.

1: Strongly Disagree 2: Disagree 3: Undecided 4: Agree 5: Strongly agree

Items	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Undecided	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree
Professional development refers to 1. Training programs organized by the Ministry of Education 2. Training programs organized by schools. 3. Reading scholarly journal articles about language teaching. 4. Observing classes of other teachers. 5. Being observed by other teachers or supervisors 6. Searching for new teaching ideas and techniques in books or online through internet resources. 7. Attending workshops and conferences organized by other teachers. 8. Reflective teaching. 9. Teacher research engagement. 10. Teacher action research.					
Features which encourage you to pursue professional development 11. Career advancement. 12. Students' progress. 13. Getting a raise. 14. Self-fulfilment and job satisfaction. 15. A desire to learn new things about language teaching. 16. Social prestige or organizational acknowledgment.					
Factors which hinder you from pursuing professional development 17. Lack of time and a busy schedule 18. Lack of resources 19. Expenses of professional development activities 20. Unavailability of professional development programs. 21. The location the professional development programs are taking place in. 22. Not feeling the need, feeling these programs cannot help or you already know what you need to know 23. Not being required or mandated by the system 24. Not being motivated or encouraged enough to do so					
Those who would benefit most from teacher professional development 25. The teacher 26. The students 27. The school or institution 28. The community 29. Administrators and those who set up these programs					
Areas of teaching which need more training and development in 30. Subject matter or content knowledge 31. Teaching methods 32. Materials development 33. Classroom management 34. Assessment and evaluation 35. Technology 36. Psychology of teaching and professional behaviour					

Items	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Undecided	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree
The selection of professional development activities or programs should be done by 37. You select them yourself 38. The school administrator 39. The supervisor 40. Language policy makers					
Beliefs about Professional Development 41. Teachers should plan for their future professional development. 42. The opportunities and experiences we have had for professional development in the past would help us in our teaching. 43. Our school needs to support and encourage teachers' professional development and training. 44. Our school or institution needs to organize continuous training and professional development courses for us. 45. Teachers need to take the initiative to develop professionally. 46. Teachers' annual appraisals need to take professional development into consideration. 47. Teachers need to have more training and professional development opportunities. 48. What we learn in training and professional development programs can be applied in our classrooms. 49. Training and professional development programs are great investments in time, money, and teaching efforts. 50. Professional development and in-service training programs are useful for both novice and experienced teachers, 51. Training on how to use technology is effective professional development. 52. Training on social media tools (i.e. Facebook, Twitter, Blogging, Glogster, Skype, etc.) is effective professional development. 53. Professional development on addressing teacher beliefs and attitudes about instruction and pedagogy is effective professional development. 54. Training on effective Instructional Strategies for use in the 21st Century classroom is effective professional development. 55. Training on Problem-Based Learning strategies is effective professional development. 56. Professional development on Project-Based Learning strategies is effective professional development. 57. Professional development activities provide ideas and strategies that are helpful with classroom management. 58. Professional development provided adequately addresses the need for strong teacher-student relationships. 59. Ongoing professional development activities improve school climate and discipline. 60. Professional development activities should be relevant to the teachers' needs to improve school climate and discipline. 61. Professional development activities should provide adequate practice of the strategies and ideas introduced. 62. Teachers should be provided with adequate follow-up to the professional development activities. 63. Teachers should be given the opportunity to provide feedback on the professional development activities. 64. University courses should provide teachers adequate training to promote professional development. 65. Training for using Inquiry-Based Instruction strategies in the classroom is effective professional development.					

Items	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Undecided	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree
Professional Development happens through 66. Learning new material/strategies in collaborative teams 67. Learning new material/strategies individually 68. Using online resources (training manuals, videos, professional development websites, etc.) to learn new material/strategies 69. Learning new material from an individual, face to face interaction 70. Short, one-time workshops 71. Ongoing learning on a topic 72. Learning from other teachers 73. Learning from an expert in the field 74. Observing other classrooms 75. Attending training courses 76. Learning from a professional development program					

Appendix B

Item Total Statistics and Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Weights and Covariances

	Item total statistics to the initial reliability		Latent variable	Standardized Estimates	Unstandardized Estimates		
	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		Estimate	Estimate	C.R	Sig.
Q01	.172	.93					
Q02	.137	.93					
Q03	.289	.92					
Q04	.228	.92					
Q05	.253	.92					
Q06	.312	.92	Methods	.41	1.00		
Q07	.282	.92					
Q08	.294	.92	Methods	.51	1.21	5.19	.000
Q09	.317	.92	Methods	.90	2.28	6.10	.000
Q10	.312	.92	Methods	.79	1.95	6.11	.000
Q11	.268	.92	Motivators	.67	1.00		
Q12	.348	.92	Motivators	.66	1.02	8.38	.000
Q13	.294	.92	Motivators	.68	1.12	8.52	.000
Q14	.433	.92	Motivators	.71	.96	8.73	.000
Q15	.349	.92					
Q16	.267	.92	Motivators	.45	.73	5.98	.000
Q17	.271	.92					
Q18	.170	.92	Obstacles	.67	1.00		
Q19	.189	.92	Obstacles	.61	.80	7.75	.000
Q20	.177	.92	Obstacles	.77	1.13	8.80	.000
Q21	.223	.92	Obstacles	.63	.90	7.87	.000
Q22	.032	.93					
Q23	.140	.93					
Q24	-.006	.93					
Q25	.492	.92	Beneficiaries	.59	1.00		
Q26	.491	.92	Beneficiaries	.80	1.12	10.68	.000
Q27	.517	.92	Beneficiaries	.85	1.22	9.22	.000
Q28	.540	.92	Beneficiaries	.75	1.17	8.68	.000
Q29	.431	.92	Beneficiaries	.58	1.03	7.29	.000
Q30	.398	.92	Needs	.50	1.00		
Q31	.517	.92	Needs	.68	1.25	6.84	.000
Q32	.480	.92	Needs	.63	1.17	6.57	.000
Q33	.408	.92	Needs	.56	1.26	6.21	.000
Q34	.518	.92	Needs	.60	1.19	6.42	.000
Q35	.450	.92					
Q36	.425	.92	Needs	.53	.93	5.93	.000
Q37	.281	.92					
Q38	.198	.92					
Q39	.183	.92					
Q40	.287	.92					

	Item total statistics to the initial reliability		Latent variable	Standardized Estimates	Unstandardized Estimates		
	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted		Estimate	Estimate	C.R	Sig.
Q41	.474	.92	Needs	.51	.96	5.82	.000
Q42	.438	.92	Needs	.47	.86	5.50	.000
Q43	.483	.92	Needs	.46	.77	5.44	.000
Q44	.537	.92					
Q45	.533	.92					
Q46	.572	.92					
Q47	.524	.92					
Q48	.471	.92					
Q49	.497	.92	Belief	.58	1.00		
Q50	.468	.92					
Q51	.462	.92					
Q52	.469	.92	Belief	.54	.93	7.02	.000
Q53	.455	.92	Belief	.58	.95	7.35	.000
Q54	.524	.92	Belief	.64	1.01	7.85	.000
Q55	.385	.92	Belief	.56	.88	7.17	.000
Q56	.440	.92	Belief	.60	.93	7.49	.000
Q57	.476	.92	Belief	.60	.91	7.51	.000
Q58	.522	.92	Belief	.63	1.10	7.78	.000
Q59	.477	.92	Belief	.63	1.08	7.76	.000
Q60	.464	.92	Belief	.57	.92	7.28	.000
Q61	.613	.92	Belief	.76	1.14	8.86	.000
Q62	.553	.92	Belief	.66	.99	8.06	.000
Q63	.519	.92	Belief	.54	.76	7.02	.000
Q64	.430	.92					
Q65	.468	.92	Belief	.54	.85	7.00	.000
Q66	.463	.92	Means	.56	1.00		
Q67	.327	.92					
Q68	.510	.92	Means	.54	.88	6.64	.000
Q69	.427	.92	Means	.48	.91	6.05	.000
Q70	.292	.92					
Q71	.339	.92					
Q72	.429	.92	Means	.62	1.05	7.25	.000
Q73	.511	.92	Means	.74	1.18	8.15	.000
Q74	.451	.92	Means	.70	1.10	7.83	.000
Q75	.525	.92	Means	.67	1.05	7.67	.000
Q76	.546	.92	Means	.65	1.10	7.50	.000

Covariances

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Belief	<-->	Means	.16	.03	5.17	.000
Belief	<-->	Needs	.15	.03	4.92	.000
Belief	<-->	Beneficiaries	.13	.03	4.46	.000
Belief	<-->	Motivators	.07	.02	2.89	.004
Belief	<-->	Methods	.07	.02	3.69	.000
Belief	<-->	Obstacles	.00	.03	.213	.831
Means	<-->	Needs	.13	.02	4.74	.000
Means	<-->	Beneficiaries	.12	.02	4.34	.000
Means	<-->	Motivators	.07	.02	3.21	.001
Means	<-->	Methods	.04	.01	2.67	.007
Means	<-->	Obstacles	.01	.03	.30	.758
Needs	<-->	Beneficiaries	.15	.03	4.82	.000
Needs	<-->	Motivators	.08	.02	3.42	.000
Needs	<-->	Methods	.04	.01	2.98	.003
Needs	<-->	Obstacles	.10	.03	3.12	.002
Beneficiaries	<-->	Motivators	.14	.03	4.59	.000
Beneficiaries	<-->	Methods	.03	.01	2.32	.020
Beneficiaries	<-->	Obstacles	.13	.04	3.39	.000
Motivators	<-->	Methods	.03	.01	2.27	.023
Motivators	<-->	Obstacles	.09	.04	2.31	.021
Methods	<-->	Obstacles	-.03	.02	-1.29	.197
e32	<-->	e33	.11	.03	3.54	.000
e30	<-->	e31	.18	.03	5.03	.000
e27	<-->	e28	.14	.03	4.08	.000
e21	<-->	e22	.10	.02	3.62	.000
e18	<-->	e20	.07	.02	2.70	.007
e16	<-->	e17	.10	.03	2.87	.004
e12	<-->	e13	.07	.02	3.06	.002
e11	<-->	e12	.11	.02	4.57	.000
e9	<-->	e10	.14	.03	4.04	.000
e8	<-->	e9	.21	.03	5.58	.000
e7	<-->	e8	.10	.03	3.39	.000
e6	<-->	e7	.09	.03	3.05	.002
e5	<-->	e6	.10	.03	3.18	.001
e3	<-->	e4	.12	.03	3.50	.000

Dual Training in Language Didactics of Foreign Language/CLIL Pre-Service Primary Education Teachers in Spain

Jose Luis Estrada-Chichon⬡, Francisco Zayas-Martinez⬡

University of Cadiz

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Jose Luis Estrada-Chichon, University of Cadiz, P.º de Carlos III, 28, 11003 Cádiz, Spain. E-mail: joseluis.estrada@uca.es

Background: Classroom-based research in second language acquisition (SLA) has focused in the last decade on the pedagogical implications concerning the mental representation of language but has not considered the didactic training of pre-service teachers. Empirical analyses have been concerned almost exclusively with the linguistic development of foreign language learners, who do not receive specific training to become language teachers.

Purpose: Due to the lack of literature regarding simultaneous linguistic and didactic training with pre-service foreign language teachers, this exploratory classroom-based research analyses a case of linguistic and didactic dual training for pre-service primary education teachers of German in Spain, both when being trained to work as foreign language teachers, or as CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) teachers. The objective is to assess the effectiveness of the dual training by measuring the degree of the pre-service teachers' (N=4) willingness to communicate (WTC) before and after each practice session (N=14). This is a mixed-methods research where data were collected through (i) a questionnaire answered by the pre-service teachers and (ii) the lecturer's linguistic and didactic excursuses.

Results: The results show a high degree of WTC among the pre-service teachers, mainly as result of the Instructed Foreign Language Acquisition (IFLA)-based teaching practice model implemented, including linguistic training in German and didactic training (e.g., excursuses) in Spanish (L1). Factors like grouping increase the pre-service teachers' WTC, while factors like talking to someone they know little about decrease it. However, personal traits need to be considered when it comes to WTC, even with individuals who share similar language proficiency.

Implication: The innovation of this teacher training methodology lies in the coordinated combination of linguistic (i.e., IFLA-based teaching model) and didactic training. IFLA-based teaching practices are evaluated positively by the pre-service teachers in terms of linguistic and didactic training and WTC. Final recommendations are suggested about teaching methodology.

Keywords: language acquisition, methodology, pre-service teacher, primary education, willingness to communicate (WTC)

Introduction

Bilingual education started to develop in Europe in the second half of the 20th century as an alternative or complementary formula for foreign language teaching-learning (Feddermann et al., 2021). The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2001) focused on the need to use languages as the most reliable strategy to ensure language acquisition. Since then, several European national education authorities have been carrying out reforms aimed at setting up bilingual education (Eurydice, 2006), considering different socioeconomic, sociocultural, linguistic, and educational objectives (Van Kampen et al., 2018) for each country.

In this sense, the Spanish education authorities must take on the linguistic and didactic training of in-service teachers (Lorenzo, 2019), even though in the last 15 years these exclusively focus on language updating training courses (Custodio & García Ramos, 2020) without considering any didactic updating. On the other hand, pre-service teachers are trained at universities where bilingual syllabi do not take into consideration foreign language training but only didactic training instead. As it was revealed by prior research as for the Andalusian context (Contero et al., 2018), for pre-service teachers to achieve fully effective teaching skills, language-in-practice training should be embedded in didactic training courses (Zayas & Estrada, 2020).

Research Article

69

Bilingual education has developed in Spain in general and in Andalusia in particular over the last two decades, mainly as for primary and secondary education. That is the reason why it is perceived as the most innovative change in the education system since democracy (Huguet et al., 2008). The local education authorities started the bilingual education implementation by means of specific programmes to promote multilingualism and multiculturalism in schools (Dobson et al., 2010). These programmes have systematically included foreign language upgrading courses for in-service teachers, together with specific methodological seminars on Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (Lasagabaster & Ruiz de Zarobe, 2010). Results reveal a relatively widespread social acceptance of this new methodological trend, as well as recurrent complaints about the quality of bilingual education (Anghel et al., 2016). This controversial issue imposes that language upgrading may not be enough as a major professional skill for CLIL teaching (Lorenzo, 2019).

Within the last five years, the former bilingual schools have started to become plurilingual schools (Romero & Zayas, 2017). However, educational authorities continue to offer only language courses for in-service teachers while they keep on ignoring this 'conceptual change', that is, schools where at least two foreign languages and the students' mother tongue (L1) are used for educational purposes. These interpret plurilingual projects as mere multilingual scenarios –a third language is added as a subject to the curriculum with hardly any impact on the number of teaching hours: English is the almost hegemonic foreign language offered as a second language in mostly all schools, while French and German compete for the little room left for a third language (Romero & Zayas, 2017).

Context of the Study

Spanish universities have started adapting their didactic syllabi to train pre-service foreign language and/or CLIL teachers for primary education (Romero & Zayas, 2017). Some faculties of educational sciences have already incorporated optional courses related to bilingual teaching and/or CLIL (Romero & Zayas, 2017). Some other universities deal with bilingual education and/or CLIL only in post-graduate courses, which are anyway not required for primary school teachers in Spain.

The University of Cadiz, Andalusia, transformed the curriculum of the bachelor's degree in primary education by including two optional courses for the development of foreign language communicative competence in primary education, and two optional courses on CLIL. Moreover, a compulsory course on

Didactics of Foreign Language in Primary Education has also been adapted to be taught on an experimental basis, that is, pre-service teachers experiencing a CLIL approach as learners, choosing from three foreign languages: English, French, or German. Most learners prefer English, where a CEFR intermediate level of proficiency A2-B1 is expected, while a small group does so in French, with an CEFR intermediate level A2. The few pre-service teachers who opt for German know that no starting language level is required, as German is rarely offered as a foreign language option in pre-university education in Andalusia (Lorenzo, 2019).

Pre-service primary education teachers who enrol in *Didactics of Foreign Language in Primary Education* will be attending a face-to-face initial training in German as a foreign language, together with an online course in foreign language didactics based on their prior face-to-face initial language training experiences. They will be using German and Spanish as L1 in the same course with a two-fold objective: to develop (i) didactic knowledge about foreign language teaching and (ii) foreign language (German) proficiency. This dual objective represents for pre-service teachers a first CLIL experience that might be extended to specific CLIL course afterward (terms 6 and 7 in Years 3 and 4, respectively). This experimental approach is possible by means of a foreign language teaching methodology committed to language acquisition through a supervised but still authentic communicative use of the target language throughout the whole process. This proposal derives from an Instructed Second Language Acquisition (ISLA) research approach (Loewen, 2015). In this specific context, ISLA adopts the name of Instructed Foreign Language Acquisition (IFLA) (Zayas & Estrada, 2020) or *enseñanza adquisitiva* (*acquisitive teaching*) (Haidl, 1990), where the target language is the only vehicular language used for communicative purposes in the classroom, apart from occasional and brief excursuses in Spanish about didactic issues taking place outside the classroom.

Thus, do pre-service teachers develop a linguistic intuition (in Chomskyan terms, the development of an intuitive knowledge of the language structure enables acquirers to distinguish grammatical sentences from ungrammatical ones, and understand and produce an infinite number of new sentences) by means of using German as their only communication tool in the classroom? Do they progressively feel more and more confident to use the target language in the classroom for authentic purposes? Do they consider it is a valuable opportunity to review the validity of their previous foreign language learning experiences under conventional teaching communicative approaches? In order to find answers to these questions, the aim of

this exploratory study is to prove how a singular combination of linguistic and didactic dual training strategies may influence the teaching and learning principles of pre-service teachers by measuring their degree of willingness to communicate (WTC), that is, "a learner's readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons using a L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547) to contribute to overcoming quality deficiencies in bilingual education.

Regarding the teaching strategies that should therefore be taken into consideration for training pre-service teachers of German, the following objectives are considered:

1. To analyse the impact that an IFLA-based teaching practice model has on pre-service teachers concerning their WTC in relation to three elements (grouping, group member familiarity, and interlocutor's foreign language proficiency) before and after each practice session.
2. To draw attention to the teaching achievements regarding linguistic and didactic training and their relation to the pre-service teachers' perceptions about other factors that increase or decrease their WTC.

Two main research questions are posed:

1. Does an IFLA-based teaching practice model influence pre-service teachers' WTC and their dual training in language didactics as a result?
2. What are the pre-service teachers' perceptions about other factors that increase or decrease their WTC?

Method

Background

The rationale of this exploratory study lies in the analysis of the linguistic and didactic dual training of a group of native Spanish university students (N=4) or pre-service primary education teachers of German as a foreign language in Spain. It is worth noting that the way planned by the educational authorities in Andalusia for the continuous implementation of bilingual education[1] currently includes 1535 bilingual educational centers in the territory, where only 1.04%

aim at German. It explains why almost 200 pre-service teachers who take part in *Didactics of Foreign Language in Primary Education*, only 2.54% do so in German, compared to 12% who prefer French and over 85% who choose English (these percentages are proportional to the language preferences of the bilingual schools in Andalusia).

This is a mixed-methods study that addresses the quantitative and qualitative research objectives and questions by means of a systematic sampling technique. The reasons for conducting a mixed-methods research (Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2014) are twofold: first, the lack of literature regarding simultaneous linguistic and didactic training with pre-service foreign language teachers; and second, the fact of 'giving voice' to the pre-service teachers themselves to clarify issues that are difficult to interpret. In quantitative terms, data on pre-service teachers' WTC were collected after all sessions (N=14) using a questionnaire (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015) as for three elements: grouping; group member familiarity; and interlocutor's foreign language competence. Qualitatively, pre-service teachers had the opportunity to identify teaching factors that affected positively or negatively their WTC. As a result, recommendations for initial training of pre-service foreign language teachers are outlined, defining strategies to be followed within the field of linguistics and didactics. All pre-service teachers agreed to take part in the research.

Participants

The research took place in the subject *Didactics of Foreign Language in Primary Education (German)* of the bachelor's degree in primary education at the Faculty of Education Sciences of the University of Cadiz, Andalusia (Spain). The study population corresponds to 80% (n=4) of the whole group of Spanish pre-service teachers attending the course (N=5) – excluding four Erasmus German students who being native speakers of the target language did not act as informants. The group of informants includes one pre-service teacher with 16 years of language experience (pre-service teacher 1), one pre-service teacher with five years of language experience (pre-service teacher 2), and two absolute beginners (pre-service teachers 3 and 4). They are all female and pre-service primary education teachers of German (term 3, Year 2). The course is divided into 14 theory sessions and 14 practice sessions, all of which are fully taught in German. Data were collected during the practice sessions in 2019-20, although it was the pre-service teachers' voluntary contribution whether they answer the questionnaire or not. Therefore, only four out of

---

[1] Junta de Andalucía (2005). Plan de Fomento del Plurilingüismo en Andalucía [Plan for the Promotion of Plurilingualism in Andalusia]. Boletín Oficial de la Junta de Andalucía, 65(2004). 9-39, Seville.

five pre-service teachers' answers were considered for the present study.

Research Tools and Teaching Principles

The research tool used to collect quantitative and qualitative data is a questionnaire on the "dynamic nature of L2 willingness to communicate" (Pawlak & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2015). As Pawlak et al. (2016) explain, many of the research reports and studies on WTC refer to scale reports and behavioural categorisations as instruments to analyse factors affecting WTC such as group size, familiarity with interlocutors, and self-confidence (Cao & Philp, 2006). Therefore, this work is based on a quantitative data analysis supported by the pre-service teachers' perceptions on factors and activities that increase and decrease their WTC. The questionnaire is organised into three sections:

- Section 1, together with three questions on personal information about the pre-service teachers' previous training and knowledge of German, includes two quantitative questions developed from a five-point Likert scale with values between 1 (very unwilling) and 5 (very willing) about the pre-service teachers' WTC before and after each practice session:

  How willing were you to communicate in German in class today?
  How willing are you to communicate in German after today's class?

- Section 2 includes three quantitative options on grouping: pairs, groups, and whole class; group member familiarity: someone I know well, someone I know a little, and the lecturer; and interlocutor's language proficiency: same as mine, higher than mine, and lower than mine. For each option, the informants had to choose either 'increase' or 'decrease' according to their WTC:

  Grouping: pairs/groups/whole class
  Group member familiarity: someone I know well/someone I know a little/ lecturer
  Interlocutor's language proficiency: same/higher/lower than mine

- Section 3 includes three qualitative questions that allowed the pre-service teachers to comment on the factors that increase or decrease their WTC in each practice lesson; the activities that help them increase or decrease their WTC; and, finally, at which specific moments during the practice lesson they felt more or less willing to speak in German:

  What factors increased/decreased your willingness to communicate in German?
  What activities increased/decreased your willingness to communicate in German?
  When did you feel most and less willing to communicate in German today?

As for the factors affecting WTC mentioned by Cao and Philp (2006), potential elements taking place within the broad field of self-confidence were here limited to the degree of foreign language proficiency that informants were explicitly able to assess. Concerning grouping, it has to be considered that the whole number of pre-service teachers (i.e., participants) is nine and not four (i.e., informants), so that group and whole class work do not refer to the same type of grouping.

The process to obtain the data was carried out simultaneously, that is, both types of data were gathered at the same time (the questionnaire was answered immediately by the pre-service teachers once they had attended each practice session between September 25, 2019, and January 17, 2020). Moreover, the research was conducted according to four basic conditions for the treatment of mixed-methods research (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2008):

1. Data types are collected in parallel but separately.
2. The analysis of each data is independent.
3. Result consolidation is displayed once all data is collected and analysed individually.
4. The discussion and conclusion are set up after data collection and analysis.

Considering these four basic conditions, the informants filled-in the online questionnaire provided at the university Moodle platform after each weekly practice session. The quantitative and qualitative data were weekly recorded separately in order to categorise it for a final contrastive analysis at the end of the course. It helped to provide clear information about the informants' perceptions on WTC regarding the three main elements considered.

The main classroom instructions point to the teaching principles of the *acquisitive teaching*. Its language teaching scope lies within an ISLA-based research model (Loewen, 2015) adapted to foreign languages or

IFLA (Zayas & Estrada, 2020). The main goal of ISLA is "the processing and internalization of input; the restructuring, consolidation, and storage of L2 knowledge, and the production of L2 output" (Loewen & Sato, 21017, p. 2). In other words, the starting point for teaching is the initial exposition of pre-service teachers to German language (input) to gradually understand it (intake) until it becomes possible to start producing (output) (Haidl, 1998):

1. Exclusive use of German and absence of Spanish (L1) that is limited to teacher excursuses.
2. Neither presentation nor explanation of the norms and rules of the German grammar.
3. Exclusive use of oral language. Reading and writing will be part of the individual work of each pre-service teacher outside the classroom (written language is delayed until almost a month after having started oral language exploration).
4. Preference for non-interventionist error correction techniques (Estrada, 2020).

Concerning the excursuses, every single topic raised by the teacher during the 14 practice sessions was systematically registered every day, so these could be related to the informants' contributions to the questionnaire. They revolve around foreign language/CLIL methodology issues concerning teaching performance for a deeper convincement and understanding of the pre-service teachers. It is worth mentioning that the excursuses in Spanish took place outside the classroom, moving the whole group of pre-service teachers, together with the lecturer, to the outside corridor. He makes a clear physical distinction between the two places, where in one context (classroom), only the use of the target language is allowed, while in the other context (outside corridor), the use of the pre-service teachers' mother tongue is also permitted.

Results

The results focus on the analysis of the pre-service teachers' perceptions about their linguistic and didactic dual training in German. First, the quantitative data reveal their WTC before and after each practice session according to a questionnaire. Second, the qualitative data gather the pre-service teachers' perceptions about classroom work based on the principles of the *acquisitive teaching*. Furthermore, the teacher's excursuses in Spanish are also displayed. The individual analysis of each data will help to outline some classroom-based teaching strategies about pre-service teacher training.

Linguistic Training and Willingness to Communicate

Concerning the analysis of German linguistic training, the quantitative data about the pre-service teachers' WTC reveal very significant average values before/after each session (questionnaire section 1), that is, pre-service teacher 1 (seven sessions): 5.00/5.00; pre-service teacher 2 (ten sessions): 3.43/3.29; pre-service teacher 3 (nine sessions) 3: 3.57/4.29; and pre-service teacher 4 (five sessions): 3.71/3.86. Only one case (pre-service teacher 2) shows a lower average after-session WTC value (3.29) compared to her before-session WTC, mainly for sessions 4 and 1. Moreover, pre-service teacher 4 shows a lower degree (4.00) after session 3 compared to her WTC at the beginning of the same session (5.00). In any case, all values remain above 3.00, with two exceptions concerning the before-session WTC: pre-service teacher 3 in session 8 (2.00) and pre-service teacher 4 in session 7 (2.00). Figure 1 shows the comparison of all values regarding the pre-service teachers' WTC, considering the different number of sessions attended:

Teaching Expertise and Willingness to Communicate

The quantitative data also reveal which aspects of the lecturer's strategies make the pre-service teachers' WTC increase or decrease according to three different areas of analysis (questionnaire section 2): grouping; group member familiarity; and interlocutor's language proficiency. It should be noted that four native German speakers (Erasmus students) were also involved in the classroom dynamics along with the Spanish pre-service teachers participating in this research. Nevertheless, the four speakers of German share with the Spanish pre-service teachers the same didactic training, but in turn, the linguistic training were replaced by alternative goals linked to the lecturer's talk for absolute beginners. In mostly all oral language exercises, the German students work along with the Spanish pre-service teachers, respecting the basic rules of the *acquisitive teaching*.

In terms of grouping, there are three possibilities: pairs, groups, and whole class, group work being the option that increases the students' WTC the most. An exception is to be found in pre-service teacher 3 (session 5). Regarding group member familiarity, all pre-service teachers believe that interacting with a classmate they know well increases their WTC. On the contrary, pre-service teachers 2 and 3, mainly, and pre-service teacher 1 think that communicating with someone who they know little make their WTC decrease. As far as the lecturer is concerned, only pre-service teacher 3 shows that by interacting directly with him, her WTC decreased, something that also

Figure 1

Pre-service teachers' WTC before/after each session
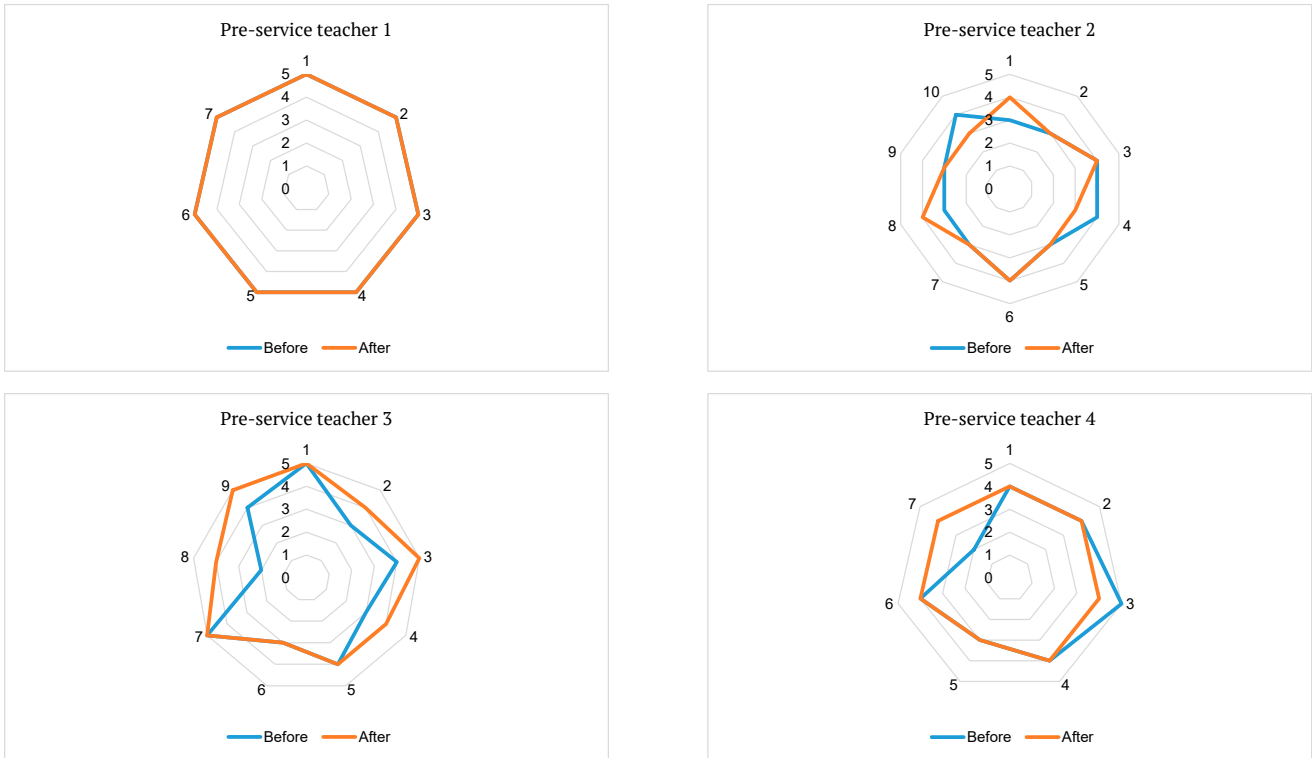
happened to pre-service teacher 4. Finally, regarding the interlocutor's foreign language proficiency, all pre-service teachers reveal that their WTC increases when it is the same as theirs. If it is higher, pre-service teacher 2 points out that her WTC decreases. Something similar happens with pre-service teacher 3, for whom her WTC also decreased. Table 1 shows the results:

Table 1

Students' WTC

	Factor 1: grouping					
Pre-service teacher	*Pair*		*Group*		*Whole class*	
	WTC	*Session*	*WTC*	*Session*	*WTC*	*Session*
1	Increase	all	Increase	all	Increase	all
2	Increase	all	Increase	all	Increase	all
3	Increase	all	Increase	1-4; 6-9	Increase	all
			Decrease	5		
4	Increase	all	Increase	all	Increase	1; 3-7
					Decrease	2

	Factor 2: group member familiarity					
Pre-service teacher	*Well known*		*Little known*		*Lecturer*	
	WTC	*Session*	*WTC*	*Session*	*WTC*	*Session*
1	Increase	all	Increase	all	Increase	all
2	Increase	all	Increase	2-6; 8-10	Increase	all
			Decrease	1; 7-9		

Pre-service teacher						
3	Increase	all	Increase	1	Increase	1; 4-5; 7-8
			Decrease	2-9	Decrease	2-3; 6-9
4	Increase	all	Increase	2-7	Increase	1; 7-7
			Decrease	1	Decrease	2

Factor 3: interlocutor's foreign language proficiency

Pre-service teacher	Same		Higher		Lower	
	WTC	*Session*	*WTC*	*Session*	*WTC*	*Session*
1	Increase	all	Increase	all	Increase	all
2	Increase	all	Increase	3, 7	Increase	1-6; 8-10
			Decrease	1-2; 4-6; 8-10	Decrease	7
3	Increase	all	Increase	9	Increase	2-9
			Decrease	1-8	Decrease	1
4	Increase	all	Increase	all	Increase	all

Factors Influencing Willingness to Communicate

In terms of qualitative data, the pre-service teachers reveal the factors that increase and decrease their WTC. In general, there are more positive than negative factors, which, for pre-service 1 and 2 are directly non-existent. Thus, only pre-service 1 specifies that her level of language proficiency is a key factor that increases her WTC, while the rest of the pre-service teachers focus on issues directly related to grouping. For example, the motivation to learn German, which is common to three of the four pre-service teachers, and the classroom relaxed environment because of the lecturer's attitude, stand out. The classroom activities are also highlighted, which, although they are progressive as for content presentation, are mostly based on the pre-service teachers' recently acquired knowledge of German. Moreover, pre-service teacher 3 values positively the lecturer's excursuses in Spanish about didactics, which also makes her WTC increase.

In contrast, pre-service teachers 3 and 4 focus on the factors that decrease their WTC by pointing out at elements related to the difficulties when pronouncing German and mainly to the lack of knowledge of vocabulary and expressions that affect their communication skills. In this sense, it is worth mentioning that pre-service teachers 3 and 4 are supposed to be the closest to a formal learning (i.e., memory-related learning) style. This learner profile understands languages as a classified 'sum of words', which also implies a corresponding translation in her L1. Table 2 includes all factors that increase or decrease the pre-service teachers' WTC according to them:

Table 2

Factors that increase or decrease pre-service teachers' WTC

Pre-service teacher	*Factors that increase WTC*	*Factors that decrease WTC*
1	Language competence Motivation Relaxed environment Teacher's attitude	
2	Activities Classroom dynamics Motivation Already-acquired language	
3	Motivation Teacher's attitude Excursuses Activities Relaxed environment	Difficulties with pronunciation Lack of communication skills
4	Classroom dynamics Already-acquired language Low number of students Activities	Lack of language competence Lack of vocabulary

Lecturer's Excursuses

Finally, the excursuses can be classified into five thematic blocks which bring together the 21 topics dealt with during the 14 practice sessions as displayed in Table 3: classroom dynamics and activities; native speakers; linguistic issues; curriculum; and Erasmus/ University's Language Project conversation classes. Besides pure linguistic and didactic excursuses ("oral language", "for-real-purposes use of language", "variations in the use of German", etc.), other topics about classroom dynamics and activities are presented ("usual classroom dynamics", "use of the *Arbeitsblätter* [(written worksheets)]", "participation in online forums", etc.) or peripheral but inherent questions to the integral formation of pre-service language teachers ("the importance of Erasmus stays in Germany", the "Erasmus experience", and the "the value of the Language Pan conversation classes"). Table 3 presents all the excursus topics covered up by the lecturer:

The order of the excursuses spoken by the lecturer shows as follows. Session 1: Usual classroom dynamics; Session 2: Native speakers in the classroom; Session 3: Oral language; Session 4: Curriculum; Session 5: The importance of an Erasmus stays in Germany; Session 6: Activity clarifications or instructions; Session 7: Grammar explanations; variations in the use of German; and Pronunciation error treatment; Session 8: The Erasmus experience; Session 9: Use of the *Arbeitsblätter*; Session 10: Participation in online forums; Session 11:

Impressions of the song *Laternelied*; and Possibilities to set up brief spontaneous speeches; Session 12: Activities as part of progressive chains of knowledge; and Basic rules of classroom behaviour; Session 13: Value of the University's Language Plan conversation classes; and Session 14: Levels of cognitive progression; and For-real-purposes use of language.

Discussion

The innovation of this teacher training methodology lies in the coordinated combination of linguistic (i.e., IFLA-based teaching model) and didactic training: pre-service primary education teachers experience an alternative approach of learning German as a foreign language as an invitation for them to adopt this same approach for their potential foreign language teaching roles. As for linguistic training, the lecturer puts into practice an IFLA- based teaching practice model aimed at the pre-service teachers' first-hand experience concerning the use of German for real communicative purposes according to the *acquisitive teaching*. This model focuses almost exclusively on the use of oral language, where written language takes place through the *Arbeitsblätter* that must be completed outside the classroom. Besides, this model also includes work with native German speakers (i.e., four Erasmus students), which guarantees exposure to diverse language uses due to their several origins. Furthermore, the lecturer encourages all pre-service teachers to participate in extra-curricular activities, such as the conversation classes as well as an Erasmus stay in Germany.

Table 3

Lecturer's excursuses

Thematic block	Excursus topic
Classroom dynamics and activities	Usual classroom dynamics Activity clarifications or instructions Use of the *Arbeitsblätte*r Impressions of the *Laternelied* (song) Possibilities to set up brief spontaneous speeches Activities as part of progressive chains of knowledge Basic rules of classroom behaviour Participation in online forums
Native speakers	Native speakers in the classroom Variations in the use of German
Linguistic issues	Oral language The importance of Erasmus stays in Germany Grammar explanations Pronunciation error treatment Levels of cognitive progression For-real-purposes use of language
Curriculum	Primary Education curriculum
Erasmus/ University's Language Project conversation classes	The Erasmus experience Value of the University's Language Plan conversation classes

The didactic training is carried out by two different means. First, the excursuses in Spanish as L1 that takes place outside the classroom. It is a matter of distinguishing the moments aimed at the pre-service teachers' language use, where German is the only accepted language of communication, considering moments where they are asked about topics such as classroom dynamics and activities or linguistic issues, for example. These moments occupy little time within the 1:30 hours that each practice session lasts, although the pre-service teachers create a greater awareness of specific teaching-learning elements presented daily to them that would not have been so perceptible if they had not been delivered this way. Thus, the lecturer sacrifices the exclusive use of German over Spanish, to ensure the pre-service teachers' understanding. Similarly, a second option related to the didactics of German consists of online forums in the University's Moodle platform (it is not an optional but mandatory activity, and the quantity and quality of the university students' contributions carry 30% of the final grade). In here, they reflect weekly on topics related to foreign language teaching. This part of the didactic training is also conducted in Spanish.

Linguistic Training

When analysing the impact that teaching how to teach German has in the pre-service teachers' WTC before and after each session, it is worth highlighting that the quantitative and qualitative data represent very positive values regarding learning experiences as also found in MacIntyre (2007). This is exposed by looking into the three pre-service teaching profiles according to their knowledge of German. Thus, the pre-service with the highest knowledge of German always shows a remarkable degree of WTC. She is then supposed to value didactic training as independent of linguistic training but all within a reflective approach (Halbach, 2002), as well as being able to deal with four native speakers of German.

In terms of grouping, pair, group, and whole class work are factors that mainly affect the pre-service teachers' WTC (Cao & Philip, 2006). First, the WTC decreases when it comes to interacting with classmates who know little, the lecturer himself, or even the native speakers of German. This might be directly related to emotional factors as described by Dewaele and Pavelescu (2019) such as shame or even fear, mainly resulting from dealing with a foreign language. However, this also depends on the pre-service teachers' traits (Jonkmann et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2020), e.g., pre-service teacher 4 initially presents similar characteristics to pre-service teacher

3 concerning her knowledge of German, although her WTC does not de/increase in the same way. Finally, pre-service teachers 2 and 3 reveal a lower WTC if the language proficiency of the classmates with whom they interact is higher (Jafri & Manaf, 2020). This fact discloses that some pre-service teachers see their WTC with other classmates decreased if they consider that speaking a foreign language should become an embarrassing moment for them (Khajavy et al., 2018).

As for the factors that make WTC increase or decrease, the first prevails over the second option according to the pre-service teachers' opinions, especially concerning two main issues: motivation (Yashima, 2002; Dörnyei, 2017) and a relaxed classroom environment (Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Khajavy et al., 2016). This situation might be caused by the lecturer's attitude because of his close contact with the pre-service teachers (Zarrinabadi, 2014). Moreover, WTC has to do with the classroom activities (Saint Léger & Storch, 2009) that involve oral foreign language for real-communication purposes (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2011).

Finally, the factors that decrease the pre-service teachers' WTC are those closely related to their lack of language proficiency (Cao, 2011), as it is the case of pre-service teachers 3 and 4. This prevents them from expressing themselves openly and fluently. Nevertheless, this situation is shared by language beginners for whom uttering is firstly based on imitation and repetition (Ghazi-Saidi & Ansaldo, 2017). Later, pre-service teachers gradually start realising about the target language operating system.

Didactic Training

The lecturer's excursuses represent the only moments of Spanish (L1) use by the pre-service teachers. As explained, these take place outside the classroom to limit the physical contexts of language use. Excursuses allow all participants to discuss with the lecturer about the pedagogic values of a specific didactic technique that has just been put into practice in the classroom, or to understand the reasons why he takes concrete methodological decisions that may require an explanation. Participants take advantage of these brief moments of group reflection to gather ideas (i.e., pros and cons) to be used later in the online forum debates about foreign language didactics that take place along the initial foreign language (German) acquisition process itself. Thus, 21 excursuses were compiled within five thematic blocks, among which those classified as classroom dynamics and activities and language issues stand out. First, regarding grouping, the lecturer relates his excursuses about

usual classroom dynamics to language use proposals for communicative purposes together with action models. Through the excursuses, he proposes an IFLA-based teaching practice model for linguistic training mainly different from the teaching practices that the pre-service teachers experienced first-hand during former pre-university educational stages (Estrada & Zayas, 2020). Regarding grammar rules, it should be highlighted that until session 8, the lecturer does not make any specific excursus on grammar. In this case, it focuses on grammar in language teaching according to the pre-service teachers' experience (the uses of formal/informal foreign language; the purpose of grammatical explanations, which should not constitute prescriptive explanations of the internal system of German but descriptive ones; grammatical explanations constituting an opportunity to infer the functioning of German; and grammar explanations being pedagogically useful).

Concerning classroom activities, the lecturer points out that these are not collected randomly from a resource bank but are part of the progress of specific language uses (session 12). Concerning the *Arbeitsblätter* (session 9), the lecturer explains that it is an opportunity for the pre-service teachers to reflect on German. Also, the *Arbeitsblätter* gives room for incorporating varied cognitive styles, besides offering to the pre-service teachers a (physical) reference of learning. In this respect, some of them are conditioned by the phonic/graphic learning model in primary and secondary education. Finally, other excursuses make explicit reference to the four basic classroom rules (session 12) related to the *acquisitive teaching* (Haidl, 1990):*keine Grammatik*; *nur mündliche Sprache*; *nur Deutsch*; and *Motivation*. The latter is presented as an essential element in WTC (MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2003).

Second, concerning linguistic issues, the lecturer's first excursus deals with oral language (session 3), emphasizing the value of memory (Juffs & Harrington, 2011) without the support of written language, where the lecturer approaches knowledge consolidation only through verbal communication. It points out the fact that there are easy-to-recognise words as cognates (Beinborn et al., 2014). But in case the words are not recognizable enough, the lecturer asks the pre-service teachers to be patient and stay devoted to the IFLA-based teaching practice model proposed, which will provide them with enough language input throughout alternative ways (Haidl, 1990) to identify the unrecognized forms of German. Regarding pronunciation error treatment (session 7), the lecturer appeals to the fact that non-intervention constitutes a way of error treatment *per se* (Truscott, 2005).

Therefore, error treatment should include alternatives other than exclusively explicit correction or even corrective feedback (Estrada, 2020).

Third, the lecturer talks about the benefit of Erasmus stays and University's Language Project conversation classes with native speakers (sessions 5, 8, and 11). This point highlights the value of linguistic training in general, and job-finding opportunities. Another excursus involves the presence of native speakers (session 2) in the classroom to recognize the diversity of German uses to address personal neutralization or normalization of the target language. Also, the variations in German (the native speakers come from different territories of Germany), which can require a natural treatment by the pre-service teachers (Iakovos & Areti, 2009). Finally, the lecturer refers to the primary education curriculum (session 3), presenting several topics such as the progressive complexity of the language interactions in German tested in the classroom; the cognitive evolution and learning levels; the intensification of classroom activities that increase each session; the progressive construction of meaning; the fact that communication implies a semantic delimitation within the language uses; the focus on relative variations within the language contexts but always considering the use of the target language for communicative purposes; etc.

In short, the relevance of these excursuses lies in the way they supplement the foreign language acquisition process to serve as evidence-based methodological principles for anyone who could use them as a foreign language teacher him/herself: the value ofa learning context that establishes the natural use of the target language for real communicative purposes; carefully designed classroom dynamics, in which several activities are interspersed, where non-native speakers establish contact with native speakers of German; etc. Assuming that external factors dependent on the lecturer's attitude are also influenced by other factors such as the pre-service teachers' motivation mediated by foreign language enjoyment (Zhang et al., 2020) and a relaxed environment, excursuses about the didactics of foreign language teaching in Spanish outside the classroom help the students to identify methodology issues of great value for their training as pre-service teachers of German. The order of the excursuses is partly pre-programmed, while others are presented according to the classroom dynamics progress.

Conclusion

The relevance of the results reveal that this linguistic

and didactic dual training is well received by the pre-service teachers who, apart from developing some sensitivity towards the diagnostic value of WTC, show a high degree of WTC –regardless of their German proficiency levels–, which increases as for all three types of grouping (pair, group, and whole class), group member familiarity (except if the communication takes place with a classmate the pre-service teachers know little), and interlocutor's foreign language proficiency. Moreover, several factors increase their WTC, many of which are related to classroom dynamics and activities, along with a relaxed classroom atmosphere and the lecturer's attitude. Therefore, it is very satisfying that the pre-service teachers are open to this type of dual training since they obtain a double benefit. First, they develop oral competence in German, working not only with other classmates whose mother tongue is Spanish but also with native speakers of German of similar age. Second, they discuss questions related to language pedagogy. Therefore, it is possible to merge linguistic and didactic training using both languages and making pre-service teachers with different levels of foreign language and native speakers work together. Lecturers should seek a balance between all parties, knowing how to motivate participants and to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere by avoiding penalizing explicitly ungrammatical language uses.

Finally, this study provides answers to the aims and research questions posed before. Related to the first aim, the pre-service teachers' opinions reveal a high impact of the teaching practices on their linguistic and didactic training that makes their WTC increase before and after many of the practice sessions analysed. This gives an answer to the first research question: the teaching practices have a positive influence on most of the pre-service teachers, especially on language training. The excursuses are considered as the pre-service teachers' axis of self-analysis and as a significant part of their training. Concerning the second aim, the pre-service teachers support the classroom dynamics and activities in terms of language. There are also other key factors considered such as motivation, a relaxed atmosphere, and the lecturer's attitude. The excursuses do not stand out so clearly, although some pre-service teachers define them as one factor that increases their WTC. This provides an answer to the second research question: the pre-service teachers show a high degree of commitment to teaching practices. They are consistent in their opinions with one exception: the lack of German proficiency, even though they still feel confident when using it. In addition, the excursuses make them reflect on the teaching practices and increase their WTC.

In terms of practical suggestions for improvement, the results obtained in this exploratory classroom-based research may be adopted as recommendations for pre-service training as follows:

(1) A clear distinction should be made between the use of the foreign language and the first language or mother tongue (L1), preserving the pre-service teachers' foreign language exclusively for linguistic training purposes and the L1 only to raise or clarify didactic questions. This research reveals that the lecturer makes this distinction by also physically separating the contexts of language use, using the classroom for the exclusive use of German.

(2) The progress of the pre-service teachers' language proficiency must take advantage of using oral language rather than written language, leaving the latter for moments of individual work. Time constraints lead to this situation so that only language-acquisition practices are encouraged. In turn, conscious work focused on learning is transferred to the time available for students outside the classroom. Due to limited exposure to the target language, lecturers should encourage students to participate in activities such as conversation classes, for example.

(3) Native speakers (Erasmus students at the local university) should be the ones facilitating the real contact with the target language, who can also develop significant pedagogical skills. This might increase the overall knowledge and WTC of the local students, imitating an ISLA-based teaching practice model of language immersion even though German remains as a foreign language.

(4) Lecturers' excursuses can be pre-programmed, although they should analyse the classroom situations to decide whether to focus on a methodology issue or not. Nonetheless, the excursuses should be brief, leaving the reflection and the analysis for the individual work of the pre-service teachers outside the classroom. Also, lecturers should take advantage of the technological resources that allow the university virtual (e.g., Moodle) platform.

Finally, the limitations of this work focus mainly on the small number of participants analysed, who also have a very diverse knowledge of German. Thus, any claim of causality is to be taken with reserve. A larger number of pre-service teachers within the same language proficiency level group could have given greater scientific soundness to the results of the study. Similarly, it would have been possible to share with them a final session devoted to reviewing all the

excursuses presented during the course to obtain more opinions on the relevance of their linguistic and didactic dual training.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Anghel, B., Cabrales, A., & Carro, J. M. (2016). Evaluating a bilingual education program in Spain: The impact beyond foreign language learning. *Economic Inquiry, 54*(2). https://doi.org/10.1111/ecin.12305

Beinborn, L., Zesch, T., & Gurevych, I. (2014). Readability for foreign language learning: The importance of cognates. *ITL-International Journal of Applied Linguistic, 165*(2), 136-162. https://doi.org/10.1075/itl.165.2.02bei

Cao, Y. (2011). Investigating situational willingness to communicate within second language classrooms from an ecological perspective. *System*, *39*, 468-479. https://doi.org/doi:10.1016/j.system.2011.10.016

Cao, Y. N. S., & Philip, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behavior in whole class, group and dyadic interaction. *System*, *34*, 480-493. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.05.002

Contero, C., Zayas, F., & Arco, J. L. (2018). Addressing CLIL lecturers' needs: Reflections on specific methodological training. *Porta Linguarum*, Monográfico, III, 121-135. https://doi.org/10.30827/Digibug.54305

Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment.* Press Syndicate of the University of Cambridge.

Custodio, M., & García Ramos, J. M. (2020). Are accredited teachers equally trained for CLIL? The CLIL teacher paradox. *Porta Linguarum*, *33*, 9-25.

Dewaele, J.-M., & Pavelescu, L. M. (2019). The relationship between incommensurable emotions and WTC in English as a foreign language: A multiple case study. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching.* https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2019.1675667

Dobson, A., Pérez-Murillo, M. D., & Johnstone, R. (2010). *Programa de educación bilingüe en España. Informe de evaluación. Programme of Bilingual Education.* Ministry of Education and The British Council.

Dörnyei, Z. (2017). Motivation in second language learning. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton, & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign Language* (pp. 518-531). National Geographic Learning/Cengage Learning.

Estrada, J. L. (2020). *Posibilidad de aplicación de técnicas de corrección no intervencionista para errores orales a la enseñanza de idiomas* [Possibility of applying non-interventionist correction techniques for oral errors to language teaching]. *Encuentro*, 28, 17-32.

Estrada, J. L. & Zayas, F. (2020). Enseñanza adquisitiva del inglés como lengua extranjera en la formación inicial de maestros de educación infantil: Modelo de investigación Instructed Second Language Acquisition (ISLA) [Acquisitive teaching of English as a foreign language in the initial training of early childhood education teachers: Instructed Second Language Acquisition (ISLA) research model]. In *Innovación Docente e Investigación en Ciencias Sociales, Económicas y Jurídicas. Avanzando en el Proceso de Enseñanza-Aprendizaje* (pp. 383-395). Dykinson S.L.

Eurydice. (2006). *Content and Language integrated learning (CLIL) at school in Europe. EURYDICE Survey.* Eurydice.

Ghazi-Saidi, L. & Ansaldo, A. I. (2017). Second language word learning through repetition and imitation: Functional networks as a function of learning phase and language distance. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, 28, 1-13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2017.00463

Feddermann, M., Möller, J., & Baumert, J. (2021). Effects of CLIL on second language learning: Disentangling selection, preparation, and CLIL-effects. *Learning and Instruction*, *74*(1), 101459. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.learninstruc.2021.101459

Haidl, A. (1990). *Aportaciones a la Teoría de la Adquisición: una metodología del alemán para universitarios españoles* [Contributions to the theory of acquisition: A German methodology for Spanish university students] [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Cadiz.

Haidl, A. (1998). Spracherwerb Revisited: Die ersten 50 Stunden Deutsch als Fremdsprache [Language Acquisition Revisited: The First 50 Hours of German as a Foreign Language]. In En Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (Ed.), *Germanistentreffen Deutschland-Spanien-Portugal: Leipzig Tagungsbeiträge* (pp. 255-274). DAAD.

Halbach, A. (2002). Exporting methodologies: The reflective approach in teacher training. *Language, culture and curriculum, 15*(3), 243-250. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310208666648

Hernández-Sampieri, R., Fernández-Collado, C., & Baptista, P. (2014). *Metodología de la investigación* (6 ed.). McGraw-Hill Education.

Huguet, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Vila, I. (2008). Bilingual Education in Spain: Present realities and future

challenges. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and education*. Springer.

Iakovos, T. & Areti, K. (2009). Helping students overcome foreign language speaking anxiety in the English classroom: Theoretical issues and practical recommendations. *International Education Studies, 2*(4), 39-44. https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v2n4p39

Jafri, N., & Manaf, U. K. A. (2020). Looking into students' willingness to communicate: A case study in Mandarin language learning. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 8*(1), 23-131. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2020.081316

Jonkmann, K., Becker, M., Marsh, H. W., Lüdtke, O., & Trautwein, U. (2012). Personality traits moderate the Big-Fish-Little-Pond-Effect of academic self-concept. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 22, 736-746. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2012.07.020

Juffs, A., & Harrington, M. (2011). Aspects of working memory in L2 learning. *Language Teaching, 44*(2), 137-166. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444810000509

Khajavy, G. H., Ghonsooly, B., Fatemi, H., & Choi, C. W. (2016). WTC in English: A microsystem model in the Iranian EFL classroom context. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50, 154-180. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.204

Khajavy, G., MacIntyre, P., & Barabadi, E. (2018). Role of the emotions and classroom environment in willingness to communicate: Applying doubly latent multilevel analysis in second language acquisition research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 40*(3), 605-624. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263117000304

Lasagabaster, D., & Ruiz de Zarobe, Y. (2010). *CLIL in Spain: Implementation, results and teacher training*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Loewen, S. (2015). *Introduction to Instructed Second Language Acquisition*. Routledge.

Loewen, S. & Sato, M. (2017). *The Routledge handbook of instructed second language acquisition*. Routledge.

Lorenzo, F. (2019). *Educación Bilingüe en Andalucía. Informe de gestión, competencias y organización* [Bilingual Education in Andalusia. Management, competences and organisation report]. Agencia Andaluza de Evaluación Educativa. AGAEVE.

MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). WTC in the second language: Understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. *Modern Language Journal*, 91, 564-576. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00623.x

MacIntyre, P. D. & Doucette, J. (2010). WTC and action control. *System*, 38, 161-171. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.12.013

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clement, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). WTC, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 23, 369-388. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263101003035

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clement, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2003). Talking in order to learn: WTC and intensive language programs. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 59, 589-607. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.043

MacIntyre, P. D., Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal, 82*(4), 545-562. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb05543.x

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Johnson, R. B. (2008). The validity issue in mixed research. In V. L. P. Clark & J. W. Creswell (Eds.), *The mixed methods reader* (pp. 272-298). Sage Publications.

Pawlak, M., & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A. (2015). Investigating the dynamic nature of L2 willingness to communicate. *System*, 50, 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2015.02.001

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. https:// doi.org/10.1177/1362168815609615

Peng, J. & Woodrow, L. J. (2010). WTC in English: A model in Chinese EFL classroom context. *Language Learning*, 60, 834-876. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00576.x

Romero, E., & Zayas, F. (2017). Challenges and opportunities of training teachers for plurilingual education. In J. Valcke & R. Wilkinson (Eds.), *Integrating content and language in higher education* (pp. 205-226). Peter Lang.

Saint Léger, D. & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System, 37*(2), 269-285.

Scott, V. M. (1996). *Rethinking foreign language writing*. Heinle and Heinle.

Truscott, J. (2005). The continuing problems of oral grammar correction. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 1*(2), 17-22.

Van Kampen, E., Mearns, T., Meirink, J., Admiraal, W., & Berry, A. (2018). How do we measure up? A review of Dutch CLIL subject pedagogies against an international backdrop. *Dutch Journal of Applied Linguistics, 7*(2), 129-155. https://doi.org/10.1075/dujal.18004.kam

Yashima, T. (2002). WTC in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*(1), 54-66. https://doi.org/10.1111/1540-4781.00136

Zarrinabadi, N. (2014). Communicating in a second language: Investigating the effect of teacher on learners' willingness to communicate.

System, *42*, 288-295. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.12.014

Zayas, F. & Estrada, J. L. (2020). Instructed Foreign Language Acquisition (IFLA) at a faculty of education: German for primary school teachers under a CLIL model. *Innovación Docente e Investigación en Educación. Avanzando en el Proceso de Enseñanza-Aprendizaje* (pp. 1103-1113). Dykinson S.L.

Zhang, H., Dai, Y., & Wang, Y. (2020). Motivation and second foreign language proficiency: The mediating role of foreign language enjoyment. *Sustainability*, *12*, 1302. https://doi.org/10.3390/su12041302

Zhang, Y., Beckmann, N., & Beckmann, J. F. (2020). More than meets the ear: Individual differences in trait and state willingness to communicate as predictors of language learning performance in a Chinese EFL context. *Language Teaching Research*, *51*, 1-28. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820951931

Appendix 1

Section 1

1. *Nombre y apellidos*
2. *Años aprendiendo alemán*
3. *Evalúa tu nivel de alemán*
4. *Evalúa tu nivel de competencia oral en alemán*
5. ¿Qué tan dispuesto/a estabas a hablar alemán hoy en clase?
6. ¿Cuál es tu sensación sobre tu disposición a hablar en alemán tras la clase de hoy?

Section 2: ¿Qué factores influyeron hoy en tu disposición a hablar alemán? (i)

1. *Disposición del grupo: trabajo en parejas*
2. *Disposición del grupo: trabajo en grupo*
3. *Disposición del grupo: trabajo con toda la clase*
4. *Interlocutor: un compañero que conozco muy bien*
5. *Interlocutor: un compañero que conozco un poco*
6. *Interlocutor: mi profesor*
7. *Competencia del interlocutor: igual que la mía*
8. *Competencia del interlocutor: más alta que la mía*
9. *Competencia del interlocutor: más baja que la mía*

Section 3: ¿Qué factores influyeron hoy en tu disposición a hablar alemán? (ii)

1. *Enumera qué factores aumentaron tu disposición a hablar*
2. *Enumera qué factores disminuyeron tu disposición a hablar*
3. ¿Qué actividades aumentaron tu disposición a hablar?
4. ¿Qué actividades disminuyeron tu disposición a hablar?
5. ¿Cuándo te has sentido más dispuesto a hablar hoy?
6. ¿Cuándo te has sentido menos dispuesto a hablar hoy?

Integrating Digital Multimodal Composition into EFL Writing Instruction

Najmeh Maghsoudi[1], Mohammad Golshan[1], Amin Naeimi[2]

[1] Maybod Branch, Islamic Azad University

[2] Yazd Branch, Islamic Azad University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Mohammad Golshan, Department of English, Maybod Branch, Islamic Azad University, Maybod, Iran. E-mail: mohammadgolshann@gmail.com

***Background*:** Digital multimodal composition has recently received paramount attention in the instruction of second language writing. Although the merits of digital multimodal composition have widely been acknowledged by many scholars, the instruction of English writing has still remained monomodal in Iran.

***Purpose*:** The present quasi-experimental study aimed to investigate the differential impacts of the two types of writing (multimodal/monomodal) on English as a Foreign language (EFL) learners' writing ability in terms of content, communicative achievement, organization, and language across five times.

***Method*:** To this end, two intact groups, including 59 EFL learners at a university in southeastern Iran participated in the study. The participants were assigned into two comparison groups of multimodal (n = 30) and monomodal (n = 29) compositions. The students in the multimodal group composed five digital essays, while the monomodal group used only the textual mode to produce their essays throughout the semester. Following a repeated measures design, the researchers assessed the participants' writing ability across five times. A mixed between-within ANOVA was conducted to address the research questions.

***Results*:** The results revealed that both groups showed significant improvement in their writing ability across time. Furthermore, the multimodal group outperformed the monomodal group in their writing ability.

***Implication*:** The findings suggest that writing instructional practices in Iran should be redefined and updated to accommodate the needs and expectations of the twenty-first century learners.

Keywords: multimodality, writing ability, writing instruction, digital writing, writing instructional practices

Introduction

Technology has remarkably changed not only written communication but also writing instruction (Pegrum, 2009; Skians, 2017). Thanks to the technological advances and their subsequent social as well as pedagogical demands, the composition field has witnessed astonishing shifts in writing instruction one of which is digital multimodal composition (DMC). As a breakthrough in writing instruction, DMC which incorporates textual, visual, and aural modes has become extremely popular in English writing courses (Jewitt & Kress, 2003). With the paradigm shift of writing from monomodal (textual) to multimodal activities, language learners have been provided with unprecedented ways of meaning-making through a variety of modes, including text, image, and sound (Ferdig & Pytash, 2014). Consequently, the transition from alphabetic texts to

multimodal communication led to the widespread use of websites, wikis, blogs, and social networks among language learners (Takayoshi & Selfe, 2007). Many scholars in the field of composition studies have advocated DMC because multiple modes in this type of writing provide multiplication of meanings (Bax, 2011; Mayer, 2009; Mayer & Moreno, 2003) and make the learners more engaged in producing the output needed to develop their language competence (Swain & Lapkin, 1995; Terrell, 2011). Moreover, multimodal composition, as a kind of creative writing with flexible and appealing processes, leads to the enhancement of motivation to further writing ability among the second language (L2) learners (Dymoke & Hughes, 2009).

Followed by the advances in technology and their subsequent social demands, astonishing pedagogical shifts occurred in English language teaching (ELT)

and new modes of writing have been provided for the language learners to keep up with the latest discourse (Baron, 2014; Rance-Roney, 2010; Skains, 2017). Since the beginning of the 21st century, digital multimodal writing has gained prominence and its benefits on developing L2 writing ability have been supported by a good number of researchers in the field (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Garcia & de Caso, 2006; Grapin & Llosa, 2020; Jiang & Ren, 2020; Kern & Schultz, 2005; Lutkewitte, 2014; Warschauer, 2009).

Traditionally, monomodal activities have dominated English as a foreign language (EFL) writing instruction in Iran where much emphasis is put on the textual mode than the image or sound which are often recognized as decorations to the written text (Mohiti Asli, 2019; Oldakowski, 2014). With regard to the technologically-laden and multimodal communication among EFL learners as digital natives, it is expected that they find traditional composition outdated and boring due to the disparity between their literacy practices in and out of writing classes (Hundley & Holbrook, 2013; Intrator & Kunzman, 2009; Skains, 2017).

Consequently, understanding the impact of DMC on the writing ability of language learners may be the first step to appropriately plan, effectively instruct, and improve the quality of the EFL learners' writing. Although the implementation of multimodality has widely been acknowledged by many scholars in the composition field, the gap still exists between theories on multimodality and their practical benefits in writing classrooms. As a result, a number of researchers have called for the empirical studies investigating the effectiveness of multimodal composition in writing classes in different contexts (Anderson & Kachorsky, 2019; Canagarajah, 2006; Khadka & Lee, 2019; Lim & Toh, 2020; Moje, 2009). In line with the related literature, the present study aimed to investigate the differential effects of the writing type (multimodal/monomodal) on Iranian EFL learners' writing ability across time.

Literature Review

Multiliteracies and Multimodality

Historically, the New London Group (1996) first introduced the concept of multimodality as "The integrated meaning-making systems that interact with each other through multiple processes of linguistic, visual, audio, gestural, and spatial meanings" (p. 7). Subsequent to the introduction of multimodality, the New London Group (1996) proposed ways to change teaching and learning

paradigms in response to the emerging forms of communication. They introduced a multiliteracies framework emphasizing that the inevitable changes in our daily communication influence educational practices. This endeavor implied the need to integrate digital tools to adjust the teaching practices to the learners' needs and expectations (New London Group, 1996). In other words, the ubiquity and proliferation of digital tools resulted in the new notion of digital literacies in which all modes of communication complement each other in the meaning-making process (Crystal, 2011; Hockly, 2012).

We propose here a multiliteracies framework as a pedagogical response to multimodality aimed at integrating the educational practices which connect real world experiences to the classroom contexts (Cope & Gollings, 2001). As the theoretical framework of the present study, the multiliteracies framework expanded the traditional notion of literacy and stressed the necessity of reforming the pedagogical practices with the purpose of enabling language learners to participate in diverse discourse communities.

The underlying mechanism of the effect of multimodality on cognitive processes during learning lies in Mayer's Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML), according to which the human brain selects and organizes a multimedia presentation of words, pictures, and auditory information in a dynamic manner (Mayer, 2009).Three assumptions of dual-channel, limited capacity, and active processing form the basis of this theory. Dual-channel assumption refers to a processing system which includes dual channels for visual/pictorial and auditory verbal processing. Limited capacity assumption states that each channel has a limited capacity for processing information. And finally, active processing assumption suggests that active learning involves coordination of cognitive processes like filtering, selecting, organizing, and integrating information based upon prior knowledge. The rationale for the theory of multimedia learning is that learning occurs more deeply when pictures accompany words (Mayer, 2003; Mayer, 2009). Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning advocates a learner-centered approach based on the constructivist view of learning through which the learners construct their own learning through interaction of multiple modes. From a pedagogical point of view, students who benefit from multimodal learning achieve a higher performance and remember the information better (Mayer & Moreno, 2003).

Relying on the cognitive theory of multimedia

learning, Scheiter et al. (2017) acknowledged the role of multimodality in learning and concluded that sequential presentation of text and pictures might help learners in processing the information. In their study, Scheiter et al. (2014) claimed that multimodality is advantageous due to the dual coding in memory that contributes to creating more associations to long-term memory. They also maintained that the potentials of multimodal texts to enhance learning cannot be ignored provided that the learners are sufficiently instructed to achieve the highest performance.

Multimodal Instruction of Writing

With the paradigm shift in written communication, outstanding scholars in the field of composition have begun to argue that these pedagogical changes need to be effectively addressed by educators. For instance, Takayoshi and Selfe (2007) assert that due to the extensive use of digital technologies in recent years, language learners need to be exposed to a variety of modes in writing courses. They also warned that if composition courses focus solely on monomodal type of writing, there is the risk of making classroom composition activities irrelevant to the students' contemporary practices of communication.

Referring to the necessity of updating the teaching practices for writing instruction, Luke (2000) also declared "New times call for new literacy practices" (p.70). Well-known pioneers, Hawisher and Selfe (2004), also claimed that as societies undergo enormous digital changes, students need to be prepared for emerging technologies and recent forms of communication.

As a consequence, new technologies have forced scholars to continually redefine text to include compositions that communicate in multiple modes (Kress, 2003). As writing scholars have moved to redefine texts, they also force instructors to reconsider their goals for writing courses due to the multi-sensory (visual & auditory) function which makes information delivery relatively easy. Through multi-sensory integration, multimodal texts brought many changes in writing instruction and improved the ways that students received the new information. Unlike the past, language learners do not solely depend on paper-based material, rather they utilize a variety of multimodal materials for their meaningful language learning (Sankey, 2006).

A substantial body of research has discovered the enhancing role of DMC in the development of writing ability and the necessity of its integration as a technique to further the cognitive aspect of writing (Cope & Kalantzis, 2015; Garcia & de Caso, 2006; Grapin & Llosa, 2020; Jiang & Ren, 2020; New London Group, 1996) and to connect out-of-school and in-school literacy practices in the digital age (Yeh & Mitrich, 2020; Yi et al., 2020). More specifically, Nobles and Paganucci (2015), Kimmons et al. (2017), and Vandommele et al. (2017) investigated the effect of multimodal writing on developing the writing ability of learners. The findings of all these studies revealed that multimodality intervention could enhance the learners' writing ability. Moreover, the research examining the effect of time and multimodality on learners' writing outcome revealed that the effect of time on writing ability development was significant (Bae & Lee, 2012; Wang & Chen, 2018). More importantly, Li and Akoto (2021) reviewed 26 articles on L2 digital multimodal compositionpublished from 2010 to 2020 and identified three main research strands of DMC process (Jiang et al., 2020; Shin et al., 2020;Unsworth & Mills, 2020), students' perceptions of DMC (Jiang & Gao, 2020; Jiang & Luk, 2016; Kim & Bechler, 2020; Zhang & O'Halloran, 2019) and the effects of DMC (Lee et al., 2021; Unsworth & Mills, 2020). Exploratory qualitative studies focusing on students' perceptions and DMC processes in ESL/EFL contexts were more dominant than the investigation of the effects of DMC.

Although empirical evidence in support of digital multimodal composition is not scarce, the results are considerably inconclusive. Some researchers in the field voiced reservations about the mere contribution of DMC to the improvement of the writing outcome (Agee & Altarriba, 2009; Collins & Pascarella, 2003; Jiang, 2018; Mehlenbacher et al., 2000; Neuhauser, 2002; Sapp & Simon, 2005). It is to be noted that in some meta-analysis studies, several scholars doubted over the appropriate design and assessment in the previous multimodal pieces of research; for example, they claimed that most studies were quantitatively conducted based on correlational designs. As another caveat, the use of an elaborate and a standard rubric for writing ability assessment, has seldom been reported in the related literature (Anderson & Kachorsky, 2019; Kimber & Wyatt-Smith, 2010). The other reason for the inconsistency of the results from the previous studies may lie in the sociocultural and ethnographical disparities between different study contexts (DePalma & Alexander, 2015; Skians, 2017).

Overview of the Study

Given that Iran has fallen behind in technology integration in L2 writing instruction while emerging

technologies are on the rise (Mohiti Asli, 2019; Naghdipour, 2016; Naghdipour & Koç (2015), it seems vital to deploy more effective and innovative pedagogical approaches to better accommodate the learning needs of the digital natives in L2 writing classes.

The point is that empirical studies devoted to examining the practical impacts of digital multimodal composition (especially photo-essay type) on the English writing ability of EFL learners at different contexts have only scratched the surface. In light of the ongoing digital advances and the importance of writing as an essential skill in undergraduate as well as graduate and postgraduate programs, it is important to be aware of the potentials of the new and emerging techniques and to investigate their effect in writing classes. Trying to fill the gap between theory and practice, considering the inconsistency in the literature, and taking the necessity of updating English writing instruction into account in Iran, the researchers of the present study aimed to explore the differential impacts of the writing type (multimodal/monomodal) on Iranian EFL learners' writing ability across time. Accordingly, two research questions motivated the study:

RQ1. Do multimodal compositions have more differential impacts on learners' writing ability (in terms of content, communicative achievement, organization, and language) than monomodal compositions?

RQ2: Do multimodal and monomodal compositions affect writing ability components (content, communicative achievement, organization, and language) differently across time?

Method

Participants

The participants were 59 sophomore students of English as a foreign language at a university in southeastern Iran. In the multimodal group, 82.8% of the students were female and 17.2% were male with the average age range of 19 to 24 (M = 20.3, SD = 2.4). In the monomodal group, 80% of the participants were female and 20% were male within the age range of 20 to 26 (M = 21.8, SD = 1.7). All the participants were Persian native speakers and had received at least eight years of English education; none of them had ever been to an English speaking country. Convenience sampling was used for the current study because the participants were accessible to the researchers.

Two intact groups of students of Writing II course in the EFL curriculum were assigned to the multimodal and monomodal groups. Multimodal (n = 30) and monomodal (n = 29) groups' English proficiency level was assessed through the University of Michigan Examination for the Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE) and, based on the results, they were at the intermediate level of English proficiency (B2 level).

For Iranian undergraduate EFL learners, Writing II is a compulsory course administered in the second year of the four-year undergraduate program. In this course, students are instructed on developing English essays. It is to be noted that the participants had not been exposed to multimodal instruction of writing in their curriculum prior to the study. Furthermore, a post hoc power analysis was conducted using G Power.

Considering the medium effect size f (ES = 0.25), with an alpha = .05, and participants of the present study (N = 59), the statistical power for the sample size calculated by G Power was 0.86 for between-within group comparison.

Design

The present quasi-experimental study used repeated measures design for data collection and analysis. Type of writing (multimodal/monomodal) and time served as the independent variables whereas writing ability was the dependent variable including four subscales: Content, communicative achievement, organization, and language.

Assessments and Measures

The instruments used in the current study were English proficiency test, Microsoft Photo Story 3/ Photo Story Video Maker, Word Processing Software, and Writing Assessment Scale.

English Proficiency Test

As the first instrument of the study, University of Michigan Examination for the Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE) was used to assess the participants' English proficiency level. This test included a 100-item paper-based examination of grammar, vocabulary, and reading (GVR) sections with each item having one score (max = 100). The allotted time for this exam was 80 minutes. Prior to the experimentation, it was administered at the outset of the semester.

Digital Writing Ability

The digital writing ability of the participants was measured through Microsoft Photo Story 3 for Windows or Photo Story Video Maker for mobile phones depending on the participants' preference of producing their multimodal projects (photo essays) by laptops or cell phones; no matter which one they used, the steps for doing their projects were the same. These two pieces of software were selected since they could be easily and freely downloaded. They are fast and easy applications for generating video stories and sharing them via social networks. These applications allow users to create a visual story (show and tell presentation) from their digital photos and provide users with the possibility of adding text, effects, transitions, and background music to produce photo essays.

Monomodal Writing Ability

The monomodal writing ability of the EFL learners was assessed by Word Processor Software through which the participants in monomodal group produced their essays. Word Processor is a software that lets its users type, edit, and format texts as virtual documents. It has additional features to customize the style of the texts, including spell-check, grammar check, text and font formatting, page layout, and word count options. The only mode used by monomodal group participants was the textual one.

Writing Assessment Scale

The final instrument of the study was Writing Assessment Scale (Appendix) developed with reference to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which is divided into four subscales: Content, communicative achievement, organization, and language. Content refers to how well the learners have accomplished the task; communicative achievement is defined as how appropriate the writing is for the task; organization means the way the learner puts the parts of the writing together in a logical order; and finally language subscale refers to the appropriate use of vocabulary and grammar (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016). [1] The scores at each subscale ranged from 0 (*as the lowest*) to 5 (*as the highest*) the sum of which (four subscales) could range from 0 to 20. In order to ensure the interrater reliability for composition scores of both multimodal and monomodal groups, a university professor who had been teaching English writing for 14 years was invited to score the compositions after one of the researchers had scored them. The cases of discrepancy

---

[1] Cambridge English Language Assessment. (2016). *Assessing writing performance*. https://www.cambridgeenglish.org.

between the two raters were discussed and an agreement was reached on the type of errors for which the participants lost score. It is to be mentioned that the interrater reliabilities calculated for the multimodal and monomodal compositions were 0.83 and 0.79, respectively.

Method

First of all, the participants signed informed consent forms to take part in the study and were ensured that their anonymity would be strictly protected. They were also informed that they could withdraw from the study at any stage with no academic consequences. Prior to the experimentation, the University of Michigan Examination for the Certificate of Competency in English (ECCE) was administered to the participants to assess their English proficiency level. Based on the scoring rubric of the test, the participants' scores fell within B2 level, which represents the intermediate level of English proficiency. Afterwards, the students in both groups sat for a semester-long experimentation for 12 sessions of 90 minutes. Both multimodal (*n* = 30) and monomodal (*n* = 29) groups were instructed by one of the researchers who also served as the data collector. Attempts were made to provide the two groups with equal instruction opportunities with regard to class time (90-minute sessions) per a 12-session semester.

In the first two sessions of the semester, explicit instruction was provided to the students of both groups on the structure and organization of cause and effect essays. Multimodal and monomodal groups were required to deliver their compositions every other week. On odd sessions, the lecturer introduced two topics one of which the participants should choose to write about and on even sessions, students' writings were discussed and feedback was provided by the lecturer as well as the students. Totally, ten cause and effect essay topics about health issues as well as social, educational, and environmental concerns were presented to the participants of each group and they selected five of their favorite ones. To ensure the same conditions for both groups, time was constantly kept by the lecturer as the students were working on their tasks.

Teaching Procedure in Multimodal Group

The lesson started with a comparison between multimodal and monomodal writing so that the students could explore the similarities and differences between them. Each session, the participants were required to produce a video of 5 minutes in length. Students were informed that their video productions

should have a relevant content, a cause and effect essay organization, relevant vocabulary and well-formed structures, as well as appropriate image and music for the content. The instruction was also based on technical integration of three modes of text, image, and sound as well as the focus on the choice of color for textual mode, font size, photo effects and transitions, timing of videos, and video editing techniques. Moreover, four components of writing ability and scoring scheme were explained to the learners. Finally, two videos were presented to the multimodal group to discuss different features they needed to use. From the third session on, the participants were required to produce their videos on odd sessions and discuss them with the lecturer and students inside the classroom on even sessions. Using Microsoft Photo story 3 or Photo Story Video Maker applications, the students in the multimodal group composed five multimodal tasks within the class with the time limit of one hour on the task and 30 minutes of the class time on odd sessions were devoted to discuss the probable problems that the learners might face while composing multimodally. For each task during the semester, students created a video about their favorite topics in which they brought three modes (text, image, & sound) together. The topics the students wrote about were as follows:

1. Main causes of obesity among Iranian teenagers
2. Positive effects of soft music on human body
3. Major causes of water pollution in Iran
4. Negative effects of social networks on Iranian youths
5. Damaging effects of bullying on primary school children

The final videos were emailed to the lecturer to be viewed and scored. The participants could monitor their peers' compositions in the classroom and felt free to give comments on each other's multimodal writings the next session that they attended the class. Ultimately, the lecturer provided feedback on the students' essays to teach them how to select the appropriate language, photo, and sound. Feedback was also provided on the relevance of content to the task, the appropriate and straightforward use of complex ideas, the proper organization of the essay through coherence and cohesive devices, and the appropriate use of vocabulary and grammatical forms.

Teaching Procedure in Monomodal Group

In the first two sessions of the semester, the participants were explicitly instructed on the proper use of relevant content, appropriate ideas, coherence and cohesive devices, unity, relevant vocabulary, and well-formed structures. The organization of cause and effect essays was also taught to them. Two samples of cause and effect essays were also presented and discussed in the classroom. The topics for monomodal group were as follows:

1. Major causes of exam anxiety among university students
2. Positive effects of doing regular exercise
3. Main effects of climate change on natural resources
4. Negative effects of divorce on children
5. Major causes of insomnia among the elderly

The monomodal group used Word Processor Software to compose their essays on their favorite topic solely through the textual mode with exactly the same time limit as the multimodal group (one hour for each task). When the time on the monomodal writings was finished, the students emailed their writings to the lecturer for scoring. The students were required to write their monomodal essays on odd sessions and during the final 30 minutes of the class time, the probable problems of the students in monomodal compositions were discussed and answered. Just as the multimodal group, the learners in the monomodal group could also make comments on their classmates' compositions the next session after they completed their monomodal essay. And finally, the feedback session was completed by the lecturer's comments on the students' essays composed through the textual mode.

Noteworthy to mention is that each participant had a portfolio consisting of five writing scores for either multimodal or monomodal essays assigned to them throughout the term. Unlike many studies conducted in the field of L2 compositions, the present research used the standard rubric of the Writing Assessment Scale developed by reference to Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) to score the participants' writing ability. The total score for the participants' writing ability consisted of their scores on four subscales of this rubric: content, communicative achievement, organization, and language.

Data Analysis

Repeated measures design was used to assess the differential impact of the type of writing (multimodal/monomodal) and time variables on the writing ability of the EFL leaners. In an attempt to respond to the research questions, the authors used a mixed between-within ANOVA to investigate the impact of the type of writing (multimodal/monomodal) and

time as the second independent variable on the EFL learners' writing ability in terms of content, communicative achievement, organization, and language.

Results

The research questions were specifically concerned with whether multimodal composition had more differential impact on the learners' writing ability and whether the participants' writing ability changed across time. Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics of writing ability of both multimodal and monomodal groups across five times.

RQ1: Do multimodal compositions have more differential impacts on learners' writing ability (in terms of content, communicative achievement, organization, and language) than monomodal compositions?

Following a repeated measures design, the researchers conducted a mixed between-within ANOVA to assess the effect of two different interventions (multimodal/ monomodal compositions) on the writing ability of EFL learners across five times. The homogeneity of inter-correlations or the equality of the covariance was tested using Box's M statistic with no violation noted. Furthermore, the homogeneity of variances for within-subjects and between-subjects factors was proved using Levene's Test of equality of error variance and the assumption had not been violated. As Tables 2 and 3 report, there was a significant interaction between the type of writing and time, Wilks' Lambda = .310, $F (4, 54) = 29.64$, $p < .001$, η^2_p = .38 (large effect). There was a substantial main effect for time, Wilks' Lambda = .195, $F (4, 54) = 55.72$, $p < .001$, η^2_p = .53 (large effect) with both groups showing an improvement in their writing performance across five times.

Moreover, the main effect comparing the effect of two types of writing on writing ability was also significant Wilks' Lambda = .310, $F (4, 54) = 29.64$, $p < .001$, η^2_p = .10 (large effect) which suggests there is a significant difference in the effectiveness of digital multimodal composition in writing ability improvement.

Figure 1 demonstrates the interaction between the type of writing (multimodal/monomodal) and time.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Writing Ability of Multimodal and Monomodal Groups across Time

Group	Time	Mean	SD	Group	Time	Mean	SD
	Time 1	13.80	2.71		Time 1	13.72	2.75
	Time 2	14.53	2.73		Time 2	13.76	2.86
Multimodal	Time 3	15.87	2.47	Monomodal	Time 3	13.79	2.47
	Time 4	16.47	2.37		Time 4	14.07	2.45
	Time 5	17.00	'2.21		Time 5	14.28	2.48

Table 2

Mixed Between-Within ANOVA of Writing Ability for Multimodal and Monomodal Groups across Time

Effect		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	p-value	Partial Eta Squared
Within-Subjects	Time	140.29	4	35.07	64.899	.000	.53
	Time × Group	76.97	4	19.24	35.610	.000	.38
	Error	123.22	228	.54	-	-	-
Between-Subjects	Group	190.92	1	190.92	6.260	.020	.10
	Error	1739.50	57	30.52	-	-	-

Table 3

Multivariate Tests for Writing Ability

Effect	Multivariate Test	Value	F	Hypothesis	Error df	p-value df
Time	Wilks' Lambda	.195	55.72	4	54	.000
Time × Group	Wilks' Lambda	.310	29.64	4	54	.000

As illustrated, the interaction effect between the type of writing and time was significant which implies the effect of the type of writing on writing ability is influenced by the amount of time spent on writing tasks. In other words, a longer time spent on writing tasks resulted in the participants' improved writing ability.

Figure 1

Writing Ability Scores of Multimodal and Monomodal Groups across Time

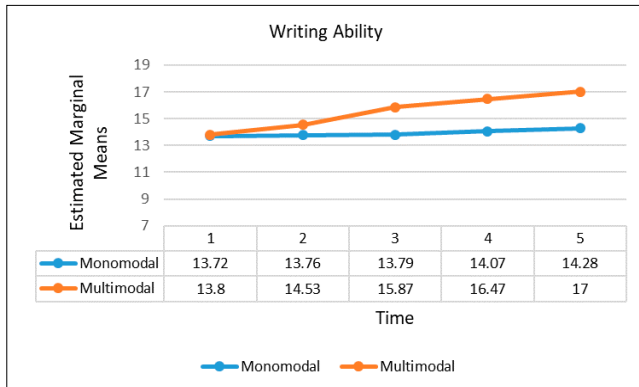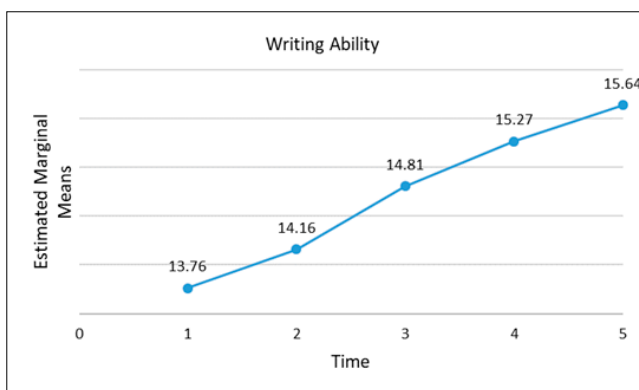|	1	2	3	4	5
Monomodal	13.72	13.76	13.79	14.07	14.28
Multimodal	13.8	14.53	15.87	16.47	17

Figure 2 is also illustrative of the main effect of time on writing ability. As it is inferred, time played a great role in developing the writing ability. Simply put, the learners had improved writing ability across time.
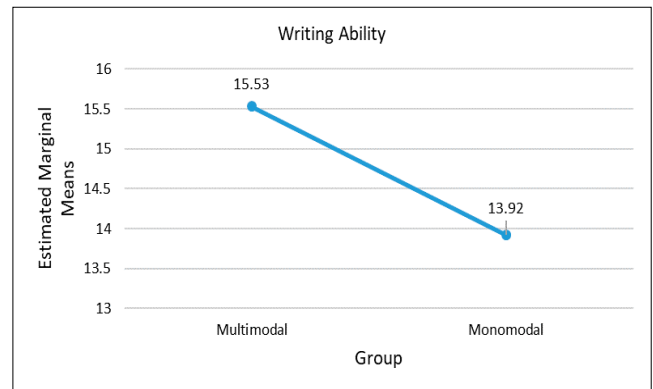
Figure 2

Writing Ability Scores with Respect to Time

Moreover, Figure 3 shows the main effect of the type of composition on the participants' writing performance across five times. As observed in this figure, the multimodal group outperformed the monomodal group in their writing ability.

Figure 3

Writing Ability Scores with Respect to Group

RQ2: Do multimodal and monomodal compositions affect writing ability components (content, communicative achievement, organization, and language) differently across time?

Concerning the writing ability subscales (content, communicative achievement, organization, and language), the researchers have reported the results of mixed between-within ANOVA in Tables 4 and 5. As illustrated, there was a significant interaction between time and content Wilks' Lambda = .750, $F(4, 54) = 4.57$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2_p = .08$ (large effect). There was also a considerable main effect for time, Wilks' Lambda = .300, $F(4, 54) = 31.15$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .32$ (large effect) with both groups showing an improvement in content scores across five times. The main effect concerning the two types of writing (multimodal/monomodal) was shown to be significant, too Wilks' Lambda = .750, $F(4, 54) = 4.57$, $p = .003$, $\eta^2_p = .18$ (large effect) admitting that there was a great difference between multimodal and monomodal groups with respect to content.

Regarding communicative achievement, there was a significant interaction between communicative achievement and time Wilks' Lambda = .590, $F(4, 54) = 9.22$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2_p = .40$ (large effect). No main effect was found for time Wilks' Lambda = .899, $F(4, 54) = 1.52$, $p = .200$ which supports time did not have any effect on communicative achievement. The main effect comparing the effectiveness of the two types of writing on communicative achievement subscale was not significant either Wilks' Lambda = .590, $F(4, 54) = 9.22$, $p < .001$ confirming that there was no significant difference between multimodal and monomodal groups in terms of their communicative achievement.

Concerning the organization component, there was a significant interaction between time and organization Wilks' Lambda = .550, F (4, 54) = 11.12, p < .001, η^2_p = .15 (large effect). A considerable main effect was obtained for time Wilks' Lambda = .480, F (4, 54) = 14.50, p < .001, η^2_p = .18 (large effect) with both groups showing an improvement in organization scores across five times. The main effect comparing organization subscale in multimodal and monomodal groups was significant Wilks' Lambda = .550, F (4, 54) = 11.12, p < .001, η^2_p = .12 (large effect) emphasizing that there was a significant difference in the effectiveness of DMC in developing organization component.

And finally, the effect of the two types of writing on language component across five times was investigated and there was a significant interaction between time and language subscale Wilks' Lambda = .840, F (4, 54) = 2.49, p = .050, and η^2_p = .05 (medium effect). There was a substantial main effect for time Wilks' Lambda = .480, F (4, 54) = 14.88, p < .001, η^2_p = .20 (large effect) showing improved language scores across five times. The main effect for group was not significant Wilks' Lambda = .840, F (4, 54) = 2.49, p = .050 supporting that no difference was found between multimodal and monomodal groups in their language component.

Figure 4 provides the visual representation of writing ability components (content, communicative achievement, organization, and language) of both multimodal and monomodal groups across five times.

Table 4

Mixed Between-Within ANOVA for Writing Ability Subscales of Multimodal and Monomodal Groups across Time

Effect		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P-Value	Partial Eta Squared
Within-Subjects (C)	Time	17.29	3.27	5.29	26.20	.000	.32
	Time × Group	3.25	3.27	.99	4.92	.002	.08
Between-Subjects (C)	Group	26.67	1	26.67	12.31	.001	.18
Within-Subjects (CA)	Time	1.53	4	.38	1.93	.100	-
	Time × Group	9.11	4	2.28	11.49	.000	.40
Between-Subjects (CA)	Group	4.05	1	4.05	2.03	.200	-
Within-Subjects (O)	Time	10.59	4	2.65	12.53	.000	.18
	Time × Group	8.52	4	2.13	10.08	.000	.15
Between-Subjects (O)	Group	16.76	1	16.76	7.55	.008	.12
Within-Subjects (L)	Time	11.91	4	2.98	14.45	.000	.20
	Time × Group	2.20	4	.55	2.67	.030	.05
Between-Subjects (L)	Group	6.80	1	6.80	3.19	.080	-

Note: C = content; CA = communicative achievement; O = organization; L = language.

Table 5

Multivariate Tests for Writing Ability Subscales

Effect	Multivariate	Value	F	Hypothesis	Error df	P-Value df
Time (C)	Wilks' Lambda	.300	31.15	4	54	.000
Time × Group (C)	Wilks' Lambda	.750	4.57	4	54	.003
Time (CA)	Wilks' Lambda	.899	1.52	4	54	.200
Time × Group (CA)	Wilks' Lambda	.590	9.22	4	54	.000
Time (O)	Wilks' Lambda	.480	14.50	4	54	.000
Time × Group (O)	Wilks' Lambda	.550	11.12	4	54	.000
Time (L)	Wilks' Lambda	.480	14.88	4	54	.000
Time × Group (L)	Wilks' Lambda	.840	2.49	4	54	.050

Note: C = content; CA = communicative achievement; O = organization; L = language.

Figure 4

Scores of Writing Ability Components of Multimodal and Monomodal Groups across Time
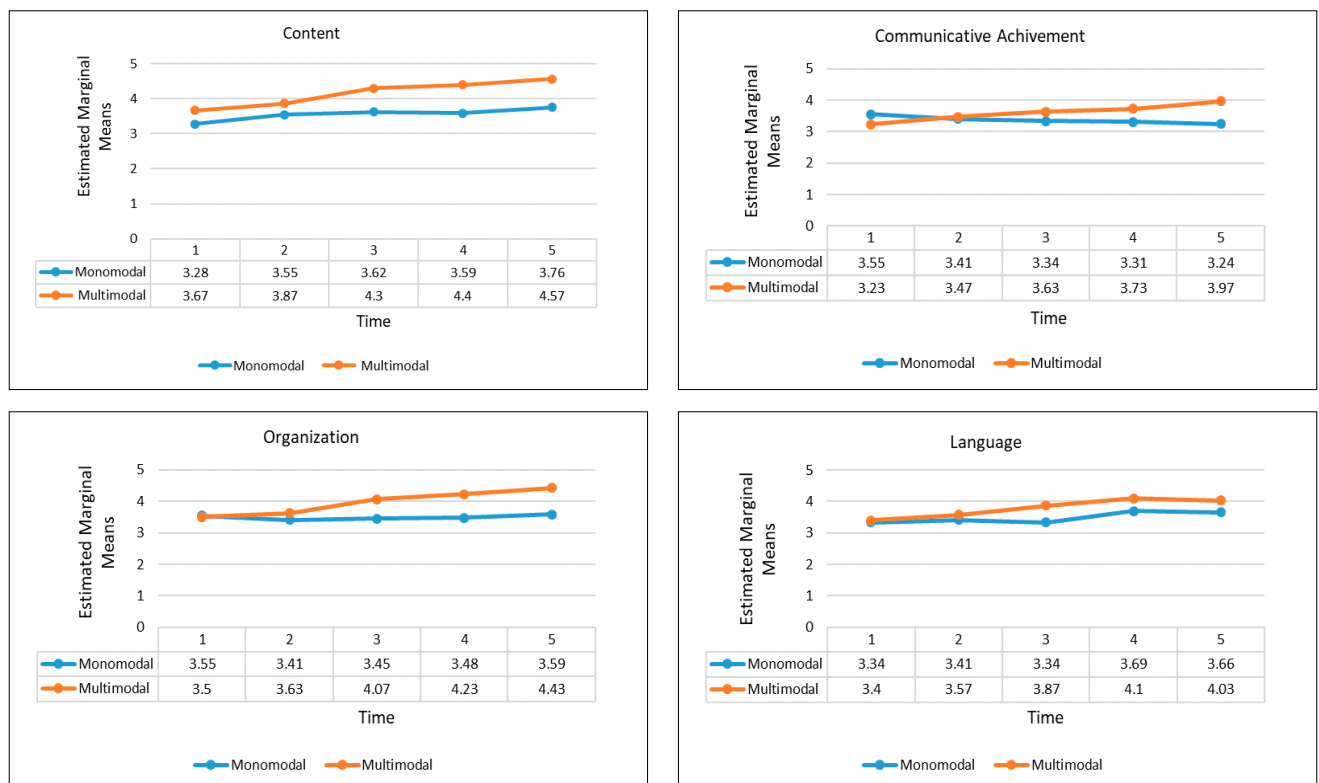
Discussion

This research investigated the differential impacts of the two types of composition (multimodal and monomodal) on the writing ability of Iranian EFL learners across five times. Firstly, it was hypothesized that multimodal writing had more differential effects on EFL learners' writing ability in terms of content, communicative achievement, organization, and language. As the results of the mixed between-within ANOVA revealed, the interaction effect between time and the type of writing was significant. That is, the impact of writing type on the writing ability was influenced by the amount of time spent on cause and effect writing tasks about health issues as well as social, educational, and environmental concerns.

In assessing the main effect of the type of writing on writing ability, the researchers came to the conclusion that DMC group who composed digitally outperformed the monomodal group in their writing ability in content and organization but not in communicative achievement and language subscales. The participants of both groups composed cause and effect essays and it seems that they could get a good grasp of content and organization subscales as they showed a better performance in using relevant content to inform their audience as well as organizing coherent texts using appropriate cohesive devices. On the contrary, they appeared less successful in the use of straightforward ideas, a wide range of lexis, and complex grammatical forms in their compositions. Therefore, the first research hypothesis was partially confirmed, as the DMC group did not outperform the monomodal group in communicative achievement and language. The global mean scores were higher and this proves the advantages of DMC. With respect to DMC group outperformance in content and organization components, the results corroborate with the findings by Kimmons, et al. (2017), Nobles and Paganucci (2015), and Vandommele et al. (2017) all claiming the superiority of the multimodal type of instruction over the monomodal one. This finding can be explained with regard to the affordances provided by the multimodal as compared to the monomodal instruction of writing. As multiple modes are provided to the learners, the process of meaning-making will be facilitated (Mayer, 2009; Mayer & Moreno, 2003) since the potential for cognitive processing will be activated based on the constructivist view of multimedia learning through which learning is constructed by the students' interaction with multimedia environments (Mayer, 2003).

Regarding the absence of multimodality impact on communicative achievement and language components, the results are in line with Collins and Pascarella (2003) and Neuhauser (2002). One possible explanation for the lack of effect of composition type on communicative achievement may be the abstract concept of communicative achievement and the little familiarity of the participants with the appropriate register that the learners need to use in their writing tasks. As a matter of fact, content, organization, and language as the components of writing ability seem so tangible to the learners that they cope with manipulating them more easily than a concept as abstract as the register which rarely seems easy to them to perceive (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016). Besides, the absence of the effect of writing type on language subscale may be attributed to the complexity of the learners' interlanguage system (Selinker, 1992) that needs to be cognitively and progressively developed across time regardless of the type of composition to which the participants were exposed.

As the second hypothesis of the study, it was assumed that multimodal and monomodal writing affect writing ability components (content, communicative achievement, organization, and language) differently across time. Concerning the main effect of time, the researchers concluded that time played a critical role in developing the writing ability of both groups in three subscales of content, organization, and language in cause and effect essays. That is, the participants of both groups could improve their writing ability across time regardless of the type of modes they implemented in their writing. As a result, the second research hypothesis was also partially confirmed meaning that practice across time led to the improved writing ability in three subscales of content, organization, and language.

This finding lends support to the studies by Bae and Lee (2012) and Wang and Chen (2018) who reported that time factor had a crucial role in the development of the learners' writing output. One possible explanation for such a result may lie in the critical role of time in developing any skill. Specifically speaking, the more the participants practiced the linguistic, visual, and aural modes across time, the more they could achieve in the construction of their intended meaning. That is to say, the change in language learning starts from an initial state and develops across time based on the available resources. As learners practice writing across time, they get expertise to plan the content and form, consider audience and style, reread, and revise their compositions (Miller et al., 2008; Wind, 2013). Although the participants showed improvement in writing ability in three components of content,

organization, and language, the communicative achievement subscale was not influenced by the amount of practice the learners dealt with across time. This finding may be accounted for by the abstract nature of communicative achievement. As communicative achievement is defined as the ability to hold the target audience's attention effectively and to communicate straightforwardly, it seems that learners need more time and expertise to master this subscale (Cambridge English Language Assessment, 2016).

Though this study provides evidence that DMC plays a significant role in the development of writing ability, there are a number of limitations that need to be acknowledged and considered in future research. First, a major weakness resides in the small sample size (N = 59) which suggests caution in interpreting the results. Another caveat of the study derives from the fact that intact classes were used in the study; as a result, some variables related to the participants such as their aptitude, creativity, and engagement might not have been entirely taken into account. The study was also limited in not taking the teachers' role in multimodal writing instruction into account.

Conclusion

The present research was a significant endeavor which may contribute to a better understanding and implementation of the technologically-laden instruction of writing skill in Iran. As the findings revealed, the integration of innovative techniques such as DMC into writing instruction alongside continuous exposure and practice across time can lead to higher gains in writing ability. While it seems quite essential to train L2 writers to compose multimodally, they should also be reminded that digital composition is different from other informal writings they deal with electronically. Unlike informal digital writing such as texting, chatting, informal e-mailing, or video-making, digital composition requires its own framework like the appropriate use of grammar, mechanical conventions, unity, organization, cohesion, and coherence to which the learners' attention should be paid. Supporting the digital natives with the related instruction and sufficient practice in digital format together with familiarizing them with the typical errors specific to each mode can assist them in producing their best output.

From a practical point of view, there is a critical need to redefine the educational practices used so far to teach writing skill. First of all, the findings of the study may have beneficial implications for the teachers/professors of L2 writing. Handling the class

successfully with the technologically-based instruction seems an unquestionable skill for the twenty-first-century teachers who need to get well-informed about the innovative techniques of writing instruction via continuing professional development programs. Furthermore, the study seems useful to language learners. As language learners practice multimodality in contextualized writing assignments, they will broaden their view of writing and the more practice they do, the more mastery they achieve in going beyond the textual mode in their compositions. Curriculum developers and policy-makers may also benefit from the findings of the study by updating the curriculum of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) so that pre-service teachers get aware of the emerging technologies for writing instruction. And finally, the current findings add substantially to our understanding of the status of multimodal practices in Iran.

Since literacy in the twenty-first century means being able to communicate multimodally, it is recommended that future studies further our insight into the role of wikis, blogs, and social networks in the development of language skills and subskills such as listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary. Additionally, considering teachers' role in multimodal instruction of different language skills would be a very useful follow-up to the current study. As writing instruction is a multifaceted art and digital literacy is an emerging and popular discipline, an in-depth understanding of the potentials of multimodality can be one of the pre-requisites to the effective implementation of innovative pedagogical practices in an EFL situation like Iran.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Agee, J., & Altarriba, J. (2009). Changing conceptions and uses of computer technologies in the everyday literacy practices of sixth and seventh graders. *Research in the Teaching of English, 43*, 363-396.

Anderson, K., & Kachorsky, D. (2019). Assessing students' multimodal compositions: An analysis of the literature. *English Teaching: Practice & Critique, 18*(3), 312-334. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/ETPC-11-2018-0092

Bae, J., & Lee, Y. (2012). Evaluating the development of children's writing ability in an EFL context. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 9*(4), 348-374. https://doi.org/10.1080/15434303.2012.721424

Baron, D. (2014). From pencils to pixels: The stages

of literacy technologies. In E. Wardle & D. Downs (Eds.), *Writing about writing: A college reader* (pp. 690-710). Bedford/St. Martin's.

Bax, S. (2011). Normalization revisited: The effective use of technology in language education. *International Journal of Computer Assisted Language Learning and Teaching, 1*(2), 1-15.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2006). Negotiating the local in English as a lingua franca. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 26*, 197-218. https://doi.org/10.1017/S02671905060001

Collins, J., & Pascarella, E. T. (2003). Learning on campus and learning at distance: A randomized instructional experiment. *Research in Higher Education, 44*(3), 315-326.

Cope, B., & Gollings, G. (2001). (Eds). Multilingual book production: Technology drivers across the book production supply chain, from the creator to the consumer. Common Ground.

Cope, B., & Kalantzis, M. (2015). *A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Learning by design*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Crystal, D. (2011). *Internet linguistics: A student guide*. Routledge.

De Palma, M. J., & Alexander, K. P. (2015). A bag full of snakes: Negotiating the challenges of multimodal composition. *Computers and Composition, 37*, 182-200. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1016/j.compcom.2015.06.008

Dymoke, S., & Hughes, J. (2009). Using a poetry wiki: How can the medium support pre-service teachers of English in their professional learning about writing poetry and teaching poetry writing in a digital age? *English Teaching: Practice and Critique, 8*, 91-106.

Ferdig, R. E., & Pytash, K. E. (2014). *Exploring digital multimodal composition and digital writing*. IGI Global.

Garcia, J., & de Caso, A. (2006). Comparison of the effects on writing attitudes and writing self-efficacy of three different training programs in students with learning disabilities. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *43*(4/5), 272-289. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2006.06.006

Grapin, S. E., & Llosa, L. (2020). Toward an integrative framework for understanding multimodal L2 writing in the content areas. *Journal of Second Language Writing*. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100711

Hawisher, G., & Selfe, C. (2004). Becoming literate in the information age: Cultural ecologies and the literacies of technology. *College Composition and Communication, 55*(4), 642-692. https://doi.org/10.2307/4140666

Hockly, N. (2012). Digital literacies. *ELT Journal, 66*, 108-112. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr077

Hundley, M., & Holbrook, T. (2013). Set in stone or set in motion? Multimodal and digital writing with preservice English teachers. *Journal of adolescent & Adult Literacy, 56*(6), 500-509.

Intrator, S. M., & Kunzman, R. (2009). Who are adolescents today? Youth voices and what they tell us. In L. Christenbury, R. Bomer, & P. Smagorinsky (Eds.), *Handbook of adolescent literacy research* (pp. 29-46). Guilford.

Jewitt, C., & Kress, G. (2003). *Multimodal literacy*. Peter Lang Publishing.

Jiang, L. (2018). Digital multimodal composing and investment change in learners' writing in English as a foreign language. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 40*, 60-72. https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2018.03.002

Jiang, L., & Gao, J. (2020). Fostering EFL learners' digital empathy through multimodal composing. RELC Journal, 51(1), 70-85. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0033688219898565

Jiang, L., & Luk, J. (2016). Multimodal composing as a learning activity in English classrooms: Inquiring into the sources of its motivational capacity. System, 59, 1-11. http://dx.doi.org /10.1016/j.system.2016.04.001

Jiang, L., & Ren, W. (2020). Digital multimodal composing in L2 learning: Ideologies and impact. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1080/15348458.2020.1753192

Jiang, L., Yang, M., & Yu, S. (2020). Chinese ethnic minority students' investment in English learning empowered by digital multimodal composing. TESOL Quarterly, *54*(4), 954-979. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/tesq.566

Kern, R., & Schultz, J. M. (2005). Beyond orality: Investigating literacy and the literary in second and foreign language instruction. *The Modern Language Journal, 89*, 381-392.

Khadka, S., & Lee, J. C. (2019). *Bridging the multimodal gap: From theory to practice*. University Press of Colorado.

Kim, Y., & Belcher, D. (2020). Multimodal composing and traditional essays: Linguistic performance and learner perceptions. *RELC Journal, 51*(1), 86-100. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0033688220906943

Kimber, K., & Wyatt-Smith, C. M. (2010). Secondary students' online use and creation of knowledge: Refocusing priorities for quality assessment and learning. *Australian Journal of Educational Technology, 26*(5), 607-625.

Kimmons, R., Darragh, J. J., Haruch, A. & Clark, B. (2017). Essay composition across media: A quantitative comparison of 8th grade student essays composed with paper vs. chromebooks. *Computers and Composition, 44*, 13-26. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compcom.2017.03.001

Kress, G. (2003). *Literacy in the new media age*. Routledge.

Lee, S., Lo, Y., & Chin, T. (2021). Practicing multiliteracies to enhance EFL learners' meaning making process and language development: A multimodal problem-based approach. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 34,* 66-91. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.1614959

Li, M., & Akoto, M. (2021). Review of recent research on L2 digital multimodal composing. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching, 11*(3), 1-16. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJCALLT.2021070101

Lim, F. V., & Toh, W. (2020). Children's digital multimodal composing: Implications for learning and teaching. *Learning, Media, and Technology, 45*(4), 1-11. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1080/17439884.2020.1823410

Luke, C. (2000). Cyber-schooling and technological change: Multiliteracies for new times. In B. Cope & M. Kalantzis (Eds.), *Multiliteracies: Literacy learning and the design of social futures* (pp. 69-91). Routledge.

Lutkewitte, C. (2014). *Multimodal composition: A critical source book*. Bedford/St. Martin's.

Mayer, R. E. (2003). The promise of multimedia learning: Using the same instructional design methods across different media. *Learning and Instruction, 12*, 125-141. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0959-4752(02)00016-6

Mayer, R. E. (2009). *Multimedia learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Mayer, R. E., & Moreno, R. (2003). Nine ways to reduce cognitive load in multimedia learning. *Educational Psychologist, 38*(1), 43-52. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3801_6

Mehlenbacher, B., Miller, C. R., Covington, D., & Larsen, J. S. (2000). Active and interactive learning online: A comparison of web-based and conventional writing classes. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication, 43*(2), 166-184. https://doi.org/10.1109/47.843644

Miller, K. S., Lindgre, E., & Sullivan, P. H. (2008). The psycholinguistic dimension of second language writing: Opportunities for research and pedagogy using computer keystroke logging. *TESOL Quarterly, 42*(3), 433-454. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2008.tb00140.x

Mohiti Asli, Y. (2019). *Developing a multiliteracies pedagogy in mature female English language learners in Iran* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Windsor.

Moje, E. (2009). Standpoints: A call for new research on new and multi-literacies. *Research in the Teaching of English, 43*(4), 348-362.

Naghdipour, B. (2016). English writing instruction in Iran: Implications for second language writing curriculum and pedagogy. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 32*, 81-87. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2016.05.001

Naghdipour, B., & Koç, S. (2015). The evaluation of a teaching intervention in Iranian EFL writing. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher, 24*, 389-398.

Neuhauser, C. (2002). Learning style and effectiveness of online and face-to-face instruction. *American Journal of Distance Education, 16* (2), 99-113. http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1207/S15389286AJDE1602_4

New London Group. (1996). A pedagogy of multiliteracies: Designing social futures. *Harvard Educational Review, 66*, 60-92.

Nobles, S., & Paganucci, L. (2015). Do digital writing tools deliver? Student perception of writing quality using digital tools and online writing environments. *Computers and Composition, 38*, 16-31. https://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compcom.2015.09.001

Oldakowski, T. (2014). A multimodal assignment that enriches literacy learning: The problem. *Insight: A Journal of Scholarly Teaching, 9*, 70-77. https://doi.org/10.46504/09201406ol

Pegrum, M. (2009). *From blogs to bombs: The future of digital technologies in education*. UWA Publishing.

Rance-Roney, J. (2010). Jump-starting language and schema for English-language learners: Teacher-composed digital jumpstarts for academic reading. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy, 53*, 386–395. http://dx.doi.org/10.1598/JAAL.53.5.4

Sankey, M. D. (2006). A neomillennial learning approach: Helping non-traditional learners studying at distance. *The International Journal of Education and Development Using Information and Communication Technology, 2*(4), 82-99.

Sapp, D. A., & Simon, J. (2005). Comparing grades in online and face-to-face writing courses: Interpersonal accountability and institutional commitment. *Computers and Composition, 22*, 471-498. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compcom.2005.08.005

Scheiter, K., Schubert, C., & Schüler, A. (2017). Self-regulated learning from illustrated text: Eye movement modelling to support use and regulation of cognitive processes during learning from multimedia. *British Journal of Education, 88*(1), 80-94. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjep.12175

Scheiter, K., Schüler, A., Gerjets, P., Huk, T., & Hesse, F. W. (2014). Extending multimedia research: How do prerequisite knowledge and reading comprehension affect learning from text and pictures. *Computers in Human Behavior, 31*, 73–84. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2013.09.022

Selinker, L. (1992). *Rediscovering interlanguage*. Longman.

Shin, D., & Cimasko, T., & Yi, Y. (2020). Development

of metalanguage for multimodal composing: A case study of an L2 writer's design of multimedia texts. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 47,* 7-14. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100714

Skains, R. L. (2017). The adaptive process of multimodal composition: How developing tacit knowledge of digital tools affects creative writing. *Computers & Composition, 43*, 106-117. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.compcom.2016.11.009

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1995). Problems in output and the cognitive processes they generate: A step towards second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 16*, 371-391.

Takayoshi, P., & Selfe, C. L. (2007). Thinking about multimodality. In L. C. Selfe (Ed.), *Multimodal composition: Resources for teachers* (pp. 1-12). Hampton Press, Inc.

Terrell, S. (2011). Integrating online tools to motivate young English language learners to practice English outside the classroom. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching, 1*(2), 16-24. https://doi.org/10.4018/ijcallt.2011040102

Unsworth, L., & Mills, K. (2020). English language teaching of attitude and emotion in multimodal composition. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 47,* 1-17. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100712

Vandommele, G., Branden, K.V., Gorp, K. V., & Maeyer, S. D. (2017). In-school and out-of-school multimodal writing as an L2 writing resource for beginner learners of Dutch. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 36*, 23-36.

Wang, S. P., & Chen, Y. L. (2018). Effects of multimodal learning analytics with concept maps on college students' vocabulary and reading performance. *Educational Technology & Society, 21*(4), 12-25.

Warschauer, M. (2009). Digital literacy studies: Progress and prospects. In M. Baynham, & M. Prinsloo (Eds.), *The future of literacy studies* (pp. 123-140). Palgrave Macmillan.

Wind, A. M. (2013). *Second language writing development from a dynamic systems theory perspective* [Conference presentation]. Lancaster University Postgraduate Conference in Linguistics and Language Teaching. Lancaster University, UK.

Yeh, E., & Mitrich, S. (2020). Bridging activities: Social media for connecting language learners' in-school and out-of-school literacy practices. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching, 10*(3), 48-66. http://dx.doi.org/10.4018/IJCALLT.2020070104

Yi, Y., Shin, D., & Cimasko, D. (2020). Multimodal composing in multilingual learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 47*, 7-17. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100717

Zhang, Y., & O'Halloran, K. (2019). Empowering the point: Pains and gains of a writer's traversals between print-based writing and multimodal composing. *Linguistics and Education, 51,* 1-11. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2019.04.003

Appendix

WRITING ASSESSMENT SCALE

B2	Content	Communicative achievement	Organization	Language
5	All content is relevant to the task. Target reader is fully informed.	Uses the conventions of the communicative task effectively to hold the target reader's attention and communicate straightforward and complex ideas, as appropriate.	Text is well-organized and coherent, using a variety of cohesive devices and organizational patterns, to generally good effect.	Uses a range of vocabulary, including less common lexis appropriately. Uses a range of simple and complex grammatical forms with control and flexibility. Occasional errors may be present but do not impede communication.
4	Performance shares features of bands 3 and 5.			
3	Minor irrelevances and/or omissions may be present. Target reader is on the whole informed.	Uses the conventions of the communicative task to hold the target reader's attention and communicate straightforward ideas.	Text is generally well-organized and coherent, using a variety of linking words and cohesive devices.	Uses a range of everyday vocabulary appropriately, with occasional inappropriate use of less common lexis. Uses a range of simple and some complex grammatical forms with a good degree of control. Errors do not impede communication.
2	Performance shares features of bands 1 and 3.			
1	Irrelevances and misinterpretation of task maybe present. Target reader is minimally informed.	Uses the conventions of the communicative tasks in generally appropriate ways to communicate straightforward ideas.	Text is connected and coherent, using basic linking words and a limited number of cohesive devices.	Uses everyday vocabulary generally appropriately, while occasionally overusing certain lexis. Uses simple grammatical forms with a good degree of control. While errors are noticeable, meaning can still be determined.
0	Content is totally irrelevant. Target reader is not informed.	Performance below band 1.		

Self-Regulated Learning and Sociodemographic Factors in Students' L1/L2 Writing Proficiency

Anela Nikčević-Milković[ID], Katica Balenović[ID], Jasminka Brala-Mudrovčić[ID]

University of Zadar

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Anela Nikčević-Milković, Department of Teacher Education Studies in Gospić, University of Zadar, dr. A. Starčevića 12, 53000 Gospić, Croatia.
E-mail: amilkovic@unizd.hr

Background: Academic writing is a complex and demanding activity in which students have to regulate their (meta)cognitive, motivational, and linguistic processes and self-regulatory writing strategies might serve as a tool to accomplish writing tasks. The research was done as part of a verification of Zimmerman & Risemberg's (1997) model of self-regulation in writing. Previous research on the relationships between students' self-regulated learning (SRL) and writing performance has suggested their positive impact.

Purpose: This paper provides insights into Croatian university students' first/second language (L1/L2) writing performance regarding the SRL strategy use.

Method: Students' written performance in both L1 (Croatian) and L2 (English) was checked, and the contributions of SRL and sociodemographic factors were explored. A total of 104 students from the initial and final years of teacher education study were included in the research. A quantitative research method was used including the following instruments: The learning orientation scale, the Perceived academic control scale, the Croatian version of the values subscale, Writing strategies questionnaire.

Results: Descriptive analyses revealed that students'L1/L2 writing proficiency was on average. There was no difference between L1 and L2 writing proficiency. Furthermore, the study showed that students mostly initiated learning goal orientation, writing tasks were valuable to them and they had more results of academic control over the mentioned tasks. Participants mostly used the most effective writing strategy - checking and correcting the text. The final study year students had better L1 writing proficiency compared to the initial study year students. Such results were expected since students were exposed to the extensive L1 academic experience, which was not the case with the exposure to learning English as a foreign language (EFL learning), resulting in a lower level of L2 essay writing proficiency. Success in L1 writing proficiency was explained more by cognitive and less by sociodemographic and motivational factors. The greater academic control over writing assignments and the lower goal orientation on avoiding effort was shown, the greater success was achieved. Success in L2 writing proficiency was mostly explained by cognitive factors, but also significantly by some sociodemographic and motivational factors. The higher GPA in L2 and the less asking for help and writing by the model strategy was employed, the greater success in writing assignments was achieved. The study indicated the importance of mastering SRL, especially cognitive factors in both L1 and L2 learning.

Implication: The implications of the study were discussed which may benefit L1/L2 teachers to teach their students SRL writing strategies by which students could self-regulate their thoughts, feelings, and behaviours throughout the writing process to achieve academic success.

Keywords*: cognitive factors, language competence, motivational factors, self-regulated learning (SRL), sociodemographic factors, writing proficiency*

Introduction

Attaining a high level of L1/L2 language proficiency depends on a learner's self-regulatory skills (Oxford, 2001). According to Pintrich, "self-regulated learning is an active, constructive process whereby learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate, and control their cognition, motivation, and behaviour, guided and constrained by their goals and the contextual features in the environment" (2000, p.453). Self-regulation processes mediate between personal and environmental characteristics and achievement.

Due to the high complexity of writing skills necessary, students in the Republic of Croatia, as well as in much more developed countries (Graham, 2013; Graham & Rijlaarsdam, 2016; Graham, 2019; Kuhlemeier et al., 2013; Neumann, 2012) display inadequate writing performance. In the State Graduation Examination, which comes at the end of secondary education of students in the Republic of Croatia, organised by the *National Centre for External Evaluation of Education*, students are supposed to write an essay that is scored according to descriptors. After the implementation of the State Graduation Examination at the end of the school years 2017/2018 and 2018/2019, essays written in the mother tongue (Croatian) were judged to have been so poor that there was a public debate about changing and/or abolishing the point threshold as a part of this "maturity" exam. In the end, essay writing have still been retained in this important national exam, as a valuable indicator of students' knowledge and skills in written expression and reading literacy, and as such a valuable "passport" to enter the academic world, which requires a higher, creative and critical level of thinking with which essay writing is in a reciprocal relationship.

Research Background

Essay writing is (meta)cognitively very demanding: one of the most demanding linguistic activities, which requires combinatorics of knowledge and skills and includes both higher and lower cognitive processes of information. According to Graham et al. (2018), writing is a complex and challenging task requiring considerable instructional time to master. To activate and manipulate the much-needed SRL (meta) cognitive strategies through the processes of writing, it is necessary to motivate the authors of the text to use them, and to shape the context in which they will be used. Many authors have affirmed that motivation for writing declines from lower to higher grades of studying (Graham et al., 2021; Nikčević-Milković, Jerković, & Brala-Mudrovčić, 2015). Graham (2006) observed that some studies found that motivation increases with age, but some other studies found that it declines over the years. Motivation for writing has been largely ignored among researchers (Wilcox et al., 2016).

In the research investigating the process of L1 writing performance there has been empirical evidence for the positive impact of self-regulation in writing to strategy use such as goal setting, planning, evaluating, revising, and avoiding distractions (e.g., Golparvar & Khafi, 2021; Bruning et all., 2013; Pajares et all., 1999; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). In the process of

second/foreign language learning/teaching in Croatia, inefficient educational strategies are found, writing skills are the most difficult to acquire, and many students lack the basic skills needed to write appropriately (Mihaljević Djigunović & Bagarić, 2007). Previous research on L2 strategy use has demonstrated that learners who received SRL instruction significantly outperformed those who received regular writing instructions (Almazloum, 2018). SRL instruction helped them to become autonomous learners who "could select writing topics; construct, perform, and evaluate strategies; and accomplish tasks independently" (Almazloum, 2018, p.253). Due to the status of English as the *lingua franca* of the modern digital world, the need to achieve a higher level of writing proficiency is a priority worldwide.

Gap in Knowledge and Purpose of the Study

Since the process of writing in general, especially L2 writing, requires a lot of effort that includes demanding cognitive activities, at the same time there is a lack of studies that investigate and compares students' L1 and L2 writing skills according to SRL, in this article we want to provide insights into students' L1/L2 writing performance at university level in Croatia, with special emphasis on the influence of SRL on writing proficiency. Moreover, since the review of the literature revealed that none of the existing studies employed a model of SRL in both L1and L2 writing in the Croatian context in specific, we intend to explore and establish differences between L1/L2 essay writing strategy used by Croatian university students as a contribution to the research on the role of SRL to students' writing proficiency in general. The findings of the study could encourage L1/L2 teachers to teach their students SRL writing strategies by which they could self-regulate their thoughts, feelings, and behaviours throughout the writing process to achieve academic success.

Literature Review

Zimmerman & Risemberg's (1997) model of self-regulation in writing

Zimmerman & Risemberg's (1997) model of self-regulation in writing best explains this process, that is, it describes how an individual uses self-directed thoughts, feelings, actions, and context: a) when preparing to write, b) during the writing process and c) immediately after the text has been written, to achieve certain literary goals. These authors propose three general categories of processes used in the control and supervision of writing as well as important

elements of self-regulation of written expression. These processes are the following: 1) environmental (regulation of physical and/or social conditions of writing), 2) behavioural (regulation of motor aspects of writing) and 3) personal (regulation of beliefs, interests and emotions related to writing). They reciprocally influence each other through feedback, including cyclical processes in which the author of a text monitors the success of the use of writing strategies and techniques, and continues, changes, or

avoids what they do by writing, depending on the results of the feedback. The use of these processes is closely related to the assessment of one's competence in writing, the so-called *self-efficacy*. Due to the emphasis on the (meta)cognitive and social aspects of developing and learning written expression, this model is called the socio-cognitive model.

Self-regulation of written expression according to this model takes place in a cycle with three phases:

Figure 1

Zimmerman & Risemberg's (1997) Model of Self-Regulation in Writing
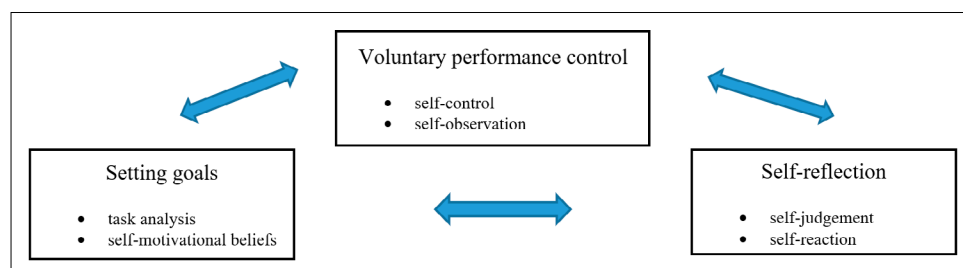
(1) Setting goals, which precedes the text writing process and has two related categories of self-regulatory processes: a) task analysis and b) self-motivational beliefs. Task analysis involves setting the goals that are to be achieved by the written text and developing a strategy for planning the writing of the text. Self-motivational beliefs include a set of personal variables for the individual author: intrinsic interest in writing, self-efficacy or assessment of competence in written expression, the expectation of success in writing, the value of writing and orientation towards the goal. Self-motivational beliefs are closely related to an individual's success in each written performance because an individual will not effectively use cognitive writing processes if they are not motivated to use them. (2) Voluntary performance control includes processes influencing motor effort during the exercise of writing skills. This phase includes self-control and self-observation. Self-control processes include a set of self-regulatory processes such as self-instruction, imagining, focusing, and task strategy. Processes of self-observation refer to the monitoring of specific aspects of one's performance, the conditions that exist around performance and the products of that performance. This is related to monitoring strategies related to awareness of writing tasks during performance and control of the process. (3) Self-reflection involves processes that occur after performance effort and that return the process to the first phase. It involves two self-reflective processes: self-judgement and self-reaction. Self-judgement is the evaluation of

performance according to some value criterion. Self-reaction contains two processes: self-satisfaction/dissatisfaction as the result of task perception and adaptive/defensive conclusions (about whether to change one's approach to self-regulation in the next performance or not).

Self-regulated Learning Processes in Writing

Theorists in the field of writing psychology have established various SRL strategies that authors use in controlling personal, behavioural, and environmental processes in written expression (Graham & Harris, 2000; Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997). These strategies include the following: goal setting, planning, seeking information, note storage, text organisation, self-evaluation, review of the text, self-verbalisation, self-reward, seeking help, using models, and so on. The use of SRL strategies is an important element in the development of competent writing (Nikčević-Milković, 2018).

When composing a text, students use specific approaches to learning and SRL processes.In-depth information processing is the more powerful process, which results in better writing performance (Magno, 2009). Individuals who have a greater interest in the topic they are writing about are better able to use more effective writing strategies that will then facilitate their writing processes, which are very (meta)cognitively demanding. Conversely, if they worry about whether they have developed writing

skills, they will not revert to using effective writing strategies. On the other hand, superficial information processing only increases routine memorisation strategies. The skill of written expression requires independent thinking and self-discipline, which means that it does not seek much help from others. It does not require much manipulation of the surroundings either, because the authors primarily focus on the task of writing, and much less on their surroundings. SRL processes increase the performance of essay writing in two ways: firstly, self-regulatory mechanisms, such as planning, monitoring, evaluation, and checking, provide building blocks or subprocesses that can function together with other subprocesses (such as text execution procedure, design of programmes for efficient execution of a written task, etc.); secondly, use of these mechanisms can affect some changes in the factors involved, leading to strategic changes in behaviour during writing. Repeated success in using writing strategies leads to thoughts and feelings that increase the self-efficacy of writing, which in turn increases intrinsic motivation as well as the desire to seek better strategic solutions and ultimately results in better achievements in written expression (Zimmerman & Risemberg, 1997; Graham & Harris, 2000). Self-regulatory incentives have been positively related to literacy outcomes in many studies (Camping, Graham, Ng, Aitken, Wilson, & Wdowin, 2020; Graham et al., 2021; Schiefele & Schaffner, 2016; Samanian & Roohani, 2018).

How successful a self-regulated student will be, does not depend exclusively on the skills of written expression and successful use of writing strategies, but also on the assessment of one's self-efficacy, value, interest, and expectations from the task: the motivation to write. Assessment of student self-efficacy determines the choice of writing activities, willingness to put effort into written expression, and persistence in continuing the task to the end. Students whose self-efficacy score is low avoid written expression, which quickly puts them in a vicious circle of academic failure. The reluctance to write leads to less and less effort being made by students and the lack of effort makes it difficult to develop the skill of writing and so they fail to develop this skill. Therefore, motivation is a key factor of SRL for initiating (meta) cognitive writing processes.

Motivational and Cognitive Components of Learning and Writing

Pintrich (2003) highlights the general framework of expectations and value theories as useful for exploring motivational components and distinguishes three types of these components: (1) expectation components (control beliefs and efficiency beliefs); (2) value components (goal orientation and task value); and (3) affective components (emotional reactions to the task). Among the motivational variables important for initiating (meta)cognitive processes of learning and writing are the target orientations of learning which can be as follows: (1) focused on learning or mastering the task; (2) focused on performance (e. g. showing others that we know something, standing out from the crowd); and (3) aimed at avoiding effort (Rijavec & Brdar, 2002). Constructs of goal orientations and task evaluation belong to value theory, one of the four categories of Eccles & Wigfield's motivation theory (2002). A task value is defined as the quality of a task that contributes to increasing or decreasing the probability that a person will choose that task. The expectation of success in performing a certain task affects the motivation for their choice, and it will also affect to what extent the individual will be engaged in it. The construct of perceived academic control is a student's belief in whether they possess the necessary traits that can contribute to their achievements in the academic environment (Respondek, Seufert, Stupnisky & Nett, 2017). Perceived academic control positively predicts enjoyment and achievement, as well as negatively predicts boredom and anxiety.

Mastering L1/ L2 Writing Competence

In the field of second language acquisition (SLA), researchers have been trying to explain and understand the relationship between L1 and L2 acquisition (for example contrastive analysis, error analysis, interlanguage and crosslinguistic influences). According to Ellis (1994), the degree of influence of the first language (L1) on second language acquisition is a controversial topic in second language research. Mastering L2 communicative language competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) is different to mastering L1 communicative language competence since there are numerous factors (for example individual differences, learner's background, classroom instruction) that might influence the L1/L2 learning process. Although there are similarities between L1 and L2 writing, Hyland (2004) pointed out significant L1/L2 differences (issues) that have to be addressed: different learning experience/ environment, different language knowledge/ proficiency, different attitudes/sensibility towards L1/ L2 learning, different preferences for ways of organising text, different writing processes and different understandings of text uses. Besides, Hyland (ibid.) emphasised L2 learners' "cultural schemata", or the cultural differences that can impact L2 writers'

production, as well as effective L2 writing instructions as an important part of L2 learning/teaching. In the process of foreign language learning/teaching, writing was neglected for a long time (Carter & Nunan, 2001). There have been many practical textbooks and books published since the 1980s (e. g. Jolly, 1984; Olshtain, 2000) that emphasise the importance of writing as one of the most challenging aspects of second/foreign language learning (Hyland, 2004). Nowadays, in the global digital world, good writing skills, especially in English, are needed for global network communication, and teaching how to write good and creative texts should be incorporated into writing instruction in English at all levels of EFL learning. L2 teachers should provide tasks to encourage students to create effective texts involving different kinds of knowledge. According to Hyland (2004), L2 writers should be taught to employ five kinds of knowledge to create effective texts: content knowledge (knowledge of ideas and concepts); system knowledge (knowledge of syntax and lexis); process knowledge (knowledge of how to prepare and carry out the writing task); genre knowledge (knowledge about the different genres and their value); context knowledge (knowledge of readers expectations). In other words, a wide range of knowledge is needed to write successfully in English. Assessing student writing (knowledge) is crucially important for both teachers and students. The assessments of texts should include clear criteria for assessing writing performance. The Council of Europe has devised a description of language learning, teaching, and assessment (*Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*, 2001). In our research, we set the criteria for L2 assessment respecting this framework.

Goals and Research Questions

In the light of research on self-regulatory writing processes in the Croatian education system (Nikčević-Milković, 2018) and the relatively small number of studies on students' L1 (Croatian) and L2 (English) writing proficiency at the university level, as well as no previous studies that explore the influence of SRL on students' L1/L2 writing proficiency at other educational levels (primary, secondary) in the Republic of Croatia, the present study was designed to answer the following research questions: 1) Is there a difference between L1 (Croatian) and L2 (English) writing proficiency? 2) Is there a correlation between L1/L2 writing proficiency and SRL (cognitive and motivational factors), and sociodemographic factors? 3) Are there differences in L1/L2 writing proficiency between students in their initial and final study years? 4) Are there any contributions of SRL strategies, and

sociodemographic factors to L1 writing proficiency? 5) Are there any contributions of SRL strategies, and sociodemographic factors to L2 writing proficiency? Based on theoretical knowledge and previous empirical findings (Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo & Polz, 2021; Hammann, 2005; Nikčević-Milković, 2007; Nikčević-Milković, 2014; Nikčević-Milković & Brala-Mudrovčić, 2015; Graham et al., 2021), the following hypotheses are put forward: H1 - Students' writing proficiency is better in their L1 (Croatian) than in their L2 (English). H2 - There is a correlation between students' L1/l2 writing proficiency and SRL, and sociodemographic factors. H3 – Final study year students' writing proficiency is higher than initial study year students' writing proficiency. H4 - A greater contribution of cognitive than motivational and sociodemographic factors in writing proficiency is expected in both languages.

Method

Participants

The sample consisted of 104 students, of whom 53 were from the initial study years (1st and 2nd year; average age M = 20.3; standard deviation SD = 0.69) and 51 were from the final study years (4th and 5th year; M = 22.2; SD = 0.57). The research was conducted on a non-probabilistic (intentional) appropriate sample of students from a higher educational institution that educates primary teachers. At the university level, students have five hours of Croatian language classes per week over five years of university study and three hours of English language classes per week during the first two years of university study. Researchers respected all ethical rules (participants were introduced to the aim of the research as well as later to the results; we use a code instead of students' names; students participated in research voluntarily and anonymously).

Instruments

Learning orientation scale (Rijavec & Brdar, 2002) – the Croatian version of the *Components of self-regulated learning questionnaire* (CRSL) (Niemivirta, 1996) was used to examine the target orientations in learning, which includes:(1) learning goal orientation (student's focus on learning and acquisition of new knowledge and skills; statement example: "*The most important thing for me in school is to learn as much as possible*"); (2) achievement goal orientation (student's thoughts on evaluating their abilities and performance concerning other students; statement example: "*I am very satisfied when I am better than others in school*");and (3) the goal orientation of avoiding effort

(the student's endeavours to invest as little effort as possible in learning; statement example: "*I try to learn school material with as little effort as possible*"). The scale has a total of 15statements, five on each subscale. The answers are given on a five-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree; 5 – strongly agree). The total score on the individual subscales represents a simple additive linear combination of responses to all statements divided by the number of items. A higher overall score on a particular scale means a higher degree of student focus on learning, performing, or avoiding effort. The reliability coefficients of the internal consistency type (Cronbach's alpha) determined in this research were: .77 for the first subscale, .77 for the second subscale, .86 for the third subscale, and .78 for the whole scale, respectively.

Beliefs about the cognitive values of achieving success in writing tasks were examined by the *Croatian version of the values subscale* (six statements) of the self-esteem questionnaire, goal orientations, perceived control and values (Niemivirta, 1999). It can be important for a student to get good grades in a subject or area of writing because these allow him or her to achieve some other goals (enrol in the desired university, get confirmation of their competencies, receive praise from teachers or parents, and so on). Starting from the control-value theory, Burić (2010) constructed six statements that sought to capture the positive evaluation of success and negative evaluation of failure in mathematics tests and Nikčević-Milković (2012) adapted the scale to writing tasks. The answers are given on a five-point Likert scale (from 1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree). The total score represents a simple additive linear combination of responses to all statements divided by the number of items. Statement number three was inversely scored. Statement examples are: "*Good grades in writing assignments are important for my future*" (positive evaluation of success); "*I would be very affected by failure on a writing task*" (negative evaluation of failure). In Burić's research (2010) satisfyingly high reliability of the scale, α = .78 was confirmed, as well as in this research of α = .71.

Cognitive assessment of control over achievement in writing tasks was examined through the *Perceived academic control scale* by Perry, Hladkyj, Pekrun, & Pelletier (2001), which was adapted for the field of writing. The research used the Croatian version of the scale (Sorić & Burić, 2010), adapted by the author Nikčević-Milković (2012) for the field of writing, which contains eight statements that are used to examine students' beliefs about the causes of their success and failure in writing tasks, that is, whether students possess certain traits that can affect their

success in writing assignments. Students assess the degree to which they can control their achievement in writing tasks on a five-point Likert scale (from 1 – strongly disagree to 5 – strongly agree). A statement example is: "*I think I am the most responsible for the grades I get for the written texts.*" The total score represents a simple additive linear combination of answers to all items, where the statements 3, 5, 6 and 8 are inversely scored. Perry et al. (2001) state the coefficients of reliability (internal consistency) are greater than α = .80, and the reliability coefficient in this research is α = .70, respectively.

The use of writing strategies was examined by the *Writing strategies questionnaire* (Nikčević-Milković, 2012). It contains 21 items. The answers are given on a five-point Likert type scale (from 1 – never used to 5 – used very often). The questionnaire has the following three subscales: (1) Writing planning and self-direction; (2) Checking and correcting the text; and (3) Asking for help and writing by the model, which has appropriate reliability (internal consistency) in the range from .77 to .86 (Nikčević-Milković, 2012). In this research, the reliability (internal consistency) was calculated at first for this questionnaire after writing a text in the Croatian language and it is α = .88 for the first subscale, α = .71 for the second subscale, α = .87 for the third subscale, and α = .87 for the overall scale. The reliability of this questionnaire after writing the text in the English language is α = .88 for the first subscale, α = .86 for the second subscale, α = .86 for the third subscale, and α = .90 for the overall scale, respectively.

Procedure

The research was conducted during the academic year 2019-2020 after the consent of the competent university institution had been obtained. Having read the purpose of the research, the participants participated in it voluntarily. Essays and questionnaires were written and filled in anonymously, but under a code that served only to link what was written. The respondents filled out the following: (1) a basic demographic data questionnaire listing the year of study, general success at the end of high school and average success in Croatian and English in high school for first year students, and for senior students their GPA during their studies and GPA from courses in Croatian and English language; (2) three standardised self-assessment questionnaires for measuring motivational factors – the learning goals orientations scale (Rijavec & Brdar, 2002); success expectancy scale (measured with two items: "*In this task, I expect to be: successful or unsuccessful*";"*I expect to receive a grade on this task*": *(from 1 to 5*);and

scale of achievement value (Nikčević-Milković, 2012); and finally (3) two self-assessment questionnaires for measuring cognitive factors – a questionnaire about writing strategies (Nikčević-Milković, 2012) and perceived academic control scale in writing tasks (Nikčević-Milković, 2012).

The application of the questionnaire and the writing of essays in both Croatian and English on the same topic: *"The position of the Croatian or English language in global processes"* was through four meetings during regular classes. The initial and final meetings lasted about 25 minutes, and the second and third meetings lasted about 50 minutes. The lengths of the written texts were 350 words (essays in English) and 600 words (essays in Croatian), corresponding to the length of the texts at the *State Graduation Examination* in Croatia. Before writing the essay test, students read two professional texts entitled as follows: (1) *Of all European nations, Croats learn the mother tongue the least in schools: five in primary school, four hours in secondary school* by Ščitar (2019)[1]; (2) *English as a Global Language* by Crystal (2009), which served to encourage students to think about a topic to write about in essays. Between the first and second meetings (a gap of one week) they could think intensively about the topic of the essay, research the topic on the Internet and in the departmental library and ask Croatian and English language teachers at the department about things they wanted to know. They filled out questionnaires during the initial and final meeting; during the former, they also read two professional texts, during the second meeting they wrote an essay in the Croatian language (50 minutes), and during the third meeting they wrote an essay in

the English language (50 minutes).

The evaluators of the quality of the written essays were Croatian and English teachers, who scored the essays according to the criteria of the State Graduation Examination (Centre for External Evaluation of the Republic of Croatia)[2]. Two evaluators for Croatian texts and two evaluators for English texts corrected the texts and the inter-rater reliability was sufficient (r = .87). We randomised the texts – some students were writing in Croatian first, while some students were writing in English. Essays in Croatian were corrected according to descriptors that are measures of the quality of a text and bring a specific number of points. The following criteria were evaluated: planning, task completion, coherence and cohesion, vocabulary, and grammar. Points and related grades were as follows: 7 - 14 = 1; 15 - 17 = 2; 18 - 20 = 3; 21 - 22 = 4; 23 - 24 = 5. The State Graduation Examination in English is in line with the CEFR (*The Common European Framework of Reference for Language*) grading scale, and the points gained in the exam, according to the scale, were converted into grades ranging from 1 (not satisfactory) to 5 (excellent). The collected data were processed using the software system Statistica 13.2.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive Statistics

To answer the first research question, basic descriptive data for sociodemographic, motivational, and cognitive factors were calculated.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for the sociodemographic factors

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Minimum	Maximum
	Study year	2.94	1.711	.04	-1.78	1	5
GRADES	Task grade - Croatian	2.68	.938	-.04	-.63	1	5
	Task grade - English	2.64	1.165	.32	-.62	1	5
	GPA – Croatian language	3.51	.718	-.17	-.36	2	5
	GPA - English language	3.16	.969	.24	-1.13	2	5
	GPA	3.62	.602	-.71	.61	2	5

The results of basic descriptive data for the sociodemographic factors showed that respondents in the Croatian language task (L1) achieved an average

score (M = 2.68, SD = .938), and their grades ranged over the full grade range (from 1 to 5). In the English language task (L2), they also achieved an average result (M = 2.64, SD = 1.165), and their grades for this task also ranged across the full grade range. The

---

[1] Ščitar, B. (2019). Od svih europskih naroda materinski jezik u školama najmanje uče Hrvati: u osnovnoj pet, u srednjoj četiri sata [Of all European nations, Croats learn the Mother Tongue the least in Schools: Five hours in primary school and four hours in secondary school], Večernji list (June 29th 2019.), Zagreb, Croatia.

[2] http://sikavica.joler.eu/drzavna-matura/eseji/upute-za-pisan-je-eseja

average grade in the Croatian language at the university for students of higher study years or from high school for students of lower study years was M = 3.51 (SD = .718) and ranged from 2 to 5. The grade point average in the English language at the university (or high school) was slightly lower (M = 3.16, SD = .969) and, also ranged from 2 to 5. The general average was higher (M = 3.62, SD = .602) and ranged from 2 to 5. The researcher observed from the second paper (along with that of the written essay), that half of the respondents wrote a draft before writing the assignment in the Croatian language (46%), while slightly fewer wrote a draft before writing the assignment in the English language (38%). The obtained indices of asymmetry and flatness in the frames are acceptable for the implementation of parametric analyses. According to Kline (2005), the asymmetry and flatness parameters should range from asymmetry < 1, to flatness < 3.

Table 2

Descriptive statistics for the motivational factors

	%		Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Minimum	Maximum
	Yes	No						
Croatian draft	46	54						
English draft	38	62						
LGO			4.20	.514	-.49	-.39	3	5
AGO			3.09	.787	.25	-.05	1	5
GOAE			3.31	.806	.24	.27	1	5
ES	86	14						
GE			3.11	.728	-.03	.14	1	5
VALUE			3.31	.806	.24	.27	1	5

Note: LGO – Learning goal orientation, AGO - Achievement goal orientation, GOAE - Goal orientations on avoiding effort, ES - Expectancy of success, GE - Grade Expectancy: from 1 to 5, VALUE - Value of the writing task

The results of the basic descriptive data for motivational factors showed that the highest average result was in using adaptive motivational learning strategies of learning goal orientations (M = 4.20, SD = .514); the result of using adaptive strategies of achievement goal orientations was slightly lower (M = 3.09, SD = .787), as well as the use of maladaptive strategies of goal orientations focused on avoiding effort (M = 3.31, SD = 0.806). The majority of respondents (86%) expected success in written assignments. Regarding the expected grade, the average was M = 3.11 (SD = .728). The average score value of the writing tasks was M = 3.31(SD = .806). The obtained indices of asymmetry and flatness in the frames are acceptable for the implementation of parametric analyses.

Table 3

Descriptive statistics for the cognitive factors

	%		Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Minimum	Maximum
	Yes	No						
AC			3.75	.476	.33	-.08	3	5
PSS			3.16	.731	.45	-.01	2	5
CCS			3.81	.824	-.56	.21	1	5
AH			1.85	.636	.59	-.28	1	4
SAC	82	18						
SAE	73	27						

Note: AC - Academic control, PSS - Planning and self-direction strategies, CCS - Checking and correction strategies, AH - Asking for help and writing by the model strategies, SAC - Satisfaction with the accomplished – Croatian, SAE - Satisfaction with the accomplished - English

The results of the basic descriptive data for cognitive factors showed a higher result on academic control (M = 3.75, SD = .476), and the results ranged from 3 to 5. Regarding the cognitive writing strategies, respondents mostly used adaptive checking and correction of the text strategies (M = 3.81, SD = .824), followed by adaptive planning and self-direction strategies (M = 3.16, SD = .731), and the least used was adaptive asking for help and writing by the model strategies (M = 1.85, SD = .636). Satisfaction with the results obtained in the Croatian language test was shown by 82% of the respondents, while satisfaction with the results achieved in the L2 test was slightly lower, but still high at 73%. The obtained indices of asymmetry and flatness in the frames are acceptable for the implementation of parametric analyses.

Correlation Analyses

Correlation analyses were performed to answer the second research question.

Table 4 shows that low positive statistically significant correlations were found between L2 writing proficiency, the GPA in Croatian and the GPA in English.

Table 5 shows that a low negative statistically significant correlation was found between L1 writing proficiency with goal orientations on avoiding effort, and a low positive statistically significant correlation between L2 writing proficiency with writing value.

Table 6 shows that low positive statistically significant correlations were found between the L1 writing proficiency with academic control and the checking and correcting of the text strategies and a low negative correlation with asking for help and writing by the model strategies. Also, the results showed that a moderate positive statistically significant correlation was found between L2 writing proficiency and academic control and low positive statistically significant correlations of this success with adaptive planning and self-direction strategies and checking and correction of the text strategies.

Difference between groups

To answer the third research question, a t-test was made (t-test for independent samples).

Table 4

Correlation Coefficients Between L1/L2 Writing Proficiency with the Sociodemographic Factors

	Study year	GPA in Croatian	GPA in English	GPA
L1 writing proficiency	-.04	.18	.09	.09
L2 writing proficiency	.06	.22*	.32*	.10

*p < .05

Table 5

Coefficients of Correlations Between L1/L2 Writing Proficiency and Motivational Factors

	Learning goal orientation	Achievement goal orientation	Goal orientations on avoiding effort	Writing value	Expectancy of success
L1 writing proficiency	-.07	-.07	-.21*	-.60	.04
L2 writing proficiency	.00	.07	.03	.22*	.17

Note: *p < .05

Table 6

Coefficients of Correlations Between L1/L2 writing Proficiency and Cognitive Factors

	Academic control	Planning and self-direction strategies	Checking and correcting the text strategies	Asking for help and writing by the model strategies
L1 writing proficiency	.27*	.03	.22*	-.31*
L2 writing proficiency	.41*	.27*	.22*	-.19

Note: *p < .05

Table 7 shows the difference between students in the initial study years (1ˢᵗ group) and those in the final study years (2ⁿᵈ group) in L1 writing proficiency is statistically significant (t = - 2.44, p <. 05). Final year students (2ⁿᵈ group) had better L1 writing proficiency (M = 3.10, SD = .862) compared to first year students (1ˢᵗ group) (M = 2.29, SD = .825).

Multivariate Hierarchical Regression Analysis (HRA)

Since the bivariate analyses were significant, an HRA was performed in three steps (Table 8) between different sociodemographic factors (study year, GPA in Croatian language, GPA), motivational factors (learning-focused goal orientations, achievement-focused goal orientations, goal-focused orientations on avoiding effort, writing task value, expectancy of success) and cognitive factors (academic control, planning and self-direction strategies, checking and correction of the text strategies, asking for help and writing by the model strategies) with L1 writing proficiency as a criterion. In the first step sociodemographic data were included, and it was shown that these predictors explain 2% of the variance of the criteria. In the second step, by introducing motivational variables, the stated predictors were able to explain an additional 3% of the variance of the

Table 7

Checking the difference in L1/L2 Writing Proficiency Between Two Groups of Students: Initial Study Years (1ˢᵗ group) and Final Study years (2ⁿᵈ group)

		Mean	Std. Deviation	t-test	P	F-ratio	P
L1 writing proficiency	1ˢᵗ group	.29	.825	-2.44*	.022	1.09*	.874
	2ⁿᵈ group	3.10	.862				
L2 writing proficiency	1ˢᵗ group	2.71	.825	.732	.470	1.37	.577
	2ⁿᵈ group	2.46	.967				

*$p < .05$

Table 8

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for L1 Writing Proficiency Tasks as a Criterion

Predictors	β	Multiple R	R²	Δ R²	F
Step 1		.21	.45	.02	1.55
Study year	-.08				
GPA in Croatian	.16				
GPA	.12				
Step 2		.35	.12	.05	1.61
Study year	-.14				
GPA in Croatian	.20				
GPA	.16				
LGO	-.05				
AGO	-.05				
GOAE	-.21*				
WTV	-.11				
ES	.03				
Step 3		.50	.25	.15	2.49
Study year	-.14				
GPA in Croatian	.03				
GPA	.20				
LGO	-.05				
AGO	.11				
GOAE	-.25*				
WTV	-.10				
ES	-.07				
AC	.29*				
Planning and Self-Direction	-.15				
Checking and Correction of the Text	.19				
Asking for Help Strategies	-.16				

*Note: * p < .05 Legend: LGO - Learning Goal Orientation, AGO - Achievement Goal Orientation, GOAE - Goal Orientation on Avoiding Effort, WTV - Writing Task Value, ES- Expectancy of Success*

criteria, and the only significant negative predictors are goal-focused orientations on avoiding effort (β = -.21; p < .05). In the third step, by introducing cognitive variables, these predictors were able to explain an additional 10% of the variance of the criteria, and a significant negative predictor remains goal-focused orientations on avoiding effort (β = - .25; p < .05), and a significant positive predictor is academic control (β = .29; p < .05).

In the first step for the criterion L2 writing proficiency, sociodemographic predictors were able to explain 9% of the variance of the criteria, and the only significant positive predictor was the GPA in the English language (β = 0.34; p < .05). In the second step, by adding motivational variables, the predictors were able to explain an additional 2% of the variance of the criteria, and the significant positive predictor once again is the GPA in the English language (β = .31; p < .01). In the third step, by adding cognitive variables, the predictors were able to explain an additional 15% of the variance of this criteria, and a significant positive predictor remains the GPA in the English language (β = .27; p < .01), and a significant negative predictor is asking for help and writing by the model strategies (β = -.21; p < .01).

Results

The examined group of students achieved average results in L1/L2 writing proficiency. In previous research by Nikčević-Milković & Brala-Mudrovčić (2015), the assessment of the quality of written essays (L1) of the students (future teachers in the Croatian education system) was positively asymmetrically distributed, which means that most respondents had lower assessments of the quality of essay tasks. There was the same result in research from Graham et al. (2021) in other countries (the USA and Australia) where 51% of students' scores indicated minimal mastery of writing at grade level, with another 45.7% of scores representing partial mastery of writing at grade level. According to Applebee & Langer (2011); Graham, Cappizi, Harris, Hebert, & Morphy (2014), the reason for minimal or partial mastery of writing lies in writing activities across the different educational disciplines involved writing without composing (note-taking, filling in blanks on a worksheet, one-sentence responses, etc.) which did not develop essay writing. On the contrary, Brooks (2013) stated that instructors should focus not only on the sentence level but also on the use of rhetorical and discourse skills if they wish to enhance their

Table 9

Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for L2 Writing Proficiency Tasks as a Criterion

Predictors	β	Multiple R	R²	Δ R²	F
Step 1		.35	.12	.09	4.55
Study year	.06				
GPA in Croatian	.34*				
GPA	.10				
Step 2		.42	.18	.11	2.52
Study year	.12				
GPA in Croatian	.31**				
GPA	.07				
LGO	-.04				
AGO	.02				
GOAE	.04				
WTV	.20				
ES	.09				
Step 3		.59	.35	.26	4.08
Study year	.19				
GPA in Croatian	.27**				
GPA	.06				
LGO	-.07				
AGO	.09				
GOAE	-.07				
WTV	.16				
ES	.05				
AC	.21				
Planning and Self-Direction	.21				
Checking and Correction of the Text	.07				
Asking for Help Strategies	-.21**				

Note: * *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01 Legend: LGO - Learning Goal Orientation, AGO - Achievement Goal Orientation, GOAE - Goal Orientation on Avoiding Effort, WTV - Writing Task Value, ES- Expectancy of Success

students' writing skills. In previous research by Golparvar & Khafi (2021, p1) authors mentioned that second language writing is "complicated and time-consuming and demands considerable concentration, effort, and perseverance. The cognitive process theory of writing (Hayes, 2000) mentioned that both cognitive and affective factors contribute to L1/L2 writing. Self-efficacy and self-regulation strategies are assumed to play an important role in the writing process." Golparvar & Khafi (2021) in their research demonstrated the positive impact of self-efficacy beliefs on the students' L2 summary writing performance which concurred with other research findings on the role of self-efficacy in L1/L2 writing (e.g., Bruning et al., 2013; Sun & Wung, 2020). Such findings were explained by the assumption that students with a high level of confidence in their writing tend to dedicate more effort, attention, and time to their writing performance (Golparvar & Khafi, 2021).

The examined group of students in our research have an average GPA in Croatian and English at the university level. The overall success during the studies (GPA) is slightly higher than the GPA from the two language courses. Half of our respondents before writing essay tasks in the Croatian language (L1) wrote a plan or draft, while significantly fewer wrote a plan before writing essay tasks in the English language (L2). The reason for such result might be in a lack of teaching students how to plan and revise texts (Dockrell, Marshall, & Wyse, 2016; Rietdijk, van Weijen, Janssen, van den Bergh, H., & Rijlaarsdam, 2018). Eysenck & Keane (2010) have also shown that text outline planning gives good writing results as opposed to producing detailed rough drafts. Moreover, Vandermeulen, Maeyer, Steendam, & Lesterhuis (2020) confirmed that text planning and revision behaviour extended through regular schooling.

The findings of our study also demonstrated that the respondents mostly used adaptive motivational strategies of learning-focused goal orientations[3], while they used less adaptive achievement-focused goal orientations[4] and maladaptive strategies of goal-focused orientations on avoiding effort[5]. Such results were expected and were in line with previous research that affirmed that learning-focused goal orientation

was associated with many positive cognitive, affective, and behavioural outcomes, while achievement-focused goal orientation was associated with less adaptive outcomes (Pintrich, 2000). Most of the respondents in our research expected success in writing performances; however, the grade they expected was mostly average, which, it seems, was a realistic estimate. The value of writing achievement[6] was also average. According to the results of previous research, expectations and values directly affect the choice of achievement as well as perseverance, effort, and performance in the chosen activity (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000; Graham et al., 2021).

Furthermore, in terms of cognitive variables, respondents in our study showed a higher score in academic control[7]. In a similar vein, Sorić (2014), Nikčević-Milković & Lončarić (2019) found that cognitive control has a significant positive effect on writing achievement as well as on academic achievements in general. Our respondents mostly used adaptive cognitive writing strategy checking and correction of the text, followed by adaptive strategy planning and self-direction, and they used the least by far the adaptive asking for help and writing by the model strategy. This outcome partially confirms previous research findings on adaptive writing strategy use (Nikčević-Milković & Lončarić 2019) in which an increase in the adaptive writing strategies of planning and self-direction and asking for help and writing by the model was found after the second attempt of essay writing, and what improved students' writing proficiency. Previous studies have demonstrated that asking for help was more likely from classroom peers than from their teachers (Williams & Takaku, 2011). In Nikčević-Milković's (2007) previous research, students also used planning and revising strategies but not in the most useful way for the best quality of the text. In other words, the author stated that exposure to academic writing in most courses at the university level increased planning and revising strategies use. Most of our respondents showed satisfaction with the results achieved in essay writing, more so with the result of writing an essay in the mother tongue compared to the result of an essay in a foreign language, which was to be expected.

Research results also showed that success in the L1 writing proficiency was negatively associated with

---

[3] Learning-focused goal orientations are the target orientations of learning focused on learning or mastering the task (Rijavec & Brdar, 2002).

[4] Achievement-focused goal orientations are the target orientations of learning focused on performance (e.g. show others that we know something, stand out) (Rijavec & Brdar, 2002).

[5] Goal-focused orientations on avoiding effort are the target orientations focused on avoiding effort (Rijavec & Brdar, 2002).

[6] The value of writing achievement defined as the quality of a task that contributes to increasing or decreasing the probability that a person will choose that task (Nikčević-Milković, 2012).

[7] Perceived academic control is a student's belief in whether they possess the necessary traits that can contribute to their achievements in school (Respondek, Seufert, Stupnisky, & Nett, 2017).

maladaptive goal orientations of avoiding effort, which was to be expected, and with the use of asking for help and writing by the model strategies, and positively associated with academic control and the use of adaptive checking and correcting the text strategies. In Nikčević-Milković's (2007) previous research, students also thought that asking for help and writing by the model strategies were maladaptive writing strategies. Williams & Takaku (2011) indicated that cultural background could influence help-seeking behaviour. For example, Asian students from collectivistic societies preferred to work in small groups (so-called *collaborative learning*) while European students from individualistic societies preferred to work alone.

The results of the correlation of the examined variables showed positive correlations between the success of the L2 writing proficiency with the GPA in both L1 (Croatian) and L2 (English).So, there was a positive transfer of mother tongue learning to foreign language learning. Success in L2 writing proficiency was positively related to the motivational variable writing value and cognitive variables academic control and use of adaptive planning and self-direction strategies, and the checking and correction of the text strategies, which was to be expected. Nikčević-Milković (2015) in a previous study found that students used checking and correction of the text strategies less, although these strategies are the most important activities to achieve the quality of written texts (Alamargot & Chanquoy, 2001; MacArthur, Graham, & Harris, 2004; Nikčević-Milković, 2018). Tompkins (2008) emphasised that the strategy of correcting the text is so important because the author must use critical thinking skills to evaluate the text according to pre-set goals. Nikčević-Milković (2018) affirmed that while earlier studies considered text writing planning to be the main writing strategy, research from the 1990s continued to prove the importance of a text correction strategy as a key strategy for the overall quality of written texts.

Final study year students in our research had better L1 writing proficiency compared to first study year students, which was to be expected. However, such a direction of difference was not obtained for L2 writing proficiency. Nikčević-Milković's (2007) earlier research has also confirmed that final study year students (future teachers in the Croatian education system) write better texts in their L1 compared to the first study year students. Graham et al. (2021) confirmed such results in another country (the USA). The explanation for these results lies in the more intensive engagement of students through various writing tasks during their studies and more oral

language skills, but only in their mother tongue. As students acquire competence in a new language, their L2 writing proficiency is on a lower level than their L1 writing performance.

Success in L1 writing proficiency can be explained by sociodemographic predictors with only a 2% variance. By introducing motivational variables, the percentage of explained variance was an additional 3%. With less use of maladaptive goal orientations focused on avoiding effort the success in these tasks was greater, which was to be expected. By introducing cognitive variables, the percentage of explained variance was an additional 10%. Goal orientation focused on avoiding effort was still a negative predictor, and a positive predictor in this set of variables was academic control, which means that less avoidance of effort in learning to write and greater academic control over writing tasks means greater success in L1 writing proficiency.

Sociodemographic predictors were able to explain 9% of the variance of the success criteria in L2 writing proficiency. The higher the GPA in the English language, the greater the success in this written assignment, which was to be expected. By adding motivational variables, the percentage increased slightly to an additional 2%, and the GPA in the English language remained a significant positive predictor. By adding cognitive variables, the percentage of explanation of variance increased significantly to an additional 15%, and the GPA in the English language remained a significant positive predictor, while a significant negative predictor proved to be the use of asking for help and writing by the model strategy. So, less usage of this strategy increased success in L2 writing proficiency. Bećirović et al. (2021) in their research also indicated that cognitive strategies are significant positive predictors of students' achievement in foreign language learning. In the Croatian education system, there is still room for the development of writing proficiency in general.

Limitations and Implications

The limitation of this research is primarily in the small number of participants and in the self-assessment measures by which the data were mostly obtained, as well as in the correlation nature of the research. Students had to fill in six questionnaires with multiple items and write two texts, which was a lot to attend even though it was divided between four sessions. Participants' fatigue is one more limitation of the study as it may have affected the results. Further research may incorporate students who study at different university majors. Nevertheless, the research has theoretical and practical significance for

the development of literacy of students for whom reading and writing skills are fundamental competencies of the profession focusing on the determinants of literacy that have been shown to be significant (primarily cognitive) by the research. Giving more attention to teaching SRL (cognitive first, and then motivational factors) in writing will certainly increase the written competencies of students. The quality of L2 writing proficiency is better in the initial study years compared to the final study years. Such a result implies that when students are exposed to English language classes and practice writing, they are better at writing tasks; however, in line with the curriculum in the Republic of Croatia, in later years of the study programme, they do not have English classes at the university level. To improve writing skills in English, it would be useful for students to have English language classes during all study years. To gain better insight into students' L1/L2 writing proficiency based on SRL, an interesting follow-up study would be to conduct more extensive research in this field.

Conclusion

The study investigated differences in students' L1 (Croatian) and L2 (English) writing proficiency and the employment of SRL strategies used by Croatian university students. The findings of the study showed that there was no difference between students' L1 and L2 writing proficiency. The research results also showed that students mostly used adaptive checking and correcting the text writing strategies which are, according to many authors, the most important strategies of essay writing. The following strategies used were adaptive planning and self-direction strategies, and (by far the least) an adaptive asking for help and writing by the model strategies, which students perceived as maladaptive. The findings of the study highlighted the positive relationship between students' writing proficiency and SRL strategy use as well as the importance of cognitive factors in both the L1 and L2 teaching/writing process. The study also showed that success in writing proficiency depends on the GPA in both courses (L1 and L2) but with differences in writing strategy use. Success in L1 writing proficiency is positively related to academic control and the use of checking and correcting the text writing strategies, while success in L2 writing proficiency is positively related to the writing task value, academic control, use of adaptive planning and the self-direction writing strategies and checking and correcting the text writing strategies. Furthermore, the study showed that final study year students had better L1 writing proficiency compared

to the initial study year students, which was not the case for L2 writing proficiency. The result indicates that more L2 practice is needed to increase the quality of writing proficiency. For this reason, it is necessary to introduce more L2 classes at the university level in the Croatian education system. The research has theoretical and practical significance for the students' development of literacy focusing on SRL, showing that cognitive factors are crucial for writing proficiency. Therefore, L1/L2 teachers should encourage their students on SRL writing strategy use to become self-regulated writers. To gain better insights into the SRL strategy used in students' essay writing, an interesting follow-up study would be to use different methods of data collection procedures such as focus group interviews or to carry out a longitudinal study to examine changes in the students' writing proficiency and strategy use after receiving SRL in writing practice.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Alamargot, D., & Chanquoy, L. (2001). *Through the models of writing*. Kluwer Academic Publishers. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-010-0804-4

Almazloum, M. (2018). *A mixed methods study: The impact of self-regulated learning on L2 writing and strategy use* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. The University of Western Ontario. https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/5355

Applebee, A. N., & Langer, J. A. (2011). «EJ» extra: A snapshot of writing instruction in middle schools and high schools. *The English Journal*, *100*(6), 14-27. https://www.jstor.org/stable/23047875

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests*. Oxford University Press.

Bećirović, S., Brdarević-Čeljo, A., & Polz, E. (2021). Exploring the relationship between language learning strategies, academic achievement, grade level, and gender. *Journal of Language and Education*, *7*(2), 93-106. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2021.10771

Boekaerts, M., & Corno, L. (2005). Self-regulation in the classroom: A perspective on assessment and intervention. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *54*(2), 199-231. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2005.00205.x

Brooks, G. (2013). Assessment and academic writing: A look at the use of rubrics in the second language

writing classroom. *Kwansei Gakuin University Humanities Review*, *17*, 227-240. http://hdl.handle.net/10236/10548

Burić, I. (2010). *Provjera Pekrunove teorije kontrole i vrijednosti* [A test of Pekrun's theory of control and value] [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Zagreb.

Camping, A., Graham, S., Ng, C., Aitken, A., Wilson, J. M., & Wdowin, J. (2020). Writing motivational incentives of middle school emergent bilingual students. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 33*(9), 1-30. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-020-10046-0

Carter, R., & Nunan, D. (2001).*Teaching English to speakers of other languages.* Cambridge University Press. http://assets.cambridge.org/052180/1273/sample/0521801273ws.pdf

Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching.* Cambridge University Press.

Council of Europe (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment.* Strasbourg.

Crystal, D. (2009). *English as a global language.* Cambridge University Press.

Dockrell, J. E., Marshall, C. R., & Wyse, D. (2016). Teachers' reported practices for teaching writing in England. *Reading and Writing*, *29*(3), 409 - 434. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-015-9605-9

Eccles, J., & Wigfield, A. (2002). Motivational beliefs, values and goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *53*(1), 109-132. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135153

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition.* Oxford University Press.

Eysenck, M. W., & Keane, M. T. (2010). *Cognitive psychology: A student's handbook* (6th ed.). Psychology Press.

Golparvar, S. E., & Khafi, A. (2021). The role of L2 writing self-efficacy in integrated writing strategy use and performance. *Assessing Writing*, *47*, 100504. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2020.100504

Graham, S., & Harris, K. R. (2000). The role of self-regulation and transcription skills in writing and writing development. *Educational Psychologist*, *35*(1), 3 - 12. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3501_2

Graham, S. (2006). Writing. In P. Alexander & P. Winne (Eds.), *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 457 - 478). Erlbaum.

Graham, S. (2013). *It all starts here: Fixing our national writing crisis from the foundation*. https://srsdonline.org/teachers-of-writing/

Graham, S., Cappizi, A., Harris, K. R., Hebert, M., & Morphy, P. (2014). Teaching writing to middle school students: A national survey. *Reading &*

Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, *27*, 1015-1042. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-013-9495-7

Graham, S., & Rijlaarsdam, G. (2016). Writing education around the globe: Introduction and call for a new global analysis. *Reading and Writing*, *29*, 781–792. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s11145-016-9640-1

Graham, S., Liu, K., Aitken, A., Ng, C., Bartlett, B., Harris, K. R., & Holzapel, J. (2018). Effectiveness of literacy programs balancing reading and writing instruction: A meta-analysis. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *53*(3), 279 - 304. https://doi.org/10.1002/rrq.194

Graham, S. (2019). Changing how writing is taught. *Review of Research in Education*, *43*(1), 277 - 303. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732X18821125

Graham, S., Camping, A., Harris, K. R., Aitken, A., Wilson, J. M., Wdowin, J., & Ng, C. (2021). Writing and writing motivation of students identified as English language learners. *International Journal of TESOL Studies*,*3*(1), 1 - 13. https://doi.org/10.46451/ijts.2021.01.01

Hammann, L. (2005). Self-regulation in academic writing tasks. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *17*(1), 15 - 26. http://www.isetl.org/ijtlhe/

Hayes, I. R. (2000). A new framework for understanding cognition and affect in writing. In R. Indrisano & J. R. Squire (Eds.), *Perspectives on writing: Research theory and practice* (pp. 6-44). International Reading Association.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Second language writing.* Cambridge University Press.

Jolly, D. (1984). *Writing tasks.* Cambridge University Press.

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling.* The Guilford Press. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731509336986

Kuhlemeier, H., Van Til, A., Hemker, B., De Klijn, W., & Feenstra, H. (2013). *Balans van de schrijfvaardigheid in het basis – en speciaal basisonderwijs 2* [Second evaluation of writing skills in primary education and special education]. Stichting Cito Instituut voor Toetsontwikkeling.

MacArthur, C., Graham, S., & Harris, K. (2004). Insights from instructional research or revision with struggling writers. In L. Allal, I. Changuoy, & P. Largy (Eds.), *Revision: Cognitive and instructional processes* (pp. 125 - 137). Kluwer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-1048-1_8

Magno, C. (2009). Self-regulation and approaches to learning in English composition writing. *TESOL Journal*, *1*, 1-16. https://ssrn.com/abstract=1579404

Mihaljević Djigunović, J., & Bagarić, V. (2007). English in Croatia – From needs to achievements. *Metodika*, *8*(1), 38-50.

Neumann, A. (2012). DESI – Text production. In M.

Torrance, D. Alamargot, M. Castello, F. Ganier, O. Kruse, A. Mangen, & L. V. Waes (Eds.), *Learning to write effectively: Current trends in European research* (pp. 193 - 197). Emerald Group Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1108/S1572-6304(2012)0000025055

Niemivirta, M. (1996). *Motivational-cognitive components in self-regulated learning* [Conference presentation]. 5th International Conference on Motivation, Landau, Germany.

Niemivirta, M. (1999.). Individual differences in motivational and cognitive factors affecting self – regulated learning: A pattern – oriented approach. In P. Nenniger, R. S. Jäger, A. Frey, & M. Wosnitza (Eds.), *Advances in motivation*. Verlag Empirische Pädagogik.

Nikčević-Milković, A. (2007). Cognitive and metacognitive writing processes in students of different educational level. In G. Shiel, I. Stričević, & D. Sabolović-Krajina (Eds.), Literacy without boundaries. *In 14th European Conference on Reading* (pp. 133 - 137). Croatian Reading Association.

Nikčević-Milković, A. (2012). *Samoregulacija učenja u području pisanja* [Self-regulation of learning in the field of writing] [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Zagreb.

Nikčević-Milković, A. (2014). *Pregled kognitivnih i motivacijskih čimbenika pisanja* [An overview of cognitive and motivational writing factors]. *Psihologijske Teme*, *23*(2), 189 – 208.

Nikčević-Milković, A. (2015). Istraživanje samoregulacije učenja kod studenata u tri temeljna obrazovna područja: Pisanju, *čitanju* i matematici [Research of self-regulation of learning in students in three basic educational areas: Writing, Reading and Mathematics]. In *Zbornik prispevkov konference EDUvision 2015 ''Modern Approaches to Teaching Coming Generation''* (pp. 521 - 537). EDUvision.

Nikčević-Milković, A., & Brala-Mudrovčić, J. (2015). Provjera instruktivne intervencije procesa samoregulacije pisanja i čitanja na kvalitetu pisanih uradaka studenata [Checking the instructive intervention of the process of self-regulation of writing and reading on the quality of students' written works]. In *Zbornik prispevkov konference EDUvision 2015 „Modern Approaches to Teaching Coming Generation "*(pp. 538 - 558). EDUvision.

Nikčević-Milković, A., Jerković, A., & Brala-Mudrovčić, J. (2018). Ispitivanje nekih komponenti samoregulacije učenja u domenama čitanja i pisanja kod učenika različite dobi i roda [Examination of some components of learning self-regulation in the domains of reading and writing in students of different ages and genders]. *Napredak*, *159*, 1-2, 73 - 99.

Nikčević-Milković, A. (2018). Samoregulacija i pisano izražavanje [Self-regulation and written

expression]. *Suvremena Psihologija*, *21*(2), 161 – 185. https://doi.org/10.21465/2018-SP-212-03

Nikčević-Milković, A., & Lončarić, D. (2019). Changes in the self-regulation of learning experience after negative self-evaluation of essay writing school task. In V. Petkova, T. Stefanov, & V. Chukov (Eds.), *3leCSHSS: Conference Proceedings* (pp. 99-110). Center for Open Access in Science. https://doi.org/10.32591/coas.e-conf.03

Oxford, R. (2001). Language learning strategies. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 166-172). Cambridge University Press.

Perry, R. P., Hladkyj, S., Pekrun, R. H., & Pelletier, S. T. (2001). Academic control and action control in the achievement of college students: A longitudinal field study. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *93*, 776 - 789. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.93.4.776

Pintrich, P. R. (2000). The role of goal orientation in self-regulated learning. In M. Zeinder (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 451-502). Academic. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-012109890-2/50043-3

Pintrich, P. R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 95*(4), 667-686. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.95.4.667

Respondek, L., Seufert, T., Stupnisky, R., & Nett, U. E. (2017). Perceived academic control and academic emotions predict undergraduate university student success: Examining effects on dropout intention and achievement. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *8*, 243 - 261. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.00243

Rietdijk, S., van Weijen, D., Janssen, T., van den Bergh, H., & Rijlaarsdam, G. (2018). Teaching writing in primary education: Classroom practice, time, teachers' beliefs and skills. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *110*(5), 640 - 663. https://doi.org/10.1037/edu0000237

Rijavec, M., & Brdar, I. (2002). Coping with school failure and self-regulated learning. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, *17*(2), 177 - 194. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF03173257

Samanian, S., & Roohani, A. (2018). Effects of self-regulatory strategy development on EFL learners' descriptive writing and reflective thinking. *Research in English Language Pedagogy*, *6*(1), 95 - 116.

Schiefele, U., & Schaffner, E. (2016). Factorial and construct validity of a new instrument for the assessment of reading motivation. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *51*, 221-237. https://doi.org/10.1002/rrq.134

Sorić, I., & Burić, I. (2010). Skala akademske kontrole [Academic Control Scale]. In I. Tucak Junaković, V. Ćubela Adorić, Z. Penezić, & A. Proroković (Eds.), *V. Zbirka psiholologijskih skala i upitnika*. Sveučilište

u Zadru.

Sorić, I. (2014). *Samoregulacija učenja* [Self-regulation of Learning]. *Možemo li naučiti učiti*. Naklada Slap.

Tompkins, G. E. (2008). *Teaching writing: Balancing process and product*. Pearson.

Zimmerman, B. J., & Risemberg, R. (1997). Becoming a self-regulated writer – A social cognitive perspective. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *22*(1), 73 - 101. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1997.0919

Vandermeulen, N., Maeyer, S. D., Steendam, E. V., & Lesterhuis, M. (2020). Mapping synthesis writing in various levels of Dutch upper-secondary education: A national baseline study on text quality, writing process and students' perspectives on writing.

Pedagogische Studien, *97*, 187 - 236.

Wigfield, A., & Eccles, J. S. (2000). Expectancy–value theory of achievement motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 25*(1), 68-81.https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1015

Wilcox, K., Jeffrey, J., & Gardner-Bixler, A. (2016). Writing to the common core: Teachers' response to changes in standards and assessments for writing in elementary schools. *Reading & Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, *29*, 903–928. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-015-9588-6

Williams, J. D., & Takaku, S. (2011). Help seeking, self-efficacy, and writing performance among college students. *Journal of Writing Research*, *3*(1), 1-18. http://dx.doi.org/10.17239/jowr-2011.03.01.1

The Effects of Extensive Journal Writing on the Vietnamese High-School Students' Writing Accuracy and Fluency

Vu Phi Ho Pham[1], Tuyen Thi Thanh Tran[2], Ngoc Hoang Vy Nguyen[1]

[1] Van Lang University

[2] Tap Son High School

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Vu Phi Ho Pham, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Van Lang University, 69/68 Dang Thuy Tram St., Ward 13, Binh Thanh Dist., Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. E-mail: ho.pvp@vlu.edu.vn

Background: The innovation of an extensive journal writing approach has made a big difference in the field of teaching academic writing. Previous studies found mixed results relating to whether journal writing could help students enhance their writing accuracy.

Purpose: The purpose of the current study is to investigate whether extensive journal writing (EJW) affects EFL high school students' writing accuracy and fluency in the writing classroom.

Method: Sixty students in one of the high schools located in Tra Vinh city participated in the study. The quasi-experimental study was conducted in ten weeks. The participants were divided into two groups, namely the control group and the experimental group. Students' writing papers, including pre-tests and post-tests, were collected for data analysis. Inter-raters were employed for analytic rating scales and written errors analysis.

Results: The results show that extensive journal writing had significant effects on the students' writing performances compared to those of students in the control group. Additionally, the number of words written in the students' post-test was increasing.

Implication: The current study's findings were innovative to the body of literature as the EJW could help students enhance their writing performances.

Keywords: extensive writing, writing accuracy, writing fluency, journal writing

Introduction

Writing is regarded as the most difficult skill to master when opposed to listening, speaking, and reading (Pham & Truong, 2021). The students often encounter difficulties in expressing ideas logically (Pham & Nguyen, 2014; Pham and Do (2021). Second language authors must not only brainstorm and coordinate ideas, but they must also know how to confidently communicate their ideas and their knowledge to readers in a coherent writing product (Richard & Renandya, 2002; Wyrick, 2021). In other words, L2 writers must learn how to choose words, structures, and order ideas for coherence and cohesion. Hyland (2019), Pham (2021a), and Pham, Huyen, and Nguyen (2020) claim that student writers must have drafting and revising techniques when working together in the writing process to improve their writing quality. Even for native language authors, writing is not an easy job. As a result, teaching writing necessitates significant effort on the part of teachers. Pham and Bui (2021) state that teaching writing skills in the Vietnamese context is still problematic to many teachers because

the appropriate approaches have not been employed sufficiently.

The appearance of an extensive journal writing approach (innovative approach) has greatly contributed to the writing teaching area. According to Herder and Clements (2012), this approach is a fluency-first approach, which motivates students to engage in the learning writing process and improves students' writing fluency. Writing journals or regular writing practices are considered activities to conduct extensive journal writing (Ho & Duong, 2015). Students have opportunities to create their writings without the teacher's control. There is no interference from the teacher; the students compose writing journals by themselves (free topics, freestyle). Accordingly, several studies investigated the effects of extensive journal writing on high school EFL students' writing accuracy and fluency.

Recently, many scholars (Luu, 2011; Hammond & Derewianka, 2001) argued that it should be essential to provide EFL students with different writing genres

Research Article

in addition to narrative writing. According to Richard and Renandya (2002), writing learners need to approach various types of writing in an academic learning context. This allows learners to experience plenty of writing genres, which benefits them in their higher education and career.

According to Yagcioglu (2015), learner autonomy needs more concern from language teachers and learners because it is helpful for students' daily lives. Autonomy can be understood as the learner's capacity to control their learning process. Therefore, it depends on each individual's characteristics, and autonomous degrees will vary from one to another (Benson, 2013). Benson also states that autonomy development can be advantageous for learners in terms of language and social responsibilities, and it will help the learners achieve learning goals better. Advocating its implementation, language teachers take responsibility for creating opportunities to help develop students' autonomy. Baghi et al. (2016) suggested using journal writing as a practical device to boost autonomous learning among students. This helps facilitate teaching and learning writing (Marefat, 2002).

Journal writing, a kind of extensive journal writing, is supposed to bring learners many potential advantages (Cisero, 2006). Students would have opportunities to perform what they have learned in a meaningful context. This means that students are able to understand what they are doing. They use their prior knowledge to express their feelings or thoughts rather than memorize what they learned. Students utilize their language to contextualize, which provides learners with a natural learning environment. Fulwiler (1982) states that journal writing does not only help students reinforce their learning experience but also promotes students' creativity. As defined, journal writing can be considered freestyle writing. Writers can apply any genres they want. In other words, they are not required to follow any model that they have learned in the classroom.

In Vietnamese high school contexts, Truong and Pham (2017) found that EFL teachers were not successful in facilitating students in the writing classroom. The teachers from eight selected high schools in Ho Chi Minh city considered grammatical features and model text as primary writing concerns. Writing instructions in Vietnamese classes are still in favor of the product writing approach. This kind of practice might limit the students' creativity in writing and lead to slow writing fluency. Furthermore, Pham and Do's (2019) findings revealed that when students compose their essays, they usually make errors in four types: tenses, collocations, spellings, and verb forms.

There needs further research to help solve the issues of writing accuracy. Therefore, this study aims to investigate whether extensive journal writing has any effects on the high school students' writing performances in Tra Vinh city, Vietnam.

Literature Review

In general, both teachers and students in EFL classrooms pay first attention to writing accuracy (Ho & Duong, 2015). The students' writing performance is usually assessed by focusing on students' error identification (Ellis et al., 2008). There have been studies for the sake of increasing students' writing accuracy (Herder & King, 2012; Puengpipattrakul, 2009; Rokni & Seifi, 2014; Sholah, 2019) and student writing fluency (Herder & Clements, 2012; Herder & King, 2012; Liao & Wong, 2010; Ho & Duong, 2015). The results of these studies were mixed. Some found that journal writing failed to help enhance students' writing accuracy, but their grammatical performance was better. Regarding writing fluency, most of the research claimed that the writing journal enabled students to write lengthier texts.

Journal writing is hoped to be a teaching alternative in EFL classrooms because it helps the students conduct more writing practices under the common belief that practice makes perfect. Puengpipattrakul (2009) conducted action research using journal writing to develop grammatical accuracy in writing. The participants were first-year university students from Thailand. The researchers analyzed the data from students' journal entries and the interview. The findings revealed that the students only improved grammar accuracy. However, the students felt more self-confident in grammar use in terms of verb tenses. Additionally, the students could self-reflect on their grammar points, which gradually enhanced students grammatical accuracy. The current study was limited in helping students enhance their grammar accuracy, not writing quality in general.

In order to see if Journal writing could trigger students to develop writing skills, Rokni and Seifi (2014) conducted a study to examine the efficacy of dialogue journal writing on students' grammar development and confidence. The experiment was done at Golestan university in Iran. Sixty-eight participants aged from 18 to 23 were randomly chosen to take part in the study. The students devoted 12 sessions to dialogue journal writing. The participants wrote a journal per session during the Spring term. Thus, there were 12 journal entries in total. The data collection instruments were a pre-test (the 1st writing papers)

and a post-test (the final writing papers). The results revealed that the students who wrote their journals improved their grammar and felt more confident when writing in English. This study had a similar limitation to Puengpipattrakul (2009)'s study.

In order to help students improve their writing fluency, Liao and Wong (2010) conducted a study of dialogue journal writing on second language learners' writing fluency, reflection, and motivation. Forty-one students in grade 10 from a school in Taiwan were invited to be the participants in the study. Each student wrote two journals a week and produced 24 journal entries in total. The researchers utilized qualitative and quantitative data instruments, including pre-tests, post-tests, questionnaires, and interviews. The results illustrated that students' writing fluency revealed positive changes. Also, students gained higher writing awareness. Another finding of the study was that learners had chances to self-reflect their thoughts by looking back at their journals. Still, helping students' writing fluency was one of the good ways in the writing classrooms, but writing accuracy should not be out of concern.

Herder and Clements (2012) conducted a study investigating the effects of a fluency-first approach (extensive journal writing) on Japanese students' writing fluency and determining students' attitudes toward this approach. The students with a two-year writing class (grades 11 and 12) were chosen as the participants in their research. The students in grade 11 took part in ten-minute writing training in a conventional method. In contrast, the twelfth-grade students practiced writing about topics for university exam preparation. The findings showed that students' writing fluency improved dramatically in terms of writing length and idea expression. Importantly, students found it beneficial for them to develop their self-expression, and they felt more motivated in writing. This study had a similar limitation to Liao and Wong (2010)'s study.

Ho and Duong (2015) researched to seek the common errors in students' writing journals and determine the effects of extensive journal writing on students' writing fluency. One hundred fifteen first-year English major students from the Faculty of Foreign Languages at Ho Chi Minh City university were chosen as the study participants. The study lasted 15 weeks, and each student had to complete five writing journals a week. The study results indicated that most students had four common errors (tenses, collocation, spelling, and verb forms). The second finding showed that extensive journal writing improved students' writing fluency assessed through writing journals' length—

the students composed longer texts. The study failed to investigate whether the writing journals affected students' writing quality in terms of accuracy.

Luu's (2010) study aimed to determine whether students can reduce writing difficulties and promote writing skills by experiencing journal writing activities. The research participants were eighty-five second-year students at the Faculty of English Linguistics and Literature of the University of Social and Humanities in Ho Chi Minh City. The experimental group students had to write extensively in the classroom, journals outside the classroom, and even do homework. Writing tests were used to assess students' writing proficiency levels. The findings showed that extended journal writing activities might help inspire students' writing and strengthen the relationship between instructors and students. Though inspiring the students to write was an important factor in helping students overcome their writing difficulties, writing skills should be measured quantitatively to guarantee their improvement.

Herder and King (2012) aimed to identify the effects of extensive journal writing on EFL learners regarding balance, fluency, accuracy, or complexity. The seventy all-girls Catholic high schools in Osaka were grouped into three classes. The researchers designed both qualitative and quantitative methods to serve their study. The research result stated that extensive journal writing was seen as a tool to express ideas and opinions. Therefore, students had a reason to write in a meaningful situation. The participants felt their improvement and self-efficacy. Moreover, the findings showed that higher-proficient students tended to turn to complexity when they felt confident in fluency while lower-proficient students focused on accuracy. Also, the learners could write down what they thought quickly when they attained a certain level of confidence. The study failed to measure the students' writing differences between the different conditions.

Recently, Sholah (2019) conducted a study to see if extensive journal writing could help students overcome difficulties in writing and improve their writing skills. Sixty second-year students, ages 17-18, from the Faculty of English Department Education of the IAI Al-Qolam Gondanglegi participated in the study. They were divided into two groups. The study found that extensive journal writing was effective in helping students' motivation and significantly enhanced their writing abilities. Extensive journal writing was a reasonable means to build teacher and student communication. The study failed to investigate whether extensive journal writing could impact students' writing fluency.

In short, previous studies found mixed results relating to whether journal writing could help students enhance their writing accuracy. Most researchers investigated if it helps students improve their grammatical performances. In a sense, grammar improvement did not guarantee writing accuracy because it did not help students change the content and organization, which lead to better writing quality. Moreover, there are limited research studies on high school students' writing performances in both accuracy and fluency. At the same time, few studies in this field have been conducted in the Mekong Delta region. From these reasons and the gaps in the literature review, the researchers determine to seek answers for the effects of journal writing on EFL high school students' writing accuracy and fluency. Writing accuracy in this paper refers to the total scores rated by the inter-raters and the writing errors, including spelling, word order, subject-verb agreement, tenses, and word forms, that the students have made in their writing papers. Writing fluency, in this paper, refers to the number of words written in each paper.

Research Questions

The current study addressed the following two questions:

1. To what extent does extensive journal writing impact EFL students' writing accuracy?
2. To what extent does extensive journal writing impact EFL students' writing fluency?

Materials and Methods

Participants

The current study used a quasi-experimental design since the study investigated the effects of the extensive journal writing approach on EFL learners' fluency and accuracy. The study was conducted at Tap Son high school in Tra Vinh city. The two intact classes chosen for the study were among eleven English classes with a total of three hundred and eighty-five students. Sixty students from the two English classes (20 males and 40 females) in grade 11 were chosen as the participants in the study. All the classes studied the same textbook of Tieng Anh-11 by Hoang et al. (2006), approved by the Ministry of Education & Training. To make the study more convenient, the researcher/teacher chose the two eleventh-grade classes in 2019-2020 to be participants. The two classes were at the same level, and they had been learning for six years. However, they felt anxious when learning English, especially writing skills. The students could not compose their writing as expected in the regular curriculum. Besides, the students' writing texts were filled with several errors, but the most common mistakes were Spelling, Word Order, Subject-Verb agreement, Tense, and Word Form. Participants were divided into two groups: the control group with 30 students (19 females and 11 males) and one experimental group with 30 students (21 females and nine males).

Teaching Procedures

Students in class one (control group) had five writing lessons with different topics (post office, nature, national park, recreation, space) in the textbook (Ministry of Education and Training, 2006) in Semester 2 of the school year 2019-2020. The writing lesson took place every two weeks, and it lasted 45 minutes. The writing activities in the classrooms were similar to those conducted in the experimental group. The writing process approach was employed as the regular curriculum. The lesson usually started with a model text. Then the students worked together in a group to brainstorm ideas about a topic to make an outline. After that, each student composed a paragraph based on the ideas developed in an outline. When the students finished their writing, they shared their papers with their group members to do the peer feedback activities. According to Bitchener (2008), those students who received peer feedback would improve their writing accuracy. The revising stage was conducted at home to hand to the teacher at the subsequent class meeting. Then the teacher gave feedback on the student's paper. The students in the control group were encouraged to do writing exercises in the textbook at home.

Students in class two (experimental group) also studied the same textbook with the same topics (post office, nature, national park, recreation, space) and took the same steps as the control group. Every two weeks, a writing session was conducted in the classroom for 45 minutes. The writing tasks in the control group were identical to those in the experimental group. One distinction between the two groups was that students in the experimental group were assigned two writing journals each week as homework rather than writing exercises from the textbook. The students chose any topics they liked to write about. To check whether the students wrote their journals, the teacher asked them to bring their notebooks to school once a week. The teacher did not correct the students' mistakes in the students' writing journals; she just gave comments to show that the teacher agreed or disagreed with something the learner felt strongly about. The teacher took notes of students' common errors and then gave more exercises relating to their errors to practice in class. To encourage students to participate in the journal writing activity eagerly, the teacher would add two plus points for students who completed

their homework on time. The teacher collected the students' notebooks (writing journals) for analysis at the end of the semester. The writing teaching approach applied in this study was the product writing approach. It was conducted in both groups (control group and experimental group).

Inter-raters

Brown (2004) stated that the tests had to be free of bias and distortion for practical measurements. According to Hughes (1989), the subjective test involved the personal judgment of the examiner. It was probably that subjectivity that might affect the scoring process. The researchers invited one English teacher to evaluate the students' writing papers to ensure the test scores' subjectivity. The first rater was the teacher teaching two classes of the research. The other was an English teacher who had the same English proficiency as the rater one. Students' writing papers were photocopied into two copies. Every rater kept one copy and marked it separately. Then, the researchers compared the marks and calculated the means. If there were significant differences between

the raters, the raters would discuss and give the final scores.

To ensure that the test scores were reliable, the raters had to base on the criterion to assess students' writing products. The rubrics applied for evaluating students' writings were discussed by the English group members and adapted to evaluate students' writing papers for two years at the researchers' school. The Cronbach's Alpha of the inter-raters for evaluating students' pre-tests and post-tests of the control group reached .91 and .93, and those of the experimental group reached .94 and .90.

Data Analysis

The researchers prepared checklists to compare the accuracy of students' writing products. The two raters assessed students' writing papers by counting the number of spelling errors, subject-verb agreement, tense, word order, and word form.

The students' writing errors were identified as the following examples in Table 1.

Table 1

The examples for error identification

Student's answer
1.There are <u>for</u> people in my family   SP
2. She <u>like</u> playing <u>bestminton</u>. My father is a worker.   SV   SP
3. He <u>like</u> playing <u>games video</u>. My sister is a student.   SV   WO
4. She <u>studied</u> in Tapson <u>hight</u> school   T   SP
5. <u>I am usually going</u> <u>smim</u> at weekend.   T   WF

Coding for errors
SP: Spelling WO: Word Order SV: Subject-Verb agreement T: Tense WF: Word Form

*Student's writing paper

Simultaneously, the mean scores of errors were run by SPSS software (version 22). Finally, to compare the mean score of students' writing accuracy in the control group between pre-tests and post-tests, a Pair-Sample T-Test was used and then compared the mean scores of students' writing accuracy between pre-tests and post-tests of the experimental group to

check whether there were any changes. Finally, an Independent Sample t-test was run to compare the mean scores between the two groups.

For fluency evaluation, writing checklists were also composed in advance. The item in the checklists contained the number of words. The mean number of

words was calculated with the help of SPSS software after the two raters had marked students' writing papers.

Then, to compare the mean score of students' writing fluency in the control and experimental groups, a Pair-Sample T-test was used.

Results

One hundred twenty writing papers were collected and assessed in this current research. Sixty writing papers (30 pre-tests and 30 post-tests) were from the control group, and sixty other papers were from the experimental group (30 pre-tests and 30 post-tests). The average number of words of each writing in the control group was 52 words (M=52.667, SD=13.829), while the average number of a writing paper in the experimental group was 52 words (M=52.466, SD=13.521).

Relating to the comparison of the pre-test results across groups in terms of the students' writing quality, the researchers ran an Independent-sample t-test to compare the result of pre-tests between the control group and experimental group before intervention. The purpose of this stage was to check whether students' writing levels of the two groups were not different.

Table 2 compares the scores of the students' pre-tests in the two groups. As shown in Table 2, thirty texts in the control group and thirty writing papers in the experimental group were compared. The control group's mean score is 5.10, and the mean score of the experimental group is 5.13. It seemed that the

experimental group's mean score was a little bit higher than that of the control group. However, the Independent-sample t-test indicated that the control group students' writing performance was the same as that of experimental group one (t= -.09; df= 58; p=.92). This was, before the intervention was exercised, students' writing skills in both the control and experimental groups had no significant differences. Therefore, if there were any changes in students' writing accuracy, it would be ascribed to the intervenor's involvement.

To answer research question 1, the researchers examined each student's results in the control group for their writing quality and writing accuracy. Then, students' writing performance in the experimental group was also evaluated to confirm the correctness of using the target language. The last step was to compare students' errors between the control and experimental groups. The results of the Pair-sample t-test are illustrated in the following Table 3.

The results from Table 3 showed that when looking at the mean scores of pre-tests, each student's average score was 5.1 marks (M=5.100), and the average of each post-test was 5.2 marks (M=5.233). It seemed that the students got a slight improvement in writing scores (0.1). However, the result of a Pair-Sample t-test indicated that students' writing performance in the control group revealed no differences in statistics (t= -.941; df=29; p=.354).

To What Extent does Extensive Journal Writing Impact EFL Students' Writing Accuracy?

To determine more effects of extensive journal writing on EFL students' writing, the researchers examined

Table 2

Scores of pre-tests of students in the control and experimental groups

Variables	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	Sig.
Control Group	30	5.10	1.94	-.033	-.09	58	.928
Experimental Group	30	5.13	1.33				

*Independent - Sample T-Test

Table 3

Pre-tests and post-tests of students' writing scores in the control group

Variables	N	M	SD	t	df	Sig.
Pretests	30	5.100	1.493	-.941	29	.354
Posttests	30	5.233	1.165			

*Pair-Sample t-test

students' writing accuracy in pre-tests and post-tests of the control group. In the first step of the analysis process, the researchers analyzed students' writing errors in the control group to check for any changes after a ten-week study by conducting a Pair-Sample T-Test. The results are shown in Table 4 below.

As shown in Table 4, the results of a Pair-Sample t-test illustrated that the mean score of the spelling errors on the pre-test was 4.2 errors (M=4.166), and the mean score of spelling errors on the post-test was 4.2 errors (M=4.233). It seemed that the accuracy in terms of spelling remained the same after ten weeks (t=-.494; df= 29; p= .625).

The result of Word-order, pair 2, showed that the mean number of word-order errors for the pre-test was 2.6 errors (M=2.633), and that of the post-test was also 2.6 errors (M=2.566). It could be said that the mean scores of word-order errors of pre-tests and post-tests were not significantly different (t=.812; df= 29; p= .42).

Regarding the subject-verb agreement (pair 3), the result from table 4 illustrated that the mean score of each student's writing errors (subject-verb agreement) on the pre-test contained 2.7 errors (M=2.700), while the mean score of that post-test was 2.6 errors (M=2.633). It meant that students' errors seemed to be reduced by 0.1 error for this part. However, the result of a Pair-sample t-test indicated no significant difference between the pre-test and post-test errors (t=.571; df=29; p=.57).

The result of pair 4 (tense) revealed that the mean score of tense errors of pre-test in each student's writing paper was 1.8 errors (M= 1.800) while that of post-test was 1.7 errors (M= 1.733). The number of errors decreased (0.1). However, a Pair-sample t-test reported that the pre-test and post-test errors had no statistically significant difference (t=.628; df=29; p=.53).

As shown in Table 4, a Pair-Sample T-Test result illustrated that each student's word form errors on the pre-test were 2.5 errors (M=2.567), and the mean score of word form errors on the post-test was 2.5 errors (M=2.500). It seemed that the accuracy in terms of word form was not different after a period of ten weeks (t=.626; df= 29; p= .536).

In general, the results from Table 4 illustrated that the students' writing accuracy in the control group had minor changes. Still, the results of a Pair-sample t-test indicated no significant difference between the pre-tests and the post-tests.

Comparing the Writing Quality of Pre-tests and Post-Tests of the Experimental Group

Students' writing quality of pre-tests was compared with that of post-tests to determine the effects of writing journal practice on EFL students after the implementation. In other words, this comparison aimed to investigate if an extensive journal writing approach affects each student's writing skill. Table 5 presents the results of a Pair-Sample t-test.

Table 4

Writing accuracy of pre-tests and post-tests of the control group

Variables		N	M	SD	t	df	Sig.
Spelling	Pre	30	4.167	.6989	-.494	29	.625
	Post	30	4.233	.6789			
Word Order	Pre	30	2.633	.490	.812	29	.423
	Post	30	2.567	.504			
Subject-Verb Agreement	Pre	30	2.700	.466	.571	29	.573
	Post	30	2.633	.490			
Tenses	Pre	30	1.800	.406	.628	29	.536
	Post	30	1.733	.449			
Word form	Pre	30	2.567	.568	.626	29	.536
	Post	30	2.500	.508			

*Pair Sample t-test

Table 5

Pre-tests and post-tests of students' writing scores in the experimental group

Variables	N	M	SD	t	df	Sig.
Pretests	30	5.133	1.332	-9.893	29	.000
Posttests	30	6.333	1.700			

*Pairs Samples t-test

As shown in Table 5, the results of a Pair-Sample t-test displayed that the mean score of the pre-test writing was 5.1 marks (M= 5.1333), and that of the post-test was 6.3 marks (M=6.333). The post-test result is 1.2 marks higher than that of the pre-test (M$_{pre}$=5.1333 and M$_{post}$=6.333). Simultaneously, there were significant differences between each student's writing quality in pre-tests and post-tests (t= -9.893; df= 29; p<.00). This revealed that each student performed better after journal writing practice for ten weeks.

Comparing the writing accuracy of pre-tests and post-tests of the experimental group

After the implementation, the researchers analyzed students' writing errors in the experimental group to check if there were any changes by conducting a Pair-Sample T-test. The results are shown in Table 6 below.

As shown in Table 6, the results of a Pair-Sample T-test illustrated that the mean score of the spelling errors on the pre-test was 4.2 errors (M=4.200), and the mean score of spelling errors on the post-test was 2.5 errors (M=2.533). It seemed that the accuracy in terms of spelling was significantly different after ten weeks (t=12.836; df= 29; p= .00).

The result of Word-order showed that the mean number of word-order errors in the pre-test was 2.7 errors (M=2.700), while the mean number of word-order errors in the post-test was 1.8 errors (M=1.800). It indicated that the mean score of word-order errors of pre-tests and post-tests was significantly different (t=7.449; df= 29; p= .00).

Regarding the subject-verb agreement, the result from table 6 illustrated that the mean score of each student's writing errors (subject-verb agreement) of the pre-test contained 2.6 errors (M=2.667), while the

mean score of that post-test was 1.5 errors (M=1.533). It meant that students' errors for this part were reduced by 1.1 errors. The result of a Pair-sample t-test indicated a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test errors (t=9.109; df=29; p=.00).

The result of Tenses revealed that the mean score of tense errors on the pre-test in each student's writing paper is 1.8 errors (M= 1.833), while that of the post-test is 1.3 errors (M= 1.367). The number of errors tended to decrease (0.5). The result of a Pair-sample t-test reported that the number of errors in the pre-test and post-test had statistically different (t=4.474; df=29; p=.00).

As shown in Table 6, a Pair-Sample T-Test result indicated that the mean score of each student's word form errors on the pre-test was 2.5 errors (M=2.567), and the mean score of word form errors on the post-test was 1.4 errors (M=1.467). It seems that the accuracy in word form remained the same after ten weeks (t=6.279; df= 29; p= .00). In short, the results from Table 6 showed that the students' writing accuracy in the experimental group had improved dramatically. The results of a Pair-sample t-test indicated there was a significant difference between the pre-tests and the post-tests.

Comparing the Writing Accuracy of the Control Group and Experimental Group

After applying an extensive journal writing approach, writing accuracy from two groups was also analyzed. The researchers would like to determine if there were any differences in terms of accuracy between the two groups. An Independent - Sample t-test was conducted to compare the differences. The result of the Independent-sample t-test is shown in Table 7 as follows.

Table 6.

Students' writing accuracy of pre-tests and post-tests of the experimental group

Variables		N	M	SD	T	Df	Sig.
Spelling	Pre	30	4.200	.714	12.836	29	.000
	Post	30	2.533	.681			
Word Order	Pre	30	2.700	.466	7.449	29	.000
	Post	30	1.800	.551			
Subject-Verb Agreement	Pre	30	2.667	.547	9.109	29	.000
	Post	30	1.533	.507			
Tenses	pre	30	1.833	.379	4.474	29	.000
	Post	30	1.367	.490			
Word form	Pre	30	2.567	.626	6.279	29	.000
	Post	30	1.467	.776			

*Pair Samples t-test

Table 7

Students' writing accuracy of the control group and experimental group

Variables		N	M	SD	MD	t	df	Sig.
Spelling	Control	30	4.233	.6789	1.700	9.680	58	.000
	Experimental	30	2.533	.6815				
Word Order	Control	30	2.567	.504	.767	5.624	58	.000
	Experimental	30	1.800	.551				
Subject-Verb Agreement	Control	30	2.633	.490	1.100	8.540	58	.000
	Experimental	30	1.533	.507				
Tense	Control	30	1.733	.449	.367	3.019	58	.000
	Experimental	30	1.367	.490				
Word form	Control	30	2.500	.508	1.033	6.100	58	.000
	Experimental	30	1.467	.776				

*Independent - Sample t-test

As shown in Table 7, the results of an Independent-Sample T-Test illustrate that the mean score of the spelling errors of the control group was 4.2 errors (M=4.233), and the mean score of each student's spelling errors in the experimental group was 2.5 errors (M=2.533). The number of students' spelling errors in the control group was higher (1.7 errors) than that of students in the experimental group. An Independent-Sample T-Test results showed a significant difference between the two groups (*t=12.836; df= 29; p< .00*). Therefore, the results indicated that the accurate spelling of students' writing in the experimental group was significantly different from that of students in the control group after a period of ten-week implementation.

The result of Word-order showed that the mean number of word-order errors of each student in the control group was 2.6 errors (M=2.567), while the mean number of word-order errors of each student in the experimental group was 1.8 errors (M=1.800). It could be said that the mean scores of word-order errors of the control group and experimental group were significantly different (*t=5.624; df= 58; p<.00*). The students with journal writing practice had an improvement in their grammatical accuracy.

Regarding the subject-verb agreement, the result from table 7 illustrated that the mean score of each student's writing errors (subject-verb agreement) in the control group was 2.6 errors (M=2.633). In comparison, the mean score of that of each student in the experimental group was 1.5 errors (M=1.533). It meant that the students in the experimental group reduced 1.1 errors for this part. An Independent-sample t-test indicated a statistically significant difference between the errors of the experimental group and the control group (*t=8.540; df=58; p<.00*).

The result of Tenses revealed that the mean score of tense errors of each student's writing paper in the control group was 1.7 errors (M= 1.733), and that of the experimental group was 1.4 errors (M= 1.367). The difference in the errors was 0.3 errors. The result of an Independent-sample t-test reported that the number of errors of each student between the two groups had a statistically significant difference (*t=3.019; df=58; p<.05*).

As shown in Table 7, the results of an Independent-Sample T-Test illustrated that each student's word form errors in the experimental group were 1.5 errors (M=1.467), and the mean score of word form errors in the control group was 2.5 errors (M=2.500). It illustrated that the accuracy in terms of word form of students with journal writing outweighed the control group after ten weeks (*t=6.100; df= 58; p< .05*).

In short, the results from Table 7 illustrated that the students' writing accuracy in the experimental group had improved dramatically. The results of an Independent-sample t-test indicated a significant difference between the students in the experimental group and the control group.

To What Extent does Extensive Journal Writing Impact EFL Students' Writing Fluency?

The researchers tallied the number of words written by the students in the pre-test and post-tests to respond to this research question. Unlike the analysis of students' written errors, this research question only attempted to measure the length of the students' written papers. Table 8 presents the comparison of the control group students' writing fluency between the pre-test vs. Post-tests.

As seen in Table 8, on average, each student in the control group composed 52.66 words in the pre-tests (M = 52.667; SD = 13.83). For the written papers in the post-test, each of them wrote 53.26 words (M = 53.266; SD = 12.506). The results of the pair-sample t-test (*t= -942; df= 29; p= .354; p>.05*) indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups. In order words, the students' writing fluency in the post-test control group was not statistically different compared to the pre-test. Table 8 compares the students' writing fluency in the experimental group between the pre-test vs. Post-test.

As illustrated in Table 9, a Pair-Sample t-test was performed to investigate whether students' writing fluency in pre-tests (M=52.467; SD=13.520) differed from post-tests (M=73.267; SD=16.737). The paired sample t-test showed a statistically significant difference between the two mean scores (*t= -12.686; d=29; p<.05*). The length of the students' writing text for the pre-tests was shorter than that of the post-tests. Students could produce longer paragraphs within the same length of writing time in the post-test.

Finally, to examine the students' writing fluency of the control and experimental groups, an Independent Sample T-Test was conducted to identify whether the two groups had any statistical differences in students'

writing fluency. The statistics are presented in Table 10.

As seen in Table 10, the mean scores of the control group and experimental group were different (M=53.267; SD=12.506 and M=73.267; SD=16.737). The result showed that the control group students' writing performance significantly differs from that of the experimental one (*t=-5.234; df=58; p<.05*).The students in the experimental group achieved higher writing fluency in terms of the number of words than those in the control group.

Discussion

From the reported results, the researchers could conclude that journal writing practice implementation brought positive effects on EFL learners' writing quality in terms of writing accuracy and fluency. The post-test findings illustrated that the students' writing achievement in the experimental group was much better than those in the control group. This meant that the statistical results helped the researchers confidently conclude the efficacy of journal writing practice on EFL students' writing performance. It went the same as the hypothesis that the extensive journal writing approach could positively affect students' writing performance. The

Table 8

Students' writing fluency in pre-tests and post-tests of the control group

Variables	N	M	SD	t	df	Sig.
Pretests	30	52.667	13.829	-.942	29	.354
Posttests	30	53.267	12.506			

*Pair Samples t-test

Table 9

Students' writing fluency in pre-tests and post-tests of the experimental group

Variable	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	Sig.
Pretests	30	52.467	13.520		-12.686	29	.000
Posttests	30	73.267	16.737				

Note: *Pair Samples t-test

Table 10

Students' writing fluency in two groups after the implementation

Variable	N	M	SD	MD	t	df	Sig.
Control group	30	53.267	12.506	-20.00	-5.234	58	.000
Experimental group	30	73.267	16.737	-20.00			

Note: * Independent Sample t-test

students' progress was obviously demonstrated through the students' writing scores. After the implementation, the students performed better in their writing skills. This demonstrated that the students made great efforts in their learning. Thus, the effects of the intervention on the students' achievement could be confirmed. This finding contradicted Puengpipattrakul's (2009) study, which found that journal writing failed to help students improve their writing quality, except for grammar accuracy. Similarly, Rokni and Seifi (2014) also found that journal writing could help students perform grammar better, and students felt more confident in writing in English. Huelser and Metcalfe (2011) claimed that they could accomplish various concepts relating to the errors when students generated their errors. In addition, Kessler (2021) found that journal writing helped students' metacognitive awareness, and the students evaluated this activity as beneficial and enjoyable. Similarly, Nückles et al. (2020) found that writing journals created a motivational effect on the students' learning processes, and it raised the cognitive awareness of the students in the quality of peer feedback to help each other improve their writing outcomes.

In addition to the findings for research question 1, it could be seen from the above data analysis that the number of errors in each students' writing paper was less than that in the pre-test after the implementation. That meant the students were able to limit making mistakes when producing writing papers, and they felt more aware of their grammatical accuracy. The students might self-correct their errors as they composed their journal writing regularly. This revealed that by implementing extensive journal writing, the teachers could place the "student-centered" approach in the classroom, and the teacher gain cooperation among the students in the learning activities, which could lead to better results of studies (Pham & Nguyen, 2020; Pham, 2021b).

These results also contributed to previous studies (Puengpipattrakul, 2009; Rokni & Seifi, 2014) about the effects of an extensive journal writing approach on EFL students' writing accuracy.

Regarding the students' writing fluency, the findings of the current study revealed that the students in the control group did not increase their writing fluency, while the students in the experimental group composed their writing with more words compared to the pre-tests. The results of the comparison between the post-tests of the two groups also indicated that there was a remarkable difference between the two groups. This meant that the writing journal helped the students improve writing accuracy and writing fluency.

Previous research showed that extensive journal writing greatly affected the students' writing fluency in terms of length (Herder & King, 2012; Luu, 2010; Ho & Duong, 2015). The findings of the current research confirmed those findings of the previous studies. The extensive journal writing provided suitable conditions for the students to involve in learning activities in the classroom. That was to say, the more the students wrote, the better they became. In other words, practice makes perfect (Hagger et al., 2008).

In general, the findings which were discussed in the present study were relevant to some previous studies. However, the findings from the current study revealed that journal writing's effects also worked effectively with EFL students in a high school, which contributed to the body of literature. Additionally, the present study results ensured that extensive journal writing could help enhance students' writing performance in both writing accuracy and fluency. This added stronger conclusions that previous research had not confirmed. Additionally, the researchers hoped that the findings would attract more concerns for further studies relating to journal writing activities.

Conclusion

The main findings of the current study were summarized as follows. First, the post-test results showed statistically significant differences between the control and experimental groups. The present study indicated that students' writing quality in the experimental group was better than that in the control group. In other words, journal writing practice could help improve students' writing performance in the writing classrooms. The findings of the current study were innovative to the body of literature that extensive journal writing helped students improve their grammatical accuracy as previous research studies did and helped students improve their writing skills.

Simultaneously, regarding writing accuracy, the data from the tests reported that the number of writing errors was dropped dramatically. The students tended to pay much attention to spelling errors in their journal writing. The more they practice writing, the fewer writing errors they might commit to. The number of spelling errors in each student's writing paper also decreased greatly. The writing errors, spelling, and the other four errors mentioned above, which the students made, reduced by nearly half compared to the pre-test. That was why it could be concluded that the students were able to improve the grammar accuracy degree of the writing with the supportive tool – journal writing.

Second, the study results strongly confirmed the effects of journal writing practice on students' writing fluency. Although the students could not achieve wording length as the curriculum required, the number of words in each student's writing paper went up sharply. This current result contributed to the previous studies- about the effects extensive journal writing approach on EFL students' writing fluency. The participants revealed their progress in every journal. It was demonstrated that the number of words in their writing was getting more prosperous.

Pedagogical implications

Based on the findings, the current study presented some pedagogical implications. First, the writing teachers should employ journal writing practices for the students, especially those who have difficulties writing in English. Learners experience learning activities regularly, and then they can construct knowledge or skills from their capacity. The practice was a process of helping learners grow themselves and self-adjust their actions to meet their learning objectives. The theories that the students learned in the lessons provided students with basic foundations for their learning, whereas bringing theories into practical situations and using them as routines would help students develop their learning autonomy. In other words, as students habitually utilize English in their real life, they would develop their language use naturally. Also, English language learners were able to increase learning automaticity by doing a practice of using English. Therefore, it could be concluded that students would learn more about their English writing when they spent more time on writing practice. Two journals per week could allow the students to do their writing practice. The more they wrote journals, the more they acquired their language.

Self-reflection was considered one of the essential elements enhancing the learning process. Re-reading steps helped learners reflect on their thinking and language use as well. Students formed their autonomy, and their learning processes were controlled themselves. Students coped with their learning processes without the teacher's intervention. Learners were responsible for their learning or duty to people around them. Gradually, learners could fully develop themselves.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Baghi, R., Ghanbari, N., Bushehr, I., & Motlagh, H. S. (2016). The effect of Journal writing and expertise on teacher's reflectivity in teaching English as a foreign language. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, *6*(7), 50-67. http://dx.doi.org/10.26655/mjltm.2016.10.6

Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and researching: Autonomy in language learning*. Routledge.

Bitchener, J. (2008). Evidence in support of written corrective feedback. *Journal of second language writing*, *17*(2), 102-118. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.11.004

Brown, G. T. (2004). Teachers' conceptions of assessment: Implications for policy and professional development. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, *11*(3), 301-318. https://doi.org/10.1080/0969594042000304609

Cisero, C. A. (2006). Does reflective journal writing improve course performance? *College Teaching*, *54*(2), 231-236. https://doi.org/10.3200/CTCH.54.2.231-236

Ellis, R., Sheen, Y., Murakami, M., & Takashima, H. (2008). The effects of focused and unfocused written corrective feedback in an English as a foreign language context. *System*, *36*(3), 353-371. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.02.001

Fulwiler, T. (1982). The personal connection: Journal writing across the curriculum. In T. Fulwiler & A. Young (Eds.), *Language connections: Writing and reading across the curriculum* (pp. 15-31). NCTE.

Hagger, H., Burn, K., Mutton, T., & Brindley, S. (2008). Practice makes perfect? Learning to learn as a teacher. *Oxford Review of Education*, *34*(2), 159-178. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054980701614978

Hammanind, J. & Derewianka, B. (2001). Genre. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other language*. Cambridge University Press.

Herder, S., & Clements, P. (2012). Extensive writing: A fluency-first approach to EFL writing. In *Innovating EFL teaching in Asia* (pp. 232-244). Palgrave Macmillan.

Herder, S., & King, R. (2012). Extensive Writing: Another fluency approach for EFL learners. *Extensive Reading World Congress Proceedings*, *1*, 128-130.

Ho, P. V. P., & Duong, P. N. T. (2015). Common errors

in writing journals of the English major students at Ho Chi Minh City Open University. *Social Sciences*, *5*(1), 3-12.

Hoang, V. V., Hoang T. X. H., Dao, N. L., Vu, T. L., Do, T. M, & Nguyen Q. T. (2006). *Tieng Anh 11* [English 11]. Nha Xuat Ban Giao Duc.

Huelser, B. J., & Metcalfe, J. (2012). Making related errors facilitates learning, but learners do not know it. *Memory & Cognition*, *40*(4), 514-527. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13421-011-0167-z

Hughes, A. (1989). *Testing for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K. (2019). *Second language writing*. Cambridge university press.Kessler, M. (2021). Supplementing mobile-assisted language learning with reflective journal writing: A case study of Duolingo users' metacognitive awareness. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 1-24. In Press. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2021.1968914

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2013). *Techniques and principles in language teaching. Oxford handbooks for language teachers* (3rd. ed.). Oxford University Press.

Liao, M. T., & Wong, C. T. (2010). Effects of dialogue journals on L2 students' writing fluency, reflections, anxiety, and motivation. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, *9*(2), 139-170.

Luu, T. T. (2010). Enhancing EFL Learners' Writing Skill via Journal Writing. *English Language Teaching*, *3*(3), 81-88.

Luu, T. T. (2011). Teaching writing through genre-based approach. *Brazilian English Language Teaching Journal*, *2*(1), 121-136.

Marefat, F. (2002). The impact of diary analysis on teaching/learning writing. *Relc Journal*, *33*(1), 101-121.

Nückles, M., Roelle, J., Glogger-Frey, I., Waldeyer, J., & Renkl, A. (2020). The Self-regulation-view in writing-to-learn: Using journal writing to optimize cognitive load in self-regulated learning. *Educational Psychology Review, 32*, 1089–1126. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-020-09541-1

Pham, V. P. H., & Nguyen, T. B. (2014). The effects of communicative grammar teaching on students' achievement of grammatical knowledge and oral production. *English Language Teaching (ELT)*, *7*(6), 74-86. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v7n6p74

Pham, Vu Phi Ho & Do, T. P. T. (Dec. 2019). High school students' common errors in writing essays. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 9*(6), 309 – 319. https://doi.org/*10.5539/ijel.v9n6p309*

Pham, V. P. H. (2021a). The effects of lecturer's model e-comments on graduate students' peer e-comments and writing revision. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 34*(3), 324-357. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2019.160952

Pham, V. P. H. (2021b). The effects of collaborative writing on students' writing fluency: An efficient framework for collaborative writing. *SAGE Open, 11*(1), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244021998363

Pham, V. P. H., & Bui, T. K. L. (2021). Genre-based Approach to Writing in EFL Contexts. *World Journal of English Language, 11*(2), 95-106. https://doi.org/10.5430/wjel.v11n2p95

Pham, V.- P. H., Huyen, L. H., & Nguyen, M. T.. (2020). The incorporation of quality peer feedback into writing revision. *Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 7*(1), 45-59.

Pham, V. P. H., & Nguyen, N. H. V. (2020). Blogging for collaborative learning in the writing classroom. *International Journal of Cyber Behavior, Psychology and Learning, 10*(3), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.4018/IJCBPL.2020070101

Pham, V. P. H., & Do, T. H, (2021). The impacts of task-based instruction on students' grammatical performances in speaking and writing skills: A quasi-experimental study. *International Journal of Instruction, 14*(2), 969-986. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2021.14255a

Pham, V. P. H., & Truong, M. H. (2021). Teaching writing in Vietnam's secondary and high schools. Education Sciences, 11(10), 632-655. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11100632.

Puengpipattrakul, W. (2009). The use of journals to develop grammatical accuracy in writing. *Manusya: Journal of Humanities*, *12*(2), 90-108.

Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.). (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*. Cambridge University Press.

Rokni, S. J. A., & Seifi, A. (2014). The effect of dialog journal writing on EFL learners' grammar knowledge. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *9*(2), 57-67.

Schmidt, H. G., Rotgans, J. I., & Yew, E. H. (2011). The process of problem-based learning: what works and why. *Medical education*, *45*(8), 792-806. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2011.04035.x

Sholah, H. M. (2019). Enhancing EFL Learners' Writing Skill via Journal Writing. *Alsuna: Journal of Arabic and English Language*, *2*(2), 96-116. https://doi.org/10.31538/alsuna.v2i2.397

Truong, M. Hoa & Pham, V. P. H. (2017). High school teachers' pedagogical beliefs in English as a foreign language writing instruction. *Journal of Science Ho Chi Minh City Open University, 7*(4), 21-23.

Wyrick, J. (2021). *Steps to writing well with additional readings*. Cengage Learning.

Yagcioglu, O. (2015). New approaches on learner autonomy in language learning. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *199*, 428-435

Dual Identity or Identity Duel: EFL Context Duality Force on Identity Aspects Formation Through Learners' Self-Reflection

Esmaeel Ali Salimi, Hadi Abedi

Allameh Tabataba'i University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Hadi Abedi, Department of English Language and Literature, Allameh Tabataba'i University, Southern Allameh St., Saadat Abad,Tehran, Iran. E-mail: abedi.h@gmail.com

Background: The link between context and identity is of paramount importance to language teaching and learning. Yet, less attention has been paid to the identity aspects in various EFL contexts.

Purpose: This study examined the identity aspects of EFL learners attending both public and private English language classes through self-reflection.

Method: In this mixed-methods design, 128 conveniently chosen EFL learners, including both genders, responded to the Identity Aspects Questionnaire, and 23 of those participants were invited to a follow-up semi-structured interview to triangulate the questionnaire data. The study conducted Paired Samples T-Test for quantitative data, whereas qualitative data underwent thematic analysis to extract and codify the themes.

Results: The results revealed no significant differences for personal and relational identity aspects over these two EFL contexts, while collective and social ones reached differences. The qualitative data indicated that the EFL learners synergically adapt and adopt some identities through retention and creation. The shared identity between the two EFL classes mainly occurred in personal and relational aspects, while social and collective ones seemed relatively varied. The participants held both individualistic and collectivistic cultural dimensions in these two EFL classes. However, they were more idiocentric in private English language institutes and more socio-centric in public high schools. The discussion concerning identity issues indicated that EFL contexts affect the socializing process. The individuals position in a context according to their shared identities, while the varied identities lead them to form or adopt new identities.

Implication: These findings could help ELT teachers and researchers to expand their perception of language learners' identities in different EFL contexts.

Keywords: context duality, identity aspects, self-reflection, dual identity, identity duel

Introduction

In recent decades, the impact of sociocultural issues on educational achievements has attracted the attention of many researchers. Both the knowledge of the language and the students' sociocultural backgrounds affect the students' language successes (Palovskaya & Lord, 2018). As an essential part of sociocultural theory, identity has received much attention in recent decades. The emergence of identity led the research to a paradigm shift in second and foreign language learning (Gay, 2013). Many researchers have attempted to examine identity and its aspects against different variables in various social and educational contexts. However, there is still a lot about the identity issue to be investigated.

Pacheco (2015), in the review of Taylor's book (2013), defined the term identity as a combination of a person's self-belief modified by various contexts. Foucault (1979, as cited in Buckingham, 2008) drew the concept of identity as a way to perceive ourselves,

i.e., who we are. Essentialists observed identity as unchangeable reality (e.g., Arkes & Kajdasz, 2011; Labov, 1966), while for constructivists (e.g., Le Page & Tabouret Keller, 1985; Omoniyi, 2006; Pennycook, 2003; Vickers & Deckert, 2013), it is dynamic. Since human beings develop through identity (Mohr, 2017), identity impacts human feelings, thinking, acting, and purposes (Alick, 2004). Then identity inquiry obliges the practitioners to investigate the internal aspects (Cochran Smith & Lytle, 1990) if there is a hope to access the individuals' identities. They should rely more on how people reflect on themselves in the specific situation.

Through self-reflection, the learners look back on their learning experiences and report the knowledge of learning areas (Lew & Schmidt, 2011). Learners reflect on themselves to develop a greater sense of achievement (Graham, 2004), which provides them valuable metacognitive awareness (Sevilla & Gamboa, 2016). Iranian EFL learners learn English in public areas such as schools and universities and private ones, i.e., English language institutes (Karimi et al., 2021). In this study, the Iranian EFL learners with the experience of attending both EFL contexts, i.e., high school and English language institute, reflected on their identity aspects. These were two well-known Iranian EFL contexts reported by Talebinezhad and Aliakbari (2001). They found high school for educational purposes and a private English language institute for immediate applications. The way that the learners position themselves in these dual EFL contexts may drive them to comport, shift, construct or reconstruct their identities (Schiffrin, 1996) to escape from identity conflict or crisis (Haberman & Danes, 2007).

People position themselves in a community according to their commonalities. If they identify any differences in their roles in a group, they try to construct a new identity according to their senses in the position, i.e., social identity groups they belong to (Allen, 2011; Godley & Loretto, 2013). The individuals are active agents in the group, and form, negotiate and resist their identities with the other community members (Schiffrin, 1996). According to the socio-cognitive agent model (Rato & Prada, 2021), an agent's cognition or reasoning interprets the social context and other social actors for social group dynamics mechanisms and social identity construction. Through language, people can join various social communities by socially and culturally constructed and co-constructed social identities (Allen, 2011). Hence, the individuals add and change their role-based identity (Kirkman et al., 2006) as they perform different roles. Role-based identity holds two

varieties, i.e., idealized and conventional role identities. The idealized role identity refers to the positions where the person hopes to perform while the conventional one is the current and actual roles (Ashforth, 2001). The primary motive of human behaviour is the idealized role or self-actualization. In this step, people evaluate themselves to adapt their relevant identities in different interactions (Ashforth et al., 2008). The problem is whether the EFL learners attending two different EFL contexts shape dual identities or synergically adapt and adopt their identities through creation and retention called identity duel. Thus the main impetus to conduct the present study lay on this premise that the EFL learners may shape different aspects of identities through exposure to various EFL contexts. Despite the amount of literature and investigations around the learner identities, less has looked into the impact of various EFL contexts on the formation of English language learners' identity aspects. There is a significant gap in this area of knowledge, and few investigations have provided practical information about it.

Literature Review

For many years, researchers have viewed identity as a concept through which human beings develop (Erikson, 1980). According to Le Ha (2008), western and eastern researchers have conceptualized the identity concept differently. For western scholars, identity is hybrid and multiple (e.g., Block, 2007; Pavlenko, 2002), whereas, for eastern ones (e.g., Hall, 1996; Idrus & Nazri, 2016), it is a sense of belonging. The interdisciplinary studies on identity provided a platform for researchers to explore more gaps on this issue. The present study has briefly reviewed the teaching-related studies on identity and identity aspects in the following sections.

Identity andLanguage Learning

Language learning is a multifaceted process through which people interact via social and cultural behaviours and ways of being (Williams, 1994). In this process, people develop their social identity and form their second language selves (Yashima 2009). It means that language learning and identity construction occur at the same time. In other words, while the individuals learn the language, they concurrently develop their social identities (Khatib & Ghamari, 2001; Miller, 2003; Williams, 1994; Yashima, 2009). People integrate social identity with language to represent their constructed selves (Hamston, 2003). The self-representation leads them to form a new identity (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). The intertwinement of language and identity (Khatib &

Ghamari, 2001) moves language users to negotiate their identities through linguistic resources (Pomerantz, 2008). The research findings indicated a significant and positive relationship between learners' identity and their English language achievement scores (Mirahmadi Kia et al., 2021). Context as a language resource may also influence identity formation since nothing happens out of context. The results of the studies such as Granger (2004), Gu (2010), and Johnson and Golombek (2011) reported how context and identity interact.

Context Duality, Dual Identity and Identity Duel

Context as an influential factor in identity construction (Riley, 2006; Ushioda, 2009) forces identity to change across time and place (Block, 2007). To show the impact of context in identity construction, Tabaku (2009), Lobaton (2012), and Zacharias (2012) examined new identity construction with its various aspects in several EFL settings. Treiber and Booysen (2021) explored how adolescents' identity construction and reconstruction occur through situational analysis. Of course, other factors, which influence this process, exist in each context. For instance, in language learning areas, the factors such as using the first language and the teachers' conception of language learning and teaching affect the learners' social and individual identity constructions (Lobaton, 2012). According to research, language learning is a process of identity formation in the socio-cultural context. The community members strengthen their relationships through institutions, instructions, and discursive practices to form their identities (Chen, 2010). Thus identity construction happens when the learners engage in culturally, politically, and socially situated language socialization (Duff, 2002; Ho, 2011; Lee & Bucholtz, 2015; Morita, 2004; Séror, 2011). The individuals' socialization process in various local areas uncovers the dynamic nature of identity (Packer & Bavel, 2015). Within a community, individuals socialize with other members through language to learn, think, adapt and behave appropriately (Lee & Bucholtz, 2015). The use of language in the socializing process is called language-mediated social activities (Morita, 2000). This process encourages the learners to construct their identity by developing linguistic, cultural, and sociopolitical competencies and ideologies (Bhowmik, 2016; Godley & Loretto, 2013).Through this process, the novice members form their identities through negotiating with the more expert members. They shape their various identities in a network of interactions with other group members to meet their expectations (Packer & Bavel, 2015). Then, when people join a new academic community, they retain their prior cultural assets and reconstruct new ones (Duff, 2010).

For the students who join the academic contexts, the mastery of knowledge domains is not enough, and they have to shape the related identities via identity-transforming processes (Palanac, 2019). People interact with other group members to affirm and verify their identity for committing to that identity (Stets & Cast, 2007). Through the verification process, individuals develop the appropriate emotions under the requirements of the group. During the verification process within interpersonal interactions, people trust each other, which results in the approved identities and behaviors. Thus, verification is a process for committing to identity and its related roles, and the lack of it leads to identity conflict (Haberman & Danes, 2007). Lannegrand-Willems and Bosma (2006) revealed that the school climate impacts identity formation. The learners challenge with an experimentation or exploration period called Psychosocial moratorium, where they freely find the gaps in their society to shape their commitment and identity (Erikson, 2008). In this period, learners practice the activities and programs, which encourage them to find their abilities and interests (Abbasi, 2016). Their choices and decision in the school contexts stimulate them to develop commitments, which drive them towards identity formation (Lannegrand-Willems & Bosma, 2006). Accordingly, the structure, the climate, and the interpersonal interactions of school contexts strengthen their identities through social and emotional experiences (Kroger, 2007), which sometimes leads to either identity conflicts (Chen, 2010) or shared identity in their learning contexts (Schopflin, 2001, as cited in Guerra, 2012). If each context influences the identity formation process, how do Iranian dual EFL contexts impact this process?

The focus of the present study was on two EFL contexts, i.e., high schools for educational purposes and private institutes for immediate applications. These two EFL contexts motivate learners to shape new identities in their language learning practices (Goharimehr, 2018). The students actively impact the selection, organization, and regulation of the contents of education (Roeser et al., 2006, as cited in Schachter & Rich, 2011) through their identity processes (Oyserman, 2007) formed by educational institutions (Stets & Burke, 2003, as cited in Schachter & Rich, 2011). The in-group identity model (Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000) proposed that for lessening the intergroup bias, the members create a dual identity, which is general and superordinate. Therefore, since identity is context-bound, it seemed plausible for the present study to consider the duality of EFL contexts as determining factors in shaping shared and varied identities. This investigation searched for the synergic shared identities (Heger & Gaertner, 2018; Salimi &

Abedi, 2020) constructed due to the impact of these EFL contexts. On the other hand, it attempted to find the incompatible or varied forms of identity aspects in these EFL contexts.

Identity and Culture

History, identity and culture are three facets forming people's identities in different parts of the world (Mokhoathi, 2022). Identity as a concept within social and cultural systems is originated by culture, so as a part of the culture, identity has a close interrelation with language (Hamston, 2003; Khatib & Ghamari, 2001). Davis and Skilton-Sylvester (2004) investigated identity, culture, and language use and argued that gender appears from the social use of language. They did not accept gendered language to be as predictable or universal. The model of Hofstede (2001, as cited in Kaur & Noman, 2015) offered six cultural dimensions related to the identity aspects (Saboori et al., 2015). These six dimensions of culture are:

- Individualism – collectivism (Act independently or interdependently)
- Power distance (Extent of equity or status among members)
- Uncertainty avoidance (Extent of comfort in uncertain situations)
- Masculine – Feminine (Self-success versus caring and sharing)
- High context – lower context (Directness of communication in specific circumstances)
- Monochronic time – Polychronic time (People organize and value time)

Accordingly, the learners in the classrooms represent individualistic or collectivistic cultural dimensions. They are individualistic when they look after themselves (Hofstede, 2011) and are active in the classroom context (Staub & Stern, 2002, as cited in Kaur & Noman, 2015). On the other hand, they are collectivistic in a cohesive in-group culture in which they take part in the classroom as passive learners. There are opposite views about the cultural dimensions of Iranian EFL contexts in the research. Research findings view Iranian cultural dimensions variously. Some reached collectivism (e.g., Hofstede, 2001), while others observed both, i.e., collectivism and individualism at the same time (e.g., Green & Páez, 2005).

Identity Aspects

Identity research has drawn much attention from the 1980s to the present time, and scholars have investigated identity in various aspects. The researchers reported various identity aspects from personal and collective to social ones, i.e., the individuals' self-image constructed within the society (Allen, 2011). According to social identity theory, identity has a bipolar framework called social and personal aspects (Tajfel, 1998). Cheek et al. (2002) offered four aspects for identity, i.e., personal, social, collective, and relational identities. Personal identity is a sense of self inside an individual, while relational identity is how we perceive ourselves with others in the community. Social identity creates one's popularity, and collective identity reflects our representations of group identities. Idrus and Nazri (2016) claimed that the collective identity and shared identity, which van Dijk (1998) defined as the fixed realities across personal settings, are the same as both refer to a set of feelings of belonging to a group or a sense of being united (Cerulo, 1997). According to Nicolaci-da-Costa (1988), shared identity denotes harmony among the members of a community. It supports the members to lessen the elaborated speeches, purposes, and motives. A positive shared identity among the members of a small group promotes negotiation among them (Swaab et al., 2008). The shared identity encourages the members to make sense of the characteristics and norms of that group and helps them employ appropriate behaviors, which seem specific among those members (Swaab et al., 2007).Shared identity lets people consider being a member of a greater community (Carlone & Johnson, 2007) and is the shared representation of different people in a context with shared interests and experiences. Thus, it shapes what the groups stand for and how they wish to be viewed by others.

The present study summarized the previous studies conducted on the identity aspects in the following lines. While investigating the identity aspects, Penner and Wymer (1983) found effective relationships between personal and social identities with private self-consciousness. In another study, Cheek and Busch (1982) and Lamphere and Leary (1990) correlated social identity to the public self-consciousness and personal identity with the private one. Barnes et al. (1988) denoted that individuals with high personal identity seemed to worry about self-evaluation and not about social evaluation. They claimed that people with high social identity felt anxious about social evaluation and not about self-evaluation. In their study, Cheek and Hogan (1983) linked personal identity to guilt feelings and social identity to shame and self-monitoring. Leary et al. (1986) connected personal identity to a personally relevant job and social identity to a socially relevant business. The findings of Frantz (1985, as cited in Rashidi & Mansurian, 2015) unveiled the negative correlation of

social identity with the independence of judgment and its positive one with personal identity.Luhtanen and Crocker (1992) reached a positive correlation among social and collective identities with the total score. Although Asian-Americans held significantly higher in collective identity than European-Americans, Cheek et al. (1985, as cited in Rashidi & Mansurian, 2015) detected no significant differences between Asian-Americans and European-Americans in personal and social identities. According to Chevasco (2019), a correlation exists between national identity and English language productive skills in Japanese high school students. According to Leibowitz et al. (2005), language is an essential element of identity in an educational context. Rashidi and Mansurian (2015) and Razmjoo (2010) observed no correlation between language achievement and the aspects of identity.

Unresolved Issues in the Literature

Identity inquiry in educational contexts has focused more on pedagogy, language, and discourse. In pedagogy, teachers are not transmitters of neutral knowledge anymore (e.g., Canagarajah, 2005; Makoni & Pennycook, 2007; Reagan, 2004), but a potential agent (Brogden & Page, 2008; Mantero, 2004; Varghese et al., 2005) for the learners' identity development in the dynamic classroom environment (Morgan, 2004). The teachers' instructional practices based on curricular statements intensify inequities among learners and reduce the learners' higher-level thinking skills, progress, and identities (Ramanathan, 2005). By limiting the teachers' teaching practices, learners can form more appropriate and powerful identities (Ramanathan, 2005). In language and discourse, identity researchers investigated the prominent role of linguistic and cultural contexts in identity formation processes (Block 2007). The individuals' shared identities encourage them to position themselves as in-group members (Allen, 2011; Godley & Loretto, 2013). In other communities, they resist their former selves (Schiffrin, 1996) or socially and culturally constructed and co-constructed social identities (Allen, 2011). Research revealed the role of the context in identity construction (Riley, 2006; Ushioda, 2009) and how language use facilitates the members' socialization process (Lee & Bucholtz, 2015) through developing linguistic, cultural, and sociopolitical competencies and ideologies (Bhowmik, 2016; Godley & Loretto, 2013). Further findings of identity research unveiled that the identity options accommodated in the textbooks play an important role in identity formation (Shardakova & Pavlenko, 2004). For example, McKinney and van Pletzen (2004) reported that the African learners resisted their materials when they felt uncomfortable with the readings in their curriculum. Researchers also conducted studies on social identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and self-categorization theories (Abrams & Hogg, 2010) to examine the identity aspects. Vignoles (2017) affirmed that intrapsychic processes, social interaction, and socio-cultural processes are necessary levels for self-extension, and individuals cannot develop their identities as either personal or social. Research also observed an association among the identity aspects (Rosenberg & Gara, 1985), which rises according to the degree of identity compatibility (Turner-Zwinkels et al., 2015), values, and practices (Koc & Vignoles, 2016). The term intersectionality, offered by Bowleg (2008), proved that identity association is not the sum of identity aspects but an interplay among them. The example of Hopkins and Greenwood (2013) regarding intersectionality illustrated a Scottish Muslim woman who does not simply involve adding together the meanings of being Scottish plus Muslim and woman, but a complex interplay among these three identities.

In most of the cited studies above, the researchers have mainly considered the identity and identity aspects in the core circle of English-speaking countries rather than foreign language learning contexts. This study focused on Iranian contexts, which Iranmehr and Davari (2017) divided into Public and private sectors. These two EFL contexts have attracted the attention of many researchers in Iran for a long time. The research findings in Iran revealed that language learners are more motivated in English language institutes than in public high schools (Torshizi, 2016). They receive more knowledge in English language institutes than in public high schools and can reach more success in their lives due to what they achieve from English language institutes (Iranmehr & Davari, 2017). The research findings reported some disadvantages in public high schools, including overcrowded classes, less participation in the group, and heterogeneous proficiency levels. The previous studies on EFL contexts paid less attention to identity and its aspects. They did not regard EFL contexts as determining factors in identity and identity aspects formation. For example, Karimi et al. (2021) found that the student teachers' beliefs about themselves influence identity construction. However, the influence of the EFL contexts on identity formation according to the EFL learners' self-reports remained unresolved. This issue remained as a gap in the related literature of previous studies, especially in Iran. Whether the learners share or vary their identities in various EFL contexts was a question that the current research sought to answer. Do learners share some identity aspects and vary others due to

identity saliency and their positioning in various EFL contexts? Is it possible to see the identity aspects in different EFL contexts according to the degree of identity compatibility, values, and practices? Is there a complex interplay among the learners' identity aspects in the EFL contexts of the present study? It is feasible for the EFL learners to synergically apply their former identities when they comport their expectations with the new situation and change and form a new identity when the risk of identity conflict exists. It is also reasonable to explore the Iranian language learners' cultural dimensions through the lens of identity aspects. Thus, by reconsidering the existing literature, the present inquiry tried to meet the need for identity search within the EFL contexts to answer the questions designed to solve the stated problems and bridge the gaps in the existing knowledge of the identity concept.

The Current Study

The present study pursues three aims through answering the following research questions:

1. Are there any significant differences between learners' identity aspects (personal, relational, social, and collective) in public and private EFL contexts?
2. How do learners reflect on their identity aspects (personal, relational, social, and collective) in public and private EFL contexts?
3. Are the learners individualistic or collectivistic in public and private EFL contexts?

Method

Research Design

The present study employed a mixed-methods research design incorporating both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative approach marked the differences of variables, i.e., personal, relational, social and collective identity aspects, in various EFL contexts, and the qualitative approach offered a more detailed analysis of these variables. In qualitative research, the researchers collect and

analyze non-numerical data (e.g., text, video, or audio) to understand concepts, beliefs, or experiences. They can gain an in-depth insight into a problem or generate new ideas for research.

Participants

A sample of 128 intermediate EFL learners, males, and females, who were simultaneously learning the English language in Iranian public high schools and English language institutes, i.e., Iran Language Institute (ILI), of two central provinces, i.e., Tehran and Qazvin, were engaged in the study (Table 1). The participants were among the middle-class families who attended the English classes of high school compulsorily and the English language institute voluntarily. According to an IELTS, the participants were all in intermediate levels, and all could read and write in English. The study employed convenience sampling since the participants were readily available to the researchers who were English teachers in the contexts under investigation. It also enabled the researchers to obtain the necessary data and trends regarding their inquiry. Under convenience sampling, participants possess specific fundamental characteristics related to inquiry purposes (Dörnyei, 2007).The researchers invited the participants through WhatsApp and provided the participants with the necessary information about the project. The participants' selection was on their willingness to participate in the study, and the researchers videotaped the data after obtaining permission from the participants as an ethical issue. The researchers also assured the respondents that their identities and responses were confidential.

Instrument

The present study implemented the Aspects of Identity Questionnaire (AIQ-IV) adopted by Cheek and Briggs (2013) to collect its data. The questionnaire comprised forty-five items under four categories (Cheek & Briggs, 2013), including personal, relational, social, and collective identity orientations.

The questionnaire rested on a principal component method (PCM with varimax rotation) applied to the

Table 1

Participants of the Study

	Frequency	*Percent*	*Age*	*Education*	*Proficiency Level*
Female	66	51.6	17	High school	Intermediate
Male	62	48.4	17	High school	Intermediate
Total	128	100.0			

polychoric correlation matrix of items to compute the principal components. The eigenvalue analysis pointed to four-factor solutions (Eigenvalues >1) with the KMO index equal to 0.93, which is evidence that the factorial solution is appropriate. Besides, by using Cronbach's Alpha, the reliability index for the variables of the questionnaire had acceptable indices. The results were .76 (personal identity), .74 (social identity), .84 (collective identity), .79 (relational identity), and for all the items of the questionnaire the reliability index was .82.

In the second phase, researchers applied a semi-structured interview and resulting data was triangulated with the questionnaire data. For the validity index of the items and the appropriateness of content and language of the interview session, two languages, and two content teachers read and reexamined the interview questions. During the interview sessions, the interviewers recorded all the answers for thematic analysis. The thematic analysis of the participants' responses reached some common themes and concepts about the personal, relational, collective, and social identities. The researchers developed a coding scheme to codify the answers of the participants. Reflexivity or inter-coder reliability established the confirmability by using 2-way mixed intraclass correlation coefficients. The results of this evaluation indicated 0.93 or excellent inter-coder reliability among all coders (Table 2).

Data Collection Procedure

The study collected its set of data in two phases. In the first phase, the present study applied the Aspects of Identity Questionnaire (AIQ-IV) adopted by Cheek and Briggs (2013). The participants reflected their views towards public high school and English language institute with an interval of two months. The researchers administered the English format of the questionnaire to the participants through WhatsApp. The participants responded to the questionnaire online. For controlling the carry-over effects that could contaminate the data, the researchers divided the participants into two groups and applied the counterbalancing method. The goal of counterbalancing is to ensure internal validity by

controlling the potential confounds created by sequence and order effects. Thus while some participants took the first questionnaire concerning public EFL contexts, the remaining participants answered the second questionnaire for the private EFL areas. By answering the 45 items of the questionnaire, the learners revealed how various EFL contexts influenced their identity presentations.

For the second phase of data collection, the researchers randomly selected twenty-three participants, males, and females, although twenty were enough to reach the data saturation. The participants attended a follow-up semi-structured interview to triangulate the questionnaire data. The interviewers did not follow a strictly formalized list of questions, and the questions were open-ended. It allowed the interviewees to discuss how they feel about themselves and their senses towards the EFL contexts under study. Each face-to-face interview lasted around fifteen to thirty minutes. The in-person interview helped the researchers to build rapport and fully accessible to the body language. These questions elicited the interviewees' aspects of identity orientations for public high schools and private English language institutes.

Data Analysis

The researchers of the current study implemented a mixed-methods design, i.e., quantitative (closed-ended questionnaire) and qualitative (open-ended interview), to collect the data and evaluate the EFL learners' shared and varied identities in two various EFL contexts. The researchers tabulated the scores for each of the scales in the questionnaire. The study employed Paired Samples T-Test to compare the average scores for each identity aspects for public high schools and English language institutes (Tables 4 & 5). By applying a thematic analysis for the second phase or the semi-structured interview as one of the several qualitative methods, the researchers interpreted the meaning of the data. Therefore, the thematic analysis could reduce the data to concepts that described the research phenomenon. The current study used this method to identify, analyze, organize, describe, and report the themes found within a data set.

Table 2

The Inter-Coder Reliability

| | Intraclass Correlation | 95% Confidence Interval | | F Test with True Value 0 | | | |
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Value	df1	df2	Sig
Single Measures	.93	.86	.97	40.1	19	38	.000
Average Measures	.97	.95	.99	40.1	19	38	.000

Results

The study employed two phases of data collection, i.e., the 'Aspects of Identity questionnaire' and a follow-up semi-structured interview to reach the following results presented separately to answer the research questions.

EFL Learners' Identity Aspects

In phase one, the researchers conducted Shapiro-Wilk test which indicated the scores were normally distributed (Table 3).

By comparing the personal identity scores for these EFL contexts, i.e., public high schools and English language institutes, the results (Tables 4 & 5) showed no significant difference in scores for high school= (M=35.2, SD= 7.2) and [English language institute= M= 35.08, SD= 7.2; t (127) = 0.55, P= 0.58]. According to the guidelines proposed by Cohen (1988), i.e., .01= small effect, .06= moderate effect, and .14= large effect, the magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (eta squared= .002). Regarding the relational identity, no significant difference in scores for high school= (M= 32.1, SD=6.2) and [English language institute= M= 32.5, SD= 6.1; t (127) = -1.8, P= 0.07] was also observed. The magnitude of the differences in the means was very small (eta squared= .02).

In social identity (Tables 4 & 5), the results revealed significant difference in scores for high school= (M=23.4, SD= 3.3) and [English language institute= M= 28.4, SD=3.2; t (127) = -99.1, P= 0.000]. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large (eta squared= 0.99). The results also compared the collective identity scores and denoted significant difference in scores for high school= (M=23.1, SD= 2.9) and [English language institute= M= 28.1, SD=2.8; t (127) = -64.1, P= 0.000]. The magnitude of the differences in the means was large (eta squared= 0.97).

The results of the interview session ascertained specific codes from the participants' responses, which led the researchers to the themes of the study (Table 6).

Table 3

The Normality of Identity Scores for High School and English Language Institute

	Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	*df*	*Sig.*
Personal Identity High School	.990	128	.517
Personal Identity Institutes	.990	128	.468
Relational Identity High School	.990	128	.468
Relational Identity Institute	.985	128	.170
Social Identity High School	.987	128	.240
Social Identity Institute	.987	128	.256
Collective Identity High School	.987	128	.281
Collective Identity Institute	.987	128	.267

Table 4

Paired Samples Statistics for Identity Aspects of High Schools and English Language Institutes

	N	*M*	*SD*	*SEM*
Personal identity				
High School	128	35.2	7.2	.64
English Language Institute	128	35.08	7.2	.63
Relational identity				
High School	128	32.1	6.2	.55
English Language Institute	128	32.5	6.1	.53
Social identity				
High School	128	23.4	3.3	.29
English Language Institute	128	28.4	3.2	.28
Collective identity				
High School	128	23.1	2.9	.25
English Language Institute	128	28.1	2.8	.25

Table 5

Paired Samples T-Test: Identity Aspects for High Schools and English Language Institutes

	Paired Differences			
	Mean Difference	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Personal Identity	0.15	0.55	127	0.58
Relational Identity	-0.35	-1.8	127	0.07
Social Identity	-4.9	-99.1	127	0.000
Collective Identity	-4.1	-64.1	127	0.000

Table 6

Coding Scheme: Strategies and Codes Indicating the Aspects of Identity

Code	Strategy	Examples
	A. Personal Aspect	
A1	Age/Gender/Behavior/Belief	I am the same person in school and an English institute. My age, my gender, my behavior, and my beliefs are the same.
A2	Goal	I want to continue my studies. The institute and school help me to reach this aim. They do not change my goal.
A3	Personality	I am the same person in high school and an English language institute, but I am different from others in these two places.
A4	Friend-Finding	The way I choose my friends, especially close friends, is different in school and English language institutes.
A5	Learning	I like learning English both in high school and the English language institute.
A6	Dream	Learning English is my dream, whether in high school or English language institute. Of course, the English language institute has a better atmosphere.
A7	Feeling/ Emotion	My goal is learning the English language, and my emotions and feeling are the same in high school and English language institute.
A8	Fear/Anxiety	I have more fear and feel more anxious when I am in high school English classes because teachers ask me hard ques-tions.
A9	Self-Evaluation	I evaluate myself more in an English language institute than high schools as I have to communicate in the institute.
A10	Being top A Student	I am a top A in English class in high schools, but I am not top in the English language institute.
	B. Relational Aspect	
B1	Friendship	Friend is a friend, whether in school or English institutes. Keeping friends means understanding, listening to, and helping them. The place is not mattering.
B2	Having Relationships	I care about my good friends and have a good relationship with them, whether in high school or an English language institute. I try to help my friends everywhere with the things I know.
B3	Teacher	I feel relaxed with my teachers at school and English language institute, although I love my institute teacher a bit more.
B4	Commitment in Friendship	The commitment is essential in friendship, both in high school and English language institute. I like to know about the problems of my close friends and help them if I can.
B5	Feeling of Connectedness	I feel a connectedness with my close friends in and out of school and institute.
	C. Social Aspect	
C1	Social Behavior	I behave well, and people react well to me in school and the English institute. People's reaction is good with me wherever, of course, it depends on my character. I am a bit indifferent when I meet others in a language institute, but in school, I am very friendly with my friends and teachers.
C2	Popularity	I am famous for my scores and behavior at school, but in the English institute, personality and discussion in the class are striking. Popularity is for schools, not for the English language institute. When you get good scores, all the people at school talk about you.
C3	Attractiveness	I am famous for my scores in school. I don't like my uniform, and I am more beautiful and respectful in the English institute. I think in a language institute, people know me as a decisive and hard-working person, but in school, they call me a bookworm.

	D. Collective aspect	
D1	Learners' Age	In school, we are of the same age, but in the English institute, ages are different. I behave the same, according to my age, in school and the English institute.
D2	Nationality	We are Iranian and proud of being Iranian. Persian is our native language and we use it in school or the English institute.
D3	Backgrounds/ Religion	our family backgrounds are more valuable at school, and I am more religious at school than the English institute. We are Muslim, and we love our country both in school and the language institute.
D4	Politics	We are free to talk about everything, such as politics in the language institute, but I am not in school.
D5	Teaching Subjects	Books and teaching materials are very important for us in school and English institutes.

The participants' use the terms same and different for age, gender, behavior, belief, goal, person, friend-finding, learners, learning, dream, atmosphere, feeling, emotion, fear, anxiety, self-evaluation, communicating in English, and being top student. Such use indicated the shared and varied categories of personalities, ages, behaviors, beliefs, and learning needs. They all fell into the personal identity theme, which seemed to be more shared (55%) than varied (45%) in English classes of high schools versus English language institutes (Table 7). Regarding the relational identity aspects in the context of high schools and English language institutes, the following emerging codes gained more meanings when they turned into categories such as relationship, commitment, connectedness, mutual understanding, and responsibility. These codes were: Friend is friend, honesty in friendship, keeping friends, understanding friends, listening to friends, helping the friends, having relationships, seeing friends, having close friends, feeling relaxed with friends, loving teachers, going to the friend's house, talking with friends, caring about the good friends, considering the value of commitment in friendship, helping the friends, knowing the problems of the close friends, and feeling of connectedness with close friends. These categories demonstrated that relational identities remained more shared (60%) than varied (40%) in these two EFL contexts, i.e., high schools and English language institutes (Table 7).

The analysis of the interview data also indicated the social aspects of the participants' identity through some codes such as behaving well with people, people reaction dependency to ones' character, saying hi or goodbye and people reaction, being popular by scores and politeness, being popular by personality and discussion, disliking the uniform, being more attractive and respectful in a language institute, being popular at school via scores, the full attention of others at school, no good reaction at school, the value of physical appearance, to be known as positive, and hard-working in language institute but bookworm at school, being indifferent with people in language institute and being friendly at school. These codes conformed broad categories such as popularity, self-reaction, community members' reaction, physical appearance, reputation, mannerism, and social behavior. The result revealed more varied (55%) than shared (45%) social identities for high schools and English language institutes (Table 7).The study also extracted some varied and shared views concerning the collective identity aspect. These obtained codes were: age, behaving according to age, feeling proud of being Iranian, loving the Persian language, respecting family backgrounds, being religious, being free to talk about politics and religion, valuing teaching subjects, being Muslim, loving Islam and Iran. Therefore, the family generation, ethnic background, religion, home, community, citizenship, political activities, and regional and foreign language accent were the categories comprised under the fourth theme of the present study, i.e., collective identity orientations. Thus, by casting a glance at the extracts, the study reached more varied (75%) than shared collective identities (25%) for high schools and English language institutes (Table 7).

EFL Learners' Cultural Dimensions

The third research question searched for the learners' cultural dimensions according to their identity aspects in public and private EFL contexts. Tables 8 and 9 clarified this idea that the Iranian students' personal and relational identities were higher in English language institutes than their social and collective ones. On the other hand, in high school contexts, social and collective identities seemed to be higher than the personal and relational ones.

Then, the participants experienced both individualistic and collectivistic cultural dimensions in each EFL context. Individualism was more in private English language institutes and collectivism in public high schools.

Table 7

The Frequency of Shared and Varied Identity Aspects for High Schools and English Language Institutes

	Frequency	Percent			Frequency	Percent
Personal Identity				**Social Identity**		
Shared Identities	11	55.0		Shared Identities	9	45.0
Varied Identities	9	45.0		Varied Identities	11	55.0
Total	*20*	*100.0*		*Total*	*20*	*100.0*
Relational Identity				**Collective Identity**		
Shared Identities	12	60.0		Shared Identities	5	25.0
Varied Identities	8	40.0		Varied Identities	15	75.0
Total	*20*	*100.0*		*Total*	*20*	*100.0*

Table 8

Basic Descriptive Statistics for the Participants' Aspects of Identity in English Institute

	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Personal	128	1	5	3.63	1.08
Relational	128	2	5	3.04	1.32
Social	128	1	3	2.47	1.32
Collective	128	1	4	2.5	1.04

Table 9

Basic Descriptive Statistics for the Participants Aspects of Identity in High School

	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Personal	128	1	4	2.46	1.24
Relational	128	2	5	2.35	1.16
Social	128	3	5	3.72	1.15
Collective	128	2	5	3.62	.89

Discussion

The present investigation sought to find whether different EFL contexts had any impacts on identity formation. The results proved that educational settings influenced identity formation (Lannegrand-Willems & Bosma, 2006). The participants of this study revealed different identities in social and collective aspects due to what Lee and Bucholtz (2015) called the socialization process where the learners socialize as members in English classes of high school and English language institute. They were in line with the finding of Morita (2000) that the learners use language in the socializing process to mediate the social activities. According to Bhowmik (2016) and Godley and Loretto (2013), the socialization process in a community drives the learners to identity construction by providing linguistic and cultural competencies and sociopolitical ideologies. Packer and Bavel (2015) argued that the members develop their identities through negotiating with other

members to meet their expectations. Because of this, the participants' responses to social and collective identity items varied in the EFL contexts under study. This finding showed that these two EFL contexts impact the socializing process. The participants reported their shared identities in personal and relational aspects because they kept their prior cultural assets. They changed those identities, which did not adapt to these two EFL contexts (Duff, 2010). The participants of this study positioned themselves in these two EFL communities according to their shared or synergic identities (Heger & Gaertner, 2018; Abedi & Salimi, 2020) and constructed a new identity through their interactions with others in the social groups when they identified differences. Thus the present study confirmed Allen (2011) and Godley and Loretto (2013) in their claims that the individuals position in a community according to their commonalities. They found that if people perceive any differences in the social identity groups, they will form a new identity that emerges from their senses. It is the exploration period or Psychosocial moratorium

(Erikson, 2008) in which group members interact with each other to affirm and verify their identities to commit to their roles (Stets & Cast, 2007). In this verification process, the participants reported their commitments to identity through shared identities. When they couldn't commit to their roles and identities, they created a new identity to escape from what Haberman & Danes (2007) called identity conflict. Therefore, this investigation validated Abbasi (2016), Erikson (2008), Kroger (2007), and Lannegrand-Willems and Bosma (2006) studies which reported that the learners searched their educational contexts to find the gaps to strengthen their identities through social and emotional experiences. It also confirmed Ochs (2008) and Pavlenko and Lantolf's (2000) research, which identified a relationship between language learning and new identity formation. The findings unveiled four identity aspects that authenticated the four identity aspects of Cheek et al. (2002), namely, personal, social, collective, and relational in educational contexts. Then, the researchers could expand Tajfel's (1998) social identity theory with its bipolar framework, i.e., social and personal aspects and consider the relational and collective identities labels.

The first question inquired about any significant differences between the learners' identity aspects in public high schools and private English language institutes. According to Riley (2006) and Ushioda (2009), identity formation depended on institutional and interpersonal settings. Norton (2010), as a post-structuralist, posed the relationship between language learners' identity and context. Thus, in addition to learning the language knowledge, the participants should shape what Palanac (2019) called the related selves via identity-transforming processes in their learning atmosphere. In other words, each context seemed to force the learners to construct some identities responsive to that context. Then, according to previous researches, in dual EFL contexts of Iran, the learners' identities should be different for each English class. The learners' varied or constructed identities shaped mostly in social and collective aspects, and their personal and relational or adapted ones showed no significant differences.

The study conducted its second phase, i.e., interview, to perceive in detail those aspects that stayed shared or varied in public high schools and private English language institutes. In this phase, the participants reflected on themselves to represent their senses for these two EFL contexts. Pacheco (2015) attributed a varying nature to identity with continual shifts in different contexts (Vickers & Deckert, 2013). The data analysis revealed that some identity aspects remained

stable in these two EFL classes while conflicting ones changed. In this regard, it challenged the essentialists such as Arkes and Kajdasz (2011) and Labov (1966), who viewed learner's identity as fixed and resistant to change. Although this study justified Block (2007), Omoniyi (2006), and Packer and Bavel (2015) regarding the dynamic nature of identity over time and place, it found that some identity aspects remained unchanged under these two Iranian contexts. So, it was in line with Nicolaci-da-Costa (1988), Swaab et al. (2007), and Swaab et al. (2008) that claimed the formation of shared identity or the similarity among the members of a community for reducing the elaborated speeches, purposes, and motives. In other words, as Kroger (2007) claimed, social interaction with new contexts forced the learners to replace some conflicting identity aspects, while some others remained shared (Schopflin, 2001, as cited in Guerra, 2012). Like van Dijk (1998), the present investigation found the shared identity fixed in personal aspects. This study strengthened Carlone and Johnson (2007), Idrus and Nazri (2016), and Schopflin (2001, as cited in Guerra, 2012) findings concerning the shared identity or the shared representations of different people in a context. Of course, shared identity was not just the harmony among the community members, but the harmony the individuals synergically created between the two EFL contexts in the form of dual identity.

The third question required the researchers to examine the cultural identity aspects in public and private EFL contexts. Saboori et al. (2015) found a significant relationship between cultural dimensions and identity aspects. For Hofstede (2001), Iranians were collectivists, whereas, for Rashidi and Mansurian (2015), they were individualistic. Despite previous findings, the participants of this study displayed both individualistic and collectivistic features. The EFL learners were more idiocentric in private English language institutes and socio-centric in public high schools.

Conclusion

The current inquiry highlighted the influence of EFL contexts on learners' identity aspects. The learners reflected some varying identity aspects in English classes of high schools and English language institutes and held some as shared ones. They adapted themselves into their learning contexts by adopting new identities and retaining their constructed ones in the form of synergic identity. The findings revealed that the learners' personalities and relationships with others were less affected by the EFL contexts than

social and collective identity aspects. By considering the outcomes of this study, ELT teachers could help the learners position themselves in the class discourse. Learners are active agents in their new position in the group and form, negotiate and resist their identities with the other members in class. The learners' integration and participation in the classroom activities could foster a positive self-image and the required experiences for developing their identities. This socialization process confirmed that the identity is dynamic and context-bound. The teachers should know that the learners' diverse classroom practices create positions to speak, listen, read, or write. The teachers can get valuable insights into which learners' identity positions offer the best opportunity for social engagement and interaction and which identity positions push the learners to marginalize. They could add some instructional activities to help the learners to invest in the language practices, which raise the learning outcomes and lessen inequities. Teachers may lower the existing distances between English language teaching classes of high schools and English language institutes by informing the learners of their shared and varied identity aspects to encourage them to comport synergically in different contexts.

The results even led the researchers to identify the gaps in previous studies about identity and identity aspects. These results are a platform for researchers to explore other identity concepts such as teachers' identity aspects in different EFL contexts, identity aspects in virtual EFL classes and identity aspects in blended EFL classes to bridge more gaps in identity investigation. They should also reconsider the cultural dimensions in the modern world with constantly changing technology. This investigation may also provide the educational decision-makers with a vision of identity as a leading questionable issue to develop a common strategy for training the preservice teachers through enhancing, renewing, and planning the instructional programs.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Abbasi, N. (2016). Adolescent identity formation and the school environment. In K. Fisher (Ed.), *The translational design of schools: An evidence-based approach to aligning pedagogy and learning environments* (pp. 83–103). Sense Publishers. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6300-364-3_4

Abrams, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2010). Social identity and self-categorization. In J. F. Dovidio, M.Hewstone, P. Glick, & V. M. Esses (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of prejudice, stereotyping and discrimination* (pp. 179–193).Sage.

Alicke, M. D. (2004). Review of the book *Handbook of self and identity,* by Leary, M.R., & Tangney, J.P., New York, NY: Guilford Press, 2003. *PsycCRITIQUES, 49*(Suppl 14). https://doi.org/10.1037/04031S

Allen, B. J. (2011). *Difference matters: communicating social identity* (2nd ed.). Waveland Press Inc.

Arkes, H. R., & Kajdasz, J. (2011). Intuitive theories of behavior. In B. Fischoff, & C. Chauvin (Eds.), *Intelligence analysis: Behavioral and social scientific foundations* (pp. 143-168). The National Academies Press. https://doi.org/10.17226/13062

Ashforth, B. E. (2001). *Role transitions in organizational life: An identity-based perspective.* Erlbaum.

Ashforth, B. E., Harrison, S. H., & Corlay, K. G. (2008). Identification in organizations: An examination of four fundamental questions. Journal of Management, *34*(3)*,* 325-374. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308316059

Barnes, B. D., Mason, E., Leary, M. R., Laurent, J., Griebel, C., & Bergman, A. (1988). Reactions to social vs. self-evaluation: Moderating effects of personal and social identity orientations. *Journal of Research in Personality, 22*(4), 513-524. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-6566(88)90007-4

Bhowmik, S. K. (2016). Agency, identity and ideology in L2 writing: Insights from the EAP classroom. *Writing & Pedagogy, 8*(2), 275-309. http://doi.org/10.1558/wap.26864

Block, D. (2007). The rise of identity in SLA research, Post Firth and Wagner (1997). *The Modern Language Journal, 91*(5), 863–876. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540 4781.2007.00674.x

Bowleg, L. (2008). When Black+lesbian+woman≠Black lesbian woman: The methodological challenges of qualitative and quantitative intersectionality research. *Sex Roles, 59*(5–6), 312–325. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199- 008-9400-z

Brogden, L. M., & Page, B. (2008). Ghosts on the cupboard: Discursive hauntings during the first year of French immersion teaching in Canada. In T. S. C. Farrell (Ed.), *Novice language teachers: Insights and perspectives for the first year.* Equinox Publishers.

Buckingham, D. (2008). Introducing Identity. In D. Buckingham (Ed.), *Youth, identity, and digital media* (pp. 1–24). The MIT Press. https://doi.org/10.1162/dmal.9780262524834.001

Canagarajah, S. (2005). *Reclaiming the local in language*

policy and practice. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Carlone, H. B., & Johnson, A. (2007). Understanding the science experiences of successful women of color: Science identity as an analytic lens. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 44*(8), 1187–1218. https://doi.org/10.1002/tea.20237

Cerulo, A. K. (1997). *Identity construction: New issue, new directions*. Department of Sociology. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.soc.23.1.385

Cheek, J. M., & Briggs, S. R. (2013). *Aspects of Identity Questionnaire (AIQ-IV)*. Measurement instrument database for the social science. https://pdffox.com/aspects-of-identity-questionnaire-aiq-iv-pdf-free.html

Cheek, J. M., & Busch, C. M. (1982). S*elf-monitoring and the inner outer metaphor: Principled versus pragmatic self?* [Paper presentation]. The 53rd Annual Meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Baltimore, MD.

Cheek, J. M., & Hogan, R. (1983). Self-concepts, self-presentations, and moral judgments. In J. Suls & A. G. Greenwald (Eds.), *Psychological perspectives on the self* (vol. 2, pp. 249-273). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cheek, J. M., Smith, S. M., & Tropp, L. R. (2002). *Relational identity orientation: A fourth scale for the AIQ* [Paper presentation]. The Meeting of the Society for Personality and Social Psychology. Savannah, GA.

Chen, X. (2010). Identity construction and negotiation within and across school communities: The case of one English- as- a- new- language (ENL) student. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 9*(3), 163–179. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2010.486274

Chevasco, D. (2019). Language and identity: How do different aspects of an L2 identity correlate with spoken English ability in Japanese high school students? *English as an International Language Journal, 14*(1)*,* 1-19.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. (1990). Research on teaching and teacher research: The issues that divide. *Educational Researcher, 19*(2), 2-11. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X019002002

Davis, K. A., & Skilton-Sylvester, E. (2004). Looking back, taking stock, moving forward: Investigating gender in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(3), 381-404. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588346

De Fina, A. (2010). The negotiation of identities. In W. Bublitz, A. H. Jucker, & K. P. Schneider (Eds.), *Handbooks of pragmatics* (pp. 205–224). Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal0326

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press.

Duff, P. (2002). The Discursive co-construction of knowledge, identity, and difference: An ethnography of communication in the high school mainstream. *Applied Linguistics, 23*(3), 289-322.

Duff, P. (2010). Language socialization into academic discourse communities. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 30*(1), 169-192. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0267190510000048

Duveen, G. (2001). Representations, identities, resistance. In K. Deaux & G. Philogène (Eds.), *Representations of the social: Bridging theoretical traditions* (pp. 257–270). Blackwell Publishing.

Erikson, E. H. (1980). *Identity and the life cycle.* International Universities Press.

Erikson, E. (2008). The problem of EGO identity. In D. L. Browning (Ed.), *Adolescent identities: A collection of readings* (pp. 223–240). Analytic Press.

Gaertner, S. L., & Dovidio, J. F. (2000). *Reducing intergroup bias: The common ingroup identity model.* Psychology Press.

Gay, S. E. K. P. (2013). Identity and self in second language acquisition. *The Asian EFL Journal, 15*(4), 201-211.

Godley, A., & Loretto, A. (2013). Fostering counter-narratives of race, 37 languages, and identity in an urban English classroom. *Linguistics and Education, 24*(3), 316-327.

Goharimehr, N. (2018). Imagined identities and communities in an EFL context. *International Journal of Language, Literature and Culture, 5*(3), 35-40.

Graham, S.J. (2004). Giving up on modern foreign languages? Students' perception of learning French. *Modern Language Journal, 88*(2), 171-191. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0026-7902.2004.00224.x

Granger, C. A. (2004). *Silence in second language learning.* Multilingual Matters.

Green, E. G. T., Deschamps, J. C., & Páez, D. (2005). Variation of individualism and collectivism within and between 20 countries: A typological analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 36*(3), 321-339. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022104273654

Gu, M. M. (2010). Identities constructed in difference: English language learners in China. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*(1), 139-152.https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2009.06.006

Guerra, L. (2012). Learners' identity construction in the context of English as an international language. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 1*(7), 117–126. https://doi.org/10.7575/ijalel.v.1n.7p.117

Haberman, H., & Danes, S. M. (2007). Father-daughter and father-son family business management transfer comparison: Family FIRO model application. Family Business Review, *20*(2), 163-184. https://doi.org/10.1111%2Fj.1741-

6248.2007.00088.x

Hall, S. (1996). Introduction: Who needs 'identity'? In S. Hall & P. D. Gay (Eds.), Questions of cultural identity (pp. 1-17). Sage.

Hamston, J. (2003). Review of Miller, J. (2003) Audible difference. ESL and social identity in schools. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 26*(2), 124–126. https://doi.org/10.1075/aral.26.2.10ham

Heger, A. K., & Gaertner, L. (2018). Testing the identity synergy principle: Identity fusion promotes self and group sacrifice. *Self and Identity, 17*(5), 487-499. https://doi.org/10.1080/15298868.2017.1422538

Ho, M. (2011). Academic discourse socialization through small-group discussions. *System, 39*(4), 437-450.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*. Sage.

Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture, 2*(1), 3–26. https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1014

Hopkins, N., & Greenwood, R. M. (2013). Hijab, visibility and the performance of identity. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 43*(5), 438-447.https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.1955

Idrus, F., & Nazri, N. I. M. (2016). The construction of collective identity in Malaysian ESL secondary classrooms. *English Language Teaching, 9*(10), 101–110. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n10p101

Iranmehr, A., & Davari, H. (2017). English language education in Iran: A site of struggle between globalized and localized versions of English. *Iranian Journal of Comparative Education, 1*(2), 70-84. http://doi.org/ 10.22034/ijce.2018.87725

Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (2011). The transformative power of narrative in second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 45*(3), 486–509. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2011.256797

Karimi, F., Fakhri Alamdari, E., & Ahmadian, M. (2021). Giving voice to the voiceless: Probing current issues for student teachers in EFL teacher education program in Iran. *Journal of Language and Education, 7*(2), 140-154. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2021.11113

Kaur, A., & Noman, M. (2015). Exploring classroom practices in collectivist cultures through the lens of Hofstede's model. *Qualitative Report, 20*(11), 1794–1811.

Khatib, M., & Ghamari, M. R. (2011). Mutual relations of identity and foreign language learning: An overview of linguistic and sociolinguistic approaches to identity. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1*(12), 1701–1708. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.1.12.1701-1708

Kirkman, B. L., Lowe, K. B., & Gibson, C. B. (2006). A quarter century of cultures consequences: A review of empirical research incorporating Hofstede's cultural values framework. J*ournal of International Business Studies, 37*(3), 285-320. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400202

Koc, Y., & Vignoles, V. (2016). Global identification predicts gay-male identity integration among gay men in Turkey. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 55*(4), 643–661. https://doi.org/10.1111/bjso.12160

Kroger, J. (2007). *Identity development: Adolescence through adulthood*. Sage.

Labov, W. (1966). *The social stratification of English in New York City*. Centre for Applied Linguistics. https://doi.org/10.2307/411682

Lamphere, R. A., & Leary, M. R. (1990). Private and public self-processes: A return to James's constituents of the self. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 16*(4), 717–725. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167290164012

Lannegrand-Willems, L., & Bosma, H. A. (2006). Identity development-in-context: The school as an important context for identity development. *Identity, 6*(1), 85–113. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532706xid0601_6

Leary, M. R., Wheeler, D. S., & Jenkins, T. B. (1986). Aspects of identity and behavioral preference: Studies of occupational and recreational choice. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 49*(1), 11-18. https://doi.org/10.2307/2786853

Lee, J. S., & Bucholtz, M. (2015). Language socialization across learning spaces. In N. Markee (Ed.), *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction* (pp. 319-336). Wiley Blackwell.

Le Ha, P. (2008). *Teaching English as an international language: Identity, resistance and negotiation.* Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Leibowitz, B., Adendorff, H., Daniels, Sh., Loots, A., Nakasa, S., Ngxabazi, N., Van der Merwe, A., & Van Deventer, I. (2005). The relationship between identity, language and teaching and learning in higher education in South Africa. *Per Linguam, 21*(2), 23-37. http://dx.doi.org/10.5785/21-2-74

Le Page, R., & Tabouret-Keller, A. (1985). *Acts of identity: Creole-based approaches to language and ethnicity.* Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500000403

Lew, M.D.N., & Schmidt, H.G. (2011). Self-reflection and academic performance: Is there a relationship? A*dvances in Health and Science Education, 16*(4), 529-545. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10459-011-9298-z

Lobaton, J. C. G. (2012). Language learners' identities in EFL settings: Resistance and power through discourse. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 14*(1), 60 - 76. https://doi.

org/10.14483/22487085.3813

Lu, J., & Huang, J. (2007). Reflections on identity and English language teaching in China. *Polyglossia, 13*(1), 53-57. https://doi.org/10.1515/CJAL-2019-0003

Luhtanen, R., & Crocker, J. (1992). A collective self-esteem scale: Self-evaluation of one's social identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 18*(3), 302–318. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167292183006

Makoni, S., & Pennycook, A. (2007). Disinventing and reconstituting languages. In S. Makoni, & A. Pennycook (Eds.), *Disinventing and reconstituting languages* (pp. 1-41). Multilingual Matters.

Mantero, M. (2004). Transcending tradition: Situated activity, discourse, and identity in language teacher education. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies, 1*(3), 143-161. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15427595cils0103_2

McKinney, C., & Pletzen, E. V. (2004). This apartheid story we've finished with it': Student responses to the apartheid past in South African English studies course. *Teaching in Higher Education, 9* (2), 159-170. https://doi.org/10.1080/1356251042000195394

Mirahmadi Kia, A., Razmjoo, S. A., & Afraz, S. (2021). Language proficiency and identity: Developing a Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) of identity for Iranian EFL learners. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching & Research, 9*(34), 81-101. https://doi.org/10.30495/TTLT.2020.673607

Mohr, C. J. (2017). Identity and the life cycle. Selected papers. By Erik H. Erikson. With a historical introduction by David Rapaport. International Universities Press, Inc., 1959. 171 pp. *The Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 29*(1), 105–126. https://doi.org/10.1080/21674086.1960.11926165

Mokhoathi J. (2022). "I am an African": A philosophical enquiry of identity and culture. *Journal of Black Studies, 53*(1), 92-108. https://doi.org/10.1177/00219347211047874

Morgan, B. (2004). Teacher identity as pedagogy: Towards a field-internal conceptualization in bilingual and second language education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education & Bilingualism, 7*(2-3), 172-188. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050408667807

Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly, 38*(4), 573-603. https://doi.org/10.2307/3588281

Nicolaci-da-Costa, A. M. (1988). Estruturas sociais e subjetividade [Social structures and subjectivity]. In S. Brasileira de Psicologia (Ed.), *Anais da XVIII Reunião Anual de Psicologia* (pp. 633–642). Sociedade Brasileira de Pediatria.

Norton, B. P. (2010). Language and identity. In N. Hornberger & S. L. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 349–370). Short Run Press Ltd. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847692849-015

Ochs, E. (2008). Constructing social identity: A language socialization perspective. In S. F. Kiesling & C. B. Paulston (Eds.), *Intercultural discourse and communication* (pp. 78–91). Blackwell. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327973rlsi2603_3

Omoniyi, T. (2006). Hierarchy of identities. In T. Omoniyi, & G. White (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics of identity* (pp. 11–33). Continuum. https://doi.org/10.2104/aral0908

Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition.* Hodder Education. https://www.amazon.com/Understanding-Second-Language-Acquisition/dp/034090559X

Oyserman, D. (2007). Social identity and self-regulation. In A. W. Kruglanski & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), *Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles* (pp. 432–453). Guilford Press.

Pacheco, M. B. (2015). Self and identity in adolescent foreign language learning. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 14*(5), 354–357. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2015.1090773

Packer, D., & Bavel, J.V. (2015). *The dynamic nature of identity: From the brain to behavior.* Psychology press.

Palanac, A. (2019). Positive psychology and mastery of the L2 academic self. *Journal of Language and Education, 5*(2), 86–94. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2019.8569

Pallant, J. (2001). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows version 10.* Open University Press.

Palovskaya, G., & Lord, A. (2018). The Influence of Students' Sociocultural Background on the IELTS speaking test preparation process. *Journal of Language and Education, 4*(3), 69–76. https://doi.org/10.17323/2411-7390-2018-4-3-69-76

Pavlenko, A. (2002). Poststructuralist approach to the study of social factors in second language learning and use. In V. Cook (Ed.), *Portraits of the L2 user* (pp. 277-302). Multilingual Matters.

Pavlenko, A., & Lantolf, J. (2000). Second language learning as participation and the (re)construction of selves. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 155–177). Oxford University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190500002646

Penner, L. A., & Wymer, W. E. (1983). The moderator variable approach to behavioral predictability: Some of the variables some of the time. *Journal of Research in Personality, 17*(3), 339 –353. https://doi.org/10.1016/0092-6566(83)90025-9

Pennycook, A. (2003). Global Englishes, rip slyme, and performativity. *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 7*(4), 513–533. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-

9841.2003.00240.x

Pomerantz, A. (2008). Tú Necesitas Preguntar en Español: Negotiating good language learner identity in a spanish classroom. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 7*(3-4), 253–271. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348450802237897

Ramanathan, V. (2005). *The English-vernacular divide: Postcolonial languagepolitics and practice.* Multilingual Matters.

Rashidi, N., & Mansurian, M. A. (2015). The impact of identity aspects on EFL learners' achievement in Iranian academic context. *Teaching English Language, 9*(2), 75-96. https://dx.doi.org/10.22132/tel.2015.53725

Rato, D., & Prada, R. (2021). Towards social identity in socio-cognitive agents. *Sustainability*, *13*(20),1-19. https://doi.org/10.3390/su132011390

Razmjoo, S. A. (2010). Language and identity in the Iranian context: The impact of identity aspects on EFL learners' achievement. *The Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, *29*(2) 99-121. https://doi.org/10.22099/JTLS.2012.410

Reagan, T. (2004). Objectification, positivism and language studies: A reconsideration. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies, 1*(1), 41-60. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15427595cils0101_3

Riley, P. (2006). Self-expression and the negotiation of identity in a foreign language. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 16*(3), 295–318. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2006.00120.x

Rosenberg, S., & Gara, M. A. (1985). The multiplicity of personal identity. In P. Shaver (Ed.), *Self, situations, and social behavior: Review of personality and social psychology* (pp. 87 – 113). Sage.

Saboori, F., Pishghadam, R., Fatemi, A., & Ghonsooli, B. (2015). Culture and identity: Linking Iranian identity components and cultural dimensions. [ILT]. *Language Teaching, 4*(1), 49–78. https://doi.org/10.22054/ilt.2015.3463

Salimi, E. A, & Abedi, H. (2020). Trilinguals' identity synergism through pragmatic skills. *Journal of Language and Education, 6*(2), 165-180. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2020.10165

Schachter, E. P., & Rich. Y. (2011). Identity Education: A new conceptual framework for researchers and practitioners. *Educational Psychologist, 46(4), 222–238.* https://doi.org/10.1080/00461520.2011.614509

Schiffrin, D. (1996). Narrative as self-portrait: Sociolinguistic constructions of identity. *Language in Society, 25*(2), 167-203.

Séror, J. (2011). Alternative sources of feedback and second language writing development in university content courses. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 14*(1), 118-143. https://doi.org/10.2478/sm-2021-0016

Sevilla, H., & Gamboa, R. (2016). Student self-evaluation and autonomy development in EFL learning. *Revistade Lenguas Modernas, 25*(1), 199-222. https://doi.org/10.15517/rlm.v0i25.27695

Shardakova, M., & Pavlenko, A. (2004). Identity options in Russian textbooks. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, *3*(1), 25-46. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327701jlie0301_2

Sharma, S. (2014). Self, identity and culture. In S. Menon, A. Sinha, & B. V. Sreekantan (Eds.), *Interdisciplinary perspectives on consciousness and the self* (pp. 117–124). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-81-322-1587-5_10

Stets, J. E., & Cast, A. D. (2007). Resources and identity verification from an identity theory perspective. *Sociological Perspectives, 50*(4), 517-543. https://doi.org/10.1525%2Fsop.2007.50.4.517

Swaab, R. I., Postmes, T., & Spears, R. (2008). Identity formation in multiparty negotiations. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 47*(1), 167–187. https://doi.org/10.1348/014466607X216124

Swaab, R. I., Postmes, T., van Beest, I., & Spears, R. (2007). Shared cognition as a product of, and precursor to, shared identity in negotiations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 33*(2), 187–199. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167206294788

Tabaku, E. (2009). Teaching EFL to highlight students' identity. *LCPJ Publishing, 2*(2), 18-24.

Tajfel, H. (1998). Social identity and inter-group relations. In S. Worchel, J. F. Morales, D. Páez, & J. C. Deschamps (Eds), *Social identity: International perspectives*. Sage. http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781446279205

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). The social identity theory of group behavior. In S. Worchel & W. G. Austin (Eds.), *The psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33 – 47). Nelson-Hall.

Talebinezhad, M. R., & Aliakbari, M. (2001). Basic assumptions in teaching English as an international language. *The Internet TESL, 7*(7), 32-37. http://iteslj.org/Article/Talebinezhad-EIL.html

Taylor, F. (2013). *Self and identity in adolescent foreign language learning: A relational context perspective*. Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783090006

Torshizi, M. D., & Torshizi, M. D. (2016). Learners' perception of differences between language learning in high school and private language institute. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature, 5*(1), 33-38. http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.5n.1p.33

Treiber, D., & Booysen, L.A.E. (2021). Identity (Re) construction of female adolescents with substance use disorders. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health, 18*(1), 1-19. https:// doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18137022

Turner-Zwinkels, F., van Zomeren, M., & Postmes, T. (2015). Politicization during the 2012 US presidential elections: Bridging the personal and the political through an identity content approach. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 41*(3), 433-445. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167215569494

Ushioda, E. (2009). A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self and identity. In Z. Dörnyei, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 215–228). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-012

van Dijk, T. (1998). *Ideology: A multidisciplinary approach*. Sage. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446217856

Varghese, M., Morgan, B., Johnston, B., & Johnson, K. A. (2005). Theorizing language teacher identity: Three perspectives and beyond. *Journal of Language Identity & Education, 4*(1), 21-44. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327701jlie0401_2

Vickers, C. H., & Deckert, Sh. K. (2013). Sewing empowerment: Examining multiple identity shifts as a mexican immigrant woman develops expertise in a sewing cooperative community of practice. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 12*(2), 116–135. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2013.775879

Vignoles, V. L. (2017). Identity: Personal AND social identity. In K. Deaux & M. Snyder (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Personality and Social Psychology* (pp. 289–309). Oxford University Press.

Williams, M. (1994). Motivation in foreign and second language learning: An interactive perspective. *Educational and Child Psychology, 11*(2), 77–84. https://doi.org/10.1017/S026144480001315X

Yashima, T. (2009). International posture and the ideal L2 self in the Japanese EFL context. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 144–163). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-008

Zacharias, N. T. (2012). EFL students' understanding of their multilingual English identities. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 9*(2), 233–244.

The Impact of the Continuum of an Education Programme on Pre-service Teachers' Beliefs about English Language Education

Martina Siposova[1], Lucia Svabova[2]

[1] Comenius University in Bratislava

[2] University of Zilina

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Lucia Svabova, Department of Economics, Faculty of Operation and Economics of Transport and Communications, University of Zilina, Univerzitna 1, 010 26 Zilina, Slovakia. E-mail: lucia.svabova@fpedas.uniza.sk

Background: Teachers' beliefs play an important role in the way they teach and meet their students' needs. Researching pre-established pre-service teachers' beliefs gives evidence that they might impede pre-service teachers' compliance with pre-service education.

Purpose: Many studies have produced contradictory findings in terms of prospective change in pre-established pre-service teachers' beliefs caused by the impact of pre-service education study programmes.Therefore, this studyaddresses the gap by enriching this field with research findings reinforcing the potential impact of the study programme on changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs on effective English language teaching and learning expressed across different years of the study programme.

Method: The study uses the results of questionnaires completed by 99 randomly selected pre-service teachers enrolled in an English language teaching study programme provided by the Faculty of Education, Comenius University in Bratislava, Slovakia. In addition, the study participants' database was expanded using bootstrapping to enhance the results obtained by applying statistical methods.

Results and Implication: The results showed statistically significant differences among different years of the study programme within the continuum of their English language teacher education thus indicating the potential impact of the programme. The impact of the study programme led to pre-service teachers' raised awareness and some modifications in their pre-established beliefs based on the learnt and acquired knowledge and gained practical teaching experiences during the practicums in higher grades of the study. The findings suggest that teacher educators and policymakers should be aware of pre-service teachers' beliefs when adopting new strategies for reconceptualising and/ or modifying language teacher education programmes.

Keywords: teachers' beliefs, pre-service teachers, questionnaire, teacher education programme, effective English teacher

Introduction

The study of teachers' beliefs and teachers' knowledge has occupied a significant position in teaching research programmes and teacher education research since the mid-1980s. The bulk of the research efforts (Borg, 2003, 2006; Calderhead, 1996; Grossman et al., 2005; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Verloop et al., 2001) has been focused on establishing the distinction between teachers' knowledge and teachers' beliefs. According to Grossman et al. (2005, p. 18), "while we are trying to separate teachers' knowledge and belief about the subject matter for the purposes of clarity, we recognise that the distinction is blurry at best." In Verloop et al. (2001, p. 446), the authors explain, "in the mind of the teacher, components of knowledge, beliefs, conceptions, and intuitions are inextricably intertwined." They also state that beliefs and knowledge are seen as inseparable. Although beliefs are seen roughly as referring to personal values, attitudes, and ideologies, knowledge refers to a teacher's more factual propositions. We agree with Nespor (1987) who claims that beliefs have stronger affective and evaluative components than knowledge and they are far more influential in determining how individuals organise and define tasks and problems. According to Farrell & Yang (2019), teacher beliefs have also been identified as one of the key variables to technology presence in classrooms. Undoubtedly, teachers' beliefs represent crucial aspects of teachers' inner worlds that impact prospective teachers' classroom behaviour, preferences and particular

Research Article

practices. On the contrary, as evidenced by Gao & Cui's case study (2022) revealing a complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and their emergency remote teaching activity preferences amid and after COVID-19, they argue that "pedagogical beliefs in a broad sense may not be a sound indicator of teachers' online teaching preference" (p. 11) since pedagogical beliefs do not directly lead to teachers' varying levels of agency in choosing online activities.

It is essential to emphasise that although research on pre-service teachers' beliefs has brought rather ambiguous, even unsettling findings, their beliefs play a pivotal role in their knowledge acquisition as well as subsequent professional behaviour, attitudes, and classroom practices.

Therefore, this study intends to shed light on the change in pre-service teachers' beliefs by examining the whole spectrum of pre-service teachers on the continuum of their 5-year-longEnglish language teaching study programme, i.e. from the very beginning of their pre-service education (first-year undergraduate students) up to the final years of pre-service education (second-year graduate students). Consequently, this research examines whether there are differences in beliefs based on age, learnt and acquired knowledge, prior language learning experience, and gained practical teaching experiences. For these groups of pre-service teachers, it is proposed that their beliefs are strongly influenced by their learnt and acquired knowledge of the subject content in particular courses, particularly in the first two years where linguistic and literary content is viewed as being important in laying the philological foundation. Furthermore, ELT methodology, language pedagogy, etc., gain dominance and become more important, particularly during practical microteaching seminars and short-term teaching practicums where there is a need for the pre-service teacher to demonstrate their ability to link linguistic and literary content and language pedagogy in the EFL classroom.

Therefore, we consider it essential to enrich the field of language teacher education with research findings reinforcing the importance of understanding pre-service teachers' beliefs, thoughts, and views on effective language teaching and learning. For this aim, we established a basic research question:

What are significant differences in Slovak pre-service teachers' beliefs across different years within particular grades of English language teacher education programmes?

To answer the research question, the collected data were processed using appropriate statistical tests. To obtain the necessary conclusions, we set the following hypotheses.

The null hypothesis:

H0: *There are no significant differences in Slovak pre-service teachers' beliefs across different years within particular grades of English language teacher education programmes.*

The alternative hypothesis:

H1: *The beliefs of Slovak pre-service teachers of English differ across different years within particular grades of English language teacher education programmes.*

The rest of the study is organised as follows. First, the literature review highlights the most significant theoretical and research studies that have been carried out in the field of the development of the concept of teachers' beliefs. Second, the context of the study outlines the system of language teacher pre-service education in Slovakia. The next sections present the basic research questions and hypotheses, briefly describe the statistical methods used, and characterise the data set used in this study. The ensuing section presents the results of the study. The discussion compares the results obtained in this study with similar studies by other authors, suggests possible further directions of the study, and lists its limitations. The last section concludes the article.

Literature Review

The Place of Teachers' Beliefs in Research / Core Beliefs vs Peripheral Beliefs

Teachers' beliefs represent a very broad research construct that has been conceptualised and operationalised in educational sciences since the mid-1970s (Abelson, 1979; Fang, 1996; Green, 1971; Nettle, 1998; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Richardson, 1996; Rokeach, 1968). The study of teachers' beliefs is one of the challenges faced by many scholars because beliefs are not directly observable. It is possible to sit in a classroom where a researcher can observe a teacher's behaviour, see what the teacher does, and describe it. But the researcher cannot look into teachers' minds and see what they believe. It is also essential to note that teachers' beliefs exist as a system in which certain beliefs are core and others peripheral (Green, 1971; Pajares, 1992). Core beliefs are stable and exert a more powerful influence on behaviour than peripheral beliefs. Moreover, as proved by several studies (Borg,

2003, 2006; Pajares, 1992; Phipps & Borg, 2009), teachers' core beliefs are the ones that are more stable and powerful regarding what teachers do. In Borg (2006), the author claims that teachers' peripheral beliefs are, in contrast, less stable and might be changed and/or modified when tension arises between a peripheral belief and a core belief. This seems to be a matter of strength and will vary enormously from individual to individual.

Pre-service Teachers' Beliefs in Research / Formation

Pajares (1992) highlights, that beliefs are formed early and tend to self-perpetuate, persevering even against contradictions caused by reason, time, schooling, or experience. He also claims that the earlier a belief is incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult it is to alter (newly acquired beliefs are most vulnerable to change). According to him, beliefs about teaching are well established by the time a student gets to college. Zhou & Liu (1997) and Li (2012) state that teachers' beliefs are shaped during their teaching processes and indicate the teachers' subjective knowledge of educational phenomenon, particularly towards their own teaching abilities and their learners.

Many research studies have produced contradictory findings concerning the change in pre-service teachers' pre-established beliefs related to what generally makes effective language teaching and learning, what roles language teachers play in the language classroom, how error correction should be done, what the role of grammar in language teaching is and which approach to teaching grammar is effective, which language skills should be focused on and how they should be balanced and integrated, how teaching materials should be utilised, etc. In this case, Borg (2003) points out that students entering language teacher education programmes may have an inappropriate and inadequate, unrealistic, or even naive understanding of teaching and learning (e.g., students in the initial stages of their teacher education programme believe that languages are learnt mainly by imitation and that errors are made mainly due to L1 interference).

Prospective Change in Pre-service Teachers' Beliefs

Some of the studies confirm *that pre-service teachers' beliefs can be developed and changed* during education programmes (Blume et al., 2019; Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000; Debreli, 2012; Kavanoz, 2016; McCrocklin, 2020; Parkinson et al., 2017; Sheridan, 2016; Simsek, 2020). As Simsek (2020) states, this conceptual shift can be identified in their teaching perspectives from

behaviourist to constructivist paradigms of knowledge acquisition. Additionally, in Debreli's (2012) research study, the author concludes that although pre-service teachers' beliefs about effective language teaching and learning aligned with the content courses at the beginning of the teacher education programme, when they got opportunities to observe and teach in real classrooms, they found some of their beliefs were sometimes not applicable (e.g., on the onehand, using discussions, group work, playing games could be effective, on the other hand, they found these activities distracting and difficult to control, thus they preferred not to use them too frequently; at the beginning, they found learning grammar the least important skill in the EFL classroom, but over time, they stated, that an emphasis should occassionally be put on grammar since it impacts students' speaking and writing skills.

Conversely, according to constructivist theory, *teacher education programmes are not influential enough for modifying and changing pre-service teachers' beliefs* (Altan, 2012; Ballesteros et al., 2020; Capan, 2014; Mattheoudakis, 2007; Peacock, 2001). As Ballesteros et al. (2020) sum up in their study on Mexican pre-service English teachers, the metaphors provided by the researched teachers spanned two main categories, those of cultural transmission and learner-centred growth. The first one depicted such metaphors as "teacher as owner of knowledge", and the second was exemplified by such metaphors as "teachers as guides, atmosphere controllers, counsellors, fuel, farmers, and discoverers". In a similar way, Soleimani (2020) agrees that pre-service teachers who believe in constructivist conceptions tend to consider knowledge as a tentative phenomenon and those with traditional conception think that knowledge is certain and fixed. According to the findings by Ballesteros et al. (2020), the prevalence of the categories of transmission and provider of knowledge that accounts for 41.5 % of the metaphors produced by the pre-service teachers, is disappointing because efforts have been made in most education programs in the world in order to bring about a change in the traditional way of conceptualizing teaching and learning. In Soleimani's (2020) mixed-method research, by contrast, 200 EFL teachers who filled out the questionnaires followed by semi-structured interview sessions carried out with 20 participants, the research findings proved that EFL teachers predominantly practised facilitator style of teaching and inclined to student/learner-centered and constructive practices of teaching. The author concludes that the limitation of the study lies in the fact that data were collected from private language learning centers in which communications and improving speaking and listening skills are largely emphasized. Therefore, in such a context, EFL teachers mainly believe learning is malleable and

learning effort is the major source of knowledge acquisition. This finding reflects the idea of knowledge transformation rather than transmission propagated by post method proponents.

Interestingly, in the research study Uysal and Bardakci (2014) carried out on 108 primary-level EFL teachers in Turkey, it was found that *pre-service teacher-preparation courses* were reported *to have only a 3% influence on teacher behaviour*. The authors inquired about the stated beliefs of EFL teachers concerning grammar teaching and concluded that most of the teachers favoured traditional approaches to grammar teaching such as the use of explicit grammar teaching followed by controlled practise, the use of L1, mechanical drills, and repetitions. The teachers' most common classroom practices were also mostly related to teaching, practising, and testing grammar. Communicative activities were reported as important only after the traditional practices. The majority of teachers were found to use translations into L1, teacher-centred instruction, and deductive and explicit approaches to grammar teaching, with or without a controlled practice component. This finding indicated a gap between the teacher beliefs/practices and recent developments in second language acquisition research. This finding also pointed out a severe divergence between teaching practices and the curriculum goals in Turkey, which revealed an incongruence between curriculum innovations and teacher behaviours.

Undoubtedly, influencing pre-service teachers' beliefs relies upon multiple interdependent factors, such as the quality of the content of the study programme, the links between theory and practice, the balance between theoretical lectures and practical seminars and workshops, the length and quality of teaching practicums and classroom practices, and undoubtedly, the characteristics of university teachers, lecturers, mentors, and supervisors. Moreover, it is important emphasize that pre-service teachers' beliefs are formulated in particular socio-cultural and economic contexts that lead to expectedly different teaching behaviors and practices.

Method

Context

Regarding the issue of language teacher education programmes in Slovakia, Lojova (2009) points out that it is essential to focus on creating the teacher trainees' own theories on foreign language learning because when entering a classroom, each teacher behaves

according to his/her own theories of learning and teaching, which are comprised of his/her interiorised beliefs, attitudes, opinions, and understanding of learning and teaching processes. The author admits that even if the role of (university) lectures is obvious, seminars with problem-solving tasks leading to trainees' developing intellectual independence and autonomy must be assigned a high priority. Moreover, Siposova (2019) adds that it seems reasonable to suggest that pre-service teachers' beliefs are prone to change, particularly when the pre-service teachers observe the discrepancy between the knowledge they learn during language teacher education (i.e. the theory they study in lectures and seminars), what they would ideally like to do in their imaginative classrooms, and what they actually do during the short-term teaching practicum or, later, in the course of their classroom practice. Similarly, Vallente (2019) claims when the pre-service English language teachers enter the laboratory high school (a kind of training platform for education of the students of the college) for their on-campus practice teaching, they are met with the tension that concerns the ELT practices they learned in their college and those they are expected to implement in the laboratory high school.

Generally, pre-service English language teachers in Slovakia have to take a number of linguistic, literature-based, and linguo-didactic disciplines during their five-year-long study programme (three years of undergraduate study and two years of graduate study). Moreover, they are obliged to participate in the teaching practicum carried out in Slovak state schools (two weeks as an undergraduate and ten weeks as a graduate student). In the context of Slovak pre-service English language teacher education, we count ten universities and twelve faculties at present. As aforementioned, pre-service language teacher's theoretical backgrounds are shaped by lectures and seminars as well as obligatory teaching practicums in primary and lower and upper secondary schools. The number of specialised linguo-didactic courses (e.g., ELT Methodology I, II, III, Teaching English to Young Learners, ICT in the Language Classroom, Psychological Aspects of Language Teaching and Learning, etc.) provide our pre-service teachers with the knowledge and skills that will have an impact on their pre-established beliefs. On the one hand, many of their pre-established beliefs remain; on the other hand, potential changes can take place, especially when they are trained to recognise how their beliefs are changed and how contextual factors (e.g., particular school environments and conditions during their ten-

week-long teaching practicum in their graduate programme) can influence their instructional practices. By providing pre-service teachers with the opportunity to reflect on their beliefs, e.g., through developing reflective thinking (e.g., answering reflective journals, filling in research questionnaires, etc.) during pre-service education, we can enhance their professional development and ultimately benefit their language learners'. Correspondingly, Pajares (1992) stated that teachers' beliefs and practices seem to be formed not by their pre-service education but through a process of enculturation and social construction once they started teaching.

Participants

A total of 150 students in all grades (undergraduate and graduate levels) of the pre-service teacher programme study at the Faculty of Education, Comenius University in Bratislava, Slovakia participated in the research study. Since we assumed that it would not be realistically possible to get answers from all students, we wanted to create a sample of 100 students (to meet the requirements for using the central limit theorem and correct use of statistical methods). Therefore, we randomly assigned case numbers to the students and then randomly selected 100 of them (according to Agresti & Franklin, 2007). As a result, we were able to get answers from 99 of these selected pre-service teachers enrolled in the five-year-long English language teaching study programme provided by the Faculty of Education, Comenius University in Slovakia. The research sample consists of 20 randomly selected first-year undergraduate students (aged 19-20), 23 second-year undergraduate students (aged 20-21), 19 third-year undergraduate students (aged 21-22), 28 firs-year graduate students (aged 22-23) and 9 second-year graduate students (aged 23-24), i.e., 62 undergraduates and 37 graduate students. In terms of statistics, the

sample of 99 participants is sufficient for the correct use of selected statistical methods, the interpretations of the findings, and the generalisations of conclusions to the whole population. In addition, we used the bootstrapping method to enhance the sample size. This method was used because the application of the MANOVA method divides the sample of 99 students into smaller subsamples. Since not every of these subsamples meets the required sample size to justify the validity of the normality assumption using the application of the central limit theorem, we enlarged the sample using the bootstraping method. This method randomly generates new cases in the database based on existing cases. Thus, we increased the sample to 1,000 students, while the random generation of new cases was carried out by stratification according to the year of study. Thus, the original set of 99 students was divided into subsets according to the year of study and new random units were generated in them based on the real units in these subgroups. This also preserves the proportion of students in each year of study in the whole sample.

Materials and Instruments

Based on the questionnaire used in Kissau et al. (2012), we modified the instrument to align it with the purpose of the current research study, thus specifying the statements using the effective 'English' teacher instead of the original 'foreign language'. We also made changes concerning the identification of a study programme by indicating particular years (i.e., first-year, second-year, or third-year undergraduate; first-year or second-year graduate). The questionnaire, based on a 5-item Likert scale, included the following options (1 = Strongly Disagree/SD, 2 = Disagree/D, 3 = Neutral/N, 4 = Agree/A, 5 = Strongly Agree/SA). Furthermore, the questionnaire subscales were thematically divided into five sections, A – E, see table 1.

Table 1

Sections of questionnaire subscales

Section	Subscale	Question numbers	Number of items	Cronbach's α
A	Language and Culture	Q1 – Q9	9	0.83
B	Teaching Strategies	Q10 – Q17	8	0.8
C	Individual Differences	Q18 – Q22	5	0.85
D	Assessment and Grammar	Q 23 – Q29	7	0.82
E	Second Language Theory	Q30 – Q45	16	0.61

Procedure

We administered the questionnaire to 99 randomly

selected pre-service teachers enrolled in the five-year-long (three years of undergraduate and two years of graduate study) English language teaching study programme provided by the Faculty of Education, Comenius University in Slovakia. The questionnaire was administered in print at the beginning of the winter term 2020/2021 during English Language Teaching (ELT) Methodology seminars (September 2020) carried out via in-person teaching. The rationale behind administering the questionnaire personally was to obtain prompt feedback from all the participants of the seminars. By filling out and returning the survey, the participants of the study gave their informed consent. Participants were encouraged to tear off the cover page and retain it for their records. It took approximately 25-30 minutes to fill ou the questionnaire.

Analysis

To compare students in different years of study, we used the method of analysis of variance with the multivariate dependent variable (MANOVA). MANOVA is an extension of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) method, which is one of the most frequently used statistical models suitable for verifying the existence of significant differences in several independent samples. In other words, to verify the significant influence of the factor (qualitative variable, in our case the degree of study) on the values of the multivariate dependent variable (quantitative variable, in our case the score on the scale of pre-service teachers' beliefs on individual questions in the questionnaire).

We considered a random sample of the students, for which we have measured values of the dependent variable(the score on the scale of pre-service teachers' beliefs on the 45 questions in the questionnaire), and factormeaning the year of the study – five groups of pre-service teachers (first, second, and third-year undergraduates and first and second-year graduate students). The whole sample of students was then divided into the subsamples given by the different levels of factor . Thus,will be the subsamples of the multivariate dependent variablecorresponding to the levels of factor(Svabova et al., 2020).

The MANOVA method aims to analyse whether there are statistically significant differences between the average values of the dependent variable, the score on the scale of pre-service teachers' beliefs for individual questions, in the subsets created for the individual

years of study, i.e., whether these mean values can be considered equal (which actually means that the year of study does not have a significant impact on the values of the dependent variable) or differ significantly (which means that the year of study has a significant impact on the dependent variable).

Formally, we would write the tested null hypothesis

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \cdots = \mu_5, \qquad (1)$$

where μ_1 is the mean value of the multivariate dependent variable in the i-th year of the study, $i = 1, \ldots, 5$. The alternative hypothesis can be written formally

$$H_1: \mu_i \neq \mu_j, \qquad (2)$$

for some $i \neq j$, $i, j = 1, \ldots, 5$.

For a visual view of the mean values in the subsets, we use a Means Plot, which indicates what is the content of the null hypothesis of the test and suggests whether there are significant differences in the mean values of individual study levels, and we can expect the null hypothesis to be rejected. Or, conversely, if the average values are similar, we can expect not to reject the null hypothesis. In testing, we use a significance level of 0.10.

We performed hypothesis tests in the statistical software IBM SPSS Statistics 25. We evaluated the test results based on the p-value of the test. If the -value of the test is lower than the significance level, the null hypothesis is rejected. Rejection of the null hypothesis H_0 and acceptance of the alternative hypothesis H_1 means that the year of the study programme education content impacts the score of the students on individual questions. On the other hand, the case of not-rejection of H_0 means that the year of the study programme does not significantly influence the scores of pre-service teachers' beliefs.

Results

Table 2 shows the results of the one-way MANOVA test. Based on the p-value of Wilks' lambda for the factor variable *degree* of study (p-value = 0.059), we can conclude that the pre-service teachers' beliefs were significantly dependent on the actual level of their study.

In the following parts, we included the results of those questions for which there were significant differences in the individual years of the study programme. In these, using the post-hoc Scheffe's test of multiple comparisons, we found those years of study in which there were significant differences in students' answers.

Based on the statistical processing, Figure 1 shows there are significant differences between the groups of the first-year and third-year undergraduates for **Q9** from **Section A (Language and culture),** referring to the implementation of materials in the EFL classroom as stated in Table 3.

Table 2

Multivariate MANOVA test

		Multivariate Tests[a]				
	Effect	*Value*	*F*	*Hypothesis df*	*Error df*	*Sig.*
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	0.998	581.069[b]	45.0	50.000	0.000
	Wilks' Lambda	0.002	581.069[b]	45.0	50.000	0.000
	Hotelling's Trace	522.962	581.069[b]	45.0	50.000	0.000
	Roy's Largest Root	522.962	581.069[b]	45.0	50.000	0.000
degree	Pillai's Trace	2.033	1.218	180.0	212.000	0.084
	Wilks' Lambda	0.050	1.254	180.0	202.192	0.059
	Hotelling's Trace	4.831	1.302	180.0	194.000	0.036
	Roy's Largest Root	2.396	2.822[c]	45.0	53.000	0.000

Note:

a. Design: Intercept + degree
b. Exact statistic
c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.

Table 3

Question 9

Question no.	Section	Statement
Q9	A: Language and culture	An effective English teacher selects materials that present viewpoints that are unique to the target language and its culture (e.g., a text shows how people greet each other differently in the target culture).

Figure 1.

Differences among particular grades for Q9
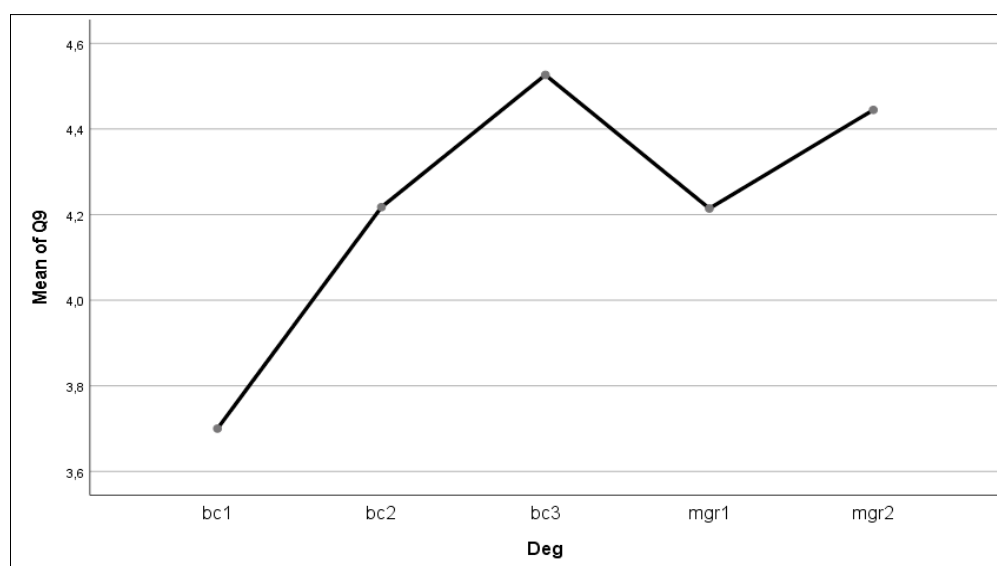
For **Q9**, the statistical differences were found by Scheffe's test of multiple comparisons between the groups of first-year and third-year undergraduates (mean difference = - 0.83; p-value = 0.012, using bootstrapping with 1 000 samples: p-value <0.05, 95 % confidence interval for mean difference is (-0.85;-0.81)).

Regarding this, it is necessary to consider that first-year undergraduates are student teachers who have just entered the five-year-long teacher education programme at the university (i.e. three years of undergraduate studies and two years of graduate studies). Therefore, the impact of their previous language studies in upper secondary education may be seen, reflecting the selection and usage of materials utilised by their former language teachers. In contrast, third-year undergraduates are student teachers who have already passed several courses at university, in particular, area studies and intercultural awareness courses aimed at developing their knowledge of cultural aspects.

Regarding the second section, **Section B (Teaching strategies)**, Figure 2 shows the significant differences found for **Q13** (stated in Table 4), referring to the opportunities to learn more about other subjects in English in the foreign language classroom. For Q13, significant differences were found between the groups of first-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students (mean difference = - 1.28; p-value = 0.029, using bootstrapping with 1 000 samples: p-value = 0.012, 95 % confidence interval for mean difference is (-1.32;-1.25)).

Obviously, second-year graduate students have already passed the majority of their methodology courses, e.g., CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) aspects. Thus, they are aware of the benefits of including content knowledge in language teaching as it enhances the complex integration of all language skills and language means for the sake of practical application and real-life usage.

With regard to the third section, **Section C (Individual differences)**, there were no statistical differences found among particular years (min p-value = 0.094). Therefore, it can be assumed that pre-service teachers within different years of the study programme are aware of the individual differences that should be considered when teaching and learning a foreign language. Obviously, since all of them experienced language study themselves, they realise how important these factors are, namely when

Table 4

Question 13

Question no.	Section	Statement
Q13	B: Teaching strategies	An effective English teacher provides opportunities for students to learn more about other subjects (e.g., math, science, social studies) in the target language classroom.

Figure 2

Differences among particular grades for Q13
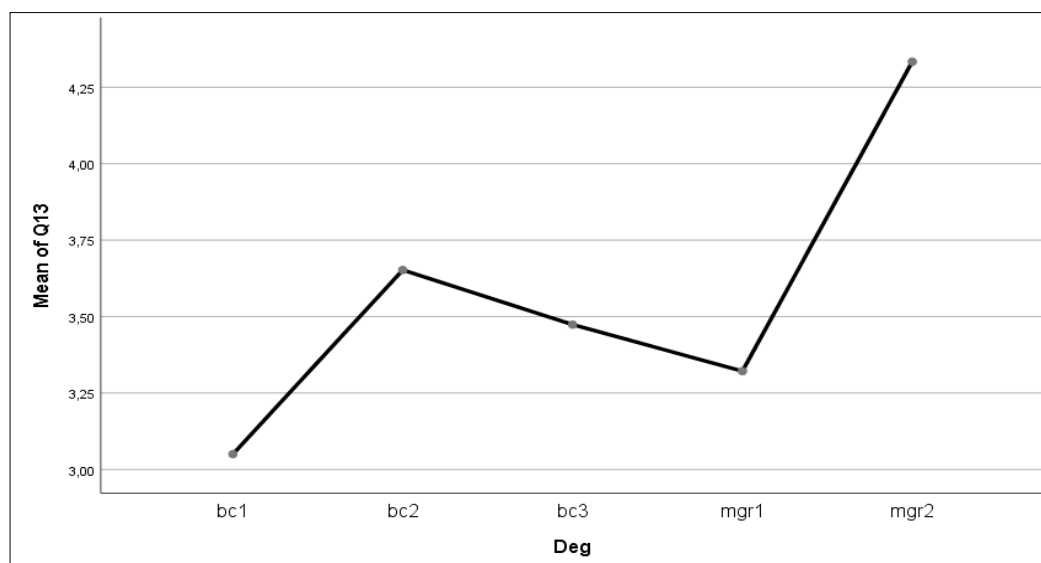
teachers plan the activities in order to show practical reasons for doing them; when teachers select the activities including a variety of students' interests; the age of learners; and learners' learning styles and strategies. According to Oxford (2003), it is crucial for a learner to be aware of one's learning style but warns us against being too rigid about the types as they "are not dichotomous (black or white, present or absent). Learning styles generally operate on a continuum or on multiple, intersecting continua."

The research findings in **Section D** (**Assessment and grammar**), as stated in Table 5, show that there are significant differences between undergraduates and graduate students (first-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students: mean difference = 1.23; p-value = 0.016, using bootstrapping with 1 000 samples: p-value = 0.011, 95 % confidence interval for mean difference is (1.20;1.26); and second-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students: mean difference = 1.08; p-value = 0.041, using bootstrapping with 1 000 samples: p-value = 0,01, 95 % confidence interval for mean difference is (1.05;1.11)), in particular for **Q23** concerning the basics of linguistic analysis applied

in the foreign language as shown in Figure 3.

Presumably, this finding lies in the fact that undergraduates are obliged to take purely linguistic courses aimed at enhancing declarative knowledge of phonetics and phonology and morphology and syntax in the first three years of their language teacher education programme. They believe that academic grammar needs to be explicitly applied also in foreign language teaching. On the contrary, graduate students, who are fully aware of ELT methodology consider declarative knowledge to be subservient to the procedural knowledge that resides in the practical application of communicative activities carried out in language classrooms.

Another difference in **Section D** (**Assessment and grammar**) was found in **Q25** (as shown in Figure 4) concerning students' homework completion and its position in the assessment scale. Scheffe's multiple comparisons tests showed significant differences between the groups of second-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students (mean difference = 1.16; p-value = 0.048, using bootstrapping with 1 000 samples: p-value = 0.011, 95 % confidence interval for mean difference is (1.13;1.20)).

Table 5

Questions 23 and 25

Question no.	Section	Statement
Q23	D: Assessment and grammar	An effective English teacher understands the basics of linguistic analysis (phonology, syntax) as they apply to the target language.
Q25		An effective English teacher bases at least part of students' grades on the completion of homework.

Figure 3

Differences among particular grades for Q23
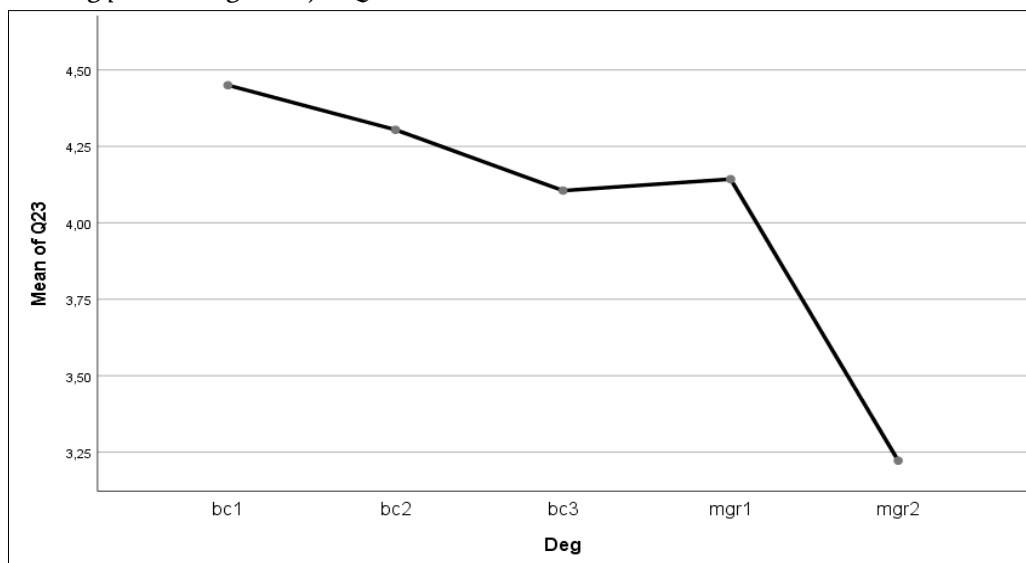
It has to be emphasised that (language) teachers at all levels are constantly assigning and correcting homework. Activities related to homework are part of a teacher's daily work. According to Warton (2001), homework is a widespread educational activity across cultures, ages, and ability levels. We claim that although homework and assessment have long-established connections and rely on old school traditions, there is little research on homework assessment. We assume that the beliefs of second-year undergraduates are based mainly on their previous schooling when they themselves were assigned homework and graded. Conversely, second-year graduate students, having completed their ELT methodology courses, are aware of the research findings in this field. In fact, a review of the literature (Strandberg, 2013) suggests that there is a gap in the research field of homework, especially in relation to formative assessment practices that are carried out by teachers to avoid discouraging their students from taking more responsibility for their homework.

Finally, the research findings in **Section E** (**Second language theory**) presented in Table 6 showed the significant differences between undergraduates and graduate students (first-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students: mean difference = ; p-value = , using bootstrapping withsamples: p-value = ,confidence interval for mean difference is) for **Q36** concerning error correction as shown in Figure 5.

This suggests that teacher education programmes may be influential enough to modify and change pre-services teachers' pre-established beliefs. On the one hand, first-year undergraduates, having completed their former schooling where their teachers constantly corrected them, are convinced that teacher correction must be done in every lesson and in every aspect of language study. On the other hand, graduate students, who are about to finish their pre-service education, and hence are fully aware of ELT methodology, report beliefs that indicate the impact of second language theory.

Discussion

Similarity of Beliefs in (C) Individual Differences Section

In brief, the examined pre-service teachers had similar beliefs in regard to Section C (Individual differences) of the administered questionnaire. Based on the analysis of the questions in this section, we can conclude that pre-service teachers within the five continuous years of their teacher education

Figure 4

Differences among particular grades for Q25
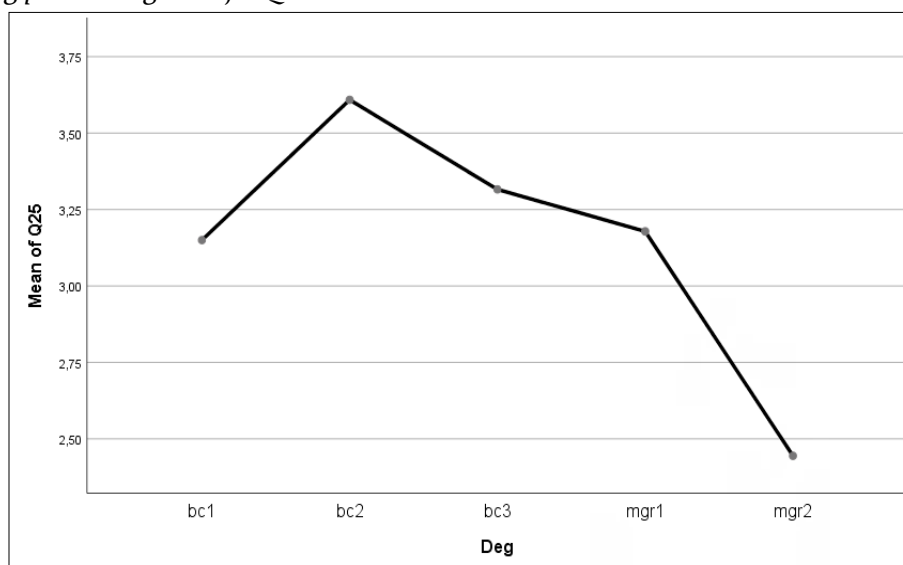
Table 6

Question 36

Question no.	Section	Statement
Q36	E: Second language theory	Foreign language teachers must correct most students' errors.

Figure 5

Differences among particular grades in Q36
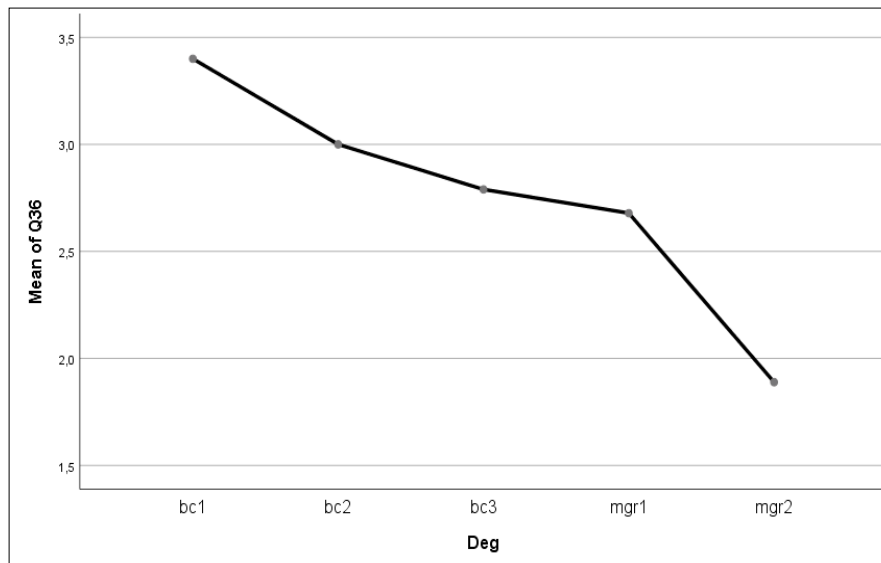
programme are aware of the fact that individual learner differences play a crucial role in learning a foreign language. We assume that they believe a teacher should be skilled and willing to help students use these differences to their advantage in the process of learning a foreign language. Contrary to traditional language teaching approaches in which the teacher was supposed to be a controller and the centre of the class (Ballesteros et al., 2020; Uysal and Bardakci, 2014), the learner is given the centrality in a student/learner-centred approach (Soleimani, 2020). The assumption is that this approach allows teachers to consider and study individual differences since their pedagogical implications will further lead to the kind of teaching practices that increase the success ratio at the foreign language achievement level. According to McDonough (1981), "the teachers have six options to select: do nothing different, as the variables are so complex and the effects relatively small; use such knowledge in the diagnosis of learning problems; select only students who have the demonstrated relevant qualities; select a method which is known to match the kind of learner they have; train the students to adopt the behaviour characteristics of good language learners; only teach students whose learning characteristics match their own in some way." Obviously, a language teacher, apart from imparting linguistic knowledge, must also be a psychologist who can modify his/her teaching methodology according to the factors related to the individual differences of his/her learners. Moreover, s/he has to realise that it is not enough to know that all students are different from each other. Regarding this, Strevens (1985) suggests the learning style should determine the teaching style, teaching materials, and course syllabus. He argues that one of the fundamental

teaching activities is shaping the input that the learner receives. Therefore, it can be concluded that to match teaching to learning, at least two teaching strategies should be involved. Firstly, it refers to the variety of pre-planned teaching materials that are prepared on the basis of the learners' characteristics. Secondly, it is essential to have teachers who are sensitive to individual differences, i.e., teachers who are able not only to decide on and use a teaching method appropriate to the class but also to make decisions from moment to moment in the class depending on the particular learner, situation, and language task. Thus, it is necessary to elaborate and establish appropriate teacher education programmes for pre-service teachers to develop their own beliefs about particular criteria for both methods and materials selection.

Significant Differences in Pre-service Teachers' Beliefs

Based on the statistical processing, the examined pre-service teachers exhibited different perception in Sections A (Language and culture), B (Teaching strategies), D (Assessment and grammar), and E (Second language theory). We found that significant differences were proved for Q9 (Language and culture) between first-year undergraduates and third-year undergraduates; for Q13 (Teaching strategies) between first-year undergraduates and second-year graduates; for Q23 (Assessment and grammar) between first-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students as well as second-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students; for Q25 (Assessment and grammar) between second-year undergraduates and second-year graduate

students, and finally, for Q36 (Second language theory) between first-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students.

Differences in Beliefs in (A) Language and Culture Section

Referring to a detailed analysis of the background of Q9, we have to consider the intertwined relationship between culture and language. Undoubtedly, language teachers (in our case, third-year undergraduates – having passed the first obligatory ELT Methodology course) realise that teaching a foreign/second language (L2) is incomplete without studying culture. Based on the scientific literature (Robb, 2005; Kakeru, 2012), for L2 learners, language study seems senseless if the students know nothing about the people who speak the target language or the country in which the target language is spoken. Learning a foreign language means a lot more than the manipulation of grammar and vocabulary in speaking or writing. According to Robb (2005), "the need for cultural literacy in ELT arises mainly from the fact that most language learners, not exposed to cultural elements of the society in question, seem to encounter significant hardship in communicating meaning to native speakers." In addition, many authors (McDevitt, 2004, Sysoyev & Donelson, 2002, etc.) claim that, nowadays, the L2 culture is presented as an interdisciplinary core in many L2 curricula designs and textbooks. In Kakeru (2012), the author contends that culture influences language teaching in two ways: linguistic and pedagogical. Linguistically, it affects the semantic, pragmatic, and discourse levels of the language. Pedagogically, it influences the choice of the language materials because the cultural content of the language materials and the cultural basis of the teaching methodology must be considered while deciding upon the language materials.

Differences in Beliefs in (B) Teaching Strategies Section

In terms of Q13 (statistical differences between first-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students), it is crucial to consider the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) aspects implemented in lessons. By teaching CLIL lessons, we are giving students the tools to grow, and acquire and activate cross-disciplinary skills by using a language different from their own. CLIL encourages learners to think critically and utilise their collaboration skills. Students in CLIL lessons need to pay attention, observe, and learn the language by learning about other subjects in that language since the CLIL curriculum balances bilingual education and language learning. Repeated exposure and stimulation help students assimilate the language while learning particular content (e.g., history, chemistry, biology, geography, math, physics, etc.) that will greatly expand their horizons and promote natural curiosity. Moreover, apart from the significant differences between undergraduates and graduate students, we have to point out that third-year undergraduates showed a very high degree of agreement with Q13, which can be explained by the fact that they had already learnt about CLIL methodology in their first ELT Methodology courses.

Differences in Beliefs in (D) Assessment and Grammar Section

Referring to Q23, according to Stern (1997), we need to consider the general model for second language teaching comprised of three levels. The point of view represented by the model is that in language teaching, we have to operate with four key concepts: language, learning, teaching, and context. At the basic Level 1 (foundations), a prospective teacher, either implicitly or explicitly, works with language theory. The main disciplines that can be drawn upon are linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and the study of particular languages. Generally, Level 1 disciplines represent the core of obligatory courses that also the first- year and second-year undergraduates take. However, language teaching demands a view of the learner and the nature of language learning. Hence, Level 2 (inter-level) emphasises the disciplines that most directly relate to this issue, such as psychology, particularly educational psychology and psycholinguistics, for language learning and language use. Furthermore, language teaching implies a view of the language teacher and language teaching. The discipline that most directly relates to this concept is the study of education. Finally, language teaching occurs in a given context. The interpretation of context is an essential part of a theory. Therefore, language learning and teaching must always be viewed in a particular context, setting, or background. A substantial part of these courses is provided in the master's degree portion of our pre-service education programmes, not omitting Level 3 (practice level) of the model. This includes methodology and organisation, i.e., the objectives, content, procedures, materials, and evaluation of outcomes, as well as planning and administration at different educational levels (primary, secondary, higher education, teacher education, adult education, informal education).In addition, all graduate students in our faculty undergo obligatory teaching practicums during which they are allowed to put the theory they get from the courses into practice.

The research findings referring to Q25 revealed significant differences between second-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students. Unfortunately, few studies address students' perspectives on homework in relation to assessment (Warton, 2001; Xu & Yuan, 2003). However, two perceptions expressed by students in Wilson and Rhodes (2010) have a connection to formative assessment and homework: firstly, if teachers do not grade the homework and return it quickly, the students report feeling like they have wasted their time on that activity, and secondly, students prefer that the teacher shows how the homework has an impact on the current subject matter and connects homework assignments to current lessons. Therefore, we can assume that our teacher education programme has impacted the graduate students and helped them realise the importance of formative assessment, expressed by giving grades. Therefore, our second-year graduate students disagreed with Q25.

Differences in Beliefs in (E) Second Language Theory Section

Finally, the differences between first-year undergraduates and second-year graduate students on Q36 signify pre-service teachers' beliefs about error correction in the language classroom. We believe that language teachers should be aware that their time and effort needed to correct students' mistakes are not wasted. On the other hand, they should also realise that in many cases, less is more, which is also emphasised by Hubbard (1983). The author states that "teachers will also have to allow errors to go uncorrected on many occasions – something which the behaviourist would not feel happy about." With this in mind, as supported by behaviouristic theory – errors are viewed as a symptom of ineffective teaching or evidence of failure. Therefore, errors become like sin, something to be avoided. The current teaching reality of the 21st century, which nurtures from the postulates of communicative language teaching and the diversity of eclectic teaching methods, advocates certain types of corrective feedback in different circumstances, particularly as a tool for integrating form and meaning.

Contrary to traditional methods, nowadays, the focus is on the process of learning rather than on the product. Undoubtedly, the main goal of the foreign language classroom today is to develop students' language skills and overall communicative competence. Hence, language learners worldwide should be aware of the fact that making mistakes is a natural process in learning a foreign language and that the purpose of giving them feedback is to help

them progress and improve rather than to criticise and punish them. Owing to traditional conservative ways of teaching English that our pre-service teachers (first-year undergraduates) were exposed to, their beliefs reflect their personal experiences. Contrarily, as our second-year graduate students have completed their ELT Methodology courses in which they also dealt with different attitudes towards error correction, it can be assumed that this pre-service education impacted their current beliefs about this issue.

The study results have implications and applications for policymakers and school authorities designing language teacher education programmes in which specialised courses should be offered. For example, pre-service language teachers should be trained to recognise how their beliefs and pre-established philosophies may influence their prospective classroom practices. Similarly, Ballesteros et al. (2020) claim that teacher educators need to make their students' conceptual systems 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,. The challenge of a change in pre-service teachers' pre-established beliefs can bring about new directions in language teacher education programmes so that the programmes enhance teachers' professional development and benefit their language learners. We agree with Farrell (2019a), who emphasises that teacher education programmes deal with several major problems to achieve the goal of quality and effective education. These include bridging the gap between theory and practice, making practice more meaningful and significant for student teachers, and a lack of follow-up contact with teachers. Furthermore, Simsek (2020) sought to investigate the impact of a 20-hour peer-tutoring project on the teaching beliefs, community service attitudes, and personal and professional development of 14 Turkish EFL teacher candidates. The author revealed a promising shift concerning not only a conceptual shift in the area of knowledge acquisition but also their community partnership approaches from the unidirectional to the reciprocal pattern of altruism towards their tutees.

The results of the research study also demonstrate the need for more research related to this issue. By adding a qualitative component to the strictly quantitative measures used in the present research study, we can enrich the statistical data through complex personal interpretations of the research subjects. Further research by means of qualitative research methods

involving narration, in-depth interviews, and unstructured observations processed in the form of either Grounded Theory Paradigm models, concept maps, metaphors etc., would be essential for gathering qualitative data that could reveal specific aspects of pre-service teachers' beliefs about language teaching and learning. Moreover, longitudinal studies may bring about complex research data that will continuously enrich the issue of teachers' beliefs.

Lastly, there is a limitation to the present study, which relied entirely on a questionnaire to discover pre-service teachers' beliefs about effective language teaching and learning and was administered to pre-service teachers just at one Faculty of Education. Despite the limitations regarding the small scale of this study, it may be seen as a starting point for educational researchers interested in making comparisons of diversity within groups of different years of student teachers enrolled in pre-service language education programmes. A weakness of the study can also be considered the fact that in the study, we focused on different students of each year of study. It would certainly be appropriate to monitor the same students during all the years of their studies and thus assess the impact of their studies on their beliefs about teaching. In this, we see a possible further direction of the study. However, this weakness was balanced using a very robust statistical method that is appropriate and commonly used for the data of this nature. The obtained results are statistically significant and generalisable with high probability.

Conclusion

This study addressed the gap in pre-service teachers' beliefs research by examining the impact of the teacher study programme viewed across the whole spectrum of pre-service teachers. The results showed that there were statistically significant differences among different years of the study programme within the continuum. The impact of the 5-year-long study programme led to pre-service teachers' raised awareness and some modifications in their pre-established beliefs based on the learnt and acquired knowledge and gained practical teaching experiences during the practicums in higher grades (third year of undergraduate and first and second years of graduate school)

Although the examined pre-service teachers derived their beliefs based on their previous language learning experiences during their school years, having attended and passed ELT Methodology courses as well as teaching practicums at schools, pre-service teachers

developed more awareness of their beliefs leading to particular changes in their pre-established beliefs by demonstrating their ability to link linguistic and literary content and language pedagogy in the EFL classroom.

The results of this study are to some extent consistent with the results in similar studies. It is important to emphasise that compared to undergraduate students (1st— 3rd year bachelors), graduate students (1st and 2nd year masters) showed significant shift in their beliefs about teaching strategies, assessment and grammar and second language theory thus demonstrating conceptual change in their beliefs which was developed and modified according to the personal teaching experiences they had had within the teacher study programme

In the coming months we will try to enrich the field of language teacher education with qualitative research findings reinforcing the importance of pre-service teachers' self-reflection, which should become one of the essential skills that needs to be fostered in all candidates by giving them the opportunity to reflect on their beliefs, e.g., through developing reflective thinking (e.g., answering reflective journals, etc.) during pre-service education.

Acknowledgements

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Abelson, R. P. (1979). Differences between belief and knowledge systems. *Cognitive Science*, *3*(4), 355–366. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15516709cog0304_4

Agresti, A., & Franklin, C. (2007). *Statistics: The art and science of learning from data* (2nd ed.). Pearson Prentice Hall. https://www.pearson.com/content/one-dot-com/one-dot-com/us/en/higher-education/product.html

Wheelan, C. (2014). *Naked statistics - Stripping the*

dread from the data. W. W. Norton & Company, Inc.

Altan, M. X. (2006). Beliefs about language learning of foreign language - Major university students. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *31*(2). https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2006v31n2.5

Altan, M. Z. (2012). Pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about foreign language learning. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *35*(4), 481–493. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2011.643399

Ballesteros, A. C. V., Moreno, I. O., & Delgado, L. D. F. (2020). Teaching is not always easy: Mexican pre-service English teachers' beliefs on teaching and learning. *Journal of Language and Education*, *6*(3), 36–51. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2020.10116

Blume, C., Gerlach, D., Roters, B., & Schmidt, T. (2019). The ABCs of inclusive English teacher education: A quantitative and qualitative study examining the attitudes, beliefs and (reflective) competence of pre-service foreign language teachers. *TESL-EJ*, 22(4), 1-18

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, *36*(2), 81–109. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444803001903

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. Continuum. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050802277076

Brookhart, S. M., & Freeman, D. J. (1992). Characteristics of entering teacher candidates. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(1), 37–60. https://doi.org/10.2307/1170715

Cabaroglu, N., & Roberts, J. (2000). Development in student teachers' pre-existing beliefs during a 1-year PGCE programme. *System*, *28*(3), 387–402. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(00)00019-1

Calderhead, J. (1996). Teachers: Beliefs and knowledge. In *Handbook of educational psychology* (pp. 709–725). Prentice Hall International.

Capan, S. A. (2014). Pre-service English as a foreign language teachers' belief development about grammar instruction. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *39*(12). https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2014v39n12.9

Debreli, E. (2012). Change in beliefs of pre-service teachers about teaching and learning English as a foreign language throughout an undergraduate pre-service teacher training program. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *46*, 367–373. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.124

Fang, Z. (1996). A review of research on teacher beliefs and practices. *Educational Research*, *38*(1), 47–65. https://doi.org/10.1080/0013188960380104

Farrell, T. (2019a). 'My training has failed me': Inconvenient truths about Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE). *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language – Electronic Journal*, *22*(4), 1–16.

Farrell, T. (2019b). Standing on the shoulders of giants: Interpreting reflective practice in TESOL. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, *7*(3), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.30466/ijltr.2019.120733

Farrell, T., & Yang, D. (2019). Exploring an EAP teacher's beliefs and practices in teaching L2 speaking: A case study. *RELC Journal*, *50*(1), 104–117. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217730144

Florence, N. (2011). *Immigrant teachers, American students: Cultural differences, cultural disconnections*. Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1057/9780230116306

Florio-Ruane, S., & Lensmire, T. J. (1990). Transforming future teachers' ideas about writing instruction. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *22*(3), 277–289. https://doi.org/10.1080/0022027900220305

Gao, Y., & Cui, Y. (2022). English as a foreign language teachers' pedagogical beliefs about teacher roles and their agentic actions amid and after Covid-19: A case study. *RELC Journal*, 1–17. https://doi:10.1177/00336882221074110.

Green, T. F. (1971). *The activities of teaching*. Mcgraw-Hill.

Grossman, P. L., Wilson, S. M., & Shulman, L. S. (2005). Teachers of substance: Subject matter knowledge for teaching. *Profesorado, Revista de Currículum y Formación Del Profesorado*, *9*(2), 1–25.

Hubbard, P. (1983). *A training course for TEFL*. Oxford University Press.

Kakeru, A. (2012, May 6). The cultural basis of teaching English as an international language. The Cultural basis of teaching English as an international language. *Khaliq's Private Blog*. http://khaliqbashar.blogspot.com/2012/05/cultural-basis-of-teaching-english-as.html

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

Kissau, S. P., Algozzine, B., & Yon, M. (2012). Similar but different: The beliefs of foreign language teachers. *Foreign Language Annals*, *45*(4), 580–598. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2013.12001.x

Li, X. (2012). The role of teachers' beliefs in the language teaching-learning process. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 2*(7), 1397-1402.

Lojova, G. (2009). Re-evaluating the role of theory in foreign language teacher education. In *Aspekte der Fremdsprachenlinguistik in der Slowakei und in Ungarn* (pp. 123–136). Eotvos-Lórand Universität.

Mattheoudakis, M. (2007). Tracking changes in pre-service EFL teacher beliefs in Greece: A longitudinal study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *23*(8), 1272–

1288. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.06.001

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.

McDevitt, B. (2004). Negotiating the syllabus: A win-win situation? *ELT Journal*, *58*(1), 3–9. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/58.1.3

McDonough, S. H. (1981). *Psychology in foreign language teaching*. Allen & Unwin.

Nespor, J. (1987). The role of beliefs in the practice of teaching. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *19*(4), 317–328. https://doi.org/10.1080/0022027870190403

Nettle, E. B. (1998). Stability and change in the beliefs of student teachers during practice teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *14*(2), 193–204. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0742-051X(97)00031-0

Nisbett, R. E., & Ross, L. (1980). *Human inference: Strategies and shortcomings of social judgment*. Prentice-Hall.

Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*(1), 131–153. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587610

Oxford, R. (2003). Language learning styles and strategies: An overview. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language, 41*, 359-366.

Pajares, M. F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, *62*(3), 307–332. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543062003307

Parkinson, M., Maggioni, L., Olafson, L., & Vander Veldt Brye, M. (2017). The potential of course intervention to change pre-service teachers' epistemological beliefs. In *Teachers' personal epistemologies: Evolving models for informing practice (Current perspectives on cognition, learning and instruction)* (pp. 215–238). Information Age Publishing Inc.

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System*, *29*(2), 177–195. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(01)00010-0

Phipps, S., & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System*, *37*(3), 380–390. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.03.002

Porter, A. C., & Freeman, D. J. (1986). Professional orientations: An essential domain for teacher testing. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *55*(3), 284–292. https://doi.org/10.2307/2295099

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 102–119). Macmillan.

Robb, P. (2005). Culture in language learning and teaching. *Cukurova University Journal of Social Sciences*, *5*(1), 73–84.

Rokeach, M. (1968). *Beliefs, attitudes, and values: A theory of organisation and change*. Jossey-Bass.

Sheridan, L. (2016). Examining changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs of pedagogy. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *41*(3), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.14221/ajte.2016v41n3.1

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

Siposova, M. (2019). Language teacher cognition in vocabulary teaching. *Studies in Foreign Language Education*, *11*, 126–163.

Soleimani, N. (2020). ELT teachers' epistemological beliefs and dominant teaching style: A mixed method research. *Asian-Pacific Journal of Second and Foreign Language Education*, *5*, 12 https://doi.org/10.1186/s40862-020-00094-y

Stern, H., & Heinrich. (1997). *Fundamental concepts of language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Strandberg, M. (2013). Homework – is there a connection with classroom assessment? A review from Sweden. *Educational Research*, *55*(4), 325–346. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131881.2013.844936

Strevens, P. (1985). *Language learning and language teaching*. Forum Lectures.

Svabova, L., Valaskova, K., Durana, P. & Kliestik, T. (2020). Dependency analysis between various profit measures and corporate total assets for visegrad group's business entities. *Organizacija*, *53*(1), 80-90. https://doi.org/10.2478/orga-2020-0006

Sysoyev, P. V., & Donelson, L. R. (2002). Teaching cultural identity through modern language: Discourse as a marker of an individual's cultural identity. *Journal of Eurasian Research*, *2*(1), 65–70.

Uysal, H. H., & Bardakci, M. (2014). Teacher beliefs and practices of grammar teaching: Focusing on meaning, form, or forms? *South African Journal of Education*, *34*(1), Article 1. https://doi.org/10.4314/saje.v34i1.

Verloop, N., Van Driel, J., & Meijer, P. (2001). Teacher knowledge and the knowledge base of teaching. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *35*(5), 441–461. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-0355(02)00003-4

Warton, P. M. (2001). The forgotten voices in homework: Views of students. *Educational Psychologist*, *36*(3), 155–165. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3603_2

Weinstein, C. S. (1988). Pre-service teachers' expectations about the first year of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *4*(1), 31–40. https://doi.org/10.1016/0742-051X(88)90022-4

Weinstein, C. S. (1989). Teacher education

students' preconceptions of teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *40*(2), 53–60. https://doi.org/10.1177/002248718904000210

Wilson, J., & Rhodes, J. (2010). Student perspectives on homework. *Education*, *131*(2), 351–358.

Xu, J., & Yuan, R. (2003). Doing homework: Listening to students, 'parents,' and teachers' voices in one urban middle school community. *The School Community Journal*, *13*(2), 25–44.

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

Zhou, G., & Liu, X. (1997). *Monograph of educational psychology*. China Audit Press.

Appendix

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, give your opinion on these statements. Indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the statements by marking the number associated with your opinion, where:

1 = strongly disagree   2 = disagree   3 = neutral   4 = agree   5 = strongly agree

Group 1 – Language and culture

QA	Statement: An effective English teacher…					
Q1	… is involved in and enthusiastic about the target language (TL) and the TL culture.	1	2	3	4	5
Q2	… has good oral and writing skills in the TL.	1	2	3	4	5
Q3	… teaches familiar expressions (e.g., It's raining cats and dogs.) to help learners communicate successfully in the TL.	1	2	3	4	5
Q4	… often uses authentic materials (e.g., maps, pictures, clothing, food) to teach about the TL and TL culture.	1	2	3	4	5
Q5	… provides opportunities for students to use the TL in and outside of school.	1	2	3	4	5
Q6	… uses the TL as the main language of communication in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
Q7	… encourages foreign language learners to speak in the TL from the first day of instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
Q8	… gives examples of cultural differences between the student's first language and the TL.	1	2	3	4	5
Q9	… selects materials that present viewpoints that are unique to the foreign language and its culture (e.g., a text shows how people greet each other differently in the target culture).	1	2	3	4	5

Group 2 – Teaching strategies

QB	Statement: An effective English teacher…					
Q10	… uses small groups so that more students are actively involved.	1	2	3	4	5
Q11	… gives learners a time limit to complete small group activities.	1	2	3	4	5
Q12	… gives learners tasks to complete (e.g., labelling a picture, filling in blanks) while reading or listening in the TL.	1	2	3	4	5
Q13	… provides opportunities for students to learn more about other subjects (e.g., math, science, social studies) in the TL classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
Q14	… has students take part in role-plays from the beginning of TL instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
Q15	… asks students to find out unknown information from a classmate or another source.	1	2	3	4	5
Q16	… has students act out commands or do other physical activities to practice listening comprehension in the TL.	1	2	3	4	5
Q17	… uses computers (e.g., computer-based exercises, e-mail, Internet resources).	1	2	3	4	5

Group 3 – Individual differences

QC	Statement: An effective English teacher…					
Q18	… plans activities to meet the ends of TL students with a variety of interests.	1	2	3	4	5
Q19	… plans different teaching strategies and activities depending on the learners' age.	1	2	3	4	5
Q20	… encourages students to explain why they are learning the TL and how they learn best.	1	2	3	4	5
Q21	… teachers TL students to use various strategies to improve their vocabulary learning (e.g., creating a mental picture of the word, memory aids).	1	2	3	4	5
Q22	… teaches TL students to use various learning strategies (e.g., self-evaluation, repetition, draw a picture).	1	2	3	4	5

Group 4 – Assessment and grammar

QD	Statement: An effective English teacher...					
Q23	... understands the basics of linguistic analysis (phonology, syntax) as they apply to the TL.	1	2	3	4	5
Q24	... uses activities and assignments that draw learners' attention to grammatical points.	1	2	3	4	5
Q25	... bases at least part of students' grades on the completion of homework.	1	2	3	4	5
Q26	... grades written assignments mainly on the number of errors in grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
Q27	... grades spoken language mainly on the number of errors in grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
Q28	... bases at least some part of students' grades on how well and how often they speak in the TL.	1	2	3	4	5
Q29	... should rephrase learners' errors rather than focusing on the mistake.	1	2	3	4	5

Group 5 – Second language theory

QE						
Q30	Foreign language learners should speak with native speakers of the TL as often as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
Q31	An understanding of theories of second language acquisition helps foreign language teachers teach better.	1	2	3	4	5
Q32	Foreign language learners do not always learn grammatical points by means of formal instruction.	1	2	3	4	5
Q33	Using small group activities helps make students less nervous in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
Q34	Activities that focus on the exchange of meaningful information between two speakers are more important than activities that focus on the use of grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
Q35	The more intelligent a person is, the more likely he or she is to learn the TL well.	1	2	3	4	5
Q36	Foreign language teachers must correct most students' errors.	1	2	3	4	5
Q37	Having students work in small groups is likely to result in them learning errors in the TL from each other.	1	2	3	4	5
Q38	It is not good to have beginning foreign language learners speak too much with native speakers because native speakers usually do all of the talking.	1	2	3	4	5
Q39	Foreign language learners can learn to use a foreign language well simply by exposing them to it (e.g., reading or listening to the language).	1	2	3	4	5
Q40	Exposing learners to written and spoken language that is a little bit above their current level of understanding is necessary for TL learning.	1	2	3	4	5
Q41	Making students speak quickly in the TL improves TL use.	1	2	3	4	5
Q42	Adults learn a foreign language similar to the way they learnt their first language.	1	2	3	4	5
Q43	Teaching about the TL culture is not as important as teaching grammar and vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
Q44	Native or near-native language skills of the teacher are more important than his or her teaching skills.	1	2	3	4	5
Q45	Learners must understand every word of a spoken message to understand what is being said in the TL.	1	2	3	4	5

Is Listening Comprehension in a Foreign Language Affected by Age?

Eva Stankova[ID], Miroslav Hruby[ID], Kamila Hasilova[ID]

University of Defence in Brno

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Eva Stankova, Language Centre at the University of Defence in Brno, Univerzita obrany, Rektorát, Kounicova 156/65, 662 10 Brno, Czech Republic. E-mail: eva.stankova2@unob.cz

Background: The development of listening comprehension in a foreign language is a complex process, interrelated with the progress in other language skills, and could be affected by numerous variables, including age. This study responds to middle-aged adults' complaints about their difficulties in listening comprehension in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) by examining the relationship between the success in listening comprehension in EFL and age. Although age is considered a crucial factor in language acquisition, there is a lack of studies providing evidence on the relationship between age and listening comprehension achievement in a foreign language in adult learners.

Purpose: This study aimed to find out whether age is one of the significant factors affecting listening comprehension in relation to other language skills.

Method: Quantitative data analysis was used to determine the relationship between the success in listening comprehension in EFL and age in 1,323 Czech adults. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the success in listening in three age groups, tested within five academic years. Then a generalized linear model was used to assess the relationship between the success in listening and age.

Results: The analysis of variance has shown that the age group 21—30 achieved significantly better results in listening than the age group 41—60 at $p < .05$. The logistic regression curve has illustrated a gradual increase in the percentage of 'unsuccessful listeners' aged 25 to 52 in relation to age. Thus, the study offers empirical evidence that there is a negative correlation between the success in listening comprehension in a foreign language and age.

Implication: Educators should assist adult learners in developing knowledge, skills and strategies to overcome listening comprehension difficulties with respect to increasing age.

Keywords: adult language learner, age, EFL, English language, hearing, listening comprehension, NATO STANAG 6001

Introduction

The initial impetus for this work came from a desire to react to middle-aged adults' complaints about their endless difficulties with listening comprehension in English language (EL) learning in the Czech military. In NATO member countries, adequate command of the EL is one of the prerequisites for a successful military career. Developing and maintaining EL skills in military personnel and civilian staff is a lifelong process, which is supported by numerous courses guided by NATO regulations.

In the Czech Republic, language training and testing is provided by the Language Centre (LC) at the University of Defense (UoD) in Brno. Military personnel and selected civilians working for the military have a chance to attend various intensive courses of different lengths and focuses, e.g., on general English in military context, or on specialized terminology. Over the course of years, we have witnessed several expressions of frustration from our same-age peers, the middle-aged faculty members and military officers, over the lack of progress in their listening comprehension. In some cases, these attendees worried about their listening comprehension so much that they developed anxiety, which contributed to their poor exam results in listening. Since most of the complaints and worries came from middle-aged personnel in their forties or fifties, such as distinguished faculty members or high-ranking officers, we decided to investigate whether there is a relationship between listening comprehension in a foreign language and age.

Research Article

Background Literature

With regard to our research aim, the background literature is divided into several sections focusing successively on the importance of listening in foreign language (FL/L2) acquisition, the assessment of listening comprehension, the variables affecting listening comprehension, and the relationship between age and listening comprehension.

Listening Skill in Foreign Language Acquisition and its Assessment

Listening is considered to be the primary channel for communication. Feyten (1991) claims that more than 45% of communicating time is spent listening, which shows how essential this skill is in overall language ability. Buck (2001) explains the listening construct as a process in which

> the listener takes the incoming data, the acoustic signal, and interprets that, using a wide variety of information and knowledge for a particular communicative purpose; it is an inferential process, an ongoing process of constructing and modifying an interpretation of what the text is about, based on whatever information seems relevant at the time. (p. 29).

Listening comprehension is described as 'a process of relating input to concepts that are already active in one's memory and to familiar references in the world' (Rost, 2016, p. 49). Within semantic processing, comprehension includes the processes of knowledge structures, cognitive understanding involving the activation and modification of concepts, social understanding, inference in constructing meaning, the integration of input, problem solving and reasoning.

Of the four language skills, listening is sometimes considered the least researched and, historically, the least valued (Wilson, 2008). In foreign language teaching it is also a skill that many teachers find challenging. For teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL), they can find valuable information on the listening process and practical guidance on employing suitable methods in line with communicative approach to teaching, respecting learners' needs, in numerous reference books (Krashen, 1982; Rixon, 1986; Vandergrift & Goh, 2012; Revell, 2013; Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Snow, 2014; Ellis, 2015; Vandergrift & Baker, 2015; Rost, 2016; Goh & Vandergrift, 2021).

The importance of listening for language learning is also supported by empirical research. Bozorgian (2012) gives an exhausting account of valuable sources emphasizing the dominance of listening in language learning. He argues that listening is the least understood and least researched skill in language learning and is often disregarded by educators, lecturers and researchers. His study explores the relationship between listening and other languages skills, namely speaking, reading and writing in EFL in 1,800 Iranian students in International English Language Teaching system. The results provide evidence of significant correlations between listening comprehension and the other skills, as well as between listening and the overall language proficiency. He suggests that educators designing language programs should pay more attention to listening in instruction, and calls for further research on listening in foreign language learning.

His recommendation was addressed, for example, by Mayberry (2013) and Astorga-Cabezas (2015), whose empirical research findings emphasized the role of listening in the development of oral production in non-native speakers of Spanish. Similarly, the importance of studying the aural input processing on speech production in both native and foreign languages was recommended by Hulstijn (2015). Vice versa, the role of oral language skills in reading and listening comprehension was studied by Babayigit (2014), who found out that oral language, indexed by vocabulary and morphosyntactic skills, emerged as the most powerful unique predictor of both reading and listening comprehension levels in both native and foreign languages. Tschirner (2016) examined ACTFL (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages) listening and reading proficiency scores from over 3,000 students studying seven languages at 21 postsecondary institutions in the US and found a consistent pattern in which listening proficiency seemed to develop more slowly in all these languages than reading proficiency. Gottardo et al. (2017) investigated the unique and shared variance of subcomponent of listening comprehension, namely the role of vocabulary, morphological awareness and syntactic knowledge in relation to reading comprehension in learners of English from Spanish-speaking backgrounds. The results showed that the three subcomponents of listening comprehension contributed to reading comprehension. Kostikova et al. (2020) examined the university students' progress in developing five language competences (listening, writing, speaking, reading and use of English) and their experiment has demonstrated that writing and listening competences are less ready to progress compared to the others.

Difficulties in Developing Listening Comprehension in a FL

Literature research indicates that listening in a foreign language is a complex process, consistently interrelated with the development of other language skills, which might present difficulties for learners. Goh (2000) offered a sound account of literature dealing with listening comprehension difficulties associated with both general and specific factors. Her research stemmed from the three-phase model of language comprehension proposed by Anderson (1995), and presented 10 problems which occurred in a group of ESL learners during the cognitive processing phases of perception, parsing and utilization. Wilson (2008) described the difficulties grouped into four general categories: characteristics of the message, the delivery, the listener and the environment.

Based on an empirical study, Andringa et al. (2012) explained individual differences in both native and non-native listening comprehension. Listening comprehension for native speakers was found to be a function of knowledge of the language and the efficiency with which one can process linguistic information, while listening comprehension for non-native speakers was a function of knowledge and reasoning ability. Working memory did not explain unique variance in listening comprehension in either group.

Vandergrift and Baker (2015) studied several learner variables in second language listening comprehension in 157 13year-old pupils in the first year of a French immersion program. The learner variables of interest included: first language (L1) listening ability, L1 vocabulary knowledge, second language (L2) vocabulary knowledge, auditory discrimination ability, metacognitive awareness of listening, and working memory capacity. Their study indicated a significant relationship among most of the variables and L2 listening ability. They concluded that auditory discrimination and working memory are initially important, leading later to more specific language skills, such as L1 and L2 use of vocabulary, in determining L2 listening comprehension.

Wang and Treffers-Daller (2017) were exploring what proportion of the variance in listening comprehension is explained by general language proficiency, vocabulary size and metacognitive awareness. Their results show that vocabulary size is the strongest predictor, followed by general language proficiency, while metacognitive awareness is less important. Their finding on the crucial impact of L2 vocabulary size on L2 listening comprehension are congruent with the results presented by Vandergrift and Baker (2015), and recent research conducted by Li and Zhang (2019), and Masrai (2021).

Peng and Wang (2019) studied the effects of the listener's language abilities, speaker's accent and adverse acoustics on listening effort of adults. Non-native listeners reported more listening effort (i.e., physical demand, temporal demand, and effort) than native listeners in speech comprehension under adverse acoustics.

Kharzhevska et al. (2019) examined three sources of difficulties in listening in university students: those connected with the listener, speaker and outer factors. They identified difficulties connected with a lack of students' knowledge about the world; insufficient communicative competence that consists of phonetic, lexical, grammatical, textual, sociocultural and functional aspects; psychological factors (inability to focus attention, listener's impatience to the interlocutor, not enough developed listening memory, low motivation); individual features of a student (individual cognitive features, age and personal interests, negative experience gained earlier while doing listening comprehension tasks); difficulties connected with incompetent selection of a recording (mismatch between the complexity of the script and the level of students' listening comprehension development: high tempo, a lot of new words, new grammar structures, dense information); and outer factors, such as the quality of the recording, low or too high volume of sound and noise interference).

Based on empirical evidence, Rost (2016) summarizes that the critical areas causing differences among individuals in language processing are attention and processing speed, processing styles, integrating processing depending on different experience of listeners, short-term memory capacity, strategic control that could be activated by the listener, and aging.

By and large, literature research reports numerous factors affecting the success in listening comprehension in a FL, as summarized, for example, by Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016). Our research aim is to find out whether we can offer an additional piece of empirical evidence that age belongs to significant factors in FL listening comprehension.

Age Factor in Language Learning and Listening Comprehension

Age is one of the variables that has been frequently researched in FL learning (e.g., Singleton, 2002;

Singleton & Ryan, 2004; Cenoz, 2002; Mayo, & Lecumberri, 2003; Nikolov & Djigunovic, 2006; Fayyaz & Kamal, 2014; Hulstijn, 2015). The main concern of age-related research is whether the age at which someone is first exposed to a FL affects learning or acquisition of that language, and whether adolescence is a critical period when the learning progress declines (DeKeyser & Larson-Hall, 2005; Vandergrift & Baker, 2015; Güvendir & Hardacre, 2018; Pei & Qin, 2019).

However, scarce are the studies at the other side of the age spectrum. Birdsong (2005) states that the decline in attained second language proficiency is not linked to maturational milestones, but persists over the age spectrum. Based on Van Den Noort et al.'s (2010) study, Rost (2016) provides an explanation for possible difficulties in FL learning from a neurolinguistic perspective.He states that 'the plasticity of neural flexibility required for language reorganization declines progressively through childhood and adolescence and may be the primary cause of some of the difficulties that adults face in second language learning' (p. 14). In other words, foreign language acquisition in adult learners might be negatively influenced by the changes in neural tissues resulting in the decline in *cognitive abilities* (the abilities allowing us to reason, plan, solve problems, think abstractly, comprehend complex ideas, learn quickly and learn from experience), such as *working memory* (the part of short-term memory which is concerned with immediate conscious perceptual and linguistic processing), or *attention*. In terms of listening comprehension in adults, age-related difficulties may also be attributed to *sensory and perceptual processes*, such as reduced *hearing* (the ability to hear sounds), *speech perception* (the process by which the sounds of language are heard, interpreted, and understood), and *phonetic discrimination* (the ability to recognize, compare and distinguish between distinct and separate sounds). Inappropriate hearing, which often progresses with age, can cause a decrease in comprehension accuracy or an increase in reaction time, even at high levels of speech intelligibility (Schneider et al., 2005; Güvendir & Hardacre, 2018). In addition, longer processing durations for participants with hearing impairment were observed, particularly for sentence structures with a higher level of linguistic complexity (Wendt et al., 2015).

The first systematic assessment of listening comprehension in a native language across the adult lifespan was provided by Sommers et al. (2011). A total of 433 participants in the age group 20—90 listened to spoken passages and answered comprehension questions. In addition, measures of auditory sensitivity were obtained from all participants to determine if hearing loss and listening comprehension changed similarly across the adult lifespan. As expected, auditory sensitivity declined from 20 to 90 years of age. However, listening comprehension remained relatively unchanged until approximately age 65—70, with declines evident only for the oldest participants. This conclusion was also confirmed by follow-up research (Sommers, 2015).

Extensive research led by Hoffman et al. (2017) shows that compared to participants aged 20 to 29 years, those aged 60 to 69 years had a 39.5 higher odds of bilateral speech-frequency hearing impairment, which means that they have trouble hearing speech clearly. Based on empirical evidence, Henry et al. (2017) state that speech comprehension decreases during healthy aging, especially when speech is fast or presented against background noise. These age-related listening and comprehension difficulties are likely the consequence of an interaction between sensory and cognitive changes.

Compared to listening in a native language, listening in a FL poses more challenges because FL listeners may have varying levels of proficiency and therefore may be more or less familiar with particular sounds and speech production patterns in that target language (Güvendir & Hardacre, 2018, p. 1). However, there are not many studies that provide evidence on the relationship between age and listening comprehension achievement in a foreign language. One of them was conducted by Seright (1985) who investigated age and aural comprehension achievement in 36 francophone military personnel learning English. Younger (aged 17 to 24 years) and older (aged 25 to 41 years) learners were compared with respect to short-term development in aural comprehension. The results showed that the achievement in L2 listening comprehension declined significantly with increasing age, given the same time span and learning conditions. On the other hand, the relationship between the achievement in L2 listening comprehension and other studied variables, namely nonverbal intelligence, education and previous English language instruction, proved to be statistically insignificant.

With regard to our research aim, we intend to take into consideration the study conducted by Russian researchers who examined the level of EL skills in university teachers at Ural Federal University at Cambridge Centre (Rasskazova & Glukhanyuk, 2017). Up to 74 faculty members underwent an EL course, and then their language skills were measured by the Cambridge English Language Assessment Exam. The results showed that the proficiency in all four skills

was lower for the age group of 45 and older, compared to the age group of 44 and younger. Listening was the least developed skill in both groups, and the difference between the means of listening scores between the age groups was the most significant of all skills. This conclusion supported our notion that there might be a negative relationship between listening comprehension achievement in a foreign language and age in adult learners.

Hypothesis

Based on literature research and our observations, our hypothesis was stated as follows: The probability of being an 'unsuccessful listener' is increasing with respect to age.

The expression 'unsuccessful listener' stems from our classification of NATO STANAG 6001 exam results that is explained below. Briefly, an 'unsuccessful listener' is a participant whose exam result falls into one of the following two categories:

- Their result in listening was assessed as the worst result of the four language skills,
- or their result in listening belonged to the worst results along with one or two other skills, i.e., one or two skills were rated better than listening.

Method

To verify the hypothesis, a comparative study using quantitative research methods was designed. Inferential statistics were employed to determine the relationship between two variables in each participant: the exam result in listening in relation to other skills and the age at the time of the examination in English. The first phase of the research compared the success in listening in three age groups tested within five academic years. The second phase focused on assessing the relationship between the listening results and the age of the participants.

Participants and Ethical Considerations

The research sample included 1,323 participants. The data consisted of five anonymized data sets gathered during the period of five consequent academic years: 2012-2013, 2013-2014, 2014-2015, 2015-2016 and 2016-2017 at the LC, UoD. The data contained the participants' date of birth and their results in the NATO STANAG 6001 Examination (BILC, 2001[1]) described below. The data were collected and processed only to the extent and for the duration strictly necessary for the research. Unfortunately, it was impossible to obtain the data on age over the latest years due to the implementation of the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) on 25 May 2018.

Most of the participants took the NATO STANAG 6001 Examination upon completion of an English language course at the LC. The majority of them were military personnel and some of them were civilian employees working for the Ministry of Defense in the Czech Republic, e.g., faculty members of the UoD. The representation of gender, ranks or carrier profiles was not examined. The research sample was divided according to the participants' age at the time of their examination in English into three age groups (AG): 21—30, 31—40 and 41—60, as shown in Table 1. The reason why the last AG 41—60 is wider than the other ones is that the number of participants at the age of 41+ is relatively small.

Materials and Measuring Instruments

NATO STANAG 6001 Examination and SLP

The research sample was assessed by the NATO STANAG 6001 Examination, which is used for various high-stakes purposes, such as employment and deployment decisions, promotions, or participation in various courses. Each NATO STANAG 6001 Examination result, Standardized Proficiency Level (SLP), is expressed as a sequence of levels in listening, speaking, reading and writing, respectively. The levels for all skills are defined by NATO descriptors. The

Table 1

Representation of the Age Groups Tested over the Period of Five Academic Years.

AG	2012-2013 n	2013-2014 n	2014-2015 n	2015-2016 n	2016-2017 n	Total n	Total ptc
21—30	98	47	100	87	21	276	20.86
31—40	198	130	287	87	30	732	50.33
41—60	94	61	101	39	20	315	23.81
Total	**390**	**238**	**488**	**147**	**60**	**1323**	**100.00**

Note: AG = age group, n = number of participants, ptc = percentage of participants.

[1] BILC (2021). http://www.natobilc.org/en

levels that can be obtained at the LC, UoD, are as follows:

- 0 – No proficiency
- 1 –Survival
- 1+ –Survival +
- 2 – Functional
- 2+ –Functional +
- 3 – Professional

'A plus level substantially exceeds the base level, but does not fully or consistently meet all of the criteria for the next higher base level.' (BILC, 2020).

The exam was aimed at testing SLP at levels 1, 2 and 3. The listening part of the exam in the years 2012—2017 consisted of a paper-and-pencil test of 30 multiple-choice questions. The information on the test, including some sample questions, is presented at the UoD website[2].

Classification Scale Determining the Success in Listening in EFL

The purpose of this classification scale was to eliminate the impact of overall proficiency level on listening comprehension. Our intention was to find out whether there was a relationship between success in listening with regard to other language skills and age. Therefore, the exam results of participants were divided into six success categories according to the classification scale we proposed. Listening skill is in the first place in the sequence of the levels of other language skills.

1. Listening was rated as the best result of all four skills; e.g., SLP 322+2.
2. Listening was part of the best results together with one or two other skills, i.e., one or two other skills were rated worse than listening; e.g., SLP 3232+.
3. Listening was rated the same as the other three skills; e.g., SLP 3333.
4. At least one skill was rated better than listening, and at least one skill was rated worse than listening; e.g., SLP 2+232+.
5. Listening was part of the worst results together with one or two other skills, i.e. one or two other skills were rated better than listening; e.g., SLP 2232+.
6. Listening was rated as the worst result of all four skills; e.g., SLP 2332+.

Since the research focused on identifying the results in listening which did not meet the required level,

and, at the same time, were surpassed by other language skills, the percentage of each of the three age groups falling into categories 5 and 6 became the main point of interest. For the purpose of this article, the participants falling into categories 5 and 6 are referred to as 'unsuccessful listeners'. All other participants are considered 'successful listeners'.

Research Procedure

The data analysis procedure was divided into two phases. In the first phase of the research, the participants (n = 1,323) were divided into the age groups (Table 1). Then the numbers and percentage of 'unsuccessful listeners' in each academic year for each group were calculated (Table 2). After that the results were compared by graphical representation for each academic year (Figure 1), and then for the age groups tested during all five academic years (Figure 2).

In the second phase of the research a reduced research sample (n = 1,296) was used for calculating the proportion of 'unsuccessful listeners' for each year of age separately (Table 4). The results are represented by a regression model (Figure 3).

Statistical Analysis

In the first phase of the research, the analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare the effect of the age group on the percentage of the 'unsuccessful listeners'.

In the second phase of the research, a generalized linear model was used to assess the relationship between the listening results (i.e., being or not being an 'unsuccessful listener') and the age of the participants.

The results were computed by R, version 3.5.1 (R Core Team, 2019[3]). ANOVA and post hoc Tukey's honest significant test were applied in the first phase of the research. In the second one, the logistic regression with maximum likelihood estimates and odds ratio estimates were computed.

Results

Outcome 1. The First Phase of the Research

Given the objective of the research and the

---

[2] www.unob.cz

[3] R Core Team (2019). R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. https://www.R-project.org

representation of the age groups in the research sample, the authors decided to compare the percentage representation of the sums of items falling into the 5th and 6th success categories, the 'unsuccessful listeners', for the age groups 21—30, 31—40 and 41—60 within the period of five years. The numbers and percentages of the 'unsuccessful listeners' are summarized in Table 2. The results are plotted on the graph in Figure 1, showing the percentages of 'unsuccessful listeners', tested within the period of five years.

Table 2

Overview of the Numbers and Percentages of 'Unsuccessful Listeners' Tested over the Period of Five Academic Years.

AG of UL	2012-2013		2013-2014		2014-2015		2015-2016		2016-2017		Total	
	n	*ptc*	*n*	*ptc*	*n*	*ptc*	*n*	*ptc*	*n*	*ptc*	*n*	*ptc*
21—30	16	16.33	12	25.53	27	27.00	3	14.29	0	0.00	58	21.01
31—40	53	26.77	54	41.53	107	37.28	28	32.18	8	26.67	250	34.15
41—60	34	36.17	31	50.82	49	48.51	7	17.95	11	55.00	132	41.90
Total	**103**	**26.41**	**97**	**40.76**	**183**	**37.50**	**38**	**25.85**	**19**	**31.67**	**440**	**33.26**

Note: AG = age group, UL = 'unsuccessful listeners', n = number of participants, ptc = percentage of participants.

Figure 1

Percentages of 'Unsuccessful Listeners' in the NATO STANAG 6001 Examinations for the Three Specified Age Groups Tested in the Academic Years from 2012-2013 to 2016-2017.
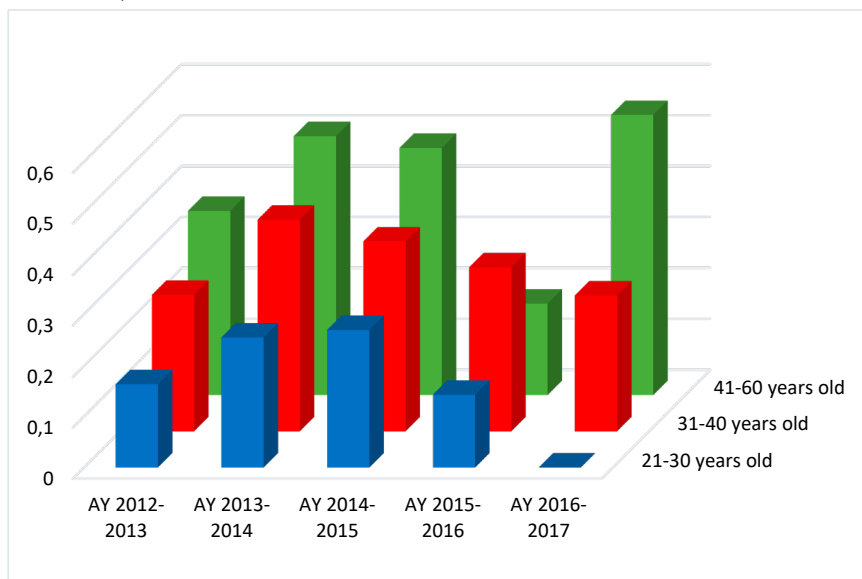
Note: AY = academic year

Figure 2

Boxplots of Percentages of 'Unsuccessful Listeners' in the NATO STANAG 6001 Examinations for Three Specified Age Groups Tested in the Academic Years from 2012-2013 to 2016-2017.
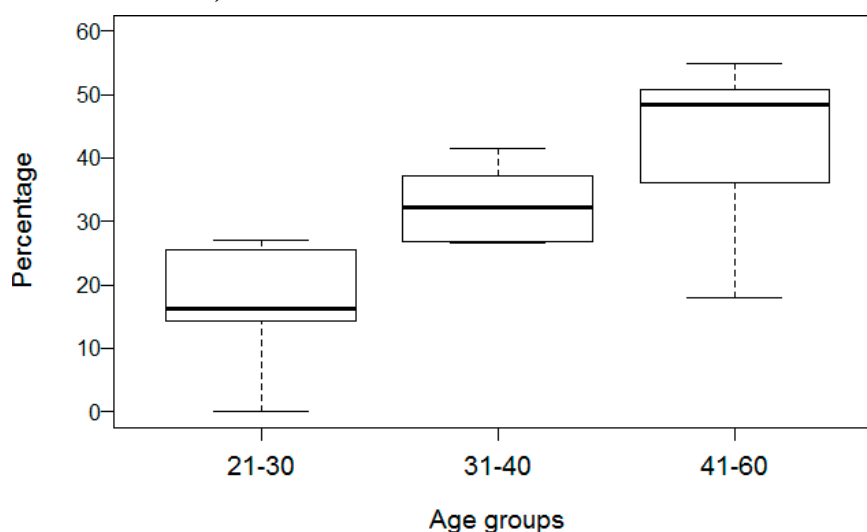
The analysis of variance, illustrated by boxplots in Figure 3, revealed that the effect of the age group was significant at $p < .05$ for the three age groups [$F(2, 12) = 6.30$, $p = .014$]. Post hoc analyses using the Tukey's HSD method found that the mean value of the percentage for the age group 41—60 ($M = 41.69$, $SD = 15.01$) was significantly different than the percentage of the age group 21—30 ($M = 16.63$, $SD = 10.83$). However, the age group 31—40 ($M = 32.89$, $SD = 6.53$) did not significantly differ from the other two age groups.

These results suggest that age has an effect on listening comprehension in a foreign language. Specifically, the younger listeners have better results in listening than the older ones (see Figures 1 and 2). However, it must be noted that the difference in age must be large, in our case it makes more than 10 years.

Outcome 2. The Second Phase of the Research

For further research focusing on the decrease in listening comprehension achievement in relation to age, the original research sample was reduced due to the insufficient number of participants younger than 25 and older than 52 years. So, the new research sample included the results of 'unsuccessful listeners' from the age of 25 to 52. It consisted of 1,296 participants whose examination results were collected over 5 academic years, from 2012-2013 to 2016-2017. The data were analyzed in detail with regard to each year of age. The results are presented in Table 3.

The logistic regression analysis resulted in the model equation

$$\pi(x) = [1 + \exp(2.65 - 0.05 \cdot x)]^{-1}.$$

The predictor variable, age, in the regression analysis contributes to the model ($\chi^2(1) = 30.86$, $p < .001$). Both parameters $b_0 = -2.65$ ($SE = 0.36$, $p < .001$) and $b_1 = 0.05$ ($SE = 0.01$, $p < .001$) are statistically significant at $p < .05$. Figure 3 presents a graphical form of the obtained regression function.

The estimated odds ratio favored an increase of nearly 6% ($\exp(b_0) = 1.056$, 95% CI = [1.036, 1.076]) for being an 'unsuccessful listener' every one year of the age.

The regression curve shows that there is a gradual increase in the percentage of 'unsuccessful listeners' in relation to age. In other words, there is a gradual decline in the success in listening comprehension in comparison with learners' other language skills in relation to increasing age.

Table 3

Review of 'Unsuccessful Listeners' of the Age of 25–52 (n = 1,296) Tested in the Academic Years from 2012-2013 to 2016-2017.

Age	Participants total n	Group 5 n	Group 6 n	Groups 5 + 6 n	Groups 5 + 6 ptc
25	17	1	2	3	17.65
26	34	8	1	9	26.47
27	37	4	0	4	10.81
28	33	6	4	10	30.30
29	52	8	5	13	25.00
30	89	10	7	17	19.10
31	72	12	5	17	23.61
32	86	28	2	30	34.88
33	95	18	5	23	24.21
34	94	27	8	35	37.23
35	93	27	9	36	38.71
36	75	17	6	23	30.67
37	59	16	5	21	35.59
38	65	21	5	26	40.00
39	56	20	7	27	48.21
40	37	10	2	12	32.43
41	59	22	7	29	49.15
42	49	14	5	19	38.78
43	32	9	1	10	31.25
44	35	5	6	11	31.43
45	30	6	4	10	33.33
46	25	8	4	12	48.00
47	12	5	1	6	50.00
48	16	4	4	8	50.00
49	10	2	2	4	40.00
50	15	4	4	8	53.33
51	11	5	0	5	45.45
52	8	3	2	5	62.50

Note: n = number of participants, ptc = percentage of participants.

Figure 3

'Unsuccessful Listener' Proportion in Relation to the Age of the Participants Tested in the Academic Years from 2012-2013 to 2016-2017 Fitted with the Logistic Regression Curve.
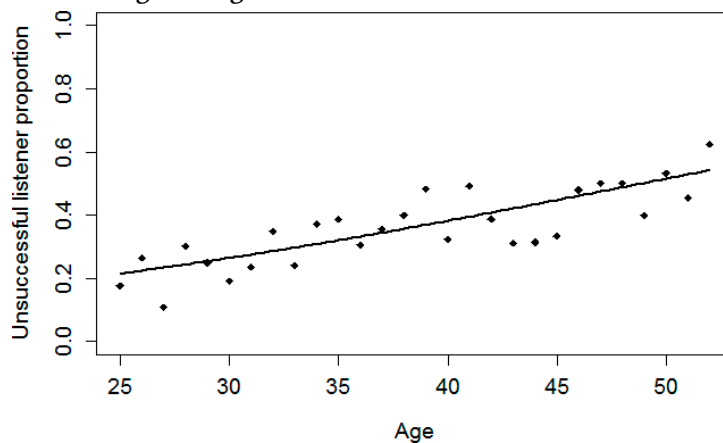
Discussion

The outcomes identifying the differences between three age groups indicate that the age group 21—30 shows better results in listening than older groups in the course of five academic years, as illustrated in Figure 1. The analysis of variance with post hoc Tukey's HSD test has proved that the age group 21—30 gained significantly better results in listening than the age group 41—60 at the 5% significance level. In addition to that, the logistic regression curve (Figure 3) has shown that there was a gradual increase in the percentage of 'unsuccessful listeners' in relation to age. Specifically, the difference of one year between participants' age changes the odds of 'unsuccessfulness' 1.06 times and the ten years difference in participants' age will result in **1.7**2 times higher odds of being an 'unsuccessful listener'. Thus, our hypothesis that the probability of being an 'unsuccessful listener' is increasing with respect to age has been verified.

Our findings are congruent with Seright's (1985) results showing that the achievement in L2 listening comprehension declines significantly with increasing age. The fact that learners over 40 experience more difficulties in listening than younger learners was also supported by the study conducted by Rasskazova and Glukhanyuk (2017) that revealed that university lecturers older than 45 years old had achieved significantly worse results in Cambridge Exam in listening than their younger colleagues. In addition, our finding is in accordance with one of our previous studies concerning the UoD students (age group 19—24) that showed that of the four language skills, listening was not the one worst rated, as it was exceeded by writing and speaking (Hruby & Stankova, 2020). Thus, our findings offer an additional piece of empirical evidence that there is a negative correlation between the success in listening comprehension in a foreign language and age, as implied by other researchers (Hulstijn, 2015; Rost, 2016; Henry et al. (2017). Unfortunately, to our knowledge, there have been no recent studies examining the relationship between listening comprehension in a FL and age in adults to which our findings could be compared.

We believe that the most probable causes of the decline in listening comprehension ability with age are worse cognitive, sensory and perceptual processes in comparison with young adults, although we are aware of the fact that Sommers et al. (2011) and Sommers (2015) reported that in their research sample listening comprehension in a native language remained relatively unchanged until AG 65—70. Nevertheless, it is very probable that listening in a FL might cause more difficulties, since FL listeners are less often exposed to different types of listening materials or may be less familiar with particular sounds and speech production patterns in that FL than in their native language, as implied by Schneider et al. (2005), Güvendir and Hardacre (2018), and Peng and Wang, (2019). Thus, we dare to speculate that the deterioration in listening comprehension abilities in relation to age might be more progressive in a FL than in a native language.

We are aware of the limitations of the study caused mainly by the insufficient number of results from learners over 46 years old. In general, it is quite rare for people over 46 to undergo testing in a foreign language, as most employees have to comply with language requirements in the earlier stages of their career. So, this lack of data reflects the reality, and it will be difficult to gain a large amount of them even in the future. Moreover, the GDPR that aims primarily to give control to individuals over their personal data makes gathering data for such research more demanding.We suggest that this situation could be overcome in future by closer collaboration with learners, e.g., by interviews focusing on gathering quantitative and qualitative data for further research with their consent.

Recommendations

Both educators and learners should be aware of the finding, implying that some middle-aged and older learners need to put on a great deal of effort to become successful listeners. Our opinions on assisting the learners are in line with the latest research that emphasizes the importance of developing knowledge, skills and strategies that can facilitate cognitive and social process in comprehension. For example, Celce-Murcia et al. (2014) offer numerous valuable suggestions on incorporating metacognitive activities, based on thinking about the ways one processes or uses language, into task-based instruction. Rost (2016) lists and explains some strategies that could be employed in semantic processing, such as construction integration based on previous knowledge, listener integration of input, reasoning and problem solving during listening comprehension. Given natural limitations of memory and fluctuations of attention, employing some compensatory strategies may be required, such as skipping, approximation, filtering, incompletion and substitution (p. 62). Moreover, in real life 'the listeners can intuit the meaning through the connection to the speaker, the events, and their inner worlds and through their intention to understand' (Rost, 2016, p. 64).

In terms of improving listening comprehension, our opinion is congruent with Rost's (2016) suggestions on a balanced method, which should include the following elements: rich input, collaborative tasks, pushed output in speaking and writing practicing what learners have understood, opportunities for noticing and practicing new language, and maximizing long-term motivation and commitment to learning. Educators should carefully select listening materials and employ listening tasks to meet courses objectives. For example, Gilakjani and Sabouri (2016) provide numerous practical recommendations on implementing listening activities, and emphasize the importance of educators' approach to facilitating them.Course designers and planners should keep in mind that middle-aged learners might need some time to develop metacognitive awareness and improve their strategies in listening comprehension through various tasks (Buck, 2001; Wilson, 2008; Graham & Santos 2015; Rost, 2016; Goh, 2018; Goh & Vandergrift, 2021). Appropriate listening sources for self-study should be recommended to learners, such as specialized listening course-books and e-learning listening courses, as well as advice for developing listening strategies, as suggested by Celce-Murcia et al. (2014) and Dalman and Plonsky (2022). Additionally, educators should apply to instruction the findings from recent studies that offer empirical evidence on positive impacts of various factors on listening comprehension in a FL, such as knowledge of vocabulary (Li & Zhang, 2019; Masrai, 2021), appropriate learning context (Yu, Janse, & Schoonen, 2021), linguistic knowledge (Kim, Nam, & Crossley, 2022), and the strength of cross-language interdependence (Sierens et al., 2021).

Finally, and most importantly, based on the findings of the study, we recommend that middle aged and older learners should be notified that their development in listening comprehension can be the most demanding part in their preparation for language examinations. It might be comforting for them to learn that non-verbal intelligence does not play a significant role in the success in listening comprehension, as suggested by Seright (1985). This realization might reduce anxiety and tension in taking listening tests. Nevertheless, these learners should anticipate possible difficulties and monitor their listening development in a FL vigilantly.

Conclusion

Listening in a foreign language has been one of the least explored skills in previous research. Understanding how age affects listening comprehension is one of the crucial issues in foreign language learning and acquisition. This study offers an additional piece of empirical evidence that there is a negative correlation between the success in listening comprehension in a foreign language and age.

A total of 1,323 high-stake test results in English as a Foreign Language gained by Czech adults were processed in order to verify the hypothesis that age negatively affects the success in listening comprehension. The exam results were classified to determine 'unsuccessful listeners' in relation to other language skills — speaking, reading and writing. Analysis of variance has shown that the age group 21—30 gained significantly better results in listening than the age group 41—60 at the 5% significance level. In addition to that, the logistic regression curve has illustrated a gradual increase in the percentage of 'unsuccessful listeners' aged 25—52 in relation to age.

The findings of our study resonate with research implying the decline in listening comprehension ability in a foreign language with age. Therefore, middle-aged learners and their educators should anticipate problems in listening comprehension and channel their efforts to adopt suitable learning strategies, teaching methods and appropriate curricula to overcome them.

More studies on the relationship between listening comprehension and age in native, second and other foreign languages in different countries are needed to generalize our findings. Further research should consider cognitive, metacognitive and social factors affecting listening comprehension, as well as personal characteristics of the listeners of different ages, such as their motivation, attitude to listening and their hearing condition.

Acknowledgments

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Anderson, J. R. (1995). *Cognitive psychology and its implications* (4th ed.). Freeman.

Andringa, S., Olsthoorn, N., Van Beuningen, C., Schoonen, R., & Hulstijn, J. (2012). Determinants of success in native and non-native listening comprehension: An individual differences approach. *Language Learning, 62*, 49-78. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00706.x

Astorga-Cabezas, E. D. (2015). The relationship between listening proficiency and speaking improvement in higher education: Considerations in assessing speaking and listening. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, *5*(2), 34-56. https://dx.doi.org/10.18870/hlrc.v5i2.236

Babayigit, S. (2014). The role of oral language skills in reading and listening comprehension of text: A comparison of monolingual (L1) and bilingual (L2) speakers of English. *Journal of Research in Reading, 37*(1), 22–47. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9817.2012.01538.x

Birdsong, D. (2005). Interpreting age effects in second language acquisition. In J. F. Kroll & A. M. B. de Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of bilingualism: Psycholinguistic approaches* (pp. 109-127). Oxford University Press.

Bozorgian, H. (2012). The relationship between listening and other language skills in international English language testing system. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *2*(4), 657-663. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.4.657-663

Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D. M., & Snow, M. A. (2014). *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*. National Geographic Learning.

Cenoz, J. (2002). Age differences in foreign language learning. *ITL - International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *135*(1), 125-142. https://doi.org/10.1075/itl.135-136.06cen

Dalman, M., & Plonsky, L. (2022). The effectiveness of second-language listening strategy instruction: A meta-analysis. *Language Teaching Research*. https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211072981

DeKeyser, R., & Larson-Hall, J. (2005). What does the critical period really mean? In J. F. Kroll & A. M. B. de Groot (Eds.), *Handbook of bilingualism: Psycholinguistic approaches* (p. 88-108). Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2015). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford University Press.

Feyten, C. (1991). The power of listening ability: An overlooked dimension in language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal, 75*(ii), 173-180. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1991.tb05348.x

Fayyaz, W., & Kamal, A. (2014). Role of gender, age, and geographical locality in metacognitive listening skills of English as a Foreign Language. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research, 29*(2), 265-276.

Gilakjani, A., & Sabouri, N. (2016). Learners' listening comprehension difficulties in English language learning: A literature review. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(6), 123-133. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n6p123

Goh, C. C. M. (2000). A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening comprehension problems. *System*, *28*(1), 55-75. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(99)00060-3

Goh, C. C. M. (2018). Listening Activities. In J. I. Liontas & M. DelliCarpini (Eds.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching*. TESOL International Association. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0604

Goh, C. C. M., & Vandergrift, L. (2021). *Teaching and learning second language listening: Metacognition in action* (2nd ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429287749

Gottardo, A., Mirza, A., Koh, P. W., Ferreira, A., & Javier, C. (2017). Unpacking listening comprehension: The role of vocabulary, morphological awareness, and syntactic knowledge in reading comprehension. *Reading and Writing*, *31*(8), 1741-1764. International Association. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-017-9736-2

Graham, S., & Santos D. (2015). *Strategies for second language listening*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Güvendir, E., & Hardacre, B. (2018). Listening and different age groups. In J. I. Liontas, & M. DelliCarpini (Eds.), *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching*. TESOL International Association. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.eelt0608

Henry, M., Herrmann, B., Kunke, D., & Obleser, J. (2017). Aging affects the balance of neural entrainment and top-down neural modulation in the listening brain. *Nature Communications*, *8*(1). https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms15801

Hoffman, H. J., Dobie, R. A., Losonczy, K. G., Themann, C. L., & Flamme, G. A. (2017). Declining prevalence of hearing loss in US adults aged 20 to 69 years. *JAMA Otolaryngology – Head & Neck Surgery*, *143*(3), 274-285. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaoto.2016.3527

Hruby, M., & Stankova, E. (2020). Examining English language skills in first-year university students. In J. Fejfar & M. Flegl (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 17th International Conference Efficiency and Responsibility in Education* (pp. 101-107). Czech University of Life Sciences. https://erie.v2.czu.cz/en/r-15999-proceedings-2020

Hulstijn, J. H. (2015). *Language proficiency in native and non-native speakers: Theory and research*. John Benjamins Publication Company. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.41

Kharzhevska, O., Oleksandrenko, K., Peshkova, T., Pilishek, S., Rudoman, O., & Yakymchuk, Y. (2019). Students' L2 psychological and phonological listening comprehension difficulties diagnostics. *Revista Romaneasca Pentru Educatie Multidimensionala*, *11*(4), 193-220. https://doi.org/10.18662/rrem/166

Kim, M., Nam, Y., & Crossley, S. A. (2022). Roles of working memory, syllogistic inferencing ability, and linguistic knowledge on second language listening comprehension for passages of different lengths. *Language Testing*. https://doi.org/10.1177/02655322211060076

Kostikova, I., Holubnycha, L., Miasoiedova, S., Moroz, T., Ptushka, A., & Avdieienko, I. (2020). Perspectives on study abroad students through passing FCE test: Listening problems. *Revista Romaneasca Pentru Educatie Multidimensionala*, *12*(1), 120-134. https://doi.org/10.18662/rrem/203

Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Prentice Hall.

Li, Y., & Zhang, X. (2019). L2 vocabulary knowledge and L2 listening comprehension: A structural equation model. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *22*(1). https://doi.org/10.7202/1060907ar

Masrai, A. (2021). The relationship between two measures of L2 phonological vocabulary knowledge and L2 listening comprehension. *TESOL Journal*, e612. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.612

Mayberry, M. (2013). Assessment of conversational skills in higher education: The role of listening skills in the development of oral production. In *Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Education and New Learning Technologies* (pp. 4786-4792). IATED.

Mayo, M. P. G., & Lecumberri, M. L. G. (Eds.) 2003. *Age and the acquisition of English as a Foreign Language*. Multilingual Matters.

Nikolov, M., & Djigunovic M. (2006). Recent research on age, second language acquisition, and early foreign language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *26*, 234-260. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190506000122

Pei, Z., & Qin, K. (2019). The younger, the better? A multi-factorial approach to understanding age effects on EFL phonological attainment. *Journal of Language and Education*, *5*(1), 29-48. https://doi.org/10.17323/2411-7390-2019-5-1-29-48

Peng, Z. E., & Wang, L. M. (2019). Listening effort by native and nonnative listeners due to noise, reverberation, and talker foreign accent during English speech Perception. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, *62*(4), 1068-1081. https://doi.org/10.1044/2018_jslhr-h-17-0423

Rasskazova, T., & Glukhanyuk, N. (2017). Listening as a cognitive age-related resource for foreign language learning. In *INTED2017 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 4586-4592). IATED Academy. https://doi.org/10.21125/inted.2017.1079

Revell, J. (2013). *Teaching techniques for communicative English*. HarperCollins.

Rixon, S. (1986). *Developing listening skills*. Macmillan.

Rost, M. (2016). *Teaching and researching listening*. Routledge.

Schneider, B., Daneman, M., & Murphy, D. (2005). Speech comprehension difficulties in older adults: Cognitive slowing or age-related changes in hearing? *Psychology And Aging*, *20*(2), 261-271. https://doi.org/10.1037/0882-7974.20.2.261

Seright, L. (1985). Age and aural comprehension achievement in Francophone adults learning English. *TESOL Quarterly*, *19*, 455–73. https://doi:10.2307/3586273

Sierens, S., Van Gorp, K., Slembrouck, S., & Van Avermaet, P. (2021). The strength of cross-language interdependence for listening comprehension proficiency in Turkish–Dutch emergent bilinguals: Testing three hypotheses. *Language Learning*, *71*(2), 453-486. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12441

Singleton, D. (2002). Age and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *21*, 77-89. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190501000058

Singleton, D., & Ryan, L. (2004). *Language acquisition: The age factor* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters.

Sommers, M. S. (2015). Listening comprehension in middle-aged adults. *American Journal of Audiology*, *24*(2), 88–90. https://doi.org/10.1044/2015_AJA-14-0060

Sommers, M. S., Hale, S., Myerson, J., Rose, N., Tye-Murray, N., & Spehar, B. (2011). Listening comprehension across the adult lifespan. *Ear and Hearing*, *32*(6), 775-781. https://doi.org/10.1097/AUD.0b013e3182234cf6

Tschirner, E. (2016). Listening and reading proficiency levels of college students. *Foreign Language Annals*, *49*(2), 201-223. https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12198

Van Den Noort, M., Bosch, P., Hadzibeganovic, T., Mondt, K., Haverkort, M., & Hugdahl, K. (2010). Identifying the neural substrates of second language acquisition. In J. Arabski & A. Wojtaszek (Eds.), *Neurolinguistic and psycholinguistic perspectives on SLA* (pp. 3-16). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847692429

Vandergrift, L., & Baker, S. (2015). Learner variables in second language listening comprehension: An exploratory path analysis: L2 listening comprehension. *Language Learning*, *65*(2), 390-416. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12105

Vandergrift, L., & Goh, C. C. M. (2012). *Teaching and learning second language listening: Metacognition in action*. Routledge.

Wang, Y., & Treffers-Daller, J. (2017). Explaining listening comprehension among L2 learners of English: The contribution of general language proficiency, vocabulary knowledge and metacognitive awareness. *System, 65*, 139-150. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.12.013

Wendt, D., Kollmeier, B., & Brand, T. (2015). How hearing impairment affects sentence comprehension: Using eye fixations to investigate the duration of speech processing. *Trends in Hearing, 19*, 1-18. https://doi.org/10.1177/2331216515584149.

Wilson, J. J. (2008). *How to teach listening*. Pearson.

Yu, X., Janse, E., & Schoonen, R. (2021). The effect of learning context on L2 listening development: Knowledge and processing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 43*(2), 329-354. https://doi.org/doi:10.1017/S0272263120000534

Impacts of Process-Genre Approach on EFL Sophomores' Writing Performance, Writing Self-Efficacy, Writing Autonomy

Truong Minh Hoa[ORCID]

Ho Chi Minh City Open University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Truong Minh Hoa, Ho Chi Minh City Open University, 96 Vo Van Tan Street, Ward 6, District 3, Ho ChiMinh City, Vietnam.
E-mail: tmh.camranh1991@gmail.com

Background: In literature, process-genre approach may be a favorable alternative for writing classes these days, assisting student writers in building up linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural competency of writing. However, the contribution of this approach to fostering EFL writing learning has not been extensively probed in the context of Vietnam.

Purpose: This paper aimed at attesting the impact of the target approach on the Vietnamese EFL students' writing performance, writing self-efficacy, and writing autonomy.

Method: Thanks to convenience sampling technique, a group of 38 EFL sophomores from an intact class at a Vietnamese private university was recruited as one experimental group undergoing a nine-week writing course within process-genre approach. Grounded by quantitative design, the instruments of this study involved one writing entry test, one writing exit test, and two questionnaires. The data were analyzed by computing Paired Samples T-tests through SPSS version 26.0.

Results: The results indicated that process-genre approach enhanced the tertiary students' overall writing performance to some extent, empowered their self-efficacy of writing ideation, conventions, self-regulations, and positively reinforced their awareness and behaviors of writing autonomy.

Implication: The study contributed to a better understanding of the practicality of applying process-genre approach into EFL writing pedagogy in Vietnam, and then implications could be proposed to strengthen the quality of EFL writing instruction utilizing this eclectic approach in the Vietnamese tertiary context.

Keywords: process-genre approach, writing performance, writing self-efficacy, writing autonomy, sophomores, Vietnam

Introduction

Background of the Study

In acquiring a foreign language, learners are expected to experience four skills in a natural order of acquisition, that is, listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Truong & Pham, 2017). And the latter, writing, is viewed as the most arduous language skill for acquisition (Hyland, 2003; Mekki, 2012), demanding "the mastery of a variety of linguistic, cognitive, and sociocultural competency" (Barkaoui, 2007, p. 35). In more concrete terms, good writing performance, based on Truong and Pham (2017), requires more than linguistic knowledge and memory of sample texts (linguistic domain); it also urges learner writers to grasp how to compose their texts independently (cognitive domain), and within an active interactivity with other writers in learning process (social domain). One of rudimental causes making writing skill difficult to acquire is that language learners have been learning about linguistic items and text forms but disregard writing steps and collaborative strategies (Mekki, 2012). It is inferred that to master writing skill, language learners not only need linguistic knowledge as "even with linguistic knowledge students often struggle to produce a cohesive piece of writing" (Uddin, 2014, p. 117), but they also grasp their social awareness of writing contexts (Hyland, 2003), and cognitive awareness of the processes they utilize to write (Khanalizadeh & Allami, 2012). Alarmingly, many students graduate high schools in the Vietnamese context without achieving a proficient level of writing skills (Truong & Pham, 2017). In reality, they are mostly required to imitate and memorise the sample texts provided by

teachers that might have its temporary effect on examinations. As a corollary, when becoming tertiary-level students, their writing abilities often does not meet language instructors' expectations (Ly, 2014) albeit a mess of linguistic knowledge. Undoubtedly, writing is a painstaking skill for language learners to acquire (Mekki, 2012). As mentioned earlier, writing is the art of performing linguistic, cognitive and sociocultural literacies, involving "knowledge about language, knowledge of the context in which writing happens and especially the purpose for the writing, and skills in using language" (Badger & White, 2000, pp. 157-158). Taking this into account, process-genre approach may be a favourable alternative for modern writing classrooms these days (Rusinovci, 2015).

Recent prolific studies (e.g., Agesta & Cahyono, 2017; Alabere & Shapii, 2019; Babalola, 2012; Gupitasari, 2013; Janenoppakarn, 2016) have been conducted to testify the merit of process-genre approach toward EFL students' writing performance. For instance, Babalola (2012) applied process-genre approach on 40 Nigerian students of computer science, and the results indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group after the treatment. This finding was also sought in Gupitasari (2013)'s action research examining the impact of process-genre approach on writing ability of business letters among 28 Grade 12 students at an Indonesian vocational school. Similarly, Agesta and Cahyono (2017) investigated the effect of process-genre approach on writing ability of report texts among 28 junior high school students in Indonesia. This study also witnessed a positive contribution of process-genre approach to the students' writing ability of report texts regarding organisation, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. To attest the luminosity of process-genre approach on students' academic writing, Alabere and Shapii (2019) conducted a six-week training course on 80 Malaysian students, including one experimental group under the treatment, and one control group under product approach. The study found out that the former completed the writing test more successfully than the latter did. Especially, Janenoppakarn (2016) compared the impact of process-genre approach on writing performance and attitudes between two groups of lower and higher proficient students (N=37) at a Thai university, using writing tests, questionnaire, and interview. The findings showed that lower proficient students outperformed higher proficient students considering generating content for writing, and exhibited more active learning attitudes than higher proficient students. It might be noted that the value of process-genre approach toward EFL students' writing performance has been constantly verified in various contexts (e.g., Nigeria, Thailand, Indonesia, Malaysia). Yet, research on this correlation seemed

scanty in the Vietnamese educational scenarios. Hence, this study aimed to explore the contribution extent of process-genre approach to EFL students' writing performance at one Vietnamese university as an initial attempt.

In any field of language pedagogy, including writing instruction, one of the eminent missions of language instructors is "promoting students' cognitive, behavioral, and motivational engagement through enhancing students' self-efficacy" (Hashemnejad, Zoghi, & Amini, 2014, p. 1045). In oft-cited definition, self-efficacy is learners' beliefs in their capability to succeed in and acquire new information, or complete a task requirement (Bandura, 1986), exerting an influence on task selection, effort, persistence and success (Schunk, 2003). It is noted that despite facing difficulties in learning process, language learners who possess their high self-efficacy might be more consistent to it than those who are skeptical of their own ability (Schunk, 2003). In the realm of writing pedagogy, writing self-efficacy is a key social cognitive factor that can influence students' writing ability (Blasco, 2016; Ho, 2016). In this respect, this factor is a significant predictor of a good writing performance (Demirel & Aydin, 2019). For this reason, Zhang (2018) recommends that language learners need to be self-efficacious and confident of their own ability so that they are able to perform writing tasks efficiently. Zhang (2018) conducted a 14-week study exploring the contribution of process-genre approach to 59 Chinese EFL freshmen' writing self-efficacy development. The questionnaire and interview results revealed that process-genre approach raised their confidence and reduced their anxiety while writing. As additional part of research, Abdullah (2019) compared the impact of process-genre approach on writing anxiety reduction between one experimental group (N=31) and one control group (N=31). The questionnaire findings documented that process-genre approach helped the experimental group control their anxiety and foster their confidence of writing ability more effectively. Given a key role of writing self-efficacy to writing performance, studies to investigate the change of students' writing self-efficacy in process-genre approach writing lessons appeared to be scarce, especially in Vietnam. Thus, this cognitive change would be explored in this study to check if process-genre writing approach could develop the students' strong confidence and positive belief in their personal writing ability or not.

As depicted above, the vast majority of Vietnamese students (both high school and university students) are struggling to make a written text effectively, which is rooted in their memorisation and imitation of the sample texts without independent writing strategies.

Consequently, learning to write autonomously has now become a necessity, especially for university students (Taghizadeh, 2014). Success of a foreign language acquisition (e.g., good writing performance), as a corollary, relies to a greater extent on learner autonomy – "an ability to take charge of one's own learning" (Holec, 1981, p. 193) – both to take initiative in the classroom and persist in their learning path outside classroom (Brown, 2007). In this regard, autonomous learners need to self-plan, self-control, self-regulate, and self-evaluate their own learning process (Little, 2007) both inside and outside the class (Brown, 2007) "without being reminded by their teachers or waiting for the teachers' instruction" (Truong, Nguyen, & Luu, 2019, p. 120). In the field of foreign language writing pedagogy, autonomous learner writers are those who "shape their essays without the abstaining pressure from any parties where they have the power to determine the content and rhetoric of their writing" (Abdel-Haq, Atta, & Ali, 2020, p. 31). Writing autonomy, accordingly, is viewed as an important construct to develop students' writing performance (Taghizadeh, 2014; Yeung, 2016). In academia, process-genre approach is deemed to create a non-threatening environment for writing autonomy (e.g., Kim & Kim, 2005; Salim, Walker, & Rosenblatt, 2016), which "helps teachers shift responsibility gradually to their students once they get familiar with the different processes to produce a text meeting the requirements of a particular genre" (Abdel-Haq, *et al.*, 2020, p. 32). Arteaga-Lara (2017) conducted a qualitative research using journals and group interviews to see how process-genre approach assisted 13 Grade 4 students in writing narrative paragraphs in Colombia. The results indicated that process-genre approach built the students' better awareness of writing stages such as prewriting, drafting, revising and publishing. Moreover, this eclectic approach provided the students with a stronger sense of direction and purpose for paragraph writing. Abdel-Haq, *et al.* (2020) investigated the effect of a web-mediated process-genre approach on developing writing autonomy among 46 Egyptian EFL third-year students. The results disclosed that this instruction fostered autonomy abilities in EFL writing among the students in reflecting, decision making and revising of their essays. Notwithstanding the recognised buttress of writing autonomy to writing performance, the contribution of process-genre approach to fostering writing autonomy has not been fully probed, especially in Vietnam. Purposely, the paper was additionally targeted to explore the students' transformation of writing autonomy levels before and after the writing course driven by process-genre approach.

Research Questions

To achieve the aforementioned objectives, three research questions were formulated as follows:

RQ-1: To what extent does process-genre approach enhance EFL sophomores' writing performance?

RQ-2: How does process-genre approach impact EFL sophomores' writing self-efficacy?

RQ-3: How does process-genre approach impact EFL sophomores' writing autonomy?

Research Hypotheses

This quasi-experimental study consisted of three research hypotheses:

H1: *Process-genre approach has a positive effect on the students' writing performance.*

H2: *Process-genre approach has a positive effect on the students' writing self-efficacy.*

H3: *Process-genre approach has a positive effect on*

the students' writing autonomy.

Literature Review

Process-Genre Approach

Process-genre approach, as the term suggests, is a combination of two well-known approaches in writing instruction, namely the process approach and the genre approach (Badger & White, 2000). This eclectic approach is formed with the integration of the strengths of both the process and the genre approaches in developing learners' writing ability (Rusinovci, 2015). Under this approach, writing requires linguistic knowledge, schematic knowledge within specific socio-cultural context, and strategic skills concurrently for writing act (Badger & White, 2000). In other words, to produce a good written text, learner writers need to take three writing aspects into consideration, that is, relational, strategic, and textual aspects (Schmitt, 2010). In specific, Schmitt (2010) depicts that writing must be purposeful and contextual (in relational aspect), including the effective use of linguistic features of vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics to construct the text's clear meaning (in textual aspect); for that, learner writers must handle writing strategies to produce the good text (in strategic aspect). Overall, based on Deng,

Chen and Zhang (2014), this potential writing approach allows students to undergo the recursive process of writing (e.g., planning, drafting, revising, and editing) and accumulate the certain repertoire of text genres–"socially recognised ways of using language" (Spycher, 2007, pp. 240-241), which may be narrative, report, explanation, or argumentation (Derewianka, 1990).

Process-genre approach, according to Yan (2005), is commonly implemented within a six-stage cycle, including preparation, modelling, planning, joint construction, independent construction, and revision. Yan (2005) claims that under this eclectic approach, teachers' role becomes less authoritative, but more facilitative, especially in promoting students' responsibility for their own writing or scaffolding them with timely feedback. In this model, the teacher initially establishes a situational context for a written text, which allows students predict structural feature of the text genre. Secondly, the teacher provides a model of the specific genre and lets them analyse it in terms of field (i.e. purpose of the writing), tenor (i.e. audience of the writing), and mode (i.e. textual structure of the writing). Thirdly, the teacher presents the writing topic to the students, arousing their interest by asking them to discuss the topic and brainstorm ideas related to their experience. Fourthly, the teacher works collaboratively with the students to construct the text together, in which they generate the text within experiencing different writing processes (e.g., outlining, drafting, and revising). Fifthly, the teacher assigns another topic of this particular genre, and asks the students to produce their own text. Lastly, the teacher requires the students to revise, edit, and assess their written work by themselves or with their fellow students. In this paper, the researcher designed the writing lessons based on Yan (2005)'s model due to two reasons. Firstly, this model has been widely applied in several foregoing studies, thus it was proven highly reliable and valid. Secondly, this model's specifications were consistent with the time allotment for English writing classes in numerous Vietnamese colleges and universities, it might be highly practical.

Writing Performance

In definition, writing performance is the student writers' ability to write a piece of text effectively and transform ideas into written words (Sharadgah, 2013). In specific, it refers to "the production of a writer's ideas on a certain topic in a written form with clear organisation of ideas, adequate and relevant content taking the audience into consideration" (Mohammed, 2010, p. 2). Based on this definition, it is indicated that writing performance on a given topic is assessed on content, language forms (e.g., vocabulary and grammar), and organisation. In this paper, the researcher focused on the four criteria to design scoring rubrics for writing performance.

Writing Self-Efficacy

Writing self-efficacy is viewed as students' beliefs in ability to perform in writing tasks, and specifically in the context of this study, students' beliefs in ability to write essays in English. On the whole, "writing self-efficacy is defined as one's belief in his/her writing ability" (Demirel & Aydin, 2019, p. 107). Indeed, to succeed in such a cognitively challenging task as writing, student writers must strongly believe in their writing ability. Writing self-efficacy is linked with writing processes emphasising writing performance (Hayes, 2012). This construct, thus, is measured under three basic dimensions below (Bruning, Dempsey, Kauffman, McKim, & Zumbrunn, 2013), via which the researcher estimated the enhancement of the students' self-efficacy after the course.

Dimension 1 (Self-Efficacy of Writing Ideation) is bound with the idea generation process, covering schematic knowledge or idea organisation (Hayes, 2012). That is, students' ideation self-efficacy focuses on their appraisal of the idea quality and sequencing (Bruning, *et al.*, 2013).

Dimension 2 (Self-Efficacy of Writing Conventions) pertains to writing conventions, which refer to a set of generally accepted standards for conveying ideas in writing (Bruning, *et al.*, 2013). The conventions may be grammar, vocabulary and mechanics (Fayol, Alamargot, & Berninger, 2012).

Dimension 3 (Self-Efficacy of Self-Regulation) is reflected in writers' confidence (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2007) and their anxiety or frustration management (Bruning, *et al.*, 2013) that they can direct themselves successfully through writing stages.

Writing Autonomy

Writing autonomy pertains to self-management involving decision-making abilities that a learner writer needs to possess during their writing learning process (Duong, 2015). In more concrete terms, writing autonomy reflects learners' awareness and behaviors of setting writing goals, creating writing learning plan, selecting materials for writing practice, self-assessing writing performance, and reflecting upon the whole learning process (Duong, 2015). Similarly, Yeung (2019) describes that an autonomous

learner of writing is able to utilise such learning strategies as "goal setting, planning for writing, making decisions on what and how to learn, self-monitoring and self-assessment" (p. 43). In the current paper, the researcher chiefly adapted Duong (2015)'s detailed taxonomy with the aim of testifying the students' change of learner autonomy levels on writing learning before and after the treatment.

Method

Research Context and Participants

This study was carried out in the first semester of the school year 2020-2021 at one private university of Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. This setting aimed to provide an active and practical learning environment for students, and to encourage self-learning and an entrepreneurial spirit, contributing to both Ho Chi Minh City's and Vietnam's economy, social stability, and sustainable development. To the *Academic Writing* subject of the four-year English language program, English majors (i.e. English-majored students) were required to accomplish total seven modules labelled *Academic Writing 1-7* (10 four-hour sessions per module) during the first seven semesters of each intake. These modules enabled them to develop writing ability to produce English texts in different levels like sentences, paragraphs, essays under various text genres.

The research sample was recruited to this study thanks to the use of the convenience sampling technique. It was chosen as "participants are willing and available to be studied" (Creswell, 2012, p. 67) and other criteria were met such as "easy accessibility, geographical proximity" (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016, p. 2). The participants were 38 second-year English majors (i.e. EFL sophomores) from an intact English writing class managed by the researcher; and all of them (9 males and 29 females) were treated as an experimental group. In the Vietnamese tertiary context, rearranging an already-formed group or an intact class for research purpose is an arduous task due to restricted temporal and administrative conditions; thus, using an intact class was more accessible in this study. A control group was not formed in this experiment owing two salient reasons. It was unfair that the treatment group received special training, whereas the control group received a conventional way (Gall, Walter, & Joyce, 2007). Besides, the existence of a control group in this study was irrelevant since the main aim of this research was to estimate the writing progress of the experimental group before and after being exposed to process-genre approach. Similar writing proficiency

background, age range, and prior experience with process-genre writing approach among these students were convenient conditions for the researcher to employ this target sample.

Research Design

By purpose, a quasi-experimental design, without random choice of the representative sample (Creswell, 2012), was purposely deployed to testify the cause-effect correlation between process-genre approach (i.e. the independent variable) and the students' writing performance, writing self-efficacy, and writing autonomy (i.e. the dependent variables). By manner, the study was grounded by a quantitative design with the presence of different numerical instruments such as writing entry and exit tests, and questionnaires.

Training Procedures

Time

The study lasted eight four-hour-weeks, from early October to early December of 2020. In Week 1, the researcher sent the writing entry test, and the pre-questionnaires of writing self-efficacy and writing autonomy. The six next weeks; from Week 2 to Week 7, were used to implement the treatment of process-genre approach on the target sample, which is depicted in the following section. In Week 8, the students were required to complete the writing exit test first, and afterwards the post-questionnaires of writing self-efficacy and writing autonomy.

Material

The quasi-experiment was conducted on the textbook called *Skillful Reading & Writing Level 4* written by Bixby and Scanlon in 2016. This publication included ten units in total, overarching different topics such as social relationships (Unit 1), sports events (Unit 2), family (Unit 3), risks in life (Unit 4), urban development (Unit 5), existence of languages (Unit 6), overpopulation (Unit 7), company changes (Unit 8), geographical effects (Unit 9), and conflicts (Unit 10). However, due to constrained temporal condition and research purposes, the researcher decided to work on six units (i.e. Units 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9). The target text genres included report and argumentation (see Table 1), equivalent to Task 1 and Task 2 in IELTS Writing section, respectively.

Description of the Treatment

The actual treatment consisted of seven successive four-hour-sessions from Week 2 to Week 8, equivalent to the six chosen units. In Week 1, the researcher spent half hour noticing the students of functions

and stages of process-genre approach in writing. In addition, the researcher divided the whole class into separate pairs and groups consistently during the entire experiment. Each four-hour lesson under process-genre approach encompassed six stages (see Table 2), which was adopted from Yan (2005).

Scoring Rubric and Inter-Rating

The predominant aim of the study was to measure the change of the EFL sophomores' writing performance before and after their exposure to process-genre approach, so evaluating students' essay writing was vital and relevant to the content of the training course. Scoring rubric was totally adopted from the

Table 1

Description of the Treated Material Content

Unit	Title	Page	Genre	Main Writing Task (Text 3)
2	Games	17-26	Report Text	Write a report comparing the effect the FIFA World Cup or the Olympics had on two previous host countries. Suggest if your country should host the event.
8	Change	77-86	Report Text	Imagine you work for TWC Management Consultancy. Write a report giving practical suggestions on how Buckson's supermarket can ensure that all staff are prepared and support company changes.
5	Sprawl	47-56	Argumentative Text	Write an essay assessing benefits and disadvantages of slum tourism.
6	Legacy	57-66	Argumentative Text	Read the data about two endangered languages. Which language do you think is in greater danger? Write an essay on the question, giving reasons and supporting your answer with the information.
7	Expanse	67-76	Argumentative Text	Write an essay on behalf of an international charity giving reasons why education for all children is necessary in the fight against overpopulation.
9	Flow	87-96	Argumentative Text	Write about how a place's geography influenced its agriculture, economics, history, and culture.

Table 2

Stages of Four-Hour Lessons Driven by Process-Genre Approach

Stage	Specifications
Preparation (10')	Teacher asked the students relevant questions about the socio-cultural context and communicative purposes of the model text (Text 1).
Modelling (45')	Teacher provided the students with Text 1 of the specific genre. Teacher analysed Text 1 about field (purpose of Text 1), tenor (audience of Text 1), mode (linguistic features, schematic structures of Text 1) of the target genre. Teacher let the students do 2 or 3 controlled practice tasks on these target linguistic features (e.g., formulaic expressions, key grammar). Teacher reinforced the schematic structures of the target genre in the next stages.
Planning (20')	Teacher introduced the writing topic of Text 2 to the students, which was then built by both teacher and the students collaboratively. Teacher asked the students to discuss the topic, brainstorm ideas on it. Teacher participated in constructing the content for Text 2 by eliciting relevant questions from the students and providing further prompts.
Joint construction (75')	Teacher and the students outlined Text 2, using the textual moves from Stage 2. Teacher divided the whole class into separate groups, and then had each of the groups complete one particular textual move of Text 2. Teacher asked the students to show their writing onto the board one by one, based on the sequence of textual moves of Text 2. Teacher, along with the students, suggested feedback and correction on each part so that the best version of Text 2 was produced.
Independent construction (60')	Teacher assigned the writing task of Text 3 of the genre to the students, asked them to complete it individually. Teacher told the students to follow the writing steps as in Stages 3 and 4: i) Planning ideas, lexical items, or sentence patterns, ii) Outlining Text 3 with the learnt rhetorical moves, iii) First drafting.
Revision (30')	Teacher asked the students to do peer feedback with classmates on the first draft. (If the class time was available, the students were expected to revise and edit their first paper to produce the final version of Text 3). Teacher reinforced the students' understandings of the target writing genre from three main dimensions of field, tenor, and mode.

IELTS Writing Band Descriptors owing to two reasons. The first reason, the IELTS was internationally standardised test accepted by many countries around the world, so the inclusive writing rubric had its high reliability. The second reason, the scoring rubric of the IELTS writing part was to assess the test takers' analytical writing ability of Task Achievement (content), Coherence and Cohesion (organisation), Lexical Resource (vocabulary), Grammatical Range and Accuracy (grammar), so it had its high validity– the extent to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The writing scoring rubric involved nine band scores from 1 to 9 for each of the four criteria above and for overall. The total score was the average value of all the four rated criteria.

As rating involves subjectivity (Mackey & Gass, 2005), it is postulated that more than one rater be used, to make the final results more reliable. This rating procedure ensured inter-rater reliability of the test results, considering the question of if a second observer interpreted the data in the same way as the first (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). In this study, the researcher invited one more reliable Vietnamese EFL lecturer at this setting to participate in the rating process. This 32-year-old second rater had a seven-year experience of English academic writing instruction, and she regularly attended training workshops in EFL/ESL writing pedagogy. Both the researcher and this rater were responsible for judging the students' writing performance of the entry test and the exit test. Initially, the researcher and this rater discussed the usage of the IELTS Writing Band Descriptors for the assessment consistently. The students' writing products were independently scored by the two raters when these papers had been duplicated beforehand. If the scores were not much balanced, meetings were organised to reach the final agreement on the final ratings. The Pearson Correlation coefficient results, testifying the correlation of the scores rated by the researcher and the inter-rater, proved the writing scores had high correlation coefficient reliability, that is, r= .712, *p*= .000 (to the entry test scores), and r= .779, *p*= .000 (to the exit test scores).

Research Instruments

Writing Entry and Exit Tests

To measure the change in the participants' writing performance, the researcher deliberately utilised the entry test in the initial week, and the exit test in the last week. The former "[was] taken for all cases prior to the introduction of the independent variable in the experimental group" (Frankfort-Nachmias &

Nachmias, 2004, p. 101), whilst the latter "[was] taken for all cases after the experimental group has been exposed to the independent variable" (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004, p. 101).

Both the tests, basically, shared the same format, time duration, scoring rubric, and administration procedure. As for the format, the students were asked to write a 250-word argumentative essay about the benefits and disadvantages of competition in education (as in the entry test), and about the benefits and disadvantages of urban sprawl in Vietnam (as in the exit test). The writing topics and format in these tests were familiar to the students before and after the experimental course (in *Skillful Reading & Writing Level 3-4*, respectively); as a result, the tests were proven reliable. To the time duration, the students were allocated 40 minutes for completing each test, equivalent to the time allotment of an actual IELT writing test. To the scoring rubric, based on the IELTS Writing Band Descriptors, the students' writing performance of both the tests was assessed on four individual criteria and on overall, each of which was scored from 1.0 to 9.0. Finally, before the tests, the researcher explained to the students the test rules carefully; during the tests, the researcher observed the class strictly so that the test scores were reliable.

Questionnaires of Writing Self-Efficacy and Writing Autonomy

With the purpose of investigating the change of the students' writing self-efficacy and writing autonomy, respectively, after their exposure to process-genre approach, the researcher decided to use the questionnaires. This numerical data collection technique (Creswell, 2012) was in use due to two salient reasons. It, firstly, was one of the most useful tools to exploit subjects' attitudes, beliefs and perceptions (Koshy, 2005). Secondly, it helped the researcher to gain large amount of information from a number of students with the same questions in short time with less effort (Alnasser, 2013). Both the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire constituted two parts, including *Part 1: Writing Self-Efficacy*, and *Part 2: Writing Autonomy* (see Table 3).

According to Bryman (2012), reliability and validity are the most salient evaluative criteria of an effective social research. The five-point Likert scaled questionnaires were found highly reliable as their Cronbach's Alpha values were greater than .700 as depicted in Table 3 (Pallant, 2011). High reliability of the questionnaires was partly derived from the fact that the students were carefully pre-trained how to complete the questionnaires. Similarly, these questionnaires had a high degree of validity as their

content was equally relevant to all the respondents (e.g., all of them experienced the same training course, the same material) and to the research aims (i.e. content validity). Such high validity was also attested through the items being structurally classified under pre-determined sub-themes (i.e.

construct validity), along with the content, scales, layout, and accuracy of both English and L1 versions being double-checked by two other experienced lecturers in the research arena including one 39-year-old male and one 42-year-old female (i.e. face validity).

Table 3

The Overarching Description of the Questionnaires

	Pre- and Post-questionnaire (Part 1)	*Pre- and Post-questionnaire (Part 2)*
Sub-Themes	Writing self-efficacy of (12 items) A. Writing ideation (4 items) B. Writing conventions (5 items) C. Writing self-regulation (3 items)	Writing autonomy (10 items) A. Awareness (5 items) B. Behaviors (5 items)
Sources	Items 1-5-7-8-10-11: Adapted from Villagrasa, Iglesias, Prado, Blázquez, Peña & Lizaga (2018) Items 2-3-4-6-9-12: Self-designed	Items 13-14-15-16-17-18-19-20-21-22: Adapted from Duong (2015)
Scale	A five-point Likert scale: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Uncertain, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree	
Cronbach's Alpha	Pre-Questionnaire I (12 items) = .725 > .700 Post-Questionnaire I (12 items) = .782 > .700	Pre-Questionnaire II (10 items) = .771 > .700 Post-Questionnaire II (10 items) = .812 > .700

Data Analysis

To examine the effects of process-genre approach on the EFL sophomores' writing performance (RQ-1), the researcher employed SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 26.0, and textual evidence. Based on this software, the researcher ran Paired Samples T-tests which compared the mean scores between the writing entry test and the writing exit test with reference to content, organisation, vocabulary, grammar, and overall. Similarly, to attest

the positive change of the students' writing self-efficacy (RQ-2), and writing autonomy (RQ-3) after their exposure to process-genre approach, the researcher continued to run other Paired Samples T-tests, comparing the mean scores between the pre-questionnaire and the post-questionnaire on each individual items of Part 1 and Part 2. If the two-tailed significance value (p value) is greater than alpha level (0.05), there is not a significant difference in variances between the two sets of scores (Pallant, 2011).

Results

Table 4

Paired Samples T-tests on the Writing Entry Test's and Exit Test's Scores

Pair	Criteria	Entry Test (N=38) M (S.D.)	Exit Test (N=38) M (S.D.)	M.D.	p
P1	Content: Task Achievement	4.03 (1.44)	4.24 (1.38)	-0.21	0.073
P2	Organisation: Coherence & Cohesion	5.47 (1.45)	6.34 (1.28)	-0.87	0.000
P3	Vocabulary: Lexical Resource	4.53 (1.50)	4.68 (1.63)	-0.15	0.136
P4	Grammar: Grammatical Range & Accuracy	4.66 (1.07)	5.29 (1.16)	-0.63	0.000
P5	Overall	4.74 (1.25)	5.20 (1.25)	-0.46	0.000

As Table 4 displays, the intervention of process-genre approach made a considerable contribution to the test takers' effectively structuring their texts (P2, M $_{entry\ test}$= 5.47, M $_{exit\ test}$= 6.34, M.D.= -0.87) and correctly using various grammar points (P4, M $_{entry\ test}$= 4.66, M $_{exit\ test}$= 5.29, M.D.= -0.63). In addition, based on the results of Pair 5 and Pair 6, statistically significant differences in the sophomores' performance of textual

organisation and grammar before and after the treatment were found (p= 0.000<0.050), respectively. It is inferred that this approach made many students outperform the "Coherence and Cohesion" and "Grammatical Range and Accuracy" criteria.

Albeit process-genre approach positively enhanced the sophomores' gathering and developing content

for writing (P1, M $_{entry\ test}$= 4.03, M $_{exit\ test}$= 4.24), this change appeared to be not statistically significant (M.D.= -0.21, *p*= 0.073>0.050). Similarly, the students' better performance of the lexical criterion thanks to process-genre approach was witnessed (P3, M $_{entry\ test}$= 4.53, M $_{exit\ test}$= 4.68); yet, this positive change was also not statistically significant (M.D.= -0.15, *p*= 0.136>0.050). Inferentially, despite the presence of process-genre approach, many students still had low ongoing performance of the "Task Achievement" and "Lexical Resource" criteria.

Generally speaking, prior to the treatment, most of the sophomores failed to compose their good essays (M= 4.74<5.00; S.D.= 1.25), but after the treatment, many participants outperformed (M= 5.20>5.00; S.D.= 1.25). The results of P5 indicate a statistically significant change in the sophomores' overall writing performance after the treatment (M.D.= -0.46, *p*= 0.000<0.050). It means that this eclectic approach improved the EFL sophomores' writing ability in general.

The textual evidence in Table 5 was used to elucidate the test results presented in Table 4. To begin with the content criterion, still a tiny part of the students composed their writing texts at least 250 words as required regardless of the intervention. Positively, nearly half of them wrote enough two main ideas to fully respond to the writing task after the treatment; however, these ideas were mostly unclear or ambiguous. Though the students made progress in adding the relevant and convincing supporting ideas to the main ideas, this seemed insignificant. As for the organisation criterion, the intervention facilitated the students' textual structure to some extent. For instance, many students formulated their texts with enough four paragraphs as demanded (i.e. an introductory, two body, and a concluding paragraphs). Some students succeeded in providing the clear thesis statement, two clear topic sentences, and the clear idea restatement. Especially, more than half of writers were able to add an extensive part to the concluding paragraph. Nevertheless, only small proportion of the students composed enough four supporting sentences to each topic sentence. To the grammar criterion, the students' production of more varied grammar items through the texts was witnessed thanks to the

Table 5

Textual Analysis of the Writing Entry Test and Exit Test

Criteria	Evaluated Aspects of Argumentative Text (N=38)	Entry Test	Exit Test
Content	The text included at least 250 words.	10.5%	21.1%
	The text included enough 2 main ideas to fully respond to the writing task.	31.6%	47.4%
	The first main idea was clear.	23.7%	39.5%
	The supporting ideas to the first main idea was relevant and convincing.	18.4%	31.6%
	The second main idea was clear.	10.5%	23.7%
	The supporting ideas to the second main idea was relevant and convincing.	7.9%	15.8%
Organisation	The text included an introductory paragraph.	100.0%	100.0%
	The introductory paragraph presented the clear thesis statement.	50.0%	68.4%
	The text included two enough body paragraphs.	39.5%	84.2%
	The first body paragraph presented a clear topic sentence.	31.6%	60.5%
	The first body paragraph included at least 4 supporting sentences*.	15.8%	42.1%
	The second body paragraph presented a clear topic sentence.	26.3%	52.6%
	The second body paragraph included at least 4 supporting sentences*.	13.2%	28.9%
	The text included a concluding paragraph.	28.9%	71.1%
	The concluding paragraph restated the thesis statement.	15.8%	63.2%
	The concluding paragraph included an extensive part (e.g. warning, suggestion).	7.9%	52.6%
	(*) 4 sentences = one explanation + one elaboration + one example + one elaboration		
Grammar	The average quantity of grammar items used in the whole text was …	$\overline{X} = 6.4$	$\overline{X} = 8.1$
	The text fully included three sentence patterns: simple, complex, and compound.	13.2%	55.3%
	The average quantity of grammar errors in the introductory paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 4.3$	$\overline{X} = 2.9$
	The average quantity of grammar errors in the first body paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 7.2$	$\overline{X} = 5.8$
	The average quantity of grammar errors in the second body paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 6.6$	$\overline{X} = 5.2$
	The average quantity of grammar errors in the concluding paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 3.2$	$\overline{X} = 2.5$
Vocabulary	The text included at least two idioms or idiomatic expressions.	10.5%	18.4%
	The average quantity of advanced lexical items** in the introductory paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 21.3$	$\overline{X} = 22.0$
	The average quantity of advanced lexical items** in the first body paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 22.9$	$\overline{X} = 23.7$
	The average quantity of advanced lexical items** in the second body paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 22.2$	$\overline{X} = 22.8$
	The average quantity of advanced lexical items** in the concluding paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 21.4$	$\overline{X} = 22.3$
	(**) advanced lexical items: C1 and C2 words (based on Online Cambridge Dictionary)	$\overline{X} = 27.6$	$\overline{X} = 26.1$
	The average quantity of spelling mistakes in the introductory paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 211.9$	$\overline{X} = 29.0$
	The average quantity of spelling mistakes in the first body paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 211.5$	$\overline{X} = 29.2$
	The average quantity of spelling mistakes in the second body paragraph was …	$\overline{X} = 27.2$	$\overline{X} = 25.5$
	The average quantity of spelling mistakes items in the concluding paragraph was …		

treatment although this change was small. Strikingly, beyond half of the students focused on different sentence patterns while writing, consisting of at least three common ones–simple, complex, and compound. In addition, the students' incurring grammar items also reduced, but this change was inconsiderable. About the vocabulary criterion, it seemed that the intervention only assisted the students' avoidance of making spelling mistakes to a certain extent. Nonetheless, this treatment failed to aid the students yielding advanced lexical items and idiomatic expressions.

As Table 6 depicts, the students' self-efficacy of writing ideation increased after their exposure to process-genre approach. In specific, they were confident of the abilities to collect many original ideas (I1, M.D.= -0.16), to arrange and develop ideas coherently for writing (I2, M.D.= -0.76), to identify the textual moves of writing (I3, M.D.= -1.02), and to recognise different writing genres (I4, M.D.= -1.03). However, while the sophomores' writing self-efficacy of the last three abilities existed a statistically significant change (P7, *p*= 0.001; P8, *p*= 0.000; P9, *p*= 0.000), that of the first ability was inconsiderable (P6, *p*= 0.563>0.050).

Similarly, the sophomores' self-efficacy of writing conventions was stronger after the training course in general. More specifically, the majority of students believed in the abilities to recollect many words and phrases (I5, M.D.= -0.29), to use synonyms, antonyms, collocations (I6, M.D.= -0.14), to spell words correctly (I7, M.D.= -0.60), to use a variety of grammatical items (I8, M.D.= -0.65), and to use a range of sentence structures for writing (I9, M.D.= -0.47). The change in the students' writing self-efficacy of the first two abilities was not statistically significant (P10, *p*= 0.110>0.050; P11, *p*= 0.625>0.050); by contrast, that of the three last abilities was considerable (P12, *p*= 0.027<0.050; P13, *p*= 0.004<0.050; P14, *p*= 0.040<0.050).

Furthermore, process-genre approach positively enhanced the sophomores' self-efficacy of writing self-regulations. For example, they were confident of the abilities to control frustration or anxiety when writing (I10, M.D.= -0.16), to start writing quickly (I11, M.D.= -0.24), and to administrate the allotted writing time (I12, M.D.= -0.97). As Table 6 documents, the difference in the students' self-efficacy of the last ability before and after the treatment was statistically significant (P17, *p*= 0.000), but that of the first two abilities was found insignificant (P15, *p*= 0.547>0.050; P16, *p*= 0.413>0.050).

Table 6

Paired Samples T-tests on the Students' Writing Self-Efficacy

Pair	Statements	Before (N=38)	After (N=38)	M.D.	p
		M (S.D.)	M (S.D.)		
Writing Self-Efficacy of Writing Ideation					
P6	I1: brainstorming and collecting original ideas	3.08 (1.26)	3.24 (1.20)	-0.16	0.563
P7	I2: arranging and developing ideas coherently	3.42 (1.27)	4.18 (1.31)	-0.76	0.001
P8	I3: identifying the textual moves of writing	3.32 (1.47)	4.34 (0.88)	-1.02	0.000
P9	I4: recognising different writing genres	3.26 (1.01)	4.29 (0.93)	-1.03	0.000
Writing Self-Efficacy of Writing Conventions					
P10	I5: thinking of many lexical items for writing	2.97 (1.22)	3.26 (1.52)	-0.29	0.110
P11	I6: using synonyms, antonyms, collocations for writing	2.89 (1.52)	3.03 (1.40)	-0.14	0.625
P12	I7: spelling vocabulary items correctly	3.45 (1.29)	4.05 (0.77)	-0.60	0.027
P13	I8: writing with a variety of grammar items	3.53 (1.13)	4.18 (0.93)	-0.65	0.004
P14	I9: writing with a range of sentence structures	3.74 (1.29)	4.21 (0.74)	-0.47	0.040
Writing Self-Efficacy of Writing Self-Regulations					
P15	I10: controlling frustration and anxiety while writing	3.16 (1.13)	3.32 (1.09)	-0.16	0.547
P16	I11: starting writing quickly	3.55 (1.16)	3.79 (1.26)	-0.24	0.413
P17	I12: administrating the allotted time	3.11 (1.27)	4.08 (0.67)	-0.97	0.000

Table 7

Paired Samples T-tests on the Students' of Writing Autonomy

Pair	Statements	Before (N=38) M (S.D.)	After (N=38) M (S.D.)	M.D.	p
Awareness of Writing Autonomy					
P18	I13: setting clear goals before starting writing	4.00 (0.96)	4.05 (1.19)	-0.05	0.843
P19	I14: following steps for writing completion	3.66 (1.19)	4.03 (0.80)	-0.63	0.015
P20	I15: reading various materials for writing revision	4.11 (1.06)	4.42 (0.64)	-0.31	0.110
P21	I16: self-assessing writing papers	4.39 (0.63)	4.55 (1.05)	-0.16	0.310
P22	I17: self-assessing writing learning process	4.34 (0.82)	4.61 (0.72)	-0.27	0.016
Behaviors of Writing Autonomy					
P23	I18: setting clear goals before starting writing	3.16 (1.46)	4.39 (0.76)	-1.23	0.000
P24	I19: following steps for writing completion	3.21 (1.34)	4.00 (1.27)	-0.79	0.008
P25	I20: reading various materials for writing revision	3.00 (1.27)	4.24 (1.28)	-1.24	0.000
P26	I21: self-assessing writing papers	2.95 (1.23)	3.26 (1.25)	-0.31	0.291
P27	I22: self-assessing writing learning process	2.55 (1.16)	3.00 (1.49)	-0.45	0.114

As Table 7 indicates, prior to the treatment, the majority of students held awareness of writing autonomy to a certain extent; for instance, they recognised the importance of setting writing goals (I13, M= 4.00), following writing steps (I14, M= 3.66), reading writing materials (I15, M= 4.11), writing self-assessment (I16, M= 4.39), and self-evaluating the learning process (I17, M= 4.34). After the treatment, their awareness of this field remained positive, and was slightly enhanced (P18, M.D.= -0.05, *p*= 0.843; P20, M.D.= -0.31, *p*= 0.110; P21, M.D.= -0.16, *p*= 0.310). Strikingly, the course raised the sophomores' awareness of writing steps and self-assessing the learning process considerably (P19, *p*= 0.015<0.050; P22, *p*= 0.016<0.050).

Besides, process-genre approach made a great contribution to the students' autonomous behaviors of writing. In specific, thanks to this experience, a large number of students set goals before writing (P23, M.D.= -1.23, *p*= 0.000), accorded basic writing steps (P24, M.D.= -0.79, *p*= 0.008), and consulted writing materials like classmates' essays (P25, M.D.= -1.24, *p*= 0.000). However, many students still disregarded writing self-assessment for their writing (I21, M $_{before}$= 2.95, M $_{after}$= 3.26; P26, *p*= 0.291>0.050) and for the learning process (I22, M $_{before}$= 2.55, M $_{after}$= 3.30; P27, *p*= 0.114>0.050).

Discussion

The first research question was formed to confirm the effectiveness of process-genre approach on the EFL university students' writing performance of content, textual organisation, vocabulary, and grammar.

Overall, the sample performed the writing exit test better than the entry test to a certain degree, especially about organisation and grammar. Thus, **H1** was met. This result was partly aligned with previous studies (e.g. Agesta & Cahyono, 2017; Alabere & Shapii, 2019; Janenoppakarn, 2016). While these previous studies witnessed a substantial progress in content, textual organisation, vocabulary, and grammar of the students' writing via process-genre approach, the study documented the contribution of this approach to textual organisation and grammar only. During the writing sessions driven by the target approach, the sophomores were exposed to two text genres, including report and argumentative, repetitively, the former with two sessions and the latter with four sessions. Pertaining to argumentative text, the approach enabled many students to devise their four-paragraph essays through modelling and planning stages. In addition, they had chances to discuss, send to, and receive feedback from their fellow writers about the coherence and cohesion of writing in joint constructing, independent constructing, and revising stages. Especially, at the end of the lessons, the teacher reinforced the students' understandings of the target genre and key formulaic expressions. It might attest the students' better performance of the organisation criterion. Besides, the modelling and joint constructing stages of the lessons informed the students of various sentence patterns and grammar units; plus, the independent constructing and revising stages allowed them to apply these linguistic features to their writing. Consequently, the test takers' a bit better performance of the grammar criterion was explicable; for example, more grammar items and enough three typical sentence patterns (i.e. simple, complex, and

compound) sought in the exit test. Yet, this approach did not make significant improvement in both content and vocabulary. To the former, the students severely lacked topical or social knowledge for writing despite the similarity of the exit test topic to the training course, whilst foreign language writing always embraces diversifying themes and topics. Coupled with the limited duration (merely 40 minutes), this scarcity impeded many students fulfilling the demand for word count (at least 250 words), and garnering adequate and clear information for their task response. Yet, it is undeniable that this approach helped some students manage the writing task more strategically by supplying it within at least two main ideas, which was greatly contributed by modelling, planning, joint constructing stages of the previous sessions. To the latter, many students merely recollected basic and common words while writing, but good writing ability also required them to yield advanced words, and accurate collocations and idioms. Though the lessons driven by the target approach, especially in modelling and planning stages, furnished the students with necessary topic-based linguistic input, they failed to recollect it for the essay due to the temporal pressure and their severe lexical dearth. Positively, joint constructing and revising stages of the previous lessons improved the students' word spelling a little bit. Hence, preparation and expansion of lexical and topic inputs for writing, and extensive practice should be focused on a regular basis. Briefly, process-genre approach benefited the students' overall writing performance to a certain extent.

The second research question was used to testify the effectiveness of process-genre approach on the EFL university students' writing self-efficacy. On the whole, the sample displayed stronger beliefs in their writing ability considering writing ideation (e.g., content, organisation), convention (e.g., grammar, vocabulary), and self-regulation (e.g., affection or time management) thanks to the treatment. This finding validated the positive correlation between process-genre approach and writing self-efficacy in literature, and was aligned with foregoing studies such as Zhang (2018), and Abdullah (2019). Accordingly, **H2** was met. It is worth noting that those who possess stronger writing self-efficacy might gain better writing performance (Blasco, 2016; Demirel & Aydin, 2019). Yet, like the test results of "Task Achievement", albeit the aid of process-genre approach, the students' beliefs in topical knowledge for writing remained low. Besides, similar to the test results of "Lexical Resource", many students remained a low confidence level of their lexical knowledge for writing regardless of the treatment. Evidently, some

sophomores were still skeptical of the ability to control their anxiety when writing. It means that the students were presumed to recognise their current deficiencies in topical and lexical inputs; hence, it is imperative that they accumulate both topical and lexical knowledge for writing regularly. By anyway, process-genre approach reinforced the students' self-efficacy to some extent.

To seek the impact of process-genre approach on the sophomores' writing autonomy, **the third research question** was added. In general, process-genre approach made a positive contribution to the students' awareness and behaviors of autonomous writing learning, which had been recognised by foregoing studies such as Arteaga-Lara (2017), and Abdel-Haq, *et al.* (2020). That is to say, **H3** was met. In essence, during the training course, the students had chances to work actively with their classmates, and themselves; concurrently, they were instructed to plan, control, and regulate their own writing act. Clearly, the target approach created a convenient environment to foster the students' writing autonomy, as noted by Salim, *et al.* (2016). Behaviourally, many participants still dismissed the self-assessment of both writing paper and learning process despite the presence of process-genre approach. The students are expected to enact this autonomous action strictly so that they can define what strengths to promote and what weaknesses to minimise (Truong, *et al.*, 2019) for higher writing performance. This approach, hopefully, may empower the sophomores' writing autonomy significantly, which inhibits them from their passive fossilised habit of memorising and imitating the sample texts without independent writing strategies, as mentioned earlier.

Conclusion

The results of the study shed light on the practicality of process-genre approach towards EFL sophomores' writing learning in the Vietnamese context. Firstly, the results showed that the target approach made the students' overall writing performance better to a certain degree, especially for "Coherence and Cohesion" and "Grammatical Range and Accuracy" criteria. Secondly, the study revealed that it made the students' general writing self-efficacy of writing ideation, conventions, and self-regulations stronger. Lastly, from the results, this eclectic approach enhanced the students' both awareness and behaviors of writing autonomy, especially pertinent to autonomous writing steps and techniques. Thus, process-genre approach should be conducted in further writing classes.

To pedagogical implications, despite the treatment of process-genre approach, many students still failed to perform "Task Achievement" and "Lexical Resource" criteria well, which strongly correlated to their low confidence of topical and lexical knowledge and quite high writing anxiety after the intervention. Thus, the students should spend time broadening these indispensable inputs, and practicing this productive skill more frequently. For example, the teachers should ask their students to prepare ideas, vocabulary, and relevant idiomatic expressions prior to each process-genre lesson via mind-mapping technique. Besides, the lecturers can provide their students with a course of topic-based writing assignments and key prompts for their self-study after each lesson. Besides, the lecturers should ask the students to store their papers in a portfolio, and afterward give them both formative and summative assessment, and even self-assessment. Notably, the target approach might be not powerful enough for the students to spend time on writing self-assessment. It is suggested that the students do it heedfully to self-regulate their writing learning path, whilst the lecturers highlight its obligation, and facilitate their self-assessing practice with instructed self-evaluation checklists during the Independent Construction and Revision stages of further lessons driven by process-genre approach.

Though the researcher endeavored to gain the success of the study, there still remained drawbacks. First, owing to time shortage, the researcher merely testified the students' writing improvement of argumentative text (IELTS Task 2), but excluded that of report text (IELTS Task 1) which was also taught in this study. Thus, for further studies, researchers should measure the students' writing performance of all text genres taught in the studies. Second, use of a single tool like questionnaires to measure the students' writing self-efficacy and writing autonomy appeared to be inadequate, under the temporal restriction. Thus, for further studies, researchers should diversify instruments to gain credible data in depth and breadth; for instance, interviews, observations, or diaries. Third, due to the incomplete convenience, the researcher merely recruited one small sample into the experiment, making it hard to generalize the findings to other pedagogical settings and subjects. Hence, the effectiveness of process-genre approach should be attested among larger population in further research. Lastly, under temporal restriction and particular research aims, the correlation among three variables, i.e. writing performance, writing self-efficacy, and writing autonomy, was not addressed. Thus, this correlation should be verified in further studies.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Abdel-Haq, E. M., Atta, H. T., & Ali, A. A. H. (2020). A suggested web-mediated process genre-based program for developing writing autonomy of EFL prospective teachers. *Sohag University International Journal of Educational Research, 2*(2), 30-50. https://dx.doi.org/10.21608/suijer.2020.97630

Abdullah, H. M. A. (2019). The effect of process-genre approach for developing English writing skills of secondary school students and reducing their writing anxiety. *CDELT Occasional Papers, 68*(1), 513-528. https://doi.org/10.21608/opde.2019.132690

Agesta, S., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2017). Effect of process-genre approach on the Indonesian EFL writing achievement across personality. *International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research, 5*(3), 39-48.

Alabere, R. A., & Shapii, A. (2019). The effects of process-genre approach on academic writing. *Journal of English Educators Society, 4*(2), 89-98. https://doi.org/10.21070/jees.v4i2.2598

Alnasser, S. M. N. (2013). *A new form of peer feedback technique: An investigation into the impact of focusing Saudi ESL learners on macro level writing features* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Newcastle University.

Arteaga-Lara, H. M. (2017).Using the process-genre approach to improve fourth-grade EFL learners' paragraph writing. *Latin American Journal of Content and Language Integrated Learning, 10*(2), 217-244. https://doi.org/10.5294/laclil.2017.10.2.3

Babalola, L. H. A. (2012). Effects of process-genre based approach on the written English performance of computer science students in a Nigerian polytechnic. *Journal of Education and Practice, 3*(6), 1-7.

Badger, R., & White. G. (2000). A process genre approach to teaching writing. *ELT Journal, 54*(2), 153-160. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/54.2.153

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive view*. Prentice Hall.

Barkaoui, K. (2007). Teaching writing to second language learners: Insights from theory and research. *TESL REPORTER, 40*(1), 35-48.

Blasco, J. A. (2016). The relationship between writing anxiety, writing self-efficacy, and Spanish EFL students' use of metacognitive writing strategies: A case study. *Journal of English Studies, 14*, 7-45. https://doi.org/10.18172/jes.3069

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Pearson Education.

Bruning, R., Dempsey, M., Kauffman, D. F., McKim, C., & Zumbrunn, S. (2013). Examining dimensions of self-efficacy for writing. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 105*(1), 25-38. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029692

Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods*. Oxford University Press.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. Routledge.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative*. Pearson Education.

Demirel, M. V., & Aydin, I. S. (2019). Examining high school students' writing self-efficacy perceptions. *International Journal of Education & Literacy Studies, 7*(4), 106-113. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijels.v.7n.4p.106

Derewianka, B. (1990). *Exploring how text works*. Primary ELT Association.

Deng, L., Chen, Q., & Zhang, Y. (2014). *Developing Chinese EFL learners' generic competence: A genre-based and process-genre approach*. Springer.

Duong, M. T. (2015). *A portfolio-based learner autonomy development model in an EFL writing course* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Suranaree University of Technology.

Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, N. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics, 5*(1), 1-4. https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11

Fayol, M., Alamargot, D., & Berninger, V. W. (Eds.). (2012). *Translation of thought to written text while composing*. Psychology Press.

Frankfort-Nachmias, C. & Nachmias, D. (2004). *Research methods in the social sciences*. Edward Arnold Publishers.

Gall, M. D., Walter, R. B., & Joyce, P. G. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction*. Allyn and Bacon.

Gupitasari, H. (2013). The implementation of process-genre approach to teaching writing business letter. *Journal of English & Education, 1*(2), 23-30.

Hashemnejad, F., Zoghi, M., & Amini, D. (2015). The relationship between self-efficacy and writing performance across genders. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 4*(5), 1045-1052. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.5.1045-1052

Hayes, J. R. (2012). Evidence from language bursts, revision, and transcription for translation and its relation to other writing processes. In M. Fayol, D. Alamargot, & V. W. Berninger (Eds.), T*ranslation of thought to written text while composing: Advancing theory, knowledge, research methods, tools, and applications* (pp. 15–25). Psychology Press.

Ho, M. (2016). Exploring writing anxiety and self-efficacy among EFL graduate students in Taiwan. *Higher Education Studies, 6*(1), 24-39. https://doi.org/10.5539/hes.v6n1p24

Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Pergamon Press.

Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge University Press.

Janenoppakarn, C. (2016). *Effects of using process-genre approach on the teaching of writing: A case study of higher and lower proficient EFL students* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Thammasat University.

Khanalizadeh, B., & Allami, H. (2012). The impact of teachers' belief on EFL writing instruction. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 2*(2), 334-342. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.2.334-342

Kim, Y., & Kim, J. (2005). Teaching Korean university writing class: Balancing the process and the genre approach. *Asian EFL Journal, 7*(2), 1-15. http://doi.org/10.12691/education-3-7-3

Koshy, V. (2005). *Action research for Improving practice: A practical guide*. Sage.

Ly, H. T. D. H. (2014). *Peer feedback implementation and the effects of trained peer feedback on students' writing quality at Ho Chi Minh City Open University* [Unpublished master's dissertation]. Ho Chi Minh City Open University.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Mekki, C. (2012). *The student awareness of writing skill: The case study third year students at Biskra University* [Unpublished master's dissertation]. Biskra University.

Mohammed, M.(2010). *Using Wikis to develop writing performance among prospective English as a foreign language teacher*. Retrieved from http://www.nauss.edu.sa/acit/PDFs/f1766.pdf.

Pallant, J. (2011). *SPSS survival guide: A step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for windows*. Open University Press.

Rusinovci, X. (2015). Teaching writing through process-genre based approach. *US-China Education Review A, 5*(10), 699-705. https://doi.org/10.17265/2161-623X/2015.10.006

Salim, N. A., Walker, s. M., & Rosenblatt, K. (2016). Teachers' perceptions on the effectiveness of a process-genre approach on the writing skills of students with dyslexia. *Asia Pacific Journal of Developmental Differences, 3*(1), 35-61. https://doi.org/10.3850/S2345734114000217

Schmitt, N. (2010). An introduction to applied linguistics. Hodder Education.

Schunk, H. D. (2003). Self-efficacy for reading and writing: Influence of modelling, goal setting, and self-evaluatıon. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 19*(2), 159-172. https://doi.org/10.1080/10573560308219

Sharadgah, T. A. (2013). Writing in an Internet-based environment: Improving EFL students' writing performance through text-based chat. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 3*(14), 258-266.

Spycher, P. (2007). Academic writing of adolescent English learners: learning to use "although". *Journal of Second Language Writing, 16*, 238-254. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.001

Taghizadeh, M. (2014). Contribution of writing autonomy to the writing performance of EFL learners based on CEFR. *English Language Teaching, 1*(3), 58-85.

Truong, M. H., & Pham, V. P. H. (2017). High school teachers' pedagogical beliefs in English as a foreign language writing instruction. *Journal of Science: Ho Chi Minh City Open University, 7*(4), 21-33.

Truong, M. H., Nguyen, T. T. T., & Luu, T. H. T. (2019). The English-majored sophomores' self-perception of autonomous language learning. *English Language Teaching, 12*(12), 119-131. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v12n12p119

Uddin, M. E. (2014). Teachers' pedagogical belief and its reflection on the practice in teaching writing in EFL tertiary context in Bangladesh. *Journal of Education and Practice, 5*(29), 116-129.

Villagrasa, P. J. R., Iglesias, I. S., Prado, M. G., Blázquez, B. O., Peña, J. M., & Lizaga, P. C. (2018). Spanish version of "Self-Efficacy for Writing Scale". *Anales De Psicología, 34*(1), 86-91. https://doi.org/10.6018/analesps.34.1.264931

Yan, G. (2005). A process genre model for teaching writing. *English Teaching Forum, 43*(3), 18-26.

Yeung, M. (2016). Exploring the construct of learner autonomy in writing: The roles of motivation and the teacher. *English Language Teaching, 9*(8), 122-139. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n8p122

Yeung, M. (2019). Exploring the strength of the process writing approach as a pedagogy for fostering learner autonomy in writing among young learners. English Language Teaching, 12(9), 42-54. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v12n9p42

Zhang, Y. (2018). Exploring EFL learners' self-efficacy in academic writing based on process-genre approach. *English Language Teaching, 11*(6), 115-124. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n6p115

Zimmerman, B., & Kitsantas, A. (2007). Reliability and validity of Self-Efficacy for Learning Form (SELF) scores of college students. *Journal of Psychology, 215*(3), 157-163. https://doi.org/10.1027/0044-3409.215.3.157

The Effect of Comprehensive Written Corrective Feedback on EFL Learners' Written Syntactic Complexity

Mohammadreza Valizadeh[ORCID]

Cappadocia University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Mohammadreza Valizadeh, Department of Translation and Interpretation (English), Faculty of Humanities, Cappadocia University, Cappadocia, Ürgüp, Nevşehir, Turkey, 50420. E-mail: mrvalizadeh2015@gmail.com

Background: The effectiveness of Corrective feedback has been a controversial issue and thus a central part of second language writing instruction worldwide. It has been argued that the provision of written corrective feedback can affect the complexity of the written text negatively, and the issue is not sufficiently investigated.

Purpose: This study investigated the effects of two types of comprehensive written corrective feedback strategies: direct corrective feedback (DCF), and metalinguistic explanation (ME) on L2 learners' written syntactic complexity.

Method: This study was quasi-experimental and used a pretest-intervention-posttest-delayed-posttest design. Participants were 90 Turkish EFL upper-intermediate learners, whose L2 proficiency and L2 writing skills were controlled by administering the Oxford Placement Test and the IELTS Writing Task 2 test. They were assigned to three groups: DCF, ME, and NF (i.e., no feedback on grammatical errors).The treatment/control period lasted for five weeks. Every week, each participant wrote an essay of argument-led type in class and then received the specified feedback. No work was done on writing for the two-week interval between the posttest and delayed posttest. Lu's (2010) web-based L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyser was utilised to calculate the syntactic complexity measures. The MANOVA test was utilized to find the results.

Results: It was revealed the ME group was not significantly different from the NF group. The DCF group significantly outperformed the ME group in the clauses per sentence (C/S) of the texts both in posttests and delayed-posttests. The DCF group also significantly outperformed the NF group in the clauses per T-unit (C/T), complex T-units per T-unit (CP/T), and C/S in posttests, but the positive effect of the DCF on CP/T was not durable after the two-week interval.

Keywords: comprehensive/unfocused written corrective feedback, direct corrective feedback, metalinguistic explanation, syntactic complexity, EFL learners

Introduction

Corrective feedback (CF) has been a central part of second language (L2) writing instruction worldwide. Nevertheless, the effectiveness of CF has been a controversial issue in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) (Karim & Nassaji, 2020). The debate over the efficacy of written corrective feedback (WCF) dates back to Truscott's (1996) claim that WCF is not only ineffective, but is also harmful to the learners, so it had better be abandoned. One of his reasons was that the provision of WCF can affect the complexity of the written text negatively; in other words, the learners will probably write simplified texts which they are confident they can write accurately (Truscott, 2004, 2007).

Syntactic complexity has been defined as "the sophistication, variety, diversity, or elaborateness of grammatical resources exhibited in language production" (Ortega, 2015, p. 86). From a theoretical perspective, Kellogg's (1990) Overload Hypothesis, Kellogg's (1996) model of working memory, and limited capacity models of attention (Skehan, 1998) support what Truscott (2004, 2007) stated in terms of the probable negative effects of the CF on learners' writing. According to these models, when several processes must be managed simultaneously, as in writing a text (Torrance & Galbraith, 2006), attentional demands are very high, and the learners who are writing can be overloaded and unable to attend adequately (Kellogg, 1988). Additionally, according to Skehan's (1998) limited capacity models

of attention, learners may concentrate their efforts on gaining greater control over items that had already been internalized and are more stable (interlanguage) and avoid expanding their L2 knowledge system (Skehan & Foster, 2001).

Consideration of syntactic complexity is important because many L2 learners, especially those getting prepared for the demands of academic writing, need to improve not only their written accuracy but also the syntactic complexity in L2 writing (Balanga et al., 2016; Brown, 2017). Further, "Language teachers are equally committed to helping their learners develop fluency in their writing and, especially at higher proficiency levels, greater levels of complexity in their writing" (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p. 179).

Despite the importance of the issue, to date, few studies have investigated the effect of WCF strategies on developing syntactic complexity in L2 writing (see Chandler, 2003; Fazilatfar, Fallah, Hamavandi, & Rostamian, 2014; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Sheppard, 1992; Valizadeh & Soltanpour, 2021; Van Beuningen, De Jong, & Kuiken, 2012) and these few studies have revealed conflicting results (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012) although studies on the effect of feedback "using measures of accuracy are frequent in the second language writing literature" (Polio & Shea, 2014, p. 10). Consequently, the present research addressed the issue of the effect of comprehensive WCF on the syntactic complexity of the learners' written texts.

Review of Literature

Robb et al. (1986) studied the effect of four types of comprehensive CF (direct correction, the coded feedback, the uncoded feedback, and the marginal feedback) on the complexity of narrative essays written by Japanese college freshmen. The complexity of essays was analysed based on "the ratio of additional clauses to total words written" and "additional clauses" (Robb et al. 1986, p. 90). Although the complexity of essays in all groups improved significantly, there was not any significant difference between the groups. However, as Van Beuningen et al. (2012) found it, Robb et al.'s (1986) study did not include a control group (i.e., no CF), which is a shortcoming.

Then, Sheppard (1992) examined the effects of two types of feedback on essays: "discrete item attention to form and holistic feedback on meaning" (Sheppard 1992, p. 103) with college freshmen from the Caribbean, Latin America, Europe, and Asia. "The ratio of subordinations to the total number of sentences", an indirect measure of complexity, was analysed (Sheppard 1992, p. 106). Sheppard found that discrete item attention to form had a negative effect on the structural complexity, but this finding was not significant. Sheppard's (1992) study had some shortcomings. First, he did not include a no-correction control group. Furthermore, Ferris (2003, 2004) pointed out that there were no inter-rater reliability checks on the coding of the data, making us cautious about accepting the findings.

Afterwards, Chandler (2003) compared the direct and indirect unfocused CF with music majors, from Korea, Japan, China, and Taiwan. The students were required to write about their lives. Chandler concluded that the WCF did not have any effect on the complexity of L2 learners' writing. Nevertheless, Chandler's utilizing holistic ratings was his study's shortcoming (Van Beuningen et al., 2012); the fact that holistic ratings did not show any changes is not necessarily convincing proof "that the linguistic complexity of learners' writing did not change either" (Van Beuningen et al., 2012, p. 9).

Next, Van Beuningen et al., (2012) compared the effect of direct and indirect comprehensive CF on multilingual teenage students' complexity of writing. The participants' L1 included Moroccan Arabic, Turkish, and Surinamese languages and they had limited L2 proficiency. The study was done during biology classes, and the tasks included biology-related topics. As Van Beuningen et al. (2012) explained, to measure structural complexity, they used "a subordination index: the number of subordinate clauses as a percentage of the total number of clauses (i.e., [number of subclauses/total number of clauses]×100). ... Lexical diversity was calculated using Guiraud's [1954] Index, a type-token ratio that corrects for text length (types/√tokens)" (Van Beuningen et al., 2012, p. 18). Finally, the researchers reported that both direct and indirect unfocused WCF did not lead to simplified writing. In other words, the error correction did not lead to learners' avoidance of lexically and structurally complex sentences.

More recently, Fazilatfar et al. (2014) investigated whether comprehensive WCF was effective on the syntactic and lexical complexity of Iranian EFL learners' writing at an advanced level. Lu's (2010, 2012) L2 Syntactic and Lexical Complexity Analyser was used to evaluate the complexity of the students' writing. To assess the syntactic complexity, the researchers calculated the mean length of sentence (MLS) and the dependent clauses per clause (DC/C). The study found a significant positive effect on both lexical complexity and the investigated indices of

syntactic complexity on the written texts of the group that had received the comprehensive WCF. It should be noted that only calculating the two indices of length of production at mean length of sentence and the dependent clauses per clause cannot be sufficiently considered as the complex issue of syntactic complexity.

Given the mentioned literature, the results of the studies on the effect of comprehensive WCF on L2 complexity gains are not comparable because of their differences with regard to their treatment period, methodology, measurement instruments, genre of writing task, as well as their participants' conditions (e.g., age, proficiency level, L1 background, L2 learning goals, etc.). Several studies have shown the role of L1 as a moderating variable of L2 syntactic complexity (Jiang, Bi, & Liu, 2019; Khushik & Huhta, 2020; Kuiken & Vedder, 2019; Lu & Ai, 2015; Ortega, 2015; Ströbel, Kerz, & Wiechmann, 2020), the roles of genre/task/ content in syntactic complexity in writing, as well as the powerful influence of L2 proficiency, modulating syntactic complexity (Mostafa & Crossley, 2020; Ortega, 2015; Yoon, 2017). Therefore, the effect of WCF strategies on L2 syntactic complexity is a matter which continues to be a subject of controversy and requires more meticulous studies, which do not suffer the mentioned shortcomings.

This Study

Considering the literature, the researcher of this study investigated the effects of WCF on the complexity of the EFL learners' written texts. It should be noted that the researcher attempted to consider and address the methodological limitations which were found in the previously done studies in literature so that the results would be reasonably reliable.

Direct corrective feedback (DCF) and metalinguistic explanation (ME) are two types of explicit correction, which are also two strategies that teachers commonly adopt for correcting linguistic errors in students' written work are (Ellis, 2009). Because of their popularity among L2 teachers, it is critical to investigate whether or not these two commonly utilised types of feedback had any detrimental effects on L2 learners' written syntactic complexity. Consequently, this research looked at the effects of the aforementioned WCF strategies on L2 syntactic complexity with the aim of investigating whether or not the provision of DCF or ME can affect the complexity of the written text negatively because there is obviously a gap between what Truscott (2004, 2007) stated and the supporting evidence.Therefore, in this study, either DCF or ME was provided to the participants. Via DCF, not only the error was underlined

but also the corresponding correct L2 form was provided; therefore, learners were explicitly provided with the correct form of their errors. However, using ME, the teacher underlined and numbered the errors in the text and wrote a grammatical description for each numbered error at the bottom of the written text or on a separate paper, attached to the student's written text. In other words, via ME, learners were given some form of explicit comment about the nature of their errors and had to work out the correction from the grammatical description.

Moreover, because this study aimed at investigating the syntactic complexity of the written texts, the comprehensive/unfocused feedback was the most appropriate one as it had also been used in previous studies on the syntactic complexity (Chandler 2003; Fazilatfar et al. 2014; Robb et al. 1986; Sheppard 1992; Van Beuningen et al. 2012). Besides, in focused feedback studies, tasks should be specifically designed to allow the pre-selection of one or two grammatical structures to be focused and to find out whether or not the treatment is effective in correcting these errors (Benson & DeKeyser, 2019; Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008, 2009, 2010; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009; Shintani & Ellis, 2013). Natural or free-writing tasks cannot be used for this purpose as was pinpointed by Shintani and Ellis (2015). However, while controlling the task type to ensure that the participants used the focused target structures, exploration of the effect of the treatment on syntactic complexity would not be achieved. Therefore, in the present study, free-writing tasks were used, so that assessing the syntactic complexity of the written texts could be feasible.

As for addressing the methodological limitations found in previous studies, the present one included a control group that did not receive feedback on grammatical errors. Moreover, the inter-rater reliability was checked in this study. Additionally, the moderating variables of proficiency level and L1 background were controlled. Finally, to investigate the effect of the WCF on written syntactic complexity, ten syntactic complexity measures were explored. Hopefully, this study can offer not only theoretical insights into the field but also pedagogical suggestions for teachers on providing feedback and improving English academic writing instruction.

Research Question
The study addressed the following research question:

- What are the relative immediate and delayed effects of the comprehensive DCF, comprehensive ME and NF (no feedback on grammatical errors) on EFL learners' written syntactic complexity measures?

Method

Participants

The participants were selected out of 127 university students whose English proficiency levels were carefully controlled by the administration of the pen-and-paper version of Oxford Placement Test (OPT). A total of 114 students got scores ranging from 40 to 47 out of 60 (i.e., the upper-intermediate level), based on Geranpayeh's (2003). They were selected for the IELTS Writing Task 2 test, which was used to assess the syntactic complexity in the written texts (i.e., to ensure the homogeneity of the students and as the pretest). The students who were homogeneous in their writing ability (90 students) were assigned to three groups, namely DCF (n = 30), ME (n = 30), and NF (n = 30). Unlike the DCF and ME groups that received feedback on their grammatical errors, the NF group was provided with feedback only on content, orthography, and organization, but not on grammatical errors because, as Ferris (2004) stated, it seems almost unethical to single out a group for no feedback.

The 90 participants, aged between 18 to 23, included 50 females and 40 males. All of them had passed the elementary and intermediate writing courses and enrolled in upper-intermediate ones. The participants' native language (L1) was Turkish. The three different groups (DCF, ME, and NF) were in different classes and thus, not in contact with one another during the study.

Given that 127 students had enrolled in university upper-intermediate writing courses, excluding them from the classes was not permitted; as a result, all the learners in classes received the intervention, but for the purpose of the research, the scores (pretest, posttest and delayed-posttest) of the students who were homogeneous in terms of L2 proficiency and L2 writing skills were considered and those who were not homogeneous were discarded from the research although they were present in classes.

Setting and Design

This quasi-experimental research, which utilised a pretest-treatment/control-posttest-delayed posttest design and non-random convenience sampling method, was carried out in real classrooms at a university in Turkey so that the feedback was provided in "the context of an instructional program, with ecologically valid writing tasks", as recommended by Storch (2010, p. 43). Furthermore, following Guénette's (2007) recommendation, the groups in this study had the same teacher; the activities and writing topics were similar as well. This was done to control the possible effects of every other design parameter, except the feedback types.

Variables

The dependent variable is the syntactic complexity measured in the participants' production from the pretests to the posttests and delayed posttests. Syntactic complexity included ten syntactic complexity measures: MLC, MLS, MLT, C/S, C/T, CT/T, DC/C, CP/T, CN/T, and VP/T, which are explained in Table 1 below. The independent variable was the comprehensive WCF type, (DCF and ME, in comparison to no feedback on syntactic errors). Additionally, the participants' English proficiency level and writing ability (i.e., written syntactic complexity) were also the control variables.

Table 1

Ten Syntactic Complexity Measures

Measure	Code	Definition
Type 1: Length of Production		
1. mean length of clause	MLC	number of words divided by number of clauses
2. mean length of sentence	MLS	number of words divided by number of sentences
3. mean length of T-unit	MLT	number of words divided by number of T-units[1]
Type 2: Sentence Complexity		
4. clauses per sentence	C/S	number of clauses divided by number of sentences
Type 3: Subordination		
5. clauses per T-unit	C/T	number of clauses divided by number of T-units
6. complex T-units per T-unit	CT/T	number of complex T-units divided by number of T-units
7. dependent clauses per clause	DC/C	number of dependent clauses divided by number of clauses
Type 4: Coordination		
8. coordinate phrases per T-unit	CP/T	number of coordinate phrases divided by number of T-units
Type 5: Particular Structures		
9. complex nominals per T-unit	CN/T	number of complex nominals divided by number of T-units
10. verb phrases per T-unit	VP/T	number of verb phrases divided by number of T-units

Instruments

The following instruments were utilised: Oxford Placement Test (OPT), class writing tasks, pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. For the class writing tasks and tests, samples of IELTS Writing Task 2 were used. Additionally, to calculate the syntactic complexity, Lu's (2010) web-based L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyser was employed.

Oxford Placement Test (OPT)

As Geranpayeh (2003, p. 8) explained, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) is a flexible test of English language proficiency developed by Oxford University Press and Cambridge ESOL to give teachers a reliable and time-saving method of finding a student's level of English." The validity and reliability of the test have been checked and confirmed through Cambridge ESOL quality control procedures.

Writing Tasks and Tests

All the writing tasks and tests topics were selected from IELTS Writing Task 2 samples in order to (a) consider the criterion-related validity of the test (i.e., the utilised tests and tasks can be comparable to a standardized writing test), and (b) to control for the probable mediating effects of genre/task/content on syntactic complexity in writing. Each class writing task as well as the tests was of argument-led type, which presented an argument to the learners and required the participants to first discuss both for and against views and then finally, to give their own opinions.

Syntactic Complexity Measure

To calculate the syntactic complexity, Lu's (2010) web-based L2 Syntactic Complexity Analyser, entitled, 'Web-based L2SCA: Single Mode' (https://aihaiyang.com/software/l2sca/)was utilised, which was already used by Lu (2011), Fazilatfar et al., (2014), Lu and Ai, (2015), Yang, Lu, and Cushing Weigle (2015). The L2SCA, developed by Professor Xiaofei Lu at The Pennsylvania State University, is a tool that allows language teachers and researchers to analyse the syntactic complexity of written English language texts, using 14 different measures covering (1) length of production units, (2) amounts of coordination, (3) amounts of subordination, (4) degree of phrasal sophistication and overall sentence complexity. This analyser "produces frequency counts of nine linguistic units in the text—word, sentence, clause, dependent clause, T-unit, complex T-unit, coordinate phrase, complex nominal, and verb phrase—and generates 14 indices of syntactic complexity for the text" (Yang, et al 2015, p.58). In the present study, ten out of 14 indices were analysed. Table 1 showed these ten measures.

To assess the syntactic complexity, the automatic approach was used "because it affords speed, flexibility, and reliability" (Crossley & McNamara, 2014, p. 69). Moreover, human raters are likely to be subjective and also they need training, time to score, as well as monitoring, all of which utilize resources (Higgins, Xi, Zechner, & Williamson, 2011).

Data Collection Procedure

The whole research lasted for eight weeks. From week one to week five, every week the participants in each group spent about 50 minutes writing an argumentative essay of minimum 250 words in class and turned it in; the texts which students wrote generally included a range of 250 to 270 words. Then, the teacher-researcher provided the specified feedback to each group. Next, the students were required to revise their corrected text as recommended by Guénette (2012), so they would be responsible for their learning. After receiving five sessions of treatment, on the first session of Week six, the posttest was given. The students could spend maximum 50 minutes writing the test essay. No work on writing was carried out during the sixth and seventh weeks. Then, in the eighth week, the delayed posttest was implemented. No participant took the required tests twice. Further, the essay topics were the same for all three groups

Results

The Normality Tests

The assumption of normality was tested via both the graphic of histogram, and also some numerical ways as recommended by Larson-Hall (2010). The histograms showed that the data were normally distributed. Regarding the numerical methods of assessing normality, the values of skewness and kurtosis statistics were within +/-1, based on Phakiti (2010). Furthermore, the outcomes of the ratio of skewedness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors were within the ranges of +/-1.96, based on Field (2013). Therefore, the numerical tests also revealed that the data were normality distributed.

Ensuring the Homogeneity of the Groups

Grammatical Knowledge

A one-way between-groups ANOVA was run to explore whether the three groups (i.e., DCF, ME, NF) were homogeneous in terms of their grammatical knowledge, as measured by the OPT. No statistically significant difference (at the p < .05 level) was revealed in grammatical knowledge scores of the three groups: $F_{(2, .87)} = .03$, p = .97.

Syntactic Complexity

To discover whether the three groups were homogenous in terms of the syntactic complexity of their essays, multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) were performed because there were several dependent variables (Larson-Hall, 2010; Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). At the outset, the assumptions of MANOVA (i.e., equal sample sizes, univariate normality, multivariate normality (outliers), multicollinearity and singularity, linearity, and finally, homogeneity of variance matrices) (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013) were examined. There were no problems with equal sample sizes in each group and the assumption of univariate normality.

To test for multivariate normality, Mahalanobis distance was calculated (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). The maximum value for Mahalanobis distance for the DCF, ME, and the NF groups were 26.12, 22.31, and 21.50, respectively, which were less than the critical value (i.e., 29.59, based on Pallant, 2013), so it was safely assumed that there were no multivariate outliers.

Next, to check for multicollinearity and check the strength of the correlations among the dependent variables, a correlation test was run (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). There were no correlations up around .8 or .9, so there was no reason for concern regarding multicollinearity (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell 2013).

Nevertheless, the correlation coefficient between the CP/T and other indices were mostly below .10, which is considered a very small correlation; therefore, this index could make the data violate the assumption of linearity. Thus, based on Pallant (2013), CP/T was removed from MANOVA and then a separate ANOVA test was performed on it.

Then, to assess the assumption of linearity, a matrix of scatterplots was generated between each pair of variables, separately for each group (DCF, ME, and NF). The scatterplots were roughly oval-shaped (Tabachnick & Fidell 2013) or cigar-shaped (Pallant, 2013), so the assumption of linearity was met.

A one-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed. Nine dependent variables were used: MLS, MLT, MLC, C/S, VP/T, C/T, DC/C, CT/T, and CN/T. The independent variable was the type of WCF.

Box's test of equality of covariance matrices for pretest of syntactic complexity showed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance was violated (Sig = .000 < .001), so as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), a more stringent alpha level (i.e., .025 for moderate violations), was adopted as the alpha level.

Levene's test of equality of error variances for the indices of syntactic complexity of the pretest revealed that all the Sig. values were over .05, indicating that the assumption of equality of variance for the variables was met.

Multivariate tests for pretest of syntactic complexity indicated that the p-value was larger than the stringent alpha level (.49 > .025), so there was not a significant difference among the three groups on the combined dependent variables, F (18, 158) = .97, p = .49; Wilk's Lambda = .81; partial eta squared = .10. In conclusion, the three groups were homogenous in terms of MLS, MLT, MLC, C/S, VP/T, C/T, DC/C, CT/T, and CN/T of the written essays.

The dependent variable of CP/T had been removed from the data before performing the MANOVA and a separate ANOVA was run on it. It indicated no statistically significant difference in CP/T among the three groups: F (2, 87) = .056, p = .94.

The Immediate Effect of WCF on Syntactic Complexity Measures

A one-way between-groups MANOVA was performed to investigate the differences between groups after the immediate posttest (Larson-Hall, 2010; Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Considering the assumptions of MANOVA, no problems were revealed in terms of univariate normality, multivariate normality (multivariate outliers), multicollinearity, and linearity. Nevertheless, the correlation coefficients of C/S and CP/T was mostly small and could make the data violate the assumption of linearity. Thus, based on Pallant (2013), C/S and CP/T were removed from MANOVA and then separate ANOVAs were performed on them.

A MANOVA was performed to investigate the differences in syntactic complexity in three groups of DCF, ME, and NF. Eight dependent variables were used: MLS, MLT, MLC, VP/T, C/T, DC/C, CT/T, and CN/T. The independent variable was the type of WCF.

Box's test of equality of covariance matrices for posttest of syntactic complexity revealed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance was violated (Sig = .000 < .001), so as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), a more stringent alpha level (i.e., .025 for moderate violations), was adopted as the alpha level.

Levene's test of equality of error variances for all the indices of syntactic complexity of the posttest revealed that all the Sig. values were greater than .05, indicating that the assumption of equality of variance for the variables was met.

Multivariate tests for posttest of syntactic complexity indicated that the p-value was less than the stringent alpha level (.024 < .025), so there was a significant difference among the three groups on the combined dependent variables, F (16, 160) = 1.901, p = .024; Wilk's Lambda = .706; partial eta squared = .160. In conclusion, there was a significant difference among the three groups.

Then, to determine how the syntactic complexity indices differed for the WCF, Tests of Between-Subjects Effects table was consulted. Because a number of separate analyses were looked at here, a higher alpha level was set by applying a Bonferroni adjustment to reduce the chance of a Type I error (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell 2013). The original alpha level of .05 was divided by the number of analyses 8 (eight dependent variables). The new alpha level was .006.

Tests of between-subjects effects for posttest of syntactic complexity indicated that C/T recorded a significant value less than .006. (C/T: F (2, 87 = 2.824, p-value = .004 < .006; partial η2 = .118, which is almost a large effect size). Therefore, the three groups (i.e., DCF, ME, and NF) differed in terms of C/T, but to find out which group had higher values, the Tukey's HSD post-hoc test was used (Abbott, 2011). Multiple comparisons for posttest of syntactic complexity for C/T based on Tukey HSD indicated that the mean scores for C/T were statistically significantly different between the DCF and the NF groups (p-value = .004 < .006), but not between the ME and the NF groups (p-value = .549 > .006), or between the DCF and ME groups (p-value = .062 > .006).

As already mentioned, C/S and CP/T were removed from MANOVA test, and two separate ANOVAs were performed on each of them to know whether the three groups were significantly different in terms of these dependent variables.

A statistically significant difference in C/S was found among the three groups: F (2, 87) = 20.33, p = .000. A large effect size was also revealed (η2 = .31), based on Cohen (1988); it shows 31% of the variance in C/S is explained by the treatment.

To discover which group had the higher scores, this significant ANOVA was followed by Tukey's HSD post-

hoc tests (Pallant 2013). The new alpha level was .025. Multiple comparisons for posttest of C/S based on Tukey HSD showed that mean scores for C/S were statistically significantly different between the DCF group (M = 2.00, SD = .21) and the ME group (M = 1.76, SD = .26) (p-value = .001 < .025), as well as the DCF and the NF groups (M = 1.61, SD = .23) (p-value = .000 < .025), but not between the ME and the NF groups (p = .037 > .025).

In terms of CP/T, the one-way between-groups ANOVA discovered a statistically significant difference in CP/T among the three groups: F (2, 87) = 5.220, p = .007 < .025. A large effect size was also found (η2 = .10), based on Cohen (1988); it shows 10% of the variance in CP/T is explained by the treatment.

To find which group had the higher scores, this significant ANOVA was followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests (Pallant 2013). The new more stringent alpha level, set by a Bonferroni adjustment is .025. Multiple comparisons for posttest of CP/T based on Tukey HSD showed that mean scores for CP/T were statistically significantly different between the DCF group (M = .54, SD = .12) and the NF group (M = .43, SD = .17) (p-value = .011 < .025), but not between the DCF and ME groups (M = .44, SD = .13) (p-value = .031 > .025), as well as between the ME and NF groups (p = .92 > .025).

The Delayed Effect of WCF on Syntactic Complexity Measures

To discover whether there was any significant difference between the three groups after the delayed posttest, another one-way MANOVA was performed (Larson-Hall, 2010; Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Considering the assumptions of MANOVA, no problems were revealed in terms of univariate normality, multivariate normality (multivariate outliers), multicollinearity, and linearity. Nonetheless, the correlation coefficients of C/S and CP/T were mostly small, which could make the data violate the assumption of linearity. Thus, based on Pallant (2013), C/S and CP/T were removed from MANOVA and then separate ANOVAs were performed on them.

A MANOVA was performed to investigate the differences in syntactic complexity in three groups of DCF, ME, and NF after a two-week interval. Eight dependent variables were used: MLS, MLT, MLC, VP/T, C/T, DC/C, CT/T, and CN/T. The independent variable was the type of WCF.

Box's test of equality of covariance matrices for

delayed-posttest of syntactic complexity showed that the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance was violated (Sig = .000 < .001), so as recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), a more stringent alpha level (i.e., .025 for moderate violations), was adopted as the alpha level.

Levene's test of equality of error variances for delayed-posttest of syntactic complexity showed that all the Sig. values of the syntactic complexity indices were greater than .05, indicating that the assumption of equality of variance for the variables was met.

Multivariate tests for delayed-posttest of syntactic complexity indicated that the p-value was less than the stringent alpha level (.002 < .025), so there was a significant difference among the three groups on the combined dependent variables, F (16, 160) = 2.471, p = .002; Wilk's Lambda = .643; partial eta squared = .198. This represents 19.8% of the variance in groups explained by the treatment.

To determine how syntactic complexity indices differed for the WCF, Tests of Between-Subjects Effects table was consulted. By applying the Bonferroni adjustment, the new alpha level was .006 (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell 2013).

Tests of between-subjects effects for delayed-posttest of syntactic complexity indicated that only C/T recorded a significant value less than .006. (C/T: F (2, 87 = 2.728, p-value = .005 < .006; partial η2 = .116, which represents 11.6% of the variance in C/T is explained by the treatment. It was found that the three groups (i.e., DCF, ME, and NF) differed in terms of C/T, but to find out which group had higher values, the Tukey's HSD post-hoc test was used (Abbott 2011). Multiple comparisons for delayed-posttest of syntactic complexity for C/T based on Tukey HSD indicated that the mean scores of C/T were statistically significantly different between the DCF and the NF groups (p-value = .004 < .006), but not between the ME and the NF groups (p- value = .542 > .006), or between the DCF and ME groups (p-value = .068 > .006).

C/S and CP/T had been removed from MANOVA test, and separate ANOVAs were performed on each of them to discover whether the three groups were significantly different in terms of these dependent variables.

In terms of C/S, as measured by the delayed-posttest, a statistically significant difference was found among the three groups: F (2, 87) = 20.977, p = .000 (η2 = .32), which is a large effect size based on Cohen (1988); it shows 32% of the variance in C/S is explained by the treatment. To understand which group had the higher scores, this significant ANOVA was followed by Tukey's HSD post-hoc tests (Pallant, 2013). The more stringent alpha value by using a Bonferroni adjustment was .025. Multiple comparisons for delayed-posttest of C/S based on Tukey HSD showed that mean scores for C/S were statistically significantly different between the DCF group (M = 2.00, SD = .20) and the ME group (M = 1.76, SD = .27) (p-value = .000 < .025), as well as the DCF and the NF groups (M = 1.61, SD = .20) (p-value = .000 < .025), but not between the ME and the NF groups (p = .040 > .025).

Another one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted to explore whether the three groups (i.e., DCF, ME, NF) were significantly different after the delayed posttest in terms of CP/T as measured by the delayed posttest. Levene's test for homogeneity of variances for delayed posttest of CP/T indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variance was violated (Sig. = .017); thus, Robust Tests of Equality of Means were consulted (Pallant, 2013). Table 2 shows the results.

As Table 2 reveals, there was not a significant difference between the three groups in terms of CP/T.

Discussion

This study investigated the immediate and delayed effects of two types of comprehensive WCF strategies: DCF and ME on L2 learners' written syntactic complexity. It was revealed that the DCF group outperformed the NF group in the C/T, CP/T, and C/S of the texts. The DCF group also outperformed the ME group in the C/S of the text. The ME group was not significantly different from the NF group. After the

Table 2

Robust Tests of Equality of Means for Delayed-Posttest of CP/T

	Statistic[a]	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	.868	2	56.058	.425
Brown-Forsythe	.829	2	72.264	.441

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

two-week interval, the results of the delayed-posttest indicated the DCF group still outperformed the NF group in terms of the C/T and C/S. The DCF group also outperformed the ME group in C/S, but the positive effect of the DCF on CP/T was not durable over a two-week period.

Because the previous studies in the literature differed from the present study in terms of their treatment period, methodology, measurement instruments, genre of writing task, as well as their participants' conditions (e.g., age, proficiency level, L1 background, L2 learning goals, etc.), which could all be moderating variables of L2 syntactic complexity, it is difficult to explain the current results by referring to the previous research. In spite of this, unlike Sheppard (1992), the present study found some positive promising effects on the syntactic complexity of the written text, which supports what Robb et al., (1986) found. Moreover, Chandler (2003), using holistic ratings, found no effect on the complexity of L2 students' writing. It can be stated that the findings of the present study can be opposite in some ways and similar in some other ways to Chandler's (2003) result.The findings are different because this study found positive results in terms of the C/T and C/S of the texts; on the other hand, the results are in line with Chandler's because the present study did not indicate any significant differences in terms of other syntactic complexity indices. Van Beuningen et al. (2012) reported that both direct and indirect unfocused WCF did not lead to simplified writing. Based on the mentioned results of the current study, the findings corroborate Van Beuningen et al.'s (2012) report that the comprehensive WCF did not lead to learners' avoidance of structurally complex sentences. Finally, more recently, Fazilatfar et al. (2014) found that unfocused WCF had a positive effect on the length of production at MLS, and a dependent clause ratio (DC/C). In contrast, the present study did not find any significant effect on the MLS and DC/C of the written texts.

In addition to the above-mentioned issues, this study, like Robb et al. (1986), Van Beuningen et al. (2012), and Fazilatfar et al. (2014), does not corroborate Truscott's (2004, 2007) speculation that if learners were faced with CF, they would be more likely to avoid using complex structures. Neither of the treatments made the learners write simpler texts and the DCF even improved the two measures of C/S and C/T. Therefore, the findings of this study also do not conform to Skehan's (1998) limited capacity models of attention, Kellogg's (1990) Overload Hypothesis, and Kellogg's (1996) model of working memory with which Truscott's (2004, 2007) claim is consistent. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that his study

did not meticulously explore the grammatical structures the participants used in their pre-, post-, and delayed posttests to find the signs of avoidance, which is one of the limitations of the study. Therefore, there is no denying that if such a meticulous investigation had been done, some signs of avoidance might have been found.

The positive points found in this study, which was only for the DCF, can be supported by McLaughlin's (1990) information processing model and Anderson's (1993) ACT (Adaptive Control of Thought) model. As Bitchener and Ferris (2012, p. 13) stated, the models explain that intentional learning, for instance, via explicit instruction and corrective feedback can play an important "role in the controlled phase and through 'practice' or 'repeated activation,' language over time becomes automatized." However, as Pienemann explained in his teachability hypothesis and processability theory (PT) (Pienemann, 1987, 1989, 1998), "information processing is unlikely to occur if the targeted linguistic forms and structures lie outside a learner's stage of 'readiness'" (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, p. 15). The participants in this study were at an upper-intermediate proficiency level; thus, it can be stated that corrective feedback could help them strengthen their previous knowledge. Their declarative knowledge might also have become automatized.

Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis and focus-on-form approach (Long, 1996; Long & Robinson, 1998) as well as socio-cultural theory of human mental processing, based on Vygotsky's (1978) socio-cultural theory, also support the results of the current research. The interaction approach also suggests that learning occurs when the learner is exposed to language, produces language, and receives feedback on that production (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Gass & Mackey, 2015). Being one of the identified pedagogical focus-on-form instruments, error correction (Ellis, 2005) — WCF in this study, was likely to have contributed to the development of L2 syntactic complexity in this study. Additionally, the socio-cultural theory of human mental processing, based on Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory, assumes that language development, as an example of cognitive development, occurs via social interactions; therefore, when learners collaborate and interact with more advanced or more knowledgeable people, say teachers, their language abilities develop (Bitchener & Ferris 2012). Therefore, various strategies including the CF utilised by teachers can help learners develop their L2 (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007).

Finally, the results of this study are consistent with Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 2001).

When WCF is provided, learners have enough time – and therefore cognitive resources – to compare their output with the received CF, raising the likelihood of learners noticing the gaps in their interlanguage (Polio, Fleck, & Leder, 1998; Sheen, 2010). Therefore, conscious attention to linguistic form, caused by the CF, could make learners notice the gaps between their own interlanguage output and the target language input provided via feedback (Hulstijn & Schmidt, 1994). Moreover, it could cause the learners' interlanguage grammar to be restructured and developed (Gass, 1997; Long, 2006). More recently, (Ögeyik, 2018, p. 337) acknowledged that "noticing through output-oriented tasks [such as writing and CF] generates a higher level of perception of L2 knowledge".

Conclusion

To sum up, the current study has made a contribution to the question of whether unfocused WCF can facilitate the development of written syntactic complexity. Therefore, L2 writing teachers can provide learners with WCF without major worries about its detrimental effect on the development of syntactic complexity in their writing. This study also demonstrated that the DCF had significant positive effects on the C/T, CP/T, and C/S of the texts. It was even significantly better than the ME in terms of the C/S of the text. Despite these results, there is no denying that replications or more similar studies are needed before firm conclusions can be reached and doubts about the role of comprehensive WCF in the improvement of syntactic complexity can be resolved.

Following the findings of this research, several suggestions can be made for further investigation:

(1) The length of the course may be critical in gaining results; thus, an approximate replication of this study can be conducted through a longer course of instruction using a longitudinal design.

(2) It is suggested that future research explores the various types of grammatical structures the participants utilise in their post- and delayed-posttests to find the probable signs of avoidance.

(3) This study can be replicated with a larger number of participants at different language proficiency levels to compare the results across these levels. Moreover, in this study, only the argument-led essay type was investigated; this type of essay can be compared with another type in another research.

(4) Future research which addresses questions and employs designs similar to the present study, can consider and control for the social, contextual, and individual differences, such as motivation, learning style, and metalinguistic background knowledge.

(5) Finally, think-aloud protocols can be collected from the participants in the two experimental groups (i.e., DCF and ME) while both revising texts and composing new texts in order to provide information on how learners process WCF and how learning takes place.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Abbott, M. L. (2011). *Understanding educational statistics using Microsoft EXCEL and SPSS*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Anderson, J. R. (1993). *Rules of the mind*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Balanga, R. A., Fidel, I. V. B., Gumapac, M. V. G. P., Ho, H. T., Tullo, R. M. C., Villaraza, P. M. L., & Vizconde, C. J. (2016). Student beliefs towards written corrective feedback: The case of Filipino high school students. *I-Manager's Journal on English Language Teaching*, *6*(3), 22–39. https://doi.org/10.26634/jelt.6.3.8176

Benson, S., & DeKeyser, R. (2019). Effects of written corrective feedback and language aptitude on verb tense accuracy. *Language Teaching Research*, *23*(6), 702–726. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818770921

Bitchener, J. (2008). Evidence in support of written corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *17*(2), 102–118. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.11.004

Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. R. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing*. Routledge.

Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2008). The value of written corrective feedback for migrant and international students. *Language Teaching Research*, *12*(3), 409–431. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168808089924

Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2009). The relative effectiveness of different types of direct written corrective feedback. *System*, *37*(2), 322–329. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.12.006

Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2010). Raising the linguistic accuracy level of advanced L2 writers with written corrective feedback. *Journal of Second Language*

Writing, *19*(4), 207–217. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2010.10.002

Brown, D. (2017). The interaction between grammatical knowledge and explicitness in L2 written corrective feedback [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Northern Arizona University.

Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *12*(3), 267–296. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(03)00038-9

Cohen, J. W. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Crossley, S. A., & McNamara, D. S. (2014). Does writing development equal writing quality? A computational investigation of syntactic complexity in L2 learners. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *26*, 66–79. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.09.006

Ellis, R. (2005). Principles of instructed language learning. *System*, *33*(2), 209–224. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.12.006

Ellis, R. (2009). A typology of written corrective feedback types. *English Language Teaching*, *63*(2), 97–107. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn023

Fazilatfar, A. M., Fallah, N., Hamavandi, M., & Rostamian, M. (2014). The effect of unfocused written corrective feedback on syntactic and lexical complexity of L2 writing. In *International Conference on Current Trends in ELT* (vol. 98, pp. 482–488). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.443

Ferris, D. R. (2003). *Response to student writing: Implications for second language students*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Ferris, D. R. (2004). The "grammar correction" debate in L2 writing: Where are we, and where do we go from here? (and what do we do in the meantime …?). *Journal of Response to Writing*, *13*(1), 49–62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.04.005

Ferris, D. R. (2010). Second language writing research and written corrective feedback in SLA: Intersections and practical applications. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *32*(02), 181–201. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990490

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (4th ed.). Sage.

Gass, S. M. (1997). *Input, interaction and the development of second languages*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2015). Input, interaction, and output in second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten, & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (2nd ed., pp. 180–206). Routledge.

Geranpayeh, A. (2003). A quick review of the English quick placement test. *Extract from Research Notes*, *12*, 8–10. Retrieved from http://www.lingue.uniss.it/documenti/lingue/what_is_the_QPT.pdf

Guénette, D. (2007). Is feedback pedagogically correct? Research design issues in studies of feedback on writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *16*(1), 40–53. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.01.001

Guénette, D. (2012). The pedagogy of error correction: Surviving the written corrective feedback challenge. *TESL Canada Journala*, *30*(1), 117–126. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v30i1.1129

Higgins, D., Xi, X., Zechner, K., & Williamson, D. (2011). A three-stage approach to the automated scoring of spontaneous spoken responses. *Computer Speech and Language*, *25*(2), 282–306. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.csl.2010.06.001

Hulstijn, J. H., & Schmidt, R. (1994). Guest editors' introduction. *AILA Review*, *11*, 5–10. Retrieved from http://www.aila.info/download/publications/review/AILA11.pdf

Jiang, J., Bi, P., & Liu, H. (2019). Writing syntactic complexity development in the writings of EFL learners: Insights from a dependency syntactically-annotated corpus. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *46*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2019.100666

Karim, K., & Nassaji, H. (2020). The revision and transfer effects of direct and indirect comprehensive corrective feedback on ESL students' writing. *Language Teaching Research*, *24*(4), 519–539. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168818802469

Kellogg, R. T. (1988). Attentional overload and writing performance: Effects of rough draft and outline strategies. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, *14*(2), 355–365. https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-7393.14.2.355

Kellogg, R. T. (1990). Effectiveness of prewriting strategies as a function of task demands. *American Journal of Psychology*, *103*(3), 327–339. https://doi.org/10.2307/1423213

Kellogg, R. T. (1996). A model of working memory in writing. In C. M. Levy & S. Ransdell (Eds.), *The science of writing: Theories, methods, individual differences and applications* (pp. 57–71). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Khushik, G. A., & Huhta, A. (2020). Investigating syntactic complexity in EFL learners' writing across Common European Framework of Reference. *Applied Linguistics*, *41*(4), 506–532. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amy064

Kuiken, F., & Vedder, I. (2019). Syntactic complexity across proficiency and languages: L2 and L1 writing in Dutch, Italian and Spanish. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *29*(2), 192–210. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijal.12256

Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory. In B. VanPatten, & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories*

in second language acquisition: An introduction (pp. 201–224). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Larson-Hall, J. (2010). *A guide to doing statistics in second language research using SPSS*. Routledge.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 438–468). Academic Press.

Long, M. H. (2006). *Problems in SLA*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Long, M. H., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. J. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in second language acquisition* (pp. 15–41). Cambridge University Press.

Lu, X. (2010). Automatic analysis of syntactic complexity in second language writing. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, *15*(4), 474–496. https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.15.4.02lu

Lu, X. (2011). A corpus-based evaluation of syntactic complexity measures as indices of college-level ESL writers' language development. *TESOL Quarterly*, *45*(1), 36–62. https://doi.org/10.5054/tq.2011.240859

Lu, X. (2012). The relationship of lexical richness to the quality of ESL learners' oral narratives. *The Modern Language Journal*, *96*(2), 190–208. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01232_1.x

Lu, X., & Ai, H. (2015). Syntactic complexity in college-level English writing: Differences among writers with diverse L1 backgrounds. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *29*, 16–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2015.06.003

McLaughlin, B. (1990). "Conscious" versus "unconscious" learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, *24*(4), 617–634. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587111

Mostafa, T., & Crossley, S. A. (2020). Verb argument construction complexity indices and L2 writing quality: Effects of writing tasks and prompts. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *49*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2020.100730

Ögeyik, M. C. (2018). The comparative effectiveness of noticing in language learning. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *56*(4), 337–400. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral-2016-0049

Ortega, L. (2015). Syntactic complexity in L2 writing: Progress and expansion. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *29*, 82–94. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2015.06.008

Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS* (5th ed.). Open University Press.

Phakiti, A. (2010). Analysing quantitative data. In B. Paltridge, & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Continuum companion to research methods in applied linguistics* (pp. 39–49). Continuum Companions.

Pienemann, M. (1987). Determining the influence of instruction on L2 speech processing. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, *10*(2), 83–113. https://doi.org/10.1075/aral.10.2.07pie

Pienemann, M. (1989). Is language teachable? Psycholinguistic experiments and hypotheses. *Applied Linguistics*, *10*(1), 52–79. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/10.1.52

Pienemann, M. (1998). *Language processing and second language acquisition: Processability theory*. John Benjamins.

Polio, C. G. (1997). Measures of linguistic accuracy in second language writing research. *Language Learning*, *47*(1), 101–143. https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.31997003

Polio, C., Fleck, C., & Leder, N. (1998). "If only I had more time": ESL learners' changes in linguistic accuracy on essay revisions. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *7*(1), 43–68. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(98)90005-4

Polio, C., & Shea, M. C. (2014). An investigation into current measures of linguistic accuracy in second language writing research. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *26*, 10–27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2014.09.003

Robb, T., Ross, S., & Shortreed, I. (1986). Salience of feedback on error and its effect on EFL writing quality. *TESOL Quarterly*, *20*(1), 83–93. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586390

Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *11*(2), 129–158. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.2.129

Schmidt, R. W. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3–32). Cambridge University Press.

Sheen, Y. (2010). Introduction: The role of oral and written corrective feedback in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *32*(02), 169–179. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263109990489

Sheen, Y., Wright, D., & Moldawa, A. (2009). Differential effects of focused and unfocused written correction on the accurate use of grammatical forms by adult ESL learners. *System*, *37*(4), 556–569. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.09.002

Sheppard, K. (1992). Two feedback types: Do they make a difference? *RELC Journal*, *23*(1), 285–304. https://doi.org/10.1177/003368829202300107

Shintani, N., & Ellis, R. (2013). The comparative effect of direct written corrective feedback and metalinguistic explanation on learners' explicit and implicit knowledge of the English indefinite article. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *22*(3), 286–306. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2013.03.011

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford University Press.

Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (2001). Cognition and tasks. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language*

instruction (pp. 183–205). Cambridge University Press.

Storch, N. (2010). Critical feedback on written corrective feedback research. *International Journal of English Studies*, *10*(2), 29–46. https://dialnet.unirioja.es/descarga/articulo/3424315.pdf

Ströbel, M., Kerz, E., & Wiechmann, D. (2020). The relationship between first and second language writing: Investigating the effects of first language complexity on second language complexity in advanced stages of learning. *Language Learning*, *70*(3), 732–767. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12394

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th ed.). Pearson Education, Inc.

Torrance, M., & Galbraith, D. (2006). The processing demands of writing. In C. A. MacArthur, S. Graham, & J. Fitzgerald (Eds.), *Handbook of writing research* (pp. 67–80). Guilford Press.

Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning*, *46*(2), 327–369. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1996.tb01238.x

Truscott, J. (2004). Evidence and conjecture on the effects of correction: A response to Chandler. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *13*(4), 337–343. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.05.002

Truscott, J. (2007). The effect of error correction on learners' ability to write accurately. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *16*(4), 255–272. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.06.003

Valizadeh, M., & Soltanpour, F. (2021). Focused direct corrective feedback: Effects on the elementary English learners' written syntactic complexity. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *7*(1), 132–150. https://doi.org/10.32601/ejal.911207

Van Beuningen, C. G., De Jong, N. H., & Kuiken, F. (2012). Evidence on the effectiveness of comprehensive error correction in second language writing. *Language Learning*, *62*(1), 1–41. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00674.x

Yang, W., Lu, X., & Cushing Weigle, S. (2015). Different topics, different discourse: Relationships among writing topic, measures of syntactic complexity, and judgments of writing quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *28*, 53–67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2015.02.002

Yoon, H. J. (2017). Linguistic complexity in L2 writing revisited: Issues of topic, proficiency, and construct multidimensionality. *System*, *66*, 130–141. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2017.03.007

The Role of Plurilingual Pedagogy in Affirming Immigrants' Identities in Canada

Lana Zeaiter

McGill University

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Lana Zeaiter, McGill University, 3700 Rue McTavish, Montréal, QC H3A 1Y2. E-mail: lana.zeaiter@mail.mcgill.ca

Background and Purpose: This perspective article supports the need of an alternative plurilingual model to teaching languages to assert immigrants' identities in Canada.

Approach: It examines the interplay between language and identity in immigration contexts, and investigates current language teaching models, including limitations, adopted in Canada. Although the article discusses the case of Quebec where the official language is French, it is not limited or restricted to a specific context. The case of Quebec is only given as an example to illustrate potential challenges immigrants might face in Canada.

Results and Implication: This article sheds light on advantageous future research orientations pertaining to immigrants' identities in the language learning process. It can also inform language policies and pedagogies in Canada and other immigration contexts.

Keywords: identities, immigrants, pluricultural competence, plurilingual competence, plurilingual pedagogy

Introduction

As immigrants account for over 80% of the Canadian population growth, Canada is becoming increasingly multilingual and multicultural (Statistics Canada[1], 2020). Despite its official bilingual (French and English) policies, at least at the federal level, educational institutions are still biased towards a monolingual approach to language teaching (Kiernan, 2011).

Immigrants contribute to Canada's multilingualism and cultural diversity by bringing in new languages, ideas and customs (Government of Canada[2], 2019). To increase their integration in different aspects of the Canadian society, immigrants seek to improve their English and French language skills, Canada's official languages. However, research has repeatedly shown that current language instruction to immigrants disregard their linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Li & Sah, 2019) and can impede immigrants' linguistic and cultural identities, as language and culture are closely tied (Moore, 2019). Without recognition of their linguistic and cultural repertoire, immigrants lose the connection to their cultural groups and ultimately struggle to develop the official languages in the new country (Sterzuk & Shin, 2021). Thus, Canada's current language learning instruction to immigrants risk leading to poorer results – counter to the goal of immigrant integration.

An alternative model of language teaching that holds significant potential regarding preserving and affirming immigrants' identities is *plurilingualism*. The latter perceives language learners as social agents with proficiency in different languages and experiences in other cultures (CEFRCV[3], CoE, 2020). Although a vast body of research highlights the positive impact of plurilingualism on student identity (e.g., Beacco, 2005; Piccardo, 2019; Takeda, 2021), there is a lack of research on how it can support adult immigrant populations in Canada. Accordingly, the purpose of this article is three-fold: (1) examine the interplay between language and immigrants' identities, (2) examine current language teaching models and practices for immigrants and identify limitations, and (3) propose plurilingual pedagogy as an alternative language teaching model that can empower immigrants' identities.

---

[1] Statistics Canada (2020). Linguistic diversity and multilingualism in Canadian homes. https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/census-recensement/2016/as-sa/98-200-x/2016010/98-200-x2016010-eng.cfm#:~:text=In%202016%2C%202.4%25%20of%20Canadians,of%20these%20languages%20at%20home

[2] Government of Canada. (2019). 2020 Annual Report to Parliament on Immigration. https://www.canada.ca/en/immigration-refugees-citizenship/corporate/publications-manuals/annual-report-parliament-immigration-2020.html

[3] Council of Europe (2020). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment-Companion volume with new descriptors. Council of Europe. https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/16809ea0d4

The Nexus of Language and Identity in Immigration Trajectories

Although different terms (i.e., immigration, migration, and emigration) exist to describe human movements from one place in the world to another, I use *migration* in this section as an encompassing term to transnational human movements. I do so in consistency with the terminology of the sources cited below.

Language is intrinsic to the construction, validation, and expression of identity (Block, 2010; Karam, 2018). In the case of migrants, identity is often reshaped and rebuilt during migration journeys (Scuzzarello & Carlson, 2019). It is a site of struggle as migrants negotiate identity through language and social interactions (Darvin & Norton, 2015), and navigate relevant power dynamics that are often implicated in language (Conley et al., 2019). In other words, the way migrants use language is often a reflection of how they see themselves and how they want others to perceive them. It is crucial, then, not only to understand the concept of identity but also to develop a clear understanding of migrant identity in particular, including its different components and the different variables that influence its formation. Of the various definitions of identity, I adopt the following by Tracy and Robles (2014): "Identities are best thought of as stable features of persons that exist prior to any particular situation and as dynamic and situated accomplishments, enacted through talk, changing from one occasion or the next. Identities are social categories and are personal and unique" (p. 21). In other words, identities are a plural concept that are embodied in a range of categories such as gender, ethnicity, and religion, and are discursively performed through interactions (Zhu Hua, 2017). The concept of identity recognizes that the "self" cannot exist without the "other" and hence acknowledges the existence of the "other" (Hegel, 1807, 2007).

In the context of mobility, migrants negotiate their identities by adopting different strategies, all of which influence their use of languages. At the same time, identities in mobility entail that their holders manage memberships to groups by either ascribing them to others, claiming them for themselves or resisting memberships assigned by others (Abrams & Hogg, 2004; Rampton, 2017). In this sense, membership illustrates how migrants interact with and react to a set of social and cultural values and practices in both the source and the host countries. However, some scholars (Lee & Canagarajah, 2019; Yazan and Rudolph, 2018) challenge description of identity into binary dichotomies, such as marginal or liminal, native or non-native, source country or host country. They argue that recent and mainly technological developments allow individuals, in general, and migrants to be "here" and "there" at the same time; this creates a dual identity (or more) that transcends the common binary categorization of identity. Other scholars (Lorente & Tupas, 2013; Tupas, 2019) refute the celebratory tone used to describe linguistic and cultural hybridity. They believe that there is a hidden neoliberal economic agenda that celebrates hybridity to hide societal inequalities. They add that such exaggeration of the positive impact of hybridity aims to overlook existing issues of authenticity (i.e., accepting one "correct" language variety), legitimacy (i.e., right to speak), power struggles and tensions between structure and migrants' agency. Among these issues of inequality is the notion of class (social and economic) that plays an important role in the migration process; however, it is often overlooked in research about migration, identity, and language (Block & Corona, 2019).

In relation to language, the role of language has become more salient now that language is used as a medium to mediate space and time diffusion (Emenanjo, 2016). Although migration is not a new experience, it has recently attracted considerable attention due to new developments (i.e., social, technological, geopolitical) that have made it easier not only for people to cross boundaries, but also for texts, languages, and semiotic resources (Pennycook, 2018). In fact, these developments provide conveniences that intensify *the space and time compression* (Altvater, 1989; Harvey, 1990, 2005; Virilio, 2012). That is, contemporary life presents new phenomena (i.e., the internet) that can alter the qualities of and relationship between space and time. For example, I, who live in Quebec, Canada, can chat, send voice messages and videocall with my sister who is in Paris,

France, and my friends in Lebanon, at any time. While internet is the tool, language is the medium to compress many distinct temporal-spatial geographical locations.

In addition, globalization has heightened the social, cultural, and linguistic diversity of societies all over the world (Rowntree et al., 2015), and scholars, mainly in the field of sociology, have coined different terms to describe emerging hybrid and dynamic forms of communities. Terms such as "superdiversity" (Vertovec, 2007, 2019), "homogeneity paradigm" (Keskinen et al., 2019), "diaspora" (Brubaker, 2005; Shuval, 2002), and "cosmopolitanism" (Benhabib, 2008; Vertovec &

Cohen, 2002) have been used to explain evolving forms of communities. Paralleling the *mobility construct* in sociology discussed above, applied linguists have also started talking about a *multilingual construct* to highlight a hybrid and unbounded approach to languages that is representative of how migrants utilize different linguistic and communicative repertoires in different mobile settings (Canagarajah, 2020). Terms such as "translanguaging" (García 2009; García & Ortheguy, 2020), "plurilingualism" (CEFR; Council of Europe [CoE], [4]2001; CEFRCV[5], CoE, 2020; Piccardo & North, 2020), "multilingualism" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011, 2020), "truncated multilingualism" (Blommaert et al., 2005), and "metrolingualism" (Pennycook & Otsuji, 2015, 2020) have been used to describe how migrants borrow linguistic codes and semiotic resources and produce new meanings and grammars to affirm identities and construct new affiliations.

In the contemporary neoliberal economy, language has had a particularly important role in enhancing or diminishing migrants' integration in the host country (Allan & McElhinny, 2017). While earlier forms of industrialization depended mostly on physical labor, modern industrialization is based on production and marketing relationships (i.e., client service, branding) that are facilitated by cross-border flows of mobile workers (Sugihara, 2019). In these, language is considered an integral human capital that workers from different nationalities and backgrounds can utilize to enhance production and create productive work relationships (Morrish & Sauntson, 2019). Moreover, to improve their economic integration in the host country, migrants learn the country's official languages as this increases their chances of finding and maintaining a job (Kaushik & Drolet, 2018; Lochmann et al., 2019).

While this section of the article provides a thorough overview of language and identity in migration trajectories, the next section provides an overview of current language teaching models for migrants in Quebec, Canada, in an attempt to identify the gap to be filled by suggesting plurilingual pedagogy as an alternative solution.

Overview of Current Language Teaching Models for Immigrants in Quebec

The following overview will highlight current language teaching models adopted in Quebec as the latter was the 3rd province with most immigrants in 2021 (Statistics Canada[6], 2021). Although Quebec is a francophone province, the purpose of this overview is not to highlight immigrants' French language barriers per se, but rather to emphasize the importance of taking into account immigrant learners' entire linguistic repertoire.

Between 2019 and 2020, 11.7% of the total immigrant population (284,382) that arrived in Canada settled in Quebec (Statistics Canada, 2020). While the government of Quebec offers free French courses such as *francization*, these courses are anchored in monolingual and monocultural ideologies as a way to promote French as the official language in Quebec and a Quebecois identity. In spite of the government of Quebec's investments in improving French programs, there are concerns about the efficacy of these programs: data between 2012 and 2017 shows that 18% of immigrant registrants drop out of the courses, 31% leave advanced courses, many who register do not attend the courses and many who complete the courses are still unable to use French effectively (Gouvernement du Québec[7], 2019). It could be that learners leave advanced courses because they would have already achieved CLB 4 (Canadian Level Benchmark 4) which is the government-set minimum oral skills to pursue post-secondary studies and enter the workplace (Gouvernement du Québec, 2019). However, only 9% of immigrant registrants develop the government-set minimum oral skills to pursue post-secondary studies and enter the workplace (Gouvernement du Québec, 2019) which means they drop out for other reasons. The root cause for these discouraging results is yet to be determined as the government of Quebec has not performed a program evaluation in years. Nevertheless, previous research on various French programs in Quebec suggest that French education is problematic for multilingual or minoritized students and raise deep concerns in relation to immigrants' sense of belonging to the Canadian and

---

[4] Council of Europe (2001). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Cambridge University Press. https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97.

[5] Council of Europe (2020). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment-Companion volume with new descriptors. Council of Europe. https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/16809ea0d4

[6] Statistics Canada (2021). Number of immigrants arriving in Canada in 2021, by province or territory of residence. https://www.statista.com/statistics/444906/number-of-immigrants-in-canada/

[7] Gouvernement du Québec. (2019). Report of the Auditor General of Québec to the National Assembly for 2017-2018. https://www.vgq.qc.ca/Fichiers/Publications/rapport-annuel/2017-2018-Automne/en_Rapport2017-2018-Fall.pdf.

Quebecois community (Mady & Masson, 2018; Mady & Black, 2012). This may be particularly due to the lack of inclusion towards multilingual and minoritized students (Magnan & Lamarre, 2016), lack of sufficient teacher education on how to serve multilingual and multicultural students (Querrien, 2017) and overall lack of policy support for inclusion of immigrants (Mady & Black, 2012; Mady & Turnbull, 2010).

The Affordances of Plurilingualism as an Alternative Model

Plurilingualism can serve as one alternative to current language learning models to empower immigrants to affirm their linguistic and cultural identities. As theorized in the Common European Framework (CEFR, Council of Europe [CoE[8]], 2001; Piccardo & North, 2020) and its companion volume (CEFRCV[9]; CoE, 2020), *plurilingualism* focuses on learners having "a single, inter-related, repertoire that they combine with their general competences and various strategies to accomplish tasks" (CEFR, Council of Europe [CoE], 2001, p. 28; CEFRCV, 2020, p. 30). In other words, plurilingualism does not deny the existence of named languages; yet it treats them as one entity of inter-connected traits rather than separate entities with fixed boundaries. It is often confused with *multilingualism* which is centered around the co-existence, at the societal and individual level, of different languages with the official languages of a specific context. That is, various languages (i.e., heritage language, home language) are used and spoken alongside official and dominant languages (i.e., English, and French) in schools, homes, public spaces, and social settings. In this sense, multilingualism refers to a register in which languages are considered separate items and used for different purposes.

Plurilingualism interrelates different languages and cultures and denies the dominance of *one way of speaking* or *one way of being* (Coste, 2014). It also acknowledges the use of knowledge of one language as a scaffolding method to learn another. As such, language is not perceived as a tool or a means to an end but as a form of interaction that often has underlying sociocultural dimensions (Galante, 2020). Plurilingualism does not expect plurilingual learners to have equal proficiency in all the languages of their linguistic repertoire; however, learners are encouraged to use their knowledge of one language to learn or understand another (Galante & Dela Cruz, 2021). Learners are considered social agents as they interact with different social groups in authentic social contexts, experiment with various linguistic and cultural resources, and draw conclusions based on their own experiences (Piccardo, 2017). Plurilingualism thus challenges the dominant idea that language learning can only happen through a monolingual approach consisting of labeling languages into different unrelated compartments (Slaughter & Cross, 2021). It advocates for the use of learners' repertoire while extensively using the target language as well.

Amid the current worldwide increase of immigration influx, plurilingualism has become a social reality; hence, schools have a formative responsibility to adopt a language pedagogy that is inclusive of societal differences and paves the way for social cohesion (Smythe, 2020). Plurilingualism supports immigrants' learning as it protects, revises, or maintains heritage languages, and creates a rich language environment in which immigrant learners can develop their plurilingual skills. In addition, immigrants are "intellectually privileged travelers" (p. 157) who consider immigration as a learning experience to explore new languages and sociocultural contexts and bring with them experiences and knowledge from their native lands (Kalan, 2021). As such, immigrants are catalysts and sources of knowledge that could inspire transformative pedagogical narratives to support marginalized, vulnerable, and silenced populations. In fact, plurilingualism validates and appreciates immigrants' past experiences which reinforces their sense of belonging to the host country, Canada in this case.

Conclusion

While migration forecasts predict a surge of immigration influx worldwide, Canada is strongly committed to increasing its immigration levels and making necessary policy changes and educational reforms to accommodate newcomers. Yet, while a vast body of research highlights the positive impact of plurilingualism on student identity, there is a lack of pedagogical implementations and research on how it can support immigrant populations in Canada to affirm their identities. That is why this article aims to shed light on the role of plurilingual pedagogy in affirming immigrants' identities. Such a research orientation would result in creating a curriculum specifically tailored for immigrants and would inform

---

[8] Council of Europe (2001). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Cambridge University Press. https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97.

[9] Council of Europe (2020). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment-Companion volume with new descriptors. Council of Europe. https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/16809ea0d4

language policies not only in Quebec, but potentially other provinces in Canada, and other countries with similar immigration influx.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Abrams, D., & Hogg, M. A. (2004). *A social psychological framework for understanding social inclusion and exclusion*. Psychology Press.

Allan, K., & McElhinny, B. (2017). Neoliberalism, language, and migration. In S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of migration and language* (pp. 79-101). Routledge.

Altvater, E. (1989). Ecological and economic modalities of time and space. *Capitalism Nature Socialism, 1,* 59-70. https://doi.org/10.1080/10455758909358384

Beacco, J. C. (2005). *Languages and language repertoires: Plurilingualism as a way of life in Europe*. Council of Europe.

Benhabib, S. (2008). *Another cosmopolitanism*. Oxford University Press.

Block, D. (2010). Researching language and identity. In B. Paltridge, & A. Phakiti (Eds.), *Continuum companion to research methods in applied linguistics* (pp. 337-349). Continuum International Publishing Group.

Block, D., & Corona, V. (2019). Critical LPP and the intersection of class, race and language policy and practice in twenty first century Catalonia. *Language Policy, 21*, 1-21. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10993-018-09508-7

Blommaert, J., Collins, J., & Slembrouck, S. (2005). Spaces of multilingualism. *Language & Communication, 25*, 197-216. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langcom.2005.05.002

Brubaker, R. (2005). The 'diaspora' diaspora. *Ethnic and Racial Studies, 28*, 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1080/0141987042000289997

Canagarajah, S. (2020). Introduction: The nexus of migration and language: The emergence of a disciplinary space. In S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of migration and language* (pp. 1-28). Taylor & Francis. https://doi-org.proxy3.library.mcgill.ca/10.4324/9781315754512

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2011). Focus on multilingualism: A study of trilingual writing. *The Modern Language Journal, 95,* 356-369. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01206.x

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2020). Teaching English through pedagogical translanguaging. *World Englishes, 39,* 300-311. https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12462

Conley, J. M., O'Barr, W. M., & Riner, R. C. (2019). *Just words: Law, language, and power*. University of Chicago Press.

Coste, D. (2014). Plurilingualism and the challenges of education. In P. Grommes & A. Hu (Eds.), *Plurilingual education. Policies–practices–language development* (pp.15-32). John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Darvin, R., & Norton, B. (2015). Identity and a model of investment in applied linguistics. A*nnual Review of Applied Linguistics, 35*, 36-56. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190514000191

Emenanjo, E. N. (2016). ICT, globalization & the future of human language. In N. Ozo-Mekuri (Ed.), *ICT, Globalisation and the study of languages and linguistics in Africa* (pp. 1-32). M & J Grand Orbit Communications Ltd.

Galante, A. (2020). Plurilingual and pluricultural competence (PPC) scale: The inseparability of language and culture. *International Journal of Multilingualism.* https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2020.1753747

Galante, A., & dela Cruz, J. W. N. (2021). Plurilingual and pluricultural as the new normal: An examination of language use and identity in the multilingual city of Montreal. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development.* https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.2021.1931244

García, O. (2009). Education, multilingualism and translanguaging in the 21st century. In T. Skutnabb-Kangas, R. Phillipson, A.K. Mohanty, & M. Panda (Eds.), *Social justice through multilingual education* (pp. 140-158). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691910-011

García, O., & Otheguy, R. (2020). Plurilingualism and translanguaging: Commonalities and divergences. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 23*(1), 17-35. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2019.1598932

Harvey, D. (1990). Between space and time: Reflections on the geographical imagination1. A*nnals of the association of American geographers, 80*, 418-434. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8306.1990.tb00305.x

Harvey, D. (2005). *The new imperialism*. Oxford.

Hegel, G. W. F. (2007). *Phenomenology of spirit*. Duke University Press. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amt024

Hua, Z. (2017). New orientations to identity in mobility. In S. Canagarajah (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of migration and language* (pp. 117 – 132). Routledge.

Karam, F. J. (2018). Language and identity construction: The case of a refugee digital bricoleur. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 61*, 511-521. https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.719

Kaushik, V., & Drolet, J. (2018). Settlement and

integration needs of skilled immigrants in Canada. *Social Sciences, 7*(5), 76. https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci7050076

Keskinen, S., Skaptadóttir, U. D., & Toivanen, M. (2019). *Undoing homogeneity in the Nordic region: Migration, difference, and the politics of solidarity.* Taylor & Francis.

Kiernan, J. E. (2011). The Canadian context: "Monolingual" education in an "officially" multilingual country. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal, 11*, 16 – 33.

Lee, E., & Canagarajah, A. S. (2019). Beyond native and nonnative: Translingual dispositions for more inclusive teacher identity in language and literacy education. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education, 18*, 352-363. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2019.1674148

Li, G. & Sah, P.K. (2019). Immigrant and refugee language policies, programs, and practices in an era of change. Promises, contradictions, and possibilities. In S. J. Gold & S. J. Nawyn (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of migration studies* (pp. 325 – 338). Routledge.

Lochmann, A., Rapoport, H., & Speciale, B. (2019). The effect of language training on immigrants' economic integration: Empirical evidence from France. *European Economic Review, 113*, 265-296. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.euroecorev.2019.01.008

Lorente, B. P., & Tupas, T. R. F. (2013). 4 (Un) Emancipatory hybridity: Selling English in an unequal world. In R. Rubdy & L. Alsagoff (Eds.), *The global-local interface and hybridity* (pp. 66-82). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783090860-fm

Mady, C., & Black, G. (2012). Access to French as a second official language programs in English-dominant Canada. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 57*, 498-501. https://doi.org/10.11575/ajer.v57i4.55531

Mady, C., & Masson, M. (2018). Principals' beliefs about language learning and inclusion of English language learners in Canadian elementary French immersion programs. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics / Revue Canadienne de Linguistique Appliquée, 21*, 71-93. https://doi.org/10.7202/1050811ar

Mady, C. & Turnbull, M. (2010). Learning French as a second language – Reserved for anglophones? *Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy, 9*, 1-23.

Magnan, M. O., & Lamarre, P. (2016). Diversité, frontières ethnolinguistiques et éducation au Québec et au Canada [Diversity, ethnolinguistic boundaries and education in Québec and Canada]. *Minorités Linguistiques et Société, 7,* 4-17. https://doi.org/10.7202/1036414ar

Moore, S. (2019). Language and identity in an Indigenous teacher education program. *International Journal of Circumpolar Health, 78*, 1-7. https://doi.org/10.1080/22423982.2018.1506213

Morrish, L., & Sauntson, H. (2019). *Academic irregularities: Language and neoliberalism in higher education.* Routledge.

Pennycook, A. (2018). Repertoires, registers, and linguistic diversity. In A. Creese, & A. Blackledge (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of language and superdiversity* (pp. 3-15). Routledge.

Pennycook, A. (2021). *Critical applied linguistics: A critical reintroduction.* Routledge.

Pennycook, A., & Otsuji, E. (2015). *Metrolingualism: Language in the city.* Routledge.

Pennycook, A., & Otsuji, E. (2020). The mundanity of metrolingual practices. In J. Won Lee & S. Dovchin (Eds.), *Translinguistics: Negotiating innovation and ordinariness* (pp. 9-23). Routledge.

Piccardo, E. (2017). Plurilingualism as a catalyst for creativity in superdiverse societies: A systemic analysis. *Frontiers in Psychology, 8*, 2169. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2017.02169

Piccardo, E. (2019). "We are all (potential) plurilinguals": Plurilingualism as an overarching, holistic concept. *OLBI Journal, 10*, 183-204. https://doi.org/10.18192/olbiwp.v10i0.3825

Piccardo, E., & North, B. (2020). The dynamic nature of plurilingualism: Creating and validating CEFR descriptors for mediation, plurilingualism and pluricultural competence. In S. Man Chau Lau & S. Van Viegen (Eds.), *Plurilingual pedagogies: Critical and creative endeavors for equitable language (in) education* (pp. 279-302). Springer.

Querrien, D. (2017). Étudier l'influence d'une formation continue sur les croyances, les representations et les pratiques d'intervenants scolaires à l'égard des élèves allophones [Studying the influence of ongoing training on the beliefs, representations and practices of school workers with respect to allophone students]. *Recherches qualitatives, 38*, 1-141. https://doi.org/10.7202/1064933ar

Rampton, B. (2017). *Crossing: Language and ethnicity among adolescents.* Routledge.

Scuzzarello, S., & Carlson, B. (2019). Young Somalis' social identity in Sweden and Britain: The interplay of group dynamics, socio-political environments, and transnational ties in social identification processes. *Migration Studies, 7*, 433-454. https://doi.org/10.1093/migration/mny013

Shuval, J. T. (2002). Diaspora migration: Definitional ambiguities and a theoretical paradigm. *International Migration, 38*, 41-56. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2435.00127

Slaughter, Y., & Cross, R. (2021). Challenging the monolingual mindset: Understanding plurilingual pedagogies in English as an Additional Language

(EAL) classrooms. *Language Teaching Research, 25*, 39-60. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820938819

Smythe, F. (2020). Language inclusiveness in education: Implications for immigrant students in France and New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies, 55*, 215–246. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40841-020-00164-2

Sterzuk, A. & Shin, H. (2021). English monolingualism in Canada: A critical analysis of language ideologies. In U. Lanvers, A. S. Thompson, & M. East (Eds.), *Language learning in Anglophone countries* (pp. 53 – 70). Palgrave Mammillan, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-56654-8_4

Sugihara, K. (2019). Multiple paths to industrialization: A global context of the rise of emerging states. In K. Otsuka & K. Sugihara (Eds.), *Paths to the emerging state in Asia and Africa* (pp. 1-33). Springer.

Takeda, M. (2021). Building equality and social cohesion in Myanmar: Plurilingualism as a platform for establishing peace culture. In C. Yamahata, D.M. Seekins, & M. Takeda (Eds.), *Social transformations in India, Myanmar, and Thailand* (pp. 29-50). Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-9616-2_3

Tracy, K., & Robles, J. S. (2013). *Everyday talk: Building and reflecting identities*. Guilford Press.

Tupas, R. (2019). Entanglements of colonialism, social class, and unequal Englishes. *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 23*, 529-542. https://doi.org/10.1111/josl.12384

Vertovec, S. (2007). Super-diversity and its implications. *Ethnic and Racial Studies, 30*, 1024-1054. https://doi.org/10.1080/01419870701599465

Vertovec, S. (2019). Talking around super-diversity. *Ethnic and Racial Studies, 42*, 125-139. https://doi.org/10.1080/01419870.2017.1406128

Vertovec, S., & Cohen, R. (Eds.). (2002). *Conceiving cosmopolitanism: Theory, context, and practice*. Oxford University Press.

Virilio, P. (2012). *The administration of fear*. MIT Press.

Yazan, B., & Rudolph, N. (Eds.) (2018). Introduction: Apprehending identity, experience, and (in) equity through and beyond binaries. In *Criticality, teacher identity, and (in) equity in English languagae teaching* (pp. 1-19). Springer, Cham.

Family's Role and their Challenging Commitment to English Language Learning - A systematic Review

Andrew Philominraj[iD], Ranjeeva Ranjan[iD], Rodrigo Arellano Saavedra[iD], Claudio Andrés Cerón Urzúa[iD]

Universidad Católica del Maule, Chile

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Ranjeeva Ranjan, Universidad Católica del Maule, Avenida San Miguel, 3605, Talca, Chile. E-mail: ranjan@ucm.cl

Background: The English language occupies a prominent role in today's globalized world. The importance of this language is on the increase to the extent that this has become a major concern for governments, curriculum designers, educators, and parents. There are several factors, which contribute to achieving the successful learning of the English language. One of these factors is the role of the family and their involvement in the language development of their children.

Purpose and Method: The present systematic review is framed in a descriptive qualitative approach since its main objective is to analyze articles that contain information regarding family's role and their challenging pedagogical commitment with their children to the learning of the English language. For this purpose, 16 empirical studies retrieved from SCOPUS and the Web of Science database published between 2016 and 2021 in different EFL contexts were analyzed. The present work followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) guidelines and was analyzed thematically. Four themes were identified from the empirical studies and were discussed further.

Results: The results clearly suggest that the higher commitment of parents is directly proportional to the success rate in the learning of the English language. It also revealed the need for integrating the Family in the English language learning process and be considered while formulating any language/educational policy as well as curriculum development involving English as a foreign language (EFL) learning context in the future. Finally, the study provides information on limitations and implications followed by a conclusion.

Keywords: Family, English language, pedagogy, learning, parental styles, engagement

Introduction

Family engagement in their children's learning processes has a strong influence on their knowledge development (Hartas, 2013). In addition, it adds to their early linguistic and cognitive development through exposition to guided conversations at an early age (Vygostsky, 1978; Dickinson & Tabors, 2001). Family can influence their children's attitudes and motivation towards education by creating a positive and learning environment. Education, without doubt, is a key to the success of any nation and if such is the case, the learning of a foreign language becomes even more important (Philominraj et al., 2020) as it opens door to the future success of children. The growing expansion of English as a global and local communication tool (Gimenez, 2009; Enever & Moon, 2009) has led to formally introduce the English language in the EFL curriculum in several countries. Numerous studies have demonstrated the benefits of learning a foreign language at an early age (Johnstone, 2002; Bialystok, 2017). These benefits include linguistic (phonological awareness), cognitive (greater creativity and divergent thinking), affective (lowering levels of anxiety in oral production), and socio-cultural development (openness to other cultures) among others. The prospect of introducing foreign language education at an early age influences childrens' language and cognitive development, a topic of interest and concern for parents and educators (Bialystok, 2017).However, one important stakeholder, parents/family, has not yet been considered in this challenging task towards the English language learning process. The progress in English language learning requires the mediation and stimulation of parents and/or caregivers, who are the ones involved from an early age in establishing routines and supporting children with behavior that promotes self-regulation. In this sense, the emotional, physical, and intellectual needs of infants that are met by the parents contributing to an integral formation with healthy self-esteem (Fujimoto, 2002) allowing them

to grow with a positive attitude towards knowledge. The proactive involvement of the family (Weinstien et al., 2000) in their role as shadow teachers constitutes a key element of success for their childrens' learning English. This involvement at the same time helps parents to envision childrens' future without losing the grips of the actuality instead of fantasy (Hajar, 2019).

The present study aims to fill this gap by carrying out a review of the existing literature on the topic of family/parents to their role in English language learning. Parental involvement leads to great academic achievement in English language learners' (Shin & Seger, 2016) and language and literacy development (Percy et al., 2013) at the same time a clear comprehension of school curricula, which allows them to build a meaningful rapport with teachers (Kwan & Wong, 2016). This systematic review under the framework of qualitative descriptive study addresses the extent to which the role of the family contributes to the educational processes of children, especially in the learning of a foreign language. Additionally, parents' involvement and their positive attitude in the lives of the children favor integral development. For this reason, this article has been developed not only considering concepts such as Family and parental style but also using it interchangeably and later connecting them to their challenging commitment to language learning.

Literature review

Family

Families consist of a complex group of relationships, where the actions of any of its members have a positive or negative effect on others. This unit is influenced by a greater social and cultural context, where each one interacts (children, youth, adults, and elderly people). According to the ecological theory of Bronfenbrenner (cited in García, 2002), the family nucleus would be a component of the ecological environment, which consists of a set of serial and well-regulated structures at different levels, each of them containing the other. These levels have been called: microsystem, mesosystem, exo-system, and macro-system. The microsystem is the most immediate level in which the individual develops (usually the family); the mesosystem includes the interrelations of two or more environments wherein the developing person participates enthusiastically (school, work). The exo-system is made up of larger contexts that do not include the person as an active subject; finally, the macro-system is shaped by the culture and subculture in which the person and all

individuals in society develop. All levels of the ecological model depend on each other and, therefore, the joint participation of different contexts and communication among them is required. Besides, the model presented is dynamic, so its influence can produce new conditions that affect the development of its components (Berk, 1999).

Thus, the family is in constant communication with the other systems, and therefore, these configure or establish somehow the way of acting of its components. In this way, each family nucleus is differentiated both in its interaction and in its composition.

Parenting Style

Each family is different because it is exposed to different social, cultural, economic factors, and consequently to different types of interactions. In this sense, how a family raises their children plays a fundamental role in their subsequent development. Parenting styles account for the way families interact and teach their children. Among the styles defined by Baumrind (Vielma, 2002; Comellas, 2003; Vallejo & López, 2004) are the disciplinarian, permissive, authoritative, and uninvolved. In the first parenting style, families value obedience and control over their children, they are highly demanding, leaving aside the receptivity. These types of families tend to be indifferent and less affectionate, so their children tend to be withdrawn and more dissatisfied. In the second parenting style, the family value self-regulation and self-expression, so they make little demands on their children, leaving it to the children themselves to control their activities. Family care and accept, they are receptive, but not demanding. Children raised under this style tend to be more immature, with less capacity for self-control and less interest in exploring (pre-school age). In the authoritative style, families are demanding, respectful of the individuality of the child, and they emphasize social values. These families respect their children's interests, opinions, and personalities, are affectionate, and at the same time firm to impose norms and punishments, favoring the exchange of opinions. The relationship is a rational and democratic approach in which the rights of both family and children are respected. Boys and girls raised under this style feel safe because they know that their family loves them and also know what they expect from them (Torío López et al., 2008). In pre-school age, these children tend to trust themselves, control themselves, show interest in exploring, and be satisfied (Arranz et al., 2004). Finally, in the uninvolved parenting style, families do not demand nor are they receptive,

showing a minimum commitment to early childhood education. This type of family faces the demands of their children, preferably when they are easily accessible, but when they involve greater effort or dedication their performance is deficient (Valdivia, 2010; López-Soler et al., 2009; Montero & Jiménez, 2009; Gervilla, 2008; Oliva et al., 2007; Ato et al., 2007; Arranz et al., 2004).

In this sense, the most beneficial parenting style for children and young people would be the democratic one. The support of this type of family would mean the key to expanding the children's competences, enhancing their appreciation for the acquisition of new knowledge, among others. Among the necessary characteristics in a family to provide effective support to their children, aspects such as a warm family atmosphere, absence of conflicts so that positive development of the children is reinforced, and at the same time, channeling conflicts into activities that allow them to expand their potentialities are foundational. In this way, the family would provide a solid base for the child to form a positive self-concept, which will be reflected in their behaviors and attitudes in social contexts (Alonso & Román, 2005; Lila & Gracia, 2005).

Parental involvement in school appears to be another aspect of their contribution to children's educational activity. These activities are traditionally limited to school-related activities. These are further divided according to their location as school and home based activities. The former includes communication and participation at school and the latter helping children with homework, conversing about their experiences at school (Avvisati et al., 2010).

Family support can also be evidenced in the degree of involvement of the family or family in the academic work of their children, mediating their learning in conjunction with their cognitive development (Cooper & Valentine, 2001; Cooper et al., 2006; Rosario et al., 2009). Vygotsky (cited in Lefrançois, 2001) developed several investigations related to this topic; among them are the functions of language, which are bounded according to the age of the children. At 3 years of age, the pre-school is in the social stage; the egocentric stage is showed from 3 to 7 years: in this phase, the language controls the child's own behavior. Finally, the internal stage, which takes place from the age of 7, and guides the direction of a child's thinking and behavior. Following Vygotsky, it can be stated that the relationship between development and learning in children can be reduced essentially to three important theoretical positions. The first mentions that the child's development processes are independent of learning, which is considered as an external process not so involved in development. The second proposes that

learning is development, considering the latter as the domain of conditioned reflexes implying that the learning process is related to the development process. Regarding the third, the development is based on two related processes, maturation and learning (the latter would stimulate the maturation process).

The above mentioned positions have a direct correlation to what Vygotsky could call "Zone of proximal development". This refers to the capacity in solving a problem with help of an adult or a skilled partner (Vygotsky, 1988). According to the actual level of development, Vygotsky (1988) considers that some functions have already matured. Therefore, the zone of proximal development defines those functions in process of maturation, where the child can interact with people in their environment, in cooperation with someone similar.

To sum up, be it a family or parental style several studies on language learning highlight (Weinstein et al., 2000) how influential the family and educational context in which the foreign language learner is situated, the frequency with which he/she approaches the language and the constant usefulness he/she can give to it can be on learning. Broadfoot et al. (2008) point out that if both the family and the school are contexts for language learning, they become a stimulus for the student to be active, constructive, and collaborative, to develop a spirit of overcoming mistakes, and to maintain a constant motivation for learning. The above is visualized regarding the environment represented by family as relevant for the stimulation of learning a foreign language.

Family´s Influence on Language Learning

In relation to family support, several types of research show that children who have a good relationship with their family tend to perform better in school (González-Pienda et al., 2002; Stevenson & Baker, 1987; Dornbusch et al., 1987). Children exposed to the English language at an early age by their family have led them not only to familiarize themselves with the language but also were encouraged to learn the language (Md Yunus et al., 2020). This suggests the experiences that families face could be associated with that of what happens at school (Lau & Leung, in Jadue, 2003). Research establishes that there are three factors linked to learning that are related to the development of language, reading, and writing in years before school. The first one is related to the expanded speech referring to language exposure in a context familiar to the child. The second refers to the introduction of new words, the product of active listening in conversations with adults. The third one accounts for the support to the reading writing at home (Tamis-LeMonda & Rodriguez, 2009).

For communication to be effective, linguists describe four basic components of language: phonology, semantics, syntax, and pragmatics. The first refers to the auditory interpretation of language, so all exterior sounds are imitated, which provides a structure to these sounds. The second refers to the meaning and structure of language. The third one alludes to the phenomenon in which the words unite with each other and sentences are formed. Finally, pragmatic is the ability that children have to properly use the language they have been learning (Berk 1999).

Young children are in a process of constant learning, acquiring all kinds of tools through their external environment (close relatives, friends, and classmates). This does not limit to the mother tongue but equally applicable to second or foreign language learning. During the first 5 years of age, the vocabulary acquisition process is very intense, reaching about 8,000 words (Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010). Therefore, at the time of reading to children, what is intended is to promote awareness in them about the language system and its structure. Children, who are exposed to listening to a wide range of books in the English language, read by their parents repeatedly become familiar with the language.

The learning pace at an early age is extremely fast and flexible, allowing children to acquire a wide range of new knowledge. This is how the teaching of other languages, such as English, becomes important since the acquisition of it at home and in pre-school (Broadfoot et al., 2008) children would be facilitated given their capacities to process and maintain new knowledge. According to Berk (1999), a large body of research shows that children who speak two languages fluently are advanced in a variety of cognitive and metalinguistic skills. This is in line with the theory of constructivism by Vygotsky (Sjøberg, 2010), which considers that learning is an active and constructive process. The theory takes into account personal experiences and environment to the construction of knowledge. Children's exposure to the English language has constituted a vital experience to link and relate "to the new information or learning process throughout their lives" (Md Yunus et al., 2020).

In this way, family plays an important role and has a powerful influence on children's learning when they are young, and still do not attend school. The best way to help children is to fully understand their experiences and discover their skills, which will pave the way to develop the most appropriate strategy to facilitate their learning. Therefore, there is no better mobilizing agent of knowledge than the family, the acquisition of a new language will be influenced mainly by the degree of involvement of the household and secondly by the teaching given by the educators.

The objective of this current study is to analyze articles that contain information regarding family's role and their challenging pedagogical commitment with their children to English language learning. Hence, the following are the research questions that guided this systematic literature review:

1. What research approaches, contexts, methodologies, and instruments are used in research studies on the role of family/parents to English language learning of their children in varios EFL contexts carried out during 2016-2021?
2. What are the major themes identified in the selected research studies carried out during 2016-2021?

Materials and Methods

Background

The working method is a comprehensive systematic review of the scientific literature concerning the family's role and commitment to English language learning. For this purpose, 16 empirical studies retrieved from SCOPUS and the Web of Science database published between 2016 and 2021 in different EFL contexts were analyzed. The present work followed the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) (Urrútia & Bonfill, 2010) guidelines and was analyzed thematically. This allowed a rational synthesis of relevant research in the area (Beltrán, 2005; Meca, 2010). In addition to the search in the databases, a reference chain or snowball sampling was carried out. This helped in the construction of the theoretical framework considered relevant to the subject in the study (Izquierdo, 2015).

Search Criteria

The search terms were identified based on the topic of study. The serach terms which included the following key terms were employed for both the data bases, Scopus and Web of Science.

- ("Family"AND "English language learning")
- ("Family role"AND "English language learning")
- ("Parents" AND "English language learning")
- ("Parental engagement"AND "English language learning")
- ("Father"AND "English language learning")
- ("Mother"AND "English language learning")

Inclusion and Exclusion Criterias

A PRISMA flow diagram for the search and inclusion/ exclusion process is presented in Figure 1. A total of 114 titles (SCOPUS= 84, Web of Science=30) and/or abstracts assembled from the databases were reviewed by the researchers and 49 articles were excluded due to time frame, as they belonged to research carried out before 2016. The remaining 65 were checked for duplicity resulting in 41 useable articles. Applying the different Inclusion Criteria (IC) such as English language learning, Family, Parents, and articles written in the English language, and Exclusion criteria (EC) such as students' perspective, teacher centered, other subjects, and other languages, finally 16 articles met the criteria for this systematic review.

Analysis Phase

The analysis phase considered the research questions proposed in this study. All the selected articles conducted in varios EFL contexts with the details of research approaches, country of research (contexts), methodologies, and instruments are presented in Table 1. In this study, selected articles were examined for identifying themes on family's role and their

commitment towards their children´s English language learning. Thematic analysis was used to categorize facts for uncovering meaning (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006), which would offer relevant information to parents/ family role to their children language educational process in an EFL context.

Parents/family's consciousness of their role paves the way to take up the challenge in promoting and developing English language learning in their children. The systematic revision of the articles led to identifying few major themes, and consequently a few subthemes, which facilitated researchers to reach the objective of this study.

The first main theme found in the systematic review was family/ parental influence, involvement, and engagement. Under this theme, four subthemes were identified which are family influence, parental involvement in the digital era, family/parental engagement, and parental involvement in young learners. The second main theme that emerged from the studies was social and economic support to Children's English language learning. The third main theme was Parents as a social factor & their attitude. The last main theme was the Parenting style.

Table 1

Research studies included in the systematic review

Figure 1

PRISMA flow diagram

Theme	Research study	Title	Context	Methodology	Instruments	Main findings
I. Parental/family influence, engagement and environment	Cameron, D. (2021)	Case studies of Iranian migrants' WTC within an ecosystems framework: The influence of past and present language learning experiences	Iranian migrants in New Zealand	QUAL; longitudinal	Questionnaires; observations; stimulated recall; multiple interviews	family influence as a factor affecting the past English language learning (ELL) experiences apart from the type of school and expertise of teachers
IA. family influence	Sitti Nur Suraya (2020)	Teacher performance, parent's role, and student learning outcomes in muhammadiyah junior high school	Grade 8 students in Indonesia	QUAN; descriptive analysis; Cross-sectional	Likert scale questionnaires (teacher performance questionnaire and role of parents questionnaire).	parents role affecting English Language learning outcome by 0,073 or 7,3% and has a positive correlation
	Md. Yunus et al. (2020)	The voyage of ESL learners' English language learning in the era of post-colonialism: A thematic analysis	postgraduate ESL students in Indonesia	QUAL; thematic analysis	Life history about experiences in acquiring English language	Family in the era of post-colonialism influenced the learners in their English language learning process. Besides the family pressure and their role in motivating the learners were other elements, which were found in the narrative inquiry of the participants
IB. parental involvement in the digital era	Moorhouse &Beaumont (2020)	Involving Parents in Their Children's School-based English Language Writing Using Digital Learning	Grade 3 students in Hong Kong	Action Research	Parental Involvement on Seesaw	research showed the passive role of parental involvement rather than an active one, highlighting the importance of parental involvement in the new era of digital learning platforms
	Bang et al. (2020)	Testing a research-based digital learning tool: Chinese EFL children's linguistic development	5-6 year children in Hangzhou, China	Mixed method	Experimental design to check the effectiveness of digital tools in learning English language in EFL context.	The research sheds light on digital language learning which was found to be effective and supports the idea that the parents should be involved to use digital tools to facilitate their children's develop English language skills.
IC. family/parental engagement	Nonnian & Arphattananon (2018)	School administrators' competencies for effective english language teaching and learning in thai government primary schools	6 school administrators, (4 principals and 2 head teachers of foreign language departments) in Thailand	QUAL; thematic analysis	Semi-structured interview	Although the research is mainly based on the school administration, it referred to the fact that English language proficiency and life-long learning skills can be reinforced and made continuous by a chain of complex factors, family engagement being one of them.
	Alqahtani (2017)	The L2 Motivational Self System and Religious Interest among Saudi Military Cadets: A Structural Equation Modelling Approach	Cadets (19 yrs. Old) from the Saudi King Abdulaziz Military Academy, Saudi Arabia	QUAN; structural equation modelling (SEM)	Likert scale questionnaire	parental involvement helped to their ought-to L2 self-motivation and also totheir language learning attitudes The study also showed the contribution of parental encouragement towards language learning attitudes.

Theme	Research study	Title	Context	Methodology	Instruments	Main findings
ID. parental involvement in young learners	Kalaycı & Ergül (2020)	Teachers' perceptions of the role of parental involvement in teaching English to young learners	English language teachers working at three different private primary schools in Ankara, Turkey	QUAL; thematic inductive analysis;	Open ended questionnaire	This study explored English language teachers' perceptions about parental role and commitment in student's ELL process. The results of the study indicate the importance of parental commitment in teaching English to beginners as recognized by the teachers. However, the study also shows that the teachers in no way take effort to set parent-teacher collaboration.
II. Social and economic support to children's ELL	Bae and Park (2019)	Investing in the future: Korean early English education as neoliberal management of youth	12 early study abroad Korean families (mother and the students) in Singapore	QUAL	Ethnographic interviews.	The paper discusses parents' concern for their children's future and their choice of choosing English language learning as an issue of neoliberal anticipation.
	Hajar, Anas (2019)	Examining the Impact of Immediate Family Members on Gulf Arab EFL Students' Strategic Language Learning and Development	Seven Arab participants in United Kingdom	QUAL; thematic analysis	written narrative and subsequent semi-structured interviews	Results revealed that higher educated parent's contribution was higher in making their children confident in speaking English right from the beginning. They also provided opportunities for private education. Better professions and higher income, lead to better opportunities for their children, be it education or learning English.
	Sioco and De Vera (2018)	Grammatical competence of Junior High School students	177 Junior High School students in Philippines	QUAN; inferential statistics	Questionnaire; test on subject-verb agreement	the results based on the computed effect size revealed that "monthly family income" has a medium or typical effect. The study concluded that in the context of the students' characteristics, family monthly income significantly relates to student's grammatical competence.
	Bai et al.(2018)	The Relationship between Social Support, Self-Efficacy, and English Language Learning Achievement in Hong Kong	1,092 8th–12th graders in Hong Kong	QUAN; descriptive statistics, CFA	Likert scale Questionnaire;	Parents' optimistic help and effectiveness are interwoven and are found to predict students' English learning achievement. Further, the study highlighted the parents' social contribution may help in developing children's self-efficacy in the Hong Kong context.

Theme	Research study	Title	Context	Methodology	Instruments	Main findings
	Kim and Okazki (2017)	Short-term 'Intensive Mothering' on a budget: Working mothers of Korean children studying abroad in Southeast Asia	14 mothers, 4 fathers, and their 18 children in Korea	QUAL; constant comparison method to identify the core themes	semi-structured interviews using a set of open-ended questions	mothers in their role as education managers were one of the effective parenting contributions towards their children's learning of the English language
III. Parents as a social factor & their attitude	Getie (2020)	Factors affecting the attitudes of students towards learning English as a foreign language	1030 High School Grade 10 students in Debre Markos, Ethiopia	Mixed method; triangulation of results	Questionnaire as main instrument; semi-structured interview; focus group Discussion	Parents as social factors influence students' attitudes, which favors the learning of English as a foreign language. The study highlights that parents attitude to the target language is mirrored by learners attitudes as well affecting their achievement in learning the language.
	Baharudin et al. (2019)	The relationship between students' attitudes and English language accomplishment: The instance of freshmen in a private learning institution	175 first year students in a private institution in Malaysia	Mixed method; statistical analysis	Questionnaire; semi-structured interview	The article highlights that the parents should leverage their vital role in improving their children's English language learning. Learners' positive attitudes are also influenced by other factors such as their parents. The important role of parents in educating the child is undeniable. Parents hold the responsibility in guiding the child towards positive attitudes to learning which can be achieved by educating them with this mindset from early childhood.
IV. Parenting style	Khodadady & Hadizadeh (2016)	Parenting and English language learning at Iranian grade one senior high schools: A theoretical and empirical approach	319 female grade one senior high schools in Iran	QUAN; statistical analysis	Questionnaire; English language score	The results showed that along with the parenting domain, its authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive genera correlate significantly with English achievement at different degrees and in opposite directions. It further reveals that considering authoritative parenting means paving the way to their childrens' English achievement.

Results and Discussion

The systematic review based on the 16 articles finally considered are classified under four main themes, which are as follows; Parental/family influence, engagement and environment, Social and economic support to children's ELL, parents as a social factor, and their attitude and finally parenting style.

The research studies included in this review were theoretical and empirical in nature and some were case studies. The methodologies and study designs used in these selected studies were qualitative (44%), quantitative (31%), mixed method (19%) and action research (6%). The participants in these studies were studenst from both preschool to higher secondary and university. The other participants included actors from the educational setup like principal, teachers and administrators and the parents.

I. Parental Family Influence, Engagement and Environment

a) Family influence

Under this theme, the first subtheme is family influence. Cameron (2021) in her longitudinal qualitative study into the willingness to communicate (WTC) of Iranian migrants found that family influence was one of the factors affecting the previous English language learning (ELL) experiences apart from the type of school and expertise of teachers. Sitti Nur Suraya (2020) in their quantitative study investigated the effect of teacher performance and the parents' role towards the learning outcome of various subjects, English language being one of them. They found that the teacher performance has no effect on English Language learning outcome with a Beta value of -0.005 or 0,5% while the role of parents affects English Language learning outcome by 0,073 or 7,3% and has a positive correlation. Thus proving the hypothesis of their work that there is a significant correlation between the role of parents and English Language learning outcomes. Further, the researcher highlighted how significant is the family's role in the tri center of education that includes school, family, and community. The study also found that students improved their achievement at school due to the family environment. In the last study under this subtheme, Md. Yunus et al. (2020) in their qualitative study with five ESL learners found that family in the era of post-colonialism influenced the learners in their English language learning process. Referring to the theoretical framework of Vygotskian constructivism, they reported that the learners' prior exposure to the English language during their childhood helped them in their learning process by linking or relating the previous knowledge to the new one. Besides the family pressure and their role in motivating the learners were other elements, which were found in the narrative inquiry of the participants.

b) Parental involvement in the digital era

The second subtheme was parental involvement in the digital era. Under this subtheme, there were two research studies, first Moorhouse & Beaumont (2020) and second Bang et al. (2020). This subtheme becomes even more important during this time of pandemic in the online learning context when the role of parents is being seen as a significant element by the educational institutions because of the time spent by the learners at home. Moorhouse & Beaumont (2020) in their action research highlighted the importance of parental involvement in the new era of digital learning platforms wherein the role of parents is not only limited to traditional ways by supervising homework or participating in school but invited to openly involve in digital learning platforms. Their research showed the passive role of parental involvement rather than an active one. Although Bang et al. (2020) in their study did not talk about parental involvement explicitly, their research sheds light on digital language learning which was found to be effective and supports the idea that the parents should be involved to use the digital tools to help beginner students develop English language skills.

c) Family/parental engagement

The third subtheme was family/parental engagement. In this category, we found two research studies. The first one was Nomnian & Arphattananon (2018) and the second being Alqahtani (2017). Nomnian & Arphattananon (2018) in their qualitative research with six government primary schools administrators in Thailand found five essential key competencies leading to achieve success in English language teaching and learning. Also, the study underlines the importance of harmonious collaboration among all those involved in education to foster strategic alliance by thus creating synergies towards the same direction. Although the research is mainly based on the school administration, it referred to the fact that English language proficiency and life-long learning skills can be reinforced and made continuous by a chain of complex factors, family engagement being one of them. The research highlighted that these factors are entwined in the educational networks that need permanent and shared contributions from all important stakeholders encouraging learners towards English language learning success. Alqahtani (2017) in his quantitative study underlined that the influence of students' parents was salient as parental encouragement promoted their ought-to L2 self-

motivation in addition to their attitudes about language learning. The research study points out the considerable impact of parents on their children in this research context of Saudi Arabia which, according to the researcher, is a conservative and collective society. The study also showed the contribution of parental encouragement towards language learning attitudes.

d) Parental involvement in young learners

The fourth subtheme under this category was parental involvement in young learners. Kalaycı & Ergül (2020) in their research study explored the role of parental involvement in young learners as perceived by the English teachers. In this qualitative study conducted in turkey with 25 primary school English language teachers, the results showed five emerging themes on the role of parental involvement based on their perception. The researchers concluded that parent's influence on student's language development is a topic that teachers are conscious about. They also highlight the need for reinforcement of students' language development both academically and motivationally. However, the study also showed that there isn't any initiative on the part of the teachers to promote parent-teacher collaboration.

II. Social and Economic Support to Childrens' English Language Learning

The second theme that emerged from the studies was social and economic support to Children's English language learning. Under this theme, a subtheme is the concept of Mother as education manager researched by Kim and Okazki (2017). In this study through a qualitative method, 14 Korean mothers were interviewed and the results highlighted that mothers in their role as education managers were one of the effective parenting contributions towards their children's learning of the English language. Most working mothers who accompany their children fostering to learn English view it as their own opportunity to enact the role of dedicated and competent educational-manager mothers. In another study carried out by Bae and Park (2019) in a Korean context examined how commercial visualizations of the future contribute to neoliberalism's seizure of language learning as a strategy for capital accumulation. The paper highlights parent's concern for their children's future and their choice of choosing English language learning as an issue of neoliberal anticipation. Finally, the authors conclude that the affective involvement of parents in the early English education of their children might serve as a platform to fostering human resources.

Hajar (2019) using a qualitative study reveals the influence of Gulf Arab parents and siblings on students' English language learning experiences and strategies used at home. The result indicated that the economic wellbeing of the parents not only favors good living to children but it is so closely knitted to the fact of providing good education and especially English language learning. Educationally qualified parents encouraged their children to project themselves as English speakers right from the start, and this is noticed in their choice of sending children to highly equipped private institutions. In another quantitative study by Sioco and De Vera (2018), 177 Junior High school students participated in research on grammar competence. The results based on the computed effect size revealed that "monthly family income" has a medium or typical effect on learners' level of grammatical competence. The study concluded that in the context of the students' characteristics, family monthly income significantly relates to student's grammatical competence.

Bai et al. (2018), through a quantitative method, applied a survey questionnaire to 1092 secondary school students in Hong Kong and found out that Parents' positive support is positively correlated with self-efficacy and English learning. Parents' positive support and self-efficacy are interwoven and are found to predict students' English learning achievement. Further, social support understood as parent's support is an indirect catalyzer to foster self-efficacy in students by means of which they achieve English learning in Hongkong. In this sense, self-efficacy acts as a mediator between the sociocultural factor and English learning achievement.

III. Parents as Social Factor

The third theme that emerged was Parents as a social factor & their attitude. On a social note, several studies (Getie, 2020; Baharudin et al., 2019) revealed that parent's attitudes to the target language are mirrored by learner's attitudes as well. Learners adopting parent's attitudes is a fact that affects their achievements in learning the language. It is also important to note that even if parents do not have knowledge or fluency in the English language, the very fact of realizing its importance makes them support and guide their children's successful learning of the English language. The important role of parents in educating the child is undeniable. Parents hold the responsibility in guiding the child towards positive attitudes to learning which can be achieved by educating them with this mindset from early childhood.

IV. Parenting Style

The last theme that was found is the Parenting style. Another factor related to English language learning has to do with parenting style wherein the "authoritative genus of both parents relates to students English learning achievement" (Khodadady & Hadizadeh, 2016). The results of the study carried out by the above-mentioned authors showed that not only the parenting domain but also its authoritarian, authoritative, and permissive genera correlate significantly with English achievement at different degrees.

Conclusion

The present systematic review in line with the first research question raised in this study, as presented in the Table 1, clearly indicates that the methodologies and study designs used in these selected studies were diverse. Methodologies used in these research studies vary from quantitative (31%), qualitative (44%), mixed (19%) and action methods (6%). The participants in these studies were studenst from both preschool to higher secondary and university. The other participants included actors from the educational setup like principal, teachers and administrators and the parents. This topic has been researched in different parts of the world as highlighted in the context in the Table 1. However, most of the studies have been carried out in the Asian and African context which clearly indicates the significance of the riguorousity on the topic, but at the same time the systematica review revealed the lack of research in this field in European, North and South American context.

The present systematic review, responding to the second research question, established four themes, which are parental/family influence, engagement and environment, social and economic support to children´s ELL, parents as a social factor and their attitude and finally parenting style. In relation to the first three themes, it could be concluded that family influence involvement, and environment positively influences student learning, boosting the skills related to learning and language development. A family who provides stress-free consistent support during the first five years of the infants will generate a positive environment to learn a new language promoting the learning of new vocabulary at a critical period in terms of acquiring the segmental and suprasegmental features of the foreign language such as English. The parental proactivity in promoting children's autonomy, eliminating distractions in the learning process, meeting their social needs, supporting children for formal schooling, particularly in their homework, and fostering digital tools has been shown to increase the academic performance and adaptation to formal education, which in turn will definitively help to the learning of English as a foreign language. The review also highlighted that family engagement strengthened life-long learning skills and at the same time, parental encouragement positively contributed to language learning attitudes and motivation.

In relation to the final theme of parenting style, it could be concluded that the authoritative parental style has more possibilities to influence positively in improving the self-perception, the motivation, and the attitude that the child has towards these factors. The above-mentioned elements favor the learning processes and the acquisition of cognitive strategies making the English language learning process easy and enjoyable. The systematic support during the school tasks and the reinforcement of the self-concept positively modifies the perspective of the personal effort and self-regulation of the children so the involved parental behavior stimulates persistence and decreases levels of frustration leading to the learning of English as a foreign language.

The results clearly suggest that the higher commitment of parents is directly proportional to the success rate in the learning of the English language. It also revealed the need for integrating the Family in the English language learning process and be considered while formulating any language/educational policy as well as curriculum development involving English as a foreign language (EFL) learning context in the future.Ultimately, it could be concluded that any parental support paves the way to the increase of linguistic competence and boosts self-confidence in their children, which is a challenging commitment towards learning the English language.

Implication and limitation

The implications of the study go in line with adding new dimensions to the ongoing topic of families' role in their children's learning of a foreign language. The findings of this analysis provide a critical and current overview for practical implications to all those teachers and researchers involved in this area of family and English language learning. This study by highlighting factors on the topic might help the educational policymakers to promote parents' involvement in their children's English language learning trajectory. The researchers anticipate that the identified problems and proposals could provide insights for academics and practitioners for

overcoming the challenges faced by the parents to their commitment. Moreover, the findings suggest that more studies are needed to find ways to deal with the parents challenging commitment to their children learning in EFL contexts.

One of the limitations is that the present study employed articles regarding Family and commitment to their children's English language learning in an interval of five years (2016-2021). If the range time would have been extended, it could have offered a greater possibility to further strengthen this research. Another factor was confining the search only to two databases such as WoS and Scopus.

Acknowledgments

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Alonso, J., & Román J. M. (2005). Prácticas educativas familiares y autoestima [Educational and Family practices and selfesteem]. *Psicothema*, *17*(1), 76-82.

Alqahtani, A.F. (2017). The L2 motivational self system and religious interest among Saudi military cadets: A structural equation modelling approach. *International Journal Of English Linguistics*, 7(5), 84-94. http://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v7n5p84

Arranz, E., Bellido, A., Manzano, A., Martín J. L., & Olabarrieta F. (2004). Contexto familiar y desarrollo psicológico durante la infancia [Family context and pschylogial Development during childhood]. In E. Arranz (Coord.), *Familia y desarrollo psicológico* (pp. 70-95). Pearson Educación.

Ato Lozano, E., Galián Conesa, M. D., & Huéscar Hernández, E. (2007). Relaciones entre estilos educativos, temperamento y ajuste social en la infancia: una revisión [Relation between educational style, temperament and social adjustments in childhood]. *Anales de Psicología* *23*(1), 33-40. https://revistas.um.es/analesps/article/view/23231

Avvisati, F., Besbas, B., & Guyon, N. (2010). Parental involvement in school: A literature review. Dans *Revue O'Economie Politique*, *120*(5), 759–778.

Bae, S., & Park, J.S.-Y. (2019). Investing in the future: Korean early English education as neoliberal management of youth. *Multilingua*, *39*(3), 277-297.

https://doi.org/10.1515/multi-2019-0009

Baharudin, S.N.A., Said, H.M., & Stein, A. (2019). The relationship between students' attitudes and English language accomplishment: The instance of freshmen in a private learning institution. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, *6*(2), 102-115.

Bai, B., Chao, GCN., & Wang, C. (2018). The relationship between social support, self-efficacy, and English language learning achievement in Hong Kong. *TESOL Quarterly*, *53*(1), 208-221. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.439

Bang, H.J., Olander, K., & Lenihan, E. (2020). Testing a research-based digital learning tool: Chinese EFL children's linguistic development. *CALICO Journal*, *37*(3), 277-308. https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.40544

Beltrán, O. (2005). Revisiones sistemáticas de la literatura [Systematic literature reviews]. *Revista Colombiana de Gastroenterología, 20*(1), 60-69.

Berk, L. (1999). Capitulo Nueve: Desarrollo del Lenguaje [Chapter nine: Development of Language]. In *Desarrollo del niño y del adolescente* [Development of Child and of adolescent] (pp.459-511). Prentice Hall Iberia. https://www.academia.edu/4191688/Berk_L_1999_Desarrollo_del_nino_y_del_adolescente

Bialystok, E. (2017). Second-Language Acquisition and Bilingualism at an Early Age and the Impact on Early Cognitive Development. In Tremblay RE, Boivin M, Peters RDeV, (Eds). *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. https://www.child-encyclopedia.com/second-language/according-experts/second-language-acquisition-and-bilingualism-early-age-and-impact.

Broadfoot, P., Daugherty, R., Gardner, J., Harlen, W., James, M., & Stobart, G. (2008). *Assessment for learning: 10 principles*. University of Cambridge.

Cameron, D. (2021). Case studies of Iranian migrants' WTC within an ecosystems framework: The influence of past and present language learning experiences. In N. Zarrinabadi & M. Pawlak (Eds) *New perspectives on willingness to communicate in a second language. Second language learning and teaching.* Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-67634-6_3

Comellas, M. J. (2003). *Criterios educativos básicos en la infancia como prevención de trastornos* [Basic educational criteria in childhood as prevention of disorders]. http://www.avpap.org/documentos/comellas.pdf

Cooper, H., Robinson, J. C., & Patall, E. A. (2006). Does homework improve academic achievement? A synthesis of research, 1987–2003. *Review of Educational Research*, *76*(1), 1–62. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543076001001

Cooper H., & Valentine, J. C. (2001). Using research

to answer practical questions about homework. *Educational Psychologist*, *36*(3), 143–153. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep3603_1

Dickinson, D. K., & Tabors, P. (2001). *Beginning literacy with language*. Paul H Brooks.

Dornbusch, S., Ritter, P., Leiderman, P., Roberts, D., & Fraleigh, M. (1987). The relation of parenting style to adolescent school performance. *Child Development*, *58*(5), 1244-1257, https://doi.org/10.2307/1130618

Enever, J., & Moon, J. (2009). New global contexts for teaching primary ELT: Change and challenge. In J. Enever, J. Moon, & U. Raman (Eds.), *Young learner English, language policy and implementation: International perspectives* (pp. 5-21). Garnet Education.

Fereday, J., & Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). Demonstrating rigor using thematic analysis: A hybrid approach of inductive and deductive coding and theme development. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 5*(1), 80–92. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690600500107

Fujimoto, G. (2002). *La atención integral de la primera infancia y los desafíos del siglo XXI, Importancia de la atención integral del niño* [Comprehensive early childhood care and the challenges of the 21st century, Importance of comprehensive child care]. México, Monterrey.

García, F. (2002). Atención Temprana: Elementos para el desarrollo de un Modelo integral de intervención [Early intervention: Elements for the development of a comprehensive intervention model]. *Revista de Orientación Pedagógica*, *54*(1), 39-52.

Gervilla, A. (2008). *Familia y Educación Familiar, Conceptos clave, situación actual y valores* [Family and family education, key concepts, current situation and values]. Narcea.

Getie, A.S. (2020). Factors affecting the attitudes of students towards learning English as a foreign language. *Cogent Education*, *7*(1), 1738184. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2020.1738184

Gimenez, T. (2009). English at primary school level in Brazil: Challenges and perspectives. In J. Enever, J. Moon, & U. Raman (Eds.), *Young learner English language policy and implementation: International perspectives* (pp. 53-59). Garnet Education.

González-Pienda, J. A., Núñez, J. C., Alvarez, L., González-Pumariega, S., Roces, C., González, P., Muñiz, R., & Bernardo, A. (2002). Inducción parental a la autorregulación, autoconcepto y rendimiento académico [Parental induction to self-regulation, self-concept and academic performance]. *Psicothema*, *14*, 853-860.

Hajar, A. (2019). Examining the impact of immediate family members on Gulf Arab EFL Students' strategic language learning and development. *RELC Journal*, *50*(2), 285–299. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688217716534

Hartas, D. (2013). Families social backgrounds matter: Socio-economic factors, home learning and young children's language, literacy and social outcomes. *British Educational Research Journal*, *37*(6), 893-914.

Izquierdo, G. (2015). Informantes y muestreo en investigación cualitativa [Informants and sampling in qualitative research]. *Investigaciones Andina*, *17*(30), 1148-1150.

Jadue, G. (2003). Transformaciones familiares en Chile: riesgo creciente para el desarrollo emocional, psicosocial y la educación de los hijos [Family transformations in Chile: Present risk in the emotional, psychosocial and educational development of children]. *Estudios Pedagógicos (Valdivia), 29*, 115-126. https://doi.org/10.4067/S0718-07052003000100008

Johnstone, R. (2002). *Addressing 'the age factor': Some implications for language policy*. Council of Europe: Language policy division. http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/JohnstoneEN.pdf

Kalayci, G., & Ergül, H. (2020). Teachers' perceptions of the role of parental involvement in teaching English to young learners. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *16*(3), 1167-1176. https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.803608

Khodadady, E., & Hadizadeh, B. (2016). Parenting and English language learning at Iranian grade one senior high schools: A theoretical and empirical approach. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *7*(4), 700-708. http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0704.09

Kim, J., & Okazaki, S. (2017). Short-term 'intensive mothering' on a budget: Working mothers of Korean children studying abroad in Southeast Asia. *Asian Women*, *33*(3), 111-139.https://doi.org/10.14431/aw.2017.09.33.3.111

Kim, K., & Rohner, R. P. (2002). Parental warmth, control, and involvement in schooling. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *33*, 127-140.

Kwan P, & Wong Y. (2016). Parental involvement in schools and class inequality in education: Some recent findings from Hong Kong. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning, 11*(2), 91–102. https://doi.org/10.1080/22040552.2016.1227250

Lefrançois, G. (2001). Capitulo dos: Teorías del Desarrollo en el Ciclo Vital, El Ciclo de la Vida [Chapter two: Theories on the Development of the life cycle, the cyle of life]. *Thomson Learning, 6*, 29-37.

Lila, M., & Gracia, E. (2005). Determinantes de la aceptación-rechazo parental [Determinants of parental acceptance-rejection]. *Psicothema*, *17*(1),107-111.

López-Soler, C., Puerto, J., López-Pina, J., & Prieto, M. (2009). Percepción de los estilos educativos

parentales e inadaptación en menores pediátricos [Perception of parental educational styles and maladjustment in pediatric children]. *Anales de psicología*, *25*(1), 70-77.

Md Yunus, M., Hashim, H.U., Makhtar, R., Norman, H., & Hashim, H. (2020). The voyage of ESL learners' English language learning in the era of post-colonialism: A thematic analysis. *Humanities and Social Sciences Letters*, *8*(2), 224-229. https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.73.2020.82.224.229

Meca, J. (2010). Cómo realizar una revisión sistemática y un meta-análisis [How to perform a systematic review and meta-analysis]. *Aula Abierta*, *38*(2), 53-64.

Moorhouse, B. L., & Beaumont, A. M. (2020). Involving Parents in their children's school-based English language writing using digital learning. *RELC Journal*, 51(2), 259–267. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688219859937

Montero Jiménez, M., & Jiménez Tallón, M. A. (2009). Los estilos educativos parentales y su relación con las conductas de los adolescentes [Parental educational styles and their relationship with adolescent behaviors]. *Familia*, *39*, 77-104.

Nomnian, S., & Arphattananon, T. (2018). School administrators' competencies for effective English language teaching and learning in Thai government primary schools. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, *6*(2), 51-70. https://doi.org/10.22492/ije.6.2.04

Oliva, A., Parra, A., Sánchez-Queija, I., & López, F. (2007). Estilos educativos materno y paterno: Evaluación y relación con el ajuste adolescente [Maternal and paternal educational styles: Assessment and relationship to adolescent adjustment]. *Anales de Psicología*, *23*(1), 49-56.

Pellicer-Sánchez, A., & Schmitt, N. (2010). Incidental vocabulary acquisition from an authentic novel: Do things fall apart? *Reading in a Foreign Language, 22*(1), 31-55.

Percy M. M., Martin-Beltran M., & Daniel S. M. (2013). Learning together: Creating a community of practice to support English language learner literacy, language. *Culture and Curriculum*, *26*(3), 284–99. https://doi.org10.1080/07908318.2013.849720

Philominraj, A., Ranjan, R., & Diaz, M. Y. (2020). Paulo Freire y el cambio de paradigma en la enseñanza y el aprendizaje del idioma: Un estudio de caso sobre chile-India [Paulo Freire and the paradigm shift in language teaching and learning: A case study on Chile-India]. *Brazilian Journal of Development*, *6*(5), 31601-31614. http://doi.org/10.34117/bjdv6n5-567

Rosário, P., Mourão, R., Baldaque M., Nunes T., Núñez J. C., González-Pienda J. A., Cerezo, R., & Valle, A. (2009). Tareas para casa, autorregulación del aprendizaje y rendimiento en matemáticas [Homework, self-regulation of learning and mathematics performance]. *Revista de Psicodidáctica*, *14*(2), 179-192.

Seginer, R., & Vermulst, A. (2002). Family environment, educational aspirations, and academic achievement in two cultural settings. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *33,* 540-558.

Shin, D. S., & Seger, W. (2016). Web 2.0 technologies and parent involvement of ELL students: An ecological perspective. *The Urban Review*, *48*(2), 311–32. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-016-0356-y

Sioco, E. C., & De Vera, P. V. (2018). Grammatical competence of Junior High School students. *TESOL International Journal*, *13*(2), 82-94.

Sitti Nur Suraya Ishak, S. (2020). Teacher Performance, parent's role, and student learning outcomes in muhammadiyah junior high school. *Universal Journal of Educational Research, 8*(2), 529 - 539. https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2020.080224

Sjøberg, S. (2010). Constructivism and Learning. In Penelope Peterson (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Education* (3rd ed., pp.485-490). Elsevier. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-044894-7.00467-X

Stevenson, D., & Baker, D. (1987). The Family-school relation and the child's school performance. *Child Development*, *58*(5), 1348-1357. https://doi.org/10.2307/1130626

Tamis-LeMonda, C. S., & Rodriguez, E. T. (2009). Parents' role in fostering young children's learning and language development. In R. Tremblay, M. Boivin, R. Peters, & S. Rvachew (Eds.), *Encyclopedia on Early Childhood Development* [online]. Retrieved from http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/language-development-and-literacy/according-experts/parents-role-fostering-young-childrens-learning.

Torío López, S., Peña Calvo, J. V., & Rodríguez Menéndez, M del C. (2008). Estilos educativos parentales [Parental educational styles]. Revisión Bibliográfica y Reformulación Teórica. *Teoría Educativa*, *20*, 151-178.

Urrútia, G., & Bonfill, X. (2010). Declaración PRISMA: Una propuesta para mejorar la publicación de revisiones sistemáticas y metaanálisis [PRISMA statement: A proposal to improve the publication of systematic reviews and meta-analyses]. *Medicina clínica*, *135*(11), 507-511.

Valdivia, M del C. (2010). *Madres y padres competentes, Claves para optimizar las relaciones con nuestros hijos e hijas* [Competent Mothers and Fathers, Keys to optimizing relationships with our sons and daughters]. Graó.

Vallejo Casarín, A., & López, F. (2004). Estilos parentales y bienestar psicológico durante la niñez. *Revista de educación y desarrollo* [Parental styles

and psychological well-being during childhood]. V. 2, 83-86. Retreived from www.cucs.ugg.mx/revistasalud//Revista%20%20Educación%20y%20Desarrollo/RED

Vielma, J. (2002). Estilos de crianza en familias andinas venezolanas. un estudio preliminar [Parenting styles in venezuelan andean families. a preliminary study]. *Revista Venezolana de Sociología y Antropología*, 12 (33), 46-65. Retrieved from http://www.redalyc.org/pdf/705/70511244004.pdf.

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

Vygotsky, L. (1988). *El desarrollo de los procesos psicológicos superiores* [The development of higher psychological processes]. México: Editorial Crítica, Grupo editorial Grijalbo.

Weinstein, Claire Ellen, Husman, Jenefer & Douglas, Douglas. (2000). Self-regulation interventions with a focus on learning strategies. In Boekaerts, Pintrich y Moshe (Eds.). *Handbook of self regulation* (pp. 727-747). San Diego: Academic Press

Initial Language Teacher Education: Components Identified in Research

Martha García Chamorro[1], **Monica Rolong Gamboa**[1],
Nayibe Rosado Mendinueta[2]

[1] Universidad del Atlántico

[2] Universidad del Norte

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Martha Garcia, Universidad del Atlántico, Carrera 30 Número 8- 49 Puerto Colombia – Atlántico and Universidad del Norte.
E-mail: marthagarcia@mail.uniatlantico.edu.co

Background: Initial Language Teacher Education (ILTE) has moved conceptually from technical-oriented visions to socio-cultural perspectives that integrate cultural, historical and institutional settings where teachers shape their professional identities. However, relevant discussion in the field indicates that ILTE configurations are grounded on conceptual frameworks that fail to represent the complex nature of teacher preparation.

Purpose: In this systematic review we explore whether recent conceptual ILTE understandings are acknowledged in current research as this information is relevant for stakeholders in education.

Method: For this reason, this systematic review aims at analysing what teacher education components are addressed in such research in nationally ranked academic journals from 2014 to 2019 and how those components were researched.

Results: Findings indicate areas related to student teachers' learning are still at the forefront in ILTE. Additionally, that area is still inquired from a disjoint and discreet perspective. Results also show growing discussion about the teacher as a person and contextual elements from a more holistic and interconnected perspective acknowledging the integrative nature of components affecting pre-service language teachers' education.

Keywords: Language Initial Teacher Education, student teachers, conceptualization, teacher education components

Introduction

The theoretical foundations of teacher education (TE) have shifted reflecting the interests, concerns and changes of different social, economic, political, and historical moments and agents. Said changes have emerged as a result of globalization (Schuck et al, 2018), information and communication technologies (López, 1997), multiculturalism, plurilingualism, policy reforms, socio-political contexts, ideologies, values, changing beliefs, and relationships. Resulting transformations have claimed different ways to deal with and understand realities and their tensions across different areas and contexts. Initial Language Teacher Education (ILTE) is no exception and has underscored the incorporation of new conceptions to educate citizens (Schuck, et al., 2018; Vaillant, 2007). Teacher formation cannot longer rest on traditional assumptions deriving only from "how to" models (Schuck, et al., 2018).Complex visions of teachers' preparation are needed to respond to the realities of educational settings and of society. Consequently,

teacher education should revisit its configurations and conceptualizations under the light of these new complex visions to elucidate how to relate, connect and incorporate them to ILTE educational views.

Prior comprehensive literature reviews from diverse theoretical stances on ILTE research have explored the underlying nature of its conceptualizations and configurations (Calvo et al., 2004; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Ejea, 2007; Fandiño, Bermudez & Varela., 2016; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Loya, 2008; Parsons et al., 2018; Richards, 1998) showing how such understandings responded to different views. Previous literature has indicated that scholarship focuses on traditional components of ILTE programs: didactic subjects, planning, and evaluation under the light of normative and descriptive visions (Sjöberg, 2018; Stevahn & McGuire, 2017). Studies also addressed the competences needed to prepare students teachers (Gomez & Walker, 2020) as well as their lack of preparation to critically analyse "the conditions determining their work, especially in view

of current global and local policy trends" (Sjöberg, 2018, p. 604). Besides, research identified student teachers and teacher educators' need for experiential learning (Kershner & Hargreaves, 2012) and knowledge and skills to function in complex environments (Stevahn & McGuire, 2017). Another pinpointed need is "discussing and planning what is taught, why it is taught, how it is taught, and when it is taught to create a cohesive and integrated programme" (Stevahn & McGuire, 2017, p.318).

Scholarship recognises teachers' centrality to help achieve a nation's aims (Darling-Hammond, 2017; Fundación Compartir, 2014; Rubiano, 2013; Schuck, et al., 2018). Education is responsible for social adaptation in a society (Florez-Ochoa, 1999) therefore, it is important to understand education and TE from perspectives that can respond to challenging world dynamics and tackle varied, distinctive, and complex worldwide phenomena (Vaillant, 2007) that emerge in their classrooms (Darling-Hammond, 2006) and beyond. In this framework, the quality of teachers' learning (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999) during their initial education is paramount (Morante & Gómez, 2007; Vezub, 2007). Inasmuch, scholars, governments, and international agencies have been exploring strategies to improve the quality of education (Brown & Wisby, 2020) and teacher education. Aligned with these ideas, authors such as Garcia and Rosado (2021) suggest that the integration of complex epistemologies into ILTE could generate knowledge, skills and understandings to help teacher educators and student teachers "face variant, diverse, unique, and intricate phenomena (Vaillant, 2007)" (Garcia & Rosado, 2021, p. 282). In this sense, these authors indicated that ILTE "Programs should, for instance, demonstrate in their designs how multiple factors interconnect to influence teachers' learning thus ultimately affecting teacher quality" (p.282) in order to achieve this purpose.

In this review, we contribute to the literature in ILTE. First, with the identification of current understandings underlying ILTE conceptualizations and configurations. Second, by exploring whether such understandings are integrating or acknowledging complex perspectives. This is a theme worth exploring not only from the conceptual level, but also from the empirical one by analyzing research that is aiming at making improvements in ILTE programs. This view has the potential to reveal if and how researchers approach their teaching and learning processes in a cline from simplistic or holistic and integrative views.

In this framework, gathering and analysing research about what is being investigated in ILTE and how it is done constitutes valuable information that could serve as a springboard for analysis and discussion as well as input for decision-making of different stakeholders in relation to ILTE's conceptual and curricular foundations. Analysing studies on ILTE may reveal what components, whether explicit or tacit, are addressed and how they are being approached to improve teaching and learning processes in programs indicating their stance in a simplicity-complexity continuum.

Language Teacher Education Conceptualizations

Research in TE reveals the diversification and multidimensionality of teacher education programs and their conceptual orientations. A conceptual orientation refers to "a cluster of ideas about the goals of teacher preparation and the means for achieving them" (Feiman-Nemser, 1990), more specifically to "a coherent perspective on teaching, learning, and learning to teach that gives direction to the practical activities of educating teachers'' (p.6). Consequently, considering what components give directions to ILTE configurations and how those components are being acknowledged to improve the teaching and learning of student teachers becomes relevant.

Moore (2005) distinguishes three main discourses under which most language TE programs and their configurations have been framed: the craft model, the skill-based, that evolved into the "reflective practitioner discourse" (2005, p.4), and the "charismatic subject" model, that represented teachers as individuals with especial characteristics and a caring-oriented dimension for students (Teacher's attributions). Wallace (1991), also outlined three models. The first model refers to "someone who is expert in the practice of the craft. The young trainee learns by imitating the expert's techniques and by following the experts' instructions and advice" (p.6). Following this foundation, many TE programs have set courses for prospective teachers to imitate what the teacher master would say and do. The second model is grounded in "technical rationality" (Schön, 1987) or the "applied science model" (Wallace, 1991). Technical rationality is based on the concept that the best means should be chosen and used to achieve the proposed objectives. Wallace (1991), in reference to this model, states that "the whole issue of the practice of a profession is therefore merely *instrumental* in its nature" (p.8).

The third model proposed by Wallace is the Experiential model, which expands the *knowledge-in-acti*on concept introduced by Schön, as the practitioners' "thinking what they are doing while

they are doing it" (1987, xi), to produce knowledge from their own daily experiences and reflections. The knowledge received by pre-service teachers along with the previous experiential knowledge imply phases of reciprocal practice (experience) and carefully structured reflection to conduct professional practice. However, teachers need theoretical knowledge and reflections based on intentional inquiry of their own context; they also need knowledge of others for interrogating and interpreting teaching to "connect it to larger social, cultural, and political issues" (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999, p.250).

Other conceptualizations in ILTE, for example, Johnson's (2009), embrace a socio-cultural perspective in which "cognitive development is an interactive process, mediated by culture, context, language, and social interaction" (p.1). This represents a change in language teaching since "understanding the cognitive and social processes that teachers go through as they learn to teach is foundational to informing what we do in L2 teacher education" (Johnson, 2009, p.3). Similarly, Fandiño, Bermudez, Ramos, et al. (2016) advocate for ILTE models that empower teachers to work as intellectual transformers at the service of education and lead teachers to create their own practices, contents, and processes acknowledging their own and situated learning contexts. Accordingly, Fandiño et al. (2016) propose socio-cultural and critical models as reference for theoretical and methodological implementations thus permitting the inclusion of bottom-up decisions from all interested parties and contexts and reducing fragmented or partial views based on decontextualized assumptions in ILTE programs. For the purpose of offering a more comprehensive view of teacher preparation, Kumaravadivelu (2012) proposed the KARDS conceptual model (Knowledge, Analysing, Recognizing, Doing and Seeing) "that aims at interpreting the world of language teacher education in all its complexity and multidimensionality" (p.123) and calls for programs to strengthen professional, procedural and personal knowledge.Korthagen (2017) proposes the integration of "the cognitive perspective "and "the situated perspective". The first refers to relevant guidelines which are important to build representations of both theory and practice, and the second focuses on practical experiences in school contexts for teacher learning.

From the above conceptualizations, we have identified three areas. The first area is S*tudent teachers' learning which* addresses questions such as *What knowledge?How to teach? How do they Learn?* The second area, *Teacher as a Person,* refers to the way teachers are positioned by a particular conception and

addresses the question how *does a conception position or conceive the teacher?* (Stuart & M. Tatto, 2000). The third area addresses questions about *what are the particularities and influencing factors* in terms of *social, political and cultural* contexts where ILTE conceptualizations are embedded. With these ideas in mind, components of ILTE and how they have been addressed to do research were considered to reveal such conceptualizations. The questions posed are: What Language Teacher Education components have been researched? and How are these components being researched?

Method

To conduct the systematic review and answer the questions, three important stages were followed: issue identification, literature search and information gathering.

Issue Identification

This review started with the idea that ILTE conceptualizations have evolved and such evolution is reflected in the gradual recognition of other areas that affect teachers' learning, thus affecting their preparation. That is to say, there should be multiple factors which could be interrelated or not, explicit or tacit in ILTE configurations. Therefore, addressing other areas and the way such areas are tackled in research could provide indication of ILTE visions.

Searching the Literature

For the second stage, nine high impact journals ranked by the National Colombian System for Journal Publications (PUBLINDEX) were selected to assure the quality of studies. The initial selection focused on journals that published ILTE studies during a sustained publication timeline. As subsequent revision discarded three journals for their wide scope of publication, reducing the number to six journals (three ranked in Scopus) whose intentional focus on language teaching and learning made them pertinent for the review: *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development (Q1), Ikala, Revista de Lenguaje y Cultura (Q2), Revista Colombiana de Educación (Q3) , How Journal (MinCiencias Category B), Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal (MinCiencias Category B),* and *Revista Educación y Educadores (MinCiencias Category B).Revista Educación y Educadores* was excluded later because the articles were from other disciplines, one of the exclusion criteria. Figure 1 shows the percentage of articles included per journal.

Figure 1

Distribution of articles in journals
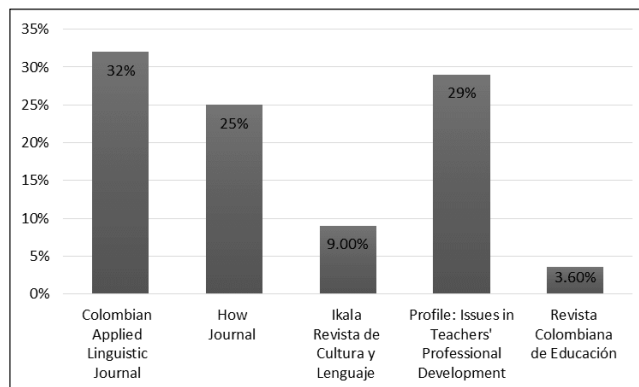
We revised each issue of the selected journals per year. Information about authors, titles, year, country, research purposes, research methodology, findings, and conclusions was systematized.Revising the methodology allowed the identification of the articles' research approach: qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods.

One inclusion criterion was that student teachers were subjects or participants in the studies. Therefore, the terms "initial teacher education", "student teachers", "prospective teachers" and "pre-service teacher education" "teacher candidates" were used to screen the articles. 97 articles were initially chosen. Another inclusion criterion was that articles were empirical studies. In a second revision, 24 theoretical or reflective studies and 18 related to other disciplines were discarded through abstract reading, reducing the number to 55 empirical studies, from the 5 journals listed previously. Inclusion criteria was limited to empirical studies, articles related to ILTE and student teachers as subjects of studies. Exclusion criteria applied to review and reflective studies and papers related to other disciplines.

Analysis

Articles were reviewed one by one to find information related to ILTE's main interests and how these were addressed. Selected empirical studies were placed in two categories:Student teacher knowledge base and Student teacher learning about teaching. In other words, whether researchers conducted the inquiry from a perspective that focused on just one category or on more than one aspect. Further analysis allowed classification of articles into finer subcategories.

Articles were also analysed to establish if authors declared whether their findings provided implications about student teachers' knowledge base and/or

student teachers' learning about teaching. The research aims were analysed to obtain their main focus. This helped identify the ILTE components being researched (e.g. practicum). The resulting information made evident that some components were not necessarily explicitly taken as part of ILTE configurations, e.g. beliefs, identity, as these areas do not make part of subject matters responding to the curriculum plan. Therefore, we classified them according to their level of explicitness as explicit or tacit. However, some studies had a combination, for example, practicum and beliefs. In these cases, it was necessary to determine the component and the connection (s) established around the research aims: What type of knowledge base were they addressing, teaching knowledge or disciplinary knowledge?Were they explicitly or tacitly addressing how student teachers learn?

Results

This section reports on the results of this study aiming at answering the research questions: 1) What Language Teacher Education components have been researched? and 2) How are these components being researched? Results on the first question also show the resulting categories emerged in the analysis: *Student Teachers' learning, Teacher as a Person, Socio-*cultural and Political Contexts and Explicit *and Tacit Components in ILTE Research*. For the second question, a further detailed analysis of studies on resulting categories and subcategories is presented.

Language Teacher Education components

Concerning the first question of this review: What language TE components have been researched? The analysis revealed that studies fell into one of three layers: Student teacher's learning, teacher as a person,

and socio-cultural and political contexts (see figure 2).Most studies focused on what student teacher's learning represents (67%), that is, the assumptions of what teacher conceptualization comprises. The second group of studies corresponds to positioning the teacher as a person (26%) and the third, socio-cultural and political contexts (7%) focuses on studying the field connected with the context.

Student Teachers' learning

In the Student Teachers' learning category, there are studies aiming at researching how to improve, explain or elucidate student teachers' learning how to teach, what to teach, and how they learn what they need to learn. Thirty-seven research articles focused on the question "where does knowledge come from and how is it learned?" In other words, the attention is on the interaction (IIIeris, 2007) of the learning process (interpersonal and societal) and is determined by specific orientations (transmissionist, modelling, experiential, etc.). Figure 3 shows the research lines in this area and the number of articles per line where most empirical studies are situated. Practicum, for instance, has the highest number with six studies.

Teacher as a Person
The second group of studies focused on some of the elements associated with the teacher as a person, namely, attitudes, beliefs, identity, needs, emotional

Figure 2

Elements in ILTE identified in the three layers of conceptualizations
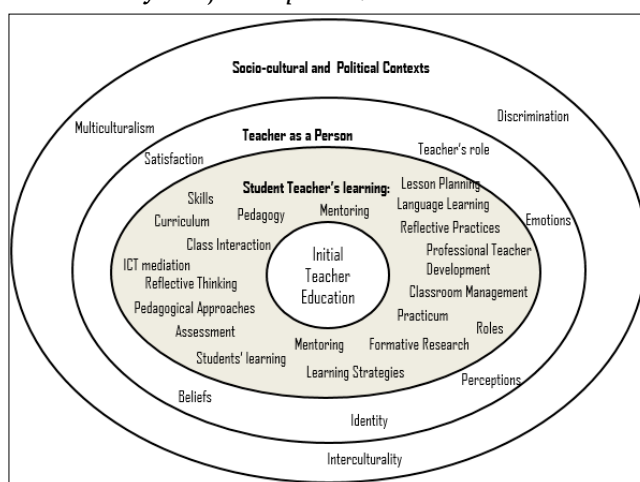
Figure 3

Research lines in student teachers' learning
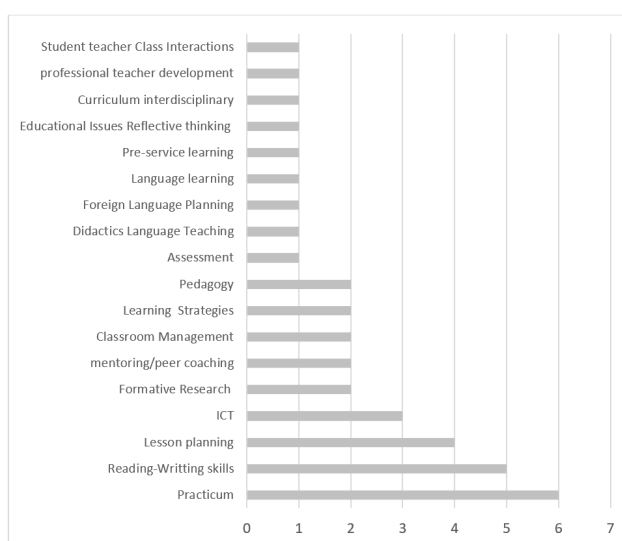
Note: These are the lines declared in studies reviewed.

and affective factors that are perceived to influence student teachers' learning, professional development, image, positioning, and identity. Figure 4 shows the research and the number of articles per line. Identity, for instance, represents the highest number with six studies.

Aligning with socio-cognitive theories of learning, some studies show that researchers are assuming teachers as active agents.In general, studies suggest the insufficiency of teachers' reflections on their practices in terms of techniques, lesson planning, and instructional practices to elucidate student teachers' learning. In articles reviewed, beliefs, perceptions, perspectives, and assumptions were studied to determine how they inform or influence teachers' educational practices.

Socio-cultural and Political Contexts

The third area comprises studies that focus on how *the context*, whether the school or the community affects ILTE at an interpersonal or societal level looking, for instance, at inclusion, exclusion, multiculturalism, and discrimination. There are four studies in this group. Figure 5 shows the research lines in *context* and the number of articles per line.

Explicit and Tacit Components in ILTE Research
Figure 4

Research lines acknowledging the teacher as a person

Out of the 55 studies, a total of 35 papers included both explicit and tacit components, 17 studies addressed an explicit component and 3 studies addressed a single tacit element (figure 6). The largest number of studies (35) still favour theoretical, technical and operational components in ILTE. However, sidelined components are emerging: Beliefs are assumed as important to reveal student teacher's roles in relation to their pedagogical and emotional influence on children (Aguirre, 2014), their own TE program (Ormeño & Rosas, 2015), theory implementation (e.g. critical literacy) and lesson planning (Gutierrez, 2015). Some studies focused on teachers' perceptions as a way to distinguish the development of key competences for student teachers, such as higher order thinking skills and reflective, research, knowledge transfer/integration, social, and self-management while experiencing a problem-based learning (Muñoz, 2017).

From the 35, other research focused on emotions and their effect on the practicum to develop an understanding of what student teachers experience during this process (Castañeda & Aguirre, 2018). Some studies explored intercultural issues (Granados, 2018; Viafara & Ariza, 2015) as well as skills needed to work with the communities of their school contexts (Lastra et al., 2018; Nieto, 2018).Other studies

Figure 5

Research lines for context

explored conceptions and misconceptions that may affect development of research for teaching (Reyes et al., 2017). Some studies reported teacher's development and factors affecting the practicum process (Morales, 2016) suggesting the relevance of emotions, the awareness of context, their students' conditions, process of reflection and actions, among other factors that had implications for student teachers learning. Some studies about assessment are starting to emerge (Giraldo & Murcia, 2019).

The 17 studies that focused on explicit curricular components were associated with the knowledge base: didactics, namely, lesson planning, practicum, research, language skills learning, teacher and student roles, assessment, mentoring, tutoring, internet mediation, classroom management, CLIL methodologies, reflective practices, and curriculum (subject matter, content, general pedagogical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1987)). And the three remaining studies focused on one single component: identity.

How the components are being researched

The analysis to determine the focus of each study showed they could simultaneously represent more than one area of conceptualization and various degrees of explicitness of curricular components in research issues. Categories and subcategories for analysis allowed the identification of studies' main focuses and the areas of conceptualization.Table 1 presents the resulting classification of categories and subcategories.

Detailed analysis of selected articles revealed that 45 studies connected from one to three components in their ILTE investigation scope. 10 studies focused on the interconnections of more than three components. These studies became the focus of our attention. Additionally, as it has been explained, thirty-seven studies have explicit and tacit components, which implies that they naturally targeted one or two of the subcategories from either student teacher knowledge or teacher learning about teaching. This finding is not unexpected since issues studies are necessarily connected to one part of the configured elements in ILTE.

Interestingly, there were ten studies, which inquired into a particular issue by focusing on a variety of components related to student teacher knowledge or teacher learning about teaching (See table 2).They approached such components explicitly or tacitly.

As mentioned earlier, articles in table 2 addressed both explicit and tacit components that became crucial to attend in classroom actions. From these ten **Figure 6**

articles, one focused on six components and nine focused on five components. Some studies targeted *student teacher's learning* impacting knowledge about

Explicit and tacit components in ILTE research
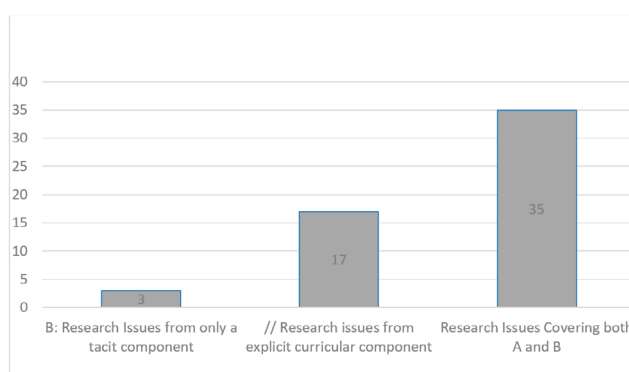
Table 1

Categories targeted in the studies

Student teacher knowledge base		Student teacher learning about teaching	
Teacher's knowledge about teaching	Teacher disciplinary knowledge	Student teachers' learninghowto teach	Teacher education practices

Table 2

ILTE research that focus on integrated components

Articles and authors	Explicit and non-explicit components		Student teacher knowledge base		Teacher learning about teaching	
	Explicit components	A wider perspective for a tacit component	Teacher's knowledge about teaching	Teacher disciplinary knowledge	Student teachers' learninghowto teach	Teacher education practices
Pre-Service English Teachers' Voices About the Teaching Practicum. Castañeda & Aguirre (2017)	x	x	x	x	x	x
EFL student teachers' learning in a peer-tutoring research study group. Viáfara (2014)	x		x	x	x	x
Preparing Net Gen pre-service teachers for digital native classrooms. Ekiaka Nzai et al. (2014)	x	x	x		x	x
Creencias acerca del aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera en un programa de formación inicial de profesores de inglés en Chile. Ormeño & Rosas (2015)	x	x	x		x	x
Action research processes in a foreign language teaching program: Voices from inside. Guerra et al. (2015)	x	x	x	x	x	
Beliefs, attitudes, and reflections of EFL pre-service teachers while exploring critical literacy theories to prepare and implement critical lessons. Gutiérrez (2015)	x	x	x	x	x	
Community based pedagogy as an eye–opening for pre-service teachers' initial connections with the school curriculum. Lastra et al. (2018)	x	x	x	x	x	
Content- and Language-Integrated Learning- Based Strategies for the Professional Development of Early Childhood Education Pre-Service Teachers. Alvira & González.(2017)	x	x	x	x	x	
Problem-Based Learning: An Experiential Strategy for English Language Teacher Education in Chile. Muñoz. (2017)	x	x	x	x		x
The Pedagogical Practicum Journey Towards Becoming an English Language Teacher. Lucero & Roncancio (2019)	x	x	x	x	x	

teaching and pedagogy as well as experiences of student teachers' learning about teaching.Other studies researched student teachers' knowledge base about teaching and disciplinary areas taking into account perceptions, conceptions, and beliefs. Studies are embracing the interrelated and interconnected nature of learning processes in ILTE. Despite the low tendency, this number may reflect the gradual acknowledgement from researchers of the holistic nature of ILTE as they have started to study issues from a more multidimensional view These are important elements to interpret findings from a more holistic view.

Discussion

Results of the research questions in relation to the components of ILTE and how they are being researched to improve teachers' preparation, were framed into three specific layers, namely student teacher's learning, teacher as a person, and socio-cultural and political contexts.

The analysis identified a large group of 35 studies that connect explicit and tacit elements. Additionally, from those 35 studies, 10 embraced more open visions of what student teachers' learning implies by acknowledging an interrelation of elements in such learning (i.e. identity, beliefs) and their connections with how to teach and how they learn what they need to teach.The second major group, 17 studies, focus on *what work best* for knowledge, skills, and routines. They framed their studies in linear perspectives. Lastly, 3 studies examined a non-explicit component: identity, highlighting the important meaning for student teachers' professional growth in ILTE.

Within the scope of this review, findings for the first research question in relation to the components of ILTE confirmed Sjöberg (2018) and Stevahn and McGuire (2017) ideas that traditional components such as didactic subjects, how to plan, implement, and evaluate are still at the forefront in ILTE research suggesting the presence of a strong technical-orientation in current configurations (See figure 2 layer 1). However, attention to *learning* in relation to emotions, beliefs, perceptions, psychological needs, have started to emerge. The review identified several studies in the second layer related to *how does a conception position a teacher?* (See figure 2). Elements such as beliefs and identity are identified as fundamental to understand student teachers' learning (Villareal et al., 2020).

Findings show the scarcity of studies related to how the context influences student teachers and the context changing nature (Livingston, 2017) (see figure 2, socio-cultural and political layer). This dearth of articles could be indicative of the difficulties to understand or make research in this area as well as how these issues can be connected to actions in classrooms that deal with learning how to teach the language. This finding coincides with elaborations by Elen and Clark (2006) in relation to the need to research other key multilevel components which have been neglected, however, critical to understand learning and teaching. Recognizing and researching the said components will increase student teachers' preparedness to analyse critically, as indicated by Sjöberg (2018), the circumstances influencing their work, framed in local and international policy shifts, thus facilitating situated teaching and learning and reducing instrumentalized views of ILTE. Additionally, the findings concur with ideas from Stevahn and McGuire (2017) that schools of education should consider not only what and how, but also for whom and when to generate more integration of components.

In relation to the second question on how components were researched, findings show that although issues are largely studied under fragmented views, there is an increasing number of studies tackling components as interrelated and interconnected affecting the teaching and learning processes recursively. For instance, Castañeda and Aguirre (2017) addressed six components in ILTE by studying the practicum and integrating this explicit element with pre-service voices (reflections) to unveil their influence on all components: how to teach, knowledge about teaching, their language competence as well as TE practices. Their findings connect ILTE as a whole interrelating and integrating elements to improve curriculum decisions and enhance learning. It connects the learning how to teach with the classroom and the local context, mentors, partners, and their own reflections as decisive elements to improve learning in ILTE programs providing different "perspectives of what language teaching means" (p.169). Ormeño and Rosas (2015) studied beliefs and their influence in language teaching and learning processes. The study connected their beliefs to learning how to teach as well as to knowledge about teaching (pedagogy and didactics) framed in specific contexts. According to the authors, these perceptions should be considered to determine the ILTE contents. This tacit component (e.g. beliefs) is made visible as key for the curriculum in teacher preparation.

Additionally, within a multiple case study, Guerra et al. (2015) highlighted how the connection between ILTE programs and schools can be enhanced by collaboration and engagement, and to simultaneously support teachers' learning. This study about the practicum was framed from a perspective that gives voices to participants assuming they are within a community. The authors concluded that personal dimensions played an important role in participants' beliefs and actions. The study suggested that participant integration needs to be bounded to improve teacher learning, not only academically but also personally.

This finding suggests growing understandings of ILTE complexity. Underlying this, it is the appreciation of education, and particularly of ILTE, as a complex phenomenon, in the sense of Cochran-Smith et al.'s (2014) assumption that "It may be, however, that what is needed are new research questions and theoretical frameworks that account for wholes, not just parts, and take complex, rather than reductionist perspectives" (p. 1). There is gradual acknowledgement of other components beyond what constitutes a skillful teacher in ILTE configurations. In line with this, the call is for more integrative views of ILTE to advance towards its improvement (Garcia & Rosado, 2021).

Another important issue is the blurry boundary between research into teaching and research into ILTE (Clandini & Husu, 2017). Identification of the focus of studies made evident the difficulty in distinguishing whether the point of interest was student teacher's learning or how to best teach a skill (Nieto, 2018; Porras et al., 2018). Nonetheless, acknowledgement of ILTE as a whole and how the goals and means could be studied and implemented from a more holistic and multidimensional view were evident. Figure 8 shows what a conceptual orientation may imply in terms of three dimensions delineated in the theoretical framework, suggesting the need to interrelate and connect them to underscore the complexity of ILTE. Teacher preparation needs comprehensive stances that better equip prospective teachers to face their educational realities and this comprehension should be also directed in practice.

As mentioned earlier, ten studies from the review instantiated broader perspectives that could be represented. In these studies, the concept of the whole of ILTE is assumed as an interconnected process that gives importance to each part's role and to parts' relations to one another to understand the outcomes of the whole.

Implications

Although, most articles in these journals are framed into the Colombian and Latin-American context, these findings could be helpful for researchers and teacher educators aiming at improving and discussing ILTE assumptions and at recognizing the intricacies of educating teachers for complex educational scenarios.

These findings could help trace how teacher education components and their articulation infuse prospective teachers' responses to problems, decision-making and professional growth in multiplicity of school contexts and occurrences. Evidence from the analysis of empirical studies may reveal what is currently occurring and emerging in ILTE scenarios.

These findings are limited to pre-service teachers in the Colombian context. Therefore, it would be important for further studies to consider teacher educators and mentor teachers to expand knowledge about components in ILTE as well as include other educational contexts.

Conclusion

This review focused on what ILTE components have been researched and how they are being researched in recent and relevant literature. The review revealed research has developed mainly from a fragmented vision thus underrepresenting the complexities ILTE comprises and affecting the quality of student teachers' preparation. It also revealed that research into contextual elements affecting student teachers' learning, an aspect which had been previously neglected in ILTE configurations, have started to be recognized as part of ILTE educational scenarios.

Another gradual change detected is the increasing number of studies addressing both explicit and tacit elements affecting learning processes. However, curricular components that represent the society's perspectives and visions of high-quality teaching are still missing. Although ten studies started to use integrative perspectives to study ILTE issues, there is still a focus on singular components or parts without assuming ILTE as a complex whole.

As extensively discussed in the literature, current societal challenges require ILTE to move beyond traditional perspectives to incorporate more components that have been found to impact and influence teacher's learning and development. Such integral teacher education would, in turn, respond to

needs in situated teaching contexts enabling students' teachers to face classroom teaching practice challenges affecting ILTE, such as multiculturalism, bullying, racism, inequity, among other issues represented and expressed by students and other agents in school contexts.

Results from this review identified studies that may contribute to better understand how the interconnected nature of ILTE works in action in order to improve it. Our hope is that such findings could help other teacher educators, program designers and practitioners identify components that could be incorporated in their programs and research agendas. Therefore, an important question is how teacher educators' understanding of their own classroom actions can be more tractable to help improve ILTE. This review could serve as a springboard to pose further questions about what ILTE components can reveal about the nature of conceptualizations and how they could be configured and addressed to recognize their interrelated and interconnected nature in particular ILTE programs.

Acknowledgements

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Aguirre, S. I. (2014). Exploring pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs about their roles in an elementary school classroom regarding pedagogical and emotional aspects of students. *How, 21*(1), 26–41. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.21.1.13

Alarcón, H. P., Díaz, L. C., Vásquez, V., & Venegas, C. C. (2018). Preservice teachers' conceptual metaphors on the lesson planning process. *Íkala, 23*(1), 65-81. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v23n01a06

Alvira, R., & González, Y. L. (2017). Content- and language-integrated learning- based strategies for the professional development of early childhood education pre-service teachers. *Ikala, 23*(1), 45–64. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v23n01a05

Archanjo, R., Barahona, M., & Finardi, K. R. (2019). Identity of foreign language pre-service teachers to speakers of other languages: Insights from Brazil and Chile. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 1*(21), 62–75. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.14086

Arismendi, F. A., Ramirez, D., & Arias, S. (2016). Language Representations of a group of Indigenous Students in a Language Teacher Education Program. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 18*(1), 84. https://doi.org/10.14483/calj.v18n1.8598

Brown, A., & Wisby, E. (Eds.). (2020). *Knowledge, policy and practice in education and the struggle for social justice: Essays inspired by the work of geoff whitty*. UCL Press. http://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctv13xpshq

Calvo, G., Rendón, D., & Rojas, L. (2004). Un diagnóstico de la formación docente en Colombia [A diagnosis of teacher training in Colombia]. *Revista Colombiana de Educación*, (47), 1–15. https://doi.org/10.17227/01203916.5519

Castañeda, H. A. (2018). Architectures of social aspects in the pedagogical practice of professors in foreign language formation. *Revista Colombiana de Educación, 75*, 139–158. https://doi.org/10.17227/rce.num75-8106

Castañeda, T., J. E., & Aguirre, H. A. J. (2017). Pre-Service English teachers' voices about the teaching practicum. *How, 25*(2018), 156–173. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.19183/how.25.1.420

Castro, G. A. Y., & López, O. S. F. (2014). Communication strategies used by pre-service English teachers of different proficiency levels. *HOW, 21*(1), 10-25. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.21.1.12

Clandini, J., & Husu, J. (2017). Mapping an international handbook of research in and for teacher education. In *The SAGE handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 1–22). SAGE publications. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526402042.n1

Cochran-Smith, M, & Zeichner, K. (Eds.). (2005). Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. L. (1999). Relationships of knowledge and practice: Teacher learning in communities. *Review of Research in Education, 24*, 249–305. https://doi.org/10.3102/0091732x024001249

Cochran-Smith, M., Ell, F., Grudnoff, L., Ludlow, L., Haigh, M., & Hill, M. (2014). When complexity theory meets critical realism: A platform for research on initial teacher education. Teacher Education Quarterly, 41(1), 105–122.

Correa, D., & Echeverri, S. (2017). Using a systemic functional genre-based approach to promote a situated view of academic writing among EFL pre-service teachers. *How, 24*(1), 44–62. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.24.1.303

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st-century teacher education. *Journal of*

Teacher Education, 57(3), 300–314. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022487105285962

Darling-Hammond, L. (2017). Teacher education around the world: What can we learn from international practice? *European Journal of Teacher Education, 40*(3), 291–309. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1315399

Díaz, C., González, G., Jara, R. L. I., & Muñoz-Parra, J. A. (2018). Validation of a classroom management questionnaire for pre and inservice teachers of English. *Revista Colombiana de Educación, 75*, 263–285. https://doi.org/10.17227/rce.num75-8111

Díaz, L. C., Ramos, L.L., & Ortiz, N. M. (2017). Rhetorical, metacognitive, and cognitive strategies in teacher candidates' essay writing. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 19*(2), 87–100. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v19n2.60231

Ejea, G. (2007). *Sobre prácticas docentes, modelos educativos y evaluación* [On teaching practices, educational models and evaluation] (pp. 1–26). Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México UNAM.

Ekiaka Nzai, V., Feng, Y.-L., & Reyna, C. (2014). Preparing Net Gen pre-service teachers for digital native classrooms. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 16*(2), 185. https://doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2014.2.a04

Elen, J., & Clark, R. (2006). *Handling complexity in learning environments: Theory and research.* Elsevier.

Fajardo, J., & Miranda, I. (2015). The paradox of the practicum: Affinity to and resistance towards Teaching. *Ikala, 20*(3), 329–341. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v20n3a04

Fandiño, P. Y., Bermúdez, J. J., & Varela, S. L. (2016). Teacher's education on mother tongue and foreign languages: A call for the professional development through empowering. R*evista Virtual Universidad Católica Del Norte, 1*(47), 38-63–63.

Fandiño, P. Y., Bermúdez, J., Ramos, B., & Arenas, J. (2016). New Discourses on Native and Foreign Language Training for Teachers in Colombia. *Educación y Educadores, 19*(1), 46–64. https://doi.org/10.5294/edu.2016.19.1.3

Farías, M., & Véliz, L. (2019). Multimodal texts in Chilean English teaching education: Experiences from educators and pre-service teachers. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 21*(2), 13–27. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v21n2.75172

Feiman-Nemser, S. (1990). Conceptual orientations in teacher education issue. *National Center for Research on Teacher Education, 90*(2), 1–23.

Firat, M., & Serpil, H. (2017). Comparing the internet usage of pre-service language teachers with teachers of other subjects: Distance learning vs. on-campus learning. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 19*(1), 55. https://doi.

org/10.15446/profile.v19n1.54184

Florez-Ochoa, R. (1999). *Evaluación pedagógica y cognición* [Pedagogical assessment and cognition]. McGraw-Hill

Fundación Compartir. (2014). *Tras la excelencia docente Cómo mejorar la calidad de la educación para todos los colombianos* [In pursuit of teaching excellence How to improve the quality of education for all Colombians]. Puntoaparte.

Garcia, Ch. M.C., & Rosado, M. N. (2021). Embracing conceptualizations of English language teacher education from a complexity perspective. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 23*(2), 281-295. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v23n2.82765

Giraldo, F., & Murcia, D. (2019). Assessment literacy and the professional development of pre-service language teachers. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 21*(2). https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004

Gómez, B. E., & Walker, W. (2020). Modernizing English teacher education in Chile: A case study from a southern university. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 22*(1). https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.14638

Gómez, E. (2017). Use of the genre-based approach to teach expository essays to English pedagogy students. *How, 24*(2), 141–159. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.24.2.330

Granados, B. C. (2016). Critical interculturality. A path for pre-service ELT teachers. *Ikala, 21*(2), 171–187. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v21n02a04

Guapacha, Ch. M. E., & Benavidez, P. L. H. (2017). Improving language learning strategies and performance of pre-service language teachers through a calla-TBLT model. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 19*(2), 101-120. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v19n2.57581

Guerra, J. C., Rodriguez, Z., & Diaz, C. (2015). Action research processes in a foreign language teaching program: Voices from inside. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 17*(2), 276–289. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2015.2.a07

Gutierrez, C. (2015). Beliefs, attitudes, and reflections of EFL pre-service teachers while exploring critical literacy theories to prepare and implement critical lessons. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 17*(2), 179–192.http://dx.doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2015.2.a01

IIIeris, K. (2007). *How we learn - Learning and non-learning in school and beyond.* Routledge.

Johnson, K. (2009). Trends in second language teacher education. In A. Burns & J. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education* (pp. 20–30). Cambridge University Press.

Kaneko, M. S. M. (2015). Reflective teacher supervision through videos of classroom teaching. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 17*(2), 63–79. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v17n2.44393

Kershner, R., & Hargreaves, L. (2012). Student teachers' distinctive contributions to research on primary school children's beliefs about knowledge and knowing. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 38*(3), 275–293. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2012.668332

Korthagen, F. (2017). A foundation for effective teacher education: Teacher education pedagogy based on situated learning. *The SAGE handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 528-544). SAGE. http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781526402042.n30

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). TESOL Methods: Changing tracks, challenging trends. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(1), 59–81. TESOL.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2012). *Language Teacher education for a global society a modular model for knowing, analyzing, recognizing, doing, and seeing*. Routledge.

Lastra, S. P., Durán, N. C., & Acosta, D. (2018). Community based pedagogy as an eye – opening for pre-service teachers' initial connections with the school curriculum. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 20*(2), 209–229. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.13047

Livingston, K. (2017). The complexity of learning and teaching: Challenges for teacher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 40*(2), 141–143. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1296535

López, R. F. (1997). Complejidad y educación. [Complexity and Education]. R*evista Española de Pedagogía, 55*(206), 103–112.

Loya, H. (2008). Los modelos pedagógicos en la formación de profesores [Pedagogical Models in Teacher Training]. *Revista Iberoamericana de Educación, 46*(3), 6. https://rieoei.org/RIE/article/view/1996

Lucero, E., & Roncancio, C.K. (2019). The pedagogical practicum journey towards becoming an English language teacher. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 21*(1), 173–185. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v21n1.71300

Lucero, E., & Rouse, M. (2017). Classroom interaction in ELTE undergraduate programs: Characteristics and pedagogical implications. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 19*(2), 193–208. http://dx.doi.org/10.14483/22487085.10801

Macías, D. F., & Sánchez, J. A. (2015). Classroom management: A persistent challenge for pre-service foreign language teachers. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 17*(2), 81–99. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v17n2.43641

Martin, A. (2016). Second language teacher education in the expanding circle: The EFL methodology course in Chile. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 18*(1), 24–42. http://dx.doi.org/10.14483/calj.v18n1.9471

Martínez, M. (2016). Educational research in the Undergraduate Foreign Language Teaching Program at Universidad de Pamplona. *Ikala, 21*(2), 227–236. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala.v21n02a08

Méndez, L. M. G. (2020). Emotions attributions of ELT pre-service teachers and their effects on teaching practice. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 22*(1), 15-28. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v22n1.78613

Mendez, P. E., & Bonilla, X. (2016). Design, implementation and evaluation of teaching practices in a Bachelor program with emphasis in English. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 18*(2), 49. https://doi.org/10.14483/calj.v18n2.8197

Moore, A. (2004). *The good teacher: Dominant discourses in teacher education* (1st ed.). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203420270

Morales, C.Y. A. (2016). Unveiling pre-service teachers' attitudes toward teaching: The role of pedagogical practicums. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 18*(2), 47. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v18n2.49591

Morante, J., & Gómez, A. (2007). Do the policies and practices of teacher education serve to improve education? A response based on the analysis of the social construction of teaching. *Archivos Analíticos de Políticas Educativas, 15*(19), 1–25. https://www.redalyc.org/articulo.oa?id=275020546019

Muñoz, D. (2017). Problem-based learning: An experiential strategy for English language teacher education in Chile. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 19*(1), 29–40.

Nieto, G.Y. A. (2018). Promoting the use of local literacies in EFL pre-service teachers to inspire their teaching practice. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 20*(2), 249–263. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.13005

Obando, G., & Sánchez, A. (2018). Learners' satisfaction in two foreign language teacher education programs: Are we doing our homework? *How, 25*(1), 135–155. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.25.1.436

Ormeño, V., & Rosas, M. (2015). Beliefs about foreign language learning in an initial teacher education program in Chile. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 17*(2), 207–228. https://doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2015.2.a03

Oviedo, G. H. H., & Álvarez, G. H. A. (2019). The contribution of customized lessons with cultural content in the learning of EFL among undergraduates. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 1*(21), 15–43.

https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.11877

Parsons, S. A., Vaughn, M., Scales, R. Q., Gallagher, M. A., Parsons, A. W., Davis, S. G., Pierczynski, M., & Allen, M. (2018). Teachers' instructional adaptations: A research synthesis. *Review of Educational Research, 88*(2), 205–242. https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654317743198

Peñaloza, A. C., & Vasquez, G. J. (2019). Reflections on educational issues among modern language students. *HOW, 26*(1), 129-151. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.26.1.500

Pinzón, C. S. V., & Guerrero, N. C. H. (2018). Living the teaching practicum within dichotomies: The story from within when implementing ICTs in the English language classroom. *How, 25*(2), 69–89. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.25.2.459

Porras, N. I., Díaz, L. S., & Nieves, M. M. (2018). Reverse mentoring and peer coaching as professional development strategies. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 20*(2), 169–183. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.12422

Quintero, Á. (2016). Creating a pedagogical space that fosters the (Re) construction of self through life stories of pre-service English language teachers. *How, 23*(2), 106–124. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.23.2.293

Quiroz, P. R. E., & Díaz, M. A. E. (2019). Complaints and expectations of students of Bachelor of Arts in foreign language regarding English classes: A case study from the perspective of critical discourse analysis. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 21*(2), 260–275. https://doi.org/10.14483/22487085.14065

Reyes, M. D. R., Rueda, L. I., & Murrieta, G. (2017). Undergraduate pre-service EFL teachers' conceptions of research: A quantitative analysis. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 19*(1), 67. https://doi.org/10.14483/calj.v19n1.10534

Richards, J. (1998). *Beyond training: Approaches to teacher education in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Rubiano, C. I. (2013). A critical exploration of Colombian teacher education from Freire's "directivity" perspective. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 39*(5), 574–589. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2013.836341

Saavedra, J.P. A., & Campos, E. M. (2019). Chilean pre-service Teachers' perceptions towards benefits and challenges of EFL writing portfolios. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 21*(2), 79-96. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v21n2.73116

Salas, M. D. (2015). Developing the metacognitive skill of noticing the gap through self-transcribing: The case of students enrolled in an ELT training program in Chile. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 17*(2), 260. https://doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2015.2.a06

Salinas, D., & Ayala, M. (2018). EFL student-teachers' identity construction: a case study in Chile. *How, 25*(1), 33–49. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.19183/how.25.1.380

San Martín, M. G. (2018). Scaffolding the learning-to-teach process: A study in an EFL teacher education programme in Argentina. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 20*(1), 121–134. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v20n1.63032

Sarasa, M. C. (2017). A narrative inquiry into pre-service English teachers' temporal investments in their initial education curriculum. *How, 24*(1), 27–43. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.24.1.337

Schön, D. A. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions*. Jossey-Bass higher education series.

Schuck, S., Aubusson, P., Burden, K., & Brindley, S. (2018). *Uncertainty in teacher education futures*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-8246-7

Serna, G. J. I. O., & Mora, P. I. (2018). Critical incidents of transnational student-teachers in Central Mexico. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 20*(1), 137–150. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v20n1.62860

Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*. https://doi.org/10.1007/SpringerReference_17273

Sjöberg, L. (2018). The shaping of pre-service teachers' professional knowledge base through assessments. *European Journal of Teacher Education, 41*(5), 604–619. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2018.1529751

Stevahn, L., & McGuire, M. E. (2017). The plot thickens: supporting pre-service teachers in authentic use of cooperative learning through the storypath instructional approach. *Journal of Education for Teaching, 43*(3), 316–327. https://doi.org/10.1080/02607476.2017.1321674

Stuart, J. S., & M. Tatto. (2000). Designs for initial teacher preparation programs: An international view. *International Journal of Educational Research, 33*, 493–514. Elsevier

Suárez, F. S. A., & Basto, B.E. A. (2017). Identifying pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching EFL and their potential changes. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 19*(2), 167–184. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v19n2.59675

Telles, Q. N., Inostroza, A. M.-J., & Rosas, M. M. (2019). points of improvement: Reflective strategy to support Chilean EFL pre-service teachers' lesson planning. *How, 26*(2), 88–105. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.26.2.498

Vaillant, D. (2007). Do initial and continuing

professional development sufficiently prepare teachers to understand and cope with the complexities of today and tomorrow's education? *Journal of Educational Change, 8*(2), 175–179. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-007-9028-8

Vanegas, M., Fernández, J., Gonzalez, Y., Jaramillo, G., Muñoz, L., & Rios, C. (2016). Linguistic discrimination in an English language teaching program: Voices of the invisible others. *Ikala, 21*(2), 133–151. https://doi.org/10.17533/udea.ikala. v21n02a02

Velázquez, V., & García, P.E. E. (2018). Foreign language planning: The case of a teacher/translator training programme at a Mexican University. *Profile: Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 20*(2), 79–94. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v20n2.65609

Vezub, L. (2007). Teacher Training and Professional Development faced to the new challenges posed by the school system. *Profesorado. Revista de Curriculum y Formación de Profesores, 11*(1), 1–23.

Viafara, G. J. J., & Ariza, A. J. A. (2015). From awareness to cultural agency: EFL Colombian student teachers' travelling abroad experiences. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development, 17*(1), 123–141. https://doi.org/10.15446/profile.v17n1.39499

Viáfara, J. J. (2014). EFL student teachers' learning in a peer-tutoring research study group. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 13*(1), 201–212. https://doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2014.2.a05

Viáfara, J. J. (2016). "I 'm missing something": (Non) Nativeness in prospective teachers as Spanish and English speakers. *Colombian Applied. Linguistics Journal, 18*(2), 11–24. https://doi.org/http://dx.doi.org/10.14483/calj.v18n2.9477

Villarrelal, B. A., Moreno, I. O. M., & Flores, D. L. (2020). Teaching is not always easy: Mexican pre-service English teachers' beliefs on teaching and learning. *Journal of Language and Education, 6*(3), 36–51. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2020.10116

Villegas, T. P., & Mora, P. I. (2018). The role of language in the identity formation of transnational EFL teachers. *HOW, 25*(2), 11–27. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.25.2.418.

Wallace, M. (1991). *Training foreign language teachers: A reflective approach*. Cambridge University Press.

The Missing Course. Everything They Never Taught You about College Teaching: A Book Review

Louie Giray[ID]

Polytechnic University of the Philippines

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Louie Giray, Department of Secondary Education at Polytechnic University of the Philippines, Taguig City, Philippines.
E-mail: lggiray@pup.edu.ph

Though experts in their respective specializations, many professors do not have much background in teaching-learning process, and they do not possess sufficient educational strategies fitting for college students. This is evident in many student feedback and is lamented by the stakeholders in the academe. If neglected, this can detrimentally impact not only the value of higher education but also the future of college students who prospectively are the leaders of the present generation. College teaching is not about merely conveying the material to students. To be successful in this field entails more than the capacity to lecture. This calls for professors to refocus on what is the most important—the students. Meanwhile, throughout the review, the term professors shall be utilized to refer to the members of the faculty at a college or university.

David Gooblar is an assistant professor at the University of Iowa. Before that, he was the Associate Director of Temple University's Center for the Advancement of Teaching. His present research concentrates on higher education and teaching practices. Gooblar is the author of The Missing Course, inspired by the realization that most graduate students receive little to nonexistent instruction on pedagogy. Believing that all academics must be brilliant teachers, he crafts this book to help the teaching staff at the university level.

Chapter 1 notes that teachers cannot make students learn for learning is an internal and active process that should be done by learners themselves. It is reminiscent of the popular adage, "You can lead the horse to war, but can never make it drink." Indeed, professors can never make them learn; what former can do is to help and guide only. Gooblar, hence, advises professors to utilize active learning strategies like discussion and groupwork activities to promote enthusiastic learning. This can lead to a high participation classroom, which is supportive and safe for questions and feedback.

However, the mentioned strategies do not work well all the time; professors should be prepared and mindful about problems like free riding and sucker

effect (Davis, 2009). He suggests beginning the class with a discussion question. The use of lecture is still fine, but it should make students gain understanding, not just facts. To reinforce its conduciveness, it must be well designed, interactive, and engaging to support varied learning styles (Cox & Rogers, 2005). Focusing on skills first than content, he asserts no matter what a professor is teaching, students are the real subjects—the individuals which professors must help.

Chapter 2 recommends making students partners with the professors in the course. First, professors should market their syllabus with fundamental and fascinating problems, and relevance to students' lives. To facilitate that, professors must be conscious of the recently crafted framework of personal meaningfulness by Priniski and colleagues (2018), which pinpoints three types of relevance: (1) personal association; (2) personal usefulness; and (3) identification. These can be helpful to put forward sense-making and appreciation in lessons. Professors must help students learn for themselves, not just to satisfy requirements. If students just continually work just because someone asked them to do it, then they may not realize the value of the skills they are practicing. Worst, they may not be able put forward self-determination in learning, which is requisite in life and in work.

Since professors are in a position of power, if not conscious enough, they may commit abuses of power like disinhibition, objectification, and entitlement to their students (Giray, 2021a). Democratization, learner autonomy, and the avoidance of traditional teacher persona must be emphasized. Students should be given tools to adjust their learning through metacognition. Not only that these can help make professors' lives easier, but they can also understand themselves more as they traverse in their learning journey. Midway through the semester, Gooblar encourages midterm diagnostic evaluation and open discussion on the course's progress. At the end of the course, professors can make students assess themselves, such as their habits of thinking and study practices.

Chapter 3 discusses how professors may enhance their craft by placing students' experiences first and capitalizing on studies in the learning sciences. There are various fallacies and pseudoscience in the field of education that, if not, dealt properly by professors, may detrimentally affect learning. Hence, they should be aware more than anyone else since they are entrusted in terms of facilitation of learning. Plus, if professors know also how to help students practice their skills using research-based strategies like

spacing, interleaving, and variability (Brown et al., 2014), then one can expect that students are in proper hands (see Giray, 2021b).

Moreover, it is recommended that professors deliberately create desirable difficulties for students; the effective usage of tests can be helpful here. If the academic task is too easy, they will be bored. If it is too hard, they may end up being powerless and frustrated. The key is to balance the difficulties given to students so they will be challenged and hence improve. Further, using a list of course readings can make students reinforce their learning, professors can accompany it with reading quizzes. This is pivotal to support their learning and so they will not the be dependent on the professors' dictation. If enthusiastic, they can read in advance. Professors must bear in mind that once reading is done, then there must be a test comprehension and connection also so that learning becomes deeper.

Asserting the coherence between course goals and assignments, Gooblar contends that clear expectations and using student language must manifest in assignments. The problem is many professors just provide course materials using still the jargon used among professors. Providing example work is good, also. This is to help students grasp concretely the task and to emulate its positive features. He also puts forward peer review as a tool to improve student work; through that, they can receive other perspectives which help build scholarly camaraderie among students.

Chapter 4 contends that professors should be flexible when dealing with students, most especially that they will encounter various types of students. For instance, students with disabilities, physical or mental, should be given accommodations. They have a hard time adjusting the higher education environment and have a high attrition rate (Adams & Proctor, 2010). This is not to excuse people from learning; rather, it is to encourage them to do so. Professors frequently make accommodations, even for students who do not have special needs, without realizing it; for example, reviewing before major examinations, utilizing presentations, and so on. The more the professors respond to a range of student needs, the more learning is reinforced.

To understand students' preconceptions, professors are advised to conduct surveys about the subject matter and to self-assess their strengths and weaknesses. Gooblar encourages the formation of a collaborative community in the class; some ways are for students to share individual learning goals, talking

about non-academic interests. Deviating from serious and formal tone and shifting to casual conversations can spark deep conversations that are also important to their development. This can remind that they are not task-answering machines and fortifies the human in them. Groupwork can also encourage interdependence. This interdependence is an important skill that is necessary to hone since it is ubiquitously needed in life and at work. All this pinpoint that students must have a space where they are allowed to become themselves.

Chapter 5 argues that providing thoughtful feedback on student work transforms them into independent learners. When professors do not give feedback to students, the students will have a difficulty to progress. Hence, taking time to undertake this shall help both parties attain quality results in learning. Gooblar suggests following a feedback loop for learning facilitation: (1) the student tries and fails; (2) the teacher detects the error and helps the student comprehend why a failure occurred; and (3) the student makes a correction, and the cycle continues. Furthermore, he contends that genuine learning comes from practice and awareness of past mistakes. Hence, professors should give them space to undertake such activities. Surely, helping students understand that concept may mitigate cheating since they realize the value of challenges in learning. The probability of students resorting to illicit shortcuts may decrease. Through the feedback system, students compare their status from their previous performance, not with their contemporaries.

Reviewing test results by small groups, wrong-answers tests, and two-stage exams can give students opportunities to bolster their learning. About assignments, students are encouraged to provide a draft of their work, so professors can give comments and the former can refine it. All this aids the learning practice and can make students not be irritated when they encounter mistakes. Professors also shift from being an autocratic judge stance, who mercilessly adjudicates without giving points for improvement, to being an archetypal sage, who counsels and guides the young souls. Additionally, the author pinpoints that providing a checklist can help students undertake self-correction. Learning to correct oneself is a skill that is needed for independence and individual maturity because not all the time that professors and seasoned figures are around there in life to help. Moreover, Gooblar suggests that when students fail, the professor should reach out to them one more time to discuss what went wrong, not to further justify the grade.

Chapter 6 contends that by emphasizing the process, students learn more than just by aiming for good grades. If the case is students just obsess themselves too much about the grades, then that it superficial and is not truly indicative of learning. Professors must help students not confuse grades with learning, and diploma with competencies. Meanwhile, Gooblar says that professors should become a model of confidence in the class—conviction and credibility. This can translate to an atmosphere of security since they know there is an expert guiding them. Having that in mind, this leads to effective learning experience. However, professors should also model uncertainty. It puts forward rethinking. Due to advancement of scholarship and research, the answer professors know may not be the current and updated answer. Hence, if they have not checked the recent development or updates for that specific topic, then they must be honest and curious.

When professors admit that they do not know something, it can be the starting point of the discovery process. This projects a kind of confidence that they can do something about it, instead of pretending to be an omniscient god. Students will get to learn that it is fine not to know everything, and they feel comfortable being ignorant on the topic, which they can use to put forward research and reasoning. Professors also should model scholarly behavior like crediting people's ideas and sharing their work with students. This can make the latter walk the talk. When professors instruct students to obey those rules, without them exemplifying them in the first place, it may lead to questions on integrity or academic character. On the other hand, manifesting them directly can make students imbibe those attributes. Using participation logs also can accentuate the value of the process. Further, he recommends that professors can use the "do-it-wrong" strategy where students deliberately make mistakes. This may be unusual since they are used to doing things correctly, but this teaches them to think outside the box and more about the process.

Chapter 7 considers that an inclusive classroom makes everyone feel comfortable to learn and participate in the class even those with disabilities, let it be physical, mental, visible, or not. Professors must be mindful of their implicit biases that can handicap equality and fairness in the class. This is reminiscent of the concept of psychological safety which puts forward that feeling that people are free to convey their inquiries and sentiments without retaliation or other negative consequences (Edmondson, 2018). While some are afraid to include political topics in the class since it may hurt feelings and can make the class chaotic, the advice of Gooblar is different; he encourages them to do the opposite—that is, to embrace political topics so that students are prepared for complex and meaningful discussions.

Nevertheless, professors should not indoctrinate students as if their opinions are superior. Intellectual humility and open-mindedness should prevail still. It must be done with the approach that everyone is respected, and views tolerated. Delving deeper into how students think and how they come up with their opinions are worthy to talk about, also. Moreover, Gooblar believes that professors should help students develop into more capable, ethical, and critical citizens. Graduates who are bounded by the books or who just regurgitate information cannot help impact the positively. Healthy habits of the mind and being critical about prejudices and biases should be taught. Meanwhile, it is pivotal that professors equip students with an armamentarium of skills, like information literacy and verification of sources, which can immunize them from misinformation, disinformation, and other forms of propagandistic deception.

Chapter 8 adds some tips to aid professors to progress on their job. First, he suggests drafting teaching and assures that it is fine to have terrible drafts. It may be disorganized but this surely generates creativity. During this stage, he encourages to put new and risky ideas on paper without restrictions. After that is the revision process where the professor can refine their course. Second, professors should adjust in the mid-semester, utilizing the feedback from students; this requires confidence and wisdom. Here, students' current position in learning is valued. Third and the most crucial, they must regularly reflect. One way is writing down what worked well after the class.

Student evaluation, though not perfect, can also be used for reflection. It must not be dismissed like a garbage. Professors who do that are self-centered. When used wisely, this offers perspectives which can be considered to further improve the craft of being a professor. Gooblar proposes observing someone else's room because it can reveal little ways each professor differs and can get to see the students' point of view. Meanwhile, the author recognizes that faculty burnout is a real phenomenon and encourages that they maintain their psychological health through taking time off and cultivating other interests. Other ways to prevent or reduce is through reconnecting with social networks, asking help, and sleeping (Kennette & Lin, 2019).

This book is a great resource for both entrant and seasoned professors in the field of higher education, regardless of their specialization, since this tackles the general college teaching which can cut across various colleges and departments. While this does not delve into the technical aspect of college teaching and the psychology of learning, this book surely has several comments and suggestions for professors which are helpful. This is also coupled with personal rich personal narratives which have made it a smooth read and very engaging. Wanting to make a change and out of frustration regarding the lack of understanding in the field of college teaching, this book has become a catalyst. A good contribution in the arena of higher education, its content is practical, empowering, and perceptive.

Declaration of Competing Interest

None declared.

References

Adams, K. S., & Proctor, B. E. (2010). Adaptation to college for students with and without disabilities: group differences and predictors. *Journal of Postsecondary Education and Disability, 22*(3), 166-184.

Brown, P., Roediger, H. III, & McDaniel, M. (2014). *Make it stick: The science of successful learning*. The Belknap Press

Cox, R., & Rogers, J. (2005). Enter: the (well-designed) lecture. *The Teaching Professor, 19*(5), 1-6.

Davies, W. M. (2009). Groupwork as a form of assessment: Common problems and recommended solutions. *Higher Education, 58*(4), 563-584.

Edmondson, A. C. (2018). *The fearless organization: Creating psychological safety in the workplace for learning, innovation, and growth*. John Wiley & Sons.

Giray, L. (2021a). Deborah H. Gruenfeld (2020). Acting with Power. Currency/Penguin Random House. *Changing Societies & Personalities, 5*(1), 143-145. http://dx.doi.org/10.15826/csp.2021.5.1.126

Giray, L. (2021b). Make it Stick: The science of successful learning. *Journal of Information Science, 39*(3), 108-111. https://doi.org/10.14456/iskku.2021.18

Kennette, L. N., & Lin, P. S. (2019). Focusing on faculty stress. *Transformative Dialogues, 12*, 1-4.

Priniski, S. J., Hecht, C. A., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (2018). Making learning personally meaningful: A new framework for relevance research. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 86*(1), 11-29. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1080/00220973.2017.1380589

Content

Opinion Articles

Systematic Reviews

Reviews