The Asian EFL Journal

February 2021

Volume 28 Issue 1.1

Senior Editor:
Paul Robertson

Published by the English Language Education Publishing

Asian EFL Journal
A Division of TESOL Asia Group
www.asian-efl-journal.com
©Asian EFL Journal 2020
This book is in copyright. Subject to statutory exception, no reproduction of any part may take place without the written permission of the Asian EFL Journal Press.

No unauthorized photocopying

Table of Contents

Foreword

Research is the fountainhead of new learning and knowledge enrichment. The 12 papers that make this issue are part of an enduring process having undergone many metamorphoses till they reached this wonderful standard, making a small but significant contribution to the vast reserve of language corpora.We welcome the readers to volume 28 of the journal which brings forth diverse language research work from different parts of the world. As usual, the diversity of the experiences shared here is what makes the issue a unique addition to the international database but our endeavour to compile them in one issue is just one of many more such exercises.

In paper 1, *Coherence and Cohesion in Saudi EFL Learners' Essay Writing: A Study at a Tertiary-level Institution*, Alqasham, Al-Ahdal and Babekir investigate the problems of Saudi EFL learners in achieving coherence and cohesion in argumentative essays and pertinently conclude that there is urgent need for a shift of emphasis from orthography and grammar in EFL to rigorous and consistent writing practice as the undergraduates in the study were found lagging in their ability to use any of the five cohesive devices suggested in previous studies.

Paper 2, *Full-time Online Assessment during COVID -19 Lockdown: EFL Teachers' Perceptions* by Mariam Yousef Abduh delves into a significant aspect of online learning assessment which was a new challenge for many teachers in the new educational paradigm. The study finds that teachers faced serious challenges in online assessments, with no significant differences between the perceptions of male and female teachers in regard to EFL teachers' perceptions of e-learning assessment, types of online assessment methods used and the challenges faced by teachers during online assessment.

In an assessment of the reading habits of learners of English in Pakistan, Quratulain Mirza, Habibullah Pathan, Sameena Khokhar, Muhammad Arslan Raheem, Faiza Mushtaq find in a study titled *English Reading Habits in Online Learning among Tertiary Learners in Pakistan: Evaluating the impact of COVID*, that learners' academic lives have been negatively impacted by the change in learning process due to the pandemic. This is paper 3 in this issue.

Paper 4 is an interesting linguistic analysis under the title *The Influence of Stress on Allophonic Alteration in Standard Arabic: An Optimality Theoretic Perspective by Mohammad Mahyoob of Taibah University, Saudi Arabia*. This study comes out in support of previous knowledge that trill occurs in unstressed syllables in Arabic where the preceding syllable is pharyngeal.

Working on this premise, paper 5 titled, *Prior Knowledge-Based Metacognition Strategies in Developing Students' Writing Skills Assessment Tools: Preparing the Student Teachers* by Edi Puryanto, YumnaRasyid, Fathiathy Murtadho from Indonesia showcases research with Indonesian student teachers, using a 2X2 factorial design in helping them develop writing skill assessment tools.

In paper 6, *Translating Poetic Wisdom from Arabic into English: A Stylistic Linguistic Analysis*, Yasamiyan Alolaywi uniquely analyses two linguistic aspects of the Arabic poetic genre: Lexicon and phonology. The study finds that certain Arabic words have no one-to-one equivalents in English and their resolution is significant for the translator but the translation of verses is achievable.

The question of ethnic identity impacting the language learning outcomes has been the focus of paper 7, titled *Mental Attitude and Effective English Language Learning: A Study of Indigenous People of North Eastern Siberia*, by Elena V. Kirillina, Natalya V. Lysanova, Natalya N. Alexeeva from Russia. This study has been conducted with Sakha ethnic learners of English and importantly concludes that communication between different culture groups is multilayered and an insight into this is essential in a foreign language learning situation. The study thus has relevance to our times when the world is increasingly shrinking into a global village and no nation or people can remain isolated from the others.

Smartphones and similar devices have proven to be a boon to the education sector in the Covid19 times and research on their effects on learning has become indispensable. Paper 8 in this issue is titled *University EFL Learners' Attitudes towards Using Smart Phones for Developing Language Learning Skills during the COVID-19 Pandemic* by Ahmed Aromaih of Majmaah University, Saudi Arabia. The study finds that both high and low achievement learners of EFL have positive attitudes to the use of smartphones as learning tools, and that listening was the most voted skill to have developed as a result of their use while writing was the least developed.

Paper 9 takes up a persistent but important debate of the EFL classroom: Whether literature is a desirable component in the EFL/ESL classroom. The focus of this study titled, *Literature in the EFL/ESL Classroom: Exploring New Dimensions for Enrichment of the Learning Process*, has added to the available research on the issue. The author, Appalal Attar, concludes that with a rational evaluation of specific learning objectives, inclusion of literature in the EFL/ESL classroom is desirable.

Paper 10 deals with another pertinent issue of the foreign language classroom: Use of the mother tongue. In this study, *Mother Tongue in EFL classrooms: A critical study of teachers' outlook and practices*, Paiker Fatima Mazhar Hameed and Appalal Abdulgaffar, prove empirically that a majority of EFL teachers refuse to be led by popular beliefs on the issue and, in practice, take a realistic and pragmatic approach in the use of L1 with EFL learners.

Teachers' feedback and learners' preferred mode for receiving it has been interestingly investigated by Murad Abdu Saeed Mohammed of Qassim University, Saudi Arabia in paper number 11, titled *Does teacher feedback mode matter for language students*? Learner perception of mode effectiveness has been found by the study to be shaped by at least four factors, but learner preferences were largely shaped by the limitations and affordances of each mode.

The last thought-provoking article in this prolific issue is titled *Incidental Vocabulary Learning through Multimodal Input in CALL Environment* by Hailah Alhujaylan of Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. Working on the rational premise that vocabulary is the building block of any language, the study finds that multimodality with learner autonomy has a positive impact on vocabulary retention in EFL.

With this brief foreword, we present to our readers this 28th volume of our journal, which is just another step in the many milestones to cover. We also hope that with the fecundity of researchers the world over and the encouragement and feedback of our readers, we will keep bringing out many more such rich issues in the months and years to come. Happy reading, then!

Arif Ahmed Al-Ahdal, Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics,

Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

(Leading Editor)

Coherence and Cohesion in Saudi EFL Learners' Essay Writing: A Study at a Tertiary-level Institution

Fahd Hamad Alqasham

Department of English Language, College of Arts and Sciences, Methnab

Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

f.alqasham@qu.edu.sa

Arif Ahmed Mohammed Hassan Al-Ahdal

Department of English Language, College of Arts and Sciences, Methnab

Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

aa.alahdal@qu.edu.sa

ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6747-0897

Ali Hussein Salim Babekir

Department of English Language, College of Arts and Sciences, Methnab

Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

a.babekir@qu.edu.sa

Bio-profiles:

1. **Dr. Fahd Alqasham** is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at Qassim University. He is currently the Head of the English Department at the College of Arts and Sciences in Methnab College of Arts and Sciences. Dr. Fahd's Ph.D. Thesis, earned from Massey University, has been awarded the prize of best Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics in New Zealand for the year of 2018. His research has been extensively on language learner agency and innovation. Presently, his research interests include language learner and teacher agency, motivation, autonomy, and innovation.

2. **Dr. Arif Ahmed Al-Ahdal** is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics, College of Arts and Sciences, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. Though his vocation is

teaching, Dr. Al-Ahdal is an established poet and writer. He has to his credit two bi-lingual poetry collections, To Yemen with Love and Joys and Sorrows, published in Yemen in 2010 and a reference book, Preparing EFL Teachers for Tomorrow: Opening New Vistas in Teacher Development with INSET, published in Germany in 2015. He is also credited with nearly 40 research papers published in internationally indexed journals. Apart from this contribution to research, he has examined many PhD theses and is presently writing two books on Literary Translation and Applied Linguistics. With a vast cross-cultural teaching experience and diverse exposure gained across three countries: Yemen, India and Saudi Arabia, he is now Editor-in-Chief, Journal of Translation and Language Studies, Kuwait; Monograph Editor, Sage Open Journals, America; Section Editor, International Journal of Language and Literary Studies, Italy; Distinguished and Honoured Advisor, Asian EFL and Asian ESP Journals, UK, and TESOL International Journal, Philippines; Board Member of ELT Journal, Canada; Arab World English Journal, Malaysia; International Journal of English and Literary Studies, Australia; Journal of ELT and Applied Linguistics, India, among others. He is also a freelance language trainer and certified IELTS Examiner.

3. **Dr. Ali Babekir** is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. He is currently the Coordinator of the English Department Quality Assurance Unit at the College of Arts and Sciences in Methnab College of Arts and Sciences**.** He has been teaching English at tertiary-level institutions for the past ten years now. His research interests include vocabulary-learning strategies, ESP and SLA.

Abstract

The present study intends to explore the coherence and cohesion in the essay writing outputs of Saudi EFL tertiary learners. It employed a mixed methods research design which includes both quantitative and qualitative research instruments to explore the cohesive devices used by undergraduate EFL students in their argumentative essays. For the qualitative analysis, the study used essays as corpus of the study that were collected from 50 Saudi EFL students at Qassim University in Saudi Arabia. Moreover, the current study adopted Hasan and Halliday's (1976) concept of cohesion as the framework for the analysis of the essays. For the quantitative component, frequency counts were used to record the cohesive devices that were used by the students. In addition, to accomplish the aims of the study, a descriptive research design was utilized to describe the findings. A time limit of two and a half hours was given to the participants to write two essays. After the data was collected, all five devices (repetition,

transitional terms, pronouns, synonyms and parallel structures) cited by Hasan and Halliday (1976) as instrumental in achievement of coherence were analysed and quantified. Results indicated that the achievement of the students was generally low. Also indicated was the fact that students were not competent to use the five methods to achieve coherence in their written tasks. The findings indicate that EFL learners can practice the writing of consistent activities in order to develop writing and producing good texts rather than relying exclusively on proper orthography and grammar. Implications of the study were duly presented.

Keywords: *Cohesion, Saudi EFL, Essay Writing, Language teaching, Teaching Writing*

Introduction

Writing skills are not just the words written on a piece of paper; they are an accurate representation of an abstract form of vocabulary. Background knowledge of usable vocabulary and the generic structure expected are essential assets in writing exercises. This practice agrees with conventional methodologies of language teaching, the main aim of which is to be consistent and to enable learners to write on a basis of positive reinforcements and rewards (Basgier & Simpson, 2020; Haerazi & Irawan, 2019; Shegay, Orazova, & Krivosheeva, 2020). Writing is considered to be a task, a social act that depicts the willingness of a writer to interact and understand, especially in the EFL context (Rillo & Alieto, 2020; Colognesi, et al, 2020; Shegay, Orazova, & Krivosheeva, 2020; Solnit, 2020).

In a dynamic college climate where university students begin to create errors such as flagrant syntax errors, orthography and grammaratical mistakes, it is impossible to live without the ability to write (Ammade, et al, 2020; Saidy & Sura, 2020). Mukmin and Afriyanti, (2020) discuss that writing is a complex activity that takes an immense amount of work to understand and teach, so it has to be taught by exposure. Magulod (2018) noted that several EFL students assume that writing is one of the most demanding abilities. The problem emerges from the creation and organization of ideas and their transformation into readable language. Landicho (2020) stated that students not only have difficulty knowing how to write, but even teachers have difficulty teaching how to write. He added that both teachers and students found that learning to write skills is more difficult and exhausting than learning other languages. At the university stage, students must learn how to create scholarly texts in order to communicate ideas to other L2 consumers. The main components of scholarly writing are, thus, textual coherence and continuity (Ji & Qiao, 2018; Syafnida & Ardi, 2020; Yetiş, 2017).

Cohesion and coherence are both critical components of textual master writing (Ceylan, 2019; Mukhroji, 2020; Noori, 2020; Wissinger & De La Paz, 2020). Coherence entails the mix of ideas at the definition stage and requires consistency of the relationship of ideas at the declaration stage. Coherence extends to rhetorical elements of writing, including the development and promotion of ideas, the synthesis of reading, the organization and the clarification of principles (Slawson, Whitton & Wiemelt, 2010). The cohesion of writing relies on the grammatical aspects of learning (Ozfidan & Mitchell, 2020; Elborolosy & Almujali, 2020; Drbseh, 2019). Alkhalaf, (2020) stated that collaborative writing drastically improves learners' text organization and planning. Gaffas (2019) also noted that, in order to provide the reader with clarification, all the phrases forming each paragraph must, according to the purpose they try to convey, be logically organized in an ongoing order. In this regard, written clarity is essential since it involves the correspondence in a language with clear and understandable concepts. Farida and Rosyidi (2019) defined coherence as a component in a text that ties ideas with readers' comprehension. Chen (2019) believed the concept of continuity as an educator and scholar is not convenient, because teachers find it challenging to inform and evaluate students. As a consequence, most EFL students have severe challenges in writing, particularly in creating a coherent and cohesive text. Coherence and cohesive instruments for students that strive to correct their academic gains are often misused or overused (Wahid & Wahid, 2020). Few seem to have an unambiguous view of simple and concise devices and are not well aligned with strategies that improve their prose.

Personal statement

In the background of the available literature on EFL learners' ability to achieve cohesion and coherence in written texts, a pilot study was conducted with the analysis of twelve student-produced scripts at Qassim University to identify the use/ underuse/ and/ or overuse of cohesive and coherence instruments. It may be added here that in the EFL environment of Qassim University (indeed like other universities in KSA) a great deal of class time is dedicated to diligent grammar and vocabulary learning. So much so that the entire teaching-learning process shifts to the textbook with learners engaged in filling out structural exercises on the two components. The analysis preliminarily revealed that Saudi EFL learners' writing was challenged on both counts of coherence and cohesion as they touched two ends of a spectrum of under and inappropriate overuse of linking devices. Informal feedback from teachers of EFL also confirmed these as major problem areas in their acquisition of writing skills. These first findings helped frame the design of this study.

Research objectives

This research thus aims to analyze the coherence skills of Saudi EFL students in writing. In particular, the purpose of the analysis is to provide the following questions with data-supported answers. The question is, to what extent do the Saudi EFL students possess coherence in their writing performance along the following:

1. Use of repetition to connect ideas, sentences and paragraph to achieve coherence

2. Use of transitional terms Link Ideas, sentences and paragraphs to achieve coherence

3. Use of pronoun to connect ideas, sentences and paragraph to achieve coherence

4. Use of synonyms to connect ideas, sentences and paragraph to achieve coherence

5. Use of parallelism to connect ideas, sentences and paragraph to achieve coherence

Literature review

The place of continuity and accuracy which lend coherence to a written text cannot be underscored in language learning. Yet, they are also the features most wanting in texts produced by EFL or L2 learners. Saputra and Hakim (2020) tried to explain errors produced by Arab EFL students in macro-language essays in English. They considered it quite challenging for learners of Arabic English to compose English essays. It covers problems of continuity and stability.

Barrot (2020) discussed the impact of Facebook-baes e-portfolio on EFL learners' writing practices and challenges faced therein with simple, coherent devices from a debate research viewpoint. The theoretical literature includes 23 argumentative essays examined focused on Hasan-Halliday (1976) system of unity. The collected data demonstrated that both grammatical and lexical devices are used by students according to their subtypes. The findings of the study also showed that the crux of the problem lay in cohesive devices being misused, overused and sometimes being unclear to the students. Using the same Hasan-Halliday (1976) list of five types of cohesive devices, Wahid & Wahid (2020) analyzed three types of essays of EFL undergraduates. They concluded that at times underuse, and at others, overuse of cohesive ties led to poor coherence in the text produced by these learners. Another finding of this study was

that EFL learners tended to use a few linkers repetitively. At the level of essay, Mamduhan, Fitriati, & Sutopo (2019) tried to explain the effect on accuracy and cohesion as a result of the development of metacognitive creation in EFL learners' prose. The results showed that students used more metacognitive methods during writing after the intervention, the area of harmony also shifted slightly, and the EFL classroom offered encouragement to compose and represent L2 roles in a broader intervention. Findings similar to those of Wahid & Wahid (ibid.) were also reported by Khudhair (2017) in a study with Iraqi EFL undergraduates. This study reported that repetition and reference were the dominant features in the subjects' use of cohesive devices in composition. Further, this drawback also affected their choice of lexical items in their compositions. The written tutorial was observed by Ariyanti and Fitriana (2017) in essays by EFL students which were reported to be of low standard. This condition indicated that writing is a tough skill to learn in English. Therefore, they researched the difficulties EFL students faced in writing. The results revealed major grammar difficulties, and the issues of consistency and comprehension for students. However, all that is wrong with the EFL learners' writing ability does not necessarily spring from them. Lim et al (2014) found a very interesting fact in their analysis of English textbooks used by Korean learners of English: The range of cohesive devices covered in these books (N=3) was rather limited while they focused on sentence transition and conjunctions. With this limited exposure to cohesive devices, the learners tended to be repetitive with the limited cohesive devices available in their repertoire. Thus, this study brought into focus the limitations of study materials. In another notable study in the Arab world, Ahmed (2010) conducted a review to examine the cohesion and coherence issues of the composition of EFL student teachers in Egypt. The study showed that the materials that the subjects were exposed to, contained a narrow range of cohesive devices and with large classes of different abilities and skills, it was difficult to train all learners well in writing skills.

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were 50 EFL students at Qassim University studying at Methnab Intensive English Program (ICP). The participants are required to take an intensive course 15-week semester, before joining the English department for up to 25 hours divided into five English skills (Listening and speaking, Writing, Reading, Vocabulary Building, and Grammar). The English skills of the students were below average and they were taught to formulate two concise and rational articles and to correctly utilize logical approaches.

Research gathering tools

The empirical query is a descriptive analysis. This study was done using a screening test. The participants were requested to write essays on two topics out of the three given to them. The task was not discussed with the participants beforehand, nor were they guided on how to go about it. Their spontaneous writing samples were sought in this manner. They were given a time limit of two hours and a half to write the two essays in about seven hundred words each.

Analysis of the coherence of Essays

In this study the frequency of repetition, intermediate words, pronouns, synonyms and parallel structures were analyzed in order to create continuity for EFL students. The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics (frequencies, mean and standard deviation).

Results and discussion

To answer the study question, the descriptive statistics (mean, median and standard deviation) of the use of each method (repetition, transitional expressions, pronouns, synonyms, and parallel structures) were computed separately. It's worthwhile to mention that in this study if the mean value for the results in each method is less than 15, this means that students are not competent in that skill.

Use of repetition to connect ideas, sentences and paragraphs to achieve coherence

As shown in Table 1 on the findings regarding the use of repetition to connect ideas, sentences and paragraphs, the mean score of the test is 11.23 which is lower than 15 with a standard deviation of 3.249, confirms that the students do not manifest competence on the use of repetition to connect ideas, sentences and paragraphs to attain coherence in their essay outputs. The finding is indicative that most of the Saudi EFL learners are struggling to write essays, ending up repeating ideas for connection and emphasis. Repeating terms through phrases allows to echo the same concepts across phrases. One approach to use repeated to construct coherence is at the end of one phrase and the beginning of the next phrase to reiterate the same word or concept to illustrate how the concepts apply. Similar finding focusing on coherence and repetition has been espoused by previous researcher on the weakness of Arab students in writing (Al-Harbi & Troudi, 2020; Mohammad & Hazarika, 2016; Nuruzzaman, Islam, & Shuchi, 2018; Benattabou, 2020; Shousha, Farrag, & Althaqafi, 2020). This can be generalized to mean that all L2 learners exhibit a tendency to repeat in the absence of a rich repertoire of coherence devices.

Table 1. Mean frequency of the use of repetition

Total number of students	Mean	Median	Std. deviation
50	11.23	11.00	3.249

Use of transitional terms that link ideas, sentences and paragraphs to achieve coherence

Table 2 shows the result of the students' essay regarding the use of transitional terms link ideas, sentences and paragraphs. The computed mean of 9.05 with standard deviation of 3.435 which is lower than the standard competence of 15 implies that students do not have the competence in using this process to attain coherence in their essay output. This implies that the Saudi EFL students are again struggling to use this method. The use of transitional terms helps in achieving smooth flow of written output to clearly deliver the message and substance of a written output (Al Ahdal, 2020; Kusumawardani, 2018; Macora, 2020; Shukurova, 2017; Syafnida & Ardi, 2020). It is important that we use transitions to increase transparency and reasoning, whether we draw up a legal brief or long proposal or smash out a quick e-mail or post. In either case, transitions encourage a reader to pursue the writer's thoughts as the message shifts from one concept to another. At least more than seventy of the samples used in the study showed that the participants were clueless on the transitional linking devices as they frequently used them with no relevance whatsoever to the context. One striking example is of the cardinal numbers which are lavishly used while summarizing the essays. Where the participants could have used a large variety of cohesive devices, with a limited repertoire, they showed a bias for these cardinal linkers which lent a certain degree of unnaturalness to their texts.

Table 2. Mean frequency of the transitional terms link Ideas, sentences and paragraphs

Total number of students	Mean	Median	Std. deviation
50	9.05	10	3.435

Use of pronouns to link ideas in the sentence and paragraph to achieve coherence

As shown in Table 3, on the analysis of the performance of the respondents on written test with regards to the use of pronouns to link ideas in the sentence and paragraph, the computed mean of 11.13 and standard deviation of 5.35 is way below the standard of 15 which means that Saudi EFL students are not competent enough in using this method in writing to achieve coherence. The use of proper pronoun reference in writing helps to present good written output with proper observance to pronoun antecedents. The argument used for simple pronouns has to do with substituting substances with pronouns effectively. A text not using pronouns is far too usual.

Queroda (2018) emphasized that pronoun is to use the same person and number in paragraph or email. Pronouns are useful tools to be used in one's written output for several purposes. Pronouns support writers prevent a term from monotonous usage. Pronouns can be used to replace one or more mentioned nouns. Pronouns thus reduce wordiness by writers and also check unnatural repetition of nouns. Pronouns allow readers to track components in basic words. If readers have linguistic information to observe – phrases and shifts – descriptions can be connected to a cohesive series. Studies on writing competence of Arab EFL learners have grammatical errors in their academic writing (Atashian & Al-Bahri, 2018; Alqasham, 2018; Khairunnisa, 2019; Mohammad & Hazarika, 2016; Alharbi, 2019). Typically, the samples in the current study showed participants' discomfort with the use of the pronouns which perhaps springs from the vast difference between Arabic and English pronoun systems (this needs to be verified in later studies). With a more complex pronoun system of twelve in all in Arabic as compared to the rather simplistic eight in English, greater practice in the use of the same in English can help the EFL learners use them more efficiently.

Table 3. Mean frequency of the use of pronouns to link ideas in the sentence and paragraph

Total Number of Students	Mean	Median	Std. deviation
50	11.13	10	5.35

Use of Synonyms to link ideas in the sentence and paragraph to achieve coherence

Table 4 presents the use of synonyms to link ideas in the sentence and paragraph to achieve coherence. With the computed mean of 4.34 and standard deviation of 3.243, it generally shows that Saudi EFL students are not competent in using this technique to achieve coherence. The data suggests the need for the students to have better writing instruction focusing on the use of synonyms is needed. The sense of lexical continuity and word selection throughout the writing process. Particular emphasis is paid to the lexical synonym as a valuable and productive tool in order to facilitate harmony in a language. According to Oktami, Manaf, & Juita (2018) synonyms can also be used to identify scientific observations in support of these claims. For example, a few terms might be used to substitute the verb, for instance, for speaking, other words that can be used are inserting, documenting, stressing or focusing. According to Afrinaldi, Manaf, and Juita (2018) writing is directly correlated with lexical harmony and choice of words. This is important for every text to express the expected intent. However, many aspects of interpretation are the key subject of scholarly writing in this study. Writers can make

the job coherent by utilizing lexical synonymy. Writers can use synonyms such that their writing is not replicated wrongly in the same sentence. Sets with synonyms also make it easy for writers to choose a word that suits the audience best. The accuracy of the term may also be improved according to its meaning. However, if not appropriately employed, synonymy may lead to distorting definitions or tones. If you propose to replace a word for a synonym (nearly synonym), you can not only select one of the countless terms into a thesaurus, but also assess its suitability that it should be used (Ramadhanti, & Manaf, 2019).

Table 4. Mean frequency of the use of Synonyms to link ideas in the sentence and paragraph to achieve coherence

Total number of students	Mean	Median	Std. deviation
50	4.34	5	3.243

Use of parallelism to connect ideas, sentences and paragraph to achieve coherence

As presented in Table 5, the use of parallelism to connect ideas, sentences and paragraph to achieve coherence has the computed mean of 4.06 and standard deviation of 2.145 shows that the students did not meet the required skilled. As an element of writing, parallelism is used when the writer is capable of selecting the exact grammatical nature to express ideas and thoughts. Parallelism as a cohesive device is often used in which repetitive types include a relationship to the reader by isomorphism (the idea that style resemblance implies or expresses sense similarities). The parallel hypothesis explicitly indicates the structure of organized proposals (Shabana, 2018; Cekiso, Tshotsho, & Somniso, 2016).

Table 5. Mean frequency of the use of parallelism to connect ideas, sentences and paragraph to achieve coherence

Total number of students	Mean	Median	Std. deviation
50	4.06	4	2.145

Figure 1 below depicts graphically the mean and median values of the frequency of occurrence of the cohesive devices in the essays of the participants.

Figure 1: Depiction of Mean and Median value of frequency of cohesive devices used
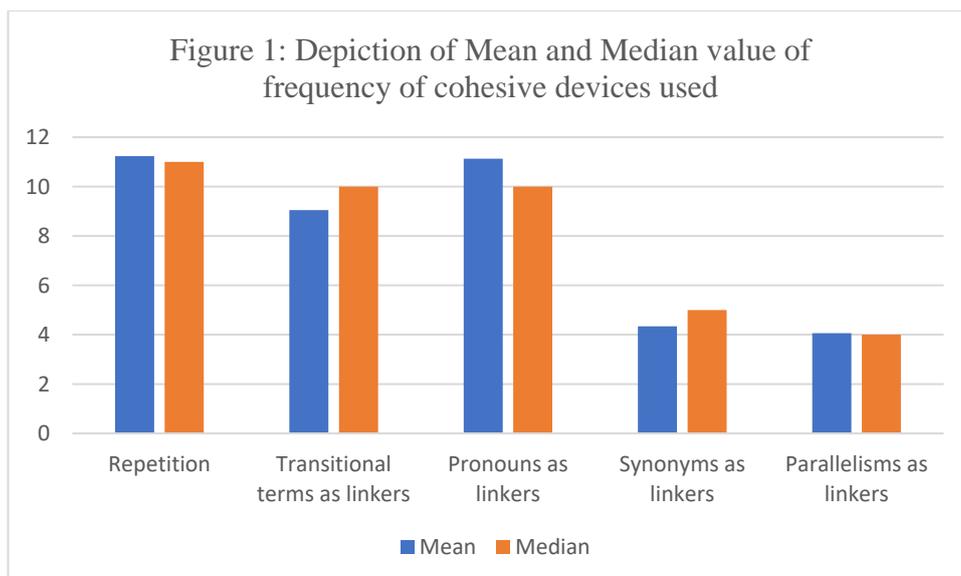
The aim of this study was to determine whether EFL students have consistent written skills. In this review, there were five (repetition, intermediate sentences, pronouns, synonyms and parallel structures) strategies to ensure continuity in writing. The findings indicate that students are reluctant to utilize these approaches. This is compatible with Ahmed (2010), Aguieb and Bouaziz (2017), who found that students do not usually have written work. The makeup of the low classes is still unknown for pupils. You assume it is enough to maintain the right structure and pronunciation. Although the participants of the analysis were guided towards five consistency approaches, precision and writing were based on one term or sentence. The conventional methods of writing, based on successful linguistic regulation of information, such as grammar and vocabulary, are heavily affecting them (Kroll 2001; Larsen-Freeman and Anderson 2011).

Conclusion

This study attempted to examine the coherence and cohesion essay writing skills of Saudi EFL students. A descriptive research was undertaken at the University of Qassim to accomplish this aim. The number of subjects included in the study was 50 EFL students. Two and a half hours were provided to participants and two essays were demanded. After data was collected, all five methods related to this study were used by students to achieve coherence, but the achievement of the students was generally low. The results indicate that students are not competent to use the five methods to achieve coherence in their written tasks (repetition, transitional terms, pronouns, synonyms and parallel structures). The findings further indicate that EFL learners can practice writing via consistent activities in order to develop their writing competence rather than relying exclusively on proper orthography and grammar. In addition, it is important to

integrate reading in writing in order to enhance the sense of continuity for students. We understand that writing is the more challenging of the four skills precisely because it has to be undertaken on an individual level in real life while also keeping in mind the language ability of the recipient of the message. Yet, with adequate practice and appropriate materials and pedagogies learners can be trained to use this skill proficiently.

Implications

As per Vision 2030, the national development document envisions a Saudi Arabia that can compete with the most advanced nations of the world in terms of economy and education. Also stated is the mission to open the country for business and one pre-requisite for this will be the ability of its people to use English, the most popular international language of communication. Whereas with the passage of time and the investment of funds and manpower in English education, the country's young population is today proficient users of English on social media, one milestone still needed to be covered is for them to be able to use the language in formal settings. The ability to write coherently in English is the most challenging and also the most coveted for this to happen because a language in its written form requires greater skill on the part of the user as the supporting role of paralinguistic is not available in this mode of communication. Seen from this vantage, the current study holds great meaning for policy makers and academicians who are entrusted with the job of facilitating the Saudi people to be proficient users of English.

Recommendations

The guidelines below are provided hereby. EFL teachers may use a number of approaches to motivate students to learn coherence and cohesion and to demonstrate better writing performance. First, the campus can hold lectures and courses about the usage of writing techniques and different pre-writing practices as part of the faculty growth programme. Further, it can be recommended that students redefine their attitudinal systems in writing as this will enhance their written performance. In order to assess better the direct effect of pre-writing methods in researching university students' progress in writing and thought, teachers can use an approach that is learner-centered during writing courses. Finally, similar studies can be carried out with wider and varied communities to arrive at more usable results.

References

Afrinaldi, A., Manaf, N. A., & Juita, N. (2018, December). The type of paired synonym of intransitive verbs Ke-an in Indonesian. In *international conference on language, literature, and education (ICLLE 2018)*. Atlantis Press. https://dx.doi.org/10.2991/iclle-18.2018.68

Ahmed, A. H. (2010). Students' problems with cohesion and coherence in EFL essay writing in Egypt: Different perspectives. *Literacy Information and Computer Education Journal (LICEJ)*, *1*(4), 211-221.

Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2020). Ebook interaction logs as a tool in predicting learner performance in reading. *Asiatic: IIUM Journal of English Language and Literature*, *14*(1), 174–188. Retrieved from https://journals.iium.edu.my/asiatic/index.php/ajell/article/view/1843

Alharbi, M. A. (2019). Saudi Arabia EFL university students' voice on challenges and solution in learning academic writing. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *8*(3), 576-587. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v8i3.15276

Al-Harbi, N., & Troudi, S. (2020). Supervisors' written feedback on Saudi postgraduate students' problems with academic English writing in selected UK Universities. In *Feedback in L2 English Writing in the Arab World* (pp. 171-200). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

Alkhalaf, N. A. (2020). Saudi female EFL learners and collaborative writing: attitudes and challenges. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *10*(9), 1118-1127. http://dx.doi.org/10.17507/tpls.1009.16

Al-khazraji, A. (2019). Analysis of discourse markers in essays writing in ESL classroom. *International Journal of Instruction*, *12*(2), 559-572. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2019.12235a

Ammade, S., Mahmud, M., Jabu, B., & Tahmir, S. (2020). TPACK Model based instruction in teaching writing: An analysis on TPACK literacy. *International Journal of Language Education*, *4*(1), 129-140. https://dx.doi.org/10.26858/ijole.v4i2.12441

Amperawaty, A., & Warsono, W. (2019). The use of cohesive devices to achieve coherence in the background section of the students' formal writing. *English Education Journal*, *9*(1), 34-40.

Atashian, S., & Al-Bahri, K. (2018). Towards Arab Students' Grammatical Errors in Academic Writing & their Perceptions. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 140-145. https://doi.org/10.15294/eej.v9i1.27325

Barrot, J. S. (2020). Effects of facebook-based e-portfolio on ESL learners' writing performance. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 1-17. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908318.2020.1745822

Basgier, C., & Simpson, A. (2020). Trouble and transformation in higher education: identifying threshold concepts through faculty narratives about teaching writing. *Studies in Higher Education*, *45*(9), 1906-1918. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2019.1598967

Benattabou, D. (2020). Helping EFL Students Avoid Socio-pragmatic Failure: Focus on Nonverbal Intercultural Competence. *TESOL and Technology Studies*, *1*(1), 23-41. https://doi.org/10.48185/tts.v1i1.45

Cekiso, M., Tshotsho, B., & Somniso, M. (2016). Exploring first-year university students' challenges with coherence writing strategies in essay writing in a South African university. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, *12*(3), 241-246.

Ceylan, N. O. (2019). Student perceptions of difficulties in second language writing. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *15*(1), 151-157.

Chen, Y. (2019). Developing students' critical thinking and discourse level writing skill through teachers' Questions: A sociocultural approach. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *42*(2), 141-162.

Colognesi, S., Piret, C., Demorsy, S., & Barbier, E. (2020). Teaching writing-- with or without metacognition?: An exploratory study of 11-to 12-year-old students writing a book Review. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, *12*(5), 459-470. DOI: 10.26822/iejee.2020562136

Danglli, L., & Abazaj, G. (2014). Lexical cohesion, word choice and synonymy in academic writing. *Mediterranean journal of social sciences*, *5*(14), 628. http://dx.doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n14p628

Dontcheva-Navratilova, O., & Povolná, R. (Eds.). (2020). *Coherence and cohesion in spoken and written discourse*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Drbseh, M. M. H. (2019). Saudi EFL learners' difficulties in learning English: A case of secondary school students. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, *6*(4), 140-151.

Ebadi, S., & Rahimi, M. (2019). Mediating EFL learners' academic writing skills in online dynamic assessment using Google Docs. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *32*(5-6), 527-555. https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2018.1527362

Elborolosy, S. A. M., & Almujali, R. A. (2020). Improving argumentative essay writing of Saudi English majors through adaptive learning at Shaqra'University. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, *10*(03), 161. http://www.scirp.org/journal/Paperabs.aspx?PaperID=100529

Farida, A. N., & Rosyidi, M. I. (2019). Students' writing quality: its coherence and cohesion. *Language Circle: Journal of Language and Literature*, *14*(1), 121-129. https://doi.org/10.15294/lc.v14i1.21505

Gaffas, Z. M. (2019). Students' perceptions of the impact of EGP and ESP courses on their English language development: Voices from Saudi Arabia. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *42*,. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2019.100797

Haerazi, H., & Irawan, L. A. (2019). Practicing genre-based language teaching model to improve students' achievement of writing skills. *IJELTAL (Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics)*, *4*(1), 9-18. http://dx.doi.org/10.21093/ijeltal.v4i1.246

Hassan, H. R., & Halliday, M. (1976). Cohesion in English. *P20*.

Ji, L., & Qiao, J. (2018). Cohesion and coherence: Teaching writing in English to Chinese high school learners. *Humanising Language Teaching*, *20*(4).

Khairunnisa, N. (2019). *An Analysis of students' ability in using personal pronouns in writing English sentences at the seventh grade of SMP N 32 Pekanbaru* (Doctoral dissertation, Universitas Islam Negeri Sultan Syarif Kasim Riau).

Kusumawardani, M. A. (2018). *Student's strategies in building coherence in writing English essay* (Doctoral dissertation, UIN Sunan Ampel Surabaya).

Landicho, C. J. B. (2020). Secondary school students' attitudes and practices toward research writing and reporting in science. *Issues in Educational Research*, *30*(1), 156.

Lee, J. (2020). Analysis of referential cohesion in L2 written narratives within an English immersion education context. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, *17*(2), 493.

Lim, H. W., Shin, J. W., Cho, H. Y., Kim, H. K., Kang, S. W., Song, S. J., ... & Song, Y. (2014). Endogenous endophthalmitis in the Korean population: a six-year retrospective study. *Retina*, *34*(3), 592-602.

Macora, Y. D. (2020). The problems of discourse markers and coherence in the graduate's theses of Sintuwu Maroso University. *Sintuwu Maroso Journal of English Teaching*, *2*(1), 11-18.

Magulod, G. C. (2018). Use of innovative prewriting techniques in enhancing the writing performance and attitude of second year information technology students. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, *6*(2), 1-9.

Magulod, G. C. (2018). Cognitive and Attitudinal Effects of Movie Poster Making Method in College Classroom. *Journal of Educational and Human Resource Development*, *6*, 42-58.

Mamduhan, R. H., Fitriati, S. W., & Sutopo, D. (2019). Coherence in the narrative texts of Eastvaganza story writing contest for senior high-school students. *English Education Journal*, *9*(1), 84-32. https://doi.org/10.15294/eej.v9i1.25900 https://doi.org/10.15294/eej.v9i1.25900

Mohammad, T., & Hazarika, Z. (2016). Difficulties of learning EFL in KSA: Writing skills in context. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *6*(3), 105-117.

Mohammad, T., & Hazarika, Z. (2016). Difficulties of learning EFL in KSA: Writing skills in context. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *6*(3), 105-117. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v6n3p105

Muhyidin, A. (2020). Does the writing exposition text ability correlate to reading habit and discourse markers mastery?. *Journal for the Education of Gifted Young Scientists*, *8*(2), 885-895. https://doi.org/10.17478/jegys.682065

Mukhroji, M. (2020). Exploring the academic writing needs to improve the academic literacy of the Indonesian EFL undergraduate and masters Students. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity and Change*, *10*(10), 252-269.

Mukmin, H. A., & Afriyanti, H. (2020). Mind mapping in teaching writing. *BABASAL English Education Journal*, *1*(1), 17-23.

Noori, A. (2020). An investigation of Afghan undergraduate English major students' academic writing difficulties. *Journal of Foreign Language Teaching and Learning*, *5*(2), 99-114. DOI: 10.18196/ftl.5249

Nuruzzaman, M., Islam, A. S., & Shuchi, I. J. (2018). An analysis of errors committed by Saudi non-English major students in the English paragraph writing: A study of

comparisons. *Advances in language and literary studies*, *9*(1), 31-39. http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.9n.1p.31

Oktami, N., Manaf, N., & Juita, N. (2018, December). Adjectives Synonymy Tasting Indonesian. In *International Conference on Language, Literature, and Education (ICLLE 2018)*. Atlantis Press.

Ozfidan, B., & Mitchell, C. (2020). Detected difficulties in argumentative writing: The case of culturally and linguistically Saudi backgrounded students. *Journal of Ethnic and Cultural Studies*, *7*(2), 15-29. http://dx.doi.org/10.29333/ejecs/

Queroda, P. G. (2018). Theme writing skills of Pangasinan State University (PSU) education students. *TESOL International Journal*, *13*(3), 31-44.

Ramadhanti, K., & Manaf, N. A. (2019, March). The type and meaning nuances of limitation adverb synonym in Indonesian. In *Seventh International Conference on Languages and Arts (ICLA 2018)*. Atlantis Press. https://dx.doi.org/10.2991/icla-18.2019.86

Rillo, R. M., & Alieto, E. (2020). Indirectness markers in Korean and Persian English essays: implications for teaching writing to EFL learners. *Available at SSRN 3588006*.

Saidy, C., & Sura, T. (2020). When everything changes over night: what we learned from teaching the writing practicum in the era of Covid-19. *Teaching/Writing: The Journal of Writing Teacher Education*, *9*(1), 21.

Saputra, A., & Hakim, M. A. R. (2020). The usage of cohesive devices by high-achieving EFL students in writing argumentative essays. *Indonesian TESOL Journal*, *2*(1), 42-58.

Shabana, N. O. (2018). Topical structure analysis: assessing first-year Egyptian university students' internal coherence of their EFL writing. In *assessing EFL writing in the 21st century Arab world* (pp. 53-78). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.

Shegay, A., Orazova, F., & Krivosheeva, G. (2020). Possible writing techniques while teaching for students whose English is a foreign language. *European Journal of Research and Reflection in Educational Sciences*, *8*(6).

Sherman, D., Slawson, J., Whitton, N., & Wiemelt, J. (2010). The little brown handbook.

Shousha, A. I., Farrag, N. M., & Althaqafi, A. S. (2020). Analytical assessment of the common writing errors among Saudi foundation year students: a comparative study. *English Language Teaching*, *13*(8), 46-62. doi: 10.5539/elt.v13n8p46 URL: https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v13n8p46

Shukurova, M. A. (2017). Coherence and cohesion as essential parts in effective

writing. *Міжнародний науковий журнал Інтернаука*, (1 (1)), 143-145. https://www.inter-nauka.com/services/doi/

Solnit, R. (2020). Teaching about genocide while teaching writing. *Teaching about Genocide: Advice and Suggestions from Professors, High School Teachers, and Staff Developers*, 197.

Syafnida, Y., & Ardi, H. (2020, August). Students' ability in developing generic structure, cohesion and coherence in writing hortatory exposition text. In *Eighth International Conference on Languages and Arts (ICLA-2019)* (pp. 220-223). Atlantis Press. https://dx.doi.org/10.2991/assehr.k.200819.043

Wahid, R., & Wahid, A. (2020). A Study on Cohesion in the Writing of EFL Undergraduate Students. *Journal on English Language Teaching*, *10*(1), 57-68.

Wissinger, D. R., & De La Paz, S. (2020). Effects of discipline-specific strategy instruction on historical writing growth of students with writing difficulties. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, *53*(3), 199-212. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0022219420904343

Yetiş, V. A. (2017). The role of composing process and coherence/cohesion in FFL writing. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *13*(1), 336-351.

Full-time Online Assessment during COVID -19 Lockdown: EFL Teachers' Perceptions

Mariam Yousef Mohammed Abduh

Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics (ELT), Department of English

College of Languages and Translation, Najran University, Saudi Arabia

mymohammedl@nu.edu.sa

Bio-profile:

Dr. Mariam Yousef Abduh is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics (ELT), currently working at the College of Languages and Translation, Najran, Najran University, Saudi Arabia. Beside her academic duties, she has been appointed as the higher studies coordinator in the College for almost five years now. Prior to her work in Najran University, she worked as an Assistant Professor and a trainer for pre-service teachers at Hodeidah University, Yemen and was, also, an internal examiner for some master students' Dissertations. Remarkably, she is also a member of the Saudi TESOL association.

Abstract

This study aimed to better understand teachers' perceptions of the assessment methods used in full-time e-learning during covid- 19 lockdown in a Saudi EFL context. It intended to investigate four factors: (1) EFL teachers' perceptions of e-learning assessment, (2) types of online assessment methods used, (3) challenges that teachers face while assessing students online and (4) if there were any significant differences between the perceptions of female and male teachers regarding e-assessment. A total of 26 EFL instructors completed a questionnaire following Likert scale survey method which was distributed online using Google form to avoid any face-to-face Coronavirus infection. Also, interviews utilizing what's up application were conducted to collect information about challenges of online assessment. The results from the descriptive statistics revealed that EFL teachers expressed a moderate attitude towards e-assessment. Also, most of the statements related to teachers' perceptions of techniques /methods used in online assessment were positive. However, most items related to teachers' perceptions of challenges encountered in online assessments, scored high/very high means

which indicated that teachers faced serious challenges in assessing students online. Moreover, the study revealed that there was no significant difference between the perceptions of male and female teachers regarding the four factors investigated.

Introduction

The COVID19 pandemic lockdown has become an international concern. It has changed the scenario of the educational process all over the world. As an immediate response to this crisis, universities have been closed in most countries and instructions have been moved online to address the urgent need of keeping education in progress. This crisis has significantly accelerated the shift toward the online environment. (Burgess and Sievertsen, 2020). Stakeholders in the educational programs were forced to switch directly to online teaching as an alternative option which has become an internationally transformative experiment for both teachers and learners. Colleges were forced to upgrade their technological means and shift to online education. Suspending face-to face classes is being elongated in many countries, leaving e- learning as the only option by which teachers can communicate with their learners. Subsequently, teaching and assessing EFL learners have been deeply affected by the coronavirus lockdown. Although e-learning has proved to be helpful during such critical situations, the implementation of technology in education may pose some challenges to teachers. This sudden change from face to face and blended learning to full-time e-learning must have created several challenges. Absence of physical interaction between teachers and leaners has its own consequences which leaves teachers with limited options for assessing their learners online.

Assessment lies at the heart of the teaching process. It shapes learners' understanding of the curriculum and determines their ability to progress. Also, teachers' beliefs greatly impact the educational process, particularly in EFL contexts. Hence, in the context of this shift from face-to face learning to full-time online learning, we need to investigate teachers' perceptions of the methods used in assessing online EFL learners and to shed light on the difficulties that may hinder effective e-learning assessment. Since there is no much research conducted on exploring teachers' perceptions of assessing full-time online teaching in the Saudi EFL context, the present study tries to investigate EFL teachers' views of e-learning assessment and highlights the challenges encountered.

Defining E- Learning

The terms 'E- Learning', 'distance education', 'distance learning' web-based learning and on line learning are sometimes used interchangeably though some intend to select specific term reflecting their own views. E-learning can be defined as the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to deliver information in the field of education where teachers and learners are separated by distance, time, or both for the sake of improving the learner's learning experience and performance (Keller et al., 2007; Tarhini et al., 2016). It is a set of instructions that are delivered via electronic media i.e. the internet, intranets, and extranets (Horton, 2011). The most obvious advantage of e- learning is the ability to learn from anywhere at any time. Further, e-learning provides delivering education in a flexible and easy way through internet use to support individual learning or organizational performance goals (Clarkand Mayer, 2011, Maqableh et al., 2015).

Significance of Information technology (IT) platforms

The arrival of the digital age has involved using new technologies that have significant effects on the educational arena. Adnan et al., (2019) states that the new technologies are integrated in education to help the process of learning of many fields including English Learning Management Systems (LMSs). Information technology (IT) is considered as one of the most fundamental transition in all sectors of our lives (Hajir et al., 2015; AL-Syaidh et al, 2015; Alshurideh and Alkurdi, 2012; Shannak et al., 2012; Alfallaj, 2020). It is the best way to create language learning especially during critical situations (Patil, 2020). Different Web-based learning systems have been integrated in higher education among which is Blackboard Learn (BBL). The Blackboard platform is a comprehensive technology platform for teaching, learning, and measuring learning outcomes that consists of integrated modules. It can facilitate interaction between instructors and students by integrating communication tools, including a bulletin board, chat room and private e-mail, graphics, video, and audio files. It also provides instructional tools to support course content such as a glossary, references, self-test, and quiz module. Students can place assignments and other materials in Blackboard for courses in which they are enrolled. Furthermore, Blackboard provides course instructors with managing tools for grading, tracking student interaction, and monitoring class progress (Tarhini et al., 2016). Thus, it facilitates the interaction between students and their teachers and between the students themselves even without time and space limits in two different models-synchronous and asynchronous, which are equally important for developing interaction and cooperation between teachers and learners.

In Saudi Arabia, NCEL (National Centre for E-learning) and SANEED (the Saudi Centre for Support and Counselling) have already been established. In fact, they support the university online learners and teachers with all technological and training requirements (MOHE, 2011). According to Al Augub (2007), most of the institutions and instructors in Saudi Arabia have changed their teaching learning methods with technological development. Most of the institutions use blended learning where part of the instructions and teaching/learning techniques are delivered on line. Najran University, from which the current study sample has been selected, is located in the south region of Saudi Arabia bordering Yemen where the war has been going on for more than five years now. Since then, the Blackboard platform system has been used in teaching and learning and the deanship of e- learning is in charge of supporting all online course delivery methods. As a response to some precautionary steps related to the war in Yemen, Najran University has implemented full-time e- learning for a short period of time in 2015, then, blended learning has been followed till the corona virus pandemic lockdown. In April, 2020, the stakeholders were forced again to switch to full-time e-learning. Hence, EFL teachers in Najran University have already experienced full-time teaching remotely and should have preconceived ideas about methods and techniques of teaching and assessing learners in online education.

KitishatAl Omar and Al Momani (2020) investigated the influence of COVID-19 crisis on teaching English as a second language. As it is universally admitted, every aspect was affected by this unexpected crisis, and teaching was one of the most influenced fields where teachers found themselves turned into distant teaching. Both teachers and students found themselves engaged in virtual classroom by joining an on-line distant virtual teaching environment ran with the help of audio and video conferences such as Microsoft Teams or Zoom conference systems.

The current study aims at investigating how the shift to the new methods may influence the teaching process. Probably, this new reality has its advantages and disadvantages if compared with the traditional ways of teaching. The study intends to verify that on-line teaching is of a great stagnant importance in consideration to the quick mechanized retort and highlights the challenges encountered in EFL online contexts

Learning assessment

Assessment plays a vital role in education in general. It is essential for improving the quality of education and learning process. Also, it motivates students to learn, offers feedback on their progress and measures their achievement and defines the actual curriculum progress.

Language assessment, in particular, has attracted significant academic consideration (Brunfaut & Harding, 2018; Hildén & Fröjdendahl, 2018; Kremmel, Eberharter, Holzknecht, & Konrad, 2018; Kremmel & Harding, 2019). This does not only refer to the assessment at the end of the course (summative assessment), but something that happens throughout the learning process, with feedback to monitor and contact students (formative assessment). Assessment, in general, has been described as "the heart of the student experience", also it is considered as "the single biggest influence on how students approach their learning" (Rust, O'Donovan, & Price, 2005, p. 231). Further, learning assessments are intended to measure whether the actual learning outcomes match the educational programs' desired learning outcomes. Webber (2012, p. 202) provides a more contemporary definition of assessment. He considers assessment as "activities designed primarily to foster student learning".

Research on teachers' perceptions about language assessment

Many factors have influenced assessment in education. The most important factor could be related to teachers' beliefs about the nature and goals of assessment. According to recent research works, teachers believed that assessment should be used to improve learning and teaching and provide information on student progress (Brown, 2004; Muñoz, Palacio & Escobar, 2012). Borg (2003) used the term *teacher cognition,* to cover more than a belief. According to him, cognition refers to knowledge, thoughts, actions and views that language teachers have, so teachers have cognitions about teaching, learning, assessment, and others.

Brown (2004, p. 301) stated that teachers' conceptions of assessment "can be understood in terms of their agreement or disagreement with four purposes to which assessment may be put, specifically, (a) improvement of teaching and learning, (b) school accountability, (c) student accountability, or (d) treating assessment as irrelevant" .

Scarino (2013) emphasized the implicit preconceptions and beliefs that language teachers hold about language assessment which inform their conceptualisations, interpretations and practical decisions in assessment. Shim (2009) also investigated the relation between teachers' beliefs about assessment and their assessment practices in the EFL classroom. He stated that Korean EFL school teachers' conceptions of classroom-based language assessment and their assessment practices were found to be allied with their own belief systems about assessment.

Davis and Neitzel (2011) claimed that assessment depends on four characteristics: (1) How effective and efficient teachers provide feedback. (2) How often students use their

cognitive and metacognitive factors in learning process, (3) How they can work individually or in group, and (4) How teachers understand the purpose of their daily assessment.

Types of assessments

Generally speaking, there are two main types of assessment, each occurring at different levels in the learning process: formative, which occurs both before and during the learning process, and summative, which occurs at the end of key segments in a learning cycle or the end of the learning process. (Challis, 2005; Oosterhof et al., 2008). Formative assessment is usually applied in classes as an ongoing feedback to improve teaching and learning. Summative assessment measures what students have learned at the end of an instructional content, end of a course, or after some specified period (Hargreaves, 2008).

Crisp (2011) mentions four types of assessment tasks: diagnostic assessment that are traditional designs related to a negative model intended to identify deficiencies in students' competences, formative assessment tasks with timely and proper feedback that should be used throughout a course, summative assessment that are used mainly for development and certification purposes, as well as an alternative measure of overall learning, and integrative assessments that are designed to support and measure student self-regulation and the capabilities associated with lifelong learning.

Formative assessment activities are inserted within instructions to monitor learning and assess learners understanding to modify instruction and inform more learning using ongoing and timely feedback until the desired level of knowledge has been achieved (Gikandi et al., 2011). According to Bransford, Vye, and Bateman (2002), formative assessment serves students as well as instructors in many solid ways. For instance, "students can use feedback from formative assessments to help them know what they have not yet mastered and what they need to study on further" (p. 174).

Conversely, summative assessment is used to ensure that the desired learning outcomes have been met or certifies that the required levels of competence have been achieved (Challis, 2005). Feedback must play a central role in the assessment process (Meyen et al., 2002). Self-assessment should be a major component of online distance education. Also, students should have the ability to determine whether they have arrived at the required instructional objectives or they could repeat the coursework by themselves to achieve their goals (Robles & Braathen, 2002).

Many researchers claimed that assessment of learner achievement in distance education should be instructional, continuous, and maximize feedback (Meyen et al., 2002). As stated by

the Online Learning Center (2003) at the University of Houston–Victoria, effective online instruction should involve translating the unique benefits of face-to-face interaction to online activities. The Illinois Online Network indicated that "effective online instruction depends on learning experiences that are designed and facilitated properly by experienced educators" (cited in Gatan& McEwen, 2007, p117).

Further, there are three fundamentals of assessment. These are: validity, reliability and dishonesty. Validity is related to ensuring a variety of meaningful assessment activities that foster contextual, inquiry-based learning and multidimensional perceptions. It is also related to formative feedback's effectiveness in terms of its adequacy, immediacy, stimulating meaningful interactions, and support for learners. Reliability involves chances for ongoing documentation and monitoring learning which informs the feedback process. Dishonesty is related to students truly owning their work and depends on the degree of the achieved validity and reliability (Gikandi et al., 2011).

E-assessment challenges

Despite the enormous growth of e-learning and its perceived advantages in education, numerous studies reported considerable amount of barriers that affect online assessment. Multiple challenges have been emerging. The shift from a physical classroom to a virtual class has changed traditional techniques and assessment methods.

Numerous research works discussed certain variables affecting e- learning assessment such as little or absence of contact with instructors, difficulties to navigate within the system, limited tech- experience, lack of effective interaction and appropriate feedback (Holmes and Gardner, 2006; Kanaan et al., 2013a ; Masa'deh et al., 2013;; Tarhini et al., 2013b).

Al-Nuaim (2012, p.214)) conducted a study to evaluate whether online and face-to-face methods have a different effect on students' performance on the same course taught by the same instructor. The overall results of her study showed that there was no significant difference in the performance of online and face-to-face students in most courses. However, Al-Nuaimie reported some barriers and obstacles encountered in online learning and assessment, including the difficulty of identifying students' identities. She stated "The low integrity of examination and homework results submitted by students who are assessed from a distance, as no proof of their identity or whether they actually did their work themselves exists". Several studies in the literature reported teachers' dissatisfaction of the integrity of online assessment. Compared to traditional exams, the main problem faced in online exams was the cheating problem that could

not be controlled (Harmon & Lambrinos, 2008; King, Guyette, & Piotrowski, 2009; Watson & Sottile, 2010; Yilmaz,(2017).

Over the last few decades several research works have reported significant challenges in assessing online courses (Liang and Creasy, 2004). E- Assessment has been a challenging process in the sense that it required using a frame work that should be valid and reliable. Educators have been experiencing significant changes over the last 20 years. Multiple challenges have been encountered by instructors questioning the consequences of the shift from face to face learning to full-time e learning (Yadov, Gupta, & Khetrapal, 2018).

Research questions

The current research paper seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are EFL teachers' perceptions about e-learning assessment?

2. What are teachers' perceptions of online assessment methods used in assessing students in full-time distance education?

3. Are there any significant differences between the perceptions of female and male teachers regarding e-assessment?

4. What are the challenges that teachers face while assessing students in online courses?

Objectives of the study

This study aims to provide better understanding of teachers' perceptions of assessing learners using full-time online learning. It investigates teachers' techniques used to assess their students in online courses and the challenges they encounter. In addition, the research intends to find whether there is a significant relation between assessing male and female learners in a Saudi EFL context.

Methods

The survey was conducted on EFL teachers at Najran University in Saudi Arabia. A mixture of qualitative and quantitative data was used. Interviews utilizing what's up application was conducted to collect information about challenges of online assessment Quantitative data in the form of a questionnaire was distributed online using Google form to avoid any face-to-face Coronavirus infection, then it was analyzed statistically to investigate responses provided by the teachers. The questionnaire was developed using a 2-point Likert five-point scale from strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree. The questionnaire also included open-ended and close-ended questions to gather information about the types of methods

teachers follow in their e- assessments. The information contained in the questionnaire included: knowledge about e-learning assessment strategies, content, accessibility, usefulness, and satisfaction in using e-learning assessment. The Likert scale survey method was used with a total of 26 EFL instructors. The data obtained from the questionnaire were presented in the form of tables and diagrams to determine the tendency of teachers' perceptions of e-learning assessments using full-time e-learning during the pandemic corona situation. Qualitative data in the form of interviews were used utilizing what's up application to gather information about challenges encountered in online assessment, and were analyzed using a thematic content analysis method.

Results and discussion

In this section, the demographic characteristics of participants and the views related to EFL teachers' perceptions of E-learning assessment and online techniques will be given respectively.

Table 1. The demographic characteristics of teachers participating in the study.

Gender	Rank		Years of teaching experience in higher education		Years of teaching experience on line	
Female	PhD	7	Between(1-10)		Between(1-5)	
		43.75%	8	50%		
					16	100%
	MA	8	Between(11-20)			
		50%	7	43.75%	Between(6-10)	
	BA	1	Between(20-30)			
					0	0
		6.25%	1	6.25%		
Male	PhD	8	Between(1-10)		Between(1-5)	
		80%	3	30%		
					5	50%
	MA	2	Between(11-20)			
		20%	5	50%	Between(6-10)	
	BA	0	Between(20-30)			
		0	2	20%	5	50%

The table above shows that most of the female participants are master holders (50%). Most of them (50%) have between (1-10) years of teaching experience and all of them (100%) have between (1-5) years of online teaching experience. However, most of the male participants are PhD holders (80%). Most of them (50%) have between (11-20) years of teaching experience

and most of them have between ((1-5) years of teaching experience. Hence, most of the participants are highly qualified teachers and have equal percentage of online teaching experience.

Siti Rahaya and Salbiah's (1996) model of explaining means was applied to interpret the levels of means which was summarized in Table 2.

Table 2. Score category breakdown adopted from Siti Rahaya and Salbiah (1996)

Means	Related level
1.0-1.80	Very low
1.81-2.60	Low
2.61-3.40	Moderate
3.41-4.20	High
4.21-5.0	Very high

In order to answer the research question, "What are EFL teachers' perceptions about e-learning assessment?" descriptive statistics have been calculated to indicate the means and standard deviation of the participants' responses to the survey. Table 3 below reveals teachers' perceptions of e- learning assessment.

Table 3. Teachers' perceptions of e-learning assessment

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. I prefer online assessments to paper-based assessments.	26	2.3846	.94136
2. Online learning helps teachers improve their technological skill to assess students using various techniques.	26	4.1923	.80096
3. Students can be evaluated well enough in online education	26	2.6923	.92819
4. Online assessment measures fairly students' achievements.	26	2.42308	.902134
5. Effective use of the BB platform enables teachers to better assess their students.	26	3.2308	.86291
6. Online assessment facilitates recording grades into the electronic grade center immediately faster than paper-based assessments.	26	4.3462	.56159
7. Online assessment allows teachers to measure learning outcomes more accurately.	26	2.8077	.89529
8 Online assessment helps instructors to explore individual student learning differences.	26	2.3077	.83758
9. Management, pedagogical and technical support for instructors help improve their performance.	26	4.1154	.65280

The results from the descriptive statistics showed that EFL teachers expressed either low or moderate attitude towards e-assessment. As shown in table 2, nearly most the items obtained low/ moderate scale except the items 2, 6.and 9 which are related to e-assessment advantages for teachers (i.e., helping teachers improve their technological skill to assess students using various techniques, facilitating recording grades into the electronic grade center immediately faster than paper-based assessments and improving teachers' performance by management, pedagogical and technical support). These items scored (4.1923, 4.3462 and 4.1154) respectively which are rated as very high. Six statements obtained between 2.3077and 3.2308 which are rated between low and moderate. The total mean of the 9 statements is 3.048085 which indicates that the overall mean of all statements related to teachers' perceptions of e-assessment is positively moderate.

Concerning the answer of the second question "What are teachers' perceptions of types of online assessment methods in full-time distance education?" the following table includes statements which are analyzed to calculate the means and standard deviations.

Table 4. Teachers' perceptions of techniques / methods used in online assessment.

Descriptive Statistics

Statements	N	Mean	SD
1. Peer and team assessments can help motivate best efforts as well as help students learn from each other.	26	3.6154	.69725
2. Self-Assessment (students' participation in assessing their own learning process and achievement is an effective assessment method.	26	3.5769	.80861
3. Well-designed group projects help students master both course content and team participation skills.	26	3.7692	.65163
4. Ongoing assessment helps to assess students effectively.	26	3.3077	.67937
5. A variety of subjective questions better assess students than objective questions.	26	3.6538	.93562
6. Formative assessment with timely and appropriate feedback throughout a course is an effective assessment technique	26	4.3846	.75243
7. Diagnostic assessments are useful techniques for determining students' individual strengths, weaknesses prior to instruction.	26	4.2692	.66679
8. Summative assessment to measure the progression overall learning outcomes is an effective assessment technique	26	3.6923	.73589
9. E-portfolios support students' reflective thinking, develop creativity, and increase collaborative work.	26	3.5769	.80861
10. Feedback provided by the instructor in the form of notes to an individual assignment or model-answer to students, helps to assess students effectively.	26	4.1538	.73170

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
11. Online assessment such as online discussion and personal activities in solving learning problems are effective assessment techniques.	26	3.6923	.83758
12. Students should be given instant feedback or answers/acknowledgement to any question without delay.	26	4.2692	.66679
13. Students' participation in discussions on time such as online forums, and their discussion in virtual classes should be assessed.	26	3.8077	.80096
14. Student participation in all synchronous activities should be considered in assessment.	26	3.6923	.73589
15. Synchronous attendance time (log records) should be considered in assessment.	26	3.3846	1.06120
16. Information sharing in environments as wiki, blog should be considered in assessment.	26	3.1154	.86380
17 E-portfolios support students' reflective thinking, develop creativity, and increase collaborative work.	26	3.5769	.80861

In the table above, items are classified into 2 sections: First: items (1-12) are related to e-assessment methods' advantages. Second: items (13-17) are related to techniques considered in assessment. As revealed, most of the statements related to teachers' perceptions of e-assessment methods scored between high/very high means between 3.1154 and 4.3846 which reflects positive perceptions of teachers towards e- assessment methods. Furthermore, items related to teachers' perceptions of online techniques that should be considered in assessment scored high means between (3.8077- 3.1154), which reflects positive perceptions towards online techniques.

In order to answer the question "What are the challenges that teachers face while assessing students in online courses?" the items in table below were analyzed.

Table 5. Teachers' perceptions of challenges they face in online assessment

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Teachers face problems in assessing students online.	26	3.3462	1.09334
2. Lack of physical interaction could present a limiting factor in assessing students in full-time e-learning.	26	4.1923	.74936
Teem work sometimes is impractical because students are more accustomed to completing assignments individually than with peers as part of a team.	26	3.6923	.78838
4. Online summative assessments are associated with anxiety	26	3.5769	.70274
3. Many students do not submit assignments on time due to their poor technical capabilities.	26	3.6923	1.12318
4. E-assessment of translation courses is problematic.	26	4.0385	.99923
4. It is difficult to conduct peer or teem assessment.	26	3.3846	.75243

5. There is a higher risk of students cheating in online assessments.	26	4.7692	.42967
6. Technical difficulties such as overloaded platform is one of the basic challenges during exams.	26	4.3462	.79711
7. I find it difficult to e-assess students in listening &speaking course.	26	4.1154	.90893
8. Synchronous activities are difficult to be assessed in groups of large number of students	26	4.3077	.67937
9. Many students always ask about postponing the submission of exams/assignments for various excuses.	26	4.0385	.72004
10. Many students submit assignments that include high percentages of plagiarism that are copied from websites without modifying or paraphrasing statements.	26	4.5769	.64331
11. Many students copy each other's assignments	26	4.5000	.58310

Table 5 reveals teachers' perceptions of challenges they face in online assessments. As revealed from the analyzed results, most items scored high/very high means ranging between 3.3462 and 4.7692 which indicates that teachers face serious challenges in assessing students online. It is clear that items related to lack of physical interaction, assessment of speaking and translation courses, high risk of cheating and plagiarism, technical difficulties, and assessing a large number of students scored the highest among other factors that reveal the serious effect of such factors on assessing students in full-time e-learning.

To have more details about the challenges encountered in online assessment, the data collected from the interviews were analyzed. The most critical challenge that teachers face was how to guarantee the integrity of online assessment. For example, the following data come from interviews in which the teachers considered online exams' integrity as a challenge.

Teacher A:

> I think that maintaining academic integrity is one of the main challenges for example, due to the limitations of online instruction, some learning outcomes may be neglected and perhaps unfulfilled (e.g., teamwork).

Teacher B:

> The only challenge I face is that traditional assessment methods (the ones we used in presence classrooms) are no longer valid. I have to devise other techniques in order to ensure academic integrity.

Issues like plagiarism, cheating and checking the identity of those performing tests were complained about by almost all the teachers interviewed. Most teachers complained that online exams allowed students to cheat either from each other or

from online sources. Below are some responses of teachers expressing their dissatisfaction of plagiarism and cheating in online exams.

Teacher C:

> In online assessment procedures, as an examiner, my concern of
> the genuine attempt of exam is multiplied as I have no mechanism
> to ensure that actually it's the student who is attempting the exam.

Many teachers were wondering how they can guarantee that students are not cheating answers from each other. They claimed that online assessment may result in academic dishonesty on the part of students, which is considered an opportunity to gain grades through cheating. They said that online exams offered students chances to get high marks through cheating, which is in line with the previous studies on challenges of online assessment.

Many teachers complained that their workload has been increased in online assessment. Since teachers realize that students can cheat, they resort to, for instance, preparing different exams or question banks, which is extra work that consumes time and energy. Even teachers roles as academic counsellors have somewhat shifted online unexpectedly, which naturally adds extra workload.

Teacher D complained about the extra workload saying:

> The online assessment is time-consuming, particularly when one
> considers the number of exams per semester, the number of
> students in sections, and the number of courses one teaches.

Additionally, many teachers complained of reoccurring technical issues and internet disconnections which affected the reliability and validity of exams, which could not be achieved unless all students were under the same conditions while doing exams. Online platforms were often experiencing malfunctions and technical support that might not be a valuable resource during the limited time of exams. This might be exhausting for some instructors and stressing for students. Teachers claimed that some students faced connectivity issues, or some other type of technical issues that interrupted the assessment process's smooth flow. Part of the exam time was spent in contacting the technicians while doing their exams to

get their problems solved. Therefore, their attention was diverted which sometimes resulted in student disillusionment because they could not focus and continue as earlier.

For summative assessment, some teachers complained that the application used (BB) offered limited options to frame the questions, as it was designed for all the courses. So, the nature of questions that were compatible with the program reduced the variety of questions which were very important to achieve the course learning outcomes.

Finally, some teachers complained that students lacked training to budget their time for online assessments and they always sought for some extra time to answer. These teachers claimed that students seemed unduly concerned about their attempts and sometimes they were skeptical about the checking or marking of their answers. Consequently, many of them were at times inquisitive to the extent of annoying.

In order to answer the research question "Are there any significant differences between the perceptions of female and male teachers regarding e-assessment?" An analysis is attempted to check whether there is any significant difference between the perceptions of male and female participants.

Table 6. The correlation between the perceptions of female and male teachers regarding e-assessment.

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1st factor	male	10	3.5632	.48622	.15376	3.2153	3.9110
	female	16	3.7895	.39898	.09975	3.5769	4.0021
	Total	26	3.7024	.43958	.08621	3.5249	3.8800
2nd factor	male	10	3.5632	.48622	.15376	3.2153	3.9110
	female	16	3.7895	.39898	.09975	3.5769	4.0021
	Total	26	3.7024	.43958	.08621	3.5249	3.8800
3rd factor	male	10	4.1182	.55057	.17410	3.7243	4.5120
	female	16	4.2102	.41556	.10389	3.9888	4.4317
	Total	26	4.1748	.46349	.09090	3.9876	4.3620

As shown in the table above, there was no significant difference between male and female teachers' perceptions regarding the three factors investigated. Both male and female participants scored high means in items related to the first factor which deals with teachers' perceptions of e-learning assessment: Male scored 3.5632 and female scored 3.7895. Similarly, in the second factor which includes items related to teachers' perceptions of techniques/ methods used in online assessment, the male and female participants scored high, respectively,

at 3.5632 and 3.7895. Concerning items related to the third factor that deals with challenges teachers may face in online assessment, both male and female participants scored very high means 4.1182 and 4.2102.

Conclusion

This study investigated four factors related to online assessment: (1) EFL teachers' perceptions of e-learning assessment, (2) types of online assessment methods used, (3) challenges that teachers face while assessing students online and (4) if there were any significant differences between the perceptions of female and male teachers regarding e-assessment.

The results showed that the vast majority of EFL teachers expressed a moderate attitude towards e-assessment. Also, they expressed positive attitudes towards techniques/methods used in online assessment. However, the majority of them encountered serious challenges in online assessments. Moreover, the study revealed that there was no significant difference between the perceptions of male and female teachers regarding the four factors investigated.

Suggestions for Further Studies

The current study highlights the necessity of conducting further studies in the EFL context investigating the challenges encountered in online learning and suggesting appropriate actions to solve them. Also, there can be a study investigating learners' perceptions of online assessment and their problems while doing online exams.

Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author.

References

Adnan, A. H. M., Ahmad, M. K., Yusof, A. A., Mohd Kamal, M. A., & Mustafa Kamal, N. N. (2019). English Language Simulations Augmented with 360-degrees spherical videos (ELSA 360°-Videos): 'Virtual Reality' real life learning! In MNNF Publisher (Ed.), Leading Towards Creativity & Innovation (Series 1) (pp. 82-88). Senawang: MNNF Publisher

Alfallaj, F. S. S. (2020). Technology in Saudi EFL undergraduate classrooms: Learning tool or weapon of distraction? *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16 (4), 97-115.

Al-Augub, A. M. (2007). *Benefits, barriers and attitudes of Saudi female faculty and students towards online learning in higher education.* Doctoral dissertation. Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3258686)

Al-Nuaim, H. A. (2012). The use of virtual classrooms in e-learning: a case study in King Abdulaziz University, Saudi Arabia. *E-Learning and Digital Media 9*(2): 211-222. *www.wwwords.co.uk/ELEA*

Alshurideh, M., Masa'deh, R. and Alkurdi, B. (2012). The effect of customer satisfaction upon customer retention in the Jordanian mobile market: An empirical investigation. *European Journal of Economics, Finance and Administrative Sciences, 47*, 69-78.

AL-Syaidh, N. H. J., & Al-Zu'bi, Z. (2015). Transformational leadership and its impact on the effectiveness of employees' behavior in the public and private Jordanian hospitals. *Jordan Journal of Business Administration, 11* (1), 23-57.

Bartlett, J. E., II, K. A. Reynolds, and M. W. Alexander. (2000). A tool for online learning. *Journal of Online Learning. 11 (*3–4): 22–24.

Bransford, J., Vye, N., and Bateman, H. *Creating High-Quality Learning Environments: Guidelines from Research on How People Learn*. In P. A. Graham and N. G. Stacey (eds.), The Knowledge Economy and Postsecondary Education: Report of a Workshop. Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 2002.

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. DOI: 10.1017/S0261444803001903

Burgess, S. and Sievertsen, H., 2020. Schools, skills, and learning: The impact of COVID19 on education. [online] VOXEU. Available at: [Accessed 8 July 2020].

Boyle, S. L. T., K. Kolosh, J. L'Allier, & J. Lambrecht. (2003). Thompson NETg's blended-learning model: The next generation of corporate and school-based learning. *The Delta Pi Epsilon 45* (3): 145–161.

Brown, G. (2004) Teachers' conceptions of assessment: implications for policy and professional development. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 11*(3), 301-318. DOI: 10.1080/0969594042000304609

Brunfaut, T., & Harding, L. (2018). Teachers setting the assessment (literacy) agenda: A case study of a teacher-led national test development project in Luxembourg. In D. Xerri & P. Vella Briffa (Eds.), *Teacher involvement in high-stakes language testing* (pp. 155–172). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Challis, D. (2007). Committing to quality learning through adaptive online assessment. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 30*(5), 519–527. Doi.org/10.1080/02602930500187030

Clark, R., & Mayer, R. (2011). *E-Learning and the Science of Instruction: Proven Guidelines for Consumers and Designers of Multimedia Learning*. Pfeiffer; 3rd Edition (August 16, 2011).

Crisp, G. (2011). Teacher's Handbook on e-Assessment. California: Australian Learning and Teaching Council Fellowship. Retrieved from http://transformingassessment.com/sites/default/files/files/Handbook_for_teachers.pdf

Gaytan,J & C. McEwen,B. (2007) Effective online instructional and assessment strategies. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 21:3, 117-132, DOI: 10.1080/08923640701341653

Gikandi, J. W., Morrow, D., & Davis, N. E. (2011). Online formative assessment in higher education: A review of the literature. *Computers & Education*, 57(4), 2333–2351. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2011.06.004

Hargreaves, E. (2008). *Assessment. In G. McCulloch, & D. Crook (Eds*.), The Routledge international encyclopedia of education (pp. 37–38). New York: Routledge.

Hajir, J. A., Obeidat, B. Y., & Al-dalahmeh, M. A., (2015). The role of knowledge management infrastructure in enhancing innovation at mobile telecommunication companies in Jordan. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 50* (3), 313-330.

Harmon, O. R., & Lambrinos, J. (2008). Are online exams an invitation to cheat? *The Journal of Economic Education, 39*(2), 116-125. Doi.org/10.3200/JECE.39.2.116-125

Hildén, H., & Fröjdendahl, B. (2018). The dawn of assessment literacy – Exploring the conceptions of Finnish student teachers in foreign languages. Apples – *Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 12(1), 1–24. Doi:10.17011/apples/urn.201802201542

Holmes, B. and Gardner, J. (2006). *E-Learning: Concepts and Practic*e, London: SAGE Publications.

Horton, W. (2011). *E-Learning by Design*. Wiley, London: UK.

Illinois Online Network. 2005. Instructional strategies for online courses. Illinois Online Network and the Board of Trustees of the University of Illinois. Available online at http://www.ion.uillinois.edu/resources/tutorials/pedagogy/instructionalstrategies.asp [Google Scholar]

Kanaan, R., Masa'deh, R., & Gharaibeh, A. (2013). The impact of knowledge sharing enablers on knowledge sharing capability: An empirical study on Jordanian telecommunication firms. *European Scientific Journal, 9*(22), 237-258. DOI: https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2013.v9n22p%25p

Keller, C., Hrastinski, S., & Carlsson, S. A. (2007). Students' acceptanc of e-Learning Environments: A comparative study in Sweden and Lithuania. *International Business*, 395-406.

King, C. G., Guyette Jr, R. W., & Piotrowski, C. (2009). Online exams and cheating: An empirical analysis of business students' views. *Journal of Educators Online*, 6(1).

Kitishat, A. R., Al Omar, K. H., & Al Momani, M. A. K. (2020). The Covid-19 crisis and distance learning: E-teaching of language between reality and challenges. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 316-326.

Kremmel, B., & Harding, L. (2019). Towards a comprehensive, empirical model of language assessment literacy across stakeholder groups: Developing the language assessment literacy survey. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 17(1), 100–120. Doi:10.1080/15434303.2019.1674855

Kremmel, B., Eberharter, K., Holzknecht, F., & Konrad, E. (2018). Fostering language assessment literacy through teacher involvement in high-stakes test development. In D. Xerri & P. Vella Briffa (Eds.), *Teacher involvement in high-stakes language testing* (pp. 173–194). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.

Liang, Xin and Creasy, Kim (2004) . Classroom assessment in web-based instructional environment: Instructors' experience. *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation*: *9*, Article 7. DOI: https://doi.org/10.7275/84mr-wp41 Available at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/pare/vol9/iss1/7

Maqableh, M. M., Rajab, L., Quteshat, W., Khatib, T., & Karajeh, H. (2015). The impact of social media networks websites usage on students' academic performance. *Communications and Network*, 7 (4), 159-171.

Masa'deh, R., Gharaibeh, A., Maqableh, M., & Karajeh, H. (2013). An empirical study of antecedents and outcomes of knowledge sharing capability in

Jordanian telecommunication firms: A structural equation modeling approach. *Life Science Journal*, *10*(4), 2284-2296.

Meyen, E.L., Aust, R. J., Bui, Y. N., & Isaacson, R. (2002). Assessing and monitoring student progress in an e-learning personnel preparation environment. *Teacher education and special education, 25* (2). 187-198.

Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE). (2011). The Current Status of Higher Education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Retrieved from http://www.mohe.gov.sa/en/Ministry/General-administration-for-Public-relations/BooksList/stat7eng.pdf

Nambiar, R., Nor, N. M., Ismail, K., & Adam, S. (2017). New learning spaces and transformations in teacher pedagogy and student Learning behavior in the language learning classroom. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature, 23*(4), 29–40. Doi.org/10.17576/3L-2017-2304-03

Online Learning Center. 2003. Instructional strategies: Elements of instructional design. University of Houston–Victoria. Available online at http://www.uhv.edu/webct/faculty/design/strategies.htm

Patil, D. P. (2020). Trends and challenges in English language teaching. *Studies in Indian place names, 40*(39), 158-164.

Meyen, E.L., Aust, R. J., Bui, Y. N., & Isaacson, R. (2002). Assessing and monitoring student progress in an e-learning personnel preparation environment. *Teacher education and special*

education, 25 (2). 187-198.

Muñoz, A., Palacio, M. & Escobar, L. (2012). Teachers' beliefs about assessment in an EFL ontext in Colombia. Profile. *Issues in teachers' professional development, 14*(1), 143-158.

Oosterhof, A., Conrad, R. M., & Ely, D. P. (2008). *Assessing learners online*. New Jersey: Pearson

Robles, M. & Braathen, S. (2002). Online assessment techniques. *Delta Pi Epsilon Journal*, 44(1), 39-49. Retrieved November 11, 2020 from https://www.learntechlib.org/p/93435/.

Rust, C., B. O'Donovan, and M. Price. (2005). A social constructivist assessment process model:

How the research literature shows us this could be best practice. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education 30*: 23140.

Tarhini, A., Elyas, T., Akour, M. A., & Al-Salti, Z. (2016). Technology, demographic characteristics and e-Learning acceptance: A Conceptual model based on extended technology acceptance model. *Higher Education Studies, 6* (3), 72-89. Doi:10.5539/hes.v6n3p72

Tarhini, A., Hone, K. and Liu, X. (2013b). Factors affecting students' acceptance of e-Learning environments in developing countries: A structural equation modeling approach. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology 3*, 54-59.

Scarino, A. (2013). Language assessment literacy as self-awareness: Understanding the role of interpretation in assessment and in teacher learning. *Language Testing, 30*(3), 309–327. doi:10.1177/ 0265532213480128

Shannak, R., Al-Zu'bi, Z., Obeidat, B., Alshurideh, M., & Altamony, H. (2012). A Theoretical perspective on the relationship between knowledge management systems, customer knowledge management, and firm competitive advantage. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 32*, 520-532.

Shank, P. (2005).Developing learning assessments for classroom, online, and blended learning. Workshop Materials. Denver, CO: Learning Peaks.

Watson, G. R., & Sottile, J. (2010). Cheating in the digital age: Do students cheat more in online courses? *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration* 13(1).

Webber, K. L. (2012). The use of learner-centered assessment in US colleges and universities. *Research in Higher Education, 53*(2), 201–228. doi:10.1007/s11162- 011-9245-0

Windschitl, M., & Sahl, K. (2002). Tracing teachers' use of technology in a laptop computer school: The interplay of teacher beliefs, social dynamics, and institutional culture. *American Educational Research Journal, 39*(1), 165-205.

Yadav, N., Gupta, K., & Khetrapal, V. (2018). Next education: technology transforming education. *South Asian Journal of Business and Management Cases*, 68-77.

Yilmaz,R. (2017). Problems experienced in evaluating success and performance in distance education n: a case study. *The Turkish online journal of distance education. 18*(1). 39-51. DOI https://doi.org/10.17718/tojde.285713

English Reading Habits in Online Learning among Tertiary Learners in Pakistan: Evaluating the impact of COVID

Quratulain Mirza

Assistant Professor, ELDC

Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Jamshoro, Pakistan

quratulain.mirza@faculty.muet.edu.pk

Dr. Habibullah Pathan

Associate Professor, ELDC

Mehran University of Engineering and Technology Jamshoro, Pakistan

habibullah.pathan@faculty.muet.edu.pk

Sameena Khokhar

Assistant Professor, IELL University of Sindh Jamshoro, Pakistan

Dr. Muhammad Arslan Raheem

Assistant Professor, University of Education Pakistan

Ms. Faiza Mushtaq

Lecturer, National University of Modern Languages, Pakistan

Abstract

COVID-19 has had critical global impacts on the lives of people around the world, causing not only deathly devastation but also, serious educational and economic loss in the world. It forced educational institutes to hastily shift to the online mode with little preparation to take the plunge or execute learning objectives. It was not different in Pakistan either. However, this drastic change also created new opportunities for academic research to once again fathom the limits of the human mind, prompting studies embedded in the new pedagogies. The current study contributes to the recently generated literature on the impact of these pandemic related changes

on the learning process, specifically the repercussions for the English reading habits of tertiary learners in Pakistan. This is a qualitative research with emphasis on content analysis of the interviews with ten university students in Pakistan. The study outcomes revealed that the pandemic had negatively impacted the academic lives of the students with distress arising out of dearth of resources to access the means for online education, technological ignorance causing regression in their learning, and due to these two factors, a steady decline in the English reading habits of these learners. Further, the findings highlighted that in underdeveloped countries such as Pakistan, with a large number of learners affected by poverty and fear, sometimes brought about as a result of the pandemic, online learning cannot produce desired results. While online learning may alleviate some of the undesirable effects of face-to-face university education, such as equality in the entry for remote or working students, other problems may also be amplified. To be an effective learning process based on technology, a collaborative approach involving all stakeholders, intuitive support, and the use of free online training resources should be promoted.

Introduction

Soon after the Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19) was reported as terminal pneumonia in December 2019 in Wuhan, Hubei Province, China, as pointed out by different studies (Adeyemi, 2020; Mian & Chachar, 2020; Qiu et al., 2020), the World Health Organization (WHO) declared it a pandemic on March 12, 2020 (Liu & Heinz, 2020; Noor et al., 2020). Against an alarming 71.6 million confirmed cases across 216 countries as of November 2020, 46.8 million patients were reported to have recovered (Zhu et al., 2020). Various authoritative measures were pressed into implementation to contain the spread of the disease. These included travel restrictions, social divisions, bans on public gatherings, multiple warnings, self-exclusion, institutional confinement, inconvenience of blocking, curfews, and forcing people to stay in their homes. Authorities from several countries worldwide reported the necessity of curfews, lockdowns, or social isolations as mandatory to stop the rapid spread of the contagious disease. On the contrary, these measures severely affected social security, education, tourism, and the very running of nations. Singh and Adhikari (2020) stated that the COVID pandemic affected all levels of education with schools and universities closing down indefinitely for physical teaching to limit community activity to reduce transmission of the COVID.

In Pakistan, the primary manifestation of COVID-19 was detected on February 26, 2020 (Noor et al., 2020), escalated quickly so that by March 23, 2020, government agencies were forced to bring the country to standstill in desperate efforts to contain COVID-19. This complete isolation was replaced by state authority with the smart lockdown on May 9, 2020. However, all organizations, public places, and educational institutions remained closed during this period. The countrywide lockdown, social isolation, and closure of institutions substantially influenced individuals' mental health, more specifically of the student community with classes rapidly to remote and online formats. This brought to the fore other problems related to online learning, such as, English reading problems, lack of digital skills, lack of learning facilities and mental stress that needed to be addressed urgently. Furthermore, some other issues highlighted by higher education students were difficulty in learning due to the lack of face-to-face interaction with the instructor, poor reaction time and lack of traditional classroom socialisation. In Pakistan, the current study was the first of its kind to explore the impact of this pandemic on university students' reading habits in English. Furthermore, this study also aimed to identify the hindrances they faced in keeping up with their reading and learning of English.

Literature Review: What did the students read?

A study by Tyagi et al. (2020) at Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar University in India showed that college students read every day in both print and electronic form. The results also showed that most students simply read for one to three hours a day with an average drop of an hour in their overall reading time. Also, it turned out that the majority of students read from their phones. Akhtarul et al., (2020) conducted a cross-sectional survey among students during COVID-19 isolation in a city in northern India. The results showed that most students read in isolation, which allowed them to learn new skills and increase their information. It was noted that during isolation at least of the participants reported a genuine sense of serenity. In another venture, Parikh et al., (2020) completed a review to show browsing propensity for various library users during the COVID-19 lockdown. The results showed that most respondents read more from electronic resources, especially books, and mostly read their favorite books. Besides, viewing video content was was seen as an essential by a majority of respondents. Based upon these findings, the study suggested that the discovery should convince policymakers to create a satisfactory e-library structure to offer impartial assistance in circumstances such as COVID-19. Bolatov et al., (2020) investigated the propensity of university adults during the first month of COVID-19 lockdown. The results showed that the time spent reading had, in fact, increased from 4 hours, 35 minutes a day before the lockdown, to 5 hours, 45 minutes a day during the

lockdown. Further, it was noted that most of the readers used online reading materials for familiarization with the illness, for relaxation, and for social reasons. Kaur and Ghuman (2019) concluded from an investigation of the reading habits of graduate students at a college in India and concluded that most of the students enjoyed reading, and showed a preference for the print version as it helped them grasp the context better. However, students read equally from print and screen, such as via workstations and phones. This study also showed that printed and non-printed materials are used to a relative extent for study by students though they have a liking for the former. These findings also showed that the students' decision-making process about the selection of the reading materials was quite balanced for picking electronic and textbooks, but the textbooks still remained their priority for academic reading.

However, where it was a question of learning for academic purposes, a lack of resources in educational institutions and social marginalization of students, as well as the lack of the most recent innovations, affected the responsiveness of the educational institutions and the ability of the students to participate in the process of digital learning (Farooq et al., 2020). Lack of proper communication with teachers was another major problem associated with online learning. Besides, questions related to the content of any online course are usually discussed with the instructor of the respective course via email, which takes time to respond (Qureshi et al., 2012). Virtual classrooms were not suitable for students who are habitual to study via textbooks or paper books (Abbasi et al., 2020). Lack of socialization afforded by a regular classroom was another major drawback of online learning. Students simply talked discreetly with their peers and missed meeting them face-to-face, that is why the constant exchange of thoughts, information, and data is missed in the process of online learning (Ali et al., 2020).

Despite the ubiquity of e-learning around the world, most institutions never considered it as part of formal learning in Pakistan until the recent spread of Covid-19 (Qureshi et al., 2012). Consequently, like many other facets of modern life, COVID-19 has had a severe effect on academics, teachers, and educational institutions in the country. However, due to circumstances of isolation, many schools, universities and even businesses in the country were forced to opt for the online mode. IT support for management systems was readily available to the faculty members only in a few institutions of higher education. Video conference software such as Zoom and Microsoft Teams were predominantly used for synchronous learning (Farooq et al., 2020). University directors and faculty remained proactive to ensure effective e-learning using e-learning exercises, case-based e-learning, etc., to continue learning without being greatly affected by the restrictions of isolation. Likewise, educators explored various online teaching programs to optimize learning during this period.

Haider et al. (2020) stated that the preference of most of the students before the Covid lockdown was face-to-face or physical learning in comparison to online learning. In addition, Qureshi et al., (2012) highlighted the issues faced by students due to low proficiency in English which greatly hampered opportunities for online reading in the language. They further suggested that English as an educational medium is a major obstacle to supporting e-learning in non-English-speaking countries like Pakistan. Due to poor confidence in interpreting the quality of English written materials, students with low competence are not likely to use e-learning. Likewise, a study conducted in Palestine by Shraim & Khlaif (2010) showed that most of the respondents thought language handicap was an obstacle to e-learning. An important finding of this study was that students were not yet ready for e-learning. However, a study by Khatoon et al. (2020) showed that students are involved in the use of technology in ESL classes through blogging, as the status of second language education using blogs in Pakistani engineering universities is still in the initial stages. Blog reading in English is viewed by language learning students as a reliable and productive method for improving their reading skills.

Apart from skills and tech-ability, the basic infrastructure or paraphernalia for e-reading, viz, a smart device and good internet connectivity, also obstructed learners from reading in English during the pandemic period. The laptop has arguably become one of the most popular e-learning devices over tablets and smartphones. A study by Maham et al. (2018) with college students found that 66 percent of students used cell phones to become familiar with electronic technology; another study (Mukhtar et al., 2020) found that 76 percent of students preferred cell phones for e-learning. Yet another study from Spain supported similar findings, that mobile phones are preferred by students for e-learning as they easily facilitate interaction of the students with their teachers in comparison to other devices (Farooq et al., 2020). Another basic explanation for this is that with mobile phones, learning can happen anytime, anywhere (Abbasi et al., 2020). However, online education imposed by the Covid 19 outbreak was not welcomed by university learners in Pakistan and informal interactions showed that they missed the freedom of multidimensional interaction offered by classroom settings. Ali et al. (2020) confirmed that this behavior was exhibited by students in several other countries including Malaysia, China, Singapore, and India (Ali et al., 2020).

Methodology

This study employed a qualitative research design. In this process, open-ended interviews were utilized to collect data from the participants who were ten first-year undergraduate students at Mehran University of Engineering and Technology, Pakistan. Of these five were females and five males, with median age falling at 18.5 years and an equal number of years of formal education. However, three of the participants were from non-governmental school system though the medium of education for all was Urdu. In addition to observance of ethical considerations including confidentiality of data, official documentary consent to electronically record the interviews was obtained from the respondents after they were duly informed of the procedure and purpose of the study. All participants were code named (RP1, RP2 and so on) to ensure the secrecy of their personal information. Because of the lockdown and closure of the educational institutions, the interviews were conducted telephonically with the interview duration ranging from 25 to 40 minutes, were conducted in the preferred language of the respondents, viz. Urdu, and transcribed into word documents for ease of use. The conventional content analysis technique was employed (Bailey, 2008; Bengtsson, 2016) for data evaluation. In this procedure, recurrent patterns and themes are identified through a systematic classification procedure with the help of coding in conventional content analysis. The content analysis has a significant contribution to the analysis of the human experiences and perceptions for in-depth understanding of phenomena (Saunders et al., 2018).

Results and Discussion

The content analysis was conducted based upon the qualitative and open-ended interviews of the research participants, and three main themes were identified from the data: Pandemic effects and problems, reading motives, and reading problems vis-à-vis English language. These main themes were summarised from eleven sub-themes: Fear of being affected by the virus, financial loss, disturbed social life affected, internet issues, information collection on COVID, increasing skills, inability to meet guidelines, and difficulty in reading electronic books, trauma caused by change from traditional learning (face to face) to online learning (e-learning), low English proficiency and lack of English reading skills training, and lack of adequate access to the web for learning. These are listed in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Content Analysis

Main Category	Sub Category	Codes
Pandemic Effects and Problems	Fear of being affected by virus	I think I have got a phobia of being affected by the virus. Even a little sneeze or headache makes me worried. (1)
	Financial Loss	My father's business is closed (2) Our family did not have savings (2) Prices of goods are increased (2)
	Social life affected	Unable to meet friends (3) Unable to go for outing and refreshment (3) Staying at home makes me sick (3)
	Internet issues	The internet speed is very slow (4) In my village, the internet does not work properly (4)
Reading Motives	Information collection about COVID	I started reading articles and research papers in English on COVID to have more awareness (5) I read more on precautions about COVID (5) I started reading more English language articles about first aid and self-help to counter COVID Virus (5)
	Increasing skills	I started reading many new things in English (6) I have started reading about new skills (6)
Reading Problems	Unable to get on time guidelines	Because of lockdown, most of the time is wasted because whenever I need urgent help for my studies, I do not get that (7) My friends and teachers reply to my texts very late, and it causes many problems for me when I need their help (7)
	Difficulty in reading electronic books	I do not have digital skills (8) I do not know how to get online reading materials (8) Most of the sites I visit do not offer free digital books (8)
Online learning Challenges	Change from traditional learning (face to face) to online learning (e-learning)	I am not enjoying online classes as they are so boring even, I cannot concentrate on lectures and sometimes I cannot understand, we need face to face classes otherwise semester should be postponed. (9)
	Low proficiency and lack of reading skills	I get frustrated because I am not confident reading English content on the screen, cannot comprehend the text and face difficulties while reading. (9)
	Lack of adequate access to the web for learning.	We have a WhatsApp group on which teachers share recorded lectures but it's quite annoying because the quality of voice is so poor that I cannot understand what the teacher said. I usually use my phone instead of a laptop and cannot access much online content. (10)

Content Analysis

The following section elucidates in detail on the three main themes reflected in the participants' response.

Pandemic Effects and Problems

The responses of the participants show that pandemic caused mental, social and educational issues for them. As RP-2 said, "*the news from different developed countries and Pakistan has made me worried, and I think I have got a phobia of being affected by the virus; even a little sneeze or headache makes me worried.*" Many previous studies (Mumtaz et al., 2021; Noor et al., 2020; Rabbani et al., 2020; Singh & Adhikari, 2020) found that COVID has caused mental issues among students particularly, and generally in most people. Another participant, RP-4, stated, "*we are facing financial losses, the business of my father has been closed because of lockdown, and my family did not have savings for such bad days. On the other hand, the prices of goods have also increased*". This finding replicates the findings of Aqeel et al. (2020); Armed et al. (2020); Singh & Adhikari (2020), which showed that during COVID Lockdown, the financial losses got people into serious existential trap. The response of another participant (RP-7) was, "*due to lockdown my social life is highly affected, I am a social person and now I am unable to meet my friends due to which I am unable to refresh myself and staying at home is problematic for me every day. I feel like I am sick, I suffer from depression or anxiety*". The same results were reported by Saraswathi et al. (2020)).One of the respondents (RP-5) stated, "*There is an internet issue, I belong to the village where there is no facility of internet.*" Another respondent (RP-6) mentioned, "*I cannot attend online classes properly and need digital support because of the slow speed of the internet.*" The same findings have been supported by Dhahri et al. (2020); Noor et al. (2020); Ramzan & Singh (2009); Shehzadi et al. (2020). Pakistan is still a developing country, most of its regions have internet issues, and the students of Mehran University are mostly from middle-class families with rural and small town residence in interior Sindh where technology has not yet reached every nook and corner.

Reading Motives

In response to the questions on English reading habits and the students' reading motives during COVID-19 lockdown, participant RP-8 reported, "I mostly read research papers and articles related to *COVID-19 to learn about its symptoms, precautions and first-aid or cure of the virus*". The present study's findings are on the footprints of the previous studies (Adeyemi, 2020; Parikh, Vyas, Sharad Parikh, et al., 2020) that found that during the lockdown, students'

reading time increased, but they spent this time on reading up on information about the pandemic and not their academic pursuits but they were indeed reading in English. Likewise, another student (RP-1) stated, "*I have more time to spend at home. Therefore, I read new things to learn new skills*". This finding is according to the previous studies (Armed et al., 2020; Mheidly et al., 2020; Mumtaz et al., 2021) that also found that most of the students spent their time during lockdown to pass their time or they read books for their pleasure. In addition to this, Adeyemi (2020) also found that most students read more to gain new skills during the lockdown. However, some studies (Parikh, Vyas, & Parikh, 2020a; Tyagi et al., 2020; Vyas & Tandel, 2020) found that during the lockdown, the students' reading habits had been negatively affected.

Reading Problems

When the research participants were asked to have a detailed discussion about their reading problems in English, one of the participants (RP-3) mentioned, "*because of COVID-19 lockdown and social isolation, my time gets wasted a lot. Whenever I need immediate help, I could not get it.*" It is a fact that Engineering students need some practical help from their teachers, mentors, or friends in their studies, which they are unable to get because of travel restrictions. Likewise, previous studies (Akhtarul et al., 2020; Islam et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2020) have also reported that the lockdown had caused more disturbance in Pakistani university students' lives. Another participant (RP-2) stated, "*I do not have good digital skills; therefore, I need help from my teachers and friends for my studies, but I do not get that because they reply to me very late.*" This finding is supported by Dhahri et al. (2020); Noor et al. (2020); Shehzadi et al. (2020), who have also highlighted that most Pakistani students, even some teachers, do not have adequate digital skills. Another research participant (RP-4) said, "*I do not know how to search online study material and get downloaded free PDF books; therefore, I feel difficulty in reading at home.*" The education system in Pakistan is yet developing. Therefore, very few institutions have implemented blended learning techniques (digital/internet and text/printed books) and even less follow English as the medium of instruction; which is why most students lack digital or technical skills. These findings are supported by other studies (Dhahri et al., 2020; Noor et al., 2020; Saaid & Wahab, 2014; Sehar & Ghaffar, 2018), that found that most of the students in Pakistan lack digital skills. However, to participate effectively online, students need to have the computer skills necessary.

Online learning challenges

The current study also examines the difficulties of online learning faced by students in the time of the pandemic. Issues associated with the change from traditional learning (face to face) to online learning (e-learning), low proficiency, lack of English reading skills and accessibility of reliable internet connections and/or technologies. The participants were asked about their online-learning experiences. One of the participants (RP-9) stated, "*I am not enjoying online classes as they are so boring even, I cannot concentrate on lectures and sometimes I cannot understand, we need face to face classes otherwise semester should be postponed*". The degree of adverse attitudes towards the use of technology is evidenced by student reluctance. Lokman (n.d.) suggested that new things are challenging and induce opposition or dismissal because students who have been studying in a system where they are accustomed to being "spoon-fed" would exhibit poor attitudes or even oppose e-learning. This finding is supported by other studies too (Aboagye et al., 2020; Qureshi et al., 2012) which suggested that in contrast to online learning, the choice of most students is face-to-face or physical learning. Despite this fact, Adnan and Anwar (2020) highlighted that Pakistani students are already exposed to the internet and social media and spend a large amount of their time online for entertainment purposes but not for their academic learning. However, in contrast to this finding, some other studies (Khatoon et al., 2020; Maham et al., 2018; Mukhtar et al., 2020) found that undergraduates had positive attitude towards e-learning as they preferred online-learning over old school approaches through the use of digital technology.

Other issues that students were dealing with included low proficiency in English and lack of reading skills training. In non-English-speaking countries like Pakistan, English as a tool for teaching and learning is a significant barrier to encouraging e-learning. Because of poor confidence in interpreting the quality of English written materials, students with low competence are not likely to use e-learning. One participant (RP -9) mentioned, "*I get frustrated because I am not confident reading English content on the screen, cannot comprehend the text and face difficulties while reading*". The response shows a lack of confidence and lack of proficiency which may influence students' reading interest, proficiency and academic skills. This finding is consistent with other studies (Qureshi et al., 2012; Shraim & Khlaif, 2010) which found that many of the students considered language as an obstacle to e-learning. Another participant (RP-10) stated that "*we have what's App group on which teachers share recorded lectures but its quite annoying because the quality of voice is so poor that I cannot understand what the teacher said. I usually use my phone instead of a laptop and*

cannot access much online content". The level of teaching still varies and is not standardized in all institutes in the current circumstances. The distribution of content is carried out through numerous platforms. Using a screen recorder, teachers record their lessons, and the lecture is shared in a WhatsApp group or posted to a closed Facebook group. Moreover, students who use smartphones to access the internet do not benefit from online learning since a large amount of online content is not available through smartphones. This finding is consistent with the study of Farooq et al. (2020) who suggested that with lack of preparation and IT support, it is extremely difficult for teachers with no previous experience to participate in productive online instruction. Further, lack of adequate instruction and technology compatibility in e-learning has been described as a significant obstacle.

Discussion

This study found that during the lockdown students faced several problems ranging from their mental health, economic issues in their families, and learning facilities. In a similar vein, Dhahri et al. (2020) stated that COVID-19 had become a major reason for mental distress among individuals in the world. Due to COVID, people lost their businesses that placed them in dire economic situations. The major reason for the mental distress among the students was identified by several studies (Dhahri et al., 2020; Noor et al., 2020; Shehzadi et al., 2020) which stated that because of staying at their homes learners are unable to focus on their studies and unable to entertain themselves that ultimately caused mental problems. Similarly ,Abbasi et al. (2020)mentioned that online education in Pakistan had become one of the critical reasons for the mental distress among the students because Pakistan does not have a sufficiently developed technological infrastructure and the teachers were also not ready for the online education. In addition to this, the sudden lockdown and closure of physical educational institutions not only overburdened the teachers but also the students. This can be a major reason that some of the students' reading habits had been negatively affected.

The current study also found that some students utilized their home time for learning new skills and they started reading research and peer-reviewed articles about the COVID for enhancing their information. Likewise,Farooq et al. (2020) found that the reading habits of the students increased during the lockdown. Xiao (2020) stated that some of the students considered this pandemic as an opportunity for them, therefore, instead of being demotivated they started reading extra books and attending free online courses for the development of their skills. The pleasure reading habits also increased among the students as reported by Adnan (2020).

However, Mushtaq et al. (2020) stated that the reading habits of Pakistani students decreased during the lockdown because of a lack of technological infrastructure.

This study also found that some students faced difficulties in reading because of their low digital skills and inability to get prompt help in their academics. Moreover, due to low proficiency in English some students were not comfortable with the on-screen reading. Online learning may be viable in the countries which are digitally advanced but not in Pakistan (Adnan, 2020) because till the time that the pandemic struck, most of the institutions including the educational systems in Pakistan functioned in the manual mode, whether in teaching, administration or research (Mushtaq et al., 2020). The lack of reliable, affordable and fast internet connections is a major hindrance for the process of online learning in most of the Pakistani regions, particularly in the rural communities (Mumtaz et al., 2021). Even the students who have access to smartphones are not able to get access to the online free learning materials through their devices. An unexpected change to online learning has turned into a proportion of organizational dynamism (Xiao, 2020) with some of the educational institutions focusing primarily on the exchange of reading content with the advanced world rather than directly on learning and delivery strategies over the Internet.

Conclusion

COVID-19 has negatively affected the lives of people, business enterprises, and the students' education. In this regard, the study aimed to identify the pandemic's effect on the students' English reading habits and assess their reading motives during the lockdown. Findings indicated that the lockdown had caused some mental distress among students related to their health and education. Moreover, it can be a significant cause of the students' increased reading in English though not academic, as they are spending more time at home. One of the significant concerns that this study has brought out is that most of the students do not have digital skills, and some of the students also lack self-learning (autonomy) and English reading skills that should be addressed as part of training them for a world that runs on knowledge. What has added to the distress of the student community is the withdrawal of peer and teacher support given the new social distancing norms. One interesting finding of this study, however, is positive: Some students are motivated to use their time during lockdown to increase their learning skills even if they are not academically oriented. Looking at the global happenings in the past many months, even given the fact that a vaccine to counter the COVID19 is ready for use, humanity's travails are far from over and it may be a long time before learners can go back to their campuses. Therefore, the need of the hour is for parents and teachers to encourage the

students to enhance their online English reading skills whether via incentives or training and practice. As for the planners of Pakistan's education policy, a monolingual approach should be switched for a translanguage and bilingual approach (Al-Ahdal, 2020) starting with exposure in speaking skills, followed by other skills will ensure enhancement of the learners' proficiency in English, which is also known as the library language. It is hoped that these practices would eventually train the Pakistani students in self-paced, self-directed autonomous learning in the long run and also to enter as competitors in the knowledge world.

References

Abbasi, S., Ayoob, T., Malik, A., & Memon, S. I. (2020). Perceptions of students regarding e-learning during covid-19 at a private medical college. *Pakistan Journal of Medical Sciences*, *36*(COVID19-S4), S57–S61. https://doi.org/10.12669/pjms.36.COVID19-S4.2766

Aboagye, E., Yawson, J. A., & Appiah, K. N. (2020). COVID-19 and E-Learning: the Challenges of Students in Tertiary Institutions. *Social Education Research*, *July*, 109–115. https://doi.org/10.37256/ser.122020422

Adeyemi, I. O. (2020). Influence of Covid-19 Lockdown on Reading Habit of Nigerians: A Case Study of Lagos State Inhabitants. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*. https://doi.org/10.1080/10573569.2020.1857891

Adnan, M. (2020). Online learning amid the COVID-19 pandemic: Students perspectives. *Journal of Pedagogical Research*, *1*(2), 45–51. https://doi.org/10.33902/jpsp.2020261309

Akhtarul, M., Id, I., Dey, S., Id, B., Raihan, H., Nafiul, M., Khan, A., Tanvir, M., & Id, H. (2020). *Depression and anxiety among university students during the COVID-19 pandemic in Bangladesh: A web-based cross-sectional survey*. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0238162

Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2020). Translanguagism and the bilingual EFL learner of Saudi Arabia: Exploring new vistas. *Asian EFL Journal,* vol. 27(1), 14-26..

Ali, S. T., Wajid, H., Baig, Q. A., & Nadeem, S. (2020). *Impact on Pakistani Students Education and Life Pattern During Covid-19 Pandemic*. *November*. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4293784

Aqeel, M., Shuja, K. H., Abbas, J., Rehna, T., & Ziapour, A. (2020). *The Influence of Illness Perception, Anxiety and Depression Disorders on Students Mental Health during COVID-19 Outbreak in Pakistan: A Web-Based Cross-Sectional Survey*. https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-30128/v1

Armed, P., Fatima Bana, K., & Sarfaraz, S. (2020). Students Can Line Up Skills to Relieve Stress During Pandemic I IM MP PA AC CT T O. In *Forces Med J* (Vol. 70, Issue 5).

Bailey, J. (2008). First steps in qualitative data analysis: Transcribing. *Family Practice*, *25*(2), 127–131. https://doi.org/10.1093/fampra/cmn003

Bengtsson, M. (2016). How to plan and perform a qualitative study using content analysis. *NursingPlus Open*, *2*, 8–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.npls.2016.01.001

Bolatov, A. K., Seisembekov, T. Z., Askarova, A. Z., Baikanova, R. K., Smailova, D. S., & Fabbro, E. (2020). Online-Learning due to COVID-19 Improved Mental Health Among Medical Students. *Medical Science Educator*, 1–10. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40670-020-01165-y

Derlina,, Aisyah,, Bukit, N., Sahyar,, Hassan, A., (2020). Blended Learning in English and English-Medium Physics Classes Using Augmented Reality, Edmodo, and Tinkercad Media. TESOL International Journal,15 (3), 111-136.

Dhahri, A. A., Arain, S. Y., Memon, A. M., Rao, A., & Mian, M. A. (2020). "The psychological impact of COVID-19 on medical education of final year students in Pakistan: A cross-sectional study." *Annals of Medicine and Surgery*, *60*, 445–450. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.amsu.2020.11.025

Farooq, F., Rathore, F. A., & Mansoor, S. N. (2020). Challenges of online medical education in Pakistan during COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of the College of Physicians and Surgeons Pakistan*, *30*(1), S67–S69. https://doi.org/10.29271/jcpsp.2020.Supp1.S67

Haider, I. I., Tiwana, F., & Tahir, S. M. (2020). Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on adult mental health. In *Pakistan Journal of Medical Sciences* (Vol. 36, Issues COVID19-S4, pp. S90–S94). https://doi.org/10.12669/pjms.36.COVID19-S4.2756

Hassan, A., Mitchell, R., & Buriro, H. A. (2020). Changes in uses of salutations in British English. International research journal of management, IT and social sciences, 7(1), 197-204.

Hassan, A., Kazi, A. S., & Asmara Shafqat, Z. A. The Impact of Process Writing on the Language and Attitude of Pakistani English Learners. Asian EFL Journal, 27 (4.3), 260-277.

Itmeizeh, M., & Hassan, A. (2020). New Approaches to Teaching Critical Thinking Skills through a New EFL Curriculum. International Journal of Psychosocial Rehabilitation, 24(07).

Islam, M. A., Barna, S. D., Raihan, H., Khan, M. N. A., & Hossain, M. T. (2020). Depression and anxiety among university students during the COVID-19 pandemic in Bangladesh: A web-based cross-sectional survey. *PLOS ONE*, *15*(8), e0238162. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0238162

Kaur, A. P., & Ghuman, S. S. (2019). Reading Habits of Postgraduate Students of Khalsa College, Amritsar: A Survey. *KIIT Journal of Library and Information Management*, *6*(2), 121. https://doi.org/10.5958/2455-8060.2019.00017.x

Khatoon, S., Abidin, M. J. Z., Mirza, Q., & Hussain, A. (2020). Blogging in esl class-gender-

based attitude of the engineering students. *International Journal of Evaluation and Research in Education*, 9(4), 1128–1137. https://doi.org/10.11591/ijere.v9i4.20673

Liu, S., & Heinz, A. (2020). Cross-Cultural Validity of Psychological Distress Measurement during the Coronavirus Pandemic. In *Pharmacopsychiatry* (Vol. 53, Issue 5, pp. 237–238). Georg Thieme Verlag. https://doi.org/10.1055/a-1190-5029

Lokman, A. K. J. A. H. (n.d.). *Impacts of ICT in education*.

Maham, S., Ghumza, F., Shaheryar, K., Malik, A. Q., & Kanza, A. (2018). Preference of Use of E-Learning in Medical Education among Undergraduates of King Edward Medical University, Lahore, Pakistan. *Ann Community Med Pract*, 4(1), 1033.

Manel, M., Hassan, A., & Buriro, H. A. (2019). Learners' Attitudes towards Teachers' switching to the mother tongue (The Case of Secondary school learners in Algeria). Indonesian TESOL Journal, 1(1), 9-26.

Mheidly, N., Fares, M. Y., & Fares, J. (2020). Coping With Stress and Burnout Associated With Telecommunication and Online Learning. In *Frontiers in Public Health* (Vol. 8). Frontiers Media S.A. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpubh.2020.574969

Mian, A. I., & Chachar, A. S. (2020). Debate: COVID-19 and school mental health in Pakistan. In *Child and Adolescent Mental Health* (Vol. 25, Issue 4, pp. 270–272). Blackwell Publishing Ltd. https://doi.org/10.1111/camh.12431

Mukhtar, K., Javed, K., Arooj, M., & Sethi, A. (2020). Advantages, limitations and recommendations for online learning during covid-19 pandemic era. *Pakistan Journal of Medical Sciences*, 36(COVID19-S4), S27–S31. https://doi.org/10.12669/pjms.36.COVID19-S4.2785

Mumtaz, N., Saqulain, G., & Mumtaz, N. (2021). Online academics in Pakistan: COVID-19 and beyond. *Pakistan Journal of Medical Sciences*, 37(1), 1–5. https://doi.org/10.12669/pjms.37.1.2894

Mushtaq, S., Soroya, S. H., & Mahmood, K. (2020). Reading habits of generation Z students in Pakistan: Is it time to re-examine school library services? *Information Development*, *2011*. https://doi.org/10.1177/0266666920965642

Noor, S., Ali, M. N., & Husnine, S. M. (2020). Performance of Online Classes in Lahore, Pakistan During Covid-19. *Performance Improvement*, 59(9), 33–42. https://doi.org/10.1002/pfi.21938

Parikh, K., Vyas, D. P., & Parikh, S. S. (2020a). A Survey on Reading Habit of Library Users during COVID-19 Lockdown. *Library Philosophy and Practice*, *September*, 1.

Parikh, K., Vyas, P., & Parikh, S. (2020b). A Survey on Reading Habit of Library Users during

COVID-19 Lockdown. *Library Philosophy and Practice (e-Journal)*.

Parikh, K., Vyas, P., Sharad Parikh, S., & Parikh, S. (2020). *A Survey on Reading Habit of Library Users during COVID-19 A Survey on Reading Habit of Library Users during COVID-19 Lockdown Lockdown A Survey on Reading Habit of Library Users during COVID-19 Lockdown*.

Qiu, J., Shen, B., Zhao, M., Wang, Z., Xie, B., & Xu, Y. (2020). A nationwide survey of psychological distress among Chinese people in the COVID-19 epidemic: Implications and policy recommendations. In *General Psychiatry* (Vol. 33, Issue 2). BMJ Publishing Group. https://doi.org/10.1136/gpsych-2020-100213

Qureshi, I. A., Ilyas, K., Yasmin, R., & Whitty, M. (2012). Challenges of implementing e-learning in a Pakistani university. *Knowledge Management and E-Learning*, *4*(3), 310–324. https://doi.org/10.34105/j.kmel.2012.04.025

Rabbani, F., Ali Khan, H., Piryani, S., Raza Khan, A., Abid, F., & Noordin Thobani Professor, T. M. (2020). Psychological and social impact of COVID-19 in Pakistan: Need for Gender Responsive Policies. *MedRxiv*, 2020.10.28.20221069. https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.10.28.20221069

Ramzan, M., & Singh, D. (2009). Status of information technology applications in Pakistani libraries. *The Electronic Library*, *27*(4), 573–587. https://doi.org/10.1108/02640470910979543

Saaid, S. A., & Wahab, Z. A. (2014). The Impact of Digital-Based Materials on Undergraduates' Reading Habit. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, *4*(3), 249–253. https://doi.org/10.7763/ijssh.2014.v4.357

Saraswathi, I., Saikarthik, J., Kumar, K. S., Srinivasan, K. M., Ardhanaari, M., & Gunapriya, R. (2020). Impact of COVID-19 outbreak on the mental health status of undergraduate medical students in a COVID-19 treating medical college: A prospective longitudinal study. *PeerJ*, *8*. https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.10164

Saunders, B., Sim, J., Kingstone, T., Baker, S., Waterfield, J., Bartlam, B., Burroughs, H., & Jinks, C. (2018). Saturation in qualitative research: exploring its conceptualization and operationalization. *Quality and Quantity*, *52*(4), 1893–1907. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11135-017-0574-8

Sehar, N., & Ghaffar, A. (2018). *Reading Habits Among Undergraduate Students of NED University of Engineering and Technology, Karachi, Pakistan: A Pilot Study*.

Shehzadi, S., Nisar, Q. A., Hussain, M. S., Basheer, M. F., Hameed, W. U., & Chaudhry, N. I. (2020). The role of digital learning toward students' satisfaction and university brand

image at educational institutes of Pakistan: a post-effect of COVID-19. *Asian Education and Development Studies*, *September*. https://doi.org/10.1108/AEDS-04-2020-0063

Shraim, K., & Khlaif, Z. (2010). An e-learning approach to secondary education in Palestine: Opportunities and challenges. *Information Technology for Development*, *16*(3), 159–173. https://doi.org/10.1080/02681102.2010.501782

Singh, R., & Adhikari, R. (2020). Age-structured impact of social distancing on the COVID-19 epidemic in India. In *arXiv*. arXiv.
Supriyatno, T., Susilawati, S., Hassan, A., (2020). E-learning development in improving students' critical thinking ability. Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences, 15(5), 1099-1106. https://doi.org/10.18844/cjes.v15i5.5154

Tyagi, K., Gaur, G., & Sharma, M. (2020). Readership among college students during COVID19 lockdown: A Cross-Sectional Survey in a Northern City of India. In *Prev. Soc. Med* (Vol. 51, Issue 2).

Us Saqlain, N., Shafqat, A., Hassan, A., (2020). Perception Analysis of English Language Teachers about Use of Contextualized Text for Teaching ESP. The Asian ESP Journal,16 (5.1), 275-299.

Vyas, P., & Tandel, B. (2020). THE IMPACT OF LOCKDOWN DUE TO COVID-19 IN 2020 ON READING HABITS OF ACADEMIC STAFF OF STATE OPEN UNIVERSITIES: A STUDY. *Towards Excellence*, 28–37. https://doi.org/10.37867/te120104

Xiao, C. (2020). A novel approach of consultation on 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19)-related psychological and mental problems: Structured letter therapy. *Psychiatry Investigation*, *17*(2), 175–176. https://doi.org/10.30773/pi.2020.0047

Zhu, N., Zhang, D., Wang, W., Li, X., Yang, B., Song, J., Zhao, X., Huang, B., Shi, W., Lu, R., Niu, P., Zhan, F., Ma, X., Wang, D., Xu, W., Wu, G., Gao, G. F., & Tan, W. (2020). A Novel Coronavirus from Patients with Pneumonia in China, 2019. *New England Journal of Medicine*, *382*(8), 727–733. https://doi.org/10.1056/nejmoa2001017

Appendix A Questionnaire

1. How did the COVID-19 pandemic affect your study?
2. What are the common problems associated with online reading during the lockdown?
3. If you read books/articles other than academic context, what are the motives for reading them?
4. Which problems do you face for reading during this lockdown?
5. How did you maintain your focus on reading during the lockdown?
6. How was the experience of your online classes?
7. Did you face any difficulties during online classes?

Appendix B   Content Analysis

Main Category	Sub Category	Codes
Pandemic Effects and Problems	**Fear of being Affected by Virus**	I think I have got a phobia of being affected by the virus. Even a little sneeze or headache makes me worried. (1)
	Financial Loss	My father's business is closed (2) Our family did not have savings (2) Prices of goods are increased (2)
	Social life affected	Unable to meet friends (3) Unable to go for outing and refreshment (3) Staying at home makes me sick (3)
	Internet Issues	The internet speed is very slow (4) In my village, the internet does not work properly (4)
Reading Motives	**Information Collection about COVID**	I started reading articles and research papers on COVID to have more awareness (5) I read more on precautions about COVID (5) I started reading more about first aid and self-help to counter COVID Virus (5)
	Increasing skills	I started reading many new things (6) I have started reading about new skills (6)
Reading Problems	**Unable to get on time guidelines**	Because of lockdown, most of the time is wasted because whenever I need urgent help for my studies, I do not get that (7) My friends and teachers reply to my texts very late, and it causes many problems for me when I need their help (7)
	Difficulty in reading electronic books	I do not have digital skills (8) I do not know how to get online reading materials (8) Most of the sites I visit do not offer free digital books (8)
Online learning Challenges	Change from traditional learning (face to face) to online learning (e-learning)	I am not enjoying online classes as they are so boring even, I cannot concentrate on lectures and sometimes I cannot understand, we need face to face classes otherwise semester should be postponed. (9)
	Low proficiency and lack of reading skills	I get frustrated because I am not confident reading English content on the screen, cannot comprehend the text and face difficulties while reading. (9)
	Lack of adequate access to web for learning.	We have a what's App group on which teachers share recorded lectures but it's quite annoying because the quality of voice is so poor that I cannot understand what teacher said. I usually use my phone instead of a laptop and cannot access much online content. (10)

The Influence of Stress on Allophonic Alteration in Standard Arabic: An Optimality Theoretic Perspective

Mohammad Mahyoob

Taibah University, Saudi Arabia

eflu2010@gmail.com

Bio-profile:

Mohammad Mahyoob is currently working as an Assistant Professor in the Department of Languages & Translation, College of Science and Arts, Alula, Taibah University, Madina, Saudi Arabia. He holds his Ph. D in Computational Linguistics from Aligarh Muslim University. His research interests include Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, Computational linguistics, English language teaching, e-learning.
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6664-1017

Abstract

Optimality Theory (OT)questioned the validity of standard generative phonology, especially the postulation of underlying representation, and demanded evidence in terms of rule ordering. This paper focuses on the word stress pattern in Standard Arabic based on the optimality theoretic framework. The study endeavors to account for two phonological aspects in Standard Arabic; the first is the distribution of the segment/r/ and its allophonic variations in Standard Arabic. The second compares the markedness and faithfulness of trill and flap in Standard Arabic to other languages, respectively. The paper explores the motivation for markedness with analytic evidence from standard Arabic data. The study results found out that there are two allophones of the phoneme /r/ in Arabic; the trill /r/always occurs in single, geminated, and intervocalic positions, voiced fricatives occur in an intervocalic position, voiceless fricatives occur in word-initial position, trills always tend to vary with non-trilled pronunciation, /r/ single geminated (trill) occurs in intervocalic positions, and trills in many languages are Apical. The flap /ɾ/occurs in an unstressed syllable. However, these occurrences are violated when emphatic

sounds precede the two allophones. This study stands as evidence for the occurrence of trill [r] in unstressed syllables under the influence of the preceding sound, i.e., pharyngeal.

Introduction

Optimality theory (OT)is one of these theories applied to the phonological analysis of languages. Alan Prince and Paul Smolinsky (1993) proposed the application of OT in phonological studies as it was used for other fields of linguistic studies like syntax and semantics. Within current descriptive linguistics, it has been argued that the notion of markedness possesses a high degree of generality and applies to all levels of linguistic analysis, namely phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics (Greenberg 1966). OT proposed a set of markedness constraints, the nature of these constraints is rankable, universal, and violable. The linguistic similarities across languages led to universal constraints. The ranking constraints depend on the specific language features. The constraints hierarchy depends on the ranking of the constraints of individual language. Thus, it has been argued that trill /r/ in Arabic is an unmarked sound compared to flap /ɾ/, which follows from the examination of some parameters that we will discuss in this paper. In Optimality Theory, the notion of markedness is built into the grammar in the form of universal output constraints, which directly states marked or unmarked elements. Both markedness constraints and faithfulness constraints are violable. An output that satisfies all markedness constraints is not necessarily the optimal output. What determines the optimal output is the least costly violation of the constraint.

In Finnish, single rhotic is trilled, and geminate rhotic are just long trilled. In the Hausa language, the alveolar rhotic is a trill, and the postalveolar rhotic is either a flap or an approximant. For example, postalveolar /r/ is pronounced as **'bara'** (servant) and alveolar /r/ is pronounced as '**baɾa**' (begging). In the same way, the Australian languages have two types of rhotic used as trills and flaps. The coronal contrast is not extended to rhotic. The rhotic in Australian are Epical. Epico alveolar rhotic is realized as a tap. Epico post-alveolar rhotic is realized as a retroflex continuant. A brief prothetic vowel-like segment precedes a flap. Moreover, it occurs in the intervocalic position; in the remaining positions, a trill occurs. Nevertheless, in some languages, both single and geminated /r/ appears as a trill. In standard French and German, uvula trills occur with the backward movement of the Uvula tongue and

forward movement. The notion of markedness is an embodiment of universality in a soft sense (Kager 1999:2).

The production of stress syllables can be identified with higher intensity and the duration is longer. There are two types of stress in the world languages: predictable and unpredictable types (Kager 1995). The predictable type is fixed in distribution and the unpredictable type is free distribution. The universal constraints which had been provided by the Universal Grammar (UG) of different languages as an Optimality Theory suggestion. And that constraints contain the markedness and faithfulness constraints. The parameters of language-specific are the ranking of the constraints according to certain language features.

Taking into consideration that Arabic in general and other Modern Standard Arabic dialects, in particular, have only one stress per word, no secondary stress is reported (Mitchell 1960, McCarthy 1979a, b; Halle & Vergnaud 987; Crowhurst 1996; Al-Mohanna 2007), the need for feet construction is restricted to only one foot in surface words. Hence iterative foot parsing becomes redundant. Non-head feet resulting from iterative parsing in earlier metrical accounts are assumed to be deleted via a phonological rule of conflation, so no phonetic concerns could, in theory, affect, as promoted by Halle and Vergnaud (1987) and Hayes (1995) reformulation of it. The rule suppresses constituents whose heads are not dominant in higher levels. Thus, single primary stress is preserved in any given word. The three recognized syllable's weights are superheavy, heavy, and light. Superheavy syllables are always closed or doubly closed, heavy syllables are closed, or open, and light syllables are open (Watson 2011). The prominent feature of Modern Standard Arabic and its standard dialects is the Superheavy syllables. They are called superheavy because of the additional consonantal fit affixed to the previous heavy CVC and CVV syllables and it becomes CVVC and CVCC. It is verified in other languages such as Classical Greek (Devine, Andrew and Laurence 1994), Hindi (Hayes 1995), Norwegian (Rice 2003, 2006; Lunden 2006), Finnish, Latin, and Hungarian (Gordon 2006), and Italian (Kramer 2009). Some languages may allow superheavy syllables in various positions such as Modern Standard Arabic (McCarthy 1979a, b), Hindi (Hayes 1981; Lunden 2006), Norwegian (Kristoffersen 2000; Rice 2006; Lunden 2006;), and they are constrained to the position of word-finally.

This study examines and accounts for the stress in Modern Standard Arabic. In the literature of phonology considering Optimality Theory, many academics paid considerable attention to the phonology of Modern Standard Arabic and its dialects. They investigated various phonological aspects such as prosody, segmental and super segmental, stress, vowel harmony, etc. The organization of the rest of the paper is as follow: section 2 introduced the related work;

section 3 described the stress in modern standard Arabic; section 4 is a description of the Markedness notion; section 5 devoted to results and discussion and section 6 discussed the conclusion and future recommendation.

1. Related works

Many researchers investigated the syllable structure in Standard Arabic and Arabic dialects. A study was conducted by Jarrah (2013), trying to investigate the syllable structure in Madina Hijazi Arabic (MHA); this is a dialect of Arabic spoken in Almadinah Almunawarh, Saudi Arabia. In light of the optimality theory framework, the study investigated the MHA syllable structure's gross features. The study concluded with both markedness and faithfulness's conflicting constraints, where the phonological and morphological cases interact between these two universal constraints. Another research was conducted by Sakarna (2013), proposing a model for Jordanian Arabic Broken Plural in the light of Optimality theory. The research discussed McCarthy's model (1982) for the Arabic language and showed its weaknesses and shortage in real representing the surface and underlying Arabic language. Alternatively, the researcher proposed a model within the Optimality theory and provided data from Jordanian Arabic, which accounted for McCarthy's model's weakness and challenges. Hamid (2010) studied and investigated the consonant cluster in Mukallaene Arabic, a dialect spoken in Hadramout, Yemen. His study provided analysis and observation considering the Optimality Theory. The study accounted for the occurrences of consonant clusters as onsets in the syllable but not as a coda. Sonority rises, voicing, place, and manner of articulation do not affect the sequencing of the consonants. According to his study results, the Mukallaene dialect does not epenthesize into the clusters of triconsonant and quadriconsonant as other Arabic Dialects such as Iraqi and Cairene Arabic. The study proposed utilizing the proper parsing for verbs and nouns considering the interaction of markedness and faithfulness constraints. Al-Momani (2017) in her study investigated the stress pattern in one of the Arabic dialects in Jordan which is called Bani Saxarin light of the OT framework. The data were collected via audio recording and note-taking from different participants who are native to the mentioned dialect. The outcomes of the study showed that the foot of Bani Saxar Arabia (BSA) in the phonological system is iambic which is assigned from left to right. Degenerate feet cannot occur in this dialect because of the condition in the bimoraic minimality of the word. The study also revealed that certain universal constraints can be applied to the stress assignment patterns in BSA. Al-Bataineh (2019) explored the emphatic harmony of vowel-consonant harmony. Of Semitic languages. His study provided a thorough overview of Arabic dialects emphasis on harmony

using feature-geometric and optimality theoretic framework. The researcher discussed some of the previous studies' weaknesses and shortage in the provided full analysis of their research. The study provided two concluded outcomes; the first is about how the emphasis harmony can be explicitly displayed in optimality theory with clear differences among dialects according to the ranking and re-ranking of constraints. And the second is the different representation of emphasis harmony in various Arabic dialects based on emphatic and labialization occurrences. A study was conducted by Alghamdi (2016). It investigated the word stress in Ghamidi Arabic in light of the optimality theoretic framework. (Prince and Smolensky 1993). The study concluded by analyzing the stress and its fall according to the syllables in the word. Alahmari (2018) conducted a study to investigate some phonological and morphological aspects in Southwestern Saudi Arabia dialects. The study provided an analysis of linguistic principles using current theories in phonology and morphology. The study investigated the syllable structure and its formation in Southwestern dialects in Saudi Arabia considering the optimality theoretic framework. Another research was done by Rakhieh (2009) about the syllable structure in Ma'ani Arabic, which is a dialect spoken in Jordan. The research paid attention to the interaction among phonological processes of stress, geminates, vowel epenthesis, and syncope. The study compared the Ma'ani dialect with other Jordanian dialects and showed the underlying reasons for different behavior in one of the compared dialects. A study was conducted in 2019 by Zibin, which discussed and analyzed English loanwords, which are inflected with Arabic morpheme in Jordan. The study investigated urban Jordanian Arabic, where the Jordanian females are adding feminine morpheme "ik" to some English loan words and how these syllables can be accounted for based on different perspectives such as metrical phonology, optimality theory, and hierarchical syllable structure. Adra (1999) conducted a study about the opacity in Syrian Arabic under optimality theory analysis. The study focused on different aspects of phonology and morphology. The syllable structure with different processes was investigated compared with other dialects, like Iraqi, Egyptian, and Lebanese. Halpern (2009) presented in his study Arabic stress and neutralization rules. He investigated these issues from two directions; the first is the linguistic accuracy of stress and neutralization rules, and the second is the pedagogical convenience based on modern Standard Arabic speech. He claimed that the literature is inaccurate or ignored. There is no investigation for the vowel neutralization in most Arabic grammar books, he added. The summary of Arabic stress in his study is as follows, first, the stress is placed in the superheavy syllable if it is the last syllable. Second, the penultimate is stressed if it is heavy or if the word is disyllabic. Finally, if there are no occurrences for the above then, the antepenultimate is stressed. And for the neutralization rules,

he summed up as follows; first, all the vowels got neutralized except the vowels adjacent to the end of the words. Second, there is no occurrence for the neutralization in stressed vowels. Finally, the neutralization occurs in the final long vowels. A study conducted by Mardiah, Zaqiatul, Abdul-Muta'ali, and Fazlur-Rachman (2019) about the realization of Arabic hollow verbs in the light of the optimality theoretical framework. It focused on the inflectional morphemes of the Arabic hollow verb. Another study focused on constraint-based analysis for the Selected Quran phonotactics, such as assimilation, omission, and inversion in classical Arabic, and how the rules had been built for these processes. A study was performed by Btoosh (2006) about the Jordanian Arabic phonotactics. The study's purpose was to investigate and analyze Karak Arabic in Jordan in the following aspects: the semi-syllable structure, geminate representation, and ultra-heavy syllable reduction based on optimality theory. Al-Shara'abi (2010), in his study, investigated the integration between prosody and morphology in one of the Yemeni dialects and compared it with Cairene MSA. He reviewed most of the literature on metrical and OT accounts of stress in various Arabic standard dialects like Cairene MSA. As discussed in his work, the previous researchers failed to describe the stress accurately. For instance, McCarthy (1979) discussed stress in the last heavy syllable where it is wrong, the stress falls in the penultimate syllable. He concluded his research with the outcomes that both the prosody and morphology are having shared integration and the alteration occurred in the morphological stem of Shara'abi dialect and it is determined by prosodic concerns.

A study devoted to word-level prosody in Jordanian Arabic by De Jong, Kenneth, and Bushra Adnan Zawayde (1999). The study examined two factors; the first is the prosody relationship with Arabic stress and the second is the similar effects of word-final juncture. The study found out that there are similarities in word-level prosodic effect in Jordanian Arabic and English language and there is a small extension in vowel durations in penultimate positions.

Modern Standard Arabic and its dialects have been studied and addressed considering recent linguistic theories. For the internal structure of word formation, distributed morphology is considered as one of the theories where linguists apply to languages analysis. The concatenative and non-concatenative typology of Arabic word formation is still a controversial issue. Some studies investigated the regularity of Arabic word formation linguistically and approved that Arabic has a concatenative word-formation especially for the gender, number, and person in Arabic because Arabic has some irregular forms in masculine plural (Mohammad Mahyoob 2020). Segmental and supersegmental analysis of Arabic have been investigated using different phonological perspectives; Optimality theory and its extended versions,

Stratum, Harmonic Serialism is the main theories used for Arabic phonological studies and analysis.

2. Word stress in Modern Standard Arabic

Arabic is the official language of over 250 million speakers of 18 sovereign countries from Iraq in the east to Mauritania in the west. No investigation or mention in Classical Arabic for word stress. However, Arab grammarian explored and discussed the segments and melodic phonological descriptions of the Quran reading. And they determined the sound variations according to their environmental occurrences. Word stress is exhibited in all Arabic dialects where social and geographical diversity exists in all Arabic spoken areas. And these cross-dialectal differences lead to variation in the stress position mechanism. Many factors can affect stress and its distribution in the syllable according to the dialects, such as syncope and epenthesis, final syllable extension, and the rhythmic grouping of the syllable (Watson 2011). The Arabic word stress has received considerable attention from Arabs and non-Arabs researchers. Stress in MSA has been studied and investigated by several researchers as well. However, most of those researchers considered their standard dialect as the default for MSA stress. The stress in Arabic dialects varies and differs in the placement and distribution of syllable types. Many factors can change syllable stress, such as epenthesis, syncope, and syllables' rhythmic grouping (Hayes 1995) accounted for the stress pattern of Cairene MSA and based on the metrical rule-based account. The study discussed the effect of allowing secondary stress to the surface, which is unfavorable. There are three-syllable weights recognitions in standard Arabic; the first is the light syllable, which is open and contains consonants and vowel CV as in *wa* (and); the second is the heavy syllable, which can be either open or closed and contains CVV and CVC for example; *qaa.wama* (he resisted). The final syllable is the superheavy, either closed or doubly closed and contains CVVC or CVCC, for example, *daar (Palace), bint* (girl) (Watson 2011). San'ani Yemeni has also been studied and discussed by several researchers. The stress in the old city of Sana'a lies in the peripheral light syllable, and the patterning of CVV syllables with syllable ending in left-leg of a geminate (CVG), but not with CVC syllable (Rossi 1939; Goitein 1970; Naim-Sanbar 1994 & Watson 2002). The application of the basic stress algorithm for classical Arabic fails to apply in the Sana'ani dialect.

Metrical theory focus was on word stress, where this theory interprets stress as a rhythmic phenomenon of binary branching structure represented by strong-weak, or weak-strong relations between syllables (Liberman 1975; Liberman and prince 1977; Vergnaud 1978 &

Hayes 1995). It has been approved that stress in Arabic falls on the ultimate, penult, or antepenult (Al-Shara'abi 2010). Arabic has only one stress in every word, and no secondary stress is reported (Mitchell 1960; McCarthy 1979; Halle & Vergnaud 1987; Crowhurt 1996 & Al-Mohanna 2007). Modern Arabic dialect grammar generates CVCC syllables as well as CV and CVC. However, CVCC syllable construction is governed by the sonority properties in similar ways with individual consonants (Kenstowicz 1986). The extension of the pre-generative to generative approach, where they identified the syllable role and weight in the assignment of the stress, differentiating between light CV and heavy CVV and CVC syllables (Brockelmann 1907; Erpenius 1656 & Wright 1971). In the generative approach, the distinctive features played an important role in encoding the stress, [+stress], assigned to a [+syllabic] segment in a specific segment, and this was adopted by Brame (1970, 1973, 1974), Abdo (1972), Broselow (1976), Johnson (1979), and Weldon (1980).

McCarthy (2008) makes use of Harmonic Serialism to account for the effects of stress assignment and syncope. Pruitt (2008) uses Harmonic Serialism to account for iterative foot construction in languages with multiple feet. The Cairene Modern Standard Arabic admits only one stress per word (Al-Shara'abi 2010). His study argues that the metrical structure of stress assignment in languages is built serially such that the overall metrical feet structure is the final stage and the result of harmonically improving the consecutive application of foot construction. And the second argument is that the secondary and tertiary stresses which result from building more than one foot per word do not improve harmony. Therefore, outputs surface with just one foot per word. Their proposed account fares better than other accounts that may resort to ad hoc structural erasing device, such as conflation, (Halle and Vergnaud 1987), it also exhaustively captures all stress patterns of Cairene Modern Standard Arabic.

Kiparsky (2000) proposed the Stratal OT model which abandons the fundamental claim of Optimality Theory where the level of the presentation can occur in input and output. It is an incorporation of Optimality Theory and Lexical Phonology, the strata postulation was of three types: stem phonology, word phonology, and post-lexical phonology. The Stratal OT is based on OT grammar and the difference is in constraint ranking. The output and the input in Stratal OT are allied in which the output of a single Stratum and that will be the input of the next Stratum.

3. The notion of markedness

The definition of the unmarked member as compared to the marked member as: first, conceptually and formally simpler, and therefore more natural, second, usually statistically

more frequent, finally, usually acquired earlier in the process of language development. All these concepts give rise to two kinds of markedness:

- Context-free markedness
- Context-sensitive markedness

*a>>*b signifies that segment a is more marked than segment b.

The optimality theory application to phonological studies was first suggested by Prince and Smolensky (1993), as it applied to morphology, syntax, and semantics. Extensive research in the field of phonology led to the improvement of the framework. The main approaches of the focus, determined by the optimality theoretic framework, are universality, ranking, richness, violability, and parallelism.

The main components which are supported in OT analysis are CON, GEN, EVAL.

CON: a set of constraints

GEN: (generator): generates a set of variables output candidates for each input.

GEN (input) $\rightarrow$ {cand$_1$, cand$_2$, cand$_3$,…cand$_n$}

EVAL: (evaluator): a set of options where the candidate can be selected after evaluating these candidates against the specific language's constraints ranking.

EVAL $\rightarrow$ {cand$_1$, cand$_2$, cand$_3$,….cand$_n$} = output

The optimal candidate is the one that fulfills the ranking of the constraints and incurs the minimal number of violations compared to other generated candidates, which incur the maximum number of violations. The interaction of constraints in OT is explored using the grammatical generalization at the output level and not at the input level (Kager 1999:2). Optimality theory abandons morpheme structure constraints where classical generative phonology supports (Chomsky and Halle 1968). It is based on typological and statistical shreds of evidence in different languages that some allophones are less marked than others of the same phoneme. For example, in English, clear /l/ is less marked than dark / ɫ /. So, the context-free markedness of [l] is:

*ɫ >> *l

Furthermore, the context-sensitive is:

*l]$_\sigma$>>*ɫ]$_\sigma$
   C   C

The logic ranking is as follows:

*l]$_\sigma$>>*ɫ]$_\sigma$>>*ɫ >> *l >> IDENT [+/- back]
   C   C

Table 1. Dark / ɫ / in English

Input ku: ɫ	Dep V	Ident C/V	*l]σ c	*ɫ]σ c	*ɫ	*l	Ident +/- back
1.ku: l		*!				*	
2. ☞**ku**: ɫ				*	*	*	
3.kul		*! *	*			*	
4.ku: ɫi	*!					*	

In tableau one, the optimal output is candidate 2, which violates the lowest-ranking faithfulness constraints. The other candidates (1, 3, and 4) violate the highest-ranking constraints. The ranking is relevant here. The base's richness is applicable here because of the allophonic variation of the segment /l/.

The examination of the following parameters will determine the degree of markedness in most of the languages:

a. Frequency of occurrence

Statistically, about 75% of all languages contain some form of a /r/ phoneme (Maddieson 1984). These languages mostly have a single /r/, and it is most commonly some form of a trill, but 18% of languages with /r/s contrast two or three rhotic. Languages with multiple rhotic are especially common in the Australian language family.

b. Articulatory characteristics

c**.** Perceptual features

d. Emergence in the process of language acquisition. Thus, according to the current literature, context-free markedness can be stated as follows:

*ɾ>>*r (context-free markedness)

Thus, in context, the sensitive markedness trill is more marked than the flap.

Markedness is a relative concept; marked structures are not ill-formed in themselves but only compared to other linguistic structures. Also, determining that a certain element is marked or unmarked is not arbitrary. The choice is rooted in the articulatory and perceptual systems (Kager 1999:3).

4. Analysis and discussion

The phoneme /r/ in Standard Arabic has two allophones. They are in complementary distribution, i.e., in a certain environment, it is realized as trill [r] and never as flap [ɾ] and vice versa. We use the symbol flap for the first allophonic variation /ɾ/, and we use the symbol trill /r/for the second allophone, as displayed in table two below.

/ɾ/ stands for the flap and /r/stands for the trill.

Thus, the flap is more marked than the trill. However, in context-sensitive markedness trill is more marked than the flap.

rV(-stress)>> ɾV(-stress) (context sensitive markedness)

+cont ⟶ -cont/ _ V (-stress)

Table 2. *Arabic data for flap /ɾ/ and trill /r/.*

/ɾ/ flap	/r/ trill
ɾab (god) ɾaʊf (kind) ɾahi:m (merciful)	Shajara (tree) amir (prince) qaari:b (close)

The Constraint Hierarchy (CH) is as follows:

C.S >> CF >>Faith   (allophonic variation)

rV(-stress)>> ɾV(-stress) >> *ɾ >> *r >>Ident 'r'

Table 3. *The constraint hierarchy*

Input rizq	*r⌈v ⌉ ⌊-str⌋	*ɾ⌈v⌉ ⌊-str⌋	*ɾ	*r	(Ident r)
1. riziq			*!		*
2. ☞**rizq**				*	

Table three above shows that the flap is the optimal output candidate, which is lexical optimization. The candidate which gets less violation is optimal.

According to Optimality Theory, the Gen is free to generate as many candidates as possible. The Eval rules out all those candidates which incur a violation that is high up on the constraint hierarchy. The candidate with incurs the lowest violation (in the constraint hierarchy) surfaces as the optimal candidate. Thus, the trill is the optimal candidate in the given context irrespective of the innumerable candidates that Gen can generate.

Table 4. *Optimal candidate of the flap*

Input rab	Dep V	Dep C	*r[V-stress]	*ɾ[V+stress]	* ɾ	*r	Ident +- stress
i. rab			*	*		*	*
ii.☞ **ɾab**						*	*
iii. ɾib	*!	*		*	*		*
iv. ɾa:ba	*!*!	*		*	*		*

Tableau four above displays how candidate ii. (indicated by →) emerges as the best/optimal candidate because it incurs the least serious violations. Candidates iii and iv violate Dep V and Dep C, high up in the constraint hierarchy. Hence, they are ruled out. Although candidates i and ii do not violate Dep V and Dep C, i. violates some other candidates, which is an equally serious violation that the language does not tolerate. Thus, ii. ɾab emerges as the best output because it incurs the least of violations.

Table 5. *Optimal candidate of Trill*

Input a:mir	Dep V	Dep C	*r[V – stress]	*ɾ [V – stress]	* r	* ɾ	Ident +
i. ☞ **a:mir**				*		*	*
ii. a:miɾ		*!	*	*	*		*
iii. imir	*!	*	*		*		*
iv. amar	*!	*	*		*		*
v. imiɾ		*!		*		*	*

In tableau five, the ranking correctly predicts that the output of /a:mir/ is [a:mir], which incurred fewer high constraints in comparison to other candidates, being faithful to the input for the sound /r/to be realized as [r] when followed by an unstressed vowel. i.e.   /a/ as in above example.

Other candidates have been eliminated as they violated higher constraints maximally. In the above ranking, the highest constrain Dep V has been violated by candidates (iii, iv), and thus GEN ruled them out immediately. It reflects an important property of OT: constraints may be violated, but violations must be minimal. Candidate (iii) violates other constraints as Dep C, *r[V-stress], *r and Ident +. Candidate (iv) violates other constraints as Dep C, *r[V-stress], *r

and Ident +. Candidate (v) violates other constraints as Dep C twice, *r[V-stress], * ɾ and Ident +.

The second higher constraint Dep C has been violated by all eliminated candidates i.e. (ii, iii, iv, v). In candidate (ii) constraints *r[V-stress], *r and Ident + got violated too. In candidate (iii) constraints Dep V, Dep C, *r[V-stress], *r and Ident + got violated. In example (iv) constraints Dep V, DepC, *r[V-stress], *r and Ident + got violated. In example (v) constraints DepC, *r[V-stress], *r, and Ident + got violated and still, it turns out as a bad candidate by Optimality Theory. The context-sensitive constraint *r[V-stressed] got violated by candidates (ii, iii, iv); hence they ruled out by Gen from being an optimal candidate. In candidate (ii) other constraints as *r[V-stress], *r and Ident +. Got violated.

The above distribution of trill and flap /r/ gets violated in the Arabic language whenever preceded by a pharyngeal sound occurs in the final position of a stressed syllable of CVC structure. Some data are detected in the Arabic language in which the sound /r/ violates the above distributional constraint by observing that in an unstressed syllable, the syllable initial /r/ is pronounced as a trill and not as a flap when it is preceded by / t, TH, s, Z / as displayed in the following data:

/jatruq/ "knock''
/jasra?/ "defeat''
/jaTHfar/ "gain''
/muTHru:f/ "envelop"

Let us consider the chief criteria for unmarked and marked categories of phonology, which can be translated by substituting related terms from the language of phonology into that of grammar or lexicon and vice versa; the general one is the greater frequency of the unmarked member, other criteria listed below:

1- The neutralization in which the unmarked feature appears when in a particular class of environment, no contrast occurs within a set of {lexemes, phonemes}, which differ only in a single feature unmarked feature, which appears in this environment.

Based on the data analysis, we notice that trill /r/always occurs in stressed syllable and flap /ɾ/occurs in an unstressed syllable, but when /r/ is preceded by emphatics, it surfaces as a trill even when it occurs in unstressed syllable as is shown in the following data:

/mustaTHraf/ (elegant)

/?adriha/ (graves)

/masru:f/ (money spent)

2- The greater allophonic variability of the unmarked member of a correlative set, i.e., the unmarked grammatical category, shows greater allomorphic variation, except, of course, when characteristically the case, it is expressed by zero.

3- The last indicator mentioned for distinguishing marked from unmarked in phonology was that the basic allophone, defined in terms of phonological independence of its environment, was the one with the unmarked feature (Greenberg1966).

5. Conclusion and future recommendation

The study explores some segments' distribution based on the constrained-base analysis of syllables' stress in modern standard Arabic. The study accounts for the distribution of the segment /r/ according to its position in the syllable, the allophonic variations of the studied segment occur in complementary distribution, and the following are its phonological distributions; /r/ will be a tap/flap in intervocalic position, a single rhotic can occur as a tap/ flap or as a trill but geminated /r/ will occur as a trill. It will be a trill when followed by a voiced or voiceless plosive such as *rt / * rd because it has gemination characteristics.

This study brings to our consideration that the occurrences of some segments in the context-free markedness; that a trill occurs in single, geminated, and intervocalic positions, Voiced fricatives occur in an intervocalic position, voiceless fricatives occur in word-initial position, trills always tend to vary with non-trilled pronunciation, /r/ single geminated (trill) occurs in intervocalic positions. Furthermore, (Place of articulation) trills generally occur in the three mentioned places. This study proves that the influence of the preceding sound, i.e., pharyngeal resulted in the occurrence of trill [r] in unstressed syllables.

 In sum, like other languages, Arabic shows the markedness and faithfulness of the segment /r/ where the trill is the least marked, Flap is more marked in most other languages as well. The violation caused by the sequence of emphatic and pharyngeal sounds followed by trill [r] in an unstressed syllable is problematic and needs further analysis.

References

Abdo, Daud A. (1972). 'On stress and Arabic phonology: A generative approach'. *Journal of Linguistics* 8.2 336-338. *Beirut:* Khayats. Pp. 128

Adra, Mohammed. (1999). Identity effects and opacity in Syrian Arabic: An Optimality Theory analysis. Ph.D. diss., The University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaig, USA.

Alahmari, Musa. (2018). An optimality-theoretic analysis of some aspects of the phonology and morphology in a southwestern Saudi Arabian Arabic dialect. Ph.D. diss. Indiana University, Indiana, USA.

Al-Bataineh, Hussein. (2019). 'Emphasis harmony in Arabic: A critical assessment of feature-geometric and optimality-theoretic approaches. *Languages*, *4*(4), 79.

Alghamdi, Rozan. (2016). An optimality theoretic analysis of stress in Ghamdi Arabic. M.A. Thesis, California State University, Fresno, USA.

Al-Mohanna, Faisal. (2007). 'An optimal alternative to iterative footing'. *California Linguistic Notes*, *32*(1).

Al-Momani, Doa'a, and Mahadin Radwan. (2020). 'Stress Patterns in Bani Saxar Arabic in Jordan: An optimality theory perspective'. *Jordanian Educational Journal*, *3*(3), 15.

Al-Sharabi, Tawfeek M. (2010). Prosody and morphology as mutually interacting systems: The case of Yemeni Arabic. Ph.D. diss., EFL University, Hyderabad, India.

Al Tairi, Hamed. (2010). Consonant Clusters in Mukallaene Arabic Dialect: Observations and an OT Account. Ph.D. diss., University of Oakland, Michigan, USA.

Ali, Marwa. (2018). 'An optimality analytical approach to selected Qur'anicPhonotactics'. فى *مجلة البحث العلمى الآداب*, *4*(العدد التاسع عشر الجزء الثالث) , 1-64.

Brockelmann, Carl. (1907). '*Grundriss der vergleichendengrammatik der emitischenSprachen*. 1. *Hildesheim: Georg Olm.*

Brame, Michael K. (1970). Arabic phonology: Implications for phonological theory and historical Semitic.MA: MIT diss. Cambridge.

Brame, Michael K. (1973). 'On stress assignment in two Arabic dialects. A Festschrift for Morris Halle, ed. Stephen R. Anderson and Paul Kiparsky'.

Brame, Michael K. (1974). 'The cycle in phonology: Stress in Palestinian, Maltese and Spanish'. *Linguistic Inquiry*5. 39–60.

Broselow, E. (1976). The phonology of Egyptian Arabic.Ph.D. diss., University of Massachusetts, Amherst, USA.

Btoosh, Mousa. (2006). 'Constraint interactions in Jordanian Arabic phonotactics: An optimality-theoretic approach'. *Journal of Language and Linguistics*, *5*(2), 102-221.

Caroline, Fery. (2003). 'The syllable in optimality theory': University of Potsdam, Germany.

Chomsky, Noam, and Morris Halle. (1968). 'The sound pattern of English'. (1968): 12-19.

Crowhurst, Megan J. (1996). 'An optimal alternative to conflation'. *Phonology*, *13*.3, 409-424.

De Jong, Kenneth, and Bushra Adnan Zawaydeh. (1999). 'Stress, duration, and intonation in Arabic word-level prosody'. *Journal of Phonetics* 27.1: 3-22.

DEVINE, Andrew M. and STEPHENS Laurence, D. (1991–93). 'Ancient Greek and the typology of tone in pitch accent languages. *Die Sprache 35* (2): 221-225.

Erpenius, Thomas. (1656). 'Grammatica Arabica'. Leiden.

Gadoua, Abdulhamid, Hadi. (2000). 'Consonant clusters in Quranic Arabic'. *Cahiers Linguistiques d Ottawa*, 59-86.

Goitein, Shelamo D. (1970). 'Jemenica: Sprichwörter und Redensartenaus Zentral-Jemenmit zahlreichenSach- und Worterläutungen'. Leiden: Brill.

Gordon, Matthew. (2007). 'Syllable weight: Phonetics, phonology, typology'. Routledge.

Greenberg, JosephH. (1966). *'Language* universals, with special reference to feature hierarchies'.The Hague, Netherlands: Mouton & Co.

Halle, Morris, and Jean-Roger Vergnaud. (1987). 'Stress and the cycle'. *Linguistic Inquiry*, *18*(1), 45-84.

Halpern, Jack. (2009). 'Word stress and vowel neutralization in modern standard Arabic'. In *2nd International Conference on Arabic Language Resources and Tools*, Cairo, Egypt.: J. (pp. 1-7).

Hayes, Bruce, Philip. (1980). A metrical theory of stress rules. Ph.D. diss., MIT. Distributed 1981, Indiana University Linguistics Club.

Hayes, Bruce, Philip. (1995). 'Metrical stress theory: Principles and case studies'. University of Chicago Press.

Jarrah, Ali, Saleh, Ibraheem. (2013). 'English loan words spoken by Madinah Hijazi Arabic speakers. *Arab World English Journal*, *4*.

Johnson, C. Douglas. (1979). 'Opaque stress in Palestinian'. *Lingua*49. 153–168.

Kager, Ren'e. (1999). *'*Optimality Theory. A Textbook'. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kenstowicz, Michael. (1986). 'Notes on syllable structure in three Arabic dialects'. *Revue québécoise de linguistique,* 16(1), 101– 127. doi:10.7202/602581ar.

Kiparsky, Paul. (2000).'Opacity and cyclicity'. *The Linguistic Review* 17:351–367.

Kiparsky, Paul. (2000). 'A Festschrift for Morris Halle'. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston. 14–25.

Kramer, Martin. (2009). 'The phonology of Italian'. Oxford University Press on Demand.

Kristoffersen, Gjert. (2000). 'The phonology of Norwegian'. Oxford University Press on Demand.

Liberman, Mark, and Alan Prince. (1977). 'On stress and linguistic rhythm'. *Linguistic Inquiry* 8.2 (1977): 249-336.

Lunden, Stephanie Laura. (2006). 'Weight, final lengthening, and stress: A phonetic and phonological case study of Norwegian'. University of California, Santa Cruz.

Maddison, Ian. (1984). 'Patterns of Sounds'. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mahyoob, Mohammad. (2020). 'Developing a simplified morphological analyzer for Arabic pronominal system'. *International Journal on Natural Language Computing (IJNLC),* Available at:

SSRN: https://ssrn.com/abstract=3599719 or http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3599719

Mardiah, Zaqiatul, Abdul Muta'ali, and Fazlur Rachman. (2019). 'A realization of optimality theory to Arabic hollow verb. In *Eleventh Conference on Applied Linguistics (CONAPLIN 2018).* Atlantis Press.

McCarthy, John J. (1994). 'The phonetics and phonology of Semitic pharyngeals'. In Patricia Keating', ed., *Papers in Laboratory Phonology III: Phonological Structure and Phonetic Form,* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. 191–233.

McCarthy, John J. (1979). 'On stress and syllabification'. *Linguistic inquiry*, *10*(3), 443-465.

Mitchell, T. F. (1960). 'Syllabification and prominence in Arabic'. *Bullettin of the School of Oriental and African Studies,* London, 23, 369-389.

Mitchell, T. E., and A. H. Heuer. (1977). 'Solution hardening by aliovalent cations in ionic crystals. *Materials Science and Engineering*, 28(1), 81-97.

Naïm-Sanbar, Samia. (1994). 'Contribution à l'étude de l'accentyéménite: Le parler des femmesde l'anciennegénération'. *ZeitschriftfürArabischeLinguistik* 27. 67–89.

Pruitt, Kathryn. (2008). 'Iterative foot optimization and locality in stress systems'. *University of Massachusetts, Amherst. ROA-999.*

Rakhieh, Belal, A. (2009). The phonology of Ma'ani Arabic: Stratal or parallel OT. Ph.D. diss., University of Essex, England, UK.

Rice, Curt. (2006). 'Norwegian stress and quantity: The implications of loan words'. *Lingua*, 116(7), 1171-1194.

Rossi, Ettore. (1939). 'L'araboParlato a fian#a. Romea: Istituto per l'Oriente'.

Smolensky, Paul and Alan Prince. (1993). 'Optimality Theory: Constraint interaction in generative grammar (Technical Report CU-CS-696-93)'. Department of

ComputerScience, the University of Colorado at Boulder.

Sakarna, Ahmad, Khalaf. (2013). 'A proposed model of optimality theory for Jordanian Arabic broken plurals'. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(1), 48-55.

Vergnaud, J., R., and M. Halle. (1979). 'Metrical phonology: a fragment of a draft'. Ms. MIT

Watson, Janet C. E. (2002). 'The phonology and morphology of Arabic'. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Watson, Janet CE. (2011). 'Word stress in Arabic'. *The Blackwell companion to phonology*, 1-29.

Weldon, Ann. (1980). 'Stress in Cairo Arabic'. *Studies in the Linguistic Sciences* 10. 99–120.

Wright, William. (1971). *A grammar of the Arabic language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Zibin, Aseel. (2019). 'A phonological analysis of English loanwords inflected with Arabic morphemes in urban Jordanian spoken Arabic. *SAGE Open*, *9*(2), 2158244019841927.

Prior Knowledge-Based Metacognition Strategies in Developing Students' Writing Skills Assessment Tools: Preparing the Student Teachers

Edi Puryanto[a,1]*, Yumna Rasyid[b,2], Fathiathy Murtadho[c,3]

[a]*Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra Indonesia, Fakultas Bahasa dan Seni, Universitas Negeri Jakarta*

[b,c] *Program Doktor Ilmu Pendidikan Bahasa Universitas Negeri Jakarta*

[1]*edipuryanto@unj.ac.id,* [2]*yumna.rasyid@unj.ac.id,* [3]*fathiatymurtadho@unj.ac.id*

Bio-profiles:

1. **Edi Puryanto** is a lecturer at the Universitas Negeri Jakarta. He took his Bachelor's education in the *Indonesian Language and Literature Education Program.* He completed his Master's program at the Universitas Negeri Malang. His other interests include writing books, two of which that won acclaim are *Planning for Teaching Indonesian Language*, and *Curriculum and Study Textbooks*. He has been published in well known journals, including (1) *Development of the Indonesian Language Learning Assessment Instrument Model and (2)Development of Project-Based Learning on Complex Procedure Texts of Class VII Junior High School Students in Developing his Knowledge and Academic experience*. The focus of his studies has largely been the teaching and evaluation of the Indonesian language.

2. **Yumna Rasyid** is a Professor at the Jakarta State University and teaches Arabic Language Syntax and Morphology, Language Teaching and Curriculum, Language Material Development, and Discourse Analysis and Language Teaching. She has completed her Bachelor's degree in Arabic language education and Master's and Doctoral Program in Language Education at the Universitas Negeri Jakarta. As part of her academic development and growth, Yumna has conducted various studies and has been published in international journals. Some of her critically acclaimed articles are: (1) *The Preferences and Needs of Electronic Ddictionary Among Junior High Students in Jakarta,* (2) *Maxim of Quality in the Police Officer's Speech Acts: An Ethnography of Communication*, (3) *Influence of Habits on Watching Movies and Abilities Creative Thinking about the Power of the Short Story*

Language. Her research interests include Curriculum and Discourse Analysis, and Curriculum and Language Teaching.

3. **Fathiaty Murtadho** is a lecturer in Indonesian Language Proficiency, Curriculum and Language Teaching. Fathiaty completed her Bachelor's education in the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Program. Thereafter she completed her Master's and Doctoral Programs in Language Education at the Universitas Negeri Jakarta. In developing her academic knowledge and skills, she has carried out various studies and has been published in international journals in which her well read articles are titles (1) *Integrating Creativity as a Soft Skill in Learning Indonesian Language and Literature*; (2) *Students' Metacognitive Thinking Ability in Rhetoric Subject in the Indonesian Language Education Study Program*; and (3) *General Education Integrative Model in Indonesian Language Subjects in Higher Education.*

Abstract

The ability to develop writing skills assessment tools is one of the abilities that students who will become teachers must master. This ability is taught by lecturers to students through effective learning by implementing appropriate learning strategies. This study aims to determine the effect of learning strategies on the ability to develop writing skills assessment tools. This experimental study used a 2x2 factorial design. The independent variables are the metacognition strategy and advance organizer and the ability to develop writing skills assessment tools was the dependent variable. There are two moderating variables: high and low prior ability. The population consisted of 30 students of the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program, Faculty of Language and Art, Universita Negeri Jakarta. All data was analysed using two-way ANOVA and Sheffe test. The main results of this study indicate that there is a difference between groups of students treated with metacognition strategy and advanced organizer strategy vis-à-vis their ability to develop a writing skill assessment tool.

Keywords: *Assessment tools, metacognition strategy, prior knowledge, writing skills*

Introduction

Assessment is an important component of any learning plan. Assessment is a process that must be carried out by teachers as part of learning activities (Nurgiyantoro, 2013). To

produce a good assessment, a teacher must develop assessment tools that are appropriate to various learning domains (Canedo et al., 2018)(Ansari, 2018). Ideal assessment tools should be able to measure student learning outcomes appropriately and effectively. In an evaluation of the Saudi EFL tertiary examination system for student teachers, Alfallaj and Al-Ahdal (2017) concluded that it is of utmost importance that students teachers be well trained in designing authentic assessment mechanisms and available assessment tools be periodically assessed to ensure that they agree with classroom practices.

While assessing writing skills, teachers still have many difficulties and it is possible for errors to occur (Putra et al., 2020). The main problem faced by the assessors is the difficulty in changing the teacher's paradigm regarding the assessment that should be carried out (Sari et al., 2019); (Dalle et al., 2017). This error is because the writing skill assessment instrument used is sometimes invalid and lopsidedly emphasises mastery of the cognitive aspects (Ansari, 2018).

In the context of assessing writing skills, the results regarding understanding, experience, procedures, constraints, the form of writing assignments, and writing assessments in schools, the results show that 80% of teachers understand the concept of assessment, while only 40% of teachers can develop self-assessment rubrics and implement them in class (Febriyanti et al., 2017). The invalidity of the writing skills instrument can be seen from the grid that was made, performance instructions and items, and the components and aspects of writing. The components of the writing skills assessment must include, a) the content of the ideas put forward; b) content organization, c) grammar; d) diction and vocabulary; and e) spelling and writing. The use of an invalid writing skill assessment instrument will adversely impact the learning outcomes in writing skills as they may tend to be subjective and inaccurate and thus, not describe the students' actual writing skills ability.

Several previous studies have shown that many teachers have not been able to develop writing skills assessment tools properly. This is also a problem with student teachers, especially under the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program, FBS UNJ. When given the task of developing a writing skill assessment tool in the Indonesian Language Learning Planning course, students failed to develop an appropriate tool so that their learning outcomes are still categorized as low.

When assessment grids, question framing, item instructions, and making of assessment rubrics were assigned to student teachers to evaluate their ability to develop assessment tools,even with repeated alterations, it turned out that the results were still low. The writing

skills assessment tools thus developed still contained many errors, either in the assessment grid section, or in the formulation of indicators, determination of material, selection of techniques, or forms of assessment which were inappropriate. In the performance instructions section, question items, and assessment rubric also there were errors. This means that, in general, students did not have adequate skills in developing writing skills assessment tools.

Furthermore, interviews conducted by the researcher with students to identify the causes of student teachers' difficulties in developing writing skills assessment tools brought to the surface the difficulties faced by them summarised as follows: i. preparation of the writing skill assessment grid; ii. Preparation of performance instructions and making items in terms of choosing questions or commands related to the material being taught; iii. developing a scoring rubric and scoring guidelines. In the writing skill assessment rubric, students have difficulty determining the appropriate components or aspects. Students have not mastered all components of writing skills which include content, organization, linguistic elements, and spelling and are related to writing skills based on text genres. In developing scoring guidelines, students experience difficulties in developing an assessment rubric, especially determining the weighted value, value range, and assessment criteria for each aspect.

Initial analysis of interviews showed that the cause of their failure to prepare an effective writing assessment tool lay in the use of inappropriate learning strategies learning, most frequently metacognition and advance organizer strategies. Therefore the premise that learning with the right strategy will be the starting point for efforts to improve the quality of learning outcomes. Strategy is a reference in taking action to achieve the desired learning outcomes. Strategy is a plan, method, or series of activities, designed, to achieve a particular educational goals (Novawan et al., 2020b, 2020a; Pereira & de Andrada, 2012).

Previous research has shown that the use of metacognition strategies is very effective in learning of language skills (Alshammari, 2015). On the other hand, research on good learning outcomes strongly suggests the importance of understanding concepts and the relationship between concepts (Couto et al., 2019; Santos-Hermosa et al., 2017). Learning strategies that are relevant to linking concepts are metacognition strategies and advance organizer strategies.

Metacognition strategy examines the learning process and the way students try to understand concepts by engaging and regulating their cognition in the stages of planning, monitoring, and evaluation (Alshammari, 2015; Novawan et al., 2020b). In a study with Iranian EFL learners, Takallou (2011) concluded that mere awareness to metacognitive strategies can be enhanced with training and thus, improve their language learning ability. In learning

language skills, explaining the relationship between new concepts and relevant concepts in students' cognitive structures is important as it helps them understand concepts more effectively and efficiently (Werdiningsih, 2015); (Baharuddin et al., 2018). In line with the above opinion, advance organizer strategy is a learning design that is applied by the lecturer to strengthen the students' cognitive structure when learning new concepts or information and how knowledge should be properly structured.

This strategy supports the learning process as students try to understand concepts by getting more explanations from lecturers before the stages of planning, monitoring, and evaluation (Ernaeni & Gunawan, 2019; Naibaho, 2016; Effendi, 2018). The lecturer has an important and central role in this strategy.

In addition to learning strategies, another factor that affects the ability of student teachers to develop writing skills assessment tools is prior knowledge. The prior knowledge referred to in this study is the knowledge and understanding of student teachers in mastering writing skills assessment material before participating in learning (Binder et al., 2019; Chan, 2014; Chareka, 2010; Johnson et al., 2018; Ladachart, 2019; Lyngfelt, 2017; Schurer et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2019). From the explanation above, it can be concluded that prior knowledge is knowledge that students have previously acquired, a prerequisite before learning, students with high prior knowledge are likely to face less challenge in understanding the concept of the material so that they will achieve better learning outcomes . So, students' prior knowledge in writing skills assessment material will be the main determinant and have an important role in subsequent learning.

In addition to metacognition strategies, meaningful learning to understand concepts and establish a connect between concepts in learning to develop writing skills assessment tools is an advance organizer strategy. Using these, students can have a better understanding of the concepts that have been studied and are targetted to be studied. Advance Organizer Strategy or initial organizing is a form of learning that is applied to link new learning materials with initial knowledge. This study aims to determine the effect of metacognition learning strategies and advance organizer with prior knowledge on student teachers' abilities in developing writing skills assessment tools. In addition, this study also set out to determine whether or not there was an interaction between the two independent variables above affecting students' ability to develop writing skills assessment tools.

Methods

This experimental study used a 2x2 factorial design with two independent variables,

namely the metacognition strategy and advance organizer and the dependent variable being the ability to develop writing skills assessment tools. This study also considered the moderator variable, namely the prior ability consisting of high and low prior abilities. SPSS statistics 24.0 software has been used for data analysis. The 2x2 factorial analysis design for this study can be seen in Table 1 below:

Table 1. Experimental Research with 2x2 factorial design

Treatment / Atribute		Strategy	
		Metacognition (A_1)	*Advance Organizer (A_2)*
Prior Knowledge	High (B_1)	Y_1: A_1B_1	Y_2: A_2B_1
	Low (B_2)	Y_3: A_1B_2	$Y_{4:}$ A_2B_2

Abbreviations Key:
:

A =	Learning Strategy
A_1 =	Metacognition Strategy
A_2 =	Advance Organizer Strategy
B =	Prior Knowledge Level
B_1 =	High Prior Knowledge
B_2 =	Low Prior Knowledge
A_1B_1 =	Treatment is in the form of a metacognition learning strategies for groups of students who have high abilities
A_2B_1 =	Treatment is in the form of advance organizer learning strategies for groups of students who have high abilities
A_1B_2 =	Treatment is in the form of metacognition learning strategies for groups of students who have low abilities
A_2B_2 =	Treatment is in the form of advance organizer learning strategies groups of students who have low abilities

The respondent sample in this study were the fifth semester students of the Indonesian Language and Literature Study Program who were registered as active students in the odd semester 2019/2020. The sample was randomly chosen with 46 people spread over two different classes, namely class A with 25 students and class 3PB1 and 3PB2 with an equal number of students.

To clasify students as possessing high level versus low level of initial knowledge, the following steps were taken:

1) Ordering the results of students' initial knowledge test in class 3 PB1 and 3 PB2, from the highest to the lowest scores;

2) Determining students in grade 3PB1 and 3PB2 as research samples by identifying students

who:

a) have the highest initial knowledge value in their respective classes, hereinafter referred to as group of students who have a high level of initial knowledge;

b) have the lowest initial knowledge score in their respective classes, hereinafter referred to as group of students who have low initial knowledge levels;

c) have moderate initial knowledge value; these students still follow the learning process, but the learning process and results do not constitute the data analyzed in this study.

By calculating the proportion above, the sample composition based on treatment can be seen in the following table 2 which also shows the two instruments used in the study, viz. a test of the ability to develop a descriptive text writing skill assessment tool, and a test of initial knowledge. The two instruments are arranged in the following grid.

Table 2. Composition of Research Samples

Learning Strategy / Prior Knowledge	Metacognition (A$_1$)	*Advance Organizer* (A$_2$)
Tinggi (B$_1$)	8	7
Rendah (B$_2$)	8	7

Table 3. Grid of Capability in Device Development Assessment of Descriptive Text Writing Skills

No.	Aspects	Score
1	**Instructions for working on questions and items**	**15**
	The conciseness and accuracy of the clue sentences	5
	Logical sequence of item	5
	Sentence items contain operational work	5
2	**Assessment rubric**	**30**
	The appraisal criteria assessed accuracy	10
	The complexity in determining components and aspects	10
	Completeness of the components and aspects assessed	10
3	**Scoring guidelines**	**40**
	Determination of proportional weight scores	10
	Completeness of the rubric matrix	10
	The accuracy of determining the score range	10
	The accuracy of the descriptor sentence	10
4	**Languages**	**15**
	Diction	10
	Spelling and puctuation	5

Table 4. The Prior Knowledge Test Grid

No.	Competence	Indicators	Cognitive Level
1	Students are able to explain concepts / theories of assessment, measurement, test and evaluation	Presented statements about concepts, measurements, tests and evaluations related to student learning, they are able to determine these concepts correctly	C2 Easy
2	Students are able to describe the purpose, function, principles and uses of assessment	Presented statements about the purpose, function, principles, and usefulness of assessment in student learning, can explain the purpose, function, principles and usefulness of assessment precisely.	C4 Medium
3	Students are able to explain various types, forms, and techniques of assessment	Illustrations / statements are presented about the types, forms and techniques of student assessment that can explain the types, forms and techniques of assessment	C2 Easy
4	Students are able to choose the right assessment approach	Illustrations / statements are presented about the assessment approach students can choose the assessment approach appropriately	C4 Medium
5	Students are able to describe aspects of the assessment of attitudes, knowledge, and skills	Illustrations / statements are presented about aspects of assessment, students can choose to describe aspects of assessment of attitudes, knowledge, and skills appropriately	C2 Easy
6	Students are able to compile assessment procedures appropriately	Illustrations / statements are presented about aspects of student assessment that can develop appropriate assessment procedures for attitudes, knowledge and skills	C3 dan C4 Medium
7	Students are able to develop instruments for assessing attitudes, knowledge and skills	Illustrations / statements are presented about student assessments that can develop appropriate assessment instruments for attitudes, knowledge and skills	C6 Difficult
8	Students are able to do item analysis	Illustrations / statements are presented about the assessment of students who can analyze the assessment instruments for attitudes, knowledge and skills appropriately	C4 dan C5 Difficult

In order to measure the expected competence and conditions, these two instruments

were tested to determine the level of validity and reliability.

Testing the validity of the rubric for assessing the ability to develop descriptive text writing skills in this study was based on theoretical validity tests conducted rationally by experts in the field of language. The validity of this rubric was compiled and developed based on the criteria from various theories adjusted to the variables in question.

Reliability is the consistency of a measurement. The reliability of this assessment instrument was carried out through inter-rater reliability. The inter-rater reliability involved three assessors, all of whom were lecturers who taught courses at the research campus. Determination of the level of reliability using the Hoyt formula.

The result of the reliability level test for the rubric for the assessment of students' ability to edit scientific articles in Indonesian was 0.999. This means that the level of reliability of the rubric instrument is very high.

The validity of the prior knowledge test was carried out rationally by experts in the field of language. Then the initial knowledge test instruments were tested on students in similar study programs, namely the Indonesian Language and Literature Education Study Program at the Indonesian Education University. This test was intended to see the feasibility of the instrument by calculating the level of difference and difficulty of the items.

Based on the characteristics of quantitative research, there are 2 (two) types of data collected, namely discrete data and continuum data. Discrete data comes from moderator variables, namely the level of initial knowledge (noun data); Continuum data comes from the dependent variable, namely the ability to develop writing assessment instruments (interval data); and independent variables, namely the learning strategy (nominal data).

For the purposes of data analysis in this study, descriptive and inferential statistical calculations were used. Descriptive statistical calculations were used to describe the data from each research variable using the distribution of frequency (f), mean (ẍ), and standard deviation (SD). To test the effect between variables with a 2 x 2 factorial design, an inferential factorial ANOVA (ANOVA factorial) was used, or what is called the General Linear Model at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ or a 95% confidence level.

Factorial ANOVA was used to test the mean difference between data groups on two or more independent variables with a single dependent variable. Factorial ANOVA can involve two or more categorical / ordinal data between subjects or one data interval or from one factor to the difference in the dependent variable. A factorial design is an experimental design in which each level factors the other. In other words, any combination of level factors is included in the design. Factorial design can determine whether there is an interaction between the

independent variables or the factors under consideration. Interactions may indicate that differences in one factor differ depending on other factors.

Testing with factorial ANOVA was carried out after the normality and homogeneity test of the data. If the results of the analysis indicate an interaction, the test is continued with the Sheffe test to see which treatment is superior.

Findings and Discussion

Findings

The hypothesis was tested using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) techniques. Analysis of variance used two-way analysis of variance (2 X 2) to test the main effect and interaction effect of the independent variables, namely metacognition strategy and advance organizer strategy on the dependent variable, namely the ability to develop skills assessment tools. The main influence in this study is the effect of metacognition strategies and advance organizer strategies on the ability to develop students' writing skills assessment tools; While the interactions in this study are metacognition strategies and advance organizer strategies with prior knowledge of the ability to develop writing skills assessment tools. The same is refleted Table 5 below.

Table 5. Data Description Hypothesis Testing
The Effectiveness of Early Knowledge-Based Metacognition Strategies in Developing
Students' Writing Skills Assessment Tools

Prior Ability	Information	Learning Strategy		Total
		Metacognition (A1)	Advance Organizer (A2)	
High (B1)	N	8	7	15
	$\sum X$	706	573	1279
	Average	88,25	81,85714	72,571
	SD	5,175492	3,412163	8,5
	Var	26,8	11,6	38,4
	$\sum X^2$	498436	328329	826765
Low (B2)	N	8	7	15
	$\sum X$	618	508	1126
	Average	77,3	72,6	149,8
	SD	1,8	5,02	6,8
	Var	3,5	25,3	28,762
	$\sum X^2$	381924	258064	639988
Total	N	16	14	30
	$\sum X$	1324	1081	2405

	Average	165,5	154,4286	319,929
	SD	7,03	8,4	15,481
	Var	30,3	36,9	67,2
	$\sum X^2$	880360	586393	1466753

Score Ability was used to develop an instrument for assessing the writing skills of students who receive treatment with metacognition strategies (A1), from the calculation of the test results of the ability to develop a writing assessment instrument, the group of students who took the lecture with the metacognition strategy (A1) from the two groups with high and low initial knowledge levels had a score range of 1-100; the number of students was 16; the lowest score came to 73 and the highest was 94; the average score was 88.25 in Class ranges of 21; the number of interval classes was 6; and interval length was 4.

Score Ability to Develop Writing Skills Assessment Instruments for Students Who Get Treatment with Advance Organizer Strategy (A2): From the calculation of the results of the ability test to develop a writing skill assessment instrument, the group of students who took classes with advance organizer strategies from the two groups with high and low initial knowledge levels had a range of scores of 1-100; the number of students was 14 students; the lowest score was 65 and the highest was 84; and the average score was 77.2. The class range was 19; the number of interval classes was 4; and interval length was 5.

Score Ability to Develop Writing Skills Assessment Instruments for Students with High Initial Knowledge (B1): With metacognition strategies and advanced organizer strategies, from the calculation of the test results, the ability to develop writing skills assessment instruments for groups of students who have high initial knowledge, both with metacognitive strategies and advanced organizational strategies, showed a score range of 1-100; the number of students was 15; the lowest score was 80 and the highest was 94; and the average score was 85.3. Class range was 14; the number of interval classes was 5; and interval length was 3.

Score Ability to Develop Writing Skills Assessment Instruments for Students with Low Initial Knowledge (B2): With metacognition strategies and advance organizer strategies, from the calculation of the results of the test the ability to develop writing assessment instruments for groups of students who have low initial knowledge, both those given treatment with metacognition strategies and advance organizer strategies had a score range of 1-100; the number of students was 15; the lowest score was 65 and the highest was 83; and average score was 75.1. The class range was 18; the number of interval classes was 3; and interval length 7.

Score for the Ability to Develop Writing Assessment Instruments for Students Who Are Treated with Metacognition Strategies and Have High Initial Knowledge (A1B1): From the calculation of the results of the test of the ability to develop an instrument for assessing writing skills of students who were treated with metacognitive strategies and had high initial knowledge (A1B1), they had a range of scores of 1-100; the number of students was 8; lowest score 80 and highest 94; and the average score was 88.3. Class range was 14; the number of interval classes was 4; and interval length 4.

Score of Ability to Develop Writing Skills Assessment Instruments for Students who are treated with metacognition strategies and have low initial knowledge (A1B2): From the calculation of the test results of the ability to develop an assessment instrument for writing skills of students who were treated with metacognition strategies and had low initial knowledge (A1B2), they had a range of scores of 1-100; the number of students was 8; the lowest score was 73 and the highest was 83; and the average score was 77.3. Class range was 10; the number of interval classes was 4; and interval length 3.

Scores of Ability to Develop Student Writing Assessment Instruments who are treated with an Advance Organizer Strategy and have High Initial Knowledge (A2B1): From the calculation of the results of the ability test to develop writing skills assessment instruments, the group of students who were treated with an advance organizer strategy and had high initial knowledge (A2B1) had a score range of 1-100; the number of students was 7; the lowest score was 80 and the highest was 84; and the average score was 81.9. Class range was 4; the number of interval classes was 3 and the interval length was 2.

Score of Ability to Develop Writing Skills Assessment Instruments for Students who are treated with an Advance Organizer Strategy and have low initial knowledge (A2B2): From the calculation of the results of the test of the ability to develop a writing skill assessment instrument of students who were treated with an advance organizer strategy and had low initial knowledge (A2B2), they had a score range of 1-100; the number of students was 7; the lowest score was 65 and the highest was 79; and the average score was 72.6. Class range was 14; the number of interval classes was 3; and interval length 4.

After calculating the eight data groups ie., A_1, A_2, B_1, B_2, A_1B_1, A_1B_2, A_2B_1, dan A_2B_2, the results of the data normality test recapitulation are presented in the following table 6.

Table 6. Normality Test Results

Kelompok	Jumlah Sampel (n)	L_o	$L_{tabel (0,05)}$	Keterangan
A_1	16	0,151	0,222	Normal

A$_2$	14	0,131	0,237	Normal
B$_1$	15	0,199	0,229	Normal
B$_2$	15	0,132	0,229	Normal
A$_1$B$_1$	8	0,136	0,313	Normal
A$_1$B$_2$	8	0,205	0,313	Normal
A$_2$B$_1$	7	0,269	0,335	Normal
A$_2$B$_2$	7	0,117	0,335	Normal

Table 7. Homogeneity Test of Variance between Groups A1 and A2

Sample Group	db = (n-1)	s^2	db.s^2	Log s^2	db.log s^2
A$_1$	16	50,200	753,000	1,701	25,511
A$_2$	14	36,489	474,357	1,562	20,308
Jumlah	30				45,819

Table 8. Homogeneity test of variance between groups B1 and B2

Kelompok Sample	db = (n-1)	s^2	db.s^2	Log s^2	db.log s^2
B$_1$	15	25,781	360,933	1,411	19,758
B$_2$	15	22,495	314,933	1,352	18,929
Jumlah	30				38,687

Table 9. Homogeneity Test of Variance between Groups A1B1, A1B2, A2B1, and A2B2

Kelompok Sample	db = (n-1)	s^2	db.s^2	Log s^2	db.log s^2
A$_1$B$_1$	8	26,786	187,500	1,428	9,995
A$_1$B$_2$	8	11,643	81,500	1,066	7,462
A$_2$B$_1$	7	3,476	20,857	0,541	3,247
A$_2$B$_2$	7	25,286	151,714	1,403	8,417
Jumlah	30				29,122

Table 10. Two Way ANAVA

Sumber Varians	JK	db	RJK	F$_o$	F$_{(0,05; 26)}$
Antar A	228,809	1	228,809	6,008	4,200
Interaksi AB	77,12	1	5,485	5,486	4,200
Dalam	441,571	26	16,983		
Total	1527,800	29			

There were two hypotheses tested with ANOVA 2 X 2, namely (1) there is an influence of the interaction between learning methods (metacognition strategy and advance organizer strategy) and prior knowledge (high and low) on the ability to develop student writing assessment tools; and (2) there is a difference in the ability to develop students' writing

assessment tools between those who are treated with metacognition strategies and have high prior knowledge and those who are treated with advance organizer strategies and have high prior knowledge.

H1 is accepted and Ho is rejected. This means that there are differences in the ability to develop writing skills assessment tools between students who are treated with metacognition strategies and those treated with advance organizer strategies (A1-A2).Therefore, H1 is accepted and Ho is rejected. This implies that there is an interaction effect between the metacognition strategy learning strategy and the advance organizer strategy and prior knowledge (high and low) on the ability of student teachers to develop writing assessment tools.

The results of the calculation of the average value of the ability to develop a writing skill assessment instrument for students learning with metacognition strategies in the group of students with high initial knowledge (A1B1) of 88.3 and in the group of students with low initial knowledge (A1B2) of 77.3. Meanwhile, the average score for the ability to develop writing skills assessment instruments for students studying with the advance organizer strategy in the group of students with high initial knowledge (A2B1) was 81.9 and in the group of students with low initial knowledge (A2B2) was 72.6. This interaction can be illustrated in the following Graph 1.
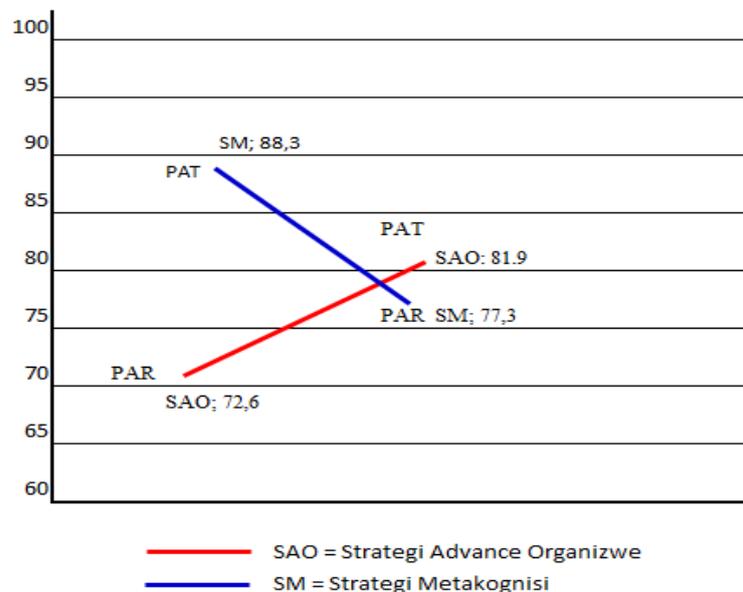

Figure 1. Interaction between Metacognition Strategies, Advance Organizer Strategies, and Early Knowledge of the Ability to Develop Writing Skills Assessment Instruments

Based on the ANOVA test results, it is concluded that there is an interaction effect of learning strategies and prior knowledge on the ability to develop writing skills assessment tools. Therefore, the test was continued by using the Scheffe test for the two groups being compared, by testing two additional hypotheses, namely (3) there was a difference in the ability to develop students' writing assessment tools between those who were treated with metacognition strategies and had high prior knowledge with students who were treated with advance organizer strategy and have high prior knowledge; and (4) there is a difference in the ability to develop students' writing assessment tools between those treated with metacognition strategies and having low prior knowledge with students who are treated with advance organizer strategies and have low prior knowledge.

Disscussion

The ability to develop a writing skill assessment tool among the group of students treated with metacognition strategy varies from the group of students treated with advanced organizer strategy. This difference is caused by the different characteristics of the two strategies. The metacognition strategy has more detailed and procedural steps than advanced organizer strategy. It strategy starts from planning, monitoring, to evaluation (Novawan et al., 2020a). Further each of these steps is comprised of other steps that are more detailed. For instance, planning includes the steps of formulating goals, directing attention, activating background knowledge, predicting, organizational planning, and self-management. The monitoring step consists of asking whether something makes sense, selective attention, deduction / induction, personalization / contextualization, and taking notes. Finally, evaluation has steps to verify predictions, make a summary, check objectives, evaluate yourself, and evaluate the strategies used.

The advance organizer strategy is a learning strategy that has three phases as a learning syntax, namely (1) advance organizer presentation, namely the activities developed are clarifying learning objectives, presenting advance organizer which in this study is based on concept maps, and fostering awareness of relevant knowledge; (2) presentation of assignments or learning materials, and (3) strengthening cognitive structures, namely activities to link new learning materials with students' cognitive structures (Effendi, 2018).

Judging from the steps of the two strategies discussed above we conclude that they are both very different. The metacognition strategy measures are more detailed than the advance organizer strategy. This factor is also one of the things that distinguishes student learning outcomes using metacognition strategies compared to advanced organizer strategies. In

addition, the activities in the metacognition strategy use all language skills. Language skills are collaborated to achieve student understanding in learning.

One language skill interacts with other language skills. This is in line with Werdiningsih's (2015) research results. In the conclusion of his research, Werdiningsih argues that the intercorrelation of the use of metacognitive strategies in learning four Indonesian language skills indicates that the use of metacognitive strategies in one Indonesian language skill is correlated with other Indonesian language skills.

At the planning stage, students are encouraged to plan activities that will be carried out in designing writing skills assessment tools. They need a lot of knowledge and understanding of the material about compiling assessment tools, especially writing skills. At the monitoring stage, students are required to read a lot, ask questions, and reflect, because students must understand the material and integrate it with prior knowledge. This stage helps students improve their mastery of the material being studied. Students can independently correct their behavior during learning. Conditions like this show that metacognition strategies encourage students to want to know more to develop their level of thinking, so that with this knowledge students can overcome all the problems they face (Novawan et al., 2020a).

The results of other studies indicate an interaction between the learning method and the level of prior knowledge on the ability to develop students' writing skills assessment tools. This means that metacognition strategies and advance organizer strategies can affect the ability to develop students 'writing skills assessment tools if they match the level of students' prior knowledge (high and low). In improving students' abilities in developing assessment tools, metacognition strategies trigger positive responses from students. Problems encountered by students during learning are discussed with the lecturer to be able to find out how these problems can be resolved appropriately and quickly. Reflections that are carried out at the end of learning with metacognitive strategies make students accustomed to choosing the right strategy for themselves so that learning can take place more meaningfully. This activity helps them to improve their critical thinking. Another previous study showed that critical thinking has significance influence on essay writing learning (Istiara & Lustyantie, 2017).

According to (Namira & Prasetya, 2014) in principle, if it is related to the learning process, one's metacognitive abilities are used to control the learning process starting from the planning stage, choosing the right strategy according to the problems faced, then reflecting on and monitoring progress in learning simultaneously. as a form of correction while understanding the concept and analyzing the selected learning strategy. Students are taught to practice developing their metacognitive abilities by applying metacognitive strategies. Students

are accustomed to planning and realizing what to study chemistry, planning the right strategy in studying the material and doing reflection to monitor how they think themselves.

As students' metacognitive abilities increase, their cognitive abilities slowly increase because with metacognitive strategies students are accustomed to controlling what they need to learn, what problems are encountered during learning and how to solve these problems so that learning methods are more focused on problem solving. The good response shown by students with the application of metacognitive strategies is attributable to the enhancement of students' metacognitive abilities.

Problem solving is done by discussing in small groups or pairs which is seen as a healthy alternative to individual learning (Ismail, Ade, Ninuk Lustyantie, 2020).

The group of students who used the addvance organizer strategy also demonstrated interactions with students' prior knowledge. This advance organizer strategy involves students' knowledge based on their experience with the study of previous materials. Activating the students' prior knowledge indirectly engages their motivation in learning (Lustyantie, 2020). Prior knowledge organization is done by using and connecting concepts and propositions previously known to students (Anshary et al., 2020; Permana et al., 2016; Rokhmawan, 2018). The use of learning strategies by educators can help students obtain information, explore ideas, connect various knowledge so that the learning carried out by students has a clear direction. With this, the cognitive structure of students in developing writing skills assessment tools will be formed. Related to the above, Effendi (2018) concluded that the student's advance organizer strategy can help them understand and take advantage of the relationships between ideas that are interconnected in Mathematics, so that their learning outcomes are better than before. Through the advance organizer learning model, students are more motivated to learn.

This s tudy showed using statistical tools that both metacognition and advance organizer strategies have the effect of interacting with students' prior knowledge. That is, the learning outcomes in the two student treatment groups are also influenced by students' prior knowledge. In each treatment group, learning outcomes can be distinguished between students who have high prior knowledge and students who have low prior knowledge. Although the ability to develop assessment tools for both the groups showed improvement, the group of students who had low prior knowledge scored still less than the group of students who had high prior knowledge, both in the group of students who were treated with metacognition strategies and those treated with advance organizer. Novowan et al (2020b) argue that this difference is because students will find it easier to understand and learn new subject matter, if the teaching

and learning process is based on previously known material, so that students only need to develop the prior knowledge they already have into new, higher abilities.

Learning is a process, an activity carried out by humans to seek, discover, understand and develop existing knowledge. Therefore, the level of existing knowledge about the material to be studied has an effect on learning outcomes, regardless of the strategy used. Student's prior knowledge is the ability that a student has before he takes up new learning. This prior knowledge illustrates the readiness of students in receiving lessons to be delivered by educators. It is very important for educators to know students' prior knowledge before starting the learning process, the aim is to know that students already have knowledge which is a prerequisite for participating in learning. Tanjung (2018) argues that by knowing these two things, educators will be able to better design learning. Prior knowledge is the knowledge, skills, and abilities brought by learners into the learning process.

Another finding in this study is that the ability to develop a writing skill assessment tool for students who are treated with cognitive strategies and have high prior knowledge, is different from students who are treated with advace organizer strategies and have high prior knowledge. Students who have high prior knowledge of assessment tools are able to adapt and follow all learning processes and are able to creatively solve the problems at hand. With high prior knowledge, students already have a number of schemata on the given theme and even the right vocabulary according to the context. This certainly makes it easier for students to learn material about developing writing skills assessment tools.

Prior knowledge is a need to develop materials on writing skills assessment tools. The results of the study cannot be generalized to imply that high prior abilities can facilitate the use of any learning method in improving student learning outcomes. However, at least the research can give an idea that the high prior knowledge possessed by students has an influence on maximizing learning outcomes. In this case, Lestunty (2012) said that information about students 'prior knowledge is positive information because through information about students' prior knowledge, education can determine the appropriate learning method.

This study shows that even though they have the same high prior knowledge, learning outcomes in developing student assessment tools are different. This can be understood because learning outcomes are not only influenced by students' prior knowledge, but also by the learning strategies used. In the group of students who had high prior knowledge, both students who were treated with metacognitive strategies and advace organizer strategies, the ability to develop assessment tools showed improvement. This shows that the prior ability will determine student achievement at the next level. This can happen because the prior abilities possessed by

students are abilities and strengths that priorly exist in students. The learning process for individuals is not a one-time process but a process that takes place step by step. In relation to this, in their research, Naibaho (2016) argued that a person's abilities are cumulative, which is a combination of old knowledge and new knowledge and that they are always integrating that new knowledge with the old knowledge they have.

Even the process of acquiring and integrating knowledge is not the end point of learning. The old and new knowledge that has been integrated in students needs to be improved, strengthened and developed. Thus students will have broader and deeper knowledge, so that student success in learning can be influenced by the amount of prior abilities the students themselves have, indeed it is the foundation for learning at the next level.

The metacognition and advance organizer strategies used by the lecturers were able to attract students' attention to participate in the learning process. During this process, students also slowly try to actively participate in solving problems faced in learning. According to Yogianti & Budhi (2016), this shows that the use of appropriate learning strategies can activate students in the learning process.

The last finding that this study needs to report is that there is a difference in the ability to develop students' writing assessment tools between those who are treated with metacognition strategies and have low prior knowledge with students who are treated with advance organizer strategies and have low prior knowledge. If compared to the group of students who have high prior abilities, the results are still below the group of students who have lower prior abilities. In the group of students with low prior knowledge, activities during the learning process and creativity in solving problems related to the development of writing skills assessment tools were less visible.

Conclusion

Based on the findings, it can be argued that the ability to develop instruments for assessing students' writing skills is influenced by the treatment given by the lecturer. The ability to develop writing skills assessment instruments for students who learn to use metacognition strategies is different from those students who study with advanced organizer strategies. This difference did not only occur in the group of students who were given different treatment, but also in the intercellular group. Even comparing two groups of students who both have high initial knowledge, where one group learns with the metaconition strategy and the other group learns with the advance organizer strategy, the ability to develop instruments for assessing writing skills for each group is different. Likewise, with the other two groups who had low initial

knowledge, and were given different treatments, the ability to develop their writing skills assessment instrument was different.

Based on this, it can be concluded that: (1) The ability of initial knowledge affects the choice of learning strategies. (2) Selection of the right learning strategy affects the ability to develop writing skills assessment instruments, so that teachers need to know the characteristics of the learning strategies to be used. (3) The interaction between the learning method and the level of initial knowledge on the ability to develop students' writing skills assessment tools shows that metacognition strategies and advance organizer strategies as well as students' initial knowledge levels (high and low) that students have can affect the ability to develop writing skills assessment tools. (4) Students who have high initial knowledge are able to adapt, have more mental readiness, and are quicker to absorb information and are able to map problems in learning. In addition, with sufficient initial knowledge it can be used as a link to build cognitive structures from the new information it gets. Students with high knowledge have dexterity in processing new information and have high creativity in compiling new knowledge during the learning process. High initial knowledge makes students foster confidence and independence in learning as with high initial knowledge, the student already has a number of adequate schemata to make it easier for students to explore the material to be studied. (5) Students with low initial knowledge show less creativity in solving problems associated with developing writing skills assessment tools. They are more likely to follow the example given by the lecturer over and over again. However, correct learning strategies can help correct this. The presence of learning strategies with a cognitive approach, such as metacognition and advance organizer is very appropriate to assist students in processing and receiving new information. Learning processes that are relevant and pay attention to the conditions of initial knowledge are very useful in constructing new schemata in the form of someone's knowledge and experience from what they learn.

References

Alfallaj, F.S.S. & Al-Ahdal, A.A.M.H. (2017). Authentic assessment: Evaluating the Saudi EFL tertiary examination system. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* 7(8), 597-607

Alshammari, M. K. (2015). The effect of Using Metacognitive Strategies for Achievement. *International Journal of Education, Learning and Development*, 3(7), 47–54.

Ansari, K. (2018). Penilaian Pembelajaran Sastra Indonesia Berketerampilan Pikir Taraf Tinggi (HOTS). Seminar Nasional Pendidikan Bahasa Dan Sastra Indonesia I Unimed (Vol. 1), 21–34.

Anshary, D., Mulyadi, Y., & Mutiarsih, Y. (2020). Penerapan Strategi Pembelajaran Task Based Language Learning Dalam Meningkatkan Keterampilan Menulis Teks Deskriptif Bahasa Perancis. *Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa Dan Sastra*, 19(2), 245–254. https://doi.org/10.17509/bs_jpbsp.v19i2.24790

Baharuddin, Hadi, S., Hamid, A., Mutalib, A. A., & Dalle, J. (2018). Dilemma between applying coherent principle and signaling principles in interactive learning media. *Open Psychology Journal*, 11(1), 235–248.

Binder, T., Sandmann, A., Sures, B., Friege, G., Theyssen, H., & Schmiemann, P. (2019). Assessing prior knowledge types as predictors of academic achievement in the introductory phase of biology and physics study programmes using logistic regression. *International Journal of STEM Education*, 6(1). https://doi.org/10.1186/s40594-019-0189-9

Canedo, E. D., Santos, G. A., & Leite, L. L. (2018). An assessment of the teaching-learning methodologies used in the introductory programming courses at a Brazilian University. *Informatics in Education*, 17(1), 45–59. https://doi.org/10.15388/infedu.2018.03

Chan, S. (2014). The Effects of Prior Language Knowledge in Japanese Acquisition as a Foreign Language: The Case of the Japanese Noun Modifier No. *New Voices*, 6, 27–50. https://doi.org/10.21159/nv.06.02

Chareka, O. (2010). A matter of prior knowledge: Canadian young children's conceptions about the future in the global community. International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education, 2(2), 287–304.

Couto, L. B., Durand, M. T., Wolff, A. C. D., Restini, C. B. A., Faria, M., Romão, G. S., & Bestetti, R. B. (2019). Formative assessment scores in tutorial sessions correlates with

OSCE and progress testing scores in a PBL medical curriculum. *Medical Education Online*, 24(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/10872981.2018.1560862

Dalle, J., Hadi, S., Baharuddin, & Hayati, N. (2017). The development of interactive multimedia learning pyramid and prism for junior high school using macromedia authorware. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, 2017(Special Issue 2017), 714–721.

Effendi, K. N. S. (2018). Penerapan Pembelajaran Advance Organizer Dalam Peningkatan Kemampuan Pemahaman Matematis Dan Motivasi Belajar Siswa Smk. *Prima: Jurnal Pendidikan Matematika*, 2(1), 33. https://doi.org/10.31000/prima.v2i1.419

Ernaeni, L., & Gunawan, I. (2019). Model Advanced Organizer: Pengaruhnya Terhadap Kemampuan Berpikir Kreatif. *Indonesian Journal of Science and Mathematics Education*, 2(1), 79–83. https://doi.org/10.24042/ijsme.v2i1.3974

Febriyanti, A. L., Harsiati, T., & Dermawan, T. (2017). Pengembangan Instrumen Asesmen Menulis. *Jurnal Pendidikan: Teori, Penelitian, Dan Pengembangan*, 2(10), 1399–1408.

Ismail, Ade, Ninuk Lustyantie, E. (2020). Collaborative Learning in Academic Writing: A Study at an EFL Context. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16(6), 25–41.

Istiara, F., & Lustyantie, N. (2017). The influence of cooperative learning model and critical thinking on essay writing skills (Experimental Study). *World Journal of English Language*, 7(2), 22–30.

Johnson, K. A., Mellesmoen, G. M., Lo, R. Y.-H., & Gick, B. (2018). Prior Pronunciation Knowledge Bootstraps Word Learning. *Frontiers in Communication*, 3(February), 1–9. https://doi.org/10.3389/fcomm.2018.00001

Ladachart, L. (2019). Thai Science Educators' Perspectives on Students' Prior Knowledge: A Documentary Research. *Science Education International*, 30(2), 116–127. https://doi.org/10.33828/sei.v30.i2.5

Lestunty, C. (2012). Hubungan Pengetahuan Awal dan Diksi dengan Keterampilan Berbicara, Mahasiswa Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Jerman. *Jurnal Tahuri Jurnal Ilmiah Pendidikan Bahasa*, 1(1), 162–172.

Lustyantie, N. F. A. (2020). Reading Interest and Achievement Motivation: A Study in an EFL Context. *TESOL International Journal*, 15(4), 147–167.

Lyngfelt, A. (2017). Reading in your first and second language. On the use of prior knowledge when processing fictional texts at school. *Social Sciences and Education Research Review*, 4(2), 78–99.

Naibaho, T. (2016). Pengaruh Model Advance Organizer Berbasis Kecerdasan Naturalis terhadap Pembelajaran Menulis Puisi. 2, 104–112. https://doi.org/10.17509/rb.v2i1.8779.g5490

Namira, Z., & Prasetya, A. (2014). Keefektifan Strategi Metakognitif Berbantu Advance Organizer Untuk Meningkatkan Hasil Belajar Kimia Siswa. *Chemistry in Education*, 3(1).

Novawan, A., Aisyiyah, S., Miqawati, A. H., Wijayanti, F., & Indrastana, N. S. (2020a). Metacognition – Strategy Use and Metacognitive Knowledge – in EFL Listening: A Pilot Study. *Journal of ELT Research*, 5(1), 80–93. https://doi.org/10.22236/JER

Novawan, A., Aisyiyah, S., Miqawati, A. H., Wijayanti, F., & Indrastana, N. S. (2020b). The Implementation of ICT-Based Materials and Metacognition Learning Strategy to Improve Students' Vocabulary. *Journal of ELT Research*, 5(1), 80–93. https://doi.org/10.22236/JER

Nurgiyantoro, B. (2013). Assessment of Competency-Based Language Learning.

Pereira, M. M., & de Andrada, V. A. (2012). Autoavaliação Como Estratégia Para O Desenvolvimento Da Metacognição Em Aulas De Ciências (Self-Evaluation As A Strategy For Developing Metacognition In Science Classes). *Investigações Em Ensino de Ciências*, V17(3), 663–674.

Permana, R., Sabirin, F., & Feladi, V. (2016). Effect of Self Efficacy and Prior Knowledge on Students' Skills. *JETL (Journal Of Education, Teaching and Learning),* 1(2), 76. https://doi.org/10.26737/jetl.v1i2.43

Putra, A. P., Akrim, A., & Dalle, J. (2020). Integration of high-tech communication practices in teaching of biology in indonesian higher education institutions. *International Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(4), 746–758.

Rokhmawan, T. (2018). Konteks, Tema, Skemata, Memori, dan Pikiran: Mendukung Pembelajaran Bahasa Sebagai Penghela Ilmu Pengetahuan. *Hasta Wiyata*, 1(2), 12–29. https://doi.org/10.21776/ub.hastawiyata.2018.001.02.02

Santos-Hermosa, G., Ferran-Ferrer, N., & Abadal, E. (2017). Repositories of open educational resources: An assessment of reuse and educational aspects. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 18(5), 84–120. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v18i5.3063

Sari, M. E., Zaim, M., & Refnaldi. (2019). Evaluation of authentic assessment for writing skill at junior high schools in west sumatera evaluasi asesmen otentik untuk keterampilan menulis di sekolah menengah di sumatera barat. *Lingua Didaktika: Jurnal Bahasa Dan*

Pembelajaran Sastra, 12(2), 159–168. https://doi.org/DOI: 10. 24036/ld. v12i2. 102384

Schurer, T., Opitz, B., & Schubert, T. (2020). Working Memory Capacity but Not Prior Knowledge Impact on Readers' Attention and Text Comprehension. *Frontiers in Education*, 5(March), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2020.00026

Sun, K., Yu, D., Yu, D., & Cardie, C. (2019). Investigating prior knowledge for challenging chinese machine reading comprehension. *Transactions of the Association for Computational Linguistics*, 8, 141–155. https://doi.org/10.1162/tacl_a_00305

Takallou, F. (2011). The effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness. *Asian EFL Journal*, 13(1).

Tanjung, H. R. (2018). Perbandingan Hasil Belajar Bahasa Indonesia Dalam Pembelajaran Yang Memiliki Kemampuan Awal Tinggidan Rendah Siswa Kelas Xsma Negeri 1 Angkola. *Jurnal Education and Development*, 4(1), 19–24. https://doi.org/10.37081/ed.v4i1.242

Werdiningsih, D. (2015). Strategi Metakognisi Pembelajar Anak dalam Pembelajaran Bahasa Indonesia di Sekolah Dasar. *Cakrawala Pendidikan*, XXXIV(1), 107–117.

Translating Poetic Wisdom from Arabic into English: A Stylistic Linguistic Analysis

Yasamiyan Alolaywi

Department of English Language and Translation, College of Science and Arts, Methnab,

Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

yalieoy@qu.edu.sa

Bio-profile:

Dr. Yasamiyan Saleh Alolaywi is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics, College of Science and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. Her research interests include: TPD (Teacher Professional Development), Pragmatics and Translation. Dr. Alolaywi has research participations in national and international conferences. In addition, she is a certified and licensed trainer both nationally and internationally. She has held a number of training workshops on areas including translation, research writing and language teaching. She has been teaching English for more than 15 years. She has taught a number of translation and linguistics courses to the B.A. level such as Translation Theories, Interpreting, Introduction to Translation, Introduction to Linguistics, Syntax and Morphology, Semantics and Pragmatics, among others. Moreover, she has a certificate of authority in Arabic Syntax from the Arabic Academy of Syntax.

Abstract

Societies are in constant need of wisdom across all ages and time. The insights of life's experiences from such wisdom are compiled into brief, concise lines to ease their transmission from one generation to another. However, in the literature, there is little research that addresses specific poetic genres. Therefore, this study aims to analyze a collection of the researcher's translated works on wisdom as an Arabic poetry genre. The analysis is mainly confined to two linguistic aspects: lexicon and phonology. The lexical analysis deals with equivalence and gender as two problems pertaining to classical Arabic words. On the other hand, the phonological analysis focuses on studying the various sound effects employed in the

translation—such as alliteration, rhyme, and assonance. During translation, the translator adopts Hervey and Higgins's framework of translation strategies (2002). It has been found that certain words in Arabic have no one-to-one equivalents in English (e.g., يصانع، يرعاك، صافيته، غلابا). Such words need to be resolved in the source language before being rendered in the target language. Gender constitutes another difficulty—as, unlike Arabic, English is not a gender-neutral language, particularly with regard to a singular pronoun reference. The researcher practically explains how to deal with this phenomenon based on past and modern orientations. Also, the analysis elucidates the figurative language employed in the translation. Finally, the researcher briefly discusses the common question of the translatability of poetry—supporting the claim that the translation of verses is achievable, provided the distinctiveness of both tongues are acknowledged. In conclusion, the researcher suggests it should be remembered that the translator's ultimate goal is to transmit meaning. Accordingly, translators ought to liberate themselves from a literal rendition and endorse a communicative approach to translation, particularly when dealing with texts that address minds and thoughts.

Overview

Throughout the ages, people have continued to transmit witty sayings from one generation to another. That is because these phrases succinctly outline the experiences of their predecessors and bridge the gaps of age and time. This form of art is usually found in all languages of the world. However, it is more commonly encountered in Arabic and English in the form of proverbs and verses of poetry. In Arabic, however, it is considered to be an integral part of the Arab literary heritage. In fact, Arabic poetry covers a wide range of subjects that characterize Arabic society. Al-Ahdal (2020) claimed that an Arabic poem should fulfill one purpose out of four and that there are seven major themes. The four purposes are madih ('panegyric'), hija' ('lampoon'), ghazal ('love'), and ritha ('lament') and the themes are madih ('panegyric'), hija' ('lampoon'), ghazal ('love'), ritha' ('lament'), waṣf, ('description'), fakhr ('self-glorification'), and hikma ('wise sayings').

In Arabic literature, many poets have composed this kind of verse. They were writers known for their insight, thoughtfulness, and rightful understanding of life, and they altered life experiences into pieces of prose or lines of poetry. Such poets include Aktham bin Sai'fi, Ali bin Abi Talib, Qis bin Sa'ada, Abo Alfath Al Bosti, among others.

The translation of literary discourse from the source language (here, Arabic) to the target language (here, English) can be a daunting task. This can be justified by the fact that ready-made equivalents are not always accessible. Classical Arabic discourse needs more attention because some lexis and aspects may be found in the source culture but not necessarily in the target culture, especially between two distant languages such as English and Arabic, which descend from the two different families of Germanic and Semitic, respectively. Further, translators may seek ready-made equivalents of words, which is a rather misleading strategy, particularly in the case of poetry. Poetry should be translated according to the specific context, as the message might differ depending on the situation. As Qassem (2020) stated, literary translation is "…the most testing type of translation…".

However, in this study, the researcher utilized the Model of Hervey and Higgins (2002) as a general framework for interpreting verses. This was identified as the most comprehensive model, as it encompasses the different categories of translation ranging from the most literal to the most intricate forms of rendition, with a special focus on communicative translation. In fact, communicative translation is the most suitable approach for translating poetry, as it considers the figurative meaning. Also, it emphasizes the features that surround a poem, such as the use of proverbs and idiomatic expressions, and focuses on the impact and effect of the translated poem on the target audience. As Queslati et al (2020) remarked, "A translation is no translation unless it will give you the music of a poem along with the words of it." This implies that in a good translation of a poem, the meanings, figures of speech, and sounds should produce the same effect in the target language even if their placement is different. Indeed, there is a paucity of research that focuses on analyzing a particular type of poetry. Furthermore, studies dealing with wisdom as a genre of verse are virtually non-existent. Hence, this study is needed to fill this research gap.

Wisdom as a Poetic Genre in Arabic Literature

Arabic literature is laden with sayings about artistic and moral values, as evident in the many proverbs and wise sayings that abound. These insights are suitable for every time and place and are considered artful contemplations of human aspirations, concerns, and life struggles. The wisdom inherent in Arabic literature still has a distinct value. In this context, reviewing the Arabic poetic heritage will reveal that the themes contained in the Arabic verses of wisdom involve honorable values, such as virtues, solidarity, morality, magnanimity, generosity, confidence, faithfulness, patience, cooperation, honesty, and good manners, among other noble attributes (Boudad et al, 2018).

Identifying a precise meaning of "wisdom" is an arduous task since the concept overlaps with other moral ideas such as freedom, beauty, justice, philosophy, knowledge, and so on. However, there have been attempts to resolve this conflict; some say that wisdom is a "deep, practical, direct reflection – at the meanings of things and their purposes, which comes from sharp intelligence, accurate observation, which is derived from life experiences and from people's contact with daily life.

In the Islamic tradition, there are prophetic sayings and cultural slogans that urge people to seek wisdom: "In poetry, there is wisdom," and "Wisdom is the pursuit of the believer." The Almighty says, "He gives wisdom to whom He wills, and whoever has been given wisdom has certainly been given much good," (2: 269), and He calls Luqman, name of a prophet, wise because he spoke wisdom and acted upon it.

In the Arabic literature, wisdom can be found in both prose and poetry across literary eras. It has even been classified as a poetic genre. In prose, an entire sermon can double as compact foresight. Names such as Aktham bin Saifi (630 AD), Qis bin Sa'ada (600 AD), Kusai bin Kilab (400–480 AD), and Ali bin Abu Talib (661 AD) are associated with such insightful statements. Poetry, from the era of Lapid bin Rabieah (661) and Zuhair bin Abi Sulma (609AD), Umayah bin Alsalt (626 AD), Aws bin Hejer (530–620 AD) and Hatim Altaie (605 AD), i.e., from the period of ignorance through Abu Al-Atahia Al-Mutanabbi of Al-Maari in the Abbasid periods to recent times, is also full of valuable insight (Amin, 2012). And, more recently, Abu Alfath Albusti (1010 AD).

Methodology

This study employs an analytical research design, wherein the researcher uses facts or information already available and analyzes them to evaluate the material (Kothari, 2004) critically. A random set of verses of wisdom was selected in the current work, translated into English, and then submitted to scrutiny. As a general formwork for solving the lines, the researcher adopted the Hervey and Higgins's model (2002). This model proposes some strategies that are typically used to translate cultural texts (Hervey & Higgins, 2002, p. 33). It consists of five categories representing the various degrees of translation, ranging from extremely foreignizing to the most domesticating translation types. These categories involve exoticism, calque, communicative translation, cultural transposition, and cultural transplantation. However, in most cases, communicative translation was applied, as it is the most suitable type for dealing with literary texts. In general, simple English devoid of archaism,

complex jargon, or structures was used. Moreover, some phrases in the original text were occasionally replaced with formulaic expressions in the target language.

Equivalence

Certain words in classical Arabic are problematic for translators as they have no exact equivalent in the target language or as their literal meanings are inconsistent with the poet's intentions. Accordingly, these words have been divided into two groups: The first group comprises words that have no exact lexis in English and the second group comprises words whose literal meaning differs from their meaning in the poems.

Examples of the first group include the word (يصانع) in the poem, which, in effect, means (complement) in English. Such words need to be resolved in Arabic to find their appropriate synonymy before transferring them to the target language. ومن لم يصانع في أمور كثيرة

Moreover, the word (تأنى) has no corresponding term in English. It could roughly mean (wait) but this option does not precisely depict the poets' exact intentions. ولو تأنى نال ما تمنى The word (يدركه) means (to catch up) in English but in the poem, it has been used to mean (achieve). ما كل مايتمناه المرء يدركه

Sometimes, the translator needs to paraphrase an Arabic word or find a synonym to simplify the lexicon and adapt it to the target language. The word (يرعاك) has no direct equivalent in English; therefore, the word (يعاملك، treat you) has been chosen to convey the poem's meaning. Likewise, the word (تكلفا), which literally means (costly), has been rendered into (with restraints). Further, the word صافيته, which literally means (purify), has been translated into (true feelings cannot be conjoined) based on the communicative strategy. اذا المرء لا يرعاك الا تكلفا.... الخ

One can hardly find a parallel word in English for (العزائم), which could roughly mean (conviction/ willpower) but the translator has decided to translate into (determinations). (طب نفسا), a compound word that has no direct equivalent in English, has been semantically rendered as (be satisfied).

Examples of the second group include the word (تصفو), which also has no direct equivalent in English. The exact literal meaning is (clear up). However, if this word is chosen, the translation will sound odd (life clears ups). Therefore, the translator has resorted to semantic translation strategy and, accordingly, the meaning has been rendered as (life gladdens). تصفو الحياة لجاهل أو غافل

Similarly, the word (يتقلب) in the line below means (fluctuate) but in the poem, it has been used to refer to a person who is (immersed) in blessings. لمن بات في نعمائه يتقلب

The word (مطالب), which literally means (demands), is not used in English in the sense intended in the poem (wishes or dreams). Therefore, it has been rendered as follows: "Wishes are not achieved by hoping." Likewise, the word (غلابا) in the other line does not exist in English; thus, to maintain the same sense and tune, the translator has chosen the word (coping). وما نيل المطالب

بالتمني ولكن تؤخذ الدنيا غلابا

The word (افيقوا) in English means (get up), which is obviously not the proposed meaning in the following line: قل للشامتين بنَا أفيقوا The intended meaning is (be mindful). Therefore, the translator has to be accurate in dealing with such vocabulary; otherwise, he/she will make a fatal translation error. Moreover, if the word (دول) is translated according to the common literal meaning, it will produce an absurd meaning.

The word (بصرت), if taken with the first literal meaning, means (to see), but considering the poem's sense, words such as (contemplate/think of) would better convey the message.

Similarly, the words (حادثة، حوادث), if translated with the primary dictionary counterpart, will produce erroneous meanings (accident/accidents). Finally, for the word (لا تلق), the translator has used the word (treat) because it was more harmonious and conveys the poet's meaning.

Based on the examples above, it has been found that full equivalence of meaning in translation is rare. According to Hervey and Higgins (1992), in equivalence, the difficulty is in achieving the same effect in the target language by reproducing the source text. This is because there can be no guarantee of the effect upon individuals or even upon a single individual at different times. In fact, true equivalence is that which seems acceptable to all translators. Moreover, the problem is not in equivalence per se, it is rather in finding an alternate in the TL for the ST. Melenkina and Ivanov (2018) pointed out that theorists of translation usually define equivalence as the relation of the ST with the TT, which permits us to consider the TT as the translation of the ST, where equivalent relationships are said to embrace parts of the ST and the TT at the same time. Baly et al (2017) emphasized that both translation and equivalence define each other and believes in their circularity. Other theorists such as Peterson (2017) defines equivalence in relation to its types and focus on the scale of the word, sentence, or text level, or the type of meaning, notably denotation, connotation, pragmatic, and so on.

Qamar and Alassaf (2020) distinguished four types of equivalence: First, equivalence at the word level and above the word level. They indicated that, when considering a single word, the translator should be aware of many factors such as number, gender, and tense. Second, she focused on the diversity in languages in grammatical categories because grammatical rules may vary, causing problems in finding direct equivalents in the TL because of lack of grammatical devices such as number, gender, tense and aspect, voice, and person. Third, textual equivalence

which refers to the equivalence between a source language text and a target language text, considering information and cohesion. Fourth, pragmatic equivalence refers to the focus on the implicit meaning in translation in order to achieve the ST message. Therefore, the role of the translator is to impress the reader by recreating the author's intention in the target culture. As a result, it can be concluded that the notion of equivalence has caused many heated debates that have resulted in these theories and still continues to initiate a lot of discussions (Alsmearat et al, 2017).

Gender

Gender poses another difficulty for Arabic-to-English translators due to the variant nature of inflectional pronouns in both languages. English makes a distinction between masculine and feminine third-person singulars, he/she, and their derivatives, his/her. However, it lacks a neutral third singular reference. On the other hand, in Arabic, there are certain words used to refer to both genders, such as (المرء، الشخص، الانسان، ابن آدم). Moreover, the wordالرجل is used for both sexes in some Arabic heritage, most specifically, religious texts. In addition, English lacks the attached pronoun, which is used frequently in Arabic. Arabic also makes use of a masculine noun/pronoun to refer to both males and females, as in the following line:

اذا المرء لا يرعاك الا تكلفا   فدعه ولاتكثر عليه التأسفا

To handle the problem of genderization, Elewa (2014) suggested the following techniques:

1. to use the plural form because English plural pronouns are neutral.

2. to use neutral words such as the following: Chairperson, spokesperson, head-teacher

Or items like; one, everyone, someone, anyone, everyone, person, anybody

3. To use the combination s/he or she/he, him/her.

4. To use parallel lexical items for both sexes; such as: O brothers and sisters!

In addition to the techniques above, the translator has used 'singular they'. In English, the pronoun 'they' or its inflected or derivative forms, 'them, their, theirs, and themselves,' are used as an epicene (gender-neutral) singular pronoun. 'They' in this context was named word of the year for 2015 by the American dialect society, and for 2019/14 by Meriam Webster ('singular they' is a cognitively efficient substitute for genuine he or she, particularly when the attached is non-referential (Vilares et al, 2017; Majhad, et al, 2020). In 2020, the American dialect society also selected it as word of the decade for 2015. As put by Trudgill (2000), "English, though, has always had a much easier and much more sensible way out of this problem by the use of the singular they" (p. 187).

In practice, the translator has utilized some of the techniques laid down above:

- The plural form was chosen to replace singular form in the following lines.

High ranks ain't meant for haters;

And short tempers can't reach to statures

- The neutral words 'chairperson,' 'spokesperson,' etc. are not applicable to the literary context. Alternatively, the translator resorted to other neutral English words such as man, men, person, and people to overcome this obstacle, as shown in the following examples:

Hopes are not always based on a man's law;

Just like winds counter a ships' flow

If a person treats you with restraint,

Let him go without regret

However, the use of the combination pronouns, 'he/she' and 'him/her,' has been avoided due to their unsuitability for literary context, as it interrupts the flow of words and results in an incoherent dull translation. In some cases, the whole sentence is worded to abstain from specific gender reference.

Gender has recently become a significant issue in translation because gender is a notion that is manifested in various ways within the internal structures of languages. Thus, the problem in translating gender arises when the translation takes place between two languages with different categorizations of gender.

When translating from Arabic into English, there are certain contexts which require gender-sensitive translations, that is, the transformation of a gender-neutral word into one which is gender-marked.

In languages that are said to have a pronominal gender system, "gender is marked solely on personal pronouns" (Luanganggoon, 2020). According to Al-Ahdal (2020), "when translating from a language in which there are many linguistic gender markers into a language which has fewer, either gender information is lost, or it is overstated, overtly asserted where in the original it is more subtly presupposed" (p. 157). Hence, translating gender is a challenge for a translator, particularly when there are variations between the source language and the target language in terms of gender distinction and linguistic gender markers.

This research aims to investigate a number of linguistic techniques implemented in translating gender as well as the ideologies that underlie the gender marking in both the source text (Arabic) and the target text (English).

Moreover, the use of passive voice is one of the strategies suggested by Albirini & Chakrani, (2017) to avoid the use of masculine in the absence of a neutral pronoun in Arabic since this pronominal shift in gender cannot be resolved by a neutral pronoun.

Sound effects

Alliteration

Throughout this research, the translator has utilized some phonological techniques such as alliteration, assonance and rhyme. Alliteration has been adopted in order to produce fluid and melodic verse. Alliteration refers to the use of the same consonant sound at the beginning of each stressed syllable (Fathi, 2020). Some examples of alliteration can be seen in the bolded sounds below:

So long your **s**oul in your body,

Treat your world indifferently.

Let **d**ays **d**o what they want,

Let **c**arefulness be your **c**ompanion in all affairs.

Assonance

Assonance refers to the repetition of vowel sounds in the middle of two or more usually consecutive words (Ahmed, 2019). The translator employed this device in order to enhance the musicality of the words. It can be seen in the words 'winds and ships' and 'blow and flow' in the lines below:

Hopes are not always on a man's law,

As winds blow counter to ships flow.

The words 'conform and comply' and 'intention and conventions' below represent another instance of assonance:

Determinations conform to diligents' intentions

And virtues comply with nobles' conventions.

In addition, the words 'wounds and won't,' 'hardship and hardened,' 'released and relieved,' 'glitter and bitter,' 'careful and hasty,' and 'goals and faults' in the following set of lines show some instances of assonance:

Just like life wounds ... won't ever hurt a dead body.

The hardship hardened, and when its rings/circles tightened, it released,

While I thought I would not be relieved,

A careful man may achieve some goals,

But a hasty man may stumble in faults.

Life has ebbs and flows,

Some days glitter and others are bitter,

In this life, no one is mortal

And your states are never perpetual.

Rhyme

In order to maintain the flow and the musicality of the verses, the translator adopted another phonetic device called 'rhyme'. Rhyme is "a familiar phenomenon, involving the repetition of the stressed vowels of a word and any sounds that follow it, combined with a difference in the consonant immediately preceding it" (Crystal, 2008). Olimat (2020) states that people are more inclined to remember rhymed phrases more than unrhymed ones, and human brains are more likely to remember rhyme, alliteration, assonance, and similar phonemic devices.

Al-Sarem and Emara (2018) believed that rhythm is a meaningful sound activity, and that "To understand and enjoy poetry means responding to, and participating in its rhythm" as the heart of the poetic experience. Rhythm highlights the language of a certain poem and simultaneously serves in the working of the entire poem or in certain points in it. Namely, two types of rhyme are adopted: end or tail rhyme and internal rhyme. End rhyme is a rhyme in the final syllable(s) of a verse (Webster's New World College Dictionary, 2010), as in the pairs 'shut up and twist up,' 'law and flow,' and 'wishing and sweating' in the following examples:

Hopes are not always based on a man's law,

Just as winds counter a ship's flow,

Dreams are not achieved by wishing,

But life goals are attained by sweating.

On the other hand, internal rhyme essentially refers to rhyme within a single line of verse, that is, when a word from the middle of a line is rhymed with a word at the end of the line (The Meriam-Webster Dictionary, 2019), for instance, in the following lines in the pairs 'gone and come,' 'glitter and bitter,' 'mate and associate,' 'affection and rejection,' 'hardened and tightened,' and 'released and relieved':

Life could gladden an ignorant person;

For what has gone and what is yet to come

Life has its ebbs and flows;

Some days glitter and others are bitter

There is no grace in a mate who betrays his associate;

Or meets him after affection with unexpected rejection

The hardship hardened, and its rings tightened;

But it released when I thought I would not be relieved

As for the rhyme scheme employed in the lines, most of the lines are either couplets or quadruplets, with the rhyme scheme AA, AABB, and ABCB, respectively.

All the couplets feature AA rhyme scheme, as exemplified in the following lines:

Dreams are not achieved by wishing;- A

But life goals are attained by sweating, - A

Whenever things reach perfection; -A

They begin the course of reduction, -A

On the other hand, the most frequently used rhyme schemes in quadruplets are AABB and ABCB. The AABB rhyme scheme features a series of rhyming couplets, where successive lines rhyme before giving way to another pair of rhyming lines, as seen in the following examples:

Determinations conform to diligent intentions, - A

As virtues comply to noble conventions, - A

They magnify in the eyes of powerless herds; - B

And minify in the eyes of the greatest heads, - B

The rhyme scheme ABCB is featured in the following quadruplets:

Be patient with an envious resentment,- A

and let him sit in heat, - B

As fire eats itself,- C

He will find nothing to eat, B

Whoever degrades himself, - A

Will find humiliation cushy, -B

Just like life wounds, -C

Never hurt a dead body, -B

If a person treats you with restraint, -A

Let him go without regret, B

In others, you will find an alternative, - C

And in separation, you will find rest, B

Figures of Speech

Metaphor

The translated texts contain a number of aesthetic devices such as metaphor, metonymy, and personification. Metaphor is the most frequently employed figure of speech in language, and most other figures of speech are considered a "metaphor prototype" (Saedi, 2018). Alhaj (2020) identified six types of metaphor: dead metaphors, cliché metaphors, stock metaphors, adapted metaphors, recent metaphors, and original metaphors. Most of the translated metaphors belong to the category, "original metaphors." Original metaphors are created or quoted by the SL writer/speaker and do not relate to the existing linguistic or cultural convention but used in literature to produce and reflect the beauty of the author's figurative style (Jabali, 2018). Fathi (2020) proposed the following techniques for translating this type:

(a)   The SL original metaphor is retained while maintaining the same or closely the same wording in the TL, if it has the same connotations in the SL, such as the example below:

ما كل ما يتمنى المرء يدركه

تجري الرياح بما لا تشتهي السفن

Hopes are not always based on a man's law;

As winds blow counter to ships flow

أحسن الى الناس تستعبد قلوبهم

فطالما استعبد الانسان احسان

وان اساء مسيء فليكن لك في

عروض زلته صفح وغفران

Do good to people, and you will enslave their hearts;

For folks are often captured by benevolence

 (b)   The SL original metaphor is retained with some changes in the TL wording if it has the same connotations in the SL.

لا تلق دهرك الا غير مكترث

مادام يصحب فيه روحك البدن

So long your soul in your body,

Treat your world indifferently

(c)   Original metaphors may be converted to a stock TT metaphor.

من يزرع الشر يحصد في عواقبه ندامة،

ولحصد الزرع إبان

Whoever sows injustice will reap disaster,

and the rod of his fury will fail

بصرت بالراحة الكبرى فلم ارها

تنال الا على جسر من التعب

I sought for the greatest comfort and found;

 It is only obtained through a chain of misfortune.

(d) Original metaphors may be converted to a TL simile to retain the SL wording.

قم للمعلم وفه التبجيلا

كاد المعلم أن يكون رسولا

Stand up for thy teacher to show him respect;

With the message he bears, he is much like a delegate.

(e) The metaphorical sense is retained with the addition of some explanatory direct elements.

(f) The original metaphor may be stripped of its figurative sense and is reduced to its basic meaning:

وأظلم اهل الظلم من بات حاسدا

لمن بات في نعمائه يتقلب

The word (يتقلب) in English means (fluctuate) but in the poem, it is used to refer to a person who is immersed in blessings.

Metonymy

Classical Arabic language uses a great deal of metonymy. It is a figure of speech in which one entity is used to refer to another one which is related to it (Qassem, 2020). This figure of speech can sometimes pose a problem, as a target language reader may not be familiar with the metonymy a source language text uses to refer to a particular conceptual meaning. Therefore, the translator adopted the following methods for dealing with the metonyms found in the verses: calque, cultural borrowing, and communicative translation based on Hervey and Higgin's Model.

The second line (ومن طلب العلا سهر الليالي) was rendered literally. It is a metronomic expression that stands for a person's industriousness and persistence to achieve excellence.

The second line (يعش أبد الدهر بين الحفر) was used to express a person's satisfaction with low standards in life. The translator used a communicative approach for dealing with this phrase. The common English word combinations 'peaks and valleys' were used to denote the poet's meaning.

The statement (قم للمعلم وفه التبجيلا) was used to signify the type of respect a student should show to a teacher. In light of Hervey and Higgins' Model, the translation involves some kind of cultural borrowing.

Personification

Personification is a special subtype of metaphor that refers to the attribution of human characteristics to things, abstract ideas, etc. for literary or artistic effect (The Meriam-Webster Dictionary, 2016). Shahabi and Roberto (2015) indicated that while metaphor has received a great deal of consideration, from among different types of figure of speech, personification, to the best of our knowledge, has not been studied extensively enough; no specific study has been carried out in the field of its translation difficulties, and no specific strategy has been introduced for the translation of this figurative device in particular. Therefore, the personifications found in the poems were substituted by means of similar personifications in the target language, as the concepts contained in these images are found in the two languages in question. Consider the following examples:

'Carefulness' in the lines above was attributed to a human trait. It was treated as a mate and depicted as a human who could be accompanied.

Similarly, 'life' was portrayed as having the capacity to please or displease others.

The phrase (تشتهي السفن) represents another example of metonymy. Besides, ships were described as having wishes.

Similarly, the verb (يصحب) meaning "accompany" was attributed to a non-human object.

Translatability vs. Untranslatability of Poetry

The issue of the translatability of poetry is a subject of heated debate among translators and theorists alike. However, there are three claims concerning this issue; the possibility to translate, the impossibility to translate, and the translatability of meaning and words at any rate. On the one hand, the untranslatability of poetry has been ascribed to cultural variations. For Aprillia (2019), intercultural non-equivalence can cause untranslatability because there are

cultural features that exist in the ST yet they are absent in the TT. Moreover, Ricoeur (2006) stated that the resistance of a text for translation is because the translator is confronted with many difficulties in different stages even before he starts dealing with the text which leads to untranslatability. In fact, this implies that the translator will be surrounded by some obstacles that are related to the text he/ she will translate.

On the other hand, views supporting the translatability of poetry are based on the fact that translation is essentially concerned with meaning. Richard (2018) added that translatability works in three ways :

- The emphasize on the universality of meaning, i.e., they believe that thinking and speaking are said to be loose. This implies that meanings and their representations are always translatable.

The third opinion stands between the first and the second. It emphasizes on the possibility to translate since each language has its individuality and its own way of expressing things (Ouided, 2016).

The author of this paper holds the belief that poetry is translatable as translation in essence is to transmit the thoughts and the spirit of the SL text. As put by Ouided, 2016, poetic translation is considered as writing which captures the spirit or the energy of the original poem. In the case of English and Arabic, both language share many literary features in common which turns the translator's task further easier since the degree of the similarities between the two languages' systems is considerable to make the translation achievable.

Conclusion

This study aimed to analyze a set of verses of wisdom translated from Arabic into English from stylistic and linguistic perspectives. Linguistically speaking, the research focused on some phenomena related to two linguistic aspects, which are vocabulary and phonology. In terms of lexis, it was found through the scrutiny of the lines that there are classical Arabic words that have no direct equivalents in the target language. This can be explained in light of the linguistic and cultural differences that exist between the two languages. Nonetheless, these words can be divided into two categories: a group of words used in the poetic context with a meaning other than their primary dictionary meaning, and words that are hard to find identical counterparts in the target language. Anaphoric reference represents another challenge, as unlike Arabic, English is not generally a gender-neutral language. The researcher lucidly explained how to deal with this problem based on previous arguments related to this issue.

As for the phonological aspects, the research aimed to resolve the various phonetic devices employed in the translation of the verses such as alliteration, assonance and rhyme. However, despite the inherit differences between Arabic and English, it has been found that these two languages have much in common, particularly with regard to figures of speech. In fact, the investigation showed that most of the aesthetic devices are used in both languages with the same notion and function such as metaphor, metonymy, personification and simile. Interestingly, the translation of these tools is more straightforward, as they are mostly translated into identical images in the target language. However, the researcher typically applied the different strategies established in the literature for translating these figures of speech.

As a general framework for translation, the researcher adopted the Model of Hervey and Higgins (2002) for three reasons: (a) due to the comprehensiveness of this model; (b) because it involves most levels of translation; and (c) to build the work on scientific grounds. However, in most cases, the translator resorted to communicative translation, as it is the most preferred option for dealing with poetic texts and with texts of cultural dimension. Finally, it can be concluded that the best method to translate poetry is to refrain from literal rendition and to focus on conveying thoughts and meanings of the original while maintaining the aesthetic and the rhythmic aspects of the verses. As for the controversy surrounding the possibility of translating poetry, this research suggests that the translation of poetry is possible provided that the translation comply with the conventions of the target language particularly when dealing with distinct languages such as Arabic and English which have diverse nature and structure of poems.

References

Ahmed, S. A. A. (2019). Postcolonialism and foreignisation as a translation strategy: A new perspective to the Arab family values in translated English films. *CDELT Occasional Papers in the Development of English Education*, *66*(1), 527-570. https://dx.doi.org/10.21608/opde.2019.126886

Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2020). Translanguagism and the bilingual EFL learner of Saudi Arabia: Exploring new vistas. *Asian EFL Journal*, *27*(1), 14-26.

Albirini, A., & Chakrani, B. (2017). Switching codes and registers: An analysis of heritage Arabic speakers' sociolinguistic competence. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, *21*(3), 317-339. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1367006915626587

Alhaj, A. A. M. (2020). The Role of the English novel in teaching English language in secondary school: A revisit in EFL Arab students' context. *Asian Journal of Language, Literature and Culture Studies*, *3*(2), 38-46. Retrieved from https://www.journalajl2c.com/index.php/AJL2C/article/view/30121

Al-Sarem, M., & Emara, A. H. (2018, June). Analysis the Arabic authorship attribution using machine learning methods: Application on Islamic Fatwā. In *International Conference of Reliable Information and Communication Technology* (pp. 221-229). Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-99007-1_21

Alsmearat, K., Al-Ayyoub, M., Al-Shalabi, R., & Kanaan, G. (2017). Author gender identification from Arabic text. *Journal of Information Security and Applications*, *35*, 85-95. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jisa.2017.06.003

Aprillia, A. (2019). *Be young and healthy for 100 years* (Doctoral dissertation, Departemen UIN Sunan Gunung Djati Bandung).

Baly, R., El-Khoury, G., Moukalled, R., Aoun, R., Hajj, H., Shaban, K. B., & El-Hajj, W. (2017). Comparative evaluation of sentiment analysis methods across Arabic dialects. *Procedia Computer Science*, *117*, 266-273. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2017.10.118

Boudad, N., Faizi, R., Thami, R. O. H., & Chiheb, R. (2018). Sentiment analysis in Arabic: A review of the literature. *Ain Shams Engineering Journal*, *9*(4), 2479-2490. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asej.2017.04.007

Elewa, A. (2014). *Levels of translation*. Qalam for Translation and Publication.

Fathi, S. Y. (2020). Ideology and the translation of Arabic-English paratactic and hypotactic Structures. *Journal of Al-Frahedis Arts*, *12*(42| First Part), 615-627.

Jabali, O. (2018). Students' attitudes towards EFL university writing: A case study at An-Najah National University, Palestine. *Heliyon*, *4*(11), e00896. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2018.e00896

Hervey, S. & Higgins, I. (2002). *Thinking French Translation: A Course in Translation Method French into English* (2nd Ed.). London & New York: Routledge.

Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Age International (P) Limited, Publishers.

Luanganggoon, N. (2020). Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) teaching practices in Thailand higher education. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16 (4), 233-258.

Majhad, khalid, Bnini, C., & Kandoussi, M. (2020). Pursuit of naturalness in translation: The case of the English translations of two francophone Maghrebian novels. *International Journal of Linguistics and Translation Studies*, *1*(2), 112-125. https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlts.v1i2.43

Malenkina, N., & Ivanov, S. (2018). A linguistic analysis of the official tourism websites of the seventeen Spanish Autonomous Communities. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *9*, 204-233. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdmm.2018.01.007

Olimat, S. N. (2020). COVID-19 pandemic: Euphemism and dysphemism in Jordanian Arabic. *GEMA Online® Journal of Language Studies*, *20*(3). http://dx.doi.org/10.17576/gema-2020-2003-16

Ouided, M. S. (2016). *Strategies used in translating poetic discourse from english into arabic: a cross-language study based on robert frost's poetry* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Jijel).

Peterson, E. (2017). The nativization of pragmatic borrowings in remote language contact situations. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *113*, 116-126. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2017.02.012

Qamar, A. M., & Alassaf, M. (2020). Improving sentiment analysis of Arabic tweets by One-Way ANOVA. *Journal of King Saud University-Computer and Information Sciences*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jksuci.2020.10.023

Qassem, M. (2020). Translations of stylistic variations in the noble Qur'an into English: stylistic and exegetical perspectives. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1080/17475759.2020.1841016

Richard, J. (2018). Translation and cultural hegemony: The case of French-Arabic translation. In *Rethinking translation* (pp. 139-158). Routledge.

Ricoeur, P. (2006). On Translation. London: Routledge.

Saedi, G. (2018). *Foreign Affinities: Arabic Translations of English Poetry and their Impact on Modern Arabic Verse: A Discursive Approach* (Doctoral dissertation, SOAS University of London).

Shahabi, S. R., Abad, F. J., & Colom, R. (2018). g, mutualism, and development: Cross-sectional evidence from Iranian schoolchildren. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *135*, 222-228. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2018.07.021

The Meriam-Webster Dictionary. (2016). Merriam-Webster, Incorporated.

Trudgill, P. (2000). *Sociolinguistics: An introduction to language and society*. Penguin Books.

Vilares, D., Alonso, M. A., & Gómez-Rodríguez, C. (2017). Supervised sentiment analysis in multilingual environments. *Information Processing & Management*, *53*(3), 595-607. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ipm.2017.01.004

Mental Attitude and Effective English Language Learning: A Study of Indigenous People of North Eastern Siberia

Elena V. Kirillina*, Natalya V. Lysanova , Natalya N. Alexeeva

Department of Foreign Languages for Technical and Natural Sciences,

M.K. Ammosov North-Eastern Federal University, Yakutsk, Russia

*Corresponding author

E-mail addresses: mercedec@mail.ru (Elena V. Kirillina) natvitlis@yandex.ru (Natalia V.

Lysanova) alnatnik@mail.ru (Natalia N. Alexeeva)

Bio-profiles:

Dr. Elena V. Kirillina is an Associate Professor at North-Eastern Federal University, Russia, and has a PhD in Pedagogy and Master's degree in Management. Her research interests are TEFL, CLIL, Computer-Assisted Language Learning, applied linguistics and ethnic studies. Since 2005, Elena has been involved in Yakut TESOL - Association of EFL Teachers in the Sakha Republic (Yakutia), Russia, as a Newsletter Editor, Resource Centre Director, Coordinator of both local and international projects. She also lectures and holds workshops for teacher training programs and professional development courses. Elena is a Chair of Regional Committee of EFL Experts for General State Exam, Chair of EFL Experts Committee for North-Eastern Olympiad for Secondary school students and other regional EFL competitions for schoolchildren. She has been awarded several distinguished prizes and grants, both local and international from NEFU, the Sakha Republic Government (Russia), the US Department (USA), the UK British Council, US Embassy in Moscow, the UAE Government, and South Korea Ministry of Education and Science.

Dr. Natalya V. Lysanova, Dr. Sci (Pedagogy), is an Associate Professor at North-Eastern Federal University (Yakutsk, Russia). Her research interests include TEFL, ethnic studies, translanguagism and applied linguistics. She has over 30 years of experience in a variety of English teaching contexts, including junior and senior high schools and universities.

Dr. Natalya N. Alexeeva is a Professor and Chair of Department of Foreign Languages in North-Eastern Federal University (Russia). She earned her doctorate from Moscow State

Institute of Foreign Languages after Morris Torres in Moscow (Russia). Her research interests are applied linguistics, bilingual education, active learning, non-native speakers of English, and computer-assisted language learning. Dr. Alexeeva is an avid researcher and has presented articles at local, regional, national and international conferences. In addition to research, Dr. Alexeeva has been teaching English as a Foreign Language and Business English to students at North-Eastern Federal University majoring in economics and management. She is also the Director of the Unified National Exam in English (UNE) in Republic Sakha (Yakutia). In addition to these, she is one of the co-founders of the association for English teachers in Republic Sakha (Yakutia) in Russia – Yakut TESOL which has more than 250 members. As the current President of Yakut TESOL, Dr. Alexeeva is actively involved in promoting, teaching and learning English in Russia. She regularly presents her research at Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) International Annual Conferences and International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL).

Abstract

This paper is devoted to research on the effect of ethnic identity on English language learning with special focus on the University situated in Sakha Republic (Yakutia), Russia. As far as ethnic identity is concerned, it is a subject of identity classifications wherein membership is determined by the relevant attributes so associated with the descent. In accordance with Horowitz (1985), it is a well-accepted umbrella concept which embraces groups differentiated by color, language, culture, creed, nationality, castes, etc. It has been observed over a period of time that the students coming from remote Sakha region to the universities have to struggle a great deal while learning English as a foreign language. In this research, it is hereby supposed that the mental make-up or mentality of these students does impact their understanding of English language. For the sake of proving this assumption, an empirical study was conducted on a group of full-time students of engineering discipline being pursued by them at the university of Sakha Republic. The results showed that these students' mentality impacts their learning of English language, a fact which is noteworthy and significant for educators and policymakers alike. It could also be understood that unless the cultural, social and ethnic aspects of any language are known in affirmative, having a thorough grip over the language concerned is impossible. Therefore, this research has gone deep in a pertinent direction to find out intercultural communication as a prerequisite to know the related features of a particular identity and language too.

1. Introduction

It is a proven fact that mentality is made up of our perceptions, ideas, thoughts, behavioral patterns, values, religious pursuits, feelings, and every individual on this planet earth lives with it every second (Lurye, 2003). If the national mentality is to be understood, it does also make an important effect on its formation, but the changes so envisaged therein may result into the changes of such mindset from time to time as well. Moreover, it is not a feature of ethnos and therefore can not be termed as homogeneous. It has got to be termed as a phenomenon wherein considerable ethnic differences and diversified opinions are to be found for certain. It has also been historically proven that the formation of national mentality at a given point of time depends upon the attributes like genotype, traditions, and common language.

Sakha Republic (Yakutia) is located in the northeastern Siberia and it is considered to be the largest region (area wise) in Russia. The Geographical placement of this region is such that the weather conditions prevailing over here are very volatile and unpredictable making it difficult for the inhabitants of this region to sustain life. It can be believed that the people of this region i.e Sakha (Yakuts) in particular have developed their mentality accordingly. Suffice it to say, the prevailing tough socioeconomic and geographic factors have affected the mentality of Sakha community.

Hence, in order to pursue their academic pursuits, the people from this region do come many a time and opt to the universities but find it very hard to get themselves acclimatized with the learning process associated with English language over there (Gatbonton & Trofimovich, 2008). It can therefore be said that the kind of environment that makes it challenging for Sakha people to keep their spirits high while learning English language.

Efficacy of English language learning: Impediments to be overcome

This is very much known to all of us that there can be so many desirable reasons to study English as a Foreign Language at the university level irrespective of the mental, social, cultural, and socio-economic ethos and beliefs that one may carry along with him/her elsewhere. English language is the language which is mostly prescribed as the global language in the world and which can take us to anywhere in the world right from university's studies outcomes. Moreover, while learning this language, the already occupied impressions, inherent beliefs, mental attitudes, ethnic influences do make it a little bit challenging for a person or student who is coming for the first time to the university from a region like Sakha in search of better

academic accomplishments and job prospects. But initially, it becomes very difficult for him to survive in such an environment thereby moving further in his academic life being at the university premises. In this research, it has also been presupposed that such people from rural background have to strike a balance in between their cultural ethos on one hand and their learning appetite for English language on the other (Al-Ahdal, 2019).

 Nevertheless, the term English as a Foreign Language has been applied to the abrupt situations where they may have some targeted reasons so as to learn English as a foreign language. It can also be said that in this globalized world, where there are lot many opportunities in almost every sector be it business, research and development, academics, technology, biotechnology, foreign language teaching, international trade-commerce, one has to be well versed at least with the nitty-gritty of English as a foreign language. Hence, the ethnic identity or mental attitude of people should act as a bridge for such students coming from rural background to universities rather than creating rifts in between learning and preoccupied thoughts, values, and beliefs.

It has also been seen in other neighbouring parts of Sakha community that people have a very basic understanding of such important academic pursuits till the time they are within such countryside areas. Once they start migrating towards town and cities, they start thinking in a different direction thereby trying to balance their ethnic identities with the new learning process undertaken by them at the universities (AL-Ahdal, 2019). In this research paper, all such juxtaposed assumptions have been tested through empirical mode thereby revealing the possible and astonishing results thereafter. We have also seen in the preceding paragraphs, that how a mental attitude of people representing Sakha region can have an adverse impact on their learning of English as a foreign language at the university level. It is also a proven fact that journeying from countryside to a city of hope does make oneself very concerned regarding the composite identity which may be had at the university level as there are myriad of belief systems, values, cultures, socio economic limitations, multidimensional mental attitudes of students who now start prevailing at times question the very mental attitude of an individual who has come all the way from a rural cult (Artar, 2018). With the passage of time, it becomes a bit easy for such individual to start learning other disciplines and in particular English as a foreign language. In this research paper, the researcher has done magnificent research thereby delving deep into the sea of perplexities so associated with this learning of English as a foreign language at the university and the target group of students is taken as a sample from the University situated in a city in Russia. Accordingly, the permutations and combinations have

been made by the research in terms of the various groups of students considering the variables as mentioned herein below in detail.

It can also be mentioned herein that the people of any rural cult do have very strong foundational principles, ethos, ethnic representations, preoccupied beliefs and prejudices which do make them bit slow learner while learning new discipline such as English as a foreign language because by the time they start learning such new vistas of hope and satisfaction, very little is known to them about the potential of such ever growing efficacy and acceptance of such academic pursuits (Al-Ahdal, 2020). Once they start getting ahead with the time, they may find themselves to have settled down mentality and ethically. All such processes have been discussed in detail by the researcher keeping in view the research work already conducted this far with regard to the topic which is selected to be further looked into thereby coming out with the updated findings which may be helpful for the reader and other stakeholders concerned.

Literature Review

The literature review as given herein below mentions about the pros and cons of the related researches which have been carried out far accordingly, further research has been undertaken by the current researcher.

- The researchers concerned have put forth their views on the concept of language and mind. They have explained about the mental attitude and its impact on language learning thereby further elaborating upon the various attributes of such attitude while learning the language. Furthermore, it has also been found to be the opinion (generally accepted) that it is basically the language through which people of a particular ethnic group comprehend the world at large. (Widhiarso, 2009; Go Silk, et al , 2020).

  It is also suggested by the researcher that the maiden researcher on this aspect of mentality started in the 20th century. Since then, it has revealed significant scenarios pertaining to the juxtaposed assertions with respect to mental attitudes of a particular class of people especially representing the rural belt. As has been mentioned herein above that improvised mental attitude is a total of our value system and beliefs which gets transformed and crystallized into a firm system of inclination to look at things thereby enabling the group of people concerned to learn and do better in the attainment of academic pursuits. (Al-Ahdal & Al Qasham, 2020).

- A Romanian researcher has also worked on the standards of mentality of pupils in school and their impact on performance which has made him produce a time-tested conclusion in terms of school task accomplishments at a given point of time (Angelache, 2012). But such evaluation may not be true in all cases. The result so found in this research needs to be further corroborated with the new insights and variables coming into existence with regard to the language learning process and conservative mental attitude.

- There is another prolific work done by a researcher in Kazakh which has primarily touched upon the inter-dependency of language learning and culture. According to him, foreign language learning gives rise to the lingo-cultural method as a tool to understand it in the subject of intercultural communication (Kunanbaveva, 2004). The language learning and the cultural connect needs to be further explored in a rational manner.

- There is another research carried out in which it is revealed that in order to be decisive while imparting foreign language education, the socio-cultural dimension of it can not be ignored and should be taken as a matter of great interest to be explored further (Sysoyev, 2001). The learning of any new academic pursuit is definitely influenced by the preoccupied impressions, insights, experiences, and socio-economic limitations too. More so, it has also been said that the society-oriented communication is bound to be a set of instruments of verbal as well as written speech segments of communication encompassing the feel of a specific culture, language comprehension, gestures etc. It has also been described herein that the term "National Mentality" is a summation of people's mindset showing a particular system of beliefs and values at a given point of time. More light has also been thrown on other aspects of socio-cultural competencies E.g: History, religion, scientific temperament etc. The point so proven in this research is that while mastering the foreign language and culture associated with it, it is equally important to understand in detail the local language, literature and mental attitude of people concerned.

- The socio-philosophical aspect of mentality has been touched upon by the researcher in this article. Such an approach basically evaluates the various means to realize common good. It gives an insight into a human society thereby considering actual activities of people in terms of their mental engagements with the world at a given point of time in a given set of society. The concept of social philosophy impacts the mental attitude of people as a tool to know more about human abilities to perceive things that

are discussed in detail herein. As the author depicts that mentality of an individual is very important factor accountable for his overall learning pursuits therefore this sort of perspective has got to be further elaborated upon (Khubieva, 2017).

- As far as the mental attitude of Sakha people is concerned, the very first study was conducted by Novikov (1996) in his work titled "The Mentality of Sakha People". The author has touched upon the ever-existing aspects of such attitudes in this society and has given his views about the crystallization of culture, beliefs, values, habits, language, religion into the mentality of Sakha people. The socio-philosophical angle of such a mental attitude has been researched into thereby summarizing the overall mental attitude of this community and its impact on their learning habits (Novikov,1996).

- She delves deep into the effect of geographical placement and climatic conditions on Sakha people's mental attitude. It is revealed that how the placement of this sort as mentioned hereinabove, can have a deep impact on the attitudes of indigenous people coming from Sakha belt. She has conducted her study keeping the people of Republic of Sakha (Yakutia) at the centre of her research. All variable like impact of socio-cultural influence, geographical placement, firm traditional beliefs, values do have a cascading effect on such people while learning English as a foreign language. (Eliseeva, 2017).

- As a matter of fact, every group has its own whims and fancies which contribute towards the making of his/her own web in this world. Therefore, the difference in between the group of people in terms of their level of understanding new upgraded realms of English language is bound to come up. It is very difficult to have common variables in order to have common prevailing phenomenon which may work wonders in every case. Suffice it to say, the Mentality of people representing a particular group is to be taken as relative phenomenon (Gachev, 1999).

As of now, the study of language in the context of mental attitude and its proximity to ethnic and cultural dependence has become a matter of concern for many upcoming researchers. Giving an adaptable and congenial yardstick in this regard has become very important (Savchenko, et al., 2020). Such a perplexing issue may be therefore, characterized by multidimensionality, informal structure, and functional diversity. Therefore, in order to master the skills to be effective while teaching and learning process so associated with English language, the mental toughness of a person or group of people needs to be strengthened.

Research Objectives

The study carried out in this research paper has taken the objectives as mentioned herein below:

- *Ascertaining the impact of mental attitude and intercultural competence on the group of students learning English as a foreign language.*
- *Identifying the cultural and behavioral dimensions pursued by a group of students while learning English language at the university level.*
- *Assessing the performance of such students especially in English language learning at the university.*
- *Making a rational assessment of the nexus between different levels of foreign language proficiency and their pre-existing mental attitude.*

Methodology

The research undertaken in this article emphasized the result obtained from eighty-eight subjects enrolled at the university. All of them were currently studying engineering as full-time students. The sample of this research consisted of first and second-year students of three departments namely:

- *Physics and Technology Institute,*
- *Institute of Mathematics and Information Technologies, and*
- *Mining Institute of M.K. Ammosov North-East Federal University.*

The mean of the participants was 20.3 years. Considering the age as a variable, the sample so prepared included 59.1% up to 20 years old students, 31.8% - from 21 up to 23-year-old students and 9.1% - over 24 years students. Having considered the gender as a variable, the sample so prepared consisted of 75% male and 25% female students. Moreover, with regard to ethnic groups, the subjects comprised of the following: Russians (n = 6), Yakuts (Sakha) (n = 70), Dolgans (n = 1), Evenks (n = 2), Armenians (n = 1), Nords (n = 1) and also students who were identifying themselves as Russian-Sakha (n = 7) - descendants of mixed marriages.

Having come this far, it can be said that the centre of composite mentality is formed by various factors which have been candidly mentioned herein above in greater detail. In order to determine the type of subjects' such traditional distinctiveness as a criterion to measure composite and wholesome mentality, this empirical study was done. The study so undertaken identified the traditional individuality-oriented students from M.K. Ammosov North-Eastern Federal University. The study instrument was the questionnaire prepared by Soldatova & Ryzhova "Types of Ethnic Identity" (Soldatova,1998).

The methodology for identifying ethnic identity was a questionnaire of thirty statements that formed several scales corresponding to the ethnic identity types. The questionnaire presented statements in Russian language on issues of national relations and national culture. Respondents expressed their agreements or disagreements with these statements as per the following answer options:

- *I fully agree.*
- *I partially agree.*
- *I partially disagree.*
- *I fully disagree.*

Results and Discussions

Having conducted this empirical study in a manner as has been provided herein above, indigenous ethnic groups, such as the Sakha (Yakuts), Yukagirs, Evens, Evenks, and Dolgans who were inhabitants of the Sakha Republic territory (Yakutia). The Sakha people represented the biggest ethnic group among other indigenous peoples. The Sakha people's mentality development showed characteristics of ancient times. The geographic, climatic, economic, social, religious, historical, and other factors also found to have affected the formation of related unique features.

According to the survey results, 23% of respondents belonged to the first type - ethnonihilism-as a hypodensity. This type represented leaving one's ethnic group and seeking refuge for comfortable social and psychological space in another group. Expressive ethnic indifference manifested in 56% of respondents. Ethnic indifference implied the decay of ethnic uniqueness that was expressed by another ethnic group. Positive ethnic identity, which was also considered as the norm was expressed by 68.8% of respondents. This type determined a positive attitude towards one's own people with the same feeling towards other nations. In a multi-ethnic society, positive ethnic identity had the character of a norm and was a characteristic of the overwhelming majority. It adequately found a balance between an individual's tolerance and other ethnic groups as well. On the one hand, it made possible to consider this kind of tolerance as a condition precedent for the autonomy and sustainability of a particular ethnic group, on the other, it was also considered as a condition for friendly intercultural communication in a multi-lingual and ethnic world. The positive ethnic identity of most respondents made it possible to arrange the appropriate conditions for teaching English to students at the University. These conditions required to consider the peculiarities of the composite mentality, the use of

linguistic and cultural materials, ways to increase motivation and reduce psychological and language barriers in the learning process.

6.2% of the respondents showed ethno-egoism. Despite being innocent at the verbal level, this type of identity might involve pressure and annoyance while interacting with interlocutors representing other ethnic groups or recognizing the right to solve the other people's problems without any allowance. Next kind of traditional uniqueness attribute was identified amongst 6.8% of respondents which was called ethnic isolationism. This type described a conviction of the superiority of their ethnic group, recognizing the need to "purify or clean" the composite prevailing culture as well as a negative attitude to interethnic marriages, xenophobia.

The survey results also showed quite a high level of Ethnofanatism. Thus, 15.6% of respondents were inclined to take some actions for ethnic interests that were somehow understood to deny other people the right to use resources and social privileges. Ethnofanatism highlighted the priority of the people's ethnic rights over human rights and defended victims in striving for well-being of their ethnic group (Soldatova, 1998).

While teaching English as a foreign language, particularly in writing teaching materials, ethnic self-consciousness development stages are to be considered. There are four stages of ethnic self-consciousness development that are closely connected with the periods of mental development and the stages of psychosocial / ethnic identity (Khotinets, 2002). The initial stage (5-10 years) is characterized by a fuzzy awareness by children of community with people of their nationality, an unmotivated choice of their ethnicity. The family plays a significant role in transmitting ethnocultural information. At the second stage (11-15 years), a conscious attitude to their ethnic group is formed. The family continues to play a significant role at this age. The level of parental authority affects the adolescent in referring himself to one or another people. An important moment for a teenager is his desire to belong to one of the ethnic majority groups in the region, in which the language performs an ethno-identifying function. The teenager's awareness of his ethnicity is strengthened during the third period (16-17 years). At this level, interest to the ethnicity choice is attracted and an ethnic worldview is formed. Here, the school, being the institution that purposefully organizes the development of an individual's self-identity, his/her ethnic orientation, plays an important role in teenagers' lives and his/her ethnic identity development. Provided that, the awakening of self-consciousness and personal memory is performed in the child's native language, the national language becomes a component of ethnic self-awareness and is recognized as a "native" language and as means of intra-ethnic communication.

It was found that student age (18-22 years) is a decisive factor or period in the development of ethnic identity, its consolidation. During the period of study at university, the system of ideas about the world expands and its place in it is determined. During the student life multi-structured complex processes occur that represent a crisis transition between youth and adulthood. This period is characterized by the transition to adult identity and building a new attitude towards the world. Thus, the results obtained by types of ethnic identity correspond to the age of the respondents. Students aged 18-20 years showed a high result in the type of ethnic indifference, while respondents 21-23 years old showed the standard type (positive ethnic identity).

It is a time -tested principle that higher education and further educational opportunities are often the main factors that affect the choice of studying a foreign language. Also, the English language is positioned in the society as one of the tools for career growth and educational prospects and therefore this language is studied everywhere in the world, including Russia, as an international language of communication. In order to determine the level of English language proficiency among the first and second-year students of non-linguistic specialities – participants of our research, the NEFU Language Center conducted testing according to the standards of the Common European Framework of Reference for Foreign Languages (CEFR, 2020). The results showed that 80% of the tested students' English language level was A1 and A1+.

To confirm or refute the assumptions so taken for this study about the relationship between levels of foreign language proficiency and types of ethnic identity amongst students of non-linguistic specialities, the statistical analysis method was used .It was found that the correlation was statistically significant between indicators of positive ethnic identity as well as ethnic indifference and the basic level of English proficiency, A1 and A1+ according to the standards of the Common European Framework for Languages (rs = 0.25). A linear relationship was found between the indicators of ethno-isolationism and ethno-fanaticism with a beginner level of knowledge of a foreign language (rs = 1). A nonlinear relationship was found between the indicators of ethnonihilism and ethno-egoism with a beginning level of knowledge of a foreign language (rs = 2.25).

Thus, the choice of English for learning as a foreign language was considered to be contrary to the essence of individual and social freedom, since languages were part of both individual and social identities. We could see the parallel between Japanese national identity investigations as a basis for analyzing how it can possibly influence the learning of English in Japan (David

Chevasco, 2019). The researcher was in agreement completely with his findings and discussions that learners who avoided speaking English, or whose identities were less flexible might instead stick to the cultural norms (and linguistic limitations) of their default national identity (Chevasco, 2019).

Based on this, while teaching a foreign language in different age groups, a teacher should take into account the stages of the formation of the ethnic identity of a person, since ethnic identity is the main component of national mentality (Krillina, et al, 2019). Moreover, both teachers and students could benefit from practicing translanguagism integrating it into English learning strategies (Al-Ahdal, 2020; Alfallaj, 2020).

Composite mentality of any group of people representing particular region is founded on ethnic uniqueness, spiritual essence, and vision inherited from our ancestors. Deep understanding of the origins reinforces and enhances traditional culture, enables it to survive, develop and prospect (Gizatova, et al, 2016). Based on conventional culture, learning English as an international language and other world cultures is fundamental for developing spiritual personal qualities and mentality. It gives young people opportunities, especially University students, to be open-minded, proactive, and highly moral. Due to this, indigenous peoples' traditional cultures preserve and develop their composite mentality as and when desired or required.

Conclusion

This study generally assessed the intercultural competence of a particular Sakha belt of Russia. It employed a descriptive quantitative research design. Intercultural communication as we know is the manifestation of national culture and the system of value orientations. While interacting and interconnecting, individuals represent different national cultures thereby experiencing the other specific characteristics of value orientation systems. In the context of intercultural communication, communicators demonstrate their functional-role attitudes and their influence on the way and result of communication. On the other hand, the fact that the communication context and situation concerned also affect the individual's attitudes is his/her value orientations, in the narrow sense, and his/her culture, in the broad sense. Common challenges of intercultural communication are irrelevant in stereotypes perceptions, misunderstanding of motives, value orientations, verbal and non-verbal interaction, inadequacy, and the inability to adapt through copying. Thus, intercultural communication is a kind of litmus test for identifying features that characterize a particular mentality. The historical heritage and original traditions determine value orientations, standards of behavior,

stereotypes, other dispositions of personality behavior, and other national culture system components. The influence of cultural and behavioral attributes of human personality caused by the ethnic influence occurs while students learn and acquire a foreign language at University. Lastly, it is hereby concluded that students' academic performances and success in learning English language at University are connected with their preoccupied impressions and belief systems towards life. Hence, it should be on continuous basis considered in teaching EFL.

References

Al- Ahdal, A.A.M.H , Alqasham,.F.H (2020). Saudi EFL learning and assessment in times of COVID-19: Crisis and beyond. *Asian EFL Journal 27(4.3)* ,356-383.

Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2020). Translanguagism and the bilingual EFL learner of Saudi Arabia: Exploring new vistas. *Asian EFL Journal,* 27(1), 14-26.

Alfallaj, F. S. S. (2020). Technology in Saudi EFL undergraduate classrooms: Learning tool or weapon of distraction? *The Asian ESP Journal* ,16 (4), 97-115.

Angelache, & Cristina B (2012), Teachers' motivation and satisfaction for professional activity. *Procida- Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 33 ,563-567. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.01.184

Anghelache, V. (2012). The relationship between school performance and students' mentality towards school tasks accomplishment: A preliminary study. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *51*, 177-181. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.08.141

Artar, P. (2018).The role of translation in foreign language teaching (Doctoral Dissertation), Universitat Rovira I Virgili.

Benjamin W. et al. (1940) Science and Linguistics, (n.d.). MIT - Massachusetts Institute of Technology. https://web.mit.edu/allanmc/www/whorf.scienceandlinguistics.pdf

Chevasco, D. (2019). Language and identity: How do different aspects of an L2 identity correlate with spoken English ability in Japanese high school students?. *Journal of English as an International Language*, *14*(1), 1-19.

Соелма Дагбаева.(2002). Ethnic socialization of a person: The psychological effects and patterns.
(n.d.).ResearchGate. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/305325681_Ethnic_Socialization_of_a_Person_the_Psychological_Effects_and_Patterns

Eliseeva, N.D. (2017). The Influence of Geographical and Climatic Characteristics of Yakutia on the Mentality of Indigenous Peoples. *Vestnik Krasnoyarskogo gosudarstvennogo pedagogicheskogo universiteta im. V.P. Astaf'eva* 2 (40), 127-131.

Elissva N. (2017). Use of clinical interview for the Yakut mentality studies. (n.d.). ResearchGate. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/317270162_Use_of_Clinical_Interview_for_the_Yakut_Mentality_Studies

Gachev, G.D. (1999). Nacionalnye Obrazy Mira. Evraziya – Kosmos Kochevnika, Zemledelca I Gorca (National images of the world. Eurasia – the space of a nomad, farmer and highlander) Moscow Institute of Di-DIK Moscow. 322.

Gatbonton, E., & Trofimovich, P. (2008). The ethnic group affiliation and L2 proficiency link: Empirical evidence. *Language Awareness*, *17*(3), 229-248.

Gizatova, G. K., Ivanova, O. G., & Snarskaya, E. V. (2016). National Identity, Mentality and Character. *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies*. 5926. https://www.ijhcs.com/index.php/ijhcs/article/view/2562

Go Silk, B., Medriano, R., Dela Cruz, S.B., Deran, J.J., Alieto, E., Abdon, M., Rillo, R., & Lucas, R.I. (2020). Cognition toward the Mother Tongue, Attitude toward English, Chavacano, and Filipino: A Structural Equation Modeling Approach with Bootstrap Analysis. *Asian ESP, 16*(1.2), 5-28. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3570991

Horowitz. D. L. (1985). Ethnic groups in conflict. *The international journal of African Historical Studies,* 22(2), 295-297.

Khubieva, Z.A. (2017). Mentalitet kak social'no-filosofskaya problema (Mentality as social and philosophical problem). *Vestnik Vyatskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta*. (4), 11-14.

Kirillina, E.V., Lysanova, N.V., Protopopova, T.A. (2019). Svyaz' Nacional'nogo Mentaliteta I Izucheniya Inostrannogo Yazyka V Vuze (Connection of national mentality with foreign language learning at University). *Nauchno-metodicheskij elektronnyj zhurnal* (12).72–81.Связь национального менталитета и изучения иностранного языка в вузе. (n.d.). Научно-методический электронный журнал Концепт. https://e-koncept.ru/2019/191076.htm.

Kitishat, A. R., Al Omar, K. H., & Al Momani, M. A. K. (2020). The Covid-19 crisis and distance learning: E-teaching of language between reality and challenges. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16(51), 316-326.

Kunanbayeva, S.S., Karmysova, M.K., Ivanova, A.M., Arenova, T.D. (2006). *Koncepciya inoyazychnogo obrazovaniya* (The Concept of Foreign Language Education). Almaty: Kazakh Ablai Khan University of IR and WL. 11p.

Little, D., & Council of Europe. (2011). *The European language portfolio: A guide to the planning, implementation and evaluation of whole-school projects*. Council of Europe.

Luanganggoon, N. (2020). Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) teaching practices in Thailand higher education. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16 (4), 233-258.

Lurye, S. (2003) *Psihologicheskaya antropologiya: istoriya, sovremennoe sostoyanie, perspektivy* (Psychological anthropology: history, modern state, perspectives). Moscow: Academicheskiy proekt. Гл. 1. В поисках "национального характера" (Из истории психологической антропологии). (n.d.). Лурье Светлана Владимировна |

культурология и этнопсихология. https://svlourie.ru/national-characher-psychological-anthropology, 623.

Novikov .et al (2019). Creativity and English as a foreign Language acquisition in Russian linguistic students. *Proceedings of INTED 2019 Conference* 11th -13th March 2019.4638-4644.

Savchenko, I., Nikonova, Z., Vikulina, M., Gorokhova, A., Bolsunovskaya, L. (2020). Axiological potential of sociocultural language mission in education. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles.*27(2.1). 345-361.

Soldatova, G. U. (1998). Psihologiya mezhetnicheskoj napryazhennosti-Psychology of ethnic tension M.: Smysl. 389.

Sysoyev, P.V. (2001). Kul'turnoe samoopredelenie lichnosti v kontekste dialoga kul'tur (Individual's cultural identity in the context of dialogue of cultures). Tambov: R.Derzhavin *Tambov State University Journal*. 145.

Widhiarso, W. (2009).The influence of language on thought study Benjamin Whorf hypothesis and Edward Sapir by WahyuWidhiarso*::SSRN*.(n.d.).SearcheLibrary ::SSRN. https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=1496642

University EFL Learners' Attitudes towards Using Smart Phones for Developing Language Learning Skills during the COVID-19 Pandemic

Dr. Ahmed Aromaih
Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics
Majmaah University, Saudi Arabia
Aromaih@mu.edu.sa

Bio-profile:

Dr. Ahmed Ali Aromaih, an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics, College of Sciences & Humanities in Alghat, and Deputy Rector of Majmaah University for Postgraduate Studies & Scientific Research, Saudi Arabia, is an academician with many talents and interests. He began his teaching career early in his academic journey as a Demonstrator in Imam Muhammad ibn Saud Islamic University immediately after completing his BA in English. He followed this with a Master's degree in Theoretical Linguistics from Michigan State University, USA, in 1999, and PhD from Kansas State University in 2004. With an excellent track record throughout these learning phases, he was offered the position of Assistant Professor in the Department of English Language and Translation at Qassim University, KSA, the same year. Here he held important positions as Head of the Department, and Dean, Graduate Studies. His outstanding performance in these posts led to his appointment as full-time advisor to the International Cooperation Department of the Ministry of Higher Education in 2009. The following year, it was time for him to move again, this time as Dean of Admission & Registration at Majmaah University with additional charge as Supervisor of the Preparatory Year Deanship. In 2014, he became the Deputy Rector of Majmaah University for Academic Affairs; thereafter he was appointed as Deputy Rector of Postgraduate Studies and Scientific Research at this university since 2019. Between 2014 and 2019, he also contributed his expertise in many capacities at Majmaah University: Executive Committee for Institutional Accreditation, General Committees for Program Accreditation, Committee for the Implementation of Afaq's Plan Indicators, Plans & Study System Committee, Admission Committee and the Parallel Education Programs Committee, as well as being a valuable member of the main committee of the Plan at Majmaah University. Apart from being a member in various academic and research bodies, such as councils of Majmaah University Council in Scientific Council, and Graduate Studies Council, the American Society of Linguists (since 2001) and the Saudi Linguistic Society (since 2002), he has been actively enriching his knowledge with attendance at national and international conferences of repute. Nor one to be found lacking in any academic pursuit, Dr. Aromaih has a keen

interest and expertise in electronic course management systems and in programs of multimedia production and text programs like Front Page, Dream Weaver, Photoshop, the knowledge of which he efficiently uses in planning, designing and supervising E-learning and distance education programs. His research interests include lexicon comprehension, vocabulary-learning strategies, CALL and CALT.

Abstract

The educational sector was perhaps the one that saw the most drastic changes following the onset of the pandemic. With all teaching shifted to online mode, the ingenuity of teachers as well as learners had to gear up to the novel challenge. In Saudi Arabia, not all homes have computers, or where one is there, the users (read 'learners') within the household may be more than one. This pressed the smartphones into use as learning devices, which, so far, had been limited to the realm of leisure activity or entertainment. However, being a relatively new learning tool, it also necessitated the need for multidimensional inquiries into the success or failure of this device in the classroom environment. In this vein, the current study aimed to investigate EFL learners' attitudes towards using smart phones for developing global English language skills, and to explore which skill was the most and least developed as an outcome of the use of smartphones in EFL over a period of one academic session. The research used a questionnaire and limited interviews to gather data from 231 university students of EFL divided into two groups according to their achievement score on the standardised university tests. On a scale of 1-9, low-level was represented by scores ranging between 1-4, while high level was represented by scores between 5-9. The findings showed that students in both groups had positive attitudes towards using smart phones for developing global English language skills. For both low- and high-level students listening was the most preferred language skill to develop via smartphones, while writing was the least preferred.

Introduction

In interaction with technology, English learning and teaching have expanded dramatically, especially in the realm of learning English as a foreign language in classrooms. Among other devices, the popularity of smartphones has become a boon for teachers and learners given the fact that learners today not only use them for communication but also to promptly seek knowledge and information. Smartphone applications are, in fact, an inseparable part of our lives irrespective of age, gender, nationality and technical knowledge. It is not surprising that

the devices we called mobile or cellular phones till recently, are now called 'smartphones' given all the smart functions they are powered to perform. They are now effectively used for entertainment, communication and education. With their presence so central to our lives, it is not surprising that educational institutions are today rethinking educational philosophy and rejigging pedagogies to adapt to the changed paradigms. Just how much territory in language learning tools had lain unexplored so far was highlighted by the drastic leap that the education sector made following global lockdowns made imminent by the pandemic, with teachers and learners seamlessly shifting to online learning even over smartphones where computers were not available to the learners. However, the potential of the smartphones had been on the target of the teachers and learners for at least a few years when MALL was steadily replaced by the all-new concept of SPALL, Smartphone-Assisted Language Learning (Leis, Tohei & Cooke, 2015). In this context, Bezircilioğlu (2016) mentioned that defining the term MALL is not an easy task as it is one of the most sophisticated fields to integrate mobile devices into language learning processes. Thornton and Houser (2005, p.218) noted that with the greater integration of MALL into conventional teaching-learning in educational institutions around the world, there is a growing tendency for cutting down on the contact time in classrooms.

However, merely having the wherewithal in technology or pedagogy does not, in any way, ensure learning success. Todor and Degi (2017) point out that attitude to learn and motivation are strongly intertwined in the learning experience., and hence, the significance of evaluating learner perceptions and attitudes. In this context, there have been a large number of studies on the pros and cons of the use of different mobile applications in language learning, both in Arab and other settings. For instance, Jamal and Wagdi (2019) studied EFL students' attitudes and anxiety towards the use of WhatsApp as a learning tool, Al-Ahdal & Shariq (2019) evaluated the efficacy of WhatsApp group in a flipped classroom for vocabulary enhancement of EFL learners, and Alhuwaydi (2020) studied the effect of the smartphone Flashcard app on vocabulary acquisition by Saudi undergraduate EFL learners in the reading classes. However, no evaluation of Saudi undergraduate EFL learners' perception of the specific English language skill they believed developed the most and the least via the use of smartphones during the period of total online education has as yet been carried out. The following sections further justify the aims of the current study.

Similarities and Differences between Previous Studies and the Current Study

By looking at the previous literature, we noticed that the present study is similar to previous studies in terms of the aim of the research and the data collection tool (a questionnaire). All the

studies investigated the attitudes of students towards the use of mobile phones with regard to learning English. The difference between those previous studies and the present one is in terms of the variable considered. The present study focuses on the effect of a year of study on students' **attitudes** towards learning English with special focus on language learning skills (writing, reading, listening and speaking).

Literature Review

In a study with EFL learners in higher education, Nami (2020) had an interesting insight into the use of smartphones in English learning: The type of apps used in the pedagogy was a factor shaping learners' attitudes to their use in EFL. Moreover, learners in this study were sceptical about the potential of using apps in EFL. Bikram et al. (2020) reported that mobile learning (M-learning) is fast becoming a popular learning system across the world, particularly at the university stage given its unique characteristics of multi-functionality. At the tertiary level, learners who have smart phones can easily engage academically, either offline or online. Therefore, m-learning involves remote teaching tactics on the part of teachers as well as the use of a variety of learning strategies for students at the university level (Naciri et al., 2020). They added that M-learning has many advantages and benefits. For example, the teaching and learning processes can happen at any time and anywhere. In another study with two hundred high school English learners in Indonesia, Wisnuwardana (2019) concluded that the very idea added to learners' enthusiasm to learn and useful in language skills improvement. The study however, warns that the method can be optimised only when systematic and purposeful activities are designed for use on these applications. Naz, Rasheed & Rasheed (2019) stated from a study with students in Pakistan that MALL holds great promise in language learning and the innovativeness of the pedagogy led to positive attitudes amongst the learner community to the use of smartphones in English language learning. In a study conducted in Saudi Arabia, Alzubi, Singh & Hazaea (2019) found that smartphone mediated reading learning strategies led to positive learning attitudes amongst the EFL learners. Another contribution of this intervention was the development of the feeling of autonomy which also resulted in better learning outcomes. In a study with Libyan university EFL learners, Alsied (2019) concluded that not only did the learners have positive perceptions on the use of cell phones in learning of English, they actually frequently used these to check word meaning, to listen to English songs and to enhance their global language skills. In yet another study with EFL learners in turkey, Yurdagül and Oz (2018) studied learner attitudes in a prep school university and concluded that what matters the most to the learners is quick and easy access to information in language

learning and felt keen on the use of smartphones in their EFL experience. Ababneh (2017) investigated learner attitudes with respect to awareness, gender and English major in a study with Jordanian university learners. The study found that gender and English major did not correlate to learners' attitudes in using smartphones in EFL but their average usage of mobiles whether for learning or otherwise did affect their attitudes. Overall, learner attitudes towards the use of smartphones in EFL were positive. A positive correlation was established between use of smartphones in the EFL classroom and learner engagement in a study with Saudi university learners by Sarhandi, Bajnaid & Elyas (2017). The study concluded that initiation time and distraction were also affected when smartphones were used in EFL classes. Bezircilioğlu (2016) studied the attitudes of 60 prep school students and teachers at Izmir Institute of Technology with regard to using mobile phones for learning English. The researcher used an open-ended questionnaire to collect data. The results showed that learners used mobile phones to study vocabulary and for translation purposes. Positive feedback was found in this study towards using mobile phones for learning English on the part of both learners and teachers. Barakat (2015) examined the College of Applied Sciences students' attitudes towards using smart phone applications in learning English. A questionnaire was used to collect data. The findings showed that the students had positive attitudes towards using smart phones for learning English. In addition, Ghrieb (2015) examined students' attitudes towards using mobiles for learning and teaching English at the University of Mohamed Kheider-Biskra. The participants were 90 students who were required to reply to a questionnaire about the effectiveness of the mobile assisted language learning experience. The results showed positive attitudes were found in the answers in the questionnaire. Besides, the participants reported that listening, speaking and reading skills with regard to vocabulary could be learned through the use of mobile phones. The attitude to the use of mobile phones in terms of developing writing skills was not as positive.

Soliemani et al., (2014) explored graduate students' acceptance of using mobile devices for learning English. The participants were 25 ESL Malaysian postgraduate students at Kebangsaan University Malaysia (UKM). The researchers used a questionnaire to collect the required data. The findings indicated that the learners had positive attitudes towards the use of smart phones for learning English. Aza and Nasiri (2014) investigated Iranian EFL learners' attitudes towards the effectiveness of M-learning in developing listening skills. The results of this study showed that mobile learning is an effective way of improving listening

comprehension and that the participants had positive attitudes towards M-leaning for developing listening skills, anywhere and anytime.

To sum up this section, it is clear from the previous studies into the use of smart phones for learning English has attracted researchers in the field of English learning and teaching. This is because of the extensive use of smart phones among students, and the availability and ease of access with regard to various mobile applications for learning English.

Statement of the problem and how the study addresses it

Online education, apart from distance education programmes is a relatively new entrant in the sense that these learners did not go for the online or digital mode of education electively but found themselves in the situation almost overnight. It is obvious that their needs, motivations and attitudes were rooted in the face-to-face mode of learning. However,

with the pandemic shifting educational base to learners' homes, students at universities in Saudi Arabia found themselves depending on their computers and smart phones for studying instead of face-to-face learning at university. This shift was without any preparation whether in terms of infrastructure and expertise availability or evaluation of psychological factors like attitudes and perceptions. At the same time, predictions are that the world has not yet seen the last of the pandemics of our times, and the online mode of education may see more phases. Given these facts, it is imperative to be educated on various aspects of digital learning to ensure the best learning outcomes. For the Saudi university learners, it has been an year of education via smartphones, tablets and other devices. It is hoped that the findings of this study will give an accurate estimate of how learners made use of their smart phones for developing language learning skills. Most students in the country still depend on their mobile devices for attending virtual classes and sitting exams. Therefore, this research is apt to investigate EFL learners' attitudes towards developing language learning skills (writing, listening, speaking and reading) through the use of smart phones.

This study is also different as it compares the attitudes of students by categorizing them according to their academic achievement in high and low achievement groups. Almudibry (2018), in his study, indicated that there is a need for more studies on the usefulness of mobile phone applications for English learning, particularly with regard to language learning skills. Therefore, this study will contribute to the body of research in this field, especially in terms of MALL.

Research Questions:

1- What are the attitudes of EFL learners at Majmaah University after using of smart phones for one year in terms of learning English?

2- In terms of academic achievement, what is the most and least frequent English language skill that learners prefer to learn through smart phones?

3- Is there a statistically significant difference at the 0.5 level between the attitudes of high and low-achievement students with regard to the use of smart phones for the development of language learning skills?

Methods

Participants

With as many as 13 academic schools of which one is dedicated wholly to English language, the urban Majmaah University in Saudi Arabia sees a high enrolment for various courses in the school. English language courses at the university cover a wide array of options such as translation, ESP, and EAP. For the current study a random sample of 231 EFL learners across colleges under Majmaah University were chosen. The homogeneity criterion was age though their majors were varied. For all new entrants to Majmaah University, a language proficiency test is mandatory. This is a standardised test and helps place learners as per their existing language proficiency. Academic levels 1 to 4 represented the Low-proficiency Group, while levels 5 to 8 represented the High-proficiency Group. The composition of participants according to proficiency and major chosen are shown in Table 1:

Table 1: Educational Characteristics of the Participants

Demographic information		Number
Level	Low-level	101
	High-level	130
Field of study	English	98
	Arts	89
	Science	30
	Health	14

Of the 231 participants, 116 were females, all participants had an equal number of years of English learning exposure at school, the medium of education of 93 females and 84 males had been Arabic in school, and the median age of the group came to 20.4 years. None of the participants had any prior experience of language learning via smart devices, only twenty-one reported having completed a digital course in a subject other than English. All the participants

had personal smartphones, 34 females and 27 males reported having a computer at home. However, since smartphone as a language learning tool was the fulcrum on which the study rested, only those learners were requested to participate who had been using their smartphones for the purpose in the last one year or since their education shifted to home.

Data Collection

This study used a questionnaire and an interview to gather the necessary data. The questionnaire was divided into two parts. The first part dealt with participants' basic educational information (Level of study, Field of study). It also shows the participants' entry level proficiency and choice of course as depicted in Table 1. The second part consisted of fourteen items to assess the participants' experience of using smart phones for developing language learning skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing) and attitudes towards smart phones for language learning. The researcher made use of Almudibry's (2018) questionnaire.

Validity and Reliability of research instrument

A primary draft of a questionnaire with eighteen items was first validated by three professors in Applied Linguistics and four items were redacted on their suggestion. Once validated, the reliability of the instrument was tested with the responses of fifteen students in a pilot study. The participants in this were chosen from classes parallel to those of the respondents. The Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was then used to assess the Cronbach Alpha value. The result was .87, which means good internal consistency in terms of the questionnaire items.

Table 3: Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.87	14

Ethical Considerations

The university approval was obtained before commencement of the study. In addition, the researcher obtained the consent of the students about their willingness to participate. Finally, none of the participants was required to give any personal details to ensure anonymity.

A five-point Likert scale was used to assess the attitude of students to determine the language skill they perceived as having developed the most or the least through the use of smartphones in learning. On this scale, 5 represents 'strongly agree', whereas 1 represents 'strongly disagree'. An electronic version of the questionnaire was administered to the participants.

Table 2 shows the questionnaire items, comprising all four language skills and one component for acceptance of smartphones in language learning.

Table 2: Questionnaire

Skill	Statements	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Listening	I listen to English audios on my smart phone.					
	I watch English recorded program on my smart phone					
	I watch English news on my smart phone.					
Speaking	I speak with my colleagues in English on my smart phone.					
	I speak with my teacher in English on my smart phone.					
	I speak with my friends outside university in English on my					

	smart phone.					
Reading	I read short English stories available online on my smart phone.					
	I read simple English stories on my smart phone.					
	I read English SMS on my smart phone.					
Writing	I send English SMS to my University colleagues.					
	I send English SMS to my friends.					
	I send English SMS to my teachers.					
Acceptance	Using smart phones increases the quality of learning English.					
	The use of smart phones is					

	beneficial for learning a foreign language.					

In addition to this, the researcher interviewed 7 students to enrich the data collected from the questionnaire. The interview questions were about how a student could make use of smart phones for learning English.

Findings and Discussion

In this part, the findings of the current study are shown and discussed. Starting with the first research question which is:

What are the attitudes of EFL learners at Majmaah University towards the use of smart phones in terms of learning English?

Table (4): The attitudes towards the use of smart phones for developing language skills.

Skill	Level	Likert Scale response	N	Mean
Listening	Low	Strongly Agree/ Agree	79	3.87
	High	Strongly Agree/ Agree	107	4.79
Reading	Low	Strongly Agree/ Agree	26	1.79
	High	Strongly Agree/ Agree	69	2.73
Speaking	Low	Agree	83	3.21
	High	Agree	102	4.18
Writing	Low	Agree	41	1.12
	High	Agree	62	2.93
Acceptance	Low	Agree	87	3.74
	High	Agree	112	3.53

Table 4 shows the comparative mean scores along two variable, viz. low and high achievers and range of language skills. Of all the language skills, the ones most favored by both low and high achievers for enhancement via smartphones was listening with 78% of the low achievers giving an average mean score of 3.87 and 82.3% of the high achievers giving a mean score of 4.79 for agreement on the development of listening skills via the use of smartphones over a

period of one year. This was followed by speaking skills which was reported by 83 and 102 of low and high achievers respectively to have been developed as a result of smartphone use. Further, positive attitudes towards the use of smart phones for developing language skills in English are reflected in mean scores of 4.19 and 4.22 for low and high achievers respectively. These are recorded in Table 5:

Table (5): General attitudes towards the use of smart phones for learning English

Statement	Mean	Attitude
The use of smart phones increases the quality of learning English.	*3.74*	Strongly Agree
The use of smart phones is beneficial for learning a foreign language.	*3.53*	Strongly Agree

Table 5 shows that the participants have positive attitudes towards the use of smart phones when it comes to learning English. The mean scores of 3.74 and 3.53 reflect an attitude of Strongly Agree in terms of the acceptance of smart phones. This is in agreement with what students stated in interviews with regard to their experiences of using smart phones for learning English. The students reported that accessing information is very easy through mobiles. They said that there were many applications that helped them learn English. Another important reason for using mobiles for learning English was that most of these resources are free. This result agrees with several studies such as those of Soliemani et al. (2014), Aza and Nsiri (2014), Barakat (2015) and Bezircilioğlu (2016). These studies found positive attitudes towards the use of smart phones for learning English.

With regard to the second research question which is:

> *In terms of academic level, what is the most and least frequent language learning skill that learners prefer to learn through smart phones?*

Table (6): The most and least preferred language learning skills developed through smart phone use

Level	Most to least preferred learned skill with the use of smart phones							
	Mean	*Skill*	*Mean*	*Skill*	*Mean*	*Skill*	*Mean*	*Skill*
Low	3.87	Listening	3.79	Reading	3.21	Speaking	3.12	Writing
High	3.79	Reading	3.73	Listening	3.18	Speaking	2.93	Writing

From Table (6) above, it is clear that the most preferred skill for low-level students is listening, while for high-level students it is reading when smart phones are used. On the other hand,

writing was the least preferred skill with the use of smart phones for both levels. This is one of the most remarkable findings of the study writing is given the least time and attention in the Saudi EFL classroom with teachers perceiving it as the skill 'most difficult to teach'. This result also agrees with that of Ghrieb (2015) who found that listening was the most preferred skill with the use of a smart phone as well as his result about his students' preferences towards writing skill. This also answers for the second research question.

The last research question is as follows:

> *Is there a statistically significant difference at the 0.5 level between the attitudes of high and low-level students with regard to the use of smart phones for the development of language learning skills?*

In Table (7) the independent sample t-test result shows the statistically significance difference between the two groups' mean scores with regard to each learning skill:

Table (7): The most and least frequently used skill

Skill	Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig.
Listening	Low	101	3.87	1.18	.356
	High	131	4.79	1.11	
Reading	Low	101	1.79	1.27	.868
	High	131	2.73	1.17	
Speaking	Low	101	3.21	1.29	.699
	High	131	4.18	1.24	
Writing	Low	101	1.12	1.33	.379
	High	131	2.93	1.25	

It is clear from the independent sample T-test results for each skill show that there are no statistical differences at level (.05) between the experiences of high- and low-level students in terms of using smart phones for developing learning language learning skills. This finding clearly answers the third research question.

Conclusion and Implications for Teachers

This study attempted to explore some new facets of the EFL learners' experiences of using smart phones for the development of language learning skills. Its uniqueness lay in the fact that the respondents had had a protracted exposure of almost one year to the use of smartphones in learning of English skills. Studies so far had resorted to much shorter and limited interventions, similar though they had been. In addition, the study tried to explore their acceptance of the use

of smart phones with regard to learning English. The findings indicate that the students have positive attitudes towards the use of smart phones in terms of learning English. The language skill which both low and high achievers reported to have benefitted the most frequently through the use of smart phones was listening, while the least-developed or enhanced language skill was reportedly writing, and vast majority of the opinion was unanimous on this. This clearly establishes some principles that the EFL teachers can exploit for better learning: One, listening and speaking skill learning can have larger component of smartphone-based learning and practice. Two, writing as a skill needs to be paid greater attention and innovative pedagogies need to be developed for its enhancement. The findings show that there are no statistical differences between low- and high-level learners' preferences for learning skills through the use of smart phones. In other words, learners at all levels of achievement can experience greater learning engagement with the use of smartphones. The study has special relevance for EFL teachers who face not one but many uphill tasks: Learner engagement, achievement of learning objectives, fulfilment of learner needs and technology integration. It must be remembered that thoughtless inclusion of technology may not serve any purpose, for instance, in the case of teaching of writing skills. Yet, the world is a changed place now with learners' deep and long exposure to digital education which is likely to have fostered autonomy. Thus, it is imperative that greater ICT inclusion be on the target of institutions and teachers who sometimes need training in the latest apps for educational purposes. Finally, this study recommends that teachers make use of mobile applications that help students develop their language proficiency. In addition, it recommends further studies into investigating gender differences when developing language learning skills through the use of mobile phone applications.

References

Ababneh, S. (2017). Attitudes of Jordanian Students towards Using Group Work in EFL Classrooms. Advances in Language and Literary Studies, 8(1), 233-237. http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.8n.1p.233

Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. & Shariq, M. (2019). MALL: Resorting to mobiles in the EFL classroom. *The Journal of Social Sciences Research*, 90-96: 1

Alhuwaydi, A. A. (2020). Effect of smartphone Flashcard app on Saudi undergraduates' vocabulary acquisition in EFL reading classes. *Asian EFL Journal,* vol. 27, issue no 4.6

Ali, J.K.M., & Bin-Hady, W. R. A. (2019). A study of EFL students' attitudes, motivation and anxiety towards WhatsApp as a language learning tool. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)* Special Issue on CALL (5). 289-298 DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/call5.19

Alkamel, M., & Chouthaiwale, S. S. . (2020). ICT Availability and Uses among Yemeni University EFL Students. *TESOL and Technology Studies*, *1*(1), 1-9. https://doi.org/10.48185/tts.v1i1.63

Almudibry, K. (2018). Exploring university EFL learners' experiences and attitudes towards using smart phones for English learning. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 20(6), 347-362

Alsied, S. (2019). The role of mobile phones as effective tools for language learning by Libyan EFL learners. *JEELS (Journal of English Education and Linguistics Studies),* 6. 135-163. https://doi.org/10.30762/jeels.v6i2.1234

Alzubi, A. A. F., Singh, M. K. M. & Hazaea, A. N. (2019). Investigating reading learning strategies through smartphones on Saudi learners' psychological autonomy in reading context. *International Journal of Instruction, 12,* (2).99-114. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2019.1227a

Azar, A and Nasiri, H (2014) Learners' Attitudes toward the Effectiveness of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in L2 Listening Comprehension. *International Conference on Current Trends in ELT*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.613

Barakat, A. (2015). Attitudes of tertiary students towards using smart phone applications in learning English: The case of the freshmen enrolling in the general English requirement. *International Journal for Innovation Education and Research*, 3(8). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.613

Bezircilioğlu, S. (2016). Mobile assisted language learning. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in The World*, 6 (Special Issue 1).

Biswas, B., Roy, S. K., & Roy, F. (2020). Students perception of mobile learning during COVID-19 in Bangladesh: University student perspective. *Aquademia*, 4(2), ep20023. https://doi.org/10.29333/aquademia/8443

Clark, K. A., Welsh, K. E., Mauchline, A. L., France, D., Whalley, W. B., & Park, J. (2020). Do educators realise the value of Bring Your Own Device (BYOD) in fieldwork learning?. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 1-24.

Ghrieb, E. (2015). Teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of mobile-assisted language. (MA Dissertation), Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra.

Kim, H. S. (2012). Using short message service for vocabulary learning by students' English proficiency. *Multimedia-Assisted Language Learning*, 15(2), 75-96.

Leis, A., Cooke, S., & Tohei, A. (2015). The effects of flipped classrooms on English composition writing in an EFL environment. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching (IJCALLT)*, *5*(4), 37-51.

Naciri, A., Baba, M. A., Achbani, A. & Kharbach, A. (2020). Mobile learning in higher education: Unavoidable alternative during COVID-19. *Aquademia*, 4(1), ep20016. https://doi.org/10.29333/aquademia/8227

Nami, F. (2020). Educational smartphone apps for language learning in higher education: Students' choices and perceptions. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology,* 36(4). https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.5350

Naz, S., Rasheed, M., Rasheed, T. (2019). The role of smartphones in learning English: A study of learners' perspectives. *International Conference on Research in Humanities.* March 1-9. pp. 17-28.

Sha, L., Looi, C., Chen, W., and Zhang, B(2012) Understanding mobile learning from the perspective of self-regulated learning. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 28, 366-378. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2729.2011.00461.x

Soleimani, E., Ismail, K., & Mustaffa, R. (2014). The acceptance of mobile assisted language learning (MALL) among postgraduate ESL students in UKM. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences,* 118, 457 – 462. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.02.062

Thornton, P., & Houser, C. (2005). Using mobile phones in English education in Japan. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning. 21*(3), 217-228. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2729.2005.00129.x

Tódor, E. M., & Dégi, Z. (2018). Code-switching in second and third language classrooms. *The Journal of Linguistic and Intercultural Education*, *11*(2), 141-156. DOI:10.29302/iolie.2018.11.2.10.

Wisnuwardana, I. (2019). Students' attitudes towards the use of smartphone for language learning purposes. *Journal of English Teaching Adi Buana,* vol. 04, no. 02. https://doi.org/10.36456/jet.v4.n2.2019.2080

Yurdagül, Cemil & Oz, Saba. (2018). Attitude towards Mobile Learning in English Language Education. *Education Sciences*. *8*. (142), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci8030142

Literature in the EFL/ESL Classroom: Exploring New Dimensions for Enrichment of the Learning Process

Appalal Attar (PhD)

Lecturer, Department of English and Translation,

College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University,

Saudi Arabia

aatar@qu.edu.sa, appalal1100@gmail.com

Bio-profile:

Dr. Appalal Attar is a lecturer of the English language and literature at Qassim University, KSA. He received his doctorate in literature from Sai Nath University, India in 2013. From 2001-2008 he served as a lecturer in the Ministry of Education, Oman. Since 2009, he has been working for the College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, KSA. He has published more than 10 research articles in International journals of repute. Apart from the said papers, he has two unpublished books, which are likely to see the light of the day soon. He has been involved in many collaborative research projects with peers and colleagues. His research interests include humanities, English literature, linguistics, and social sciences.

Abstract

This paper offers an evaluation of ideas and research concerning the role of literature in the EFL/ESL classroom, while at the same time, proposing ways in which literature can find greater part in the language classroom. It also outlines a brief history of literature associated with communicative approaches that developed in the 1970s which emphasized the significance of using reliable literary materials and activities in the classroom to help students attain communicative proficiency that would facilitate them to use the language for communication. However, the materials and classroom activities specialize in the referential function of the language and don't offer opportunities for imaginative involvement. Consequent to this approach, students failed acquire the power to grasp the creative purpose of language or

to function in situations in which they needed to interpret and evaluate content and to individually respond and react to it. This paper argues that the presence of literature in EFL/ESL materials makes available to students optimum occasions to practice and use language more creatively and to develop a rapport with the language they are learning. It also discusses some of the ways in which literature can and has been employed to fulfill this objective in the EFL/ESL classroom.

Keywords: *Communicative Approach, Curriculum, EFL/ESL Classroom, Intensive and Extensive Reading, Language awareness, Literature, Proposals, Reliable Materials, Requirements*

1. Introduction

Why do we study a language? The reasons may be numerous and distinct, but they all share – one common feature- language use. What form of language use is learned in the classroom? Since the 1970s, language-education has been characterized by a predominance of communicative instruction strategies and pedagogies which highlight the communicative function of language, and hence the belief that the healthy way to deal with a foreign language is through communicative activities in the classroom. As McKay (1982) places it: '…if communication is the goal, then it ought to be the foremost component in the process'.

An outburst of work in literary and cultural theory has clearly marked the past thirty years, providing a strong base for further study on the relationship between literature, language, and education. Therefore, in the late '80s, a whole new paradigm that involved the mixture of language and culture, with literature deemed as a sort of culture, arose and evolved in the' 90s. Not unexpectedly, there has been a rapid transition to learning of literature in recent years (but not always as a community), and its rehabilitation into the academic curriculum. Many pieces of research therefore state that they want to include literary texts in the L2 curriculum (Cook, 1994; Hanauer, 2001; Carroli, 2008), or endorse a content-based curriculum that would include the influence of literature (Simpson, P. (1996).

Many language instructors are likely to admit the importance of literary texts in terms of the development of different components of a foreign language. It is claimed that literature enriches, apart from other things, students' L2 vocabulary knowledge, proficiency of lexical phrases and fixed expressions (Ellis, 1994; Chastain, 1988), grammatical proficiency

(Tayebipour, 2009), language cognizance (Kinneavy, 2004), and sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences (McKay, 2001). Also, emphasis on reading, specifically the study of culturally genuine texts, has come to be one of the main axis for curriculum reform in EFL teaching (Arens & Swaffar, 2000).

2. Using literature in the EFL Classroom: A short historical outline

English and American literature have been part of the non-English speaking learners' curriculum for more than a hundred years now, constantly constituting an important section in the English language syllabus (Stern, 1992). Widdowson (2000) argues that learning a foreign language in the early part of the twentieth century normally envisioned a close scrutiny of the canonical literature. Further, literature used to be a key constituent in the Grammar Translation Method. Literary texts in the target language were practiced as samples of desirable writing and "explanations of the grammatical rules" (Edmonson,1998) The emphasis of this instruction technique was at once on learning grammar rules and target vocabulary. In this phase, literary content was not viewed as gratifying leisure or interest of the user. Unfortunately, after the grammar-translation technique fell into neglect in the middle of the twentieth century, constant rejection of the use of literature in the language classroom grew to become the norm. Language teaching techniques primarily based on the translation of classic texts proved rather incompetent when applied to modern languages and as a result, the propensity at the time was to diligently remove literary texts from language instruction, focusing wholly on the teaching of language skills. In fact, from the 40s to the 60s, literature vanished from the language studying curriculum (Alex, 2005). This is how linguistics became the focal factor of the language packages (MacKay, 1990). The first half of the 1960s signifies a turning factor in this sense. The King's College convention was refocused on the difficulty of language instruction through literature in Cambridge in 1963. The importance of literary texts as useful devices in the language teaching/learning realm was emphasized in this conference whilst the traditional strategy was brought into question for its inability to boost either language skills or communicative capabilities.

As the widely agreed objective in ELT, the communicative approach consists of grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence that helps learners to cope with the most common situations they are likely to encounter (Canale & Swain, 1980: 29-31). In the communicative language classroom, therefore, activities involve tasks such as comparing sets of photographs, presenting guidance, completing a diagram, solving problems, debates, dialogues, roleplays,

and so on. The propensity to use authentic materials such as maps, letters, recipes, newspaper articles, posters, postcards, brochures though have brought varied instructional materials into the classroom, but this has resulted in students achieving 'only a capacity restricted to the referential role of language and barely any ability to handle the expressive function' (Donnerstag, 1996 :1).

If learners are to be motivated to engage in a classroom discussion, they should be presented With engaging content that will stimulate their curiosity, catch their imagination, and give them something interesting to speak about (Widdowson, 1983). Further, Widdowson points out giving the example of learners transacting a conversation at a post office while buying stamps, and asks what the result would be if they do not feel the necessary 'involvement' with the language even if they manage to frame sentences.

3. Advertence and emblematic sources

The language usually practised in the language classroom is emblematic which capability language which interconnects on only one level, commonly in terms of statistics being pursued or agreed, or of a social state of affairs being dealt with (Carter & MacRae,1996). It is the language practiced in everyday verbal exchange usually for transactional reasons that is in question. The texts offered in foreign language workbooks are generally expository in which facts are given clearly, words are used with their denotative meaning and there is nearly no metaphoric language. Therefore, it will only enable 'communicative existence in cautiously bounded eco-friendly contexts (MacKenzie, I. (2000). Such text may additionally be used for developing simple language and communicative skills. However, they do not provide room for imaginative involvement and creativity, and what is extra significant, they do not enable students to strengthen the so necessary 'fifth skill' that is, thinking, in English (Edmonson,1998) which is essential for decoding, perception, and for creating language awareness.

If we do not want students to 'develop a slim appreciation of language function and style' (Moody, 1983), we have to uncover them to a broad range of emblematic sources which offer them opportunities to respond and retort, to question and evaluate, to engage with the text, to get involved enthusiastically and imaginatively, and to connect it to their personal experience. And this is where literature finds its way in the language classroom as it makes our learners think. The aim is for learners to formulate their own thoughts and beliefs assisted by literature in the process.

Additionally, if inspiration is one of the key elements for language mastering and acquisition, then it is certainly the teachers' obligation to offer learners such fascinating texts and activities that will get them involved on a deeper level and generate the feeling that they are using the language for real determinations.

4. Originality as an ever-present phenomenon

The skills got whilst analyzing literary texts will help beginners emerge as better, more aware readers of the world they live in (McRae, 1991: 10). For it is not solely in the literature that we can see the innovative and resourceful use of language. It is present in street signs, bulletin boards advertisements, newspaper articles, hoardings, and commercial enterprise names, notices, menus, so and so forth. Even ordinary daily discussions exhibit creative uses of language such as idioms, similes, proverbs and so on, 'which are powerfully associated with criteria for literariness' (Carter, 1997), but human beings are so used to them that they are not even aware that they are examples of creative use of language.

Because of the metaphorical patterns present in everyday language, native speakers normally do not have difficulty in grasping metaphorical language in literature (Carter, 1997: 212). However, foreign language or new learners are not in such a promising situation because even ordinary thoughts and ideas may frequently be uttered in metaphors in other languages, and this preference for the figurative displays 'cultural outlooks to precise parts of human activity' (Carter, 1997). Consequently, giving foreign language novices opportunities for conversation, contrast, the perception to differentiate the meaning of phrases, developing their interpretational and inferential skills which will make them extra insightful and proficient users of the language.

5. The incentive of using literature in EFL/ESL classroom

A large corpora of research exists justifying the pragmatism of the inclusion of literary texts in the language class. Alkhodimi & Al-Ahdal (2019) reported enhanced motivation, engagement and communicative output following the intervention of literary components in a study with university EFL learners in KSA. Novio & Catane (2018) point out in a study in Philippines that EFL learners reported improved vocabulary and knowledge of idiomatic expressions and averred that reading poetry improved their ability to communicate. Yimwilai (2015) concluded that an approach that integrates achievements, critical thinking and attitudes to reading of

literature was most effective in EFL classrooms. Shen (2007) believes studying literature in the EFL classroom is beneficial for a range of causes:

- It gives concrete context.
- It requires a comprehensive range of language, speeches, and style.
- It needs creativity and increases originality.
- It increases ethnic understanding.
- Critical thinking inspires.
- It's in line with the principles of CLT (Communicative Language Teaching).

He further elaborates on the last point by defining the ways in which literary discovery in the key beliefs of CLT will go hand in hand with the language classroom:

- On the one side, the meaning is the result of the relationship between the experience of the reader, and the language of the text, the meaning of reading, and the ideological assumptions underlying the text on the other, an email. Literature should, therefore, improve meaning.
- Learning is encouraged by participation and enjoyment which can be produced by the literary style. In addition, literature reading allows for more productive and critical thought and learning. By authentic contact and active engagement, learning is encouraged. As such, the literature can be especially beneficial as it offers student-centered opportunities, activities and community collaborative work.
- The role of learners as active and independent participants is highlighted in CLT and as the reading of literature produces individual meanings, and this aim is accomplished. The role of instructors as coordinators, guides, and active organizers is expressed in the teaching process of evaluation and literary work.

It can be understood that there are certain characteristics for which literature has been used in the EFL classroom. These include its social load, systemic instability, and non-normative use of language, btu it is precisely due to these features that the approach is specifically criticized, i.e., What can be used to enhance teaching and learning experiences in languages? For one thing, Zoreda and Vivaldo-Lima, (2008) note that, given the importance of linking culture to the learning of languages, literature modules will be a perfect way to integrate U.S. and British cultural elements into the process. Reinforcing English literacy skills (p.22). They raise some other explanations for justifying the use of literary texts in the classroom.

- It allows teachers of languages to foster their own cultural, linguistic, and observational abilities.

- It involves students to overcome negative attitudes, if any, toward the target culture. Gajdusek (1988) introduces diversity in the language classroom along the same lines, introducing several other benefits while browsing the literature.
- It serves as a stimulus for composition.
- It is a perfect means for constituting the content for content-based classes.
- It encourages talking and helps generate purposeful referential questions. It allows for small group work that is highly motivated.
- It develops dramatic vocabulary growth and complex sentence grammar. To these, Arthur (1968) adds the fact that most of the syntactic forms, inclusive of passives, subordinate clauses, and syntactic word order inversions are encountered more regularly in literary texts. In addition, he considers, the vocabulary growth introduced by analyzing literature is attributable to the higher vary of vocabulary used in written English and in literary texts. Nasr (2001) opinions the associated literature and marks some supplementary points in prefer to literary assessment in EFL/ESL classes.
- It has plausible to combine the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening.
- It needs learners to assume out and put into training exclusive analyzing techniques to deal with the idiosyncratic traits of verse and prose.
- It widens intellectual views and lifts cognitive growth.
- It supports learners rise spirits or feelings for the language they are learning.

6. Uniqueness and incitement

One of the aids of communicative language teaching is the persistence of reliable resources as a valued source for learning the language since they display the truth of the language. If the final goal in language teaching is to allow students to deal with the real language, they ought to learn how to manage it in the classroom (McRae, 2002). The use of accurate resources is in line with the practical approach of language learning which includes learners in reliable communication and in honest practices that have value, prominence, or significance for them. (Carter, 1992). As literature is realistic text, the events or activities used with literary texts 'are real language activities, not ones unnatural or artificial around a made-up text' (Barnett, 1986).

It is particularly significant for more innovative or advanced learners to be exposed to a wide variety of reliable literary texts supported by tasks and questions that look-like real-life methods, to such pleasure outside the mere understanding of information, but they also give

students the fulfillment of knowing texts. These texts encourage students and suggest chances for discussions and support and shape their reading confidence, They also guarantee their ability to use the language. Another advantage of using reliable texts is that they build experiences or 'content' in a natural way which give voice to complexities not always present in other types of texts' (Carter & McRae, 1996: xxiv). So, by conferring linguistic selections, syntactic structures, verbal organization, tone, and so on, students are taught to think about what the text means and how the meaning is conveyed, which leads to 'heightened awareness of how language can mean, how its material can be subjugated to explain different perceptions on familiar reality'(Widdowson, 1992).

Additionally, studies in vocabulary achievement have established that it is helpful for students to encounter words in a variety of contexts (Carter & McCarthy, 1988; Al-Saggaf, & Binti Rusli, 2021) because the stylistic meanings of words can only be understood when words are inspected in context (Dupuy & Krashen, 1993). Finally, if students desire to continue to learn the language after finishing their formal education, they will have to use the skills, techniques, and ways they have learned whilst learning the language in the classroom (Allen, 1983). In a foreign language framework, studying genuine texts is one of the fantastic options for language development. Consequently, imparting beginners with opportunities to boost integral reading capabilities will prepare them for autonomous and self-directed learning. In Barnett's words, 'authentic texts are energetic; they motivate convey the target language subculture and make them examine backyard or outside the classroom' (Barnett, 1989).

7. Incorporating literature into language classroom

A few specific hints for incorporating literature into the language classroom can be beneficial in the long run. Reassured of the variety of benefits that can be brought to language learners by the use of literature, the question is how this potential can be exploited. Several practical tips were presented by the pro-literature thinkers and examples were produced regarding the development of the above methods in teaching literature in the classroom setting.

What are the types of literary texts that best fit EFL/ESL classes is the first question that crosses the mind. The response to this question depends on answering a long-standing controversy identified by Arthur (1968) on how to begin the seemingly intimidating task of literary discovery. It is widely agreed that literature must first impact the literary experience of learners in a competitive environment as a language learning asset. The argument is that some scholars assume that this literary experience cannot be achieved unless the reader has already mastered

the text's large vocabulary, complicated idiomatic expressions, and underlying cultural concepts, and if he has, literature will be of little use as a device for language learning; when read in simplest terms, the use of literature to learn a language will prevent literature from being experienced. Arthur (1968, p.199) reports that second-language teachers engaged in using literature in their classrooms ought to be conscious of how literature can treat second-language skills while preserving its literary importance for second-language learners at the same time. Firstly, by choosing the correct form of text, this aim can be accomplished. To get around the issue of linguistic and cultural ambiguity, three proposals have been put forward (McKay, 1892):

- Use of standardized texts: In general, the use of concise texts is widely agreed upon on the grounds that simplification decreases the complexity of details, continuity, and, consequently, the usability of the text. However, examples of the fruitful use of concise texts in the language classroom can be identified after browsing the literature. Vivaldo-Lima & Zoreda (2008, pp. 22-23) claim that "there is a growing interest in incorporating graded literary content, such as easily digestible novels written primarily for students at the beginning and intermediate level. They confirm their progress by using easily digestible novels along with the audio and movie adaptations of the novels to provide guided directives on linguistic and intercultural skills is especially beneficial for the second language learners.

- Using simple texts: What 'simple' means is the problem with the use of simple texts. According to McKay (1982), while the lexical and syntactic complexity of a text is measured by readability, there are no commonly accepted criteria for assessing the complexity of a literary work in terms of its underlying cultural principles, characterization, plot, and other literary attributes. Therefore, the collection of simple texts is centered more on logic.

- Using college-aged texts: Due to its intrinsic simplicity, both linguistic and literary, these texts may support a wide variety of learners. According to McKay (1982), these texts are characterized by readability, a limited cast of characters, simplicity of style, and themes as important as self-improvement. The issue with the use of these texts for youth classes, however, is that adult learners cannot associate with topics of interest to younger people, and they will suffer in terms of motivation and ability to communicate with the text.

It follows that the option of including literary texts in the EFL/ESL classroom does not have a clear-cut rule. Appropriateness tends to be a function of many variables in the classroom and course that teachers need to examine before determining which form of literary text should be used. It must be remembered, nevertheless, that although the choice of texts is of utmost importance, the manner in which teachers and learners approach the text and the type of tasks and activities in which learners participate have a more decisive impact on the efficacy of literature in the language classroom.

Poetry, short story, and drama are broadly relevant to some of the strategies and structures put forward, although some have been explicitly crafted for one of these categories. Zaro Vera (1991) specifies the differences between intensive and extensive programs for reading literature; there are two versions of the comprehensive program which focuses on novels and short stories:

1. Interventionist, in which the instructor presents a pre-determined list of books to the students that they will read and test on;

2. Non-interventionist, in which the learners pick the books themselves and then write on them a regular reading questionnaire.

The comprehensive reading program, on the other hand, draws on student-centered experiences in the classroom and assignments to strengthen learners' linguistic competence. The following section focuses on the intensive and extensive use within and outside the classroom of literature.

8. A doorway to extensive reading

Teaching of literature is a useful asset in that it acts as a doorway to extensive reading that improves the awareness of students to the target language, Nuttall states that 'going and living among its speakers is the best way to develop your knowledge of a foreign language. The very next easiest way is to read deeply in it' (1982: 168). Because most foreign language learners do not have the first choice, teachers can strive to make students read more outside the classroom by encouraging them to do so or attempting to do so (Nuttall, 1982:168). If students have developed strong reading techniques and abilities and if teachers share their passion for reading with the students, if the books are well-chosen, the students would not feel that reading is another boring activity they have to do, but something that can offer them happiness, pleasure, and personal satisfaction. Sinclair (1996: 142) claims that the teacher's function is to help students progressively develop the ability to choose English texts according to their own needs and expectations, as well as to deal with and understand the language, discourse, style, type,

and meaning of these texts while teaching literature.

Studies on the impact of reading comprehension on language acquisition suggest that learning another language can be a significant success factor (Nation, 1997). There are many advantages of extensive reading. The findings of studies in the learning of second/foreign languages have shown that learners can obtain vocabulary (Brown et al., 2008; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993, develop their ability to write and practice grammar.

In addition, these studies have already proven that reading can also improve the oral competence of learners (Cho & Krishan. 1994), thorough reading, speed of reading and fluency of reading (Day & Bamford, 1998; Mason & Krashen, 1997). One of the significant results is that reading can also provide positive benefits as it encourages trust and enhances the enthusiasm and positive mindset towards learning the target language (Cho & Krashen, 1994; Day & Bamford, 1998). The advantages of extensive reading are described by Hedge (2000: 204) who says that reading not only improves their global language skills, but also, boosts their confidence, cultural awareness, and interest in reading.

In order to incorporate literature as early as possible, students should read graded readers or specially written texts in the early phases of language learning, which will provide them with easily understood reading content, capture their attention and ignite their passion for reading. But simplified literary texts should be replaced with genuine literary texts as soon as they are able to read more complex material. It is highly beneficial for foreign language learners to read genuine literary texts outside the classroom because it enhances exposure to the target language, exposes rare and unexpected uses of the language, encourages language development, and offers a stimulating and interesting way of learning the language.

9. Principles or requirements for using literature

Three key requirements are present that explain the use of literature as a medium for teaching a second language. In its first instance, the linguistic requirement defends the need to use literature in language teaching since it gives the learner the ability to understand authentic, original language samples. For foreign language learners, it is significantly vital to be educated and trained in a range of registers, styles, and genres and to be capable of distinguishing the intent of each of them. These specific linguistic representations are not just distinctive, but also have a social partnership linguistically, but also fulfill an emotionally communicative role.

Methodological study is the second requirement which applies to the several interpretations of a literary text, these different views are created among the learners and this leads to true, inspired interaction with the text, with their peers, and the teacher. One of the fundamentals of communicative technique is that it supports active interaction so that the language is acquired by way of speaking. Further, in the language classroom, the use of literature is preferred by the learner's active position and the role of the literary text as the center of primary attention. Learners show active and independent performance in the learning process.

Finally, the motivational requirement is of considerable significance, since the literary text reveals the inner emotions of the writer and this induces a deep encouragement, finding an echo within the learner. The student accesses this with the literary text. If he is affected by the concept and personal observations, he would be able to connect his reading to his world. The greatest challenge for teachers is to design enhancing procedures which inspire the learners. Literature has a clear stimulating influence on language teachers, because of its connect to the personal experience.

10. Conclusion

The use of literature as a guide provides opportunities for teachers to base language learning programs on resources that can encourage stronger engagement and participation than other texts (Carter & Long, 1991). Three forms of reasoning for using literary texts, viz. textual, methodological, and motivational are formulated by Duff and Maley (1990). Linguistically, through the use of literary texts at several levels of complexity is a very large variety of forms, registers, and text-types. Scientifically, because of their responsiveness to different interpretations, they provide resources for genuine interaction among learners. Intellectually, they address issues that are likely to engage learners through their own observations in a specific response.

Literary texts enrich classroom language feedback and promote language learning by offering 'meaningful and unforgettable contexts for new language processing and analysis' (Lazar, 1993). The different levels of significance of literary texts create resources for students to develop observational and interpretative skills to understand all kinds of conceptual contents. Since literary language is deliberately modeled and 'words and structures are not meant to be interpreted literally' (Carter, 1997), students are deeply attached to the reading of literary texts, awakening their creative thinking, and requiring positive reply and response.

In the language classroom, using literary texts can make students more confident of the language they are studying, allow them to develop skills and techniques that can be implemented in many different circumstances and contexts, increase their participation and enthusiasm, and make language learning a more pleasant and meaningful activity. This study has discussed a range of ideas and approaches, and concludes that the need of the hour is to expose a large learner base to relevant literary texts in the classroom. Lastly, EFL/ESL teachers ought to admit that teachers can build related procedures or activities, but always according to the requirements of the learner group if effective inclusion of literature has to be ensured in the classroom.

References

Aiex, N. K. (2005). Storytelling: Its wide-ranging impact in the classroom. Retrieved January 13, 2021 from https://www.ericdigests.org/pre-929/wide.htm

Alkhodimi, K. H. A. & Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2019). Literature in English as a foreign language classroom in KSA: Rectifying a relationship with odds. *Utopía y Praxis Latinoamericana:*, vol. 24, núm. Esp.6. 256-264

Allen, V. F. (1983). *Techniques in Teaching Vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press 200 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10016

Allwright, R. (1979). *Language learning through communication practice.The communicative approach to language teaching*, *76*, 167-182

Al-Saggaf, M. A., & Binti Rusli, Z. A. N. . (2021). Investigating the Types of Motivation of TESL Students in A Higher Education Institute in Malaysia. TESOL and Technology Studies, 1(1), 55–69. https://doi.org/10.48185/tts.v1i1.105

Arens, K., & Swaffar, J. (2000). Reading goals and the standards for foreign language learning. *Foreign Language Annals*, *33*(1), 104-122.

Arthur, B. (1968). *Reading literature and learning a second language*. *Language learning*, *18*(3-4), 199-210

Barnett, A. M. (1989). *More than meets the eye: Foreign language reading*. *heory and Practice*. Prentice-Hall Regents, Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brown, R., and Waring, R. (2008). Incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading, reading-while-listening, and listening to stories. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *20*(2) 136-163.

Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1-47.

Carroli, P. (2008). *Literature in second language education: Enhancing the role of texts in learning*. A&C Black.

Carter, R. (1997). *Investigating English discourse: Language, literacy and literature*. Psychology Press London: Routledge.

Carter, R. (1998). *Vocabulary: Applied linguistic perspectives*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge. Carter, R. and Long, M. N. (1991). *Teaching Literature*. Harlow: Longman

Carter, R. and McRae, J. (eds). (1996). *Language, literature and the learner: Creative classroom practice*. Harlow: Longman.

Carter, R., McCarthy, M. & Channell, J., (1988). *Vocabulary and language teaching*. London: Longman

Chastain, K. (1988). Developing Second Language Skills. Orlando, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Cho, K. S & Krashen, S.D. (1994). Acquisition of vocabulary from the Sweet Valley Kids series: Adult ESL acquisition. *Journal of Reading*, *37*(8),662-667.

Cook, G. (1994). *Discourse and Literature: The Interplay of Form and Mind.* Oxford: OUP

Day, R. R. and Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive reading in the second language classroom.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

DONNERSTAG, J. (1996). Improving the Expressive Competence of Foreign. *Challenges of literary texts in the foreign language classroom*, 144.

Duff, A. and Maley, A. (1990). *Literature*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dupuy, B. and Krashen, S. (1993). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in French as a foreign language. *Applied Language Learning*, 4, 1&2, 55- 63.

Edmonson, W. (1997). The Role of Literature in Foreign Language Learning and Teaching: Some Valid Assumptions and Invalid Arguments. *AILA Review*, *12.*

Ellis, T. J. (1994). Teaching from the pulpit: an exploratory study of the relationship between adult learning theory and preaching literature. *PUB TYPE*, 64.

Gajdusek, L. (1988). Toward Wider Use of Literature in ESL: Why and How. *TESOL Quarterly* (22), 227-254.

Hanauer, D. (2001). Focus-On-Cultural understanding: Literary Reading in the Second Language Classroom. *CAUCE, Revista de Filología y Didáctica* (24), 389-404

Hedge, T. (2001). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press 106.

Lazar, G. (1993)..*Literature and Language Teaching*, Cambridge University Press,

Long, M. N. (1986). A feeling for language: The multiple values of teaching Literature. In: Carter, R.A. (eds.) *Literature and Language Teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. 42-59

M. Hismanoglou, (2005) Teaching English through Literature," *Journal of Language and Linguistics*,. 1(1).

MacKenzie, I. (2000). Institutionalized Utterances, Literature, and Language Teaching. *Language and Literature* (9), 61-78.

Mason, B. & Krashen, S. (1997). *Extensive Reading in English as a Foreign Language. System*, 25(1), 91-102. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0346-251X(96)00063-2

McKay, S. (1982). *Literature in the ESL classroom. TESOL Quarterly 16*(4), 529-536
http://www.jstor.org/stable/3586470?origin=JSTOR-pdf

McRae. J. (1991*). Literature with a Small 'I'*. London, Macmillan.

Moody, H.L.B. (1983). *Approaches to the Study of Literature: A Practitioner's View. In C. J. Brumfit (Ed.).* Teaching Literature Overseas. British Council.

Nasr, N. (2001). The use of poetry in TEFL: Literature in the new Lebanese curriculum. *Revista de Filología y su Didáctica* (24), 345-363.

Nation, I. S. P. (1997). The Language Learning Benefits of Extensive Reading. *The Language Teacher Online*, [online], 21(5), 13-16, Available at: http://www.jalt publications.org/tlt/files/97/may/benefits.html.

Novio, E. B. C. & Catane, N. G. (2018). Poetry in EFL teaching: Perspective of the students based on gender. *Asian EFL Journal, 20* (4).

Nuttall, C. (1982). *Teaching Reading Skills in a Foreign Language*. Oxford: Heinemann International.

Simpson, P. (1996). *Language through Literature: An Introduction.* London: Routledge.

Sinclair, B. (1996). Learner autonomy and literature teaching. In: Carter, R. and McRae, J. eds. *Language, Literature and the Learner: Creative Classroom Practice.* Harlow: Longman.

Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. eds. Allen, P. and Harley, B. Oxford: Oxford University Press. Ur, P. (1991). *A Course in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tayebipour, F. (2009). In Defence of Teaching literature to EFL students in the era of Globalization. In *Englishes and literatures-in-English in a globalised world: Proceedings of the 13th international conference on English in southeast Asia* (pp. 213-219).

Widdowson, H. G. (1983). Talking Shop: Literature and ELT. *ELT Journal*, 37: 30-35.

Widdowson, H. G. (1992). Practical Stylistics. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Yimwilai, S. (2015). An integrated approach to teaching literature in EFL classroom. *English Language Teaching, 8*(2), 14-21.

Zaro, V. J.J. (1991). Literature as study and resource: *The purposes of English literature teaching at university level. Revista alicantina de estudios ingleses, No. 04 (Nov. 1991); pp. 163-175*

Zoreda, M. L., & Vivaldo-Lima, J. (2008). Scaffolding linguistic and intercultural goals in EFL with simplified novels and their film adaptations. In *English Teaching Forum* (Vol. 46, No. 3, pp. 22-29).

Mother Tongue in EFL Classrooms: A Critical Study of Teachers' Outlook and Practices

Paiker Fatima Mazhar Hameed

Department of English and Translation, College of Arts and Sciences, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

f.paiker@qu.edu.sa

Appalal Abdulgaffar Attar

Department of English and Translation, College of Arts and Sciences, Methnab, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

aatar@qu.edu.sa

Bio-profiles:

Dr. Paiker Fatima Mazhar Hameed, born in India (Aligarh) 1981, is currently working as an Assistant Professor of English and Linguistics (Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching) in the College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, KSA. She was awarded MA Degree (Linguistics) from Aligarh Muslim University, India, in 2005; she earned her PhD in 2012 from the same prestigious and famous Institution (AMU). She has taught Linguistics to graduate and undergraduate students in Women's College & Department of Linguistics, Aligarh Muslim University, India and Saudi Arabia. She was awarded prestigious Doctoral scholarship offered by NTS, Mysore and apex body of the Government of India for language study and AMU Doctoral fellowship. She is bilingual and has widely published research in leading journals. Her interests include ESP, Second Language Acquisition, Foreign Language Teaching, Phonetics and Phonology, Psycholinguistics, apart from Vocabulary learning strategies and assessment. One book by her "A Linguistics study of Spelling Mistakes" has been published by LAP LAMBERT, Germany. She has also presented many papers in Seminars and Conferences.

Dr. Appalal Abdulgaffar Attar, born in India**,** is a lecturer of the English language and literature at Qassim University, KSA. He received his doctorate in literature from Sai Nath University, India in 2013. From 2001-2008 he served as a lecturer in the Ministry of Education, Oman. Since 2009, he has been working for the College of Sciences and Arts, Methnab, Qassim University, KSA. He has published more than 10 research articles in international journals of repute. Apart from the said papers, he has two unpublished books, which are likely to see the light of the day soon. He has been involved in many collaborative research projects with peers and colleagues. His research interests include humanities, English literature, linguistics, and social sciences.

Abstract

The discussion on whether or not to use the mother tongue of the learners (native language or first language or L1) in the EFL classrooms has always been the subject of debate for different individuals involved in the process. This paper discusses the debate over the use of the mother tongue (MT) by teachers of foreign language (FL) instruction. A perennial problem in second language learning has been to what degree the use of L1 promotes L2 learning or presents a crippling impact on learners. Despite a lack of significant actual studies supporting or preventing the use of mother tongue, some oppose using L1 (mother tongue) in foreign language classes because of the common perception that its presence in SLA is in the way of or interferes with L2 learning, while others, for various reasons, take a different stance. The present paper aims to explore the theoretical and practical roles of English teachers in the use of the first language in their classroom teaching, taking into account certain counter-arguments. The research included a total of 20 English language teachers at Qassim University. The data was collected by administering a questionnaire containing 31 items. In-depth interviews with 6 participants were also conducted to gain further insight into the existing classroom activities of the teachers. Overall results indicated that a large majority of teachers took a realistic and pragmatic role in the use of L1 rather than adhering to popular beliefs on this subject. The paper also focuses on the use of mother tongue in a class, how to use it to facilitate learning, the pros and cons of using native language in the EFL classroom, how to enable students to properly use L2, reasons against and in favor of teaching the use of MT in EFL classrooms by students, and the benefits and drawbacks of using MT in EFL classes.

Introduction

For several years, the use of the mother tongue (MT) of learners in EFL classrooms has been one of the most contentious academic problems (De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003). It seems that code-switching which Richards and Schmidt (2002) describe as "a change from one language or language variety to another by a speaker (or writer)", has always been a topic of debate. On the contrary, the monolingual method is prescribed by some theorists as the ideal in the EFL classroom. Supporters of this approach attribute success to L2 feedback alone in a foreign language. They, thus, deprive learners of the ability to obtain feedback in the target language if teachers use L1 (Al-Ahdal, 2020; Kellerman, 1995; Krashen, 1981; Weschler, 1997). They claim that the L2 learning concept is related to the L1 learning of a child and L2 should be "broadly obtained from the message-oriented knowledge of its use rather than deliberately taught" (Mitchell, 1988). As Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008) comments, this discussion began in the late 1980s, when, with the Great Transition at the end of the 19th century, exclusivity assigned to the target language began to be challenged for the first time. The diminished importance of the grammar-translation method which enables the use of L1, and the growing prevalence of the Direct Method which scarifies the use of the target language, contributed to this exclusivity (Sampson, 2011). In fact, several figures from different contexts support an appropriate amount of the first language, arguing that an adequate amount of L1 can be used as an effective pedagogical instrument (Cook, 2001; Kahraman, 2009; Scott & de la Fuente 2008).

Language specialists and educators who endorse the bilingual method in L2 classes often consider the use of L1 to be important for L2 teaching and learning (Cook, 2001; Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Nation, 2003). They invoke both cognitive and psychological explanations in defense of their stance. From a knowledge-based perspective, they argue that 'sophisticated people' are adult learners who have already obtained their L1 (Cook, 2001 as cited in De la Campa & Nassaji, 2009). As an effective cognitive resource, L1 is part of their experience and world awareness that can enable them to perform L2 activities that are linguistically and cognitively complex (Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Furthermore, the use of L1 removes the psychological barriers to language learning and enables quicker development.

Janulevičienė and Kavaliauskienė,(2002) argue that "the opportunity to turn to a native language, even for a short period of time, gives students the chance to maintain their personality, get rid of anxiety, create trust and remain successful in their choice of speech. The next section of the current paper captures a snapshot of the brief background of shifts in attitude towards MT use.

Gulzar (2010), who conducted a survey with 406 teachers in Pakistani EFL classrooms, is one of the studies that focus on the functions of teachers' code-switching. The study findings show that teachers use code-switching from the most commonly cited to the lesser referred to eleven functions in a hierarchical order to their first language: clarity, ease of speech, successful teaching, creating a feeling of connection, testing comprehension, translation, socializing, concentration, repetitive functions, subject change, and linguistic competence. The result shows that the use of L1 in bilingual education is valid, in the sense that a rigid unilingual policy can contribute to misunderstandings and, as a result, "educators, course creators, and teachers misinterpret language processes and cannot implement strategies in the classroom based on the relevant use of languages". Sampson's (2011) research on code-switching confirms Gulzar's (2010) results in that his findings show that first language has communicative functions in classrooms, including "expressing correlation, discussing procedural issues, floor holding, repeating concepts, and forming group relations".

A research with four English teachers in Cyprus by Copland and Neokleous (2011) was conducted with the same thought process. Their transcripts of the classes observed indicate that teachers used L1 for a total of eleven purposes, namely arranging the lesson, providing explanations, grammar, in particular, providing guidance, seeking feedback, admonishing (Macaro, 2001), cracking jokes, encouraging, interpreting, using it as markers, giving students hints and opinions. The qualitative study of teacher interviews, however, revealed that everyone is skeptical of the use of Greek in language classes, even if it is overused. Furthermore, since bilingual teachers have a sense of shame when they teach L2 with L1, Copland and Neokleous argue that there are inconsistencies between the teachers' perceptions and decisions. Likewise, McMillan and Rivers' (2011) attitude survey with 29 native-English speaker teachers at a Japanese university promotes the positive role of L1 in improving comprehension, interaction, and social events in the ESL classroom. Al-Hinai, M. K. (2011) emphasize the fact that the use of L1 enables students to create positive cooperation between friends.

Methodology

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were used in the present study to increase the quality of the research results. The quantitative data was obtained by means of a questionnaire. The research included a total of 20 English teachers at Qassim University. Instead of generalizing the sample, the analysis was descriptive in nature. The information was obtained by the questionnaire, which was built from the studies of Rolin-Ianziti, and Varshney (2008.) To appeal to the Arabic context, appropriate modifications and improvements were made. The final questionnaire consisted of 31 items with a 5 point Likert-type scale following a research study. As Robson (1993) points out, surveys administered by questionnaires could "lend themselves well that can be used in combination with other techniques", and it is possible to complement the quantitative data with its qualitative equivalent to go deeper. Therefore, in-depth, individual interviews were also performed to gain a further overview of the existing classroom activities of the teachers. As interviewees, 6 EFL teachers from Qassim University participated actively. The semi-structured interview was designed to outline the viewpoints and practices of teachers on the use of L1 in the context of EFL. To this end, teachers were primarily asked four questions that centered on the following: the use of L1 by teachers, procedures and reasons for using L1, where to use L1, and the use of L1 by students. All the interviews were documented and transcribed via audio. Later, the qualitative knowledge gained from individual interviews was interpretatively evaluated (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007).

Findings

The main objective of the present study was to investigate the experiences and activities of the teachers on the use of L1 in foreign language classes. As mentioned earlier, 20 teachers from the college of Sciences and Arts, Almethnab and Unaiza were given a 5-point Likert scale style questionnaire containing 31 items. In reaction to the question concerning their use of Arabic in a foreign language, 88% of the participants agreed on the use of Arabic in classrooms and 65% of the teachers said that Arabic should be used 'sometimes'. In the second section, six elements were given to teachers to express their viewpoints on the use of Arabic by students (Table 1). Based on the results, most teachers agreed that the use of the mother tongue is a mediator for teaching foreign languages. Figure 1 below depicts graphically the responses on the use of MT in EFL classes.

Figure 1.

Perspectives from teachers on the use of Arabic by students
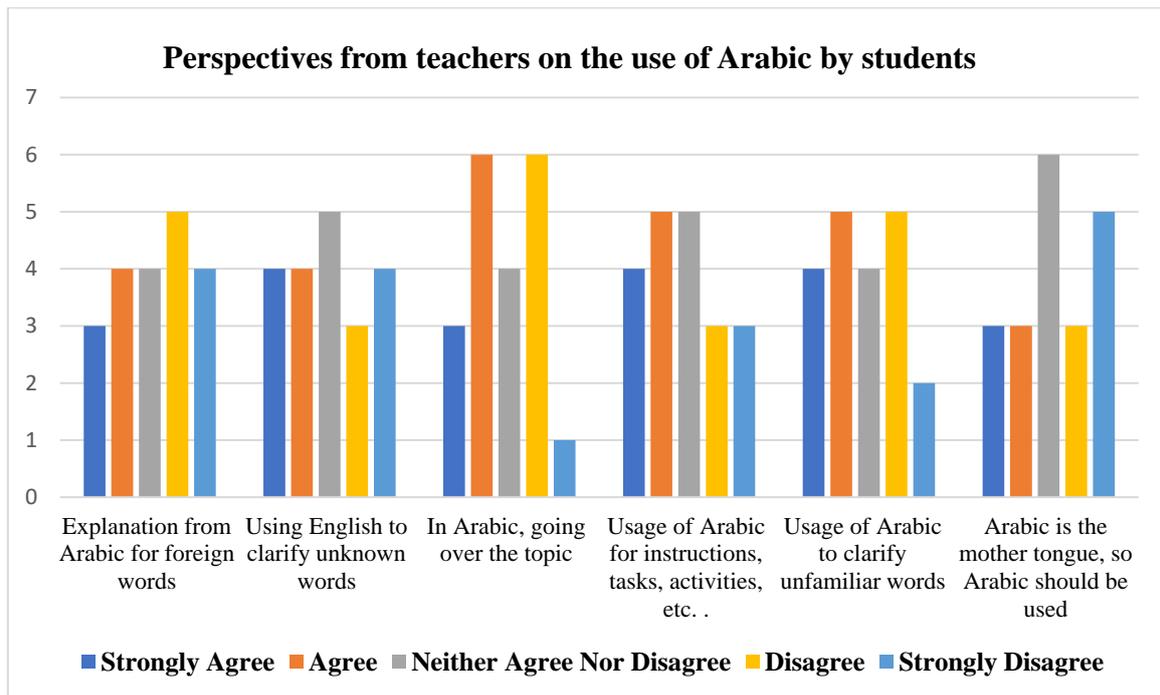
In foreign language classrooms, overwhelmingly most of the teachers (95% strongly agree and agree) had a strong feeling about the idea that students learn English grammar more easily when it is explained in Arabic. Only a few of the teachers were inclined to strongly disagree on the facilitating effect of MT on EFL grammar learning. It is remarkable to note that only 27 % of the teachers agreed on the use of English only, where 53.3% opposed this idea. Similarly, only 20 % of them shared the view that students should never use Arabic. In addition, while 27 percent of teachers had a positive feeling about the use of English-explanatory books, 50 percent opposed this view. What is notable is the fact that most of the teachers endorsed the books with Arabic clarification.

Furthermore, 68 percent of teachers decided that English should be included in group work for students. With regard to the use of English by teachers in foreign language classes, 44 percent of teachers agreed on both the use of Arabic to clarify English words and felt the need to use L1 when learners were unable to grasp the meaning of a foreign phrase. Nonetheless, nearly half of the instructors emphasized that English must be used to clarify unknown terms. Moreover, while 52 percent of teachers said they favored to use English to clarify grammar rules, 60 percent of them disagreed with the suggestion that only English must be used by teachers. More than half (60 percent) of teachers thought that the use of Arabic was a motivational force in the language learning experience of students and the teacher who used Arabic were more inspiring than the instructors who wholly used English. They, therefore,

accepted that the use of Arabic made it easier to learn English and also encouraged it. As a response, the concept of switching between English and Arabic while teaching English has been welcomed by most teachers. Additionally, most teachers were in favor of explaining orders, drills, activities, etc. using the mother tongue. In addition, the belief that the use of Arabic was a waste of time was not shared by a great number of students. It was noticed that going through the topics in Arabic would be helpful and it should not be viewed as a waste of time. The responses to this section are summarized in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2:
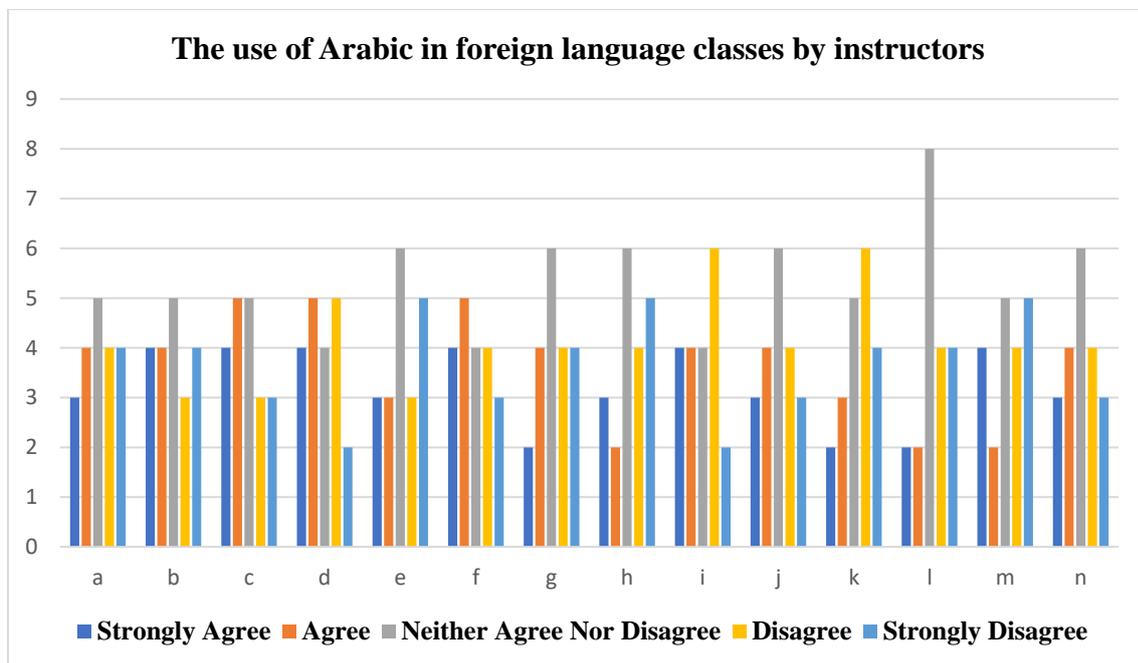
The last segment of the questionnaire aimed to define the reasons for the teachers for using Arabic and what skills they preferred to be used more for (Figure 3). It was found that 40 percent of the teachers 'often' used Arabic to provide the meanings of new words and 35 percent of them used it 'sometimes' to clarify complicated sentence structures and complex conceptual frameworks. Teachers also choose to use L1 to save time (33%) by explaining or defining the points that might cause issues in their programs. In addition, the study found that teachers 'sometimes' used Arabic to lower the amount of fear of students and 'often' (38 percent) to increase the motivation of students. It was observed that Arabic was 'often' (48 percent) used in teaching grammar among all skill sets. A writing course was followed by grammar (30 percent). It was clearly noted that L1 'seldom' (25%) was used for listening and 'never' (33%) for speaking.

One striking point was, however, that some of the teachers pointed out that Arabic should be used 'sometimes' in the speaking course (25 percent). Approximately half of the teachers (46%) indicated that in reading courses they could use L1 'often'. In short, it seems that in general, the teachers had a balanced and eclectic approach to the use of mother tongue in teaching foreign languages. Most seem to take a stance instead of complying with a certain theoretical basis, a realistic and pedagogical role in the teaching of the target language using the mother tongue.

Figure 3:
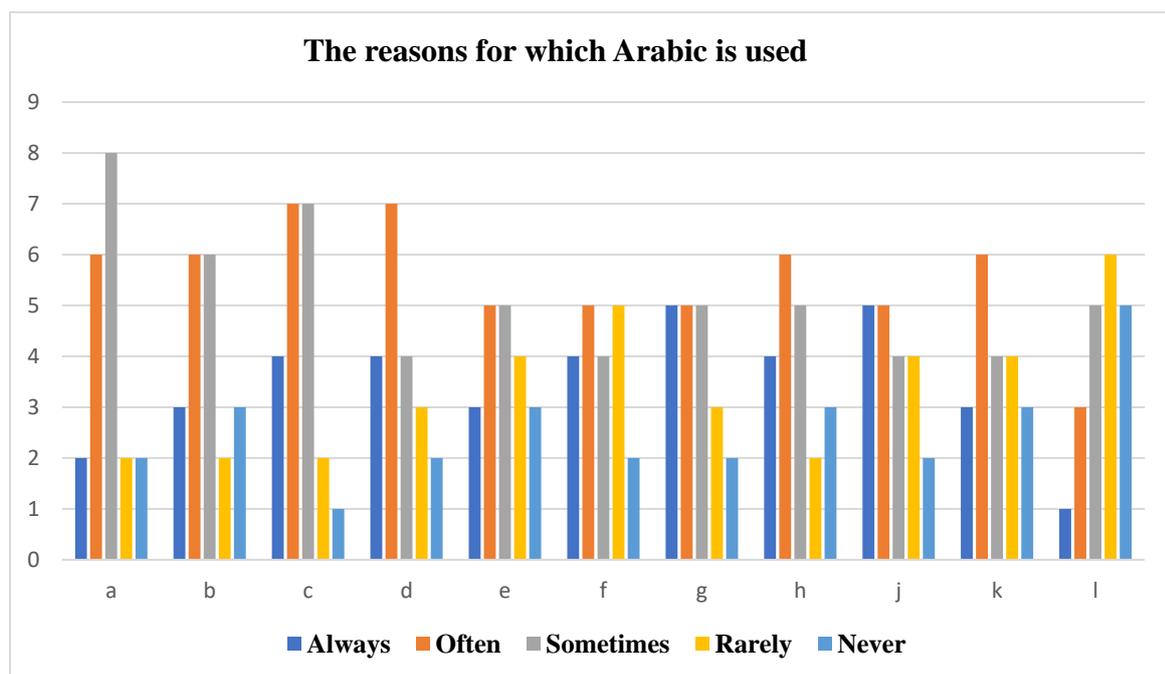
Results of Interviews

The information gathered from interviews was grouped according to questions that loaded onto the same factors. For each question, the responses were evaluated and presented. Certain quotes have been used to reflect the true thoughts of the participants. Not only did the interview reports offer more insight into the matter, but they also helped to verify the conclusions of the quantitative data.

Teachers' L1 Usage

The first issue was regarding the viewpoints of teachers on the use of L1; whether they're in support of or totally opposed to using L1. The interviews revealed that interviewees focused on the need for L1 use by teachers in general in a foreign language classroom. This is in line with the results of the questionnaire that more than half of the teachers (55%) felt that the use

of Arabic was a motivational force in the language learning of students and that the teacher who used Arabic was more inspiring than the teachers who used English only. Most of them, however, agreed on the view that the use of L1 could differ according to the levels of skills and students. Several of the teachers were strict about speaking and listening courses using the target language because they figured that students should be subjected to the use of target languages. The more the students are exposed to the target language, , the more effectively they learn. The same pressure was noted in speaking courses to stop L1 in the study of quantitative results, just 12.5% seemed to have a particular mindset about the use of L1 in conversation classes." As shown in Table 3, the same trend was observed for the listening course. On the other hand, all of the teachers claimed to use L1 in their teaching of grammar courses, and particularly at beginner levels, and they highly advised the use of learners' mother tongue by colleagues. One of the interviewees claimed that if the students are at the initiation phase, there is no need to insist on the use of L2. This also offers further proof that a large number of teachers have been observed using L1 due to a decrease in the level of anxiety of learners when this practice is followed, as shown in Table 3. It is clear that from the very first minutes of the course, this may demotivate students, since students with no experience in L2 may feel anxious, and this could place learners on the fast track to failure. International language teachers should also take into account the side effects of the "philosophy of using L2 entirely" that contributes to psychological strain on the students. In reality, "judicious and principled use" of mother tongue appears an unresolved problem; teachers frequently feel guilty of straying from the teaching direction using only the FL and feel that the use of the MT is professionally unacceptable (Littlewood, Swain & Cummins, 2011; Al-Saggaf & Binti Rusli, 2021). The following sections of the present article address the reasons against and in favor, respectively, of the use of MT in EFL schools.

Changing perceptions over time towards the use of MT

The general tendency in foreign language teaching has been anti-MT for over 120 years and prohibits the use of mother tongue by students in language teaching (Cook, 2001). The core concept of FL teaching was unilingual more than cross-lingual (Cook, 2001). The Direct Approach, which did not promote the use of comprehensive study between the MT and the FL, was the prevalent instruction method, a "sign of respect" was MT-free lessons (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). The translation had pejorative teaching overtones and was often ignored. Even more recent times have findings that suggest that "translation offers an efficient way to increase linguistic understanding" (Cook, 2001). They acknowledged the significance of the

comparative study between the MT and the FL and that the FL is not meant to replace the MT. Recently, this paradigm change to the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis has occurred (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Cummins, 2007) and reveals a supportive approach to the use of MT by teachers in teaching.

In L1 Usage—habits, causes, and objections

Assertions regarding instructors using the MT of learners are largely pedagogically focused, in his answer to Cook (2001), Turnbull (2001) notices that when teachers over-rely on using the MT of their students, students do not benefit, particularly when the EFL teacher is the sole linguistic model and primary source of FL input. Classroom scenarios may produce different experiences by simulations for students, such as real-life situations (McDonald, 1993); if the instructor uses the MT to a large degree, students can miss the opportunity of learning from these scenarios. Moreover, instructors who overuse the MT of their students deny these students an essential language phase in which students attempt to make use of what is said in the classroom (Ellis, 1994). Because of the experiences they obtain in class, the use of FL in class affects the achievements and abilities of students in FL. In relation to pedagogical variables, the structured language pedagogy that prevents the interconnected existence of the MT and the FL is endorsed by adherents of the monolingual theory. They, therefore, consider the introduction of the MT as an inhibitive factor in FL teaching. As expressed in Howatt's (1984) *History of Teaching EFL*, the three principles of the monolingual concept of FL teaching are: (a) FL teaching should be performed solely in the FL; (b) translation between the MT and the FL should be prevented, and (c) the two languages should be kept separate in bilingual education programs.

The second issue taken up in the respondent interviews was about the activities and reasons for using L1 by teachers. They were questioned why and also where they used L1 in their classrooms and where they found the need for L1 and how their use of L1 was justified or likewise. The interviewees stated that L1 improved the skills of students and provided teachers with some benefits, such as simplifying difficult subjects. Some of the instructors illustrated that the use of L1 assisted management of the classroom and warmed up the bond between the students and teachers; they were also in support of using the mother tongue. In addition, some of the teachers said that L1 should be used in order to justify the themes. Two of the interviewees stated that L1 made students feel more relaxed in the EFL environment and enabled them to reduce their levels of stress or to eliminate barriers to anxiety, validating the

responses given in the questionnaire. In addition, some of the teachers argued that the use of L1 encouraged the learning of foreign languages and made it more effective and time-saving.

Where to make use of L1

Four of the interviewees figured out that when guiding their students in classrooms or in oral/written tests, L1 should be used. This finding is in line with the answers provided in Table 2, regarding the use of Arabic for directions, assignments, and exercises in the questionnaire. They claimed that both teachers and students needed to make sure that the whole message was properly conveyed to the students. In addition, some teachers mentioned that L1 should be used to explain the similarities and variations between target language tenses, as well as between the target language and the first language. A few of the teachers reported that L1 should be used to clarify the topics, particularly grammatical items, units, or rules in order to clarify and make them understandable and meaningful for students, justifying the result that 90 percent of the teachers believed that when explained in Arabic, students learned English grammar more easily, incorporating strong agreement. Moreover, some of the teachers claimed that they often brought extra resources to the classroom, such as idioms and proverbs, and teachers used L1 to illustrate and provide their equivalents.

Arguments in favor of the use of student MT in FL classes by teachers

The problem of teacher's use of students' mother tongue in foreign language teaching has been discussed in a number of languages and relates primarily to the hypothesis of linguistic interdependence, fundamental concepts of learning of foreign language, and multi-linguistic models. Transfer experiments between the MT and the FL suggest a linguistic interdependence with multiple subsystems (phonological, syntactic, semantic, and textual) within the MT and FL systems (Jessner & Cenoz, 2000). The principle of cross-linguistic transfer with regard to literacy skills was confirmed by Bouvy (2000).

A variety of psycho-linguistic claims lead to the view that supports the use of MT by teachers:

1. The use of MT by teachers can not pose a challenge to FL acquisition because learners already have a language base from their MT. Because of this base, as they become familiar with the FL, learners are fairly integrated and have more short-term memory ability and more awareness (Cook, 2002) to language learning. Therefore, between their MT and FL, there is no rivalry.

2. The 20th-century belief was that in the brain, the MT and the FL establish distinct structures. Evidence indicates, however, that in vocabulary, grammar, phonology, and pragmatics, languages are interwoven in the brain. FL teaching should therefore match the unseen cognitive processes and should not be isolated from the MT, believing that a natural psycho-linguistic mechanism is the ability to move between languages (code-switch) (Cook, 1996).

3. Cognitive, social, and emotional influences that are inseparable and similarly related to the MT and the FL are part of the process of learning foreign languages. The researchers aim to put a spotlight on the pros and cons of using student MT in EFL classes after elaborating on the reasons against and in favor of MT usage in EFL classes.

Strengths and weaknesses of using L1 in EFL classes

1. It decreases the stress of learners and provides a more relaxing atmosphere for learning,
2. It is a way of getting the cultural context awareness of the learners into the curriculum,
3. It makes it easier to search, understand and offer directions,
4. It enables the task of illustrating the meaning of words or phrases and of explaining the key differences between L1 and L2 in grammar and pronunciation.
5. Usage of L1 provides a sense of comfort and helps to be stress-free for learners.
6. A foreign language friendly asset people carry to the challenge of FL learning.
7. The use of the L1 prevents learners from a sense of dissatisfaction inside their FL learning that they may have.
8. L1 methods enable the use of clearer and more credible texts by teachers, which means more understandable input and faster learning.
9. All-newly-acquired FL items must have roots in our minds that are ultimately deep enough for all the items to function effectively of the L1.

In addition, other benefits can be described below, based on the experience of the researchers, in addition to the above-mentioned benefits given for the use of the students' native language within the classroom in certain circumstances:

✓ It saves a huge amount of time.
✓ Helps illustrate the importance of complicated words.
✓ Avoids the confusion of the new word's context.
✓ Helps clarify the rules for grammar.
✓ Brings a sense of protection and trust.
✓ Offers a greater opportunity to offer more successful guidance.

The reasons put forward by the students to explain the use of the native language within the teaching and learning ESL classroom include:

- ✓ The native language offers a sense of comfort and makes you feel less stressed.
- ✓ They are less confused when they can use both languages.
- ✓ They feel the need to share their ideas and thoughts in their own language.
- ✓ They tend to translate complex terms and contexts.
- ✓ The use of native language in grammar by the instructor is important.

There is, in fact, no hard and fast rule that in English class you should never use your mother tongue and it certainly cannot be ignored as it satisfies certain roles and objectives for the learners.

L1 may also be useful for the preservation of classroom contact. Students express themselves in English in reference to Harbord (1992: 22) when they do not comprehend and when they want to clarify the meaning of a word in L2 and express themselves in English. They state that "students use their L1 to talk to the teacher when they are very unable to express what they mean.

L1 was described by Wharton (2007: 12) as a "time saving device." He also expressed the ideas of Green (1979) and Tudor (1987) that "translation, or use of mother tongue, is often promoted as an effective technique that saves time; supported by ELT professionals" (cited in Wharton, 2007: 12)

Notwithstanding the benefits of using L1, it is nevertheless suggested that there are risks of overusing mother tongue in foreign language classrooms. Overusing L1 leads to less use of L2. The learners believe that their mother tongue is relying on them. Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney (2008) argued that "students tend to lose confidence in using the L2 without continuous L2 input and, as a result, lose interest in or are excluded from participating in future L2 efforts" (cited in Jones, 2010).

Atkinson (1987) highlighted the following overuse concerns:

1. The teacher and/or the students start feeling that until it has been translated, they have not "really" understood any language aspect.
2. The distinctions between equivalence of form, semantic equivalence, and pragmatic features are not observed by the teacher and/or students and are thus oversimplified to the point of using blunt and incorrect translation.
3. In the mother tongue, students talk to the instructor as a matter of routine, even though they are very confident of voicing what they say.

4. Students fail to understand that it is important that they can only use English during several classroom activities.

Promoting L2 usage

Teachers need to use a variety of choices to allow learners to use L2 as much as possible in classes where learners all share the same first language or national language (Nation, 2003). The following selection of choices is based on the assumption that when L2 should be used, there are many explanations of why learners use L1. These factors include low L2 competence, the naturalness of using the L2 to do some work, the nervousness of using the L2 or having a matter of interest in learning the L2. Here are some of the approaches to deal with these barriers to the use of L2.

1. Select achievable tasks that justify the competence of the learners.
2. Adopt pre-teaching of the language items and skills prepare the required materials for learners.
3. Use staged and graded assignments that get learners up to the required level.
4. Get learners to assume to be speakers of English.
5. Render L2 an inevitable part of the assignment. The use of the L2 is all needed for retelling events, strip stories, completion tasks, and role-plays.
6. Repeat assignments to promote them.
7. Inform students of the learning objectives of each assignment so that they can see how the use of the L2 can support them accomplish a specific short-term learning objective.
8. Talk about the importance of using L2 in class with the learners.
9. Get students to explore the reasons for resisting the use of L2 and get them to propose ways to promote the use of L2.
10. To alert learners to use the L2, organized a tracking system. This can mean giving one learner in each group the task of reminding others to use the L2 in group work speaking duties.
11. Using tasks that are non-threatening. Learners should select their own classes, the instructor can stay out of the groups, encourage students to plan well for the assignments, do not use assignments that place students in awkward positions, select interesting subjects that are not threatening.

If promoting L2 use is an issue, it may be appropriate to use any of these various solutions. These solutions include a variety of approaches to performance, and cognition, and can thus be viewed complementary rather than substitutes.

English and L1 are in competition with each other in several countries, with the use of English growing at the cost of L1. Instructors need to show reverence for the L1 of the learners and stop doing stuff that makes the L1 look weaker to English. At the same time, it is the responsibility of the Instructor to help learners improve their English language proficiency. Therefore, a stable approach is required that provides a position for L1 but also acknowledges the importance of optimizing the use of L2 in the classroom.

Discussion

While there is still debate on whether L1 should be permitted in classrooms of foreign languages, it was not possible to disregard its pragmatic and practical advantages. It can be shown that instructors appear to delegate distinct positions to L1 in the foreign language learning environment at Qassim University when the results of the present study are discussed. In the sense that this code-switching could benefit both sides, namely instructors and learners, most of the participants are seen to have positive attitudes towards the use of Arabic when it comes to teaching English. The outcomes of quantitative and qualitative data show that instructors take a positive approach towards incorporating L1 into their classes, noting that Arabic promotes one's own teaching, especially early-stage grammar and vocabulary, providing understandable directions, creating a welcoming and motivating atmosphere in the classroom. Most of the participants were seen to express the opinion that Arabic is a supplementary device for language classes, claiming that the extent of its use changes according to the level of language skills and learners. In particular, early-stage grammar teaching requires the inclusion of L1 in the event that students do not completely understand certain complex points that can contribute to the development of barriers to anxiety in language learning. These results are in accordance with the finding of a large number of scholars in the field. The results of the interviews and questionnaires of the current study related to the idea that the use of L1 supports learners well, especially beginner learners, affirm the results of Kim and Petraki (2009), who discovered that the use of L1 transformed reading and writing tasks into achievable pieces of language work for beginner-level students. Among the participants, there was almost agreement that the use of L1 for the teaching of grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing is important, although its use for speaking and listening lessons is not appropriate. These results are in accordance with the suggestion of studies, such as Giannikas (2011),and

so on, who noticed that systematic employment of L1 in foreign language classes can resolve a large number of problems from course content to an active dimension. Finally, the outcomes that contribute to the profile of instructors using L1 are worth presenting in that they show that a change from keeping an English-only policy to an appropriate and non-random L1 use on a spectrum of L1-L2 use is prevalent.

Conclusions

For a long time, the use of the mother tongue in the language classroom has been a controversial issue since the prevalent use of the target language has long been recognized as a significant second language (L2) learning concept. For a long time, the use of the native language in EFL classes has been debated. One of the issues instructors often face with learners whom all have the same native language is that they use their native language to handle classroom activities rather than English. This could be because they want something important to express, and so they use words in the best way they believe. They would almost definitely find it much easier to speak in their language than to struggle with English. The instructor tends to be the primary source of language input, according to this ideology, and is thus accountable for optimizing its use in the classroom. So, during the heydays of Direct and Audio-lingual approaches, rejection of the L1 is/ was correlated with good teaching. The decision on the standard of a foreign language instructor is also connected to his/her willingness to do the entire course in the target language. The associated literature suggests that recently, a number of figures have frequently articulated the idea of its systemic and appropriate employment, suggesting that its non-random incorporation into language instruction will lead to a variety of advantages extending from academic to affective fields.

The results of the current study have shown that instructors are conscious of their potential benefits of the use of MT in the language classroom, and it is possible that the more skilled they are in their field, the more willing they are to actively employ it in their language teaching. The research is seen as supporting some of the previous studies both around the world and in Saudi Arabia, but it does not yet tell the whole story as it aims at the exploration of a small range of university instructors' behaviors and attitudes. The agreement between the participants and their experiences, however, may indicate that its systematic usage in the field of teaching languages may serve as a supplementary tool for both instructors and learners. In educational terminology, teaching a foreign language without relation to the mother tongue of the learners and, by implication, their mother culture is ironic. Being in a stronger place in all situations, instructors should objectively evaluate their own meaning and reasoning for their own teaching

strategies and justification. Instead of half-heartedly or blindly adhering to an assumption, they need to make well-informed, practical choices regarding the use of the L1.

References

Al-Ahdal, A. A. M. H. (2020). Translanguagism and the bilingual EFL learner of Saudi Arabia: Exploring new Vistas. *Asian EFL Journal*, *27*(1), 14-26.

Al-Hinai, M. K. (2011), "The Use of the L1 in the Elementary English Language Classroom". Retrieved April 2, 2014, from: http://www.moe.gov.om/Portal/sitebuilder/sites/EPS/English/MOE/baproject/Ch2.pdf

Al-Saggaf, M. A., & Binti Rusli, Z. A. N. . (2021). Investigating the types of motivation of TESL students in a higher education institute in Malaysia. *TESOL and Technology Studies*, *1*(1), 55–69. https://doi.org/10.48185/tts.v1i1.105

Atkinson, D. (1987), "The mother tongue in the classroom: a neglected resource?" *ELT Journal, 41*(4): 241-247., https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/41.4.241

Bouvy, C. (2000). *Towards the construction of a theory of cross-linguistic transfer*. In J. Cenoz & U. Jessner (Eds.), English in Europe: The acquisition of a third language (pp. 143-155). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Butzkamm, W. & Caldwell, J. (2009). *The bilingual reform: A paradigm shift in foreign language teaching*. Tübingen, Germany: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Cenoz, J. & Jessner, U. (2000). English in Europe: The acquisition of a third language. In book (Vol. 19). Multilingual Matters: *International Handbook of English Language Teaching* (pp.155-167)

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th.ed.). Routledge Publishers (part of the Taylor & Francis group), Oxford, UK

Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 57(3), p. 402-423.

Cook, V. J. (1996). *Second language learning and language teaching* (2nd ed.). London, England: Edward Arnold.

Cook, V. J. (Ed.). (2002). *Portraits of the L2 user*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Copland, F., & Neokleous, G. (2011). L1 to teach L2: Complexities and contradictions. *ELT Journal*, 65(3), 270-280. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccq047 .

Cummins, J. (2007). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *10*(2), 221–240. Retrieved fromhttps://journals.lib.unb. ca/index.php/CJAL/article/view/19743

De La Campa, J.C. and Nassaji, H. (2009), The amount, purpose, and reasons for using L1 in L2 classrooms. *Foreign Language Annals*, *42*: 742-759. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.2009.01052.x

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Giannikas, C. N. (2011). L1 in English language learning: A research study in a Greek regional context. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics.* *21*(3), 319-339 https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2011.00282.x

Gulzar, M. A. (2010). Code-switching: Awareness about its utility in bilingual classrooms. Bulletin of Education and Research, 32(2), 23-44.

Harbord, J. (1992). The use of the mother tongue in the classroom, *ELT Journal*, *46*(4), 350–355, https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/46.4.350

Herdina, P., & Jessner, U. (2002). A dynamic model of multilingualism: Perspectives of change in psycholinguistics. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

Howatt, A. (1984). *A history of English language teaching*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Janulevičienė, V., & Kavaliauskienė, G. (2002). Promoting the fifth skill in teaching ESP. *English for Specific Purposes World*, *1*(2), 1-6.

Januleviciene, V., Kavaliauskiene, G. (2002). *Promoting the fifth skill in teaching English for Specific Purposes World*, *1*(2), 1-6.

Jones, H. (2010). First language communication in the second language classroom: A valuable or damaging resource?" Retrieved April 2, 2014, from:http://nativelanguageuse.weebly.com/uploads/4/0/4/5/4045990/roleofnativ ela nguage.pdf.

Kahraman, A. (2009). The role of the mother tongue in fostering affective factors in ELT classrooms. *Journal of English as an International Language*, 5, 107-128.

Kellerman, E. (1995). Cross-linguistic influence: Transfer to nowhere? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 15, 125–150.

Kim, Y., & Petraki, E. (2009). Students` and teachers` use of and attitudes to L1 in the EFL classroom. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*,*11*(4), 58–89.

Krashen, S., 1981. *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Larsen-Freeman, D. & Anderson, M. (2011). *Techniques and principles in language teaching* (3rd ed). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Littlewood, W. & Yu, B. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, *44*(1), 64-77. doi:10.1017/S0261444809990310

Macaro, E. (2001). Analysing student teachers' codeswitching in foreign language classrooms: Theories and decision making. *Modern Language Journal*, 85(4), 531-548.

McDonald, C. (1993). *Using the target language*. Cheltenham, UK: Mary Glasgow.

McMillan, B., & Rivers, D. J. (2011). The practice of policy: Teacher attitudes toward "English only". *System*, 39(2), 251-263. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2011.04.011 .

Mitchell, R. (1988). *Communicative language teaching in practice.* London: CILT.

Nation, P. (2003). The role of first language in foreign language teaching. The Asian EFL Journal, *5*(2), 1-8.

Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. (2002). *Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*

Robson, C. (1993). *Real world research: A resource for social scientists and practitioner-researchers*. Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell Inc.

Rolin-Ianziti, J. & Varshney, R. (2008). Students' views regarding the use of the first language: An exploratory tudy in a tertiary context maximizing target language use. *Canadian Modern Language Review/ La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes 65*(2). 249-273

Sampson, A. (2011). Learner code-switching versus English only. *ELT Journal*, *66*(3), 293-303. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr067

Scott, V., & de la Fuente, M. J. (2008). What's the problem? L2 learners' use of the L1 during consciousness-raising, form-focused tasks. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(1), 100-113. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00689.x

Storch, N., & Wigglesworth, G. (2003). Is there a role for the use of the L1 in an L2 setting? *TESOL Quarterly*, 37, 760-770. http://www.jstor.org/stable/3588224?origin=JSTOR-pdf

Swain, M. & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: the uses of the first *language. Language Teaching Research, 4* (3), 251-274. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F136216880000400304

Swain, M., Kirkpatrick, A., & Cummins, J. (2011). How to have a guilt-free life using Cantonese in the English class: A handbook for the English language teacher in Hong Kong. Hong Kong: Research Center into Language Acquisition and Education in Multilingual Societies, Hong Kong Institute of Education.

Turnbull, M. (2001). There is a role for the L1 in second and foreign language teaching, but…? *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *57*(4), 531-535. https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.4.531

Weschler, R. (1997). Uses of Japanese (L1) in the English classroom: Introducing the functional translation method. *The Internet TESL Journal, 3*(11), 1-12.

Wharton, C. (2007), "Informed Use of the Mother Tongue in the English Language Classroom". Retrieved April 2, 2014, from: http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/ Documents/college- arts law/cels/ essays/second language/ wharton-p-grammar.pdf.

Appendix A

Using Mother Tongue Diagnostic Test

Perspectives from teachers on the use of Arabic by students

The Questionnaire for Teachers:

1. In Arabic, students learn English grammar more quickly.

2. Only English should be used by students.

3. Students should choose books with descriptions in English.

4. Arabic can never be used by students.

5. Students should choose books with explanations in Arabic.

6. In collaborative works, students should speak English.

Appendix B

Using Mother Tongue Diagnostic Test

The use of Arabic in foreign language classes by instructors

The Questionnaire for Teachers:

1. Explanation from Arabic for foreign words

2. Using English to clarify unknown words

3. In Arabic, going over the topic

4. Usage of Arabic for instructions, tasks, activities, etc.

5. Usage of Arabic to clarify unfamiliar words

6. Arabic is the mother tongue, so Arabic should be used

7. The use of Arabic makes learning English simpler.

8. In English, you would like to clarify grammar rules

9. Teachers can only use English.

10. Teachers who use Arabic are more supportive than teachers who use English.

11. The use of Arabic makes it difficult to study English.

12. It is confusing to switch between English and Arabic

13. The usage of Arabic is a wasting of time

14. A key factor is the use of Arabic.

Appendix C

Using Mother Tongue Diagnostic Test

The reasons for which Arabic is used

The Questionnaire for Teachers:

1. For new words and phrases

2. For complicated structures of sentences

3. For complicated concepts

4. In order to obtain general knowledge of the course,

5. To generate motivation

6. To prevent wasting time

7. To minimize stress

8. For a lesson in grammar

9. For the course of reading

10. For the course of writing

11. For the Listening class

12. For the Speaking course

Does Teacher Feedback Mode Matter for Language Students?

Murad Abdu Saeed Mohammed

Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at the English Department, Unaizah College of Sciences and Arts, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

mur.mohammed@qu.edu.my

murad.mohammed13@yahoo.com

Bio-profile:

Dr Murad Abdu Saeed was a lecturer at University of Malaya, Malaysia. Currently, he is an Assistant Professor in Department of English, Unaizah College of Sciences and Arts, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. Dr. Murad Saeed is well-published in Applied Linguistics, with lots of papers published in Scopus-indexed and WOS-indexed journals of high esteem and great repute. His research interests include EFL Writing, Educational Technology in Writing and Peer and Teacher Feedback.

Abstract

As one of the more challenging language skills in EFL, teachers' feedback for learners' writing holds great significance. However, as significant as the immediacy and relevance of the feedback is the mode of its communication to ensure that the learners are able to make optimum use of it in improving their weaknesses. This makes it imperative to seek an investigation of learners' needs and preferences of feedback mode to ensure efficacy of feedback in writing. Therefore, the current study aimed to explore and evaluate four modes of feedback: oral, electronic (e-) written, audio and screencast used in a writing course at Qassim University. To understand the effectiveness of these four modes from learners' perspectives, the data was collected from an e-survey of 28 students and a follow-up group interview of 16 students. Results showed that students' preferences for feedback modes vary according to certain affordances and limitations of each feedback mode. Their perception of the effectiveness of feedback modes was found to be shaped by comprehensibility, multimodality, interactivity and

specificity of feedback as well as other factors such as, revision settings, devices to access the feedback, internet connection, learners' knowledge of genre and errors, previous experience as well as individual differences in learning styles. The study provides useful implications for combining different modes in enhancing teacher feedback delivery and its effectiveness in writing courses, the application of which in turn, can ensure greater learning satisfaction leading to better learning outcomes.

Keywords: Teacher feedback, Feedback modes, Multimodal feedback, Students' perspectives

Introduction

Feedback refers to evaluative information given by teachers or instructors on students' performance in a particular learning domain (Tavakoli & Zarrinabadi, 2018). Specifically, in English as second/foreign language (ES/EFL) writing, teacher feedback refers to their responses to students' writing. The mode of feedback delivery, how to provide feedback to students, has attracted the attention of many scholars, researchers and practitioners (Chong,2019). Traditionally, teachers used to provide and some still provide feedback on students' writing in the form of hand-written comments and or in the form of oral comments in face-to-face (FTF) settings (Sheen,2010; Sobhani & Tayebipour,2015). Yet, both modes of feedback delivery are challenging for writing teachers because they require a great deal of work and time (Nurmukhamedov, 2009; Xu & Peng, 2017). Although dialogic feedback is effective, it may be seriously challenging for teachers especially in classes of high numbers of students (Carruthers et al., 2015; Orsmond et al., 2013).

In view of the above-mentioned issues and burdens in feedback practices, teachers in higher education need to re-think of how to make a good use of technologies in supporting writing assessment and feedback (Carruthers et al.,2015). The increasing potentials of technology in writing assessment, including feedback, have widened the options for teachers to deliver feedback starting from inserting written comments in Microsoft word files and or Google Docs to writing in boxes as replies to students' writing in blogs, forums and blackboard discussions (Chong,2019; Ene & Upton,2018). Teachers can also provide feedback in audio format inserted in MS and Google Docs (Chong,2019) or voice messages distributed to students through chat and messaging tools (Hennessy & Forrester, 2014; Xu & Peng, 2017). Teacher feedback can be also delivered through screencast recordings which make students' written texts visible and enable a combination of both visual and auditory mediums in feedback delivery (Cunningham, 2019).

Despite these potentials, the process of feedback provision is getting more complicated as teachers should be careful in technology selection and take into account students' perception of the affordances and limitations of these multiple feedback modes (Nurmukhamedov,2009). Such perception of teacher feedback delivered through multiple modes is important (Elola & Oskoz, 2016; Ene & Upton, 2018). While some students may feel comfortable to receive audio feedback from teachers, others may prefer to receive written feedback (Nurmukhamedov, 2009). So, learners' perceptions and preferences are indicatives of their willingness and interest in receiving feedback through certain modes. Although many studies have been conducted on this research topic, most of the reviewed studies have explored a combination of two different modes of feedback from students' perspectives. To the researcher's best of knowledge, there are three studies that have combined three modes of teacher feedback from students' perspectives: screencast, audio and written (Bakla,2020; Espasa, Mayordomo, Guasch, & Martinez-Melo, 2019; McCarthy,2015). Yet, these two studies did not take into account the oral feedback mode. Recently, researchers have argued that oral dialogic feedback is effective in engaging learners in negotiation and comprehension of teacher feedback (Adie et al.,2018; Merkel, 2018; Nicol, 2010; Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017).

In addition, what makes this study important is that despite the importance of students' roles as key participants in formative assessment practices, how feedback practices are evaluated from students' perspectives has been under-investigated (Bader et al., 2019). Research indicates that integration of innovative digital tools in feedback practices writing may turn out to challenging for students or disliked by them due to their previous experience in receiving feedback from teachers (Bakla,2020). This suggests the need to explore students' voices and reflections on such practices implemented by teachers in writing courses. Such study is an evaluative research on teacher feedback modalities from students' perspectives and voices. Therefore, focusing on students' evaluative views on four modes of teacher feedback: oral FTF, e-written, audio and screencast in a graduate writing course in a public Saudi university over an academic semester, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. How do learners' preferences for feedback vary across the four modes of feedback used in the writing course?
2. What are the main factors that shape students' perceived effectiveness of feedback modes?

Literature review

Affordances of feedback modes from students' perspectives

Oral feedback in writing classrooms has been studied for decades and described as the most affective type of teacher response to students' writing (Li & Vuono, 2019). There are several studies that have compared teacher oral feedback and written feedback (e.g., Sheen,2010; Sobhani & Tayebipour, 2015). Yet, most of these studies have focused on the effect of both modes of feedback on students' writing. They have neglected how students perceive such two modes of teacher feedback. In other words, most of previous research on students' perception of either teacher oral or written feedback has often mixed with perception of other aspects of language learning courses where the feedback was provided by teachers (Li & Vuono,2019). This suggests the need for exploring the two modes from students' perspectives in writing courses without having to delve into other components of assessments and features of feedback.

Owing to the increasing applications of technologies in writing instruction and assessment, including feedback in particular, recently, researchers have paid attention to audio and written feedback as two digital modes from students' perspectives. Most of this research has provided evidence on students' preference for audio feedback over written feedback. There are several affordances of audio feedback that make it preferable for students: conveying more detailed information or instruction and more elaborative comments on students' tasks (Hennessy & Forrester, 2014;Gould and Day 2013; King et al., 2008; Lunt & Curran, 2010; Parkes & Fletcher, 2019), its clarity (Hennessy & Forrester, 2014; King et al. 2008; Parkes & Fletcher, 2017,2019; Voelkel & Mello, 2014) and understandability or easily understandable (Hennessy & Forrester, 2014; Gould & Day, 2013; Rodway-Dyer et al., 2011; Parkes & Fletcher, 2019). Clarity of audio feedback was highly perceived by students in a few studies owing to the poor quality of written feedback, especially hand-written feedback (e.g.Lunt & Curran,2010).What makes audio feedback more understandable than written feedback is its combination of the teacher's voice tone (Parkes & Fletcher, 2019) and use of simple spoken words (Hennessy & Forrester, 2014) that enable learners to get the intended messages of teacher feedback.

Other features underlying students' preference for the audio mode are the effectiveness of feedback in addressing strengths and weaknesses in students' tasks (Parkes & Fletcher, 2017), the higher amount of feedback compared to written feedback (Parkes & Fletcher, 2017;Voelkel & Mello, 2014) and the friendly and personal nature of such feedback as implicated by teachers' addressing of students' names and use of less critical language (Hennessy & Forrester,2014; King et al., 2008; Parkes & Fletcher,2017;2019). Audio feedback

is also easily accessible (Gould and Day 2013; King et al., 2008) and referable (King et al., 2008).

In contrary, findings of other studies support students' preference for digital written feedback over audio feedback. In a previous study (Olesova et al.,2011), the majority of students hold preference for written feedback because of its visual support-words as well as the easiness involved in referring to it when revising their written texts (Johnson & Cooke, 2016). The clarity of e-feedback as opposed to hand-written feedback may prevent students from viewing audio feedback clearer than written feedback (Fawcett & Oldfield, 2016).

Recently, researchers have also started to look at the screencast mode, which is a software that captures a computer screen with the instructor's voice. Studies have shown that screencast is perceived by students to be more efficient for it is clearer to follow (Cunningham, 2019) and more understandable or comprehensible (Cunningham, 2019; Harper et al., 2018). These studies have also attributed students' perceived advantages of screencast feedback to the multimodal affordances of the screencast capture technology used by teachers in video recording their feedback. These affordances include listening to instructors' voices, watching the texts displayed in the video (Cunningham, 2019; Harper et al., 2018) and seeing the parts of the texts where errors are located (Cunningham, 2019). As a result, students highly recognize the role of screencast feedback in promoting their retention and uptake of feedback (Cunningham, 2019).

Other perceived benefits of screencast feedback are the detailed or elaborative comments (Özkul & Ortactepe, 2017) and more explicit or explanatory comments, such as explanations, clarifications and elaborations (Cunningham, 2019). Research also indicates that screencast feedback is preferred by most students because of its personal nature –that is the use of spoken words that foster teacher-learner interpersonal relationships (Cunningham, 2019; Harper et al., 2018; Özkul & Ortactepe, 2017).

Mixed results were reported by Elola and Oskoz (2016) and Silva (2012). According to Elola and Oskoz (2016), although students described teacher written feedback as more explicit or direct and more specific (pointing at specific errors), they viewed screencast feedback as conversational and more explanatory. Silva (2012) also found that students who preferred video feedback pointed at its conversational nature, clarifications of issues in writing and detailed discussions on macro-level issues in writing such as content and ideas and organization. Yet, students holding preference for written feedback pointed at its focus on local issues such as grammar and its indexical quality or pointing at the specific locations of errors in the text.

Recently, researchers have begun to explore multiple modes (more than two modes) in teacher feedback delivery. For instance, McCarthy (2015) reported that students preferred screencast feedback over written and audio feedback because of its value in highlighting students' strengths and weaknesses in written assignments. Despite their appreciation of the instructor's voice in the audio feedback, students rated screencast as more efficient for its combined auditory and visual clues. Audio feedback was seen more effective than written feedback owing to its details, the availability of teacher's voice and the personal nature of the language used in delivering feedback. As reported by Espasa et al. (2019), students showed varying preferences for the three modes as audio and video modes were preferred in terms of comprehensibility of feedback, and their preference for video feedback was due to their perceived dialogic nature of video feedback although such dialogues did not actually take place between teachers and students, but rather the teacher's oral talk in the video records appeared dialogic or conversational.

According to Bakla (2020), students' preference for a particular feedback mode is argued to rely upon practicality, effectiveness, comprehensibility, multimodality, interactivity/dialogue and teacher social presence. The researcher also established links among those constructs from students' follow-up interviews. For instance, multimodality was an important factor behind students' preference for screencast feedback because it increased their comprehensibility of the feedback on their writing. Audio and written feedback modes were perceived more practical as they pointed at specific issues/errors. However, audio and video feedback modes were preferred for increasing students' feelings of teacher social presence.

Limitations of feedback modes from students' perspectives

Despite the above-mentioned benefits of each mode, each mode has its limitations that may affect students' perception of teacher feedback. For instance, Elola and Oskoz (2016) reported that students sometimes described written feedback unclear and impersonal. Audio feedback was perceived to be more difficult to understand because of its lacking visual clues (Bakla 2020; Parkes & Fletcher, 2019) and the difficulty in relating each feedback point to its error in students' texts (King et al., 2018). Audio feedback turned out to be more difficult as students had to re-play and re-listen to it several times when revising their texts (Voelkel & Mello, 2014), and therefore, it was seen as time-consuming (Parkes & Fletcher, 2019; Rodway-Dyer et al., 2011).

For screencast feedback, it was not easy for students to refer to it several times because of its large volume (Bakla,2020) and therefore, it took much of their time to watch it (Özkul & Ortactepe, 2017). According to Silva (2012), video feedback is not without challenging issues,

including the poor quality of audio in the video file and the mismatch between the audio/voice and visual output. Therefore, the researcher concluded by suggesting a dual approach to teacher feedback that combines both written and video feedback.

To sum up the above literature, most studies have compared between two different modes of feedback from students' perspectives. Moreover, results of some studies demonstrate students' preference of a particular feedback mode over another mode, whereas results of some other studies appear mixed and show students' varying preferences for each mode depending on several important factors. Finally, this latter group of studies with mixed results suggest the need for combining multiple modes in delivering teacher feedback to students. This has motivated the researcher to explore the use of four modes of feedback in a writing course over a semester from students' perspectives.

Methods

Research design

The present study used a mixed method approach to data collection and analysis. Specifically, the study used a sequential explanatory mixed method that focuses on quantitative data collection and then qualitative data to enrich the issue (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Combining both quantitative and qualitative data, this approach is effective in obtaining detailed information about the effectiveness of feedback modes from students' perspectives (Bakla, 2020). So this study was initiated by administering an e-survey to 28 students and then, a follow-up group interview of 16 students was conducted.

Study setting and participants

The present study was carried out among 30 first-year male students joining the English department at a public Saudi university. The students were joining a writing course that aims to introduce students to paragraph writing of different genres: descriptive, narrative, process and argumentative paragraphs. As the course instructor, the researcher normally assigns students (individually and in pairs) to four writing tasks during the semester, which are graded out of 20 marks as part of the assessment. However, to maximize the benefits of these writing tasks and minimize the challenges faced by students in writing, the instructor usually engages students in both peer and teacher feedback activities. In this study, the peer writing and teacher feedback activities covered 6 weeks in addition to three weeks for the e-survey and follow-up interviews. The activities covered students' peer of writing of each genre, submission of the

first drafts, receiving teacher feedback through a particular mode of the four modes and revising and submitting the final drafts.

The study procedure

The feedback was recorded and provided to students using different digital tools. The oral feedback sessions were hold in the classroom during a three-hour lecture, and each pair was involved in a short dialogic meeting of almost 10 minutes with the instructor. The conversation was recorded by the instructor through mobile. However, the audio and video feedback was recorded at home using mobile recording and the Bandicam capture software, respectively, with the latter using a laptop. Then, as shown in Figure 1, the audio and video feedback was shared to the WhatsApp group where learners accessed it during the next class for revising their drafts (See Image 1 & 2). Finally, the written feedback was provided on students' narrative first drafts in the blackboard discussions using the reply function (Image 3).
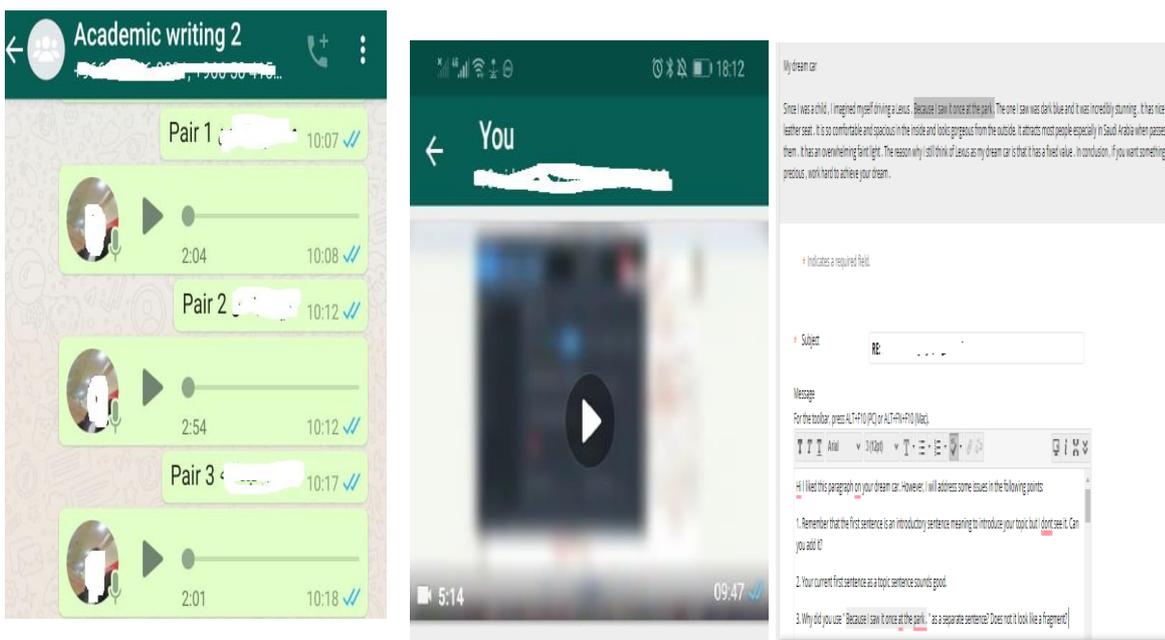
Figure 1. Screenshots of audio, screencast and written feedback modes

Data collection

The data was collected from an e-survey and a follow-up interview. Prior to collection, the students were given a consent and informed of their voluntary participation and assured that the data will be confidential and for research purposes. The survey designed based on the literature review consists of 7 clusters of closed and open questions. While the closed question

was responded to by students by selecting one of the four feedback modes, the open question was answered by providing a comment that justifies the respondent's choice in the previous closed question. Thus, the survey focused on students' preferences for feedback mode in general, comprehensibility of feedback mode, elaboration, error-noticing, specificity, usefulness for editing and whether the feedback is personal or not. The survey was distributed to the students during the seventh week. Since their participation was voluntary, only 28 of the students took part in the survey. As the survey was short, it was initially analyzed during the same week in order to develop questions for the follow-up interviews.

The follow-up interview was conducted among 16 students based on their self-selection and willingness to be interviewed. As a group interview, each eight students were interviewed in a different day. Each meeting lasted for two hours. It was conducted by one of the colleagues based on pre-designed questions given by the instructor. The interviewer was also free to ask other questions during the interview based on his knowledge of the research topic and in responding to the emergent needs during the interview sessions. So the interview aimed to obtain more enriching data on students' perception of the affordances and limitations of each feedback mode as well as the major factors that shape students' perceived effectiveness of the feedback modes. The interviews were recorded and later the audio files were shared with the course instructor.

Data analysis

The responses to the closed questions of the survey were analyzed using an SPSS software program. Only the percentage of students who selected each mode in each question was calculated. For their responses to the open questions of the survey and questions of the interviews, they were organized and imported to the Nvivo software for iterative thematic analyses. At this stage, the responses were assigned to codes, and then the codes were compared, interpreted and synthesized or grouped into themes based on the literature review, survey and study context. Several themes with definitions and sample quotes extracted from the data identified are presented in Appendix 1. Moreover, counts (C) (how many students talked about the theme in relation to a particular feedback mode) and references (R) (how many times this theme appears in the data) of each theme were calculated (Appendix 2). However, segments of responses given by students about the feedback in general and without relating to a particular mode were excluded. In addition, the factors shaping students' perceived effectiveness of feedback modes were identified and discussed in details in the finding section. The interview was coded by two independent researchers: the author and another postdoctoral

researcher. They had several online discussions through video conferencing and shared their coded data using Google drive for comparing and resolving disagreements till reaching almost 95.9% of agreement.

Findings

Students' preferences of feedback modes

The results of students' responses to the e-survey are presented in Table 1. In general, most of the participants preferred oral, screencast and written feedback over audio feedback. Results demonstrate that students' preferences vary depending on several constructs. The oral feedback was preferred by most students in terms of comprehensibility and its role in error-noticing. Like oral feedback, audio feedback was seen as more personal than other modes. Both written and oral feedback modes were preferred for being specific and useful in error editing. The screencast feedback was selected by most of students in regards to its detailed information, error-noticing and comprehensibility.

Table 1. Results of the e-survey

Constructs	Oral	Written	Audio	Screencast
General preference	28%	25%	21%	26%
Comprehensibility	32%	16%	21%	31%
Elaborations	16%	21%	31%	32%
Error-noticing	36%	11%	15%	38%
Specificity	32%	37%	15%	16%
Useful for editing	38%	10%	16%	36%
Personal	37%	5%	37%	21%

The analysis of the qualitative data elaborated the above results and further identified the affordances and limitations of each feedback mode as illustrated in Figure 1. By referring to Appendix (1 & 2), first, the majority of learners in the group interview talked about their preferences for screencast and oral feedback modes with an emphasis on its comprehensibility:" I think the video feedback is good because it was easy understand". As learners could see their texts in the videos and also listen to the instructor's voice, the feedback was more understandable: "I could understand the video feedback because it has a voice and also a picture". Similarly, in the oral feedback sessions, learners understood the feedback because of the spontaneous teacher-learner interactions in the classroom: "In face to face, I understood better as we had a conversation with the doctor so I was able to ask him immediately and get his reply when I didn't get the feedback".

Screencast

Comprehensible

Error-noticing

Elaborative

Global revisions

Audio-visual blurry

Audio

Elaborative

Global revision

Ambiguous

Inconvenient

Non-interactive

Preferences

Written

Specific

Local revisions

Clear

Convenient

Non-interactive

Oral

Dialogic/interactive

Comprehensible

Specific

Error detecting

Local revisions
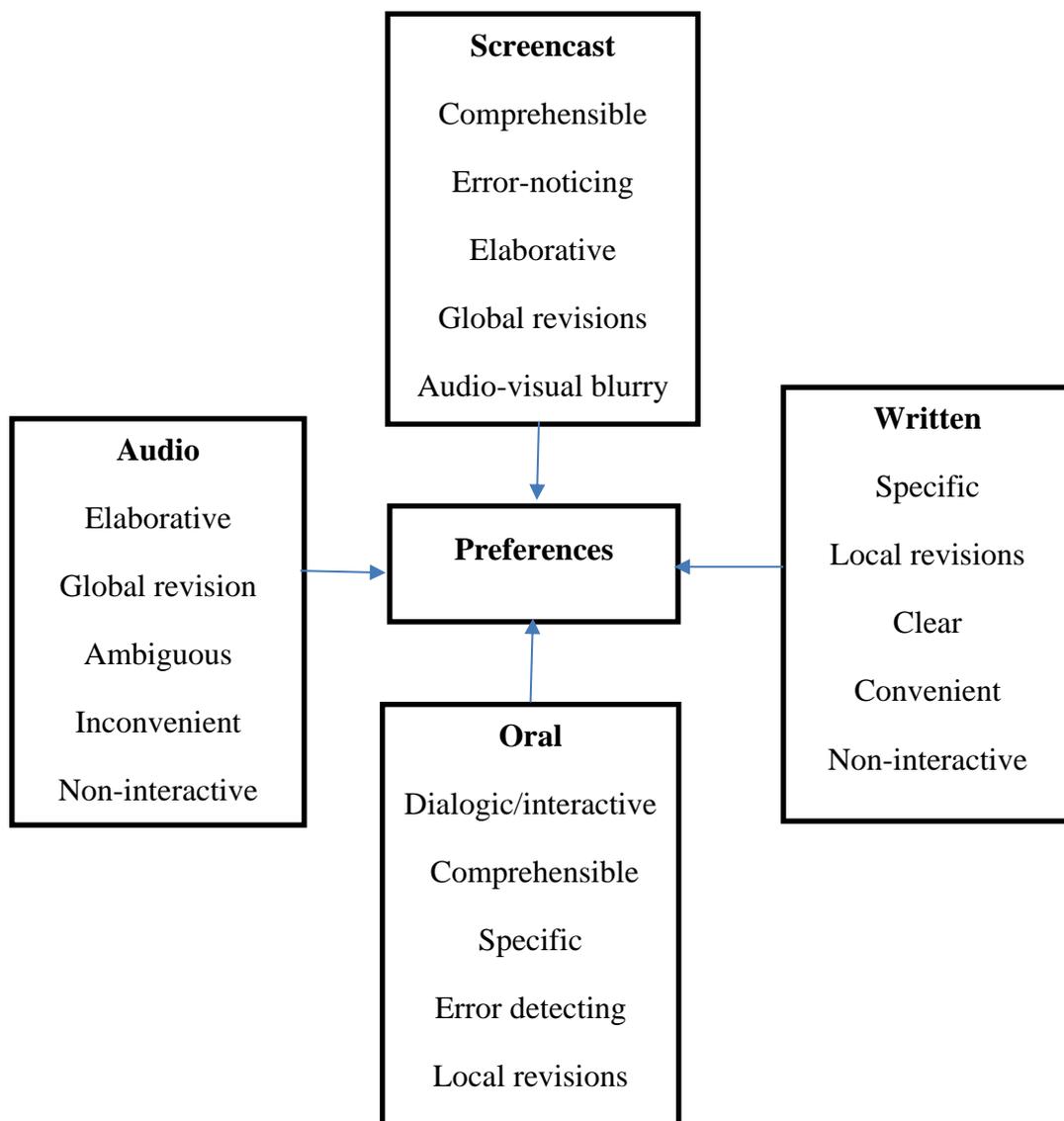
Figure 2. Representation of the perceived affordances and limitations of feedback modes

Both screencasts and oral feedback led to error noticing/detecting. In receiving screencast feedback, the parts of the text where the errors are located in the text were made visible through non-verbal language, such as mouse movement and color highlights: "Easy to locate my mistakes. I could see the errors in the video with circles and numbers by a red pen in the paragraph. Also, I saw the mouse moving on the places of my errors". This is also similar to error-detecting in the oral feedback sessions, which is attributed to teacher-learner interactions and discussions of the errors in their drafts: "I think because the doctor was asking us about the errors in the drafts, and we were trying to discover and explain them".

Students also evaluated both screencast and audio feedback modes as more detailed and elaborative: "Yeah we got much talk in the videos and audios, and even more explanations about our errors". These details could be attributed to the space provided by both modes for the instructor to speak more as opposed to the written language and the sufficient time in face-to-face sessions that made the feedback of both latter modes more precise or specific As a result of this, whereas oral and written feedback modes were preferred for receiving teacher feedback on specific local errors, the audio and screencast modes were suitable for feedback addressing global issues: "The videos and audios were good for errors like ideas, flow of ideas because we can see and get details, but the oral and written feedback is not suitable for this".

In addition, students recognized the clarity of written feedback: "I prefer written feedback more because it is clear compared to audio feedback which sometimes can be misunderstood". In contrast, the audio feedback was viewed as ambiguous: "The audio feedback however was quite ambiguous because it was too long and I had to re-play the audio". Due to the lack of visual elements in the audio feedback mode, the feedback was seen as inconvenient to re-play or refer to during revisions. However, written feedback is more convenient to refer to while revising texts: "Written feedback is more convenient compared to audio, where we have to re-play and re-listen in order to get a point". Moreover, the audio and written feedback modes were non-interactive because students could not get any opportunity to interact with the teacher: I could not talk to the doctor in the blackboard forum". For the screencast feedback mode, some students pointed at the poor quality of voice record in some video files: "Because sometimes, the sound was blurred, so was the picture in the video".

Factors shaping students' perceived effectiveness of feedback modes

Students' perception of the effectiveness of teacher feedback modes is shaped by four main constructs: comprehensibility, multimodality, interactivity and specificity of feedback which are related to each other in students' responses to the interview questions. Figure 3 illustrates

the findings on how these constructs relate to one another with the number of students stating such relationships as well as the frequency of its appearance in the data.
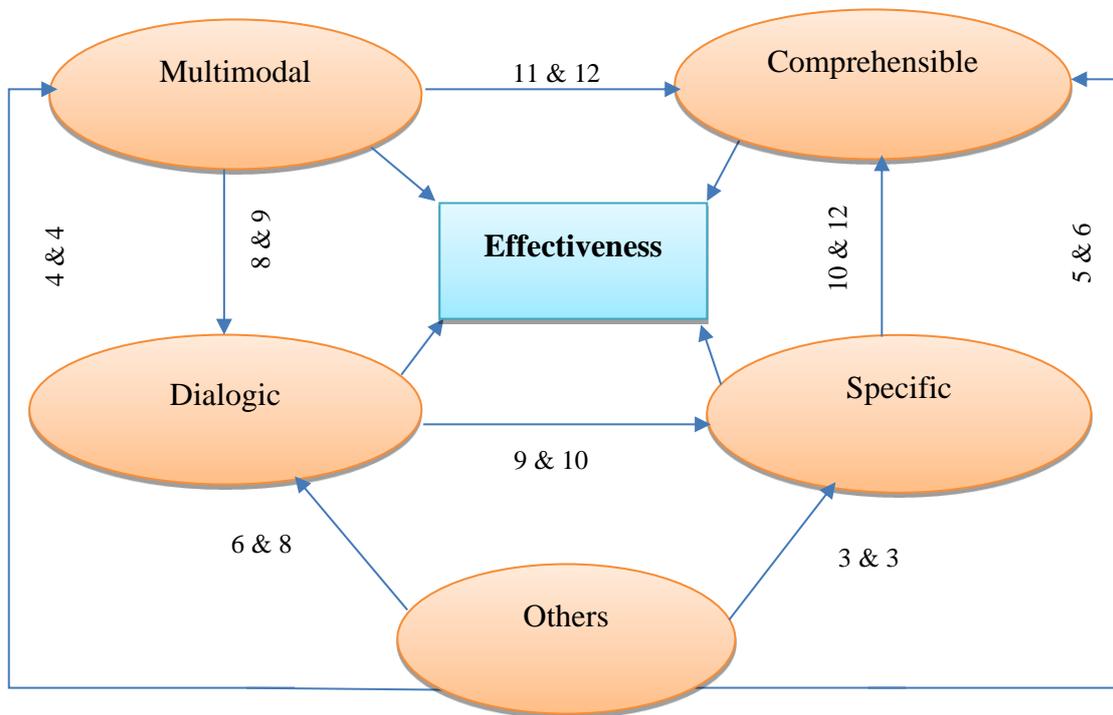

Figure 3. Representation of the findings on factors shaping perceived effectiveness of feedback modes

From the above figure, first, multimodality, which refers to listening to the teacher's voice and seeing their texts in the screencast records, appeared to increase students' perceived comprehensibility of feedback especially in the screencast mode: "Yeah I listened to the voice and saw my draft in the video so more understanding". Similarly, in the oral feedback sessions, students recognized the feedback understandable because of multimodality, which refers to the teacher's combination of both verbal or oral and non-verbal mediums (e.g., facial expressions) in giving feedback: "When the doctor gave us oral feedback in the class, I could get the ideas. Yes I got them because he talked to us about our mistakes face to face and I could see his face".

Interactivity also increases specificity of feedback because through the FTF dialogic interactions in the oral feedback sessions, the learners could ask questions, which further specified the feedback: "I could ask the doctor questions on certain errors during our conversations". Students' perceived specificity of the written feedback due to the briefness of written comments was also recognized to contribute to their perceived understandability of

feedback: "The written feedback was brief so each comment focused on an important point or error. I got this feedback better".

Multimodality of oral feedback, especially the voice accompanied with the teacher's hand-written circling of errors with a red pen was perceived to increase the opportunities for learners to talk and interact with the teacher in an attempt to detect such errors and explain them: "As he was moving his pen on the draft and asking, we guessed the errors and replied to him". In addition, although students did not interact with the instructor when providing the three other digital feedback modes, some of them considered the screencast feedback interactive or conversational owing to its multimodality: When I saw the picture of my writing, and heard the doctor asking questions, I felt like I was talking back to him. So I mean I felt it like a conversation".

The above constructs were perceived to depend on one or more than one of these factors namely; revision settings, devices to access the feedback, internet connection, learners' knowledge of genre and errors, previous experience as well as individual differences in learning styles identified in the interviews. Table 2 presents these themes with excerpts extracted from the interview. For instance, while comprehensibility of feedback depends on the revision settings (classroom or home setting), internet connection and learners' knowledge of errors and previous experience, specificity of feedback modes depends on learners' knowledge of errors specified by that particular mode.

Table 2. Sample quotes illustrating effect of other factors on constructs

Constructs	Others	Sample quotes
Comprehensibility	Revision setting	We could not understand the audio because of my classmates' loud talk in the class, but at home we read the blackboard feedback and I understood it.
	Internet connection	I was disturbed by my net connection when I was reading the written feedback in the blackboard.
	Knowledge	I understood most of the written feedback because many errors were known for me.
	Previous experience	Screencast was really new for me so I could not get it the first time I watched it.
	Time	I like the oral, but the time was short and not enough so I could not get all points.
Multimodality	Devices	You know. I mean we watched the videos in the class so we could hear the voice but sometimes the pictures as we used our mobiles not laptops.

	Learning styles	I do not like to get feedback through audio or video but I prefer to read the feedback.
Interactivity/dialogue	Revision setting	I didn't like the written feedback as we couldn't interact with the doctor from home as he was not online.
	Knowledge	Sometimes in the oral conversations, I was silent and couldn't reply because I didn't know about some errors.
	Previous experience	It was my first time to have a conversation like this with a doctor in English.
Specificity	Knowledge	I agree that the written feedback was more precise, but I didn't know about narrative writing before.

Discussion

The current study aimed to compare the four modes of teacher feedback delivery from the perspectives. To answer the first research question, results of the e-survey show that in general, the majority of students preferred oral, screencast and written feedback. This could be partially due to the interactions in the oral feedback sessions, multimodality of screencasts and the convenience in reading and re-reading the written feedback in the blackboard discussions. According to Ene and Upton (2018), students' continued perceived value of FTF feedback could be due to the opportunities for negotiation and interactions and that they are accustomed to such feedback despite the potential of e-feedback. This initial finding corroborates studies on preference for written over audio feedback (Fawcett & Oldfield, 2016; Johnson & Cooke, 2016; Olesova et al.,2011). These studies highlighted students' preference for written feedback over audio feedback.

Specifically, students' preferences for the feedback modes varied according to specific constructs of feedback. In this regard, both oral and screencast feedback modes are preferred in terms of comprehensibility, error-noticing and its usefulness for editing. Both screencast and audio feedback modes were seen detailed or elaborative of students' errors in writing. However, both oral and written feedback modes were preferred for feedback specificity. In addition, both oral and audio feedback modes were seen more personal. This result supports the previous evidence on students' mixed preferences for feedback modes (Bakla, 2020; Elola & Oskoz, 2016; McCarthy, 2015; Silva, 2012) though in these studies, the feedback modes compared ranged from two (Elola & Oskoz, 2016; Silva, 2012) to three modes (Bakla, 2020; McCarthy, 2015).

Putting together, the findings of the interviews indicate that students' perceived comprehensibility of screencast and oral feedback modes is owing to the existence of multimodal means to providing feedback and the interactions in the oral feedback sessions. This finding is consistent with earlier evidence on the role of multimodality in the screencast mode that facilitates students' understanding of teacher feedback and that underlies their preference for video feedback (Bakla, 2020; Cunningham,2019; Harper et al. 2018). In our study, screencast technology enables learners to notice their errors because their texts as well as locations of these errors are made visible to them (Cunningham, 2019; Harper et al., 2018). Moreover, audio and screencast feedback become more detailed and elaborative (Cunningham, 2019; Hennessy & Forrester, 2014; Gould & Day, 2013; King et al.,2008; Lunt & Curran, 2010; Parkes & Fletcher, 2019). This renders both modes more suitable for addressing global issues that need detailed explanations from instructors (Silva,2012). However, due to the time restriction and workload in giving oral dialogic and written feedback, both modes are suitable to provide brief feedback on specific local issues in students' writing (Silva,2012).

In this study, the same above finding on error-detecting/noticing is applicable to the oral dialogic feedback as FTF teacher-learner dialogues encourage learners to detect the errors in their texts as they need to reply to teacher's questions in the conversations. Teacher dialogic feedback promotes learners' responses to feedback and engages them in spontaneous conversational exchanges through which they can clarify their errors and understand teacher feedback (Adie et al., 2018; Merkel, 2018; Steen-Utheim & Wittek, 2017).

While the written feedback mode was perceived clearer, the audio feedback was perceived more ambiguous. Students' perceived ambiguity of audio feedback in this study that contradicts results of some previous studies (Hennessy & Forrester, 2014; King et al.,2008; Parkes & Fletcher, 2017,2019; Voelkel & Mello, 2014) might be attributed to the poor quality and length of audio feedback records. Due to the details of screencasts and audio feedback, learners also seemed to view written feedback more convenient to refer to by students while revising their texts.

In answering the second research question, the current study emphasizes four important constructs that shape learners' perceived effectiveness of feedback modes: comprehensibility, multimodality, interactivity and specificity of feedback. Multimodality in screencasts makes feedback more understandable for learners (Cunningham, 2019; Harper et al.,2018). Multimodal features in oral feedback, including verbal and non-verbal\visual mediums such as gestures or face expressions and non-verbal codes of errors in the drafts (Li & Vuono, 2019) make oral feedback comprehensible and interactive as well as effective in detecting errors in

writing. The result of this interactivity is specificity of feedback, which is an important factor that contributes to learners' perceived comprehensibility of the received feedback.

However, the above constructs shaping the effectiveness of feedback modes from students' viewpoints depend on one or more than one of these other factors: revision settings, internet connection and learners' knowledge of errors and previous experience as well as devices used and time given. This suggests the need for engaging learners in a setting that suits the mode of feedback used. For instance, while in oral feedback sessions, it is normal that interactions and discussions of feedback would create a noisy or disturbing setting especially in the classroom, in other feedback modes, learners need a less-disturbing setting where they can receive the feedback and play and or read it several times during revision and use devices that suit each mode of feedback (e.g., mobiles may suit oral feedback, but screencast records need laptops). However, this would require a good internet connection in order to maximize students' perceived comprehensibility of feedback. It is also important to train learners on receiving feedback especially when new or innovative digital modes are used. Students should be also involved in pre-feedback sessions in which they write different genres of texts and get their errors discussed in order to increase their knowledge of these errors in relation to the different genres. This may increase their perceived effectiveness of feedback modes.

Conclusion

In line with previous research, the current study emphasizes students' perception and evaluation of teacher e-feedback given through multiple modes. Since students are those authors who receive feedback, they should have the opportunity to articulate their evaluative voices and get them heard by instructors in order to understand what and how students think of multimodal feedback on their writing. Another implication is that teachers and instructors may need to combine the four modes in order to overcome the limitations of a single mode and bring together the strengths of the four modes in providing effective feedback. For instance, because providing dialogic feedback all the time may turn out to be difficult for teachers and students, teachers can shift to e-written feedback. Yet, e-written feedback lacks the oral or auditory aids such as teacher's voice and tone and it may not be detailed due to the limitations of e–writing tools and the nature of written language. Here comes the importance of audio and screencast feedback. Both screencast and audio feedback modes are useful for the details they convey to students. However, teachers should not make audio and screencast too detailed as this might result into students' confusions and distract them from focusing on the specific issues/errors addressed by the feedback. In addition, it is advisable for teachers to check the clarity and

quality of audio records prior to giving feedback to students.

Despite the above findings, the present study has several limitations that should be addressed for future research. The above findings were obtained from students' perspectives. Studies may also compare these modes from teachers' and students' perspectives to find out how they think of these modes as feedback providers and receivers, respectively. In order to enrich the topic of teacher multiple feedback modes, studies may also embark on analyses of feedback features and students' successful revisions of texts across these feedback modes. This study, as admitted in the method section, was conducted among 30 male students, so future research can compare these modes from students' perspectives in relation to gender. Future studies may look at how the above other factors or some of them affect students' comprehensibility, multimodality, interactivity and specificity of feedback modes from other types of data and using other rigorous research designs. For instance, teachers can give students feedback through different modes in two different settings: classroom and home settings and see if their text revisions will differ in these different settings. There may be other factors such as students' language proficiency and also willingness or motivation as well as confidence that may affect students' perceived comprehensibility and interactivity of feedback. These individual factors are important especially when conducting studies on dialogic feedback because some students may not be confident and willing to interact with their teachers.

References

Adie, L., van der Kleij, F., & Cumming, J. (2018). The development and application of coding frameworks to explore dialogic feedback interactions and self-regulated learning. *British Educational Research Journal*, *44*(4),704-723.

Alvira, R. (2016). The impact of oral and written feedback on EFL writers with the use of screencasts. *Profile Issues in Teachers Professional Development*, *18*(2), 79-92.

Bader, M., Burner, T., Hoem Iversen, S., &Varga, Z. (2019). Student perspectives on formative feedback as part of writing portfolios. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *44*(7), 1017-1028.

Bakla, A. (2020). A mixed-methods study of feedback modes in EFL writing. *Language Learning & Technology*, *24* (1),107-128.

Carruthers, C., McCarron, B., Bolan, P., Devine, A., McMahon-Beattie, U., &Burns, A. (2015). I like the sound of that'–an evaluation of providing audio feedback via the virtual learning environment for summative assessment". *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *40*(3),352-370.

Chong, S. W. (2019). College students' perception of e-feedback: a grounded theory perspective. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *44*(7), 1090-1105.

Cunningham, K. J. (2019). Student perceptions and use of technology-mediated text and screencast feedback in ESL writing. *Computers and Composition*, *52*, 222-241.

Elola, I., & Oskoz, A. (2016). Supporting second language writing using multimodal feedback. *Foreign Language Annals*, *49*(1), 58-74.

Ene, E., & Upton, T.A. (2018). Synchronous and asynchronous teacher electronic feedback and learner uptake in ESL composition. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *41*, 1-13.

Espasa, A., Mayordomo, R. M., Guasch, T., & Martinez-Melo, M. (2019). Does the type of feedback channel used in online learning environments matter? Students' perceptions and impact on learning. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 1-15.

Fawcett, H., and J. Oldfield. 2016. Investigating expectations and experiences of audio and written assignment feedback in first-year undergraduate students. *Teaching in Higher Education*, *21*(1),79-93.

Harper, F., Green, H., & Fernandez-Toro, M. (2018). Using screencasts in the teaching of modern languages: Investigating the use of Jing in feedback on written assignments. *The Language Learning Journal*, *46*(3), 277-292.

Hennessy, C., & Forrester, G. (2014). Developing a framework for effective audio feedback: a case study. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *39*(7), 777-789.

Johnson, G. M., & Cooke, A. (2016). Self-regulation of learning and preference for written versus audio-recorded feedback by distance education students". *Distance Education*, *37*(1),107-120.

King, D., McGugan, S., & Bunyan, N. (2008). Does it make a difference? Replacing text with audio feedback". *Practice and Evidence of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education,* 145-163.

Li, S., & Vuono, A. (2019). Twenty-five years of research on oral and written corrective feedback in System. *System*, *84*: 93-109.

Lunt, T., & Curran, J. (2010). Are you listening please? 'The advantages of electronic audio feedback compared to written feedback". *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *35*(7),759-769.

McCarthy, J. (2015). Evaluating written, audio and video feedback in higher education summative assessment tasks. *Issues in Educational Research*, *25*(2),153-169.

Merkel, W. (2018). Role reversals: A case study of dialogic interactions and feedback on L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *39*, 16-28.

Nicol, D. (2010). From monologue to dialogue: improving written feedback processes in mass higher education. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *35*(5), 501-517.

Nurmukhamedov, U. (2009). Teacher feedback on writing: Considering the options. *Writing & Pedagogy*, *1*(1): 113-124.

Olesova, L. A., Richardson, J., Weasenforth, D., & Meloni, C. (2011). Using asynchronous instructional audio feedback in online environments: A mixed methods study. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, *7*(1), 30-42.

Orsmond, P., Maw, S. J., Park, J. R., Gomez, S., & Crook, A. C. (2013). Moving feedback forward: theory to practice. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *38*(2),240-252.

Parkes, M., & Fletcher, P. (2017). A longitudinal, quantitative study of student attitudes towards audio feedback for assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, *42*(7),1046-1053.

Parkes, M., & Fletcher, P. (2019). Let's talk assessment: An exploration of student perceptions of audio feedback for assessment. *International Journal on E-Learning*, *18*(4), 441-460.

Rodway-Dyer, S., Knight, J., & Dunne, E. (2011). A case study on audio feedback with geography undergraduates. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, *35*(2), 217-231.

Sheen, Y. (2010). Differential effects of oral and written corrective feedback in the ESL classroom. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *32*(2),203-234.

Silva, M. L. (2012). Camtasia in the classroom: Student attitudes and preferences for video commentary or Microsoft Word comments during the revision process. *Computers and Composition*, *29*(1),1-22.

Sobhani, M., & Tayebipour, F. (2015). The effects of oral vs. written corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' essay writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *5*(8), 1601-1611.

Steen-Utheim, A., & Wittek, A. L. (2017). Dialogic feedback and potentialities for student learning. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, *15,*18-30.

Tavakoli, M., & Zarrinabadi, N. (2018). Differential effects of explicit and implicit corrective feedback on EFL learners' willingness to communicate. *Innovation in Language learning and teaching*, *12*(3),247-259.

Xu, Q., & Peng, H. (2017). Investigating mobile-assisted oral feedback in teaching Chinese as a second language. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *30*(3-4),173-182.

Appendix 1: Closed and open questions for the e-survey

1) Which type of doctor's feedback on your writing do you most prefer?

a. The oral/face-to-face feedback

b. The audio feedback via WhatsApp

c. The video screen feedback

d. The blackboard written feedback

2) Why did you choose that particular feedback above?

3) Which type of doctor's feedback was easiest to understand its intended messages about your errors in writing?

a.The oral/face-to-face feedback

b. The audio feedback via WhatsApp

c. The video screen feedback

d. The blackboard written feedback

4) Why did you choose that particular feedback above?

5) Which type of doctor's feedback that gave most details on your errors in writing?

a.The oral/face-to-face feedback

b. The audio feedback via WhatsApp

c. The video screen feedback

d. The blackboard written feedback

6) Why did you choose that particular feedback above?

7) Which type of doctor's feedback that most helped you to see most of your errors in writing?

a. The oral/face-to-face feedback

b. The audio feedback via WhatsApp

c. The video screen feedback

d. The blackboard written feedback

8) Why did you choose that particular feedback above?

9) Which type of doctor's feedback that was more specific about your errors in writing?

a. The oral/face-to-face feedback

b. The audio feedback via WhatsApp

c. The video screen feedback

d. The blackboard written feedback

10) Why did you choose that particular feedback above?

11) Which type of doctor's feedback that most helped you to fix most of your errors in writing?

a. The oral/face-to-face feedback

b. The audio feedback via WhatsApp

c. The video screen feedback

d. The blackboard written feedback

12) Why did you choose that particular feedback above?

13) Which type of doctor's feedback did you find most personal?

a. The oral/face-to-face feedback

b. The audio feedback via WhatsApp

c. The video screen feedback

d. The blackboard written feedback

14) Why did you choose that particular feedback above?

Appendix 2: Questions for the semi-structured follow-up interview

1) What do you think of the four modes of feedback given on your writing this semester?

2) Which did you find easier to get the message? Explain and give examples if you can.

3) Which type did you find more difficult to get the message? Explain and give example.

4) What did you like most about your preferred feedback modes?

5) What are the most important features for you that make feedback mode(s) effective?

6) How could each feedback mode matter to you when you revised your first drafts?

7) Where did you revise your first drafts when you received teacher feedback through each mode?

8) How did you revise your first drafts when you received teacher feedback through each mode?

9) Any other things you see that have made such feedback mode(s) effective or challenging for you?

10) Any suggestions for future enhancement of teacher feedback delivery in writing courses?

Appendix 3: Themes with definitions and sample quotes

Features	Definitions/Scope notes	Sample quotes
Comprehensible	Understandability of the feedback and teacher's message/intended meaning	Because I could understand it as soon as I watched it.
Multimodal	Feedback delivered through both voice/auditory and visual means.	I liked the video as I saw the picture and also listened to doctor's voice.
Interactive/dialogic	Feedback provided as conversational and students respond to it and interact with the teacher	In the oral feedback, we could talk with each other. I mean me and the doctor.
Error-noticing/detecting	Feedback that enables to see or identify the error being addressed and its location in the text	I could see where my errors in the paragraph in the video.
Elaborative/detailed	Feedback that provides details on the errors.	Because most of the time, videos gave us long explanations to understand our problems.
Specific	Feedback that is briefly addresses the error without details.	The written feedback tended to focus on the error. I mean each point was about one error.
Global	Feedback addressing issues relevant to content, organization and genre	If anything, I would appreciate the video feedback because it improves my flaws in content and organization.
Local	Feedback addressing issues relevant to grammar, vocabulary and spellings	The written feedback was good as it showed our grammar mistakes.
Convenience vs. Inconvenience to refer back	Easiness and comfort in referring back to specific points/parts of the feedback delivered	The written feedback because I was able to get back and see my errors
Clarity vs. Ambiguity	Clarity as opposed to ambiguity of the feedback or what is required from students to do based on the feedback.	I prefer written feedback because I can directly read the feedbacks and capture the intended messages compared to audio feedback. Through audio sometimes I get lost listening to it because of the much details.

Appendix 4: Counts and references of themes in the data

Features	Oral		Screencast		Audio		Written	
	C	R	C	R	C	R	C	R
Comprehensible	13	14	12	12	4	6	9	11
Multimodal	12	16	14	17	0	0	0	0
Interactive/dialogic	13	18	4	4	0	0	0	0
Non-interactive	0	0	3	4	13	15	12	13
Error-noticing/detecting	12	13	15	17	2	3	7	7
Elaborative/detailed	0	0	14	15	12	15	0	0
Specific	11	13	0	0	0	0	12	14
Global	3	4	13	16	10	12	2	3
Local	14	15	5	6	4	4	12	13
Convenient	3	3	2	2	4	4	12	13
Inconvenient	0	0	4	6	13	14	2	3

Incidental Vocabulary Learning through Multimodal Input in CALL Environment

Hailah Alhujaylan

Department of English Language and Translation,

College of Science and Arts, Buraidah, Qassim University, Saudi Arabia

HAlhujaylan@qu.edu.sa

Orcid ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9565-3738

Bio-profile:

Dr. Hailah Alhujaylan is an Assistant Professor in the Department of English Language and Translation at Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. Dr. Alhujaylan did her undergraduate studies in English at Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. She then pursued her MA and PhD in Applied Linguistics at the University of Essex in the UK. Her main research interests include vocabulary, formulaic language learning and CALL.

Abstract

The study explored the multimodal input effectiveness on learning vocabulary in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) environment. 160 EFL students were randomly assigned to four groups. Three input modes are used to present the 40 vocabulary words to the participants: Reading graded reader (hypertext), reading while listening to grader reader (hypermedia), reading while listening and viewing to a graded reader (multimedia). A pretest-posttest-delayed post-test study design based on translation format was administrated to collect the data. Separate tests for receptive and productive vocabulary acquisition were designed to measure both aspects of the target vocabulary. Several analyses were performed on the obtained results, including ANOVA and Tukey's test for post-hoc analysis. The findings showed considerable vocabulary learning gains for all three experimental groups. Still, the multimedia group showed the most significant improvement, followed by the hypermedia group, and finally, the hypertext group. The study contributes to the fact that learning L2 vocabulary using a multimodal approach in the CALL environment is highly effective in an

EFL classroom setting than the conventional methods. Moreover, it has a positive impact on the retention of vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, the study strongly suggests using a multimodal approach in the CALL environment leads to more profound and better comprehension and L2 vocabulary learning.

Keywords: CALL environment, hypertext, hypermedia, multimedia, ESL/EFL, multimodal approach

I Introduction

The most important language acquisition feature is vocabulary (Pellicer-Sánchez,2017), which guarantees comprehension, fluency, and attainment for both L1 and L2 (Bromely, 2007). Liu (1995) asserts vocabulary as a building block of a language. Traditional vocabulary teaching mostly focuses on single-word items (Pellicer-Sánchez,2017). However, the load of learning thousands of words that learners feel in acquiring the vocabulary is immense and sometimes demotivating (Liu,1995). Technological advances have paved their way into language learning by offering various applications and presentation modes as supplementary resources. Empirical research has found that L2 incidental vocabulary can be developed through audio/visual materials (Coyle & Gracia, 2014; Feng & Webb, 2020; Hsu, 2014 Pavia, Webb & Faez, 2019; Peters, Heynen & Puimège, 2016, Peters & Webb, 2018; Vidal, 2011; Webb, & Chang, 2015). The present study examines incidental vocabulary acquisition to the graded reader by three different modes of presentation: reading (hypertext mode), reading while listening (hypermedia mode) reading while listening, and viewing (multimedia mode). The study aims to contribute significantly to how vocabulary can be learned and determine whether lexical knowledge gain is significant after exposure to the words through multimodal design in the CALL environment. Two features of vocabulary knowledge (form-meaning recognition, form-meaning recall) were measured to deliver an accurate evaluation of the prospective learning that can take place through reading, reading while listening, and reading while listening and viewing through CALL applications.

This study's rationale came from the researcher's observation that technological tools integrated with language learning can provide a better platform for learners. There are several reasons why a study to investigate the effects of multimodal input modes in the CALL environment on learning vocabulary is needed. First, the study aims to assess the impact of learning vocabulary in the CALL environment. To my knowledge, no research to date has investigated incidental vocabulary acquisition to the graded reader using various input modes in a computer-assisted

learning environment. The second reason is to examine the efficacy of different input application modes on vocabulary learning in the CALL environment and reveal which one is the most effective for faster, better, and long-lasting vocabulary learning. The research will contribute to the field by bringing up a practical solution to time-restricted vocabulary teaching. Third, the study addresses the dare need to expose the learners to mid-frequency words without teaching explicitly. It targeted mid-frequency words to test because teaching mid-frequency words is a problem in a formal academic setting due to the wide range of lexicon (Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt 2010), which is addressed by a few researchers. The research explores a useful way to help learners, teachers, and curriculum designers develop mid-frequency words input modes to increase vocabulary size.

II Literature Review

i. Incidental Vocabulary Learning

According to Saragi, Nation& Meister (1978), "To read unsimplified material a reader of English needs to know 3,400-word forms" (p.73) and for the spoken discourse, 6,000–7,000 families (Nation,2006) are needed. To comprehend the written discourse, English language learners should acquire 8,000 to 9,000-word families (Nation, 2006; Schmitt, Jiang, & Grabe, 2011), or 98% text coverage for adequate comprehension may be necessary for most learners (Nation,2006). Nation (2013) states that incidental learning is an essential source of learning vocabulary. Schmitt and Schmitt (2014) account for 3,001 to 9,000-word levels in the mid-frequency range. Previous research focusing on single-words items concludes that incidental vocabulary learning occurs if unfamiliar words are encountered in context, and the more significant learning gains can result from more frequent encounters with foreign words (Horst, Cobb, & Meara, 1998; Saragi, Nation, & Meister, 1978; Waring & Takaki, 2003; Webb, 2007; Webb, Newton, & Chang, 2013).

The main issue for ESL/EFL learners is that the explicit classroom teaching (Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt 2010) and the course books do not serve the purpose because various coursebooks have comprised different words which have nothing in common (Saragi et al., 1978). Moreover, instructional time restriction makes it nearly impossible to achieve the needed vocabulary in academic settings (Webb & Nation, 2017). Research has proposed practical solutions to solve this issue. Some research evidence suggest reading (Krashen, 1989; Saragi et al.,1978; Shu, Anderson & Zhang,1995; Swanborn & Glopper,1999; Zahar, Cobb & Spada, 2001) extensive reading of authentic text (Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt,2010) and extensive reading can enhance L2 vocabulary learning (Nation, 2015;Pigada & Schmitt;2006; Pellicer-

Sanchez,2016; Schmitt,2008).Others consider listening (Brown et al., 2008; Toya, 1993; Van Zeeland & Schmitt, 2013; Vidal, 2011) and reading while listening can help increase the vocabulary gains (Brown, Waring, & Donkaewbua, 2008; Webb & Chang,2012b, 2014, 2015; Web et al.,2013).More recently, the research examined the effects of viewing TV on word acquisition (Feng & Webb, 2020; Oetting, Rice, & Swank, 1995; Pavia, Webb & Faez, 2019; Peters, Heynen & Puimège, 2016;Peters & Webb, 2018; Webb & Rodgers,2009 ; Web,2010,2011). The researchers agree that all these various modes of input are useful in developing the vocabulary. However, there are considerable differences at what rate the learning occurs.

Learners can acquire vocabulary through meaning focus input and output through all the four skills of language learning (Nation&Meara,2002). Nation (1974) suggests that visual, tactile, and oral presentation of words are useful in teaching vocabulary techniques. Vocabulary can be learned from two aspects that are: learners' needs and usefulness of the words (Nation&Meara,2002). The effectiveness of vocabulary items is measured by the frequency and range of corpora words, like the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA[1]) and the British National Corpus (BNC[2]).

COCA contains more than one billion words, whereas BNC has 100 million words. According to Nation & Meara (2002), the learners' foremost aim should be high-frequency words. Schmitt and Schmitt (2014) find mid-frequency words are needed to be learned according to the learner's needs because they are worth learning and rewarding. Schmitt and Schmitt (2014) consider high-frequency vocabulary should include the most frequent 3,000-word families. Since receptive vocabulary knowledge is closely associated with reading comprehension, it can determine the learner's lexical threshold (Masari,2019). For the present study, the researcher applied VLT to determine the word level of the participants. Due to the scarcity of the research evidence, the researcher chose midfrequency words.

ii.   *CALL Environment Language Learning*

Computer Assisted Language learning (CALL) has presented enormous possibilities to learn a language independently and autonomously. It has thoroughly modified the way of communication and exposure. Learners can improve their target language literacy skills and intracultural comprehension by reading authentic text in CALL environments (Bose &Sammons, 2009). It can be an excellent instructional source of language input for learners

[1] https://www.english-corpora.org/coca/
[2] https://www.english-corpora.org/bnc/

(Beatty,2010), called comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981; Krashen and Terrell, 1983). In the multimodal learning environment that CALL offers, hypertext, hypermedia, and multimedia applications. These are among those applications which can be highly useful in providing comprehensible input for language learning (Beatty,2010). Hypertext organizes and links the text's information by creating examples, definitions, explanations, etc., and connects it to the reader (Ivers & Barron, 2002). Generally speaking, footnotes and annotations are linked by hypertext to the original text, making it easier for the reader to rearrange, reorder and revisit the text (Beatty,2010; Bose& Sammons,2009; Chen&Yen,2013). Multiple media forms are used for easy access to annotations; consequently, learners can control by having more choices (O'Hara&Pritchard,2009) and enjoy the authentic texts (Chen&Yen,2013). Adding to that, Zaho (2005) claims that enhancing learner control and multimedia annotation by technology can facilitate vocabulary learning. Hypertext input can be more comprehensible if audio and video files or graphics are added using hypermedia (Bagui, 1998; Beatty,2010; Ivers & Barron, 2002). Hypermedia is "an associative, nonlinear information presentation" that can provide "a multidimensional environment" (Liu,1995. p. 440). It is helpful in the recall and inference (Bagui 1998) from the text.

The third application of CALL, multimedia, is regarded as the subcategory of hypertext and hypermedia (Beatty,2010; Ivers & Barron, 2002). Beatty (2010) defines, "[M]multimedia tends to feature several media types including text, images, sound, video and/or animations" (p.44). It delivers information using various components by visual and verbal representation (Ivers & Barron, 2002; Gerjets & Kirschner, 2009). In education, desired learning outcomes can be achieved by a perfect combination of different components used interactively, and it has been introduced long ago (Ivers & Barron, 2002). The use of multimedia contains powerful pedagogical strength as a robust communication tool (Balasubramanian & Saminathan, 2015; Ivers & Barron, 2002; Muchtar,2018; Thao,2003). Some other advantages of multimedia include "work collaboratively, engage in multiple modalities of learning and reflective thinking, and use a constructivist approach to learning" (Ivers & Barron, 2002.p.2). Multimedia can motivate the learners by the visual presentation, making comprehension easy (Thao,2003; Mayor,2014; Muchtar,2018). The input presentation on multimedia ranges from written and spoken words and pictures to animation and graphic illustrations (Mayor,2009). Therefore, there are fewer chances of learner's distraction if the input is presented on multimedia (Mayor,2014) in comparison to lengthy text reading.

Multimedia can transfer the teacher's role from a director to a facilitator allowing students to learn at liberty and their own pace (Ivers & Barron, 2002), so it is learner-centered learning

process (Muchtar, 2018). "Multimedia and speech recognition capabilities have attempted to extend the traditional reading and listening foci of CALL to include writing and speaking activities too" (Beatty 2010, p.13). Zaho (2005) states that digital multimedia can provide enhanced access efficiency to accommodate vocabulary learning. Muchtar,2003 asserts that using technology as a tool can attract learners to think more profoundly and pursue their curiosity. As a result, they may explore and expand their intelligence.

Vocabulary Learning through hypertext, hypermedia, and multimedia

A large body of research is evident that the use of hypertext (Bose& Sammons,2009; Chen & Yan,2013), hypermedia (Bataineh, 2014; Liu,1995; O'Hara&Pritchard,2009; Webber,2012) and multimedia (Balasubramanian & Saminathan, 2015; Hoffler and Leutner;2007; Ilhan & Oruc,2016; Gerjets & Kirschner, 2009; Wijaya & Devianto, 2014) in the CALL environment (Tozcu1& Coady,2004) to be incredibly beneficial for language learners. Chen&Yan (2013) examined the effectiveness of various annotation formats on hypertext reading comprehension in a foreign language and 83 Taiwanese students' vocabulary learning. The authors confirm that hypertext annotation helped medium and high-proficiency learners in short-term and long-term memory vocabulary recognition.

Liu (1993) studied hypermedia's impact on developing vocabulary acquisition on 63 university students studying English as a foreign language. The findings show significant gains in vocabulary knowledge in a hypermedia learning environment. Similarly, Bataineh (2014) finds that vocabulary learning can be enhanced by using electronic dictionaries and hypermedia annotations. This learning environment motivates and involves students in the teaching process; hence their receptive skills are most likely to be improved. In addition to that, O'Hara & Pritchard (2009) investigated hypermedia authoring in facilitating English learners to improve vocabulary. The author finds that the participants can be engaged in the learning process through hypermedia authoring, and hence, it proves to be useful in promoting vocabulary growth. Webber,2012 examined the vocabulary retention problem in elementary school students by integrating hypermedia into word acquisition. The results showed favorable vocabulary development after introducing hypermedia integration.

Likewise, in a study, Sun & Dong (2004) investigated the impact of sentence-level translation (SLT) and target warming-up (TW) learning support on young Chinese in English vocabulary acquisition. The authors declare that multimedia context can better facilitate learning English words for both types of learning supports. Mao &Zhang (2017) examined computer hypermedia annotations' effectiveness on Chinese students' incidental vocabulary learning in

reading English. The authors conclude that when Chinese annotations and images are combined, the input mode had a better and positive impact on the students' vocabulary learning. AbuSeileek (2008) compared the end of the text glossaries to the use of hypermedia annotations. The results indicate that learners who used hypermedia annotations showed better performance than the traditional glossary participants. Similarly, Sato & Suzuki (2010) explored the efficiency of multimedia gloss by comparing multimedia-oriented gloss with traditional glosses in teaching spatial propositions. The authors suggest multimedia-oriented aids might help learn the English language.

Wijaya & Devianto (2014) introduced the ADDIE method in creating multimedia applications to promote vocabulary learning interactively. The majority of the participants agreed with the proposition that multimedia plays the role of a facilitator by involving them in vocabulary learning for middle school students. It attracts them and gives the eagerness and enthusiasm to participate actively in word comprehension. Tozcu1 & Coady (2004) assessed the role of Tutorial CALL in direct vocabulary learning. The authors focused on Tutorial CALL's effectiveness in three aspects: vocabulary knowledge, reading comprehension, and word recognition speed. The findings prove that the learners using Tutorial CALL can learn a more significant number of high- frequency words than the learners who conventionally learn vocabulary. In the same vein, Muchtar (2018) investigated the effectiveness of e-reader devices in multimedia technology on reading comprehension of 84 Indonesian EFL Engineering students. For accomplishing their academic tasks and assignments, they need to use digital platforms to download and read many e-books. The author asked them to study TOEFL reading text for the participants on their multimedia devices. The results were concluded favorably for the use of digital text.

III Research Methodology

The research attempted to answer the research questions below:

i. What are the effects of reading, listening, and viewing graded readers through multimodal input in a CALL environment on productive vocabulary learning?

ii. What are the effects of reading, listening, and viewing graded readers through multimodal input in a CALL environment on receptive vocabulary learning?

iii. Can vocabulary be learned incidentally using hypertext, hypermedia, and multimedia applications on a graded reader in a CALL environment?

   i.   Participants

For this study, the sample consisted of $n = 160$ undergraduate female students enrolled at a Saudi university, equally divided into four groups. Three groups served as experimental groups and one as a control group for the conducted research. The ages of students ranged from 18-21 years ($M = 19.31$, $SD = 0.06$), and all of the participants had formally studied English as a Second Language for a minimum of 8 years. A paper-based Updated Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) (Webb et al., 2017) was utilized to estimate the participants' vocabulary level before proceeding with the treatment. The mean raw score in VLT was found to be 24.89/30, which was marginally above the cutting point of 24/30 for 4000 word-level, as suggested by Webb et al. (2017). It indicated that the students had sound vocabulary knowledge at 4,000 word-level, and they were expected to have previously gone through the words that they would be given in the treatment. Moreover, One-way ANOVA results yielded no statistically significant differences between the four groups in VLT at $p<.05$ ($F = 0.28$, $p = .839$), indicating the presence of equivalency regarding the vocabulary knowledge across the four groups. It should be noted that the study began with a sample of 176 students. Still, due to the prolonged duration of the research and other complexities, data of only 160 participants were collected.

ii.   Instructional material

Paul Nation's online resources were considered the most suitable language learning material. The resources offer mid-frequency adapted and graded readers at three vocabulary sizes from 4,000,6,000 and 8,000-word families. According to the VLT assessment, the researcher selected a mid-frequency graded reader, At the Bay written by Katherine Mansfield and adapted by Philippa Larkindale. It is at the 4,000-word level, with a total of 3,278 words. The researcher designed the graded reader in three input modes: hypertext, hypermedia, and multimedia. The grader reader was divided into eight sections. Each section had 450 – 466 words, and it was a readable word limit within 30 minutes. The participants needed to complete one section in each class session. They could learn as many words as they like. The 4,000 level words were presented as links and annotations in the graded reader, but no specific instructions were given to any experimental groups to learn these words. They could scroll up and down or click the linked word on their own choice.

iii.   Treatment

The soft copies of the graded reader were installed on the computers. The participants were allowed to use their own digital devices. The 1st Experimental group (referred to as the hypertext group) was presented graded reader (hypertext) to read during class time. The time spent on each section was varied within the group due to the reading speed and prior vocabulary knowledge. The 2nd Experimental group (referred to as the hypermedia group) was presented

with the graded reader in hypermedia mode for reading while listening during class time. Two native speakers read each section of the graded reader for the participants to provide the text in hypermedia mode. The 3rd Experimental group (referred to as the multimedia group) was presented with the graded reader in multimedia mode using PowerPoint software, as illustrated in Table 1. The participants read the text with the animated presentation and illustration and listened to the native speakers like hypermedia mode.

Table 1. *Treatment-input mode given to the four groups*

Control Group	Experimental G1	Experimental G2	Experimental G3
No treatment	Reading the graded reader (Hypertext)	Reading while listening to the graded reader (Hypermedia)	Reading while listening and viewing the graded reader on multimedia (Multimedia)

The allotted time was 30 minutes in 3 class sessions each week. The treatment lasted for three weeks as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. *Time allotted in the CALL environment*

Week 1	Three days per week	30 minutes per session
Week 2	Three days per week	30 minutes per session
Week 3	Three days per week	30 minutes per session

iv. *Testing Materials:*

In this study, separate pre- and post-tests were administrated to measure both the productive knowledge of form and meaning, and the receptive knowledge of form and meaning of the participants. The researcher-designed productive knowledge post-test had 40 components based on translation format, and it aimed to measure the participants' productive knowledge of form and meaning (recall) after the treatment. It was ensured that the items on all tests were at the 4,000-word level by employing the Complete Lexical Tutor. All the words were chosen from the graded reader "At the Bay". Since in translating the words, the respondents may write the synonyms or closest words of the translated item, the first alphabet of the L2 targeted word was given on the blank to cue the respondents to the target word.

Afterwards, a researcher-designed post-test based on receptive translation format (Webb et al., 2013) was administrated to measure receptive knowledge of form and meaning (recognition). Participants were instructed to write the L1 meanings of the given words.

The sample items from the productive knowledge post-test and the receptive knowledge post-test are given in the Table 3.

Table 3. *Post-test types and sample items*

Post-test type	Sample item
Productive knowledge post-test	1. نسيم b_____
Receptive knowledge post-test	1. breeze _____

IV Results

i. Productive knowledge

The descriptive statistics of productive knowledge tests conducted for all four groups of the study at different times are tabulated in Table 4. ANOVA results for immediate and delayed post-tests are presented in Tables 6 and 7, and the observed values of Cohen's d, are given in Table 5. The analyses were done on 95% confidence interval, followed by a post-hoc analysis of the data done by Tukey's test.

Generally, all the groups in the study showed an increase in their mean scores from pretest to the immediate post-test, while only the control group showed a slight increase in the mean scores from immediate post-test to the delayed post-test. As stated earlier, there were no statistically significant differences between the groups in the pretest. However, the results showed statistically significant differences between the control group and the three experimental groups with different effect sizes (Table 5) in the immediate post-test ($F = 4.23$, $p = .007$) as shown in Table 6. The hypertext group ($M = 19.78$, $SD = 4.896$) performed better than the control group ($M = 17.15$, $SD = 4.964$) with medium effect size of $d = 0.53$. Likewise, the hypermedia group ($M = 20.05$, $SD = 5.218$) outperformed the control group with a slightly higher effect size of $d = 0.57$, indicating that reading while listening to the graded reader offered a moderate improvement in productive vocabulary knowledge over simply reading the graded reader. However, the multimedia group's performance ($M = 21.25$, $SD = 6.088$) with the largest effect size compared with the control group, i.e., $d = 0.74$. It suggests that reading, listening,

and viewing the graded reader's text presentation on multimedia provided significant gains in the productive aspect of vocabulary acquisition to the multimedia group. Furthermore, post-hoc analysis by Tukey's test revealed that the means of the multimedia group and control group differed significantly at ($p < .05$). In contrast, the means of other experimental groups did not differ significantly compared to the control group.

It was noted that the mean scores of all experimental groups in the delayed post-test were marginally lower compared to the mean scores in the immediate post-test. Moreover, ANOVA results in Table 7 show that the differences were not statistically significant ($F = 2.46$, $p = .065$), suggesting that the groups acquired little to no gains in productive vocabulary after the immediate post-test. Moreover, the observed effect sizes were also comparatively lower in comparison to the immediate post-test, with multimedia group ($M = 20.65$, $SD = 6.192$) surpassing the control group ($M = 17.53$, $SD = 4.596$) with a medium effect size of $d = 0.57$, followed by the hypermedia group ($M = 19.58$, $SD = 4.950$) with $d = 0.43$, and hypertext group ($M = 19.03$, $SD = 5.117$) which outclassed the control group with a small effect size of $d = 0.31$. Similar to the trend in the immediate post-test, post-hoc analysis with Tukey's test showed that the means of multimedia group and control group had a significant difference at ($p < .05$), while the means of other experimental groups did not differ significantly in comparison to the control group.

Table 4. *Descriptive statistics for productive knowledge tests of all groups*

Groups		Pretest			Immediate post-test			Delayed post-test		
	N	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Mean	SD	SE Mean
Control Group	40	15.68	3.392	0.54	17.15	4.964	0.79	17.53	4.596	0.73
Hypertext Group	40	16.23	3.873	0.61	19.78	4.896	0.77	19.03	5.117	0.81
Hypermedia Group	40	16.60	4.119	0.65	20.05	5.218	0.83	19.58	4.950	0.78
Multimedia Group	40	15.93	4.571	0.72	21.25	6.088	0.96	20.65	6.192	0.98

*Max score is 40.

Table 5. *Effect sizes between the experimental groups and control group for productive knowledge*

Pairing	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
Hypertext – Control	$d = 0.53$	$d = 0.31$
Hypermedia – Control	$d = 0.57$	$d = 0.43$
Multimedia – Control	$d = 0.74$	$d = 0.57$

*The levels for small, medium, and large effect sizes of Cohen's d are set to be 0.20, 0.50, and 0.80, respectively.

Table 6. *Immediate post-test ANOVA for productive knowledge*

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	p*
Between Groups	385.0	3	119.3	4.23	.007
Within Groups	4403.5	156	28.2		
Total	4761.5	159			

*p < 0.05

Table 7. *Delayed post-test ANOVA for productive knowledge*

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	p*
Between Groups	203.2	3	67.7	2.46	.065
Within Groups	4295.8	156	27.5		
Total	4499.0	159			

*p < 0.05

The results mentioned above answer the first research question, that investigated the effects of different vocabulary learning modes on the productive vocabulary acquisition of students, by revealing that the multimedia treatment of learning vocabulary had the largest effect sizes in immediate and delayed post-tests, followed by the hypermedia and, finally, the hypertext. On the whole, the results suggest that if the students learn vocabulary through multimedia in the CALL environment, the productive aspect of vocabulary could be significantly improved.

ii. Receptive knowledge

The results of receptive knowledge showed no statistically significant differences between all the groups in the pretest. However, the immediate and delayed post-tests portrayed the visible differences with considerable effect sizes between the control group and the three experimental groups after the treatment.

Table 8 shows the descriptive statistics for the receptive knowledge of each group. The experimental groups' and control group's mean scores had statistically significant differences in the immediate post-test ($F = 4.90$, $p = .003$), according to ANOVA results given in Table 10. A medium effect size ($d = 0.51$) was noted while comparing the performance of hypertext group ($M = 25.35$, $SD = 4.801$) to the control group ($M = 22.68$, $SD = 5.631$). Moreover, the hypermedia group ($M = 26.20$, $SD = 5.788$) outperformed the control group with an effect size of $d = 0.62$. Finally, the multimedia group ($M = 27.00$, $SD = 5.208$) showed a substantial learning improvement with a large effect size of $d = 0.80$ compared to the control group. Post-hoc analysis by Tukey's test unveiled that the means of the control group and all the experimental groups differed significantly (at $p < .05$). Additionally, the hypermedia and the multimedia groups' mean scores differed significantly (at $p < .05$) when compared to the hypertext group, implying that listening plus reading for the hypermedia group, and listening plus viewing on top of reading did improve the receptive vocabulary of the students.

The delayed post-test results indicate that learning continued to take place after the immediate post-test, as the mean scores of all the groups showed a gradual increase. The ANOVA results shown in Table 11 indicate the statistically significant differences existed between the groups ($F = 5.85$, $p = 0.001$). Like the previous trends, the multimedia group showed the highest performance improvement with the largest effect size ($d = 0.86$) compared to the control group, followed by the hypermedia group and the hypertext group with the effect sizes 0.76 and 0.60, respectively.

Table 8. *Descriptive statistics for receptive knowledge of all groups*

Groups	N	Pretest			Immediate Post-test			Delayed Post-test		
		Mean	SD	SE Mean	Mean	SD	SE Mean	Mean	SD	SE Mean
Control Group	40	20.90	5.188	0.82	22.68	5.631	0.89	23.03	4.644	0.73
Hypertext Group	40	21.08	6.240	0.99	25.35	4.801	0.76	25.93	5.040	0.80
Hypermedia Group	40	19.48	5.905	0.93	26.20	5.788	0.92	26.55	4.585	0.73
Multimedia Group	40	20.30	5.431	0.86	27.00	5.208	0.82	27.33	5.332	0.84

Table 9. *Effect sizes between the experimental groups and control group for receptive knowledge*

Pairing	Immediate post-test	Delayed post-test
Hypertext – Control	$d = 0.51$	$d = 0.60$
Hypermedia – Control	$d = 0.62$	$d = 0.76$
Multimedia – Control	$d = 0.80$	$d = 0.86$

*The levels for small, medium, and large effect sizes of Cohen's d are set to be 0.20, 0.50, and 0.80, respectively.

Table 10. *Immediate post-test ANOVA for receptive knowledge*

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	p*
Between Groups	423.7	3	141.2	4.90	.003
Within Groups	4500.3	156	28.8		
Total	974.58	159			

*p < 0.05

Table 11. *Delayed post-test ANOVA for receptive knowledge*

Source	SS	Df	MS	F	p*
Between Groups	422.8	3	140.9	5.85	.001
Within Groups	3760.4	156	24.1		
Total	4183.2	159			

*p < 0.05

According to the results of tests of the receptive aspect of vocabulary, it is plainly noticeable that in both immediate and delayed post-tests, learning vocabulary through multimedia provided higher learning gains to the students than hypertext and hypermedia treatments.

In short, the results indicate that the multimedia setting of vocabulary learning could offer the most significant improvement in a CALL environment, followed second by the hypermedia, and lastly, the hypertext. These conclusions give a reasonable explanation for the second research question this study posed, which investigated the effect of different vocabulary learning modes on receptive vocabulary knowledge. The obtained results also address the third research question, which investigated whether vocabulary can be learned incidentally using hypertext, hypermedia, and multimedia applications on a graded reader in a CALL environment. The results provide sufficient evidence for improving the incidental vocabulary of the three experimental groups after the treatment. The effect sizes and mean gains indicate

the betterment of the participants' incidental vocabulary in the later stages of the study, i.e., the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test.

V Conclusion

Vocabulary acquisition has always been a problem for ESL/EFL learners in English learning. This paper studies and analyzes CALL applications of hypertext, hypermedia, and multimedia on the graded reader. It carries out pre/post-tests to assess students' incidental vocabulary acquisition levels in different technological input modes. The author concludes that CALL applications can promote vocabulary learning gains with considerable positive effects on incidental vocabulary acquisition. The results of productive knowledge and receptive knowledge tests indicate that the multimedia setting of vocabulary learning could offer the most significant improvement in a CALL environment, followed second by the hypermedia, and lastly, the hypertext. The combination of computer hypermedia texts and images with listening (multimedia input mode) is more likely to develop the students' foreign language vocabulary skills in both the productive and receptive aspects.

VI Limitations and Future Recommendations

The researcher deems it necessary to mention the few limitations associated with this study. Firstly, the variables of motivation and self-study were controlled by limiting the treatment to the classroom only. No learning tasks were assigned to the students outside the classroom. They were specifically instructed not to use any other CALL applications for vocabulary learning, including any applications of their cellphones, to ensure the consistency and reliability of results during the treatment period. Moreover, the researcher believes that if explicit teaching had been done during the treatment, the results would have been much better compared to the obtained results in this study. Finally, the research was also limited by time and resources due to the short span of class time and the IT resources available to the researcher. The present study's findings may have vital implications for L2 vocabulary teaching and the design of useful technological tools. The researcher strongly suggests that the CALL applications should be promoted to the teaching of English vocabulary so that learners would willingly accept and like the technological teaching mode to boost incidental learning and mastery of vocabulary in the language learning process.

References

AbuSeileek, A. F. (2008). Hypermedia annotation presentation: Learners' preferences and effect on EFL reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. *CALICO Journal, 25*(2), 260–275. https://DOI.org/10.1558/CJ.V25I2.260-275

Bagui, S. (1998). Reasons for increased learning using multimedia. *Journal of Educational Multimedia and Hypermedia, 7*(1), 3–18.

Balasubramanian, T. & Saminathan, B. (2015). Use of multimedia-as a tool for effective learning. *International Journal of Scientific Research, 4*(12), 18-19.

Bataineh, A. M. (2014). The Effect of Electronic Dictionaries and Hypermedia Annotations on English Major Students' Reading Compression and Vocabulary Learning. *International Journal of Linguistics, 6*(4), 102. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.5296/ijl.v6i4.6025

Beatty, K. (2010). *Teaching and researching computer-assisted language learning*. Harlow: Longman Pearson.

Bisson, M.-J., van Heuven, W. J. B., Conklin, K., & Tunney, R. J. (2015). The role of verbal and pictorial information in multimodal incidental acquisition of foreign language vocabulary. *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *68*(7), 1306–1326. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1080/17470218.2014.979211

Bose D., Sammons D. (2009) The Use of Hypertext as a Vocabulary Acquisition Strategy for English as Second Language Learners. In: Aykin N. (eds) *Internationalization, Design and Global Development.* IDGD 2009. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, vol 5623. Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. https://DOI.org/10.1007/978-3-642-02767-3_16

Bromley, K. (2007). Nine Things Every Teacher Should Know About Words and Vocabulary Instruction. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy, 50*(7), 528–537. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1598/jaal.50.7.2

Brown, R., Waring, R., & Donkaewbua, S. (2008). Incidental vocabulary acquisition from reading, reading-while-listening, and listening to stories. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *20*(2), 136–163.

Carter, R. (2001). Vocabulary. In R. Carter and D.Nunan (Eds.). *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (pp. 42-47). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chen, I.-J., & Yen, J.-C. (2013). Hypertext annotation: Effects of presentation formats and learner proficiency on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning in foreign

languages. *Computers & Education, 63,* 416–423. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2013.01.005

Anjel Tozcu & James Coady (2004): Successful Learning of Frequent Vocabulary through CALL also Benefits Reading Comprehension and Speed. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 17:5, 473-495. DOI.org/10.1080/0958822042000319674

Feng, Y., & Webb, S. (2020). Learning vocabulary through reading, listening, and viewing: which mode of input is most effective? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 42*(3), 499-523. DOI:10.1017/S0272263119000494

Gerjets, P. & Kirschner, P. (2009). Learning from Multimedia and Hypermedia. In Balacheff, N. et al. (eds.), *Technology-Enhanced Learning*, 251-272, DOI: 10.1007/978-1-4020-9827-7

Goulden, R., Nation, I.S.P. and Read, J. (1990). How Large Can a Receptive Vocabulary Be? *Applied Linguistics*, *11*(4), pp. 341-363.

Han, M., & Niu, S. (2019). Effect of Computer Multimedia Assisted Word Annotation on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition of English Reading. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning (iJET), 14*(13), 21. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.3991/ijet.v14i13.10705

Hirsh, D. and Nation, I.S.P. (1992). What vocabulary size is needed to read unsimplified texts for pleasure? *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *8*(2), pp. 689-696.

Horst, M., Cobb, T., & Meara, P. (1998). Beyond *A Clockwork Orange*: Acquiring second language vocabulary through reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *11*, 207–223.

Hsu, W. (2014). The effects of audiovisual support on EFL learners' productive vocabulary. *ReCALL, 26*(01), 62–79. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1017/s0958344013000220

Hwang, K. and Nation, I.S.P. (1989). Reducing the vocabulary load and encouraging vocabulary learning through reading newspapers. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *6*(1), pp. 323-335.

Ivers, K. S. & Barron, A. E. (2002). *Multimedia projects in education: designing, producing, and assessing.* Westport Connecticut: Greenwood Publishing Group, Inc.

Krashen, S. (1980). The input hypothesis. In J. Alatis (ed.): *Current Issues in Bilingual Education.* Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics. Georgetown: Georgetown University Press.

Krashen, S. (1989). We Acquire Vocabulary and Spelling by Reading: Additional Evidence for the Input Hypothesis. *The Modern Language Journal*, *73*(4), 440-464. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.2307/326879

Krashen, S. D. & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom.* San Francisco: Alemany Press.

Liu, M. (1995). Contextual enrichment through hypermedia technology: implications for second-language learning. *Computers in Human Behavior, 11*(3-4), 439–450. DOI:10.1016/0747-5632(95)80009-w

Liu, M. (1993). The Effects of Hypermedia Assisted Instruction on Second Language Learning through a Semantic-Network-Based Approach. *The Annual Conference of the Eastern Educational Research Association*.

Mao, L.& Zhang, Y. (2017). Research on the Influence of Computer Hypermedia Annotations on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in English Reading. *iJET, 12*(8), 95-104. DOI: https://DOI.org/10.3991/ijet.v12.i08.7144

Mayer, R. E. (2009). *Multimedia learning* (2nd ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press. DOI: https://DOI.org/10.1017/CBO9780511811678

Mayer, R. E. (2014). Incorporating motivation into multimedia learning. *Learning and Instruction, 29*, 171-173. DOI:10.1016/j.learninstruc.2013.04.003

Muchtar, N. (2018). The Effects of Multimedia Technology on Electrical Engineering Students' Reading Achievement. *The Asian ESP Journal, 14*(6), 86-94.

Nation, I. S. P. (2006). How large a vocabulary is needed for reading and listening? *Canadian Modern Language Review, 500*, 59–82.

Nation, I.S.P. (1980). Strategies for receptive vocabulary learning. *Guidelines* 3: 18-23.

Nation, I.S.P. (1982). Beginning to learn foreign vocabulary: a review of the research. *RELC Journal* 13: 14-36.

Nation, I.S.P. (Interviewed by N. Schmitt) (1995). The word on words: an interview with Paul Nation. *Language Teacher* 19(2), pp.5-7.

Nation, P. (1993). Measuring readiness for simplified material: a test of the first 1,000 words of English. In M.L. Tickoo (ed.), *Simplification: Theory and Application*, *RELC Anthology Series, 31*, pp.193-203.

Nation, P. (1993). Vocabulary size, growth and use. In The *Bilingual Lexicon*. R. Schreuder and B. Weltens (eds.), Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp.115-134.

Nation, P. (1995-6). Best practice in vocabulary teaching and learning. *EA Journal*, 3(2), 7-15.

Nation, P. (2015). Principles guiding vocabulary learning through extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 27*(1), 136–145. DOI: https://DOI.org/10.26686/wgtn.12543404.v1

Nation, P. and Waring, R. (1997). Vocabulary Size, Text Coverage and Word Lists. In: Schmitt, N. and McCarthy, M. (Eds.), *Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition, and Pedagogy*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 6-19.

Nation, P., & Wang, M. K. (1999). Graded readers and vocabulary. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *12*(2), 355–380.

Newton, J. and Nation, P. (1997). Vocabulary and teaching. In Coady, J. & Huckin, T. (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition.* New York: Cambridge University Press. pp. 238-254.

Oetting, J. B., Rice, M. L., & Swank, L. K. (1995). Quick Incidental Learning (QUIL) of Words by School-Age Children with and without SLI. *Journal of Speech Language and Hearing Research, 38*(2), 434-445. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1044/jshr.3802.434

Pavia, N., Webb, S., & Faez, F. (2019). Incidental Vocabulary Learning Through Listening to Songs. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 41*(4), 745-768. DOI:10.1017/S0272263119000020

Pellicer-S'anchez, A. (2016). Incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition from and while reading. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 38*, 97–130.

Pellicer-S'anchez, A., & Schmitt, N. (2010). Incidental vocabulary acquisition from an authentic novel: Do things fall apart? *Reading in a Foreign Language, 22*,

Pellicer-Sánchez, A. (2015). Learning L2 collocations incidentally from reading. *Language Teaching Research, 21*(3), 381–402. DOI: https://DOI.org/10.1177/1362168815618428

Peters, E., & Webb, S. (2018). Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition Through Viewing L2 Television and Factors That Affect Learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 40*(3), 551-577. DOI:10.1017/S0272263117000407

Peters, E., Heynen, E., & Puimège, E. (2016). Learning vocabulary through audiovisual input: The differential effect of L1 subtitles and captions. *System*, *63*, 134–148. http://DOI.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.10.002

Pigada, M., & Schmitt, N. (2006). Vocabulary acquisition from extensive reading: A case study. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *18*(1), 1–28.

Plass, J. L., & Jones, L.C. (2005). Multimedia learning in second language acquisition. In R.E. Mayer (Ed.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Multimedia Learning* (pp. 467–488). New York: Cambridge University Press. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1017/cbo9780511816819.030

Pritchard, R., & O'Hara, S. (2009). Vocabulary Development in the Science Classroom: Using Hypermedia Authoring to Support English Learners. *The Tapestry Journal: An International Multidisciplinary Journal on English Language Learner Education, 1*(1), 15–29.

Saragi, T., Nation, I.S.P., and Meister, G.F. (1978). Vocabulary learning and reading. *System* 6, 2: 72-78.

Sato, T., & Suzuki, A. (2010). Do multimedia-oriented visual glosses really facilitate EFL vocabulary learning? A comparison of planar images with three-dimensional images. *Asian EFL Journal, 12*(4), 160-172

Schmitt, N. (2008). Review article: Instructed second language vocabulary learning. *Language Teaching Research, 12*, 329–363.

Schmitt, N., Jiang, X., & Grabe, W. (2011). The percentage of words known in a text and reading comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal, 95*, 26–43.

Schmitt, N., & Schmitt, D. (2014). A reassessment of frequency and vocabulary size in L2 vocabulary teaching. *Language Teaching*, *47*, 484-503.

Shu, H., Anderson, R. C., & Zhang, H. (1995). Incidental Learning of Word Meanings While Reading: A Chinese and American Cross-Cultural Study. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*(1), 76-95. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.2307/747745

Sun, Y., & Dong, Q. (2004). An Experiment on Supporting Children's English Vocabulary Learning in Multimedia Context. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 17*(2), 131–147. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1080/0958822042000334217

Swanborn, M. S. L., & de Glopper, K. (1999). Incidental Word Learning While Reading: A Meta-Analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 69*(3), 261–285. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.3102/00346543069003261

Thao, V.T. (2003). The contribution of multimedia tools to EFL setting unfamiliar with technology. *Asian EFL Journal, 5*(3), 1-14.

Toya, M. (1993). Form Explanation in Modification of Listening Input in L2 Vocabulary Learning. *Occasional Paper # 23.* Honolulu: Department of English as a Second Language, University of Hawai'i. URI: http://hdl.handle.net/10125/38658

Van Zeeland, H., & Schmitt, N. (2013). Incidental vocabulary acquisition through L2 listening: A dimensions approach. *System, 41*(3), 609–624. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.07.012

Van Zeeland, H., & Schmitt, N. (2013). Incidental vocabulary acquisition through L2 listening: A dimensions approach. *System, 41*(3), 609–624. DOI:10.1016/j.system.2013.07.012

Vidal, K. (2011). A Comparison of the Effects of Reading and Listening on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition. *Language Learning*, *61*(1), 219–258. http://DOI.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00593.x

Waring, R., & Takaki, M. (2003). at what rate do learners learn and retain new vocabulary from reading a graded reader? *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *15*(2), 130–163.

Webb, S. (2007). The Effects of Repetition on Vocabulary Knowledge. *Applied Linguistics, 28(1), 46–65.* DOI:10.1093/applin/aml048

Webb, S. (2010). A corpus driven study of the potential for vocabulary learning through watching movies. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, *15*(4), 497–519. http://DOI.org/10.1075/ijcl.15.4.03web

Webb, S. (2011). Selecting Television Programs for Language Learning: Investigating Television Programs from the Same Genre. *International Journal of English Studies, 11*(1), 117-135. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.6018/ijes/2011/1/137131

Webb, S., & Chang, A. C.-S. (2012a). Second language vocabulary growth. *RELC Journal*, *43*(1), 113–126. http://DOI.org/10.1177/0033688212439367

Webb, S., & Chang, A. C.-S. (2012b). Vocabulary learning through assisted and unassisted repeated reading. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *68*(3), 267–290. http://DOI.org/10.3138/cmlr.1204.1

Webb, S., & Chang, A. C.-S. (2014). Second language vocabulary learning through extensive reading with audio support: How do frequency and distribution of occurrence affect learning? *Language Teaching Research, 19(6), 667–686.* DOI:10.1177/1362168814559800

Webb, S., & Chang, A. C.-S. (2015). How Does Prior Word Knowledge Affect Vocabulary Learning Progress in an Extensive Reading Program? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *37*(4), 651–675. http://DOI.org/10.1017/S0272263114000606

Webb, S., & Nation, I. S. P. (2017). *How vocabulary is learned*. Oxford, UK: Oxford

Webb, S., & Rodgers, M. P. H. (2009). The Lexical Coverage of Movies. *Applied Linguistics, 30*(3), 407–427. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.1093/applin/amp010

Wodinsky, M. and Nation, I.S.P. (1988). Learning from graded readers. *Reading in a Foreign Language* 5, 1: 155-161.

Zahar, R., Cobb, T., & Spada, N. (2001). Acquiring vocabulary through reading: effects of frequency and contextual richness. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, *57*(4), 541–572.

Zahar, R., Cobb, T., & Spada, N. (2001). Acquiring Vocabulary through Reading: Effects of Frequency and Contextual Richness. *The Canadian Modern Language Review, 57*(4), 541–572. DOI:https://DOI.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.4.541