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Contents

What Do They Actually Need? An Investigation of English Learning Motivation of the Underprivileged Students

Ruth Wong[1]

[1] The Education University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China

Correspondence: Ruth Wong, The Education University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China.

Abstract

Motivation plays an indispensable role in education because it directs students' behaviour toward goals; enhances cognitive processing which leads to effort and persistence in learning activities; and determines what learning behaviours should be enforced and brings learning outcomes. To the underprivileged students, what is the meaning of learning English? Why do they need to get English Language education? What drives them to learn English? To answer these questions, this paper has established a framework of learning motivation to profile the English learning motivation of the underprivileged students. Based on the proposed framework, a questionnaire has been developed. Over 2800 adolescents responded to the questionnaire. Data analysis included two procedures: Principle Components Analysis and Exploratory Factor Analysis were employed. According to the results found in this study, parental-teacher influence, extrinsic values and self-perception on own abilities are the most significant factors influencing the English learning motivation of the underprivileged.

1. Introduction

Motivation plays an indispensable role in education because it directs students' behaviour toward goals; enhances cognitive processing which leads to effort and persistence in learning activities; and determines what learning behaviours should be enforced and brings learning outcomes. To the underprivileged students, what is the meaning of learning? Why do they need to receive education? What drives them to learn? This paper aims to investigate the English learning motivation of this group of adolescents and shed light on classroom practices.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Towards a Comprehensive English Learning Motivation Framework

In the past, traditional psychologists were more concerned with what motivation is than with how this knowledge could be applied in social settings such as classrooms (e.g., Freud, 1926; Hull 1943). The development of motivation research has changed dramatically. As Eccles, Wigfield and Schiefle (1998) summarised, motivation research has gone from biologically based drive perspective to behavioural-mechanistic perspective and then to cognitive-mediational/constructivist perspective. In the 20th century, the importance of affect and less conscious processes has become the central theme. Researchers started to become interested in the contextual influences on motivation. Several significant motivation theories were proposed (e.g. Ames, 1992; Atkinson and Feather, 1966; Bandura, 1997; Covington, 1992; Eccles and Wigfield, 1995; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Rotter, 1982; Weiner, 1984, 1992). However, there have been no comprehensive framework to investigate learning motivation holistically. Wong (2007, 2014) had developed a comprehensive framework for motivation, but it was only restricted to motivation to learn English as a foreign language. Therefore, a framework for investigating students' general learning motivation for a multi-contextual setting is needed.

According to Cook & Artino (2016), there are four main types of theories for learning motivation. They are: competence, value, attributions, and social and cognitive process. This categorisation of motivation theories is known to be comprehensive which embraces most learning motivation theories. However, Cook & Artino (2016) did not explicitly identify specific theories under each category. Nor there is past study studying whether these four categories are distinct from one another. To fill this gap, attempts were made to examine these four categories and linked related motivation theories under each category in order to establish a comprehensive learning motivation framework for this study. For competence, it refers to whether the person perceive that he

has the ability to perform the task. Theories include expectancy of success (Atkinson, 1974), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997), learned-helplessness (Seligman, 1975), confidence and self-conception (Maslow, 1943). For value, it refers to the anticipated results of the learning task. Related theories include task value (expectancy-value theory), outcome expectation, self-determination, and intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972). For attributions, it refers to learners establish links between an observed event or outcome and the personal factors and underlying cause that led to this outcome. That is, if the learners perceive that the underlying cause is within their control, they will be likely to persist in face of initial failure. Theory related to attribution is attribution theory (Weiner, 1984, 1992). For social and cognitive process, it refers to interactions between an individual and a larger social context and it assumes this process is not observable. Related theory is Bandura's (1992) social-cognitive theory. However, this category can be confusing as it may overlap with the above three categories. Social cognitive process may include (*a*) understanding others, (*b*) understanding oneself, (*c*) controlling oneself, and (*d*) the processes that occur at the interface of self and others (Leiberman, 2007). For example, self-efficacy can be affected by factors including personal, behavioural and environmental factors (Bandura, 1997). In order to distinctly identify the core elements influencing learning motivation, this study suggested that social and cognitive process should be clearly defined the core elements of what social factors influence cognitive motivation process. According to research, the most direct and significant social influence' on learning motivation include: peers (Berndt, 1990; Plecha, 2002; Wentzel, 1998), teachers (Davis, 2003; Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, & Oort, 2011), and parents (Eccles & Harold, 1993; Henderson et al., 1994; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Shumow & Miller, 2001; Wong, 2012). Related theories include social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997). Table 1 offers a concise summary of the modified Cook & Artino (2016)'s motivation categorisation.

Table 1. Summary of Motivation Categorisation

Motivation Categorisation	Motivation Theories
Competence	expectancy of success (Atkinson, 1974)
	self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997)
	learned helplessness theory (Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Seligman, 1975)
Value	expectancy-value theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995)
	Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation orientation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972)
	Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985)
Attributions	Attribution theory (Weiner, 1984, 1992)
	Locus of control theory (Rotter, 1982)
	Goal orientation theory (Ames, 1992)
Social-cognitive process	Social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997)
	• Peers (Berndt, 1990; Plecha, 2002 & Wentzel, 1998)
	• Teachers (Davis, 2003; Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, & Oort, 2011)
	• Parents (Eccles & Harold, 1993; Henderson et al., 1994; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Shumow & Miller, 2001, Wong, 2012)

Based on the above literature, one can see motivation can be examined and investigated by using different approaches. Behaviourists like Gagne and Driscoll (1988) argued that environmental factors and situational variables affect human's motivation and its behaviour. Learning can be studied by investigating human behaviour and its consequences in the environment. Students' level of motivation can be measured by the amount of time learners engage in learning.

2.2 English Learning Motivation of the Underprivileged Students

The underprivileged in the paper refers to the students with low socio-economic status. Recent research has reaffirmed the relationships between being underprivileged and education, e.g. Faustina (2017); Haryanto, Makmur, Ismiyati, & AISYAH (2018); Nattheeraphong (2020) and Vonkova, Jones, Moore, Altinkalp, & Selcuk, H. (2021). The most recent ones include Morgan, Farkas, Hillemeier, & Maczuga's (2009) study, they indicated underprivileged students may develop academic skills than children with average or higher socio-economic

status. Aikens & Barbarin (2008) also found that schools in poor districts may negatively affecting students' learning progress and attainment. Specifically, the underprivileged students have less likelihood to have experiences which encourage development of fundamental skills like reading acquisition (Buckingham, Wheldall, & Beaman-Wheldall, 2013). In the United States, study found that children from lower socioeconomic status entered high school with average literacy skills five years behind those of average or higher income family students (Bergen, Zuijen, Bishop, & Jong, 2016; Reardon, Valentino, Kalogrides, Shores, & Greenberg, 2013). Students are found to be more present-oriented and found to have lower self-esteem and images which contribute to their low learning motivation for upward social mobility (Colyar & Stich, 2011; Wong, 2007b, 2008a, 2012, 2014a; Ramchandani, Sharma, Anekar, & Mishra, 2016) Diemer and Blustein (2007) also found that racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic barriers hindered students' career development.

However, research indicated that school conditions contribute more to the socio-economic differences in learning processes than family income or background do (Aikens & Barbarin, 2008). Researchers have argued that classroom environment plays an important role in outcomes. For instance, students who were randomly assigned to higher quality classroom earned more, were more likely to attend college, and lived in better neighborhoods in the future (Chetty, Friedman, Hilger, Saez, Schanzenbach, & Yagan, 2011). Also, teacher's quality of teacher training are correlated with children's academic achievement (Clotfelter, Ladd, & Vigdo, 2006; Gimbert, Bol, & Wallace, 2007).

Therefore, to help the underprivileged to learn with equal opportunities, despite their socio-economic status, it is necessary to investigate their English learning motivation hence appropriate policy and classroom practices may help to reduce some of these risk factors.

3. Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following questions:

1) What is the English learning motivation profile of the underprivileged students?

2) What are the most significant factors affecting the English learning motivation of the underprivileged?

4. Methodology

4.1 Design of Study

In educational research, there are many ways to conduct reliable studies. These include naturalistic and ethnographic research, historical research, longitudinal research, correlational research, action research, *ex post facto* research, quasi-experiments and single-case research. Data are collected using questionnaires, interviews, accounts, role-playing, observation, tests, and personal constructs. This study will investigate the English learning motivation of the underprivileged students and seek how particular motivation components impact on students' learning motivation. In view of time constraints and the need for a broad-based investigation, it is believed that an adapted questionnaire will collect sufficiently-reliable data, as it reduces bias and is less intrusive - the researcher being unable to influence the responses with verbal or visual clues.

4.2 Procedures

A pilot study was carried out before the final questionnaire was set. Students completed the questionnaire and were invited to comment on its language and content. Appropriate changes were made after several items were determined to be vague and other questions found to be statistically unreliable. Following the pilot study, students completed the questionnaire in class while monitored by the researcher. With all students gathered in the school hall, the researcher read the instructions from the questionnaire. Students were then assured that the information they provided would only be used for this study, and were given thirty minutes to complete the questionnaire.

4.3 Design of Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of 52 closed questions. As no previous study had done so, the researcher developed a questionnaire based on Cook and Artino's (2016) category of motivation theories.

Based on the discussion above, this paper attempted to establish a framework for English learning motivation in order to design a questionnaire to profile the motivation pattern of the underprivileged. In this framework, as suggested by Cook and Artino (2016), there are four main components and each component has its related motivation theories (see Table 2). Four questionnaire items were developed under each motivation theory (except for intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, two questionnaire items were developed respectively).

Table 2. Sample questionnaire item under each motivation categorisation

Motivation Categorisation	Motivation Theories	Sample questionnaire items
Competence	expectancy of success (Atkinson, 1974)	If I try hard enough at school, I will be successful.
	self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997)	I have the ability to do well at school.
	learned helplessness theory (Abramson *et al.*, 1978; Seligman, 1975)	Even there are difficulties ahead, I have the ability to overcome them.
Value	expectancy-value theory (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995)	Learning is valuable to me.
	Intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation orientation (Gardner and Lambert, 1972)	Learning is useful for my career development
	Self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985)	I will put on appropriate amount of effort when I see the value of the goal.
Attributions	Attribution theory (Weiner, 1984, 1992)	I know what caused my academic attainment results.
	Locus of control theory (Rotter, 1982)	Whether to try harder and get good results is under my control.
	Goal orientation theory (Ames, 1992)	I will have a sense of successfulness if I have good academic results.
Social-cognitive process	Social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) • Peers (Berndt, 1990; Plecha, 2002; Wentzel, 1998)	I do not want to lose face in front of my friends, so I try very hard at school.
	• Teachers (Davis, 2003; Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, & Oort, 2011)	I do not want to disappoint my teachers, so I always try hard.
	• Parents (Eccles & Harold, 1993; Henderson et al., 1994; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Shumow & Miller, 2001; Wong, 2012)	I want to live up to my parent expectation.

Consisting of 52-items, the questionnaire was based on a six-point rating scale and elicited responses from the underprivileged students regarding their motivation to learn. 6 indicated statements respondents strongly agreed with; 5 referred to statements respondents agreed with; 4 signified statements respondents tended to agree with; 3 referred to statements respondents tended to disagree with; 2 signified statements respondents disagreed with while 1 indicated respondents strongly disagreed with those statements. Included were items about different motivational constructs under each motivation theory categories, i.e. competence, value, attribution and social-cognitive process. Respondents' demographic information was collected, such as age, gender, school year attending, as well as parental background information on education, family income and family income per capita (total family monthly income / total number of family members). The questionnaire was administered to students in their native Chinese language to avoid any language barrier issues. A reliability test on all these 52 questionnaire items was run to test if there is an internal consistency of all the items set. Reliability coefficient Cronbach alphas) for the motivational components was high, with an alpha value of 0.948 which means the internal consistency of the 52 items set in the questionnaire was high.

4.4 Statistical Analysis and Procedures

To address the two research questions, data analysis included two procedures: First *was a Principle Components Analysis* of the 52 motivational items set in the questionnaire which aimed to screen out any factors with loadings lower than 0.4 within their own factors (Stevens, 1996), thus to perform data reduction. Second, to isolate which components or sub-components were significant to the participants' English learning motivation. *Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)* was employed, mainly due to its ability to elicit clusters of student motivational responses as well as spot inter-relationships within a set of variables. To observe to what degree the phenomenon is present in the population, the effect-size calculation is used. The effect size is used to express the

magnitude of a difference in means in standard deviation units. Standardised effect sizes are obtained by removing the effect of the metric, allowing for comparison of results across studies when different metrics are used to measure dependent variables (Thompson, 2007). The Pearson r value is 0.886 which shows there is a positive relationship between variables.

4.5 Participants

This project invited 2 secondary schools to participate. One in Area A (School A) and one in Area B (School B)–the poorest districts with the highest numbers of children in poverty in Hong Kong (Society for Community Organisation and its Children's Rights Association, 2017). All students were invited to take part in this project (N:2882) and their participation were on voluntarily basis. There were 6 grades in both schools. Among the valid responses, 1369 are girls and 1515 are boys of whom parents' education background were relatively low. Students were aged from 13-19. According to the collected data, it was found that although participants from these two schools may have family income between US$4501-6000 (17%). However, the monthly income per capita is low, which demonstrated the number of family members per household may be high and the participants were still living under the poverty line. The poverty lines for all household sizes rose in 2016. For single people, it was HK$4,000 (US$512), HK$9,000 for a two-person household and HK$15,000 for three people (South China Morning Post, 2017). Table 3 summarises the details of participants.

Table 3. Details of participants

		School A	School B	Total
Total number of students		1402	1482	2882
Gender	Male students	747	768	1515
	Female students	655	714	1369
School form attending	S1 (Grade 7)	240	247	487
	S2 (Grade 8)	233	245	480
	S3 (Grade 9)	238	239	477
	S4 (Grade 10)	230	249	497
	S5 (Grade 11)	231	250	481
	S6 (Grade 12)	230	252	482
Age	13	238	237	475
	14	236	251	487
	15	231	234	465
	16	228	240	468
	17	229	242	471
	18	205	248	453
	19	35	30	75
Family income per month	US$1500 or below	288 (9.98%)	230 (8.77%)	270 (9.37%)
	US$ 1501-2000	230 (16.4%)	251 (16.92%)	481 (16.69%)
	US$ 2001-2500	321 (22.9%)	385 (25.98%)	706 (24.5%)
	US$ 2501-3000	211 (15.05%)	202 (13.63%)	413 (14.33%)
	US$ 3001-3500	149 (10.63%)	196 (13.23%)	345 (11.97%)
	US$ 3501-4000	124 (8.84%)	136 (9.18%)	260 (9.02%)
	US$ 4001-4500	142 (10.13%)	141 (9.51%)	283 (3.4%)
	US$ 4501-5000	57 (5.47%)	41 (2.77%)	98 (3.4%)
	US$ 5001-6000	28 (2%)	0 (0%)	28 (0.97%)
	None of the above	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Monthly income per capita (family income per month divided by number of family members)	US$ 300 or below			
	US$ 301-400	753 (53.71%)	601 (40.55%)	1354 (46.98%)
	US$ 401-500	475 (33.88%)	681 (45.95%)	1156 (40.11%)
	US$ 501-600	29 (2.07%)	59 (3.98%)	88 (3.05%)
	US$ 601-700	58 (4.14%)	32 (4.18%)	120 (4.16%)
	US$ 701-800	58 (4.14%)	39 (2.63%)	97 (3.37%)
	US$ 801-900	29 (2.07%)	28 (1.89%)	57 (1.98%)
	US$ 901-1000	0 (0%)	12 (0.81%)	12 (0.42%)
	None of the above	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Parent education				
Father				
	Not educated	346 (24.68%)	231 (8%)	577 (20.02%)
	Primary	480 (34.24%)	2017 (70%)	1212 (42.05%)
	Secondary	576 (41.08%)	519 (18%)	1095 (37.99%)
	University or above	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Mother				
	Not educated	499 (35.59%)	403 (27.19%)	902 (31.3%)
	Primary	471 (33.59%)	810 (54.66%)	1281 (44.45%)
	Secondary	432 (30.81%)	269 (18.15%)	701 (24.32%)
	University or above	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

5. Results

After data analysis of the 52-item questionnaire, descriptive statistical analysis showed that social-cognitive process served the main motivation for the underprivileged to learn followed by attributions, values and competence (See Table 4).

Table 4. Learning motivation of the underprivileged

Motivation Categorisation	Means	SD	Rank
Competence	2.04	1.08	6
Value	2.16	0.66	5
Attributions	2.20	1.34	4
Social-cognitive process	3.63	0.89	-
-peers	2.88	1.12	3
-teachers	4.16	0.52	1
-parents	3.86	1.04	2

In order to screen out any motivation factors lower than 0.4 within their own factors (Stevens, 1996), data reduction was performed. According to the analysis, 8 factors were generated: parent-teacher influence, Extrinsic values, Self-perceived ability, Peers, Self-expectations, attributions, intrinsic values, self-determination. Table 5 shows the loadings of each motivation components are greater than 0.3 (see Table 5). Among these factors, parent-teacher influence placed most influence on learning motivation of the underprivileged, followed by extrinsic values, self-perceived ability and peers.

Table 5. Loadings or 52 motivation components (N=2882)

	Component							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Parent teacher influence								
Social-cognitive theory-Teachers (Q45)	.822							
Social-cognitive theory-Parents (Q50)	.726							
Social-cognitive theory-Teachers (Q48)	.697							
Social-cognitive theory-Parents (Q52)	.665							
Social-cognitive theory-Teachers (Q46)	.653							
Social-cognitive theory-Teachers (Q47)	.574							
Social-cognitive theory-Parents (Q51)	.528							
Social-cognitive theory-Parents (Q49)	.465							
Extrinsic values								
Extrinsic motivation orientation (Q22)		.821						
Goal orientation theory (Q38)		.758						
Extrinsic motivation orientation (Q21)								
expectancy-value theory (Q13)		.723						
Extrinsic motivation orientation (Q23)		.683						
expectancy-value theory (Q14)		.529						
Self-perceived ability								
self-efficacy theory (Q7)			.792					
self-efficacy theory (Q8)			.751					
learned helplessness theory (Q9)			.724					
Locus of control theory (Q33)			.685					
learned helplessness theory (Q12)			.637					
Goal orientation theory (Q40)			.522					
Self-determination theory (Q26)			.510					
self-efficacy theory (Q5)			.508					
self-efficacy theory (Q6)			.502					
Locus of control theory (Q35)			.497					
Locus of control theory (Q36)			.476					
Goal orientation theory (Q39)			.462					
Locus of control theory (Q34)			.410					
Peers								
Social-cognitive theory-Peers (Q41)				.748				
Social-cognitive theory-Peers (Q42)				.620				
Social-cognitive theory-Peers (Q43)				.594				
Social-cognitive theory-Peers (Q44)				.427				
Self-expectations								
expectancy of success (Q3)					.801			
learned helplessness theory (Q11)					.788			
expectancy of success (Q1)					.724			

expectancy of success (Q4)	.716	
expectancy-value theory (Q15)	.693	
expectancy of success (Q2)	.628	
expectancy-value theory (Q16)	.597	
learned helplessness theory (Q10)	.482	

Attributions

Attribution theory (Q31)	.788	
Attribution theory (Q32)	.725	
Attribution theory (Q30)	.657	
Self-determination theory (Q28)	.589	
Attribution theory (Q29)	.431	

Intrinsic values

Intrinsic motivation orientation (Q20)	.685	
Intrinsic motivation orientation (Q18)	.582	
Intrinsic motivation orientation (Q17)	.521	
Intrinsic motivation orientation (Q19)	.486	

Self-determination

Self-determination theory (Q25)		.706
Self-determination theory (Q27)		.687
Extrinsic motivation orientation (Q24)		.552
Goal orientation theory (Q37)		.402

In order to isolate which components were significant to the English learning motivation of the underprivileged and elicit interrelationship within the motivation components, exploratory factor analysis was employed. After data reduction, 62.57% of the total variance was accounted for by three motivation factors: teacher-parent influence, goal orientation and extrinsic values, and self-perception (see Table 6).

Table 6. Factor loadings for 13 motivation components (N=2882)

Item	teacher-parent influence	goal orientation and extrinsic values	self-perception
Avoid Teachers' disappointment	.897		
Parents' expectation	.893		
Affiliative motive to please teacher	.832		
Avoid parents' disappointment	.785		
Parents' financial support	.742		
Teacher's encouragement	.689		
Need for achievement		.823	
Desire to have a stable life		.786	
Career development		.728	
Earn money		.684	
Self-confidence			.667
Self-ability			.481
Self-image			.421

6. Discussion and Implications

According to the results found in this study, parental-teacher influence, extrinsic values and self-perception on own abilities are the most significant factors influencing the English learning motivation of the underprivileged. Results are on par with the previous studies (Britner, S. L. & Pajares, F., 2006). Davis, 2003; Roorda, Koomen, Spilt, & Oort, 2011; Eccles & Harold, 1993; Henderson et al., 1994; Gutman & Midgley, 2000; Shumow & Miller, 2001; Wong, 2012). To further analyse the relationship among these factors, they can be understood as a motivation process. That is: activation, persistence, and intensity.

Activation in the motivation process refers to the process whereby motivation is prepared or stimulated for a subsequent learning reaction or behaviour. For the underprivileged students, the activation may take high level of effort to stimulate the interests in learning because these students usually posses progressive decline in intellectual functioning, cumulative academic achievement deficits, and strong inclination to premature School termination or higher drop-out rate. Thus, it takes high level of energy to activate this motivation process. Among the motivation factors found in this study, parent-teachers placed the most influential and significant. But with support and encouragement from parents, mentors and teachers, the seemingly unmotivated students may become optimistically resilient because positive social interaction with adults is categorised as one of the key developmental needs of adolescents (Sale, 1991). At home, a sense of respect and trust should be built so that the underprivileged will feel at ease despite the tension they encounter socially and psychologically from external environment away from home. At school, teachers may help students in the school finding common ground despite their socio-economic backgrounds and exercise positive reinforcements in class. Education on equal opportunities and mutual respect is necessary. On the individual basis, one-on-one counsellor will be of great effectiveness in motivating the underprivileged as they are usually deprived of care and attention, individual attention provided by teachers on planning their future and giving them hope will serve as the most effective activating stimulant to learning.

In the process of persistence, according to Meier & Albrecht (2003), the persistence process begins with setting a goal, continues with implementation behaviour oriented towards the set goal, finally evaluative how behaviours should be altered to reach the identified goal. In the case of the underprivileged of this study, students set a purpose for learning under the guidance of the parents and teachers after the activation process, and the goals are extrinsic in nature because education will transform one's socio-economic status. For example, a stable life and career advancement are often significant motivators. When they see a direct pathway between school and a positive future, motivation to keep learning will be facilitated. However, motivation may decline in the process of implementation because of failure and inadequacy, reactivation by teachers and parents is imperative at this point – readjusting the focus on achieving improvement rather than fearing failure. With the adjustment of focus with teachers and parents, the underprivileged students will evaluate their learning behaviour and attitude.

In the process of intensity, it is where self-perception on own abilities lies and motivation will sustain until the desired goal is achieved. After the process of persistence, self-efficacy, self-determination and perceived abilities are enhanced if the underprivileged students are able to readjust their learning behaviours in order to achieve the learning goals. Learning motivation is intensified. By continuing setting attainable goals under parent-teacher encouragement and help, readjusting learning behaviours towards set goals, the perception on own abilities will become positive and the underprivileged students will have confidence and motivation to continue learning English. Figure 1 demonstrates the process of learning motivation.
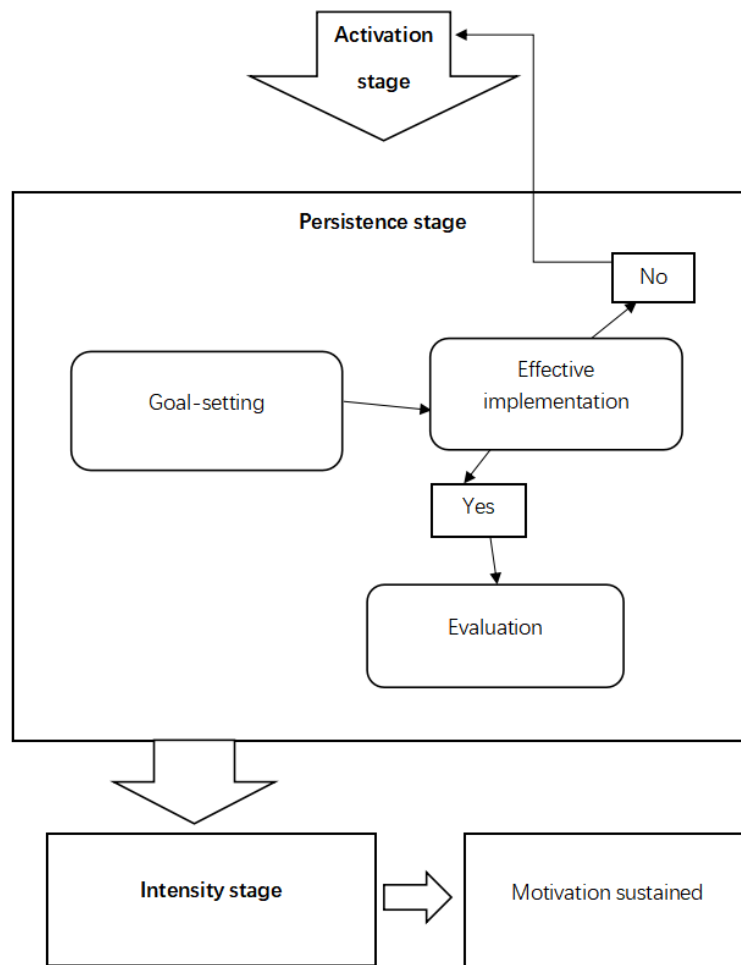
Figure 1. Process of learning motivation

7. Conclusion

To facilitate and enhance the English learning motivation of the underprivileged, this study found teacher-parent influence is the most significant. Setting an extrinsic-based goal for learning will be of effectiveness than cultivating the pleasure of learning for this group of students. Last but not the least, feeling competent and having a sense of achievement will sustain the English learning motivation of the underprivileged.

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Using Mind-Mapping to Develop EFL Students' Writing Performance

Saowalak Tarin[1] & Rattana Yawiloeng[2]

[1] Chiang Rai Provincial Administrative Organization School, Chaing Rai, Thailand

[2] School of Liberal Arts, University of Phayao, Thailand

Correspondence: Rattana Yawiloeng, School of Liberal Arts, University of Phayao, Thailand.

Abstract

The present study aims to explore the effects of using a mind map on EFL students' L2 writing development through descriptive writing activities. Purposive sampling was used to recruit 30 Thai high school students. They were placed into three groups depending on their English proficiency, including advanced, intermediate, and novice, and data was gathered using quantitative and qualitative methods. A Pre-test and post-test, a participant observation, and a semi-structured interview were used as instruments. The results demonstrated an enlargement in post-test scores after EFL students used a mind map to write. Furthermore, the students had overall positive feedback on using a mind map to develop EFL writing performance. As a result, the significant findings of this study lead to educational suggestions concerning the importance of thinking tools regarding the connections between pictorial and written information.

Keywords: a mind map, EFL Students' L2 writing, descriptive writing

1. Introduction

Writing is the process of conveying ideas, feelings, and thoughts in written form while paying special care to use language as accurately as possible (Khairunisa, Nadrun, & Rachmania, 2018). Writing needs intensive thought to form ideas into a word, a word into a sentence, and a phrase into a paragraph while using the proper syntax (Sadiah & Royani, 2019). As Al-Ahdal and Alqasham (2020) noted that students who write in a second or foreign language in academic situations experience difficulties because they cannot generate ideas in writing. Besides, Thiel and Conroy (2022) highlighted the significance of writing abilities in light of the effect of impairments on the capacity to participate in society. Furthermore, writing is a way of life that helps people communicate, recall, and represent themselves as individuals (Al-Ahdal & Alqasham, 2020). Writing is particularly important since a large majority of students study English for academic and professional goals that need strong writing abilities (Bhowmik, 2021). Therefore, writing is a complicated construct supported by a writer's linguistic, cognition, transcribing, and social-emotional abilities (Kim et al., 2021).

1.1 The Difficulties of Second Language (L2) Writing of EFL Learners

Problematically, students who study English as a foreign language (EFL) often find it challenging to start writing. Most EFL learners have faced difficulties while writing in a foreign language, with few opportunities to practice. Although students have many ideas in their minds, they struggle to express their ideas in written form. Due to the restricted availability of English courses at Taiwanese universities, EFL students have limited opportunities to develop their English writing (Kao & Reynolds, 2017). In the Japanese EFL context, lower-level EFL students are confronted with difficulties posed by the differing rhetorical styles of Japanese and English, as well as the logical paragraph structure utilized in written English (Okada, 2018). In addition, Korean learners' employing lexical collocations in their L2 writing may be deeply entrenched in their overall L2 writing abilities and not only in their understanding of L2 collocations (Chang, 2018). Besides, the EFL Indonesian students also had linguistic, cognitive, and psychological problems while they engaged in writing activities (Toba, Noor, & Sanu, 2019).

1.2 Thai EFL Learners' L2 Writing Challenges

Thai EFL students are also confronted with difficulties in writing in English since most of them have low English proficiency, limited knowledge of English vocabulary, and few opportunities to practice English writing. For example, Khemanuwong and colleagues (2020) revealed that writing academic papers was a modest

challenge for Thai students. These Thai EFL learners were required to conduct research in English; consequently, they confronted several challenges with the complicated writing procedure. These EFL students also encountered difficulties with sentence structure, tenses, and vocabulary (Khemanuwong et al., 2020).

Thai University students face EFL writing competence, and the educator must be conscious of both the classroom setting and the instructional strategy (Thongchalerm & Jarunthawatchai, 2020). Likewise, in Thailand, university admission test methods that solely assess reading abilities and grammatical knowledge have resulted in a disregard for other skills in the classroom, particularly the productive skills of writing and speaking (Chanaroke & Niemprapan, 2020). Additionally, writing is a skill that must be developed by studying and practicing regularly. As Pitikornpuangpetch and Suwanarak (2021) remarked, beliefs might impact teaching processes and decision-making in the classroom, as well as shape the execution of pedagogical strategy, which can impact the outcomes of teachers' professional development as educators and the academic achievement of students. The overcoming writing obstacles, it is necessary to determine what factors could lead to students' success in their writing. As a result, teachers must teach students writing strategies and how to choose the most appropriate strategy. Therefore, researchers and EFL writing teachers must explore how EFL students acquire the ability to write in English.

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Writing Approach Used in the EFL Writing Activities

Writing is a process of organizing thoughts, structuring them into a logical and unified system where all the ideas are interconnected and linked to the overall idea. Azizi and colleagues (2021) emphasized that writing used to be seen as primarily a cognitive process, but more lately, there has been a shift to emphasize a social perspective. Learning to write also entails learning the strategies of self-regulating cognitive activities and procedures to allow for a better grasp of cognitive processes in collaborative learning contexts and the situations under which such environments offer more effective instructional choices (Jiang & Kalyuga, 2022). Furthermore, students who understand how to regulate collaborative writing techniques may be able to transfer their expertise while writing freely (Teng, 2020). Therefore, there is a call for an effective tool to assist writing processes in writing classrooms.

2.2 Using a Mind Map as a Tool to Enhance L2 Writing

A mind map is recognized as an essential component of the exploratory meaning-making process by being a design-creative activity that results in a material artifact (Grant & Archer, 2019). Mind maps also help memorizing material simpler and more enjoyable while facilitating the generation of associations in a more creative, analytical, and multidimensional manner than conventional note-taking (Buzan, 2018). Educators and researchers have begun to develop and use software mind mapping as a tool for several education-related purposes. Some software tools that have been developed for a mind map are FreeMind, NovaMind, OpenMind, XMIND, and iMindMap. As Ratheeswari (2018) points out, ICTs can provide opportunities for both students and teachers to adapt learning and teaching to individual needs. Changing societies are effectively forcing schools to respond properly to this technical innovation. Thus, new technologies enable a mind map to serve as a collaborative online negotiating tool (Araujo, 2019). As Grant and Archer (2019) stated that a mental and physical process, a mind map allows people to develop ideas in new ways, encounter and convert ideas, and then compose these into a significant arrangement on a medium of choice. Additionally, the most common instances of mind map usage are brainstorming sessions, storyboarding presentations, visualizing concepts, or as an ideas organizer - all these instances contribute to developing critical thinking and improving speaking, reading, and writing skills (Kireeva, 2019). So, students can use a mind map to imagine and explore connections between topics, visualize and investigate connections between ideas, grasp the links between concepts, and better understand those concepts as well as the domain to which they belong. Besides, Choudhari et al. (2021) explained that a mind map is a learning tool that only provides a visual representation of a topic. In sum, mind maps are viewed as a useful tool for assisting learners in generating their ideas and transforming those ideas into writing through visualization.

2.3 The Links between a Mind Map and L2 Writing

Mind mapping plays an essential role in second language writing. Because a mind map explains, compares, classifies, creates a sequence, and makes a conclusion, students may develop coherent, clear, structured, and memorable language. Additionally, Pradasari and Pratiwi (2018) determined that a mind map might be used to improve students' performance in writing procedural texts, as it helps students conceive and organize their thoughts in the pre-writing process. Moreover, mind maps help students to enhance their vocabulary by linking new and old words with visuals that aid in conveying meaning in a particular setting (Khusniyah, 2019). Furthermore, the use of mind maps can motivate the students to write, it does not only irritate the students' ideas

in writing, but students become self-regulation of what they are going to write and making them more motivated to finish their writing (Hasanah & Ali, 2020). A mind map may also be utilized as a writing instrument to help learners generate ideas, and in L2 writing, learners with strong motivation write in the target language because it interests them (Sabarun, El-Muslimah, & Muhanif, 2021). Consequently, Luangkrajang (2022) exposes that the usage of a mind map in English language classes can provide students the chance to be active learners by independently gaining facts, processing information, arranging specifics, and developing knowledge.

3. Method

3.1 The EFL Classroom Context

This research was carried out in an EFL classroom in a Thai high school. The EFL high school students were registered in the Fundamental English course for 20 weeks. These students studied English for two hours per week. In the EFL classroom context, the Thai EFL teacher mostly played a leading role in giving knowledge, and the EFL students used both Thai and English to communicate with the teachers and their peers.

3.2 Participants

Purposive sampling was employed to choose 30 high school students from a northern Thai school who were studying English as a foreign language to engage in descriptive writing. These Thai EFL participants attended two hours of English lessons every week. For collecting qualitative data from the participants, the participants were divided into three competency levels, including two novices, two intermediate, and two advanced writers, according to their results in the writing tasks.

3.3 Research Design

The research is a mixed-method design. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches will be integrated to collect data. This study is aimed at investigating the effects of using a mind map to enhance EFL learners' L2 writing development. Therefore, the research procedure was conducted as shown in Figure 1.

First Phase (week 1)
First session:
- Pre-test of L2 writing (30 students)

Second Phase (session 2-7)
Writing Activities (6 weeks)
- Pre-writing stage: Planning (mind map technique) (small group activity)
- While-writing stage: Translating (peer writing)
- Post-writing stage: Reviewing (peer review)

Third Phase
Final session:
- Post-test of L2 writing (30 students)
- Semi-structure interview (6 students)

Figure 1. Design processes of writing stages for this study

3.4 Instruments

The instruments used in this study included the pre-test/post-test CEFR vocabulary B1 level of L2 writing and the attitude questionnaire. First, the pre-test and the post-test were prepared for 30 participants that were asked to write an English paragraph which a minimum of 50 words within 20 minutes. The pre-test and the post-test were prepared under a writing topic, namely 'One Day in School'. The pre-test was prepared for the participants in the first week, and the post-test was administered to the participants in the last week. Second, the attitude questionnaire was adapted from Kamli (2019) to study students' attitudes towards using a mind map to enhance L2 writing before and after the English writing activities. The dimensions of enjoyment (5 items), ease (5 items), competence/ability (5 items), and writing method (5 items) were addressed in this 20-item attitude questionnaire. Five Likert scales ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The mean scores were interpreted as follows 1.00 - 1.80 (strongly disagree), 1.81 - 2.60 (disagree), 2.61 - 3.40 (neutral), 3.41 - 4.20 (agree), and 4.21 - 5.00 (strongly agree). In order to ensure the instruments' reliability, three experts were asked to rate the IOC and provide suggestions. Before employing these instruments, the researcher was granted a research ethic from Phayao University, Thailand, and the ethics number is UP-HEC 2.2/022/65.

3.5 Procedures

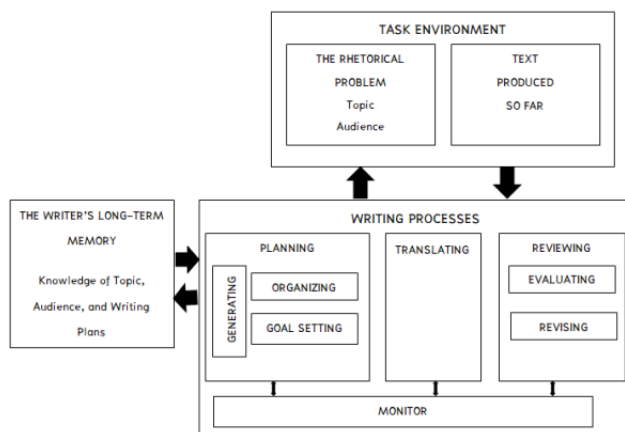3.5.1 The Writing Activities

In this study, the EFL writing activities were conducted for six sessions; each session was two hours, totalling 12 hours. Thirty students who studied in the sixth grade were chosen by the purposive sampling participated. In each writing session, the students were required to participate in the English activities for three stages, namely the pre-writing stage, the while-writing stage, and the post-writing stage. In the pre-writing stage (planning 30 minutes), the EFL students were asked to plan their paragraph writing in small group activities by generating ideas, organizing ideas, and goal setting. Therefore, the EFL students utilized mind maps as a tool to enhance their writing performance.

First of all, the researcher presented a mind map sample and requested participants to discuss their prior knowledge of utilizing mind maps in everyday routine and to check their background knowledge about descriptive paragraph writing. Then, the researcher delivered a brief presentation on the necessary techniques of mind maps in English writing tasks. Finally, the EFL students participated in a variety of exercises to learn how to create descriptive paragraphs using a mind map according to six lesson plans which were managed for three stages within a limited time.

In this study, there were three stages of writing descriptive paragraphs. In the pre-writing stage (*Planning*), the EFL students used plain paper (A4 size) and colorful pens to prepare materials for creating mind maps. After that, the researcher demonstrated how to create a mind map by showing the mind map model with detailed clarifications. For the students' practice, the researcher divided the participants into five groups, with six members in each group. Then, the students were given the writing topic to make a note of the central theme. Next, the students started in the center of a blank page to brainstorm English vocabulary and draw branches and colors throughout the different subtopics that can be essential in grouping related ideas. Finally, the students were asked to create a mind map as an organization of descriptive paragraph writing. In the while-writing stage (*Translating*), the teacher provided and explained English vocabulary lists related to the given topic, coherence and cohesion in writing, the types of descriptive, and the descriptive paragraph writing model (hamburger paragraph writing). Then, the students and their peers wrote a descriptive paragraph by translating and composing the ideas they had done in the pre-writing stage. In the post-writing stage (*Reviewing*), the students were asked to review and evaluate their descriptive paragraph writing with their peers. Finally, the students revised their paragraph writing individually.

3.5.2 The Writing Instructions

This present research was carried out during writing sessions in an English classroom. The researcher, as the teacher, was a facilitator to guide information and explain what the students studied in the writing processes. Additionally, the researcher explained to the students what descriptive paragraphs were by encouraging them to think about paragraph writing organization. Then the teacher asked the students to write a descriptive paragraph by transforming ideas from the mind map that they created. Finally, the students were asked to submit their written work. Therefore, Hayes and Flower's (1980; 1981, p. 370) Cognitive Process Theory was used as the theoretical framework for this research study.

(Hayes and Flower, 1981, p. 370)

Figure 2. The cognitive processes for writing

According to Figure 2, the writing processes were conducted in three stages during the EFL writing activities of this study. In the *pre-writing stage (Planning)*, students were assigned to plan what they would write in a descriptive paragraph based on the given topic. They were encouraged to use a mind map to generate, organize ideas, collect information, take notes, and brainstorm. In the *while-writing stage (Translating)*, the students and their peers by creating a mind map and using the provided B1vocabulary lists in order to write the descriptive paragraph. In the *Translating* stage, the students translated their planned ideas and composed a descriptive paragraph. In the *post-writing stage (Reviewing)*, the students read through what they had written to review, evaluate, and revise their descriptive paragraph with their peers by using a self-checklist, making the necessary adjustments, and producing their final written product of the descriptive paragraph writing.

3.5.3 Mind Map as the Writing Intervention

During the writing activities, mind maps were created by the EFL students in order to assist their writing processes and enhance their writing abilities. Pre-writing is the primary stage of the writing process, and it is an important step to support the students in setting goals, organizing, brainstorming, and determining text structure. A spider map or a descriptive map was used to show details about people, places, or objects with key terms in the middle of the relationships to enhance students' descriptive writing skills. Mind maps were used to promote the students to generate additional concepts, connect the ideas of subtopics, and group related ideas through the colourful branches. Keywords or symbols related to the given writing topic were used per line to general ideas. In this stage of mind mapping, the B1 vocabulary list was provided to help the students transform their main ideas of writing through the colourful central image. Finally, the mind map, which was created by each student, was used as a guided tool with colorful images and words to model their descriptive paragraph writing in the next stage.
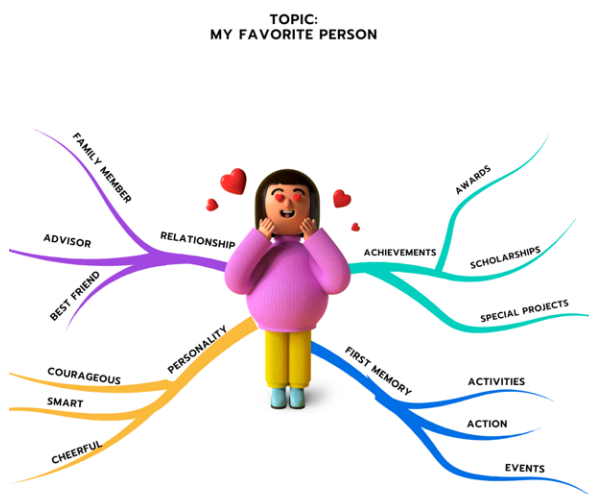
Figure 3. A sample of the mind map used in the EFL writing activity

4. Results

4.1 Effects of Using a Mind Map in Descriptive Writing Activities

The pre-test and post-test scores shown in Table 1 include the means$(\bar{x})$ and standard deviation (S.D.), using a paired t-test to investigate the effectiveness of using mind maps to enhance Thai EFL students' writing performance.

Table 1. Thai EFL learners' pre-test and post-test scores

Tests	N	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test	30	14.30	2.04	26.25	0.00
Post-test	30	26.87	1.77		

As demonstrated in Table 1, the Thai EFL students' post-test English writing scores were higher than their pre-test scores after employing mind maps. The pre-test averages and standard deviations (S.D.) for EFL students were 14.30 and 2.04. In contrast, the post-test scores of these EFL students' (x) and S.D. were 26.87 and 1.77. This suggests that the EFL students scored higher after utilizing the mind map while participating in writing exercises. A comparison of the mean scores from the pre-test and post-tests reveals the extremely significant findings of the tests (0.00). The findings of this study demonstrated a substantial rise in comparing

post-test to pre-test scores on EFL students' English written products. In summary, using a mind map appears to improve EFL students' L2 writing development, as indicated by higher post-test results.

4.2 EFL Learners' Attitudes towards a Mind Map

To answer the research question "What are the effects of using a mind map on EFL students' L2 writing development?" this attitude questionnaire includes 20 items focusing on the EFL students' attitudes concerning enjoyment, ease, writing ability, and strategy use when they used mind maps in the descriptive writing activities. After the last session of this study, 30 EFL students were asked to answer this attitude questionnaire which was adopted from Kamli (2019). Table 2 below illustrates the results of thirty EFL students' attitudes toward using the mind map to enhance their English writing development.

Table 2. The EFL learners' enjoyment attitudes towards the mind map on their L2 writing development

No.	Statements	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	Interpretation
	Enjoyment			
1.	I enjoy constructing a mind map.	3.60	0.50	Agree
2.	I enjoy solving problems involving circular and rotational motion.	3.40	0.50	Neutral
3.	I feel relaxed when I write in English.	3.67	0.48	Agree
4.	I feel excited about writing in English.	4.37	0.67	Strongly agree
5.	I like people to read what I've written in English.	3.63	0.49	Agree
	Total	3.73	0.53	Agree

Table 2 shows that overall the EFL students agreed that they enjoyed using the mind map during writing descriptive paragraphs in English ($\bar{x}$ = 3.73, S.D. = 0.53). As can be seen, most EFL students strongly agreed with the statement in Item 4 that they "feel excited about writing in English" ($\bar{x}$ = 4.37, S.D. = 0.67). However, the student rated Item 2 as neutral, which was the lowest mean rank that they "enjoy solving problems involving circular and rotational motion" ($\bar{x}$ = 3.40, S.D. = 0.50).

Items 6 to 10 in Table 3 were used to measure the EFL students' attitudes towards the ease of using mind maps to assist the descriptive writing paragraph. The results are uncovered in Table 3 below:

Table 3. The EFL learners' attitudes towards the ease while using mind maps in the EFL writing activities

No.	Statements	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	Interpretation
	Ease			
6.	It's easy for me to write in English.	4.27	0.58	Strongly agree
7.	It's easy for me to remember information when I am writing in English.	3.97	0.56	Agree
8.	It is easy for me to organize my ideas when I write in English.	3.83	0.65	Agree
9.	It is easy for me to get ideas when I write in English.	3.63	0.49	Agree
10.	It is easy for me to write my ideas in English.	3.83	0.38	Agree
	Total	3.91	0.53	Agree

As seen in Table 3, the overall EFL students agreed that using the mind map during the English writing activities can assist their writing activities to be easy ($\bar{x}$ = 3.91, S.D. = 0.53). As can be seen, the EFL students achieved the highest mean scores for item 6; that is, using mind maps during the writing activities, they "feel easy to write in English" ($\bar{x}$ = 4.27, S.D. = 0.58). On the other hand, the statement Item 9 was rated the lowest rank among five items that "it is easy to get ideas when I write in English" ($\bar{x}$ = 3.63, S.D. = 0.49).

Items 11 to 15 in Table 4 were used to measure the EFL students' attitudes toward using mind maps to enhance the EFL students' writing development while engaging in descriptive writing activities. The results are uncovered in Table 4 below:

Table 4. The EFL learners' competence attitudes towards the mind map on their L2 writing development

No.	Statements	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	Interpretation
	Writing Ability			
11.	I understand how to construct a mind map.	5.00	0.00	Strongly agree
12.	I can express my ideas when I write in English.	4.43	0.50	Strongly agree
13.	I think my English papers look good.	4.47	0.51	Strongly agree
14.	I have discussed a mind map with friends.	5.00	0.00	Strongly agree
15.	I get high grades for my English writing.	4.37	0.49	Strongly agree
	Total	4.65	0.30	Strongly agree

As shown in Table 4, overall, the EFL students strongly agreed that using mind maps during the writing activities can enhance their descriptive writing performance ($\bar{x}$ = 4.65, S.D. = 0.30). Among five items, Items 11 and 13 were rated with the highest mean score ($\bar{x}$ = 5.00, S.D. = 0.00), reflecting a strongly agree level that they "can understand how to construct a mind map" (Item 11), and they "have discussed a mind map with friends". However, Item 15 gained the lowest mean score among the five items that the EFL students thought they "get high grades for their English writing" ($\bar{x}$ = 4.37, S.D. = 0.49).

Items 16 to 20 in Table 5 were used to measure the EFL students' attitudes towards the strategy of using the mind map to assist the descriptive writing activities. The results are shown in Table 5 below:

Table 5. The EFL learners' strategy uses attitudes toward the mind map on their L2 writing development

No.	Statements	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	Interpretation
	Strategy Use			
16	Before writing, I outline the ideas I want to write.	4.50	0.51	Strongly agree
17	Before writing, a mind map helps me to mentally visualize the ideas I want to write.	4.53	0.51	Strongly agree
18	While writing, I think about the topic sentences I want to use.	4.30	0.47	Strongly agree
19	While writing, I think about the paragraphs I want to use.	4.43	0.50	Strongly agree
20	I apply what I learn to everyday life.	4.57	0.50	Strongly agree
Total		4.47	0.50	Strongly agree

As can be seen from Table 5, overall, the EFL students strongly agreed ($\bar{x}$ = 4.47, S.D. = 0.50) that using mind maps can promote their strategy use during writing activities. The students rated Item 20 as the highest mean score to reflect that they "apply what [they] learn to everyday life" ($\bar{x}$ = 4.57, S.D. = 0.50). However, Item 18 reflected the lowest mean score that the students strongly agreed that while writing in English, they "think about the topic sentences [they] want to use involving circular and rotational motion" ($\bar{x}$ = 4.30, S.D. = 0.47).

5. Discussion

This study studied the effects of using a mind map on EFL students' L2 writing development through descriptive writing activities. Hayes and Flower's (1980, 1981) Cognitive Process Theory was applied as a theoretical framework.

5.1 The Effects of Using a Mind Map on EFL Writing

The overall results of this study clearly indicate that the use of a mind map on EFL is linked to students' L2 writing development. The results of this study suggest that Thai EFL students can accomplish higher writing scores after using the mind map while engaging in writing activities. Similarly to the previous studies, the higher post-test results confirm that using mind mapping is effective for writing achievement and writing performance (Al-Zyoud et al., 2017; Karim & Abu, 2018; Kamli, 2019) and descriptive writing ability (Khusniyah, 2019). The post-test results of this present study also tie nicely with the statement of Al-Zyoud and colleagues (2017, p.

286) that "the mind mapping strategy was demonstrated as an excellent and innovative strategy as it enabled the participations students to generate new ideas for essays and assignments writing". In line with a previous study conducted by Alqasham and Al-Ahda (2021), the study also revealed that 40 Saudi EFL students' post-test results improved after the use of the concept mind map to develop their writing skills. The researchers mentioned that "mind mapping allows students the chance to reinforce their concepts before studying, so they can transfer meaning or write summaries efficiently" (Alqasham & Al-Ahda, 2021, p. 1150).

Similarly, the discovery of this current study is also dependable on Pribadi and Susilana (2021), who used mind mapping as a learning strategy to enrich primary school students writing skills. Based on the post-test result, the researchers concluded that using a mind map as a learning strategy can support students in writing their writing tasks. For this reason, Pribadi and Susilana (2021) claimed that using a mind map can help the learners to connect their prior and current understanding; consequently, "the mind map strategy makes it possible for them to create in-line ideas and themes which are significant in writing activities" (p. 915). Most of the studies on using a mind map to improve L2 writing always occur for university students; hardly use this technique at the high school level, especially in Thailand. Therefore, this study also confirms that the use of a mind map has a significant progressive effect on teaching L2 writing.

5.2 Thai EFL Students' Attitudes toward Using Mind Maps to Enhance Writing Performance

The results from the attitude questionnaire indicate, overall, that most Thai EFL students revealed positive attitudes toward the use of mind maps as a learning strategy to facilitate their descriptive writing paragraphs in terms of writing abilities, strategy use, ease, and enjoyment.

First, the results revealed that Thai EFL students showed a highly positive attitude toward the use of the mind map strategy to facilitate their *'writing abilities'* by discussing a mind map with friends while writing descriptive paragraphs. This finding is consistent with the study of Chairinkam and Yawiloeng (2021, p. 233) which revealed that "seeing listed ideas together on paper may aid the learners to make connections and look at their topics again from a new perspective" while engaging in the EFL writing activities with the peers. This finding also confirms a theoretical statement of Alquasham and Al-Ahdal (2021) that "since mind map is a constructivist method of study, it, therefore, follows the concept of social constructivism" (p. 1150). Since the students reflected on collaboration during discussed the topics with a group, Alquasham and Al-Ahdal (2021) claimed that "students' relationships with their communities culminated in a variety of meanings that were resolved by relational mediation, resulting in group harmony and shared understanding" (pp. 1150-1151).

Second, the results from the questionnaire revealed Thai EFL students' positive attitudes toward the *'strategy use'* of the mind map strategy that the use of mind map can be applied in daily life and can help mentally visualize the ideas that the students want to write. This finding is reliable to the findings reported by Pribadi and Susilana (2021), who indicated that using mind mapping as a learning approach "allows students to have a visual representation of their opinions and knowledge to be influential in implementing the basis of theoretical reviews of constructivist approach" (p. 915). As can be seen in the benefits of using mind maps, Nidayanti and colleagues (2021) recommended that the mind-mapping technique should be implemented to encourage students by using several media and pictures in writing pedagogy. This finding is also related to a study by Luangkrajang (2022), who used mind mapping in EFL classrooms and revealed that Thai EFL students had positive opinions toward the use of mind mapping. By integrating mind mapping techniques in English language classrooms, "students can transform textual descriptions into visual depiction, allowing visual learners to capture and understand the details of the lesson more easily" (Luangkrajang, 2022, p. 1620).

Third, regarding the *'ease'* of writing descriptive paragraphs, the results indicated that Thai EFL students reflected their positive attitude toward the easiness of writing in English when they engaged in writing descriptive paragraphs through the use of mind maps. Similarly, a study by Pribadi and Susilana (2021) also revealed that using a mind map learning strategy provides the students "easiness in choosing any correlated themes/ topics to breakdown" (p. 915). This finding is also related to a study by Sabarun and colleagues (2021), who conducted the steps to write an expository essay using a mind map, including writing an introduction, choosing a topic, using mind-mapping to select a topic, doing extensive research, integrating the research using mind-maps, deciding a structure, creating an outline of the essay using mind-mapping, making a mind map, crafting a thesis statement, starting drafting the essay, proof-reading and editing, and conclusion. Importantly, Sabarun and colleagues (2021) mentioned that in the step of choosing a topic, using mind-mapping can assist the writers in providing a writing topic that is well-known to the writers; thus, it is easy for the writer to write an expository essay. Consequently, using a flow mind map affected learners' writing exactness and learning motivation and contributed positive attitude in writing class (Sabarun et al., 2021).

Fourth, the present study confirmed the findings about the EFL learners' *'enjoyment'* attitudes towards the mind map on their L2 writing development. Thai EFL students reflected the positive attitude that they enjoyed while engaging in the use of the mind map strategy, particularly the positive affective of excitement during writing in English. In line with the findings from a previous study by Al-Zyoud and colleagues (2017), who established that mind mapping could facilitate students' writing skills, according to evidence that most students enjoyed using mind mapping as it contributed to developing their writing ability, as reflected in the post-test score. Similarly, a study by Wangmo (2018) also found that Thai EFL students mentioned that they enjoyed drawing and designing mind maps since it helped them to comprehend both what and how to write. Therefore, Wangmo (2018) emphasized that "the mind mapping technique had motivated students to perceive writing with positive attitude and enthusiasm, rather than dreading it as a complex task" (p. 77). Recently, Luangkrajang (2022) examined the use of mind mapping in language teaching and revealed the effectiveness of mind mapping in English classes. The researcher found that mind mapping can enhance students' positive affective domain and allow students to be active learners.

6. Conclusion

This study investigated the benefits of using a mind map to enhance the EFL students' L2 writing development in terms of facilitating L2 writing abilities, encouraging the learners' positive attitudes toward L2 writing, making L2 writing to be an easier task, and leading to enjoyment while applying mind maps. Engaging in mind map discussions with peers can facilitate EFL writers to develop their descriptive writing abilities. In addition, using mind maps with well-organized visual themes of writing promotes effective writing strategies for EFL students. Since most Thai EFL students have low English proficiency, understanding what they are going to write in English through visualization or images in mind maps may help them to encounter an early stage of L2 writing development. Moreover, applying mind maps with key themes, related images, and keywords of the given topics can lead to the easiness of descriptive paragraph writing. Lastly, learning to write an English descriptive paragraph through the use of mind maps is able to encourage EFL students' enjoyment during English writing activities that apply colorful images and well-organized mind maps.

In terms of cognitive processes of writing, mind maps encourage EFL writers' conceptualization, imagination, and analysis. Furthermore, mind maps also encourage EFL learners' attention, engagement, organization, comprehension, and concentration during the writing process. Obviously, mind maps can assist EFL students to organize ideas, create their texts during the pre-writing. Accordingly, mind maps appear to be a useful tool to support students in planning their writing since it encourages them to gain and create a deeper understanding of the writing topics. Therefore, mind mapping is also an effective instructional tool for descriptive paragraph writing, and it has a significant influence on the development of learners' critical thinking skills, notably in recovering their prior knowledge in order to make connections with the new information of L2 learning.

In conclusion, L2 writing development through the use of mind maps as a tool facilitates writing performance and positive attitudes towards the easiness and enjoyment of L2 writing. Through the eyes of this present research, EFL learners have a variety of prospects, and they reveal more self-confidence in English writing. Moreover, mind mapping also facilitates L2 writing abilities, such as organizing, sequencing, developing new ideas, and establishing the link between ideas in descriptive paragraph writing. Thus, this suggests the use of mind maps to enhance learners' L2 writing development and encourage their enjoyment during EFL writing activities.

Acknowledgments

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11th Graders Acknowledgment of Their Community Through Multiliteracies in an EFL Classroom

Diana Magali Flórez Barreto[1]

[1] Universidad del Tolima, Colombia

Correspondence: Diana Magali Flórez Barreto, Universidad del Tolima, Colombia.

Abstract

Giving worth to students' local realities as a background to get meaningful learning not only in the English class but in all the subjects and go further the simple lesson that starts and finishes inside the school walls, is what school communities should expect from education. As Hawkins states: "Learning is enhanced when teachers invite and acknowledge the knowledge, beliefs, and experiences that students bring with them into the classroom" (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2004).

This study reports a pedagogical involvement into students' closest contexts, the school, and their neighborhood, to depict eleventh-grade students' perception of their community context through inquiry in a public school, which is evidenced by the use of multiliteracies. Throughout this study, English was used as a means to communicate what the students found while mapping and observing both contexts, by making connections between the subject syllabus and the findings they made as a result of their local explorations. Data collected from students' artifacts, the teacher's journal, and surveys showed the student's growing interest in their contexts' recognition which was paramount to make them feel like part of the change in their community contexts. Careful reflections upon findings during the students' community mapping at their school and neighborhood, encouraged their participation in classroom projects, boosting their critical consciousness by recognizing and assuming a new transformative role that positioned them with a different perspective.

Keywords: Community-based pedagogy (CBP), Critical Pedagogy (CP), multiliteracy, multimodality, social justice

1. Introduction

In the last decades, principles of education have assumed a social endeavor in order to revolutionize education traditionally, advocating a view of teaching practices as a democratic act, rejecting the imposition of knowledge, and bringing to the classroom principles of social justice in the teaching and learning process (Giroux, 2007). Nowadays, teachers must conceive, the assets of the outside context, in their social significance… through which the school itself shall be made a genuine form of active community life, instead of a place set apart in which to learn lessons (Dewey, 1990, p. 14). Thus, by assuming a more active role in school research, teachers become reflective practitioners, teacher-researchers, or action researchers (McNiff, 2002).

Being aware of the new role of transformative teachers, and based on these relevant theoretical constructs, this research study has been addressed towards the acknowledgment of my students' social reality, by implementing multiliteracy tasks for community inquiry. Likewise, the twenty-first century finds us at a critical juncture for re-evaluating English language practices, since the technological revolution has facilitated and amplified human communication such that everyday student interactions, now essentially, include digital interfaces. Language, text, image, gestures, discourse norms, and practices are being rapidly expanded and reinvented in response to new media and global networks which are also a paramount part of our education system.

On account of my reflections and previous teaching experiences as an English in-service teacher of a public school placed in one of the most vulnerable neighborhoods in Ibague Colombia, I had the opportunity to realize the existing gap between the English curriculum that frames our daily actions in the classroom and our students' inherent realities, which every day are immersed in each single teaching act of school life. Consistently I addressed this Action Research Project (ARP) with the main goal of depicting the eleventh-grade students' understanding of their community context through their school and neighborhood inquiry.

The implementation of multiliteracies and multimodality tasks may encourage students to awaken their critical consciousness and to become agents of change by recognizing themselves at assuming a transformative role, to make a few changes starting with their perspective; by thinking about the community, they deserve and would like to be part of. In Creswell's words (2002) action research intends to improve the practice of education by inquiring on local issues or problems to reflect upon them, collecting and analyzing data, and implementing changes based on findings (as cited in Hernández, 2016).

Equally, this study is framed within the Community-Based Pedagogy (CBP) since it highlights the connection between school and the students' context. Community-based pedagogies are outside school practices, life experiences, and assets that learners and teachers, (who want to have a deeper understanding of the local places in which their students interact), bring into the classroom to enlighten class dynamics and curriculum constructs Clavijo (2016).

In the context of EFL learning, outside school practices, elements, symbols, people, and situations, that students and teachers identify during a process of joint inquiry, become both theory and inspiring material for teacher researchers, especially in this generation of meaningful and critical literacy practices with students.

For all the above-mentioned to be appropriately fulfilled, individuals need to be intellectually developed, and according to Vygotsky's (1978) theory of social construction which takes the view that an individual's intellectual development results from social interactions within specific cultural contexts. This kind of prerequisite community for development can be created in the classroom which is already a part of society if treated properly.

Summarizing this article presents the most relevant theoretical constructs of the study, the implemented methodology, descriptions of each instrument, findings, conclusions, and pedagogical implications of the research.

2. Problem Statement

Most of the time the students at my school used to complain about their neighborhood insecurity and watched it from the sidelines without getting involved in such a way they could help to change the problematic situations. Furthermore, they made part of the problems unconsciously by participating in gangs, marihuana smokers, thieves, and gossip among others; giving continuity to the problem due to they did not know any other lifestyle and that it was the only perception they had. They had the idea that for belonging to the strata they were (1 and 2), they had to suffer the same social problems a "poor community" was condemned to live in, but they had not realized that they could transform their community's history by giving little steps.

Being aware of this situation, I started doing actions in my English class that contributed to knowing more about my students' context by grasping the perception they had of their neighborhood. This perception allowed me to project my English class as a means to potentiate my students in that community, leading them to become a key part of their community development and at the same time, adapting the class contents to the community work framed on the Community-Based Pedagogy. According to Lastra, Durán & Acosta (2018), CBP involves the knowledge of the community, its beliefs, constructs, and perceptions that people from the community hold and shared in their day-to-day (p. 211). The knowledge that can be constructed as a result of the students' community inquiry, can constitute a suitable moment to turn the curriculum into a source of vast opportunities for the students to value their local knowledge. Schecter, Solomon, and Kittmer (2003), cited by Sharkey (2016, p. 33).

In this sense, observing and interrogating the places outside the four walls of the classroom gave my students a deeper perspective about the way they conceived their world, and improved their ability to recognize, not only their community- problem situations, but also gave them, the chance to reshape it. Thus, considering this, the research question that emerged from this issue was:

How is the student's acknowledgment of their community evidenced through the use of multiliteracies in an EFL classroom?

3. Literature Review

3.1 Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy attempts to understand some complex questions related to inequity in educative scenarios, like the one in the public school, where this research was conducted, all together; (CP) is concerned with the ways that schools and the educative system withstand and reproduce structures and relations of domination, as findings in classroom projects reported in my study. Thus, the belief that, if education is a place for the reproduction of oppression and domination, can potentially be a place for the disruption of oppression and even liberation. As such,

the task of critical pedagogy is to guide scholars, school teachers, and citizens to understand what is responsible for oppression in schools and society and what steps are necessary for the disassembling of domineering systems (Noroozisiam, 2011).

Hence, critical pedagogy through critical thinking looks for the creation of a healthy non-alienating classroom-social relationship with no dominant policy overhanging the minds of individuals which occurred in my students when they could express without any fear or hesitation what they thought about what they had observed and recognized.

Akbari (2008) rightly defines critical pedagogy as "connecting word to the world" (p. 1241), but for this connection to be established, the marginalized learners (those felt to require getting conscious) must learn how to tackle their world problems. Freire and Macedo (cited in Lin, 1999) believe that marginalized learners must learn to "read the world" before they "read the word" (p. 1241). In other words, this was the starting point for my students to come to an understanding of the cultural, political, and social practices that constitute their world and their reality in their communities, with which they could begin to make sense of the written words that described their reality to better understand their contexts and made part of them actively cited by Noroozisiam & Soozandehfar (2011).

That is why important that schools' curriculums take into account the development of the students' critical consciousness to thrive on them the ability to read their world in connection with the different subjects. This made possible the recognition of their context widely to awaken their sense of belonging and thus, act.

Brazilian educator Paulo Freire (1970) realized that inequality is sustained when the people most affected by it are unable to decode their social conditions. He proposed a cycle of critical consciousness development that involved gaining knowledge about the systems and structures that create and sustain inequity (critical analysis), developing a sense of power or capability (sense of agency), and ultimately committing to taking action against oppressive conditions (critical action). This cycle was essential in my students' worldview transformation.

3.2 Social Justice

The concept of justice as a topic that requires social arrangements by allowing all of participating as coequals in social life; provides a lens through which to articulate the cultural, economic, and political domains of justice that define the quality of teaching in high poverty schools. This approach situates the work of teaching within actual communities and considers what teachers need to understand and learn to do concerning context (Fraser, 2007, p. 27 cited by Keddie, 2012, p. 1). Thus, we as teachers must take into account the students' contexts to make our pedagogical practices and arise our students' sense of belonging to their community and so, promote equalitarian participation in society.

Nevertheless, some scholars hold the view that when people engage in economic activity for survival, personal and professional growth, and the collective welfare of society, inequality is inevitable but should remain within acceptable limits that may vary according to the particular circumstances, The International Forum for Social Development Social Justice (2006, p. 11). Apart from the issue of unemployment, an area in which social justice appears to have suffered setbacks in recent years, there is the crucial question of whether societies offer their people sufficient opportunities to engage in productive activities or instructive opportunities.

In this sense, the school must take into consideration the community knowledge with which the students could articulate their communities and the school, allowing them to get engaged in it and boost them towards their personal and professional growth and so, their community development; quoting Cope and Kalantzis (2000), "teachers cannot remake the world through schooling but we can instantiate a vision through a pedagogy that creates in microcosm a transformed set of relationships and possibilities for social futures; a vision that is lived in schools" (p. 19).

On the other hand, 'fixing' educational problems, such as inequality, is frequently seen as a matter of 'fixing' teachers, students, and families. Improving literacy, for example, is seen as the way to improve educational outcomes which in turn will improve economic conditions for everyone, and thereby eradicate poverty and inequality. Comber (2016, p. 3). Making space to talk about inequity, and teaching students how to take action, schools must integrate students' socio-political realities into their ongoing work and contribute to critical consciousness development in such a way the students realized that the instruction is based on their local space. In this regard, the differences produced by global market economies may threaten the values of social justice on which democracies are contingent. However, it has been clear for some time that 'reducing inequality is the best way of improving the quality of the social environment, and so the real quality of life, for all of us' (Pickett and Wilkinson, 2009, p. 29).

As a result, schools with a genuine commitment to disrupting inequities find ways to lighten the unenviable underprivileged students. Deprived students may have little choice in what social burdens they must bear, but educators have a choice in alleviating them. Likewise, students' local realities must be the basis to get meaningful learning not only in the English class but in all the school subjects, since CBP facilitates that English learning practices can go beyond those lessons that commonly start and finish inside the classrooms and most of the time overlook the reality that is behind each participant and even the teacher's world.

3.3 Community-Based Pedagogy

Community-based pedagogy helps teachers to recognize that all communities and surroundings have intrinsic educational and cultural assets and resources that educators can use to enhance meaningful learning opportunities. Correspondingly, the concept of cultural asset is defined by Gibson (2015) as follows:

> In every community that manages to sustain or revive itself over time, there are cultural factors that contribute to the vitality and robustness of the people living there. These factors are shared and creative, which is to say they are cultural and they are assets that make life valuable, that make life worth living. These cultural assets can be material, immaterial, emotional, or even spiritual (p. 112).

> Therefore, it is valuable for English teachers to start appreciating those intrinsic cultural and linguistic assets, inherent to the communities where teaching takes place, to integrate them into the school curriculum to give a voice to our students.

In regards to community pedagogies (Sharkey & Clavijo, 2012) theorize:

> Community-based pedagogies are curricula and practices that reflect knowledge and appreciation of the communities in which schools are located and students and their families inhabit. It is an asset-based approach that does not ignore the realities of curriculum standards that teachers must address but emphasizes local knowledge and resources as starting points for teaching and learning (p. 41). In the same token, Warburton and Martin (1999), posit that "Community – Based Pedagogies include the way people observe and measure their surroundings, how they solve problems and validate new information, the processes whereby knowledge is generated, stored, applied, and transmitted to others" (p. 1).

In these terms, this study gives value to my students' community by making relevant their local knowledge as the starting point for the development of the English curriculum, which means that my students could have the possibility to read their world based on the development of the knowledge. Moreover, this study could lead my students into discovering new aspects of the world they have been immersed during years and have passed by without discovering its real essence.

Sharkey and Clavijo (2012) argue that the curriculum of (CBP) recognizes "the realities of curriculum standards that the teacher must address" (p. 13), but gives priority to the reproduction of local knowledge and acquaintances in the students' contexts and families. In other words, the inclusion of what González, Moll, and Amanti (2005) have termed Funds of Knowledge "to refer to the historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge, and skills essential for households or individual functioning and well-being" (p. 133).

Since, community-based pedagogies are outside school practices, life experiences, and assets that learners and teachers (who want to have a deeper understanding of the local places in which their students interact) bring into the classroom to enlighten class dynamics and curriculum constructs; in the context of EFL learning, outside school practices, elements, symbols, people, and situations that students and teachers identify during a process of joint inquiry become both theory and inspiring material for teacher researchers, especially in this generation of meaningful and critical literacy practices with students.

Inspiring studies like Community-Based Pedagogies and Literacies in Language Teacher Education: Promising, beginnings, intriguing challenges, conducted by Judy Sharkey and Amparo Clavijo, collaboratively (2012), show the importance of the value of the funds of knowledge that communities have which can be brought to the classrooms to make the learning process and the knowledge exchanging more meaningful for them and the community.

Therefore, all the information that teachers can obtain from students through an integration process of students' lives and diverse cultural backgrounds, is considered the student's funds of knowledge, families, neighborhood, and school surroundings. They become rich funds of knowledge to be explored in class throughout multiliteracies classroom activities, nevertheless, they have been ignored by curriculum designers and teachers, in planning teaching strategies for young learners.

For Short (2009), "without invitation… we may not feel the courage to pursue [the] uncertainties or tensions [of the outer world]; invitation beckons us to feel some safety in taking the risk to pursue those possibilities by thinking with others" (p. 12).

3.4 Multiliteracy and Multimodality

Language is pragmatically dealt with in an ideal sociocultural atmosphere, where multiliteracies constitute a good approach that makes the learners engage in a fluid relationship between society and texts. Language can be the best tool to empower learners and they can have a desirable language experience in a language classroom that goes beyond linguistic knowledge, where things are handed on to the learners to be negotiated and challenged. English teachers must have the appropriate skills, strategies, and insights to navigate the rapidly changing views of literacy successfully and, subsequently, support their students' achievement in these same areas. Expanding literacy in the classroom could include promoting multimodal anchoring techniques alongside traditional literacy activities (Sewell & Denton, 2011).

On the other hand, the relationship between technology and foreign language literacy evolves rapidly, as a consequence of a widespread of new multimodal texts that can be found on websites permanently. The concept of multiliteracies emerged to explain the changing rules of reading and writing according to the new type of texts that include other kinds of media such as image, voice, and movement (Gee, 2009; Kress, 2003). Multiliteracies pedagogy offers a conceptual platform that fits the needs of students in digital times: combined modes and genres and a critical framing (New London Group, 1997). The term critical in reading the community associated with the element of critical framing proposed by the New London Group (1997) in the manifesto of the multiliteracies pedagogy, which involves students standing back from what they are studying and viewing it critically about its context, emerged gradually after analyzing the community. Fairclough (1992) elaborates the concept of 'critical' 'as the ability to critique a system and its relations to other systems based on the workings of power, politics, ideology, and values. In this sense, people become aware of and can articulate the cultural locatedness of practices" (as cited in New London Group, 1997, p. 84).

Thus, the use of multiliteracies in the English classroom has the potential to enrich the curriculum for most students; however, for those students, who do not have the prerequisite skills necessary for the development of traditional literacy skills, a multiliteracies approach to learning may pose different benefits and challenges, since they may experience new ways of communication and interaction. A major difference between Multiliteracies and the conventional view of literacy is that in the Multiliteracies perspective, literacy is not restricted to printed or written forms of language instead, it involves multiple modes of representation, such as music, gestures, and pictures (Perry, 2012; New London Group, 1996). In other words, although printed and written literacy is important, it is only one kind of literacy that makes meaning in a narrow area. The view of literacy as multimodal is one of the characteristics defined by Multiliteracies scholars. Multiliteracies theory also contends that literacy is situated and has a social purpose (Olthouse, 2013). Literacy is situated because literacy practices are different in different contexts. Moreover, the Multiliteracies theory claims that educating students to be able to "design social futures" is a specific purpose of literacy (Olthouse, 2013). The "social futures" refers to the achievement of meeting the requirements in ethical and practical challenges in the new era, which include participating in meaningful work and civic activities with people from diverse backgrounds (New London Group, 1996). Accordingly, and dynamizing the students' findings reports, in this study the shift was done from the traditional texts to the ones based on multimodalities which were presented in a variety of ways such as letters, posters, PowerPoint Presentations, photographs, lapbooks which portrayed the students' understandings of the community; their school and neighborhood.

4. Previous Studies

Many studies have attempted to bring critical pedagogy into language classes. Thinsain's action research presented many contributions to my project, he showed how the language could be an important tool to empower the learners to have a more fluid relationship with the language and their real context; and described in detail, interesting ways to involve learners in learning processes while developing a critical consciousness upon their positioning in society. Additionally, it led to the understanding of how classroom research processes with meaningful content, definitely helped improve the classes and accomplish very good results with the students, as I managed to evidence in my study.

Among the national studies carried out on this topic, Professors Rincon and Clavijo (2016) developed research in a public institution in the south of Bogotá which aimed to transform the way the tenth grader- students were related to the community to create learning environments for developing students' language and literacies. In their study, students became inquirers in their neighborhood, which allowed them to recognize their community

and offered opportunities for students' and teachers' development by using multimodalities. Their pedagogical experience contributed to my study with significant constructs on students' social identity building and interesting examples of literacy practices, enhanced through a more contextualized perspective from their school and neighborhood.

Moreover, in 'Mapping Our Ways to Critical Pedagogies: Stories from Colombia, Clavijo & Sharkey (2020) reported a study done by two Colombian teachers based on the development of critical pedagogy. Here, these teachers connected the students' contexts and the curriculum for English learning. Among the findings, the researchers could reflect upon the social, economic, and cultural issues in their students' communities and generate new proposals that articulated the students' interests and needs with the English curriculum. This study gave me more clarity about how to implement these pedagogies into my daily practices by considering my students' realities.

On the other hand, in a study conducted in Venezuela based on critical pedagogy and EFL, as it is stated in Carmen's (2001) paper; BruttGriffler & Samimy used EFL learners' reflection through discussion and diary writing to empower learners through critical praxis generated from within. They emphasized the ongoing process of self-reflection and a "construction of subjectivity". This final antecedent let me realize the way as teachers and students participated in co-constructing the class through a process of negotiation.

A study conducted by Lee, Yi-Hsuan, & Ting-Chin (2019) presented an experience that evidenced the ability students gained to communicate their contexts' understanding by developing critical perspectives. In this way, processes of reading and writing evolved more autonomously and authentically through multiliteracies. This study reinforced the importance of encouraging my students toward multiliteracy tasks to report their community understanding.

5. Methodology

5.1 Research Design

For the development of this project, Action Research (AR) was chosen as the methodological design that framed the study. AR is considered by Griffee (2012, p. 109) as a small-scale investigation done by teachers about problems that daily emerge in the classrooms to renew the curriculum or the teaching practices. The implementation of the steps in the cycle of Action Research allowed the participants in this study to be more aware of the reality in their community, where they became an active part of its transformation, by assuming from the English class, a different perspective in regards to social justice; likewise, as a teacher-researcher, this design gave me, the possibility to delve into a problem and seek solutions to it. "Actions taken come from an ongoing social process in which interventions are required to achieve the necessary changes based on findings and outcomes in the study" (Burns & Richards, 2009, p. 85).

In conducting action research, as an English teacher-researcher, I structured multimodality strategies and literacy classroom projects in which students were loosely guided by movement through the phases of inquiry that are summarized next:
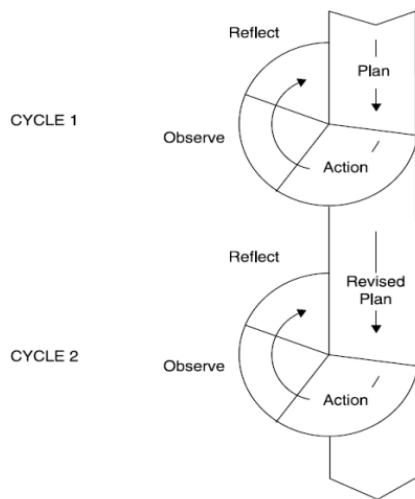

Figure 1. Research cycles (Maxwell, 2013)

5.2 Type of Study

This research study was framed under the qualitative approach because it was situated, participant-oriented, holistic, and inductive (Richards, 2009). Explicitly, the study was situated because it was related to the local realities of each one of the participants at school and in the neighborhood; participant-oriented since the participants were sharing their concerns, emotions, and feelings related to how they interpreted their reality; holistic in the sense that it involved reflection and analysis from the perspective of the whole being, and finally inductive given that all the information came from the students' voices and not from an initial hypothesis stated by the researcher.

According to Yin (as cited in Kohlbacher, 2005, p. 4), "[it] allows investigators to keep the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events". (Creswell, 2009), that is to say, a qualitative study helps to understand the social world in which students are immersed and contributes to solving problems in their day-to-day life in and out of school.

5.3 Research Context and Participants

This study was carried out in a public school located in Ibague, Colombia. The school was founded 25 years ago to support families and victims of the Armero tragedy. Little by little its population has been expanded by children who came from resettled, demobilized, and displaced families who live in unemployment and insecurity conditions; making its surroundings one of the most vulnerable populations in the city. Currently, the school has 649 students from kindergarten to high school. Additionally, the students selected for the study corresponded to a group of 42 students from eleventh grade, aged between 15 to 18, with low average proficiency in English, with three hours-lessons per week. The implementation of the study took the whole scholar year from February to December 2019.

5.4 Data Collection Instruments

The data collection instruments used in this action research project included students' artifacts, teacher's journals, surveys, and as a complementary instrument, video recordings. With these instruments, I could collect information about students' perceptions, attitudes, and opinions towards their contexts. As a result, the assembly of these data collection instruments allowed me to accomplish a research project that bridged the gap between theory and practice existing in traditional English lessons based on the fulfillment of the curriculum guidelines.

Data collected from students' artifacts were obtained taking into account students' written production like letters, PowerPoint Presentations, posters, and lapbooks which were done throughout the whole process of inquiry and also constituted valuable material that supported the study and gave it trustworthiness. Artifacts are examples of students' work produced in the school that provide insights about how and for whom they were created, what they include or not, and their purpose. To understand what literacy is, Street (1995) argued, we need to discover its meaning directly from people and not just from theoretical discussions (See Appendix A).

The teacher's journal provided an account of each stage in the project; daily planning and sequencing of the activities proposed in the didactic unit during the English classes, as well as happenings around the implementation of the project, were written down in it to keep track of the advances of the study, and possibly identify patterns that showed areas of interest for personal reflection and further analysis (See Appendix B). Thus, the teacher's journal included two parts: the first part was made of an observation record about the different issues that emerged from the class in terms of students' reactions and insights regarding the implementation; the second one, was focused on a reflection upon the findings. They involved an inwardly reflective procedure by thinking back carefully over the lessons, putting our thoughts into writing, and then analyzing these for deeper insights. (Maneekhao and 37 Watson Todd, 2001; McDonough, 1994; Thornbury, 1991; Lowe, 1984). Gebhard (2016) himself defines how a teacher journal "can create an opportunity to confront the affective aspects of being a teacher, including what annoys, disconcerts, frustrates, encourages, influences, motivates, and inspires us" (p. 79).

In the study, surveys were useful tools for gathering a large amount of data, providing it with a broad perspective. They were administered face to face and included open-ended questions, leaving the answer entirely up to the respondent, and providing a greater range of responses (See Appendix C). Kabir (2016) posits that survey research is often used to assess thoughts, opinions, and feelings and can be specific and limited, or it can have more global, widespread goals.

And finally, each one of the videos obtained from the students' agency and collaborative work throughout the different multimodal projects, allowed me as a teacher-researcher to analyze the context in which the images were used to draw inferences, which later helped me define the categories in data analysis. As Morrell (2008)

posited, critical literacy intends to turn literacy practices into moments of inspiration and show students "that the development of literacies of power can play a role in the transformations of their schools and communities" (p. 190). Aurelia Honorato (2006) highlights the importance of video recordings in research by positing: The capture of video images is a rich source of information, especially in research with children after all, how can one register so many intricacies, so many details, so many relationships and then look into them? Some sayings are not pronounced orally, sayings that are not captured by a recorder and that end up lost without a record..." (p. 6).

6. Implementation

It consisted of two cycles that integrated a series of actions carried out during the English lessons in which a didactic unit was designed within the framework of AR and CBP actions. The activities were lined up to the syllabus in terms of contents and the competencies described in the Basic Learning Rights (BLR) and Standards in every cycle, and I obtained the required data from students' artifacts, teacher's journals, surveys, and video recordings.

6.1 First Cycle

Before starting the first cycle, it was a brainstorming activity about the concept my students had about their community, revealing positive and negative definitions and reactions (See Appendix B). It was inspiring to define the problem and start the process of designing the Didactic unit (See Appendix E). A needs analysis was implemented which gave me wide information about students' needs and interests that was helpful in the moment of making decisions related to the activities to be done. Then, it was a sensitizing process with a talk done by a former student whose aim was to show that everything was possible no matter the economic conditions, and a video Forum to recognize the importance of every single people in a community.

Having encouraged students to participate (See Appendix F), the action started; the students did the school mapping after being divided into groups according to the assets they identified in it, (See Appendix G), and showed their outcomes through oral presentations. (See Appendix H). While this process was taking place, their reports were devoted to making connections with the curriculum contents and I was supporting them all the time with their discoveries, analysis, and reflections by questioning them. Sometimes, translanguaging was significant to communicate themselves.

As a response, students were concerned about what they observed and it was evident in their engagement in such a way they started proposing feasible actions to undertake the problems found so, they sent letters to the principal in which they recognized his labor and asked for permission to do littering campaigns to beautify the school; promoting collaboration and sense of belonging. (See Appendix A)

6.2 Second Cycle

As soon as the students ended their reflections and analysis about the school panorama, they demanded to do the neighborhood mapping, The planning process started and they designed an ID badge collectively to be identified in their community (See Appendix I). At the neighborhood mapping (See Appendix J), students interviewed its inhabitants, took pictures, and made videos to have a wide spectrum about it. After gathering all this evidence, they met together to analyze their findings. Here, they identified some problems in their assets which were reported using the contents tackled in previous lessons (See Appendix K).

Considering the information gathered, and the analysis done by them, a lapbook design was proposed; it contained the description of the main problem found in each context, the solution given by them with a chain of its possible results, and the people's voices which was illustrated with pictures (See Appendix H). While this second cycle, the Social Studies teacher participated by inquiring about the neighborhood and the school's local memory to make students recognize all the valuable history behind the school and the neighborhood. Having the lapbooks, students socialized their research with the rest of the school community and also, invited the communal leaders (See Appendix L).

As a result of the students' high level of engagement, a proposal was sent to the principal to intervene in their community directly (See Appendix F); in this order of ideas, they made a campaign in the school called "Good manners matter" related to the importance of using polite words to interact to their peers; and in the neighborhood, the campaigns "Hey, this is your dog" and " you are important too" to face some problems related to the dog's wastes and the forgotten elderly people correspondingly. These actions contributed to finding new solutions to the problems identified (See Appendix N).

7. Data Analysis

Considering that this research aimed to see how the students' acknowledgment of their community was evidenced through the use of multiliteracies in an EFL classroom, I implemented the grounded approach for the data analysis due to the themes and concepts were emerging little by little from the reading of data; revealing those I saw during the process (Freeman, 1998). In this order of ideas, he posits this approach aims to "make the regular appear new, to put a different frame around what is usual and taken from granted in everyday teaching and learning, and thus to perceive and understand it in new ways" (p. 99).

This schema represents the stages followed to conduct this qualitative data analysis framed within the grounded theory of data analysis method.
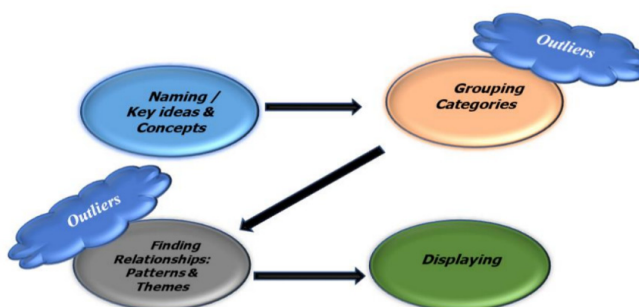

Figure 2. Basic Paths of Data Analysis (Freeman, 1998)

As shown above, the first step consisted of identifying meaning units and creating code lists by comparing the information previously obtained in the community mapping through the students' artifacts, the teacher's journal, the surveys, and the video recordings' transcriptions from the students' oral presentations. It is important to clarify that the students' artifacts such as the letters, written compositions for class assignments, and surveys applied in the first cycle provided relevant information about their community context understanding. On the other hand, as a result of the second cycle, students' artifacts like lapbooks, proposals, and pieces of evidence of their actions, in the face of the problematics that they identified, were explicitly related to the characterization of the impact that the students' school and neighborhood inquiring had on them.

In the second stage, I carried out an ongoing revision of themes and patterns that led to the categories. When searching for patterns in coded data to categorize them, I used different colors to highlight the ideas, keywords, responses, or events, that were in line with my units of analysis. This path I followed is illustrated by Saldaña's description: Organizing data is a process that includes open coding to create categories and abstraction. Open coding means that notes and headings are written in the text while reading it. The written material is read through again, and as many headings as necessary are written down in the margins to describe all aspects of the content; the headings are creating categories (Saldaña, 2009, pp. 118-122).

Then, the information coded was grouped into preliminary categories which were revised and reassembled until defining the final categories which were personalized by giving them names that were sensitive to the reality I wanted to depict. It is worth mentioning that as the analysis of the data progressed, there was information that did not seem to fit into the structure of my analysis; that is to say, some outliers were identified and so, left aside, but along the process, they provided complemented insights for the analysis.

Regarding stage 3, as my data analysis progressed, I designed matrixes which allowed me to capture further interpretation as I saw relationships among the patterns in the categories. This process made my interpretation clearer and more visible. As a result of these procedures, I came up with the following four categories: Every cloud has a silver lining, Now, I have got the Power to Say, Sensing the World Around Me, and Creating a Better World.

In terms of giving validity to the information provided I used data triangulation which let me strengthen my interpretation of the results in my study by revisiting the research questions and the information gathered through the different instruments. Burns (1999) declares that collecting data from varied sources unveils a more robust picture of the issue as multiple procedures enrich the study and make it more objective and valid. To do the triangulation of the instruments, I established connections and relationships between the patterns and concepts found in the students' artifacts (written texts, letters, posters, PPP, lapbooks, proposals, and a song), the teacher's

journal, the survey, and the video recordings (with the corresponding transcriptions). The following figure displays the way the examination of the different relationships among the instruments unfolded.
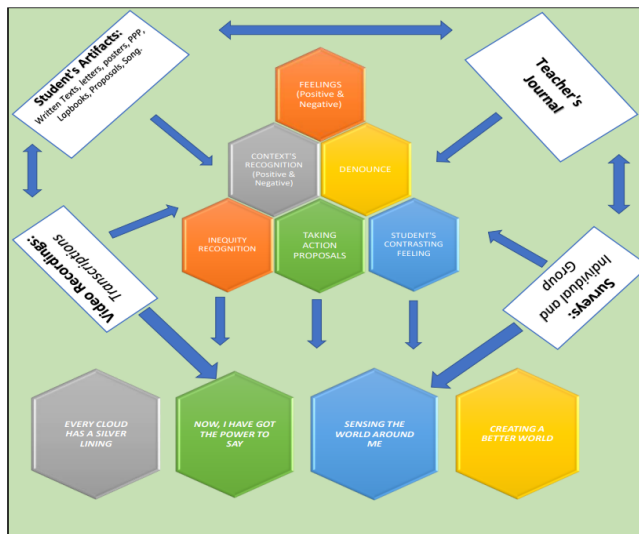

Figure 3. Data Triangulation (Author, 2020)

To validate the data previously provided by the participants and once it was analyzed and the categories were defined, I implemented Member Checking validation by using a Likert Scale intended to ask for students' level of agreement related to their acceptance of the conclusions and findings and gave validity, accuracy, credibility, and transferability (See Appendix P).

To conduct this process, I mailed my former students from eleventh grade through a social network and invited them to have a Zoom meeting, some days right after their graduation ceremony in December. Thus, I designed a PowerPoint Presentation that compiled photographic evidence from the different steps followed in the research.

8. Findings and Conclusions

In the following categories, students' insights were evidenced in those voices that, as an English teacher, I listened to and identified throughout the complete study. Those voices that inspired me to feel and live, several experiences that for many years my students had gone through, at school and in their neighborhood, and that finally were heard and seen by their ears and eyes and the ones of the others, making them feel like an important agent in their community's transformation. The following table displays the categories that respond to the research question in concordance with the research objectives:

Table 1. Categories resulting from the Analysis

Research Question	
How is the students' acknowledgment of their community evidenced through the use of multiliteracies in an EFL classroom?	
Research Objectives	Categories
• To depict the eleventh-grade students' understanding of their community context through their school and neighborhood inquiring.	*1. Every cloud has a silver lining:* This category represents my students' reactions in front of the literacy English tasks I had designed, which challenged them to take their time and human resources to recognize their surroundings with a new vision.
• To characterize the impact that the students' school and neighborhood inquiring may have on their lives and the others'.	The students' new vision of their community, the school, and the neighborhood, reshaped as a product of their community understanding, enabled them to escape from the dominant identity these contexts had in their mindsets, and in return; it offered them the chance of participating actively in their new role of researchers.
	2. Now, I have got the power to say: The students' involvement in their community practices allowed them to recognize the injustices that had been transcending through the years and had not been recognized before. Therefore, they released all the thoughts they had accumulated for years by

commenting on the problematic issues, causing feelings of frustration and tension. It was as if they had taken the control of everything and felt they had got the right to denounce the inequalities encountered through their exploration, inequalities that had to do with the common places they had interacted over time; no matter the people engaged in their discoveries.

3. Sensing the world around me: This category emerged from the different feelings and sensations students expressed through their multiliteracy tasks. Little by little, these sensations and feelings were showing up and taking more force, in the sense, that they were more sensitive not only to their surroundings but also to their inner self. It differs from the previous ones with the nuance that the students' emotions were at the core of the whole process showing an increasing transformation in them evidenced in more receptive and goal-driven learners.

4. Creating a better world…:

This category highlights the optimistic perspective that flowed from my students' critical position upon the wish to overcome the issues that made them feel at disadvantage. This category describes the impact that school and neighborhood inquiry had in my students' lives and others'.

It shows the shift generated in the students' worldviews, in the same set of circumstances, they saw new possibilities not only in the world around them but in themselves. (Schlitz, M., Vieten, C., & Miller, E., 2010). Now, their perspective was centered on themselves as well as what they experienced, they were an integral part of the world they were sharing with others, becoming more sensitive and inspiring to act as agents for positive change in their communities.

This project proved to be a rewarding and positive experience both for the students and for me as a teacher-researcher and other members of the community. For the students, this research offered the chance to explore new and different identities as researchers; representing a bridge between the class and the external world, in terms of the activities that involved the acknowledgment, not only of their community; school, and neighborhood but also their new abilities developed such as how to work collectively to support their community, how their attitudes and skills emerged progressively, helping themselves and becoming contributors of their school and neighborhood.

It changed the way students started reading their world through the acknowledgment and understanding of their community practices, being aware of the existent inequities that they had not seen before; developing their sense of agency, and leading them progressively to taking action in the extending of their humble but powerful proposals that touched the vision of the community not only as students but also as transformers of it what made feasible the shift in their worldviews.

Students' examination of the nuances of the closest spaces to their lives as the school and their neighborhood, gave them a voice to express new understandings or reshape the ones they had, as well as to position themselves in front of the realities they were facing or those they had not noticed before making them evident through their social proposals in the school as well as in the neighborhood.

This research experience allowed my students a better understanding of themselves, in terms of self-recognition, empowerment, sensitiveness, self-confidence, and leadership due to the exposure they had to reality, increasing their sense of engagement and belonging to themselves and their community, and also, motivating them to learn English differently.

This study triggered other teachers' interest who felt moved by the students' community inquiry, developing new alternatives to integrate their subjects with what the students were doing in their English class, fostering the creation of more realistic environments, and the expansion of students' learning opportunities.

Community-Based Pedagogy strengthened the acknowledgment of the students' contexts as spaces of getting knowledge, not only into the walls of a classroom but also outside of them from the real dynamics of their school and neighborhood contexts, enhancing their learning opportunities meaningfully, and giving them the chance to hear their voices.

Multiliteracies allowed my students to interact among themselves by taking advantage of their potentialities and keeping aside all the constraints they had at the moment of communicating. It constituted an important resource in this study that made my students get engaged in their relationship with their community findings and the varied forms they communicated with them.

This study unveiled the importance of taking into account that the English teaching-learning process requires constant evolving knowledge. Thus, funds of knowledge must be understood as key elements to integrate the school, families, and neighborhood with a curricular design that combines the students' worldviews which are brought to the classrooms and constitute themselves part of the language curriculum and so, strengthen and expand their learning process.

And finally, it is necessary to work more on the inclusion of this perspective in the teaching of languages and education in general, as a way of exercising situated learning in which the students have the opportunity to work collaboratively to co-construct knowledge and search for answers to problems within their community.

9. Implications of the Study

This study has integrated students' community with the school syllabus through the English class and other subjects that little by little joined during the process making more natural and relevant the language learning process in terms of putting into practice the contents tackled in the classes. Educators must conceive that the student's community must be fed by the school, and it is necessary to take education out of the walls of the school and approach the communities to know more about themselves and in the same way, understand the students' needs, interests, concerns, behaviors, etc. In this way, local knowledge gains strength and helps to empower both instances.

Students put aside their preconceptions about their community and got aware of the meaningful role everyone plays as its member, in which its change does not depend on others but themselves, enhancing their self-esteem and leadership skills which also make part of the educational process. It is important to highlight that the school is not just the place to get knowledge about different subjects, but the place where students must grow as human beings and members of society and for most of them the place where they can be themselves. As my students concluded: "*Everything is possible if we work together!*"

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Appendices

Appendix A. Students' artifacts

Ibagué, Tolima. 03-04-2019

Señor Rector, cordial saludo.

Nosotros los estudiantes de grado undécimo hemos hecho una investigación sobre las zonas físicas de la institución gracias a ello hemos descubierto el mal estado en el que se encuentra la institución.

Nosotros como estudiantes nos sentimos indignados por esta situación, sabemos que también es culpa de nosotros por no cuidar de nuestra institución y que a la aseadora le queda muy pesado hacer el aseo a toda la institución.

Por lo tanto hemos pensado en una actividad que puede ayudar a mejorar esta situación. Trata de: Una jornada de aseo en la que por una semana a la última hora de clases un grado completo hará aseo por toda la institución. Comenzaremos el día 08 de abril con el grado 6-1°, el día martes continuara el grado 7-1°, el día miércoles continua el grado 8-1°, el día jueves el grado 9-1° y el día viernes finalizara el grado 10°. Los encargados de la actividad estaremos pendientes de los demás estudiantes, para ello nos turnaremos por parejas durante toda la semana, también avisaremos con anticipo a los estudiantes y a los directores de grupo. Esperamos que con esta actividad logremos mejorar un poco la imagen de la institución y concientizar a los estudiantes sobre el cuidado de la institución.

Esperamos que nos apoye con esta actividad.

Estudiantes encargados de esta actividad:

Lizeth Quintana ♥   Alejandra leal Murillo

Adrian Mogollon   Kaliusca Pimienta

Alice Peña   Yesica Meneses Tellez

Juan Perdomo M.   Daniela Alejandra Lozano

Dwreiner Polania R.

GUILLERMO BORJA

Rector

Alice Pero 11°   Physical Spaces

1. Me sente bien, porque al igual que con lo que inves-
tigue del colegio aprendi muchas cosas sobre la comu-
nidad

2. Recopilamos fotos, videos, audios al final unimos
todo en un video que dura aproximadamente 19min

3. Encontramos buenos parques, comedores comunitarios,
habitantes de buen corazón.

4. Podrian mejorar las calles ya que estan muy dañadas,
tambien podrian mejorar el aseo de las calles ya que
los de interaseo no siempre van a estar ahi para reco-
ger los desechos que botan los habitantes de la comunidad.

5. Creo que si, ya que algunos vieron la realidad de su en-
torno mientras hablaban sobre las problematicas de la
comunidad.

6. Pues me veo como una habitante que podria hacer algo
bueno para su comunidad, como hacer algo sobre las ba-
suras que es lo que mas afecta a esta.

7.   Positive

- In the comunity there are many beautiful parks

- In the comunity there are   enough gardens

- In the streets there are too many shoops

- In the comunity there are big courts
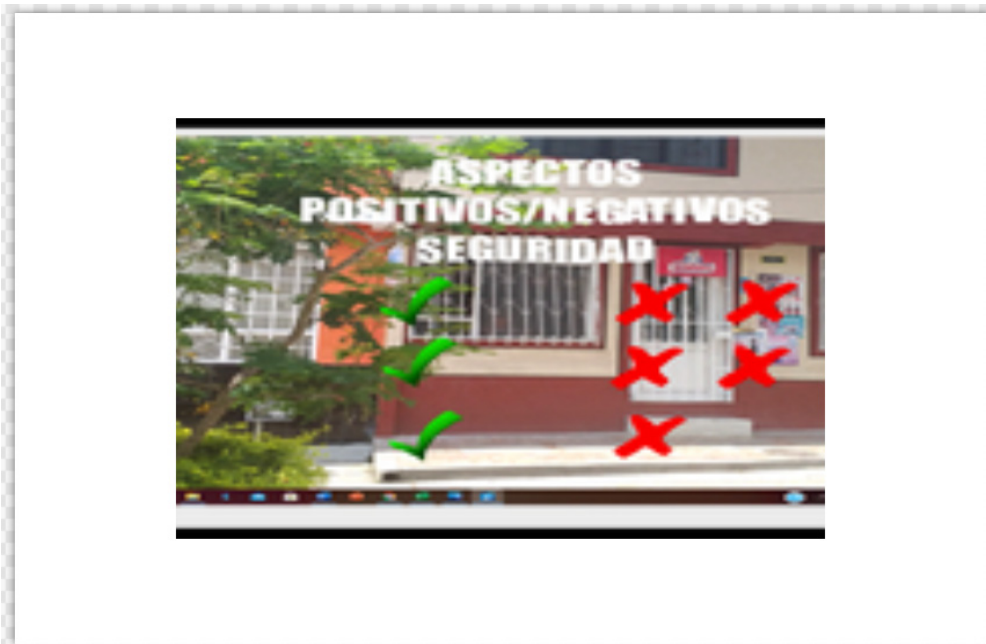
MI EXPERIENCIA COMO INVESTIGADOR

En este recorrido como investigador por parte de mi institución, me e podido encontrar con grandes cambios y aportes por parte mía y de mis compañeros de estudio, tuvimos el privilegio de hacer parte de esta gran actividad y yo como parte de esto, me siento feliz por ayudar a mostrar cambios en la sociedad y en mi colegio, haciendo nuestras campañas y charlas frente a temas importantes que afectan nuestro entorno, en nuestro colegio, creo que hay estudiantes que se que si están tomando conciencia de cómo dirigirse a sus demás compañeros y maestros y como les puede ayudan en su vida diaria

En nuestra sociedad pudimos dar a entender a las personas lo importante que es recoger los desperdicios de nuestras mascotas, hay personas que son consientes de recogerlos por que saben que les puede afectar a ellos, si las personas no recogen los desperdicios pueden terminar pisándolas, o incomodando a sus vecinos y podrían haber grandes discusiones, ''hace días vi a una señora sacando a sus mascotas, al terminar, recogió los desperdicios de ellas y los boto a sesto de basura'' acciones como estas son las que debemos usar para concientizar a los demás y no solo con los desperdicios, sino con nuestras basuras y demás desechos

También me puedo dar cuenta que puedo ser de gran apoyo para generar un cambio en los demás y ayudar a mi comunidad a cambiarla y mejorarla en tanto sus parques y calles como en personas que tomen acción para cambiar nuestro entorno

Al pasar mi tiempo como investigador pude formar parte de un pequeña, pero agradable convivencia con unas personas maravillosas que son los abuelos, en su ''edad de oro'' me pude dar cuenta que la felicidad no es solo esta en el dinero y en nuestra juventud, sino ayudarlos a ser parte de sociedad y hacerles entender que aun son importantes para todos, en una tarde entendí que todo el esfuerzo que hacemos sirve de algo y servirá para nuestro futuro porque podemos llegar a ser formadores de una mejor sociedad y una mejor convivencia

Espero que todos tomen como ejemplo lo que hacemos y lo pongan en practica y que sigan realizando estas actividades, para seguir realizando cambios tanto en nuestro colegio y en nuestra sociedad

Appendix B. Teacher's Journal

FIELD NOTES

DATE: 19 MARCH

OBJECTIVE: Show student's productions.

We started class at 8.20 am and students were willing to show their productions.

They asked me to make a semi-round table to better see each other and be more focused.

The group that mapped the PHYSICAL SPACES in our school showed a video with the aspects that called more their attention that were pictures that showed the bad conditions in which our school was in terms of garbage, damaged desks, written walls, damaged toilets, etc. and one of the spectators said" *Estamos pailas*" to see the level of abandonment our school was. During the presentation, the students showed interest and kept silent during it.

When the students finished their presentation, we did an analysis about their perception and they took part actively. They said that *they'd never seen the school with those eyes"*

Then, the students that worked on LOCAL ECONOMY projected their video in which they interviewed the woman who was in charge of the school - cafeteria and was complaining about the people who sold their products outside and were allowed to do it with the teachers and administrator's acceptance. At the moment of the analysis the students reinforced that opinion and said that there wasn't any restriction to buy outside the school and for that reason the sales for the woman in the cafetería were decreasing and she had to pay rent to the school and we as teachers must be a model to follow. At that moment I felt embarrassed because most of my colleagues take their breakfast from one student's mother who lives near the school. They said: "Los profesores compran por fuera viendo que el ejemplo empieza en casa". But in the classroom studies the teacher's breakfast provider's son who said: "Pero afuera hay gente que también tiene muchas necesidades, por eso venden cosas" what generates controversy among the students who agreed but thought about the woman who rented the cafetería which incomes were really low. Then, it was break-time and the class finished and I went to buy a coffee at the cafetería and the students who were nearby said: "Dando ejemplo" and I said "Yes".

After these discussions I know that students are more aware about these situations in the school and are attentive about our actions related to the sales' control. It was really embarrassing for me looking at the panorama that happens day by day in the school in which teachers and students buy outside indiscriminately without any restriction.

Appendix C. Survey

REFLEXION INDIVIDUAL

1. Cómo se sintió como investigador en el campo destinado?
2. Qué tipo de información recopiló? (fotos, videos, audios, notas. etc-)
3. Qué aspectos positivos encontró en su campo se exploración?
4. De acuerdo a su percepción, qué aspectos podría mejorarse en su campo de exploración?
5. Siente que la percepción de su comunidad cambió con esta nueva mirada? Si? No? En qué sentido?
6. Cómo se ve frente a su comunidad?
7. Haga una descripción de los aspectos positivos y negativos de lo encontrado en su campo; haciendo uso de (TOO, TOO MUCH, TOO MANY, ENOUGH, NOT ENOUGH)
8. Cuál cree que fue su mayor fortaleza al momento de recopilar la información?
9. De qué manera puede combinar esta fortaleza para mostrar al grupo en general, las evidencias de la información recopilada?
10. Reúnase con su equipo de trabajo.

TRABAJO EN EQUIPO

INSTRUCCIONES:
1. Con base en la reflexión individual, nombre un moderador y un relator para que sintetice cada una de las preguntas desarrolladas en la reflexión individual.
2. De acuerdo a lo sugerido por cada uno de los integrantes del equipo, prepare la presentación al grupo en general, de una manera diferente a la empleada en la socialización de la exploración realizada sobre la comunidad escolar, en la que se destaque:

- Área de la comunidad que exploraron.
- Aspectos positivos y/o negativos vistos en su campo de exploración.
- Novedades encontradas en su comunidad que antes no reconocía.
- Su posición frente a la comunidad, en relación con el campo explorado.

Esta presentación puede ser realizada a través de:
Video musical, cuento dibujado, historieta, caricatura, composición de canciones, mural de grafitti, etc.

Appendix D. Video's screenshots

Appendix E. Didactic Unit

		ALFONSO PALACIO RUDAS DIDACTIC UNIT	COMMUNITY RESEARCHERS TEACHER: DIANA MAGALI FLOREZ BARRETO

DERECHOS BASICOS DE APRENDIZAJE	1. Redacta textos narrativos, descriptivos y expositivos relacionados con temas de su interés o que le resultan familiares. 2. Produce mensajes escritos, tales como cartas y correos electrónicos, claros y bien estructurados teniendo en cuenta el contexto en el que tienen lugar. 3. Intercambia opiniones sobre situaciones de interés personal, escolar o social. 4. Sostiene conversaciones espontáneas y sencillas acerca de temas que son de su conocimiento, interés personal o académico

PHASES OF ACTION RESEARCH	ACTIONS TAKEN IN CBP	DATE	MULTIMODAL ACTIVITY	OBJECTIVES	LEARNING RESOURCES	CURRICULAR OUTCOMES	LANGUAGE FOCUS	ASSESSMENT EVALUATION
IDENTIFYING A PROBLEM	OBSERVATION OF COMMUNITY PRACTICES	15th February	What I like	To analyze students' needs	Students will do a survey related to a needs analysis to know their interests, and expectations upon themselves, the school and their neighborhood in which some aspects like "How I learn, English and I, my community and I, and What I like" were relevant.	Needs analysis		
		20th February	My future, my challenge!	To raise student's awareness of the importance of their self-improvement.	A former student who is a university student now will tell 11th graders their experience of self-improvement.			
GATHERING DATA	COMMUNITY SCANNING	5th.-6th. March	School Mapping	Support students to the mapping process at school previous their mapping with the community	1.Show the video about what a community is. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RNqZxWlxsAw 2.Students will analyze the concept of community and the different actors that are involved into it as well as their roles. Teacher will show the graphic related. 3.Students will recognize the different assets that make part of the school community. 4.Students will choose an asset and will go mapping by looking for aspects that call their attention by taking pictures, asking questions to the people involved, observing and taking notes, etc.	Adjectives Making descriptions		Students' artifacts: Videos and Pictures
INTERPRETING DATA	CONTENT DATA ANALYSIS. TRIANGULATION	12-13 March	Planning presentations	Support students to recognize their strengths to be used in a creative way to show their outcomes	Question students about their findings and guide them to plan the best way to be shown to the rest of the group in a creative way.	Ss' layout		Student's artifacts
		19-20 March	Students' displaying	To share student's findings with the whole group	1.Students will show the whole group their mapping outcomes in the way they prefer. (slide presentations, song creations, stories, photo galleries, videos, etc.) 2.Analyze the outcomes with the whole group	Students' display		_Students' creations (Videos, audio recordings)
		26-27 March	Making chains of possible results	To set their problematic situation and give a possible solution	1.Students identify the most relevant situation found in their asset and set a problem. 2. Students will give a possible solution to their problem and then will make a chain of possible results to that solution by using the first conditional and Future Time Clauses	Chain of solutions	_First Conditional _Future time clauses	_If……/…will… : As soon as…./…will… When…./…will… While…./…will… Before…./…will… Until…/…will… After…/…will…

_Chain of solutions to the problem set appears in the Assessment/Evaluation column for the 26-27 March row.

PERMANENT TEACHER'S REFLECTION

|		Date	Session	Objective	Activities				
ACTING ON EVIDENCE	EXPLORING COMMUNITY KNOWLEDGE	2-3 April	Chain sharing	To share the groups' chain of possible results to the solution	1.Students will share their work by using English 2.Students will think about an action to take, according to the solutions given by them.	Videos Student's artifacts	First conditional and Future Time clauses	_Videos _Students' artifacts. _Letters	
GATHERING DATA	COMMUNITY SCANNING	16 -17 April	Introducing their neighborhood	To identify the different assets in the student's community context.	1.Students will identify the assets in their community. 2.They will decide on which asset they will better work. 3.Students will plan their mapping to the community according to the asset chosen.	Videos Notes	Adjectives to describe feelings	ADJECTIVES & ADVERBS Too much/ too many/ enough/ not enough / too	_ Videos Student's artifacts
		22-23 April	Neigborhood mapping	To observe their community context	1.They will work in the same groups to go to their community, observe, talk and take pictures about situations that call their attention related to the asset chosen. 2. The class will go to the community to do the mapping by starting with a littering Campaign. 3.Students will check their information; pictures gathered during the previous session and choose the best way to show it to the rest of the group. (slide presentations, song creations, stories, photo galleries, videos, etc.)	Videos Notes Pictures			• Students' artifacts
INTERPRETING DATA	ESTABLISHING POSSIBLE CONNECTIONS WITH CURRICULUM CONTENT	30 April	Raising our voices	To reflect about their findings	1.Students will work by solving the questions given in the worksheet to make an individual reflection about their experience. 2.Students will describe what they perceived about their community by using Too much/ too many/ not enough / too. 3. In their corresponding groups students will reflect about their questions and will work on the worksheet given for the team work. 4. Students will prepare their presentations based on this activity.	Student's reflections		PHRASAL VERBS: Put up with, get on with, take out, give up, sit down, go back, turn up, move in	• Student's texts
		7-may	Presentations desig;ning	To consider the patterns given on their presentations.	1.Students will prepare their whole presentations by gathering in the mapping process they have about the school and the neighborhood contexts by following the patterns given for the teacher in terms of the use of the language in the process of describing them and by taking into account the pictures taken.				
		May 14-15	Student's displaying		1.Students will exhibit their productions about their mapping to the rest of the group.	Videos	_First conditional and Future Time clauses _Adjectives to describe feelings	_Too much/ too many/ enough/ not enough / too _Put up with, get on with, take out, give up, sit down, go back, turn up, move in	Student's artifacts (videos)
			PERMANENT TEACHER'S REFLECTION						
		May 21-22	Discovering new options	To introduce a different way to make a display	1.Teacher will show some videos related to how to make Lapbooks and the different templates that could be used to make them, to inspire students to do their presentations like this. 2.Students will organize the process done until now with the research by designing a new way of presenting the information collected during the mapping stage by putting the school community and the neighborhood community together and showing the panorama in each context through its description, the main problem found and a possible solution as a result of their analysis, then a chain of possible results of that solution, of each context people's voice and their own point of view. All this by using English language to describe.				

|							
ACTING ON EVIDENCE	**DEVELOPING RESEARCH PROJECTS TO ADRESS COMMUNITY ISSUES**	July 22nd	*I'm a researcher!*		1.Students will present their foldables to the whole class.	_First conditional and Future Time clauses / _Adjectives to describe feelings	_Too much/ too many/ enough/ not enough / too / _Put up with, get on with, take out, give up, sit down, go back, turn up, move in • Lapbboks
		August 27	*Showing my research to my peers*	SS's presentations to 9th and 10th grades	1.Students will present their research to students from 9th and 10th grade.	_First conditional and Future Time clauses / _Adjectives to describe feelings	_Too much/ too many/ enough/ not enough / too / _Put up with, get on with, take out, give up, sit down, go back, turn up, move in
		August 30th	*Showing my research to my parents*	Parents' research presentations	Students will present their research to in a parent's meeting.		
		November 13	*Good manners matter!*	To make a campaign in the school about the importance of being polite with the members of their community	Students will be divided in groups of 4 to give a small talk, led by the group in charge of the Individuals' asset, to reflect about the importance of having good manners in terms of the vocabulary used with others		Pictures and videos
		November 13	*Hey, this is your dog!*	To make a littering campaign in the neighborhood	The group in charge of Physical Spaces will lead a litter campaign in the neighborhood to make people aware of their dog's wastes with the other students' support and will give them fliers designed by them with a small plastic bag.		Flyers about the campaign / Videos / interviews
		November 22	*You are important too*	To support elderly people from the neighborhood	The group in charge of the Associations asset will organize a sharing afternoon with the elderly people who attend to the soup kitchen to listen to their voices and share something to eat and have fun. Students are gathering with the whole school different food and personal cleaning items to give them as a present.		Videos / pictures
EVALUATING RESULTS	**REFLECTING UPON THE TEACHING IMPLICATIONS**	November 25	*Mirroring my community understanding*	To reflect about their experiences in the research process	Students will reflect their understanding of their school and neighborhood communities by using multiliteracies.		Posters with reflective messages
REFLECTION ON THE FINDINGS							

Appendix F. Students' school mapping

Appendix G. Students' artifacts connected with the syllabus contents
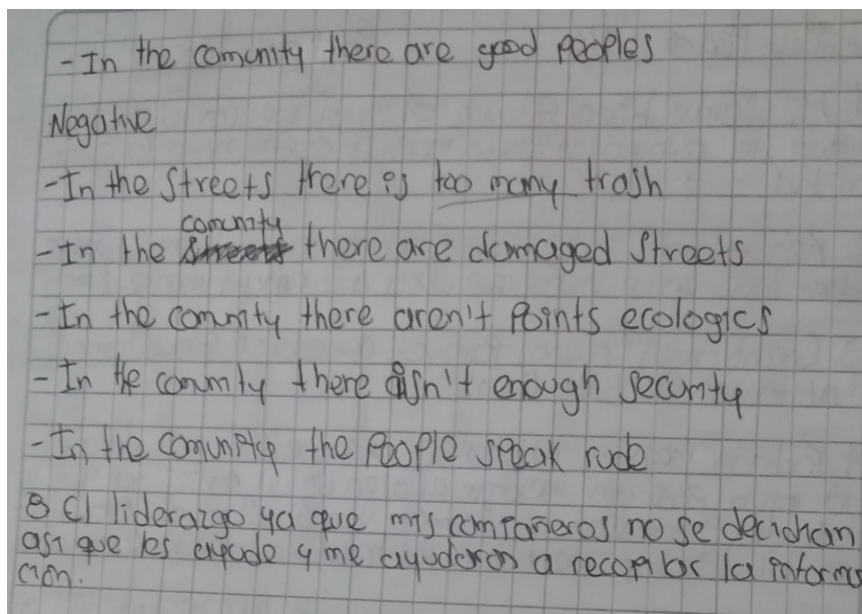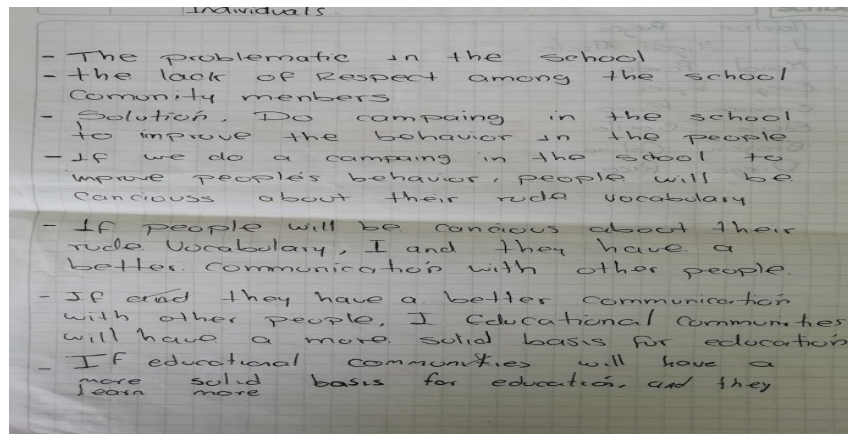
Appendix H. Lapbooks
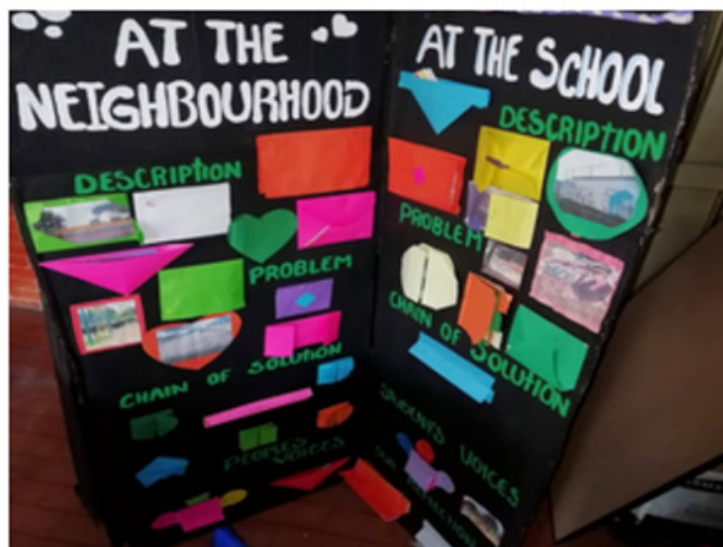
Appendix I. Students' ID badge

Appendix J. Students' neighborhood mapping

Appendix K. Socialization with the community

Appendix L. Students' proposal

INSTITUCION EDUCATIVA "ALFONSO PALACIO RUDAS"
APOYANDO A MI COMUNIDAD
COMMUNITY RESEARCHERS
PROM 2019

JUSTIFICACION

Usando las realidades locales de los estudiantes como base para obtener un aprendizaje significativo no solo en la clase de inglés sino en todas las asignaturas, y avanzar más allá de la simple clase que comienza y termina allí, es lo que las comunidades escolares esperan de la educación.

El hecho de que los estudiantes sientan la importancia de su comunidad tanto escolar como del barrio, para sus vidas y la de los demás, los hace más comprometidos con su propio proceso de aprendizaje y el papel que juegan en el mundo que comparten con los demás. "El aprendizaje mejora cuando los maestros invitan y reconocen el conocimiento, las creencias y las experiencias que los estudiantes traen con ellos al aula" (Bransford, Brown y Cocking, 2014).

Si queremos una transformación en nuestro contexto escolar, en términos de tener una mejor perspectiva en la forma en que los estudiantes asumen su papel no solo como estudiantes sino también como ciudadanos, es obligatorio que mejoren su capacidad para reconocer sus situaciones problemáticas y las oportunidades que tienen para cambiarlas y superarlas al crecer en ella al mismo tiempo, para lo cual se requiere una mirada crítica y consciente.

Dado esto, se realizó un ejercicio de mapeo tanto en la comunidad escolar como en la comunidad del barrio, en el que los estudiantes identificaron situaciones problema que

afectaban la convivencia de las personas en ambos contextos; haciendo una descripción de las mismas al igual que dando soluciones y sus posibles resultados; usando la lengua extranjera, inglés como medio para comunicarlo.

Luego de este proceso de análisis, se propone realizar una intervención por parte de los estudiantes, aportando un poco a la solución de la problemática identificada por ellos.

Por esta razón, se hace la siguiente propuesta en cada uno de los activos que hacen parte de la comunidad escolar y del barrio; para que sea tomada en cuenta por parte de las generaciones escolares subsiguientes ya sea dándole continuidad y haciendo los ajustes correspondientes:

ACTIVO	CONTEXTO	
	ESCOLAR	BARRIO
ECONOMIA LOCAL	Enviar una carta al rector de la institución proponiendo el mejoramiento en la calidad del servicio de la cafetería escolar.	Enviar una carta a la policía denunciando el maltrato que se hace a los vendedores informales.
PERSONAS	Solicitar al rector permiso para liderar una charla a todos los grados sobre el buen trato, en relación con el vocabulario empleado por los estudiantes.	Enviar una carta a la policía y a diferentes instituciones para solicitar apoyo de seguridad en las calles, y programas para el aprovechamiento del tiempo libre.
INSTITUCIONES	Desarrollar una encuesta a los estudiantes de los grados 9 a 11 para conocer sus intereses frente al apoyo que otras instituciones ofrecen al colegio y, asimismo, pasar una propuesta a rectoría con la voz de los estudiantes para que se direccionen estas intervenciones de acuerdo a lo encontrado.	Enviar carta al presidente de la Junta de acción comunal 2ª. Etapa de la ciudadela, solicitándole convocar una reunión con los habitantes para actualizar información sobre las instituciones que apoyan el barrio y el grado de participación de los mismos y generar compromisos.
ASOCIACIONES	Ubicar un buzón de sugerencias para estudiantes y padres de familia en lugares estratégicos del colegio, para que ellos hagan sus sugerencias en relación con la parte académica y convivencial en la institución y cada 15 días,	Pasar una propuesta al rector para generar un programa de acompañamiento a los abuelos que hacen parte del comedor, en el que una vez al mes, los estudiantes les lleven actividades recreativas y culturales y

	se reúne el grupo encargado de liderarlo para entregarlo a las respectivas instancias y a su vez, ellas hagan el análisis y así, actuar correspondientemente.	compartan una tarde diferente con ellos.
ESPACIOS FISICOS	Pasar una propuesta al rector solicitando la aprobación de una campaña de aseo en el colegio liderada por ellos y articulándose con el grado 9-2 en la propuesta de la clase de Emprendimiento.	Pasar la propuesta al rector para programar una campaña de aseo en el barrio, y embellecimiento de los parques en una jornada, donde se involucre los habitantes de la comunidad.

Appendix M. Students in action

"Good Manners matter Campaign"

This is your dog Campaign"

"You are important too, campaign"

Appendix N. Member Checking Validation

MEMBER CHECKING VALIDATION

INSTITUCION EDUCATIVA ALFONSO PALACIO RUDAS
Código Dane: 173001010851 - Nit.: 809.007.194-7
Resolución de Aprobación de Estudios: 004109 de Noviembre 13 de 2018

Durante el año escolar 2019, participé activamente en el proyecto de investigación **11th graders acknowledgment of their community through Multiliteracies in the EFL classroom,** (Reconocimiento de los alumnos de 11° grado de su comunidad a través de Multiliteracídades en la clase de Inglés como Lengua Extranjera), liderado por la profesora de Inglés de grado 11; Diana Magali Flórez Barreto, en colaboración con su tesis de maestría en Didáctica del Inglés; previo consentimiento de mis padres por ser menor de edad para mi participación en videos, registros fotográficos y otras actividades desarrolladas durante el desarrollo de este proceso.

En septiembre de 2020, fui convocado/a por la profesora a la institución nuevamente; para la socialización de los hallazgos y conclusiones producto de la misma y legitimo la veracidad y confiabilidad de la información por ella presentada, dado que es consecuente con los aportes que realicé a la investigación en el año 2019.

Valido la información con mi valoración en la siguiente escala Likert:

QUESTION	STRONGLY DISAGREE			STRONGLY AGREE	
	1	2	3	4	5
Overall, I think the conclusions and findings shown by the teacher are in accordance to the information gathered during the inquiry process.					
My personal opinion:					

My signature below recognizes my acceptance:
Name: _____
Signature: _____ ID Number: _____

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Analysis of Chinese EFL Postgraduates' Experiences with Public Speaking Anxiety toward International Conference Presentation

Li-Wei Wei[1]

[1] Chinese International College, Dhurakij Pundit University, Thailand

Correspondence: Li-Wei Wei, General Education, Chinese International College, Dhurakij Pundit University, 110/1-4 Pracha Chuen Rd, Thung Song Hong, Lak Si, Bangkok 10210, Thailand.

Abstract

Anxiety has a significant effect on oral communication, particularly when it occurs in the form of a public address. The quality of a public speaker's oral presentation may highly be determined by a variety of emotive elements. However, this has received much too little attention in the realm of academic conference presentations, despite the fact that this process may be incredibly nerve-wracking for both novice and experienced postgraduate students. In the current study, 137 Chinese EFL postgraduate students consented to complete a revamped version of the Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA). Chinese EFL postgraduates reported a high level of public speaking anxiety during their international conference presentations, as measured by three categorical variables: public speaking apprehension, self-behavior management, and fear of negative evaluation. During the international conference presentations, ten questionnaire items were recognised to be the most anxiety-provoking conditions in terms of public speaking anxiety. In addition, differences in gender and graduate study specialization were not significantly associated with Chinese EFL postgraduates' experiences with public speaking anxiety. Nevertheless, it was discovered that Chinese EFL graduate students reported statistically significant levels of public speaking anxiety, and pedagogical suggestions were offered.

Keywords: Chinese EFL postgraduates, foreign language anxiety, international conference, public speaking anxiety

1. Introduction

1.1 Background and Problem Statement

Unquestionably, English is now characterized as a globally utilized and recognized universal language. There is a developing necessity for the availability and usage of English in our everyday interactions. Additionally, in all spheres of life, including academia, international commerce, politics, and economics, English is an indispensable ingredient for information interchange (Chmarkh, 2022; Doff, 2018; Ahn, 2015). In this scenario, studying English as a foreign language (EFL) is paramount, particularly whenever applied to other facets of our lives. Clearly, the acquisition of adequate English proficiency has been seen as a requirement for both individuals who strive to be competitively driven in their employability and those who are likely to flourish in the academic realm (Mustapha & Mahmoud, 2019; Hadijah & Shalawati, 2019; Noviyenty, 2017). In particular, Chinese EFL international postgraduates pursuing higher education overseas would employ English as a medium of academic communication in the circumstances of higher education (Liu, 2022; Huang, 2021; Jiang & Kosar-Altinyelken, 2020; Qiang, 2017; Qiang, 2015). Students who aspire to careers as competent professional speakers or presenters of academic subjects would be well-served to devote a significant amount of time to developing their communication and presention skills via extensive participation in a huge assortment of speaking and presenting opportunities (Satullaeva & Kurbanbaeva, 2020; Pecorari, 2018; Zhang & Sung, 2013; Pan, 2014).

However, Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) observed that communicating in the target language appears to be the most intimidating component of acquiring a foreign language. Besides that, as per serveral researchers' demonstration, foreign language anxiety is a tremendous problem and mostly a harmful effect that might potentially hinder a person's foreign language (FL) acquisition (Alqurashi & Althubaiti, 2021; Cui, 2020; Alaleh, 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016). Foreign language anxiety (FLA) is evidently identified as substantial and prominent in determining the foreign language accomplishment of EFL learners, notably in speaking abilities and communicating competence in formalized and professional academic settings (Dewaele & Li, 2021; Fujii,

2021; Effiong, 2015). In contrast, Kiae et al. (2021) claimed that English language anxiety represents a variety of social anxiety based on interactions with other individuals. Meanwhile, Kruk (2018) argued that a particular instructor, group of learners, or foreign context is likely to induce language anxiety. Consequently, language anxiety arises not just during language acquisition but also in social situations. In addition, it was believed and reported that anxiety correlated adversely to an individual's emotional filter, rendering them less receptive to verbal information (Joyce-Deaulieu & Zaboski, 2020; Rachman, 2020; Kiel & Kalomiris, 2019; Waston & O'Hara, 2017). It would appear that the phrases foreign language anxiety and EFL students' learning are directly relevant. FLA is a far-reaching concern that must be tackled in order to facilitate the learning process in a more productive manner, primarily in the professional performances of Chinese EFL postgraduates at international conferences, academic symposiums, seminars, workshops etc, requiring public speaking or communication skills. With this in mind, Numerous individuals may be apprehensive about speaking in public if they experience anxiety. According to Güvendir et al. (2020), Mehrpoor and Soeimani (2018) and Genc et al. (2016), those who are deceptive, inattentive, and incommunicative are incompetent. Anxiety over public speaking impacts a person's social, economic, political, and intellectual aspects of life (Güvendir et al., 2020; Elani-Shirvan & Talebzadeh, 2020). Uncontrolled public speaking anxiety has damaging consequences on a person's quality of life, career, and critical thinking. Coppinger and Sheridan (2022) indicated that students with public speaking anxiety express insights, projects, and facts shabbily and inappropriately. Therefore, as the intention of this study, it is vital to analyze how FLA affects the international conference presentations of Chinese EFL postgraduates.

1.2 Research Objectives

In view of concerns about the impact of FLA on the presenting performance of Chinese EFL postgraduates at the international conference, the principal aim of this study was to evaluate Chinese EFL postgraduates' foreign language anxiety experiences at the international conference. The second objective was to explore the link between gender difference and foreign language anxiety. The ultimate goal was to look into the relationship between conference presenting settings and foreign language anxiety.

1.3 Research Questions

In this research, emphasis was placed on the perceptions of Chinese EFL postgraduates with regard to their experiences and sentiments of FLA while attending and giving a presentation at the international conference. As a result, in an effort to get an in-depth understanding of the function that FLA serves in the acquisition of foreign languages, the following three investigation questions were posed:

1) How much public speaking anxiety do Chinese EFL postgraduates suffer during their international conference presentations?

2) Based on gender disparities, are there substantial variances in public speaking anxiety experiences of Chinese EFL postgraduates?

3) Based on various graduate study majors, are there noticeable differences in public speaking anxiety experiences of Chinese EFL postgraduates?

1.4 Significance of the Study

In recent decades, language anxiety has been addressed in great detail, as a growing number of relevant research has been done. It has had a direct impact on foreign language learning, language performance, and perhaps even long-term language proficiency (Chmarkh, 2022; Alqurashi & Althubaiti, 2021; Cui, 2020; Doff, 2018; Alaleh, 2018). This study was conducted to acquire a deeper understanding of the situation, especially as it pertains to the foreign language anxiety suffered by Chinese EFL postgraduates during their international conference presentations. Studies addressing this subject have been seldom conducted if at all. Ultimately, the outcomes of this study could supply EFL students and instructors in postgraduate programs with clarity and background information. Identifying the extent to which Chinese EFL postgraduates suffer from foreign language apprehension might aid in addressing this sensation. For instance, a postgraduate individual's academic language growth and presenting performance may be significantly impacted by foreign language anxiety.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Anxiety—Psychological Disorder

Multiple dictionary definitions describe anxiety as the condition of feeling apprehensive or terrified that maybe something unpleasant may transpire, or a sensation of tension and concern about something (Merriam-Webster, 2019; Pearson Education, 2014; Oxforward University Press, 2011). Moreover, Alnahidh and Altalhab (2020) termed anxiety as "the subjective sensation of tension, apprehension, uneasiness, and concern connected with an

activation of the autonomic nervous system." From such a psychological standpoint, it is evident that anxiety would be regarded as a specific emotional disorder that has a detrimental effect on human conduct as the substantial focus of this research (Coppinger & Sheridan, 2022; Kiae et al., 2021). On the other hand, psychologists endeavour to classify anxiety into a variety of subtypes, including trait anxiety and transitory anxiety state. Attribute anxiety is theoretically viewed as a generally constant personality trait whereas state anxiety based on the perspectives of considerable researchers relates to the moment-to-moment feeling of apprehension (Joyce-Deaulieu & Zaboski, 2020; Rachman, 2020; Kiel & Kalomiris, 2019).

In addition, He (2018) and Mierzwa (2019) broaden state anxiety as a responsiveness to a specific anxiety-inducing stimuli as a significant test. Accordingly, language learners with high trait anxiety are prone to be anxious individuals with impaired emotional well-being, maturity and stability (Schalley & Eisenchlas, 2020). Furthermore, Horwitz and Young (1991) postulated a second form of apprehension: situation-specific apprehension. They asserted that situation-specific anxiousness, theoretically stated, seems to be a present-moment feeling after investigating numerous anxiety research areas. In other words, learners with innately unique personalities are most likely to place less emphasis on the situational causes of anxiety since anxiety is a distinguishing trait of an individual across many circumstances, scenarios, or occasions (Narcy-Combes et al., 2019). In the preceding part, the researcher provided a conceptual and basic review of three categories of anxiety: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situational anxiety with reference to anxiety as a psychological concept. Clearly, anxiety serves an exceptionally crucial role throughout each dimension. Nevertheless, this study on anxiety prediction in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context concentrated primarily on foreign language anxiety. In light of this, the succeeding section should provide a more in-depth explanation of anxiety in an EFL setting from the viewpoint of students.

2.2 Anxiety in Foreign Language

According to Horwitz and Young's (1991) interpretation, language anxiety could be classified as a feature of language acquisition that causes panic in language learners. All language learners potentially suffer from anxiety or discomfort throughout the process of language acquisition, which, as shown by the study findings (Gkonou et al., 2017; Salehi & Marefat, 2014), may exert a notable impact on language acquisition. Additionally, as per Gregersen and Mercer (2021), anxiety manifests as a sense of dread, a nebulous fear indirectly related with an objective. For this reason, anxiety is considered a hindrance as referring to language learners' accomplishment of a high degree of competency in a foreign language (Dewaele & Li, 2021). As a consequence, it is clearly proven that language anxiety performs a contribution comparable to one of the greatest indicators of language acquisition achievement (Satullaeva & Kurbanbaeva, 2020; Pecorari, 2018). In the next part, however, a wealth of study findings establishes unequivocally the presence of anxiety in foreign language learning.

In terms of psychology, foreign language anxiety may be theoretically defined as the tense and apprehensive sentiments of language learners, as well as their attitudes in foreign language environments (Cui, 2020; Doff, 2018). Anxiety, as a psychological condition, is characterized by a subjective experience of discontent, tension, uneasiness, and concern that is accompanied by an activation of the autonomic nervous system (Pecorari, 2018; Alaleh, 2018). In theory, it would be evident that language learners with anxiety-related difficulties might possibly encounter uncertainty in particular situations or scenarios in which the ability to speak a second or foreign language seems necessary and required.

Moreover, based upon the study findings of Gok et al. (2021), shaking, uneasiness, a rapid pulse, distraction, forgetfulness, profuse perspiration, palpitations, and sleep disorders are regarded to be the diagnostic hallmarks of anxious learners. Given the adverse consequences of foreign language anxiety, the language proficiency of these language learners would certainly become unbalanced in this scenario. In response to certain potential triggers for language learning anxiety, certain research findings have underlined situation-specific anxiety that could be conscientiously perceived and discerned in a language-use setting (Toyama & Yamazaki, 2018; Vahedi & Fatemi, 2015), thereby extending the attention toward some other scope of language anxiety—EFL setting anxiety or anxiety in public occasions such as academic international conferences or public speaking anxiety.

2.3 Anxiety for Public Settings/Speaking

Stage fright of public speaking is one of the most prevalent forms of social anxiety and a component of social anxiety. Public speaking anxiety has therefore been a form of communication trepidation or communication anxiety according to Dewaele and Moskowitz (2020). The type of communication at consideration is public speaking. Whenever a person with anxiety presents in public is either requested to speak in public, they suffer from nervousness, uneasiness, anxiety, apprehension, and fear of making blunders. Public speaking anxiety is identified as following cateogries, including internal discomfort, communication avoidance, withdrawal and

abundant communication (Attanayake, 2019; Aydin, 2017). To put it another way, an individual has public speaking anxiety when he or she doubts his or her capabilities to manage the speaking circumstances he or she is confronting and, as a consequence, has been unable to concentrate and becomes agitated. Numerous studies have shown that a person with great self-confidence and very limited public speaking anxiety seems to be the exact opposite (Dastgoshadeh & Javanmardi, 2021; Al-Khotaba et al., 2019; Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017).

Each one of us needs effective communication abilities in today's society. Motorchi and Ziafar (2020) assert that communication has become a hallmark of social cohesiveness, social standing, and professional characteristics, and the majority of language components are acquired via this medium. During their careers, professionals are mandated to deliver several lectures to a variety of audiences. If individuals experience public speaking anxiety, their occupations may be jeopardized as a result. Some studies show that social anxiety is associated with variance in audience response, and this impacts confidence and public speaking (Rubio, 2020; Amalia et al., 2019; Szyszka, 2016). In Su's (2022) study, she reports that 72% of EFL individuals have minor or considerable public speaking fear among Chinese college students. Four individuals out of ten dread public speaking more than death. Most psychologists see it as an irrational and easily overcome phobia. Moreover, students should possess the essential skill of public speaking in order to convey ideas or make suggestions. Many individuals dread speaking in public. Shen (2021) points out that anxiety produces anxiousness and evasive actions that impede scholastic achievement and performance. In accordance with the NIMH San Francisco, 69% of the global population exhibits public speaking anxiety (Hope et al., 2019). Per the research performed by Li and Deawele (2021), 77% of Chinese college students report nervousness over little or large-scale public speaking, which matched up the research results in the study performed by Qu (2019), 75% of Chinese college students experience severe from public speaking anxiety. That is to say whenever offered the opportunity to speak in public, Chinese students often hesitate and feel uncertain. As individuals advance through their academic careers, they are much more inclined to speak and address at gatherings, symposia, and conferences, in addition to providing their perspective on the problems at hand, hence increasing the need for public speaking abilities. When speaking in front of an audience, however, some people experience restlessness and sleep difficulties owing to their public speaking anxiousness.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Participants

This investigation was carried out with the engagement of one hundred thirty-seven master's degree students of Chinese nationality (N=137; Male = 76, 55.5%; Female=61, 44.5%). These postgraduate students were mandated to participate in a university-sponsored yearly basis international conference to present their research articles pertaining to their final master's thesis. In the meantime, these postgraduates in terms of their master's degree professionally earned the degree in MBA (Master of Business Administration, N=46; 33.5%), MEA (Master of Educational Administration, N=62; 45.3%), and MFA (Master of Finance Administration, N=29; 21.2%). Table 1 provides a breakdown of the demographic characteristics of the participants.

Table 1. Summary of Research Participants' Demographic Information

Category	Sub-Category	Frequency (Count, N)	Percentage (%)
Gender	Female	61	44.5%
	Male	76	55.5%
Master's Degree in	MEA	62	45.3%
	MBA	46	33.5%
	MFA	29	21.2%
Total		137	100%

Note: MEA (Master of Educational Administration); MBA (Master of Business Administration); MFA (Master of Finance Administration)

3.2 Research Instrument

The Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety (PRPSA), a 34-item scale devised by McCroskey (1970) to measure fear of public speaking, was utilized as the primary research instrument in the present study. Each item is graded on a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (strongly agree). Original PRPSA comprises 22 questions to be phrased negatively, such as "I feel apprehensive while waiting to deliver my speech," and 12 items to be formulated positively, such as "I like preparing for a speech." In the

analysis of this data, the favorably worded questions of the PRPSA were turned then such high scores on the scale consistently indicated a greater level of public speaking anxiety. It has been shown that Cronbach's alpha for the scale ranges from 0.84 to 0.94, which means that the questionnaire has relatively high internal consistency (McCroskey 1970; Gufriyansyah & Khairani, 2019; Hope et al., 2019; Dueñas et al., 2018; Bartholomay & Houlihan, 2016;). In comparison, for the objective of the current study, the researcher adapted and amended the original version of the PRPSA by converting all 34 items into negative statements. In addition, the term "public speech" that was included in the original PRPSA has been changed to conference presentation. A fully altered version of PRPSA, containing all of the items, was constructed based on the following categorical factors: public speaking apprehension, self-control management, and fear of adverse assessment (see Table 2).

Table 2. Modified Version of Personal Report of Public Speaking Anxiety Scale

Categorical Variable 1: Public Speaking Apprehension

1. *My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a conference presentation*
2. *My hands tremble when I am giving a conference presentation*
3. *I feel agitated while giving a conference presentation*
4. *I am in constant fear of forgetting what I prepared to say during my conference presentation*
5. *I get anxious if someone asks me something about my topic knowledge that I don't know*
6. *My mind is uncertain when giving a conference presentation*
7. *My heart beats very fast just as I start a conference presentation*
8. *While giving a conference presentation, I feel troubled in control of my feelings of tension*
9. *When I make a mistake during my conference presentation, I find it hard to concentrate on the parts that follow*
10. *During my conference presentation, I experience a feeling of helplessness building up inside me*
11. *I feel shortness of breathing while I make a conference presentation*
12. *While giving a conference presentation, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know*

Categorical Variable 2: Self-Behavior Management

13. *While preparing for giving a conference presentation, I feel nervous*
14. *I feel tense when I see the words conference presentation*
15. *I feel worried when I am told to give a conference presentation*
16. *I am nervous just before starting a conference presentation, but I still do not feel calm during my presentation.*
17. *I seldom look forward to giving a conference presentation*
18. *I get anxious when I think about a conference presentation coming up*
19. *I always have some fear of giving a conference presentation*
20. *When the moderator announces my turn for conference presentation, I can feel myself getting tense*
21. *I do not enjoy preparing for a conference presentation*
22. *I do dread to give a conference presentation.*
23. *I perspire just before starting a conference presentation*
24. *Realizing that only a little time remains in a conference presentation makes me very anxious*
25. *I have trouble falling asleep the night before a conference presentation*

Categorical Variable 2: Fear of Adverse Assessment

26. *Right after giving a conference presentation I feel that I have had an unpleasant experience*
27. *I feel performing a poorer conference presentation because I am anxious*
28. *I feel anxious when the conference commentator announces the results of my conference presentation*
29. *I feel anxious during the process of waiting my conference presentation outcomes*
30. *I experience considerable anxiety while sitting in the conference room just after my conference presentation*
31. *I breathe faster just after finishing my conference presentation*
32. *I face the discouraged toward my giving of a conference presentation*
33. *I feel that I am losing the complete possession of myself after my conference presentation*
34. *I feel uncomfortable and tensioned in the hour or so just after finishing my conference presentation*

Adapted from McCroskey's (1970) version.

3.3 Pilot Test

The researcher implementing the Chinese version of the PRPSA recruited 50 graduate students at random to fill out the questionnaires for the pilot test in February 2021. After gathering all returned questionnaires, SPSS Statistics version 24.0 was employed to conduct a reliability analysis on the responses. The modified Chinese-version PRPSA in the pilot study, as presented in Table 3, indicated the internal reliability with an internal consistency coefficient of .853 (Cronbach's alpha, N = 34). Consequently, the modified Chinese-version of the PRPSA was perceived as a construct with promising validity and reliability across all 34 items.

Table 3. Pilot Test of the Adapted PRPSA

Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized items	N of Items
.853	.829	34

3.4 Data Collection and Analysis

This investigation was carried out throughout January and July of 2021. The researcher identified the list of postgraduate students in February 2021 whilst also gathering data. In that year, these postgraduates registered to attend the International Conference. In May of 2021, several postgraduates from three distinct master's programs attended the international conference. The researcher distributed the questionnaires on the day of the annual international conference, based on the list of presenters and their respective areas of expertise, immediately after their presentations. Each postgraduate participant devoted over 15 minutes filling out the questionnaire. All completed surveys were collected and then analyzed quantitatively.

4. Results

4.1 Notably High Level of Public Speaking Anxiety from Categorical Variables

SPSS version 24.0 was implemented in order to conduct a quantitative analysis upon every and each participant's responses to the 34 items that were included on the modified version of the PRPSA questionnaire. The results of each item are detailed in Table 4, along with its Mean (X) for all items and the average score for each categorical variable.

Table 4. Postgraduates' Experience with Public Speaking Anxiety toward International Conference Presentation

Categorical Variable 1: *Public Speaking Apprehension*			Categorical Variable 2: *Self-Behavior Management*			Categorical Variable 3: *Fear of Adverse Assessment*		
item	N	Mean	item	N	Mean	item	N	Mean
1	137	3.87	13	137	4.55	26	137	4.11
2	137	4.21	14	137	4.18	27	137	4.27
3	137	4.33	15	137	4.09	28	137	4.45
4	137	3.95	16	137	4.11	29	137	4.57
5	137	4.87	17	137	4.68	30	137	4.06
6	137	4.55	18	137	4.47	31	137	3.97
7	137	3.62	19	137	4.36	32	137	4.06
8	137	4.39	20	137	4.16	33	137	4.22
9	137	4.58	21	137	3.76	34	137	4.27
10	137	4.13	22	137	4.20			
11	137	4.02	23	137	4.33			
12	137	4.36	24	137	4.89			
			25	137	4.69			
Averaged Score:		*4.24*	*Averaged Score*:		*4.32*	*Averaged Score*:		*4.22*
Total Averaged Score based on all categorical variables:				*4.26*				

Table 4 reveals that, in response to the first research question, "How much public speaking anxiety do Chinese EFL postgraduates suffer during their international conference presentation?", participants in this study reported

on average (X = 4.26), a significantly high degree of public speaking anxiety. In addition, based on categorical factors including public speaking apprehension (X=4.24), self-behavior management (X=4.32), and fear of adverse assessment (X=4.22), postgraduates also showed considerable degree of public speaking anxiety during the international conference presentation. Furthermore, the results suggest that among 34 items, 10 had the greatest level of postgraduates' experiences with public speaking anxiety, as shown in Table 5:

Table 5. Items with the Highest Level of Public Speaking Anxiety toward Conference Presentation

Categorical Variables	Item	Mean
Public Speaking Apprehension	Item 5: I get anxious if someone asks me something about my topic knowledge that I do not know	4.87
	Item 6: My mind is uncertain when giving a conference presentation	4.55
	Item 9: When I make a mistake during my conference presentation, I find it hard to concentrate on the parts that follow	4.58
Self-Behavior Management	Item 13: While preparing for giving a conference presentation, I feel nervous	4.55
	Item 17: I seldom look forward to giving a conference presentation	4.68
	Item 18: I get anxious when I think about a conference presentation coming up	4.47
	Item 24: Realizing that only a little time remains in a conference presentation makes me very anxious	4.89
	Item 25: I have trouble falling asleep the night before a conference presentation	4.69
Fear of Adverse Assessment	Item 28: I feel anxious when the conference commentator announces the results of my conference presentation	4.45
	Item 29: I feel anxious during the process of waiting my conference presentation outcomes	4.57

Note: Items with the greatest degree of PSA have mean scores that exceed or are close to 4.50

4.2 Gender Disparities and Public Speaking Anxiety

In response to the second research question, which was "based on gender disparities, are there substantial variances in public speaking anxiety experiences of Chinese EFL postgraduates," the result of the t-test for all participants (N=137) in Table 6 demonstrates that there was no statistically significant difference at the .05 level of significance between Chinese EFL postgraduates' gender differences and public speaking anxiety toward international conference presentation (F=.574, p>.05). This was shown by the fact that there was no significant correlation between gender differences and Chinese EFL postgraduates' experiences of public speaking anxiety toward international conference presentation.

Table 6. Gender Differences & Chinese EFL Postgraduates' Experiences of PSA toward Conference Presentation

t-test						
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference						
	Mean	SD	Lower	Upper	T	P: Sig. (2-tailed)
Male Female	.08254	.99758	-.49765	.38739	-.407	.574*

Notes: The test value is significant at the 0.05 level

4.3 Graduate Study Major Difference and Public Speaking Anxiety

In order to answer the third research question, which would have been "based on various graduate study majors, are there noticeable differences in public speaking anxiety experiences of Chinese EFL postgraduates," depending on Chinese major differences of EFL postgraduates, in Table 7, the outcomes of the t-test for all respondents (N=137) revealed that no statistically significant difference at the .05 level of significance was found between Chinese EFL postgraduates' major differences and their experiences of public speaking anxiety over the international conference presentation (F=.390, p>.05).

Table 7. Gender Differences & Chinese EFL Postgraduates' Experiences of PSA toward Conference Presentation

			t-test			
			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
	Mean	SD	Lower	Upper	t	P: Sig. (2-tailed)
MBA						
MEA	-.04105	.37084	-.29765	.08421	-.647	.390*
MFA						

Notes: The test value is significant at the 0.05 level

5. Conclusion and Discussion

The objective of the current study was to identify and examine Chinese EFL postgraduates' experiences with public speaking anxiety in relation to international conference presentations. Take together, the current empirical study results provide insights for the usefulness in expanding our understanding of Chinese EFL postgraduates' experiences with high degree of public speaking anxiety toward international conference presentations found within all categorical variables, including public speaking apprehension, self-behavior management and fear of adverse assessment. Alberth (2022) defines the notion underlying apprehension or context-specific nervousness as frequently being tied to a specific scenario in which the speaker would use a second language in which he or she is not entirely capable. Students of Asian descent may experience embarrassment while expressing themselves in English. Particularly, Confucian philosophy may impact and encourage faultless performance among Chinese students (Tang, 2022; Zheng & Cheng, 2018; Yin & Wang, 2017). Students in China are worried about making errors and being ridiculed, which made them seriously apprehensive while speaking in public (Zheng & Cheng, 2018; Shao et al., 2013). By extension, speaking in front of a group or the general public has been a communication and language challenge for a very long time. Students eschewed public speaking due to embarrassment, trembling voices, quick pulse, feelings of discomfort, inferiority complex, and lack of self-respect (Gok et al., 2021; Güvendir et al., 2020; Gkonou et al., 2017). To put it another way, giving speeches and presentations in classrooms and in front of an audience has been a significant obstacle for them. Communication apprehension is a form of shyness characterized by an anxiety-driven dread of speaking with others while apprehension about communication has also been categorized as audience-based apprehension, context-based apprehension, and situational apprehension (Joyce-Beaulieu & Zaboski, 2020). Problems with expressing in groups (verbal communication anxiety), in public (performance anxiety or stage fright), or in listening to or learning through spoken foreign language message (recipient anxiety) may be considered indications or signs of public communication anxiety (Hope et al., 2019; Hope, 2018).

Furthermore, the results of this study indicate that variations in gender and graduate major appear not to have a substantial impact on Chinese EFL postgraduates' experiences with public speaking anxiety prior to international conference presentations. However, the new results seem to contradict prior research which revealed a positive correlation between gender and public speaking anxiety but still no significant gender effect on public speaking (German, 2020; Lestari et al., 2017; Elmenfi & Gaibani, 2016). The probable causes of these disparate outcomes may be somewhat attributable to the varying levels of engagement and academic settings used to evaluate learners' public speaking anxiety. In those earlier investigations, the researchers recruited college-level EFL students as their participants. However, in the present study, the majority of learners were Chinese EFL postgraduates. Students may exhibit a variety of reactions to public speaking concerns based on their educational abilities and level of maturity (Russell, 2020; Buckley, 2018; Hope et al., 2019). The current study, on the other hand, focused on the experiences of Chinese EFL postgraduates with public speaking anxiety in reference to the international conference presentation in public, which differentiated from the general classroom setting of those preceding studies. In other words, communication in English for professional and academic purposes in a large, public academic context, such as an international conference, may vary dramatically from that in an English as a Foreign Language classroom with a small, comfortable audience. On the other hand, due to the scarcity of relevant studies and literature concerning different educational backgrounds or experiences, there will be a pressing need for more investigation into the diverse majors of graduate study as the primary distinction.

6. Implication

The current research, in need of further investigation, has thrown up many issues related to Chinese EFL postgraduates' experiences with public speaking anxiety toward international conference presentations. In light of this, the need for academic public speaking abilities is also on the increase, since as academic individuals or

professionals advance in their careers, they are more likely to deliver and engage in conversation for all forms of potential academic scenarios in the future, in addition to offering their opinion on the topics at hand. Whenever speaking in front of an audience, however, some people may undergo sleep disorders, agitation, and other negative emotional responses owing to their public speaking phobia. Different studies have investigated the roots and grounds of public speaking anxiety and conducted extensive ideas and techniques to cope with and conquer this issue. Hence, further research should be usefully explored and investigated into the technique being used to overcome fear of academic public speaking for graduates, and this skill should be included in the course plan or learning objectives to better graduate academic achievement.

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Therapeutic Use of Metaphors in Medical English Scenario Writing: A Case Study of Nervous System Writing by Three Medical Majors in Xinxiang Medical University

Ran Zhang[1], Wenming Yong[1] & Tianlin Jia[1]

[1] Department of Foreign Languages, Xinxiang Medical University, Henan, China

Correspondence: Ran Zhang, Department of Foreign Languages, Xinxiang Medical University, Henan, China.

Abstract

For future doctors, it is quite common to use metaphors in therapy. In the therapy process, one goal for therapists is to develop metaphors that can present the client's problem as a solution. The solution metaphors should be as close as possible to the client's own language. Here, metaphors can be seen as a tool to provide explanations to and communicate with clients. Therefore, to cultivate students' use of metaphors in therapy, after watching and analyzing a video of the nervous system, students are required to write short essays according to the given scenario. Students are allowed to use metaphorical sentences in their essay. The analysis of these sentences shows that structural metaphors, orientational metaphors, and ontological metaphors were used in their writing. The scenario writing exercise not only improved students' metaphoric competence but also provided them with a new approach for their future career.

Keywords: conceptual metaphor, metaphors in therapy, medical scenario writing

1. Introduction

With the rapid development of medical science, a massive vocabulary has come to characterize Medical English. Medical English is a compulsory subject in medical college, making the problem of how to effectively improve students' Medical English learning a pressing one.

Metaphors, a ubiquitous feature of our everyday conversations, can facilitate communication through the use of familiar concepts to describe abstract and complex ones. It helps doctors become good communicators in clinical practice because metaphoric language does provide an understanding of clinical reality and helps patients understand their condition (Sontag, 1978; Reisfield & Wilson, 2004; Vyjeyanthi, 2008; Casarett, 2010). Doctors can use metaphors to reduce patients' anxiety, improve patients' psychological state, and adjust their behaviors to achieve a therapeutic purpose.

However, most medical students do not realize the importance of using metaphors to communicate with patients. They spend a great deal of time mainly on obtaining medical knowledge and neglect the improvement of language competence. According to Kecskes (2006), the linguistic study of metaphors should be included in English as a foreign language (EFL) curricula, which can provide medical students with appropriate instruction to improve their English proficiency (2006, p. 12). Devrim (2015) conducted action research to develop an approach to teaching grammatical metaphors to undergraduate students who used English as a second language. Hilliard (2017) explored the effectiveness of metaphor instruction in developing reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills for both EFL and ESL learners. Therefore, the current study attempted to stimulate year-one students' Medical English learning and improve their metaphorical competence through metaphor-enriched medical supplementation. According to students' feedback, the supplementary video was novel and informative, and it greatly increased students' interest in learning. Additionally, the case scenario writing exercise improved their metaphoric thinking.

2. Literature Review

George Lakoff and Mark Johnson put forward the conceptual metaphor theory in their 1980 book, *Metaphors We Live By*. Lakoff (2003) defined conceptual metaphor as "mapping from a source domain to a target domain" (p. 205). The formula "Target Domain Is Source Domain" (A IS B), or "Target Domain as Source Domain" (A AS B) was used for mapping. For example, for the conceptual metaphor LIFE IS PLAY, LIFE is the target domain and PLAY is the source domain. In medical vocabulary instruction, metaphor makes abstract concepts more concrete because of its cognitive features. Metaphorical thinking influences Medical English vocabulary the most, including common English words and medical terms. It can be taught as a part of EFL curricula to assist medical students in answering their patients' queries (Mungra, 2007; Shokoui & Isazadeh, 2009).

Regarding the therapeutic use of metaphors, health-care practitioners employ metaphors for the following reasons: first, to foster clarity by transferring meaning effectively and economically. Metaphors bridge the communication gap between the patient and the doctor. Second, metaphors can bring forth empathy between doctors and patients, which is one of the most necessary elements of communication for health care. Friedberg and Wilt (2010) found that physicians frequently (almost two-thirds of the time) used metaphors in their conversations with patients who had a serious condition. Third, physicians who used more metaphors to communicate with patients were seen as better communicators because they reduced difficulty in patients' understanding of complex medical concepts and made patients feel as if their doctors were making extra efforts to ensure they understood their condition (Casseret, p. 258). Metaphors are a fundamental mechanism through which our minds conceptualize the world around us, especially in times of adversity. Metaphors can thus help physicians communicate the details of complex diseases to patients and help them feel better and recover.

Stott et al. (2010) listed reasons to pay close attention to clients' own metaphors, stating that cognitive and behavioral therapy therapists have introduced a large number of metaphors into their therapy process. Many useful therapist-generated metaphors for certain classes of psychological issues such as eating disorders, psychosis, and bipolar disorder have been introduced. Freidberg and Wilt (2010, p. 104) concluded that "metaphors and stories need to be individualised to match a child's individual circumstances, ethnocultural context, and developmental level." They suggested that focusing on clients' metaphor helps counsellors build a relationship with the clients, give new meaning to their problems or experiences, and provide them with new solutions to their problems.

McLeod and Cooper (2011) believed that using metaphors to develop an understanding of clients' processes characterizes the nature of therapists' professional work and is indicative of their pluralistic approach. Jonathan (2015) conducted a heuristic study on the therapeutic use of metaphors, finding that the use of metaphors in therapy is pervasive. Metaphors that reflect an empathic connection and encounter between the therapist and the client have been identified, and therapists have been recommended to focus on the construction of metaphors and the mutual development of therapist-client relationship (pp. 230-232). Cuccio (2018) accounted for the effect of body experience on conceptual metaphors in the light of neuroscientific discoveries (p. 3).

Hommerberg et al. (2020) investigated the use of metaphors in blogs by 27 people with advanced cancer and explored possible patterns associated with individuals, age, and gender based on a dataset totaling 2,602,479 words produced from 2007 to 2016. Both qualitative and quantitative research were used. The results showed that using different metaphors allows people with advanced cancer to highlight different experiences. Despite variations in age, gender, and cancer forms, bloggers are a part of a culturally consistent cohort in metaphors relating to "journey," "battle," "imprisonment," and "burden." Patients' metaphoric awareness helps health professionals identify metaphorical patterns and develop a common language similar to patients' metaphors, which is very important in person-centered palliative care.

3. Research Design

To investigate students' medical metaphor production, the instructor required three students, after watching a video of the nervous system, to write a short essay according to the given three case scenarios relating to the nervous system: the presentation of the client, the past history of the client, and the on-examination situation. The essay needed to about 200 words long, and students were required to generate metaphors to help clients understand their current situation and provide suggestions for treatment. These scenarios were adapted from George's *Healing with Stories: Your Casebook Collection for Using Therapeutic Metaphors* (2007, pp. 55-56). The title of the relevant chapter was "Climbing Anxiety Mountain," which aimed at generating metaphors in acceptance and commitment therapy. This book is intended to develop therapists' skills at using metaphors and demonstrate the variety of approaches to work with, understand, and use metaphors.

4. Data Analysis

In the selected scenario, Aaron was a college student and mountaineer who developed anxiety after a failed mountaineering experience. He was experiencing some somatic symptoms, including a racing heart and sweaty palms. After talking to him, the therapist found that Aaron had developed a compulsive fear in his school years and avoided social interactions. After the assessment, his behavior was diagnosed as experiential avoidance, which means he was unwilling to remain in contact with particular thoughts, feelings, memories, or bodily sensations. Students were required to use metaphors to highlight the psychological processes occurring within his battle with anxiety, and to help him understand this battle and engage in a meaningful, value-based life.

4.1 Analysis of Student A's Scenario Writing

Student A was a female student who majored in Clinical Medicine. In her writing, she compared Aaron to a hedgehog and his anxiety to the hedgehog's thorns:

> *I regard him as a hedgehog because his social anxiety is just like a hedgehog's thorns.*
>
> *There is a metaphor implied in this sentence: Aaron is a hedgehog whose anxiety is the hedgehog's thorns. It is known that the hedgehog will wrap itself [up] when encountering a problem. This is very much like the symptom of experiential avoidance, and the readers can understand his anxiety immediately.*

Thus, a metaphor is implied above: AN ANXIOUS PERSON IS A HEDGEHOG. To help Aaron realize that there is joy in social communication, student A used another metaphor:

> *I told him the process of making friends and communicating with others was just like climbing mountains, and joking and laughing would supplement the process of healing.*

There is a metaphor in this sentence as well: MAKING FRIENDS IS LIKE CLIMBING MOUNTAINS. Although the process is difficult, it can give a great deal of happiness.

To encourage Aaron to fight his anxiety bravely, student A used two more metaphors. She said, "And the battle between him and anxiety is just like sitting on a seesaw," or in other words, FIGHTING WITH ANXIETY IS LIKE SITTING ON A SEESAW. The braver Aaron is, the less anxious he will be. This in turn will give Aaron more courage to fight his anxiety. Student A also said, "If he has faith in his heart, anxiety will escape like a deserter," or, ANXIETY IS A DESERTER. This metaphor compares anxiety to a deserter, emphasizing the contradictory relationship between faith and anxiety.

Based on the above, how can Aaron's anxiety be treated? Student A used a related metaphor: "And now what Aron needs to do is to treat anxiety as a bad-tempered kid, comforting it and let anxiety calm down." In this sentence, ANXIETY IS A BAD-TEMPERED KID. If anxiety is a kid, the best method is to comfort it and make it calm down. Therefore, the best way to calm down an anxious person is to comfort them and help them achieve a peaceful mind.

Through the five metaphorical sentences, Aaron's feelings of anxiety were described vividly and the therapist (Student A) proposed other metaphors as well to encourage Aaron to find happiness in social communication. She also suggested an approach to deal with anxiety.

4.2 Analysis of Student B's Scenario Writing

Student B was a female student who majored in medical imaging. In her essay, she compared Aaron's anxiety to falling into a swamp: "I fell into the swamp of anxiety; the more I wanted to escape, the more I sank, endlessly." This sentence implies the following metaphor: ANXIETY IS LIKE FALLING INTO A SWAMP. It is a part of the frequently used orientational metaphor, SAD IS DOWN. The similarity between anxiety and falling into a swamp is that both are harmful to the body. Through this metaphor, Aaron's misery and struggle with anxiety can be immediately understood.

To help Aaron relax, student B suggested that Aaron lay on the couch and describe his inner feelings. Aaron stated that he felt he was standing in a desert with sand all around. His feet were being sucked into the sand. This statement evokes a precise image in our mind, and Aaron's confusion and hopelessness can be sensed immediately. The therapist told Aaron to imagine he was not sinking deeply into the desert sand but was standing on it. In this way, Aaron gradually controlled his anxiety and fear. Therefore, the therapist concluded that what Aaron needed was guidance and courage to wean him away from his fixation with anxiety and to help him create a new positive image as an efficient treatment method.

The term 'image' is often used in psychology to refer to a psychological representation. It implies that a person can imagine something that is not present though the cognitive ability to form an impression in the mind without external physical stimulation input. By arriving at conclusions from Aaron's metaphors for anxiety and his image of the desert, the therapist can conduct psychotherapy accordingly.

4.3 Analysis of Student C's Scenario Writing

Student C was a female student who majored in psychiatry. In her essay, when describing Aaron's appearance, she used the following expression: there was a squirrel-like alertness in his eyes. The word "squirrel-like" is so vivid that people can visualize an alert squirrel easily. When someone touches a big tree with a squirrel on it, it will run and hide under the branches or find another big tree. If someone's eyes are full of squirrel-like alertness, they must be very nervous and anxious. To relieve Aaron's tension and anxiety, the therapist invited him to sit on a chair and gave him a cup of warm water. From his conversation about his troubles, the therapist learned that Aaron's failed mountaineering experience had left him with unpleasant memories that caused him to seek to escape from the outside world. The following sentence describes Aaron's state of avoidance: "Like a frog trapped alone in his own world, he does not want to touch more things." The metaphor implied here is, AN ANXIOUS PERSON IS A FROG (TRAPPED IN HIS OWN WORLD). The frog always stays in its well and does not want to go outside, evoking Aaron's avoidance of the external world. If the therapist directly spoke about Aaron's troubles, Aaron might have become more anxious. Therefore, the therapist told Aaron a story instead:

> *A frog named Sam liked jumping up in search of food, but he didn't make it because he didn't control it well. He began to exercise himself, refuse[d] to share his mood with other frogs, and became anxious. One day his friend said to him, "Hey! Man, you are jumping so high, I've never jumped so high like you!" Sam suddenly realized that his previous failure had contributed to his own progress, and that the other frogs did not care about his failure. Later, he began to share his mood with other frogs, and soon got along well with the frog family.*

After listening to this story, Aaron was lost in thought. Then, he realized that what he was anxious about might not be very important to others. Through the metaphor of the squirrel and the metaphorical story of the frog, Aaron realized his problem and was able to open his heart to others.

5. Findings

Three kinds of conceptual metaphors were applied to students' writing. When talking about anxiety, the property of anxiety was highlighted, for instance, "hedgehog," "deserter," and "a bad-tempered kid." The second kind highlighted the process of fighting with anxiety. For example, "sitting on a seesaw" emphasized that the patient should overcome their nervous feelings and be brave. When talking about the feeling of "making friends," student A compared it to "climbing mountains," implying that the process was difficult but happy. When talking about the severity of the sadness feeling, student B compared it to "falling into a swamp." This metaphor is a part of the classic orientational metaphor, SAD IS DOWN. The images of the "squirrel" and "frog" by student C vividly described the psychology of the patient's intentional avoidance of the external world. It will inspire the patient to recognize himself again.

6. Conclusions

6.1 Implications

In scenario writing, when the patient is illiterate or does not understand the doctor's treatment, it will be helpful for the doctor to communicate with the patient using metaphors. Kövecses (2007, p. 7) highlighted the importance of individual metaphors as follows: "It seems to me that psychotherapy and psychoanalysis are some of the richest areas for the creation of individual metaphors." Bleakley (2017, p. 118) claimed that metaphors can offer a powerful therapeutic possibility, especially at the level of the "extended metaphor." Metaphors offer specific therapeutic leads: one depressed patient may say, "I'm down in the dumps," whereas another might say, "I can't see a way out," and a third may say, "My head's in a vice." These metaphors invite differing therapeutic responses.

Regarding metaphor categories, ontological metaphors are the most commonly used ones. Anxiety can be metaphorized as "hedgehog", "deserter", "bad-tempered kid", and "frog". Structural metaphors are also frequently used. When talking about how to overcome one's anxiety, student A proposed the metaphorical expression, MAKING FRIENDS IS LIKE CLIMBING MOUNTAINS. She also used the metaphorical expression, FIGHTING WITH ANXIETY IS LIKE SITTING ON A SEESAW, to encourage the patient to be braver. An orientational metaphor, SAD IS DOWN, was used in student B's writing. This is a common metaphor to describe a person's feeling in terms of spatial orientation. As Casseret et al. (2017) stated, metaphors may

offer a valuable supplemental strategy that physicians can use to enhance communication (pp. 255-260). Through this approach, doctors can use metaphors to reduce patients' anxiety, improve patients' psychological state, and adjust their own behaviors to achieve the therapeutic purpose.

6.2 Limitations

First, there was a time constraint in applying metaphors to college EFL instruction. The teacher could not use all the supplementary materials they had prepared. Second, as a cognitive approach, metaphor includes history, geography, social systems, lifestyles, values, beliefs, and philosophies. This puts us in a position where we still need to work hard to determine how to teach metaphor more systematically and emphatically in the future.

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Challenges for Methodological Designs and Proposed Alternative Instruction for Teaching English Grammar to Thai Deaf and Hard-of-Hearing Students

Natdanai Subin[1] & Aphiwit Liang-Itsara[1]

[1] Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand

Correspondence: Aphiwit Liang-Itsara, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, 999 Phuttamonthon Sai 4 Road, Salaya, Phuttamonthon, Nakhon Pathom, 73170, Thailand.

Abstract

Grammar is a foundation of language, as all languages consist of rules and usage. Learning English grammar is challenging for Thai EFL learners because of the contrastive grammatical features between Thai and English. Learning English grammar is even more difficult for Thai deaf and hard-of-hearing students since they have limited tools and cues for acquiring English grammar. This paper discusses possible challenges in teaching English grammar to deaf and hard-of-hearing students and reviews some teaching methodologies that might be effective for deaf and hard-of-hearing Thai EFL students. The authors also introduce the WebQuest instruction as a promising alternative instruction of English grammar for this group of students.

Keywords: English grammar, EFL, deaf students, WebQuest

1. Introduction

Grammar is one of the most prominent aspects of languages, serving as a foundation of the language. All languages consist of unique grammatical rules and usage. Therefore, learning about grammar is about how the language functions and how language learners can apply rules in actual uses. Teaching grammar to students is complicated but teaching it to deaf and hard-of-hearing students is much more challenging. This article aims to 1) explore some challenges in teaching English grammar to deaf and hard-of-hearing students, 2) review some teaching methodologies and their effectiveness in teaching English grammar to deaf and hard-of-hearing students, and 3) propose an alternative English grammar instruction to deaf and hard-of-hearing students in Thailand. This review article could be a reference for further instructional development in language education for the deaf in Thailand.

2. Definitions of Grammatical Competence

Definitions and scopes of grammatical competence vary among linguistics under different paradigms. Linguists under the innatism umbrella, such as Chomsky (1959, as cited in Harmer, 2015), view grammatical competence as innate linguistic ability, which is biologically programmed and known as Universal Grammar (UG). Chomsky believes it is innately equipped with some sort of Language Learning Device (LAD), facilitating the acquisition of a first language (L1). Grammatical competence can be manifested through observable actions (grammatical performance). Errors made by language users indicate problems in their grammatical competence. Therefore, grammatical performance reflects how competent language learners are.

In contrast to Chomsky's ideology in innatism, communication-oriented linguists such as Canale and Swain (1980) consider grammatical competence as an element of communicative competence. According to Canale and Swain's (1980) communicative competence framework, there are three distinct aspects accountable for communicative achievement: 1) grammatical competence (knowledge about vocabulary, morphemes, syntax, semantics, and phonology); 2) sociolinguistic competence (ability to use language in social interaction); and 3) strategic competence (applications of communicative strategies to successfully convey and receive messages). Later, Canale (1983) included discourse competence (skills for creating coherent/cohesive language for different situations). In conclusion, they believe that grammatical competence is the foundation of overall communication.

Alternatively, Larsen-Freeman (2003) proposed the Three-Dimensional Grammar Model concept, stating that grammatical competence lies in the knowledge of grammatical form, meaning, and use. First, grammar form refers to phonological and morphosyntactic features. Second, grammar meaning indicates semantic competence. Lastly, grammar use reflects learners' pragmatic and discourse competences. These three aspects of grammatical competence interrelate with each other, creating a complex language system. This model is based on a Complexity Theory where social interactions and language uses in different situations are essential for language learners' development. It could be concluded that this definition of grammatical competence greatly refers to the complexity of language and discourse diversity.

3. Significance of Grammar

Learning and *acquiring* grammatical competence are theoretically different. According to the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis proposed by Stephen Krashen (1982, as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 106), *acquiring* refers to the unconscious, spontaneous, and natural processes of profound understanding of language. It might be closely related to how one naturally learns their first language (L1). On the other hand, *learning* language requires conscious efforts about rules of language (grammar) through explicit means of instruction. Learning is particularly required for those who learn a second language (L2), which consists of different rules and uses from their L1. Learning about grammatical rules and uses are key determinants of communicative competence. Regarding the language background of learners, those whose English is not a native language need to develop their grammatical knowledge to some extent to achieve a certain level of communication achievement.

Grammatical competence is one of 4 competences that determine an overall achievement in communication (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). It also facilitates L2 learners in complex, diverse, and meaningful social engagement (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). However, many deaf and hard-of-hearing students have difficulties learning the grammar of L2 or a foreign language (FL). For example, Subin & Chanyoo (2018) assessed the grammatical competence of 5 Thai deaf undergraduates (derivational morphemes, inflectional morphemes, and a combination between affixes and roots). The mean scores show that 4 participants failed in all types of grammatical morphemes. Subsequently, Subin, Lertsukprasert, & Chanyoo (2022) investigated 9 English grammatical morpheme acquisition by Thai deaf university students. Based on mean scores from the fill-in-the-blank grammar test, the results show significantly low grammatical morpheme accuracy among participants. Inflectional morphemes such as irregular past tense, a copula (*be*), and possessive (*-'s*) are among the lowest-scored morphemes.

4. Common Challenges in Teaching English Grammar for Deaf Students

Being *deaf* and *hard-of-hearing* are different conditions under the category of hearing loss. According to World Health Organization (1980, as cited in Olusanya et al., 2019), there are four major degrees of hearing loss, excluding normal hearing: 1) slight hearing impairment (26-40 dB); 2) moderate hearing impairment (41-60 dB); 3) severe hearing impairment (61-80 dB); and 4) profound hearing impairment, including deafness (81 dB or greater). Different degrees of hearing loss require different treatments. In deaf education, one language classroom comprises language learners with different severity of hearing impairment. In this article, the term *deaf* will be collectively used to represent students with degrees of hearing loss.

Identifying the causes of issues in teaching and learning English grammar is relatively complicated since many factors are interplaying. When one issue arises, others tend to accompany it. Language differences and negative language transfer might be causes of grammatical difficulties among EFL deaf students. Dotter (2008) offered some insights on language transfer between sign languages and spoken/written languages. Degrees of hearing loss affect how deaf students transfer their L1 background to L2. Those who experience some auditory inputs can linguistically use their L1 as a reference to the target language. As a result, language learners with moderate hearing impairment are likely to comprehend grammatical rules and uses in spoken/written language better than those who are profoundly deaf. Dotter also pointed out that spoken and written languages have different characteristics, such as formality, grammatical use, and forms of utterances. These differences might be a difficult concept of language transfer for deaf students who must learn L2 (or a foreign language) in spoken/written languages through mere reading. In addition to language differences, Dotter also stated that teachers of English paid little attention to grammatical structures. They mainly focused on translating and defining grammar points and example sentences. Their teaching methodologies of the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) are repetitive and outdated.

Alternatively, teaching and learning English grammar might be difficult due to the competence of teachers and students. Adi et al. (2017) suggested eight interesting findings from Indonesian special schools regarding

difficulties in English lessons as follows: 1) teachers' lack of material adaptation, 2) teachers' incapability to find appropriate materials, 3) students' mistakes in interpreting lip movement of teachers 4) Students' lack of attention and motivation to learn English 5) students' limitation in vocabulary repertoire 6) students' lack of background knowledge in subject matters 7) students' difficulties in distinguishing vocabularies, and 8) students' needs for teachers to repeat the content. These hindering factors are mostly a result of internal issues such as teaching skills, being unmotivated to learn a language, and a lack of background knowledge.

In addition to language transfer and competence issues, deaf students generally perceive themselves as a group of people with unique language systems and distinctive cultures from those of 'normal hearing people' (De Meulder & Murray, 2017). This strong sense of identity is important as it helps deaf people join the community. To be functional members of a community, ones must have a trustful sense of belongingness to that community. However, having too strong a perception of one own first language might hinder L2 learning attitudes. When one is already satisfied with the current stage of being, minimal efforts to change or adapt to a new language (and culture) might result. This self-made psychological hindrance might explain a cause of low-motivated L2 and FL deaf students. In their perspective, sign language is somewhat *superior* to a new language. They might question the necessity of learning English, for example, since it does not belong to their community. This thought might compel language learners in a unique community to be more excluded from other groups, resulting in difficulties in learning languages outside their community language.

5. Common Grammar Teaching Methods

Terms *approach*, *method*, *procedure*, and *technique,* are often confusing. Many people use these terms interchangeably. They might seem identical, but they are technically different. *Approach* refers to a theoretical foundation or concept of language teaching and learning, and it suggests how language teachers should model their teaching and how students learn the language. *The method* describes how teachers could practically develop language instruction based on each approach. A method consists of sequential *procedures* and perhaps multiple teaching *techniques* (Harmer, 2015). In conclusion, an *approach* refers to a theory and concept of language teaching. In contrast, a teaching *method* of *procedures* and *techniques* regards organization and instructional management by an individual approach.

Education is rather a complex system. Different approaches and methods are employed differently in different circumstances. There is no fit-for-all teaching method that is effective for all situations. As a result, teaching is an eclectic method, varying across a particular context. There are multiple and interrelating methods for teaching grammar. The traditional teaching approach may include *Grammar Translation Method (GTM)* as its essence. Those who believe in the structuralism approach may prefer *Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)* to teach grammar. Teachers who value communication and the practicality of grammar and language may be inclined toward the *Task-based Method (TBM)*. Each method has a unique history, advantages, and drawbacks. Further discussion about GTM, ALM, and TBM will be presented in this section.

5.1 Grammar Translation Method (GTM): Explicit Translation is a Key

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) relies on a concept of the traditional teaching approach of translation from L1 to L2 and vice versa. The method originated in the early 16th century when the Latin and Greek literature appreciation period flourished. It focuses on literature interpretation and translation through reading and writing. Translation and language rules (grammar) are valued as language achievement (Chastain, 1988, as cited in Fazal et al., 2016). Major components in GTM include 1) prevalent use of students' L1, 2) explicit grammar rules teaching, 3) focus on grammar analysis and memorization, 4) disregard in teaching pronunciation, 5) explicit vocabulary teaching, 6) focus on the accuracy of grammar rules 7) students' translation skills, and 8) uses of translation-based drills. These pedagogical features are direct and simple, allowing GTM to be one of the most frequently used grammar teaching methods.

Due to the explicitness of GTM, it is globally used in many English language classes, especially in contexts where English is a foreign language (EFL), such as Thailand and Vietnam (Tieocharoen & Rimkeeratikul, 2019), China (Kong, 2011), and Indonesia (Milawati, 2019). Since GTM is mainly based on the translation of L1 to L2 (and vice versa), it shows distinctive benefits over other types of teaching methods on accuracy of grammatical rules, an instant understanding of translated meanings, and a noticeable improvement in reading and writing skills through extensive use of texts. GTM benefits all students in all contexts as the teaching is conducted mainly in their L1, the use of L2 is minimal, and teachers constantly provide dictionary meanings and examples. As a result, GTM could benefit Thai EFL learners in grammar classrooms as the method is very explicit, accuracy-oriented, and based on students' L1 and background knowledge.

Although GTM offers some novelties in teaching English grammar explicitly through L1-L2 translation, its practical effectiveness in English L2 or EFL contexts (including Thailand) is criticized by many educators. For linguists who believe in complex relationships between grammatical form, meaning, and use, such as Larsen-Freeman (2003) and Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011, as cited in Fazal et al., 2016), GTM is not an ideal teaching method as it excessively highlights 1) grammatical forms and meaning 2) reading and writing skills, and 3) accuracy of grammar. In their view, grammar is not just remembering a set of rules. Rather, users must understand grammatical meanings and use them properly in different discourses. Kong (2011) and Milawati (2019) similarly criticized GTM as it is too teacher-centered with little teacher-student meaningful interactions in L2. It limits students' learning strategies and creativity in language exploration. Teachers always correct students' errors during translation, discouraging them from exercising their newly learned grammar. It also limits the roles of speaking and listening development as the main sources of teaching/learning are written literature.

5.2 Audio Lingual Method (ALM): Habit Formation and Drills

In addition to the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), many language teachers believe that desirable habit formation could lead to achievement in target-language communication (Harmer, 2015). This method is known as Audio Lingual Method (ALM). It was first introduced to language classrooms in the 1920s. The original goal of ALM was for military use when the American military had to deploy in other countries. This scope of belief could be influenced by behaviorism through stimulus-response reinforcement and repetition, aiming to teach a new language to students through peat-after-me methods. Phrases or sentences in the target language are prepared for students in a particular situation. One can imagine this kind of language teaching as a translation guidebook for foreigners. Phases in different situations (such as in greeting and hotel reservations) are taught deliberately. Teachers can correct students' utterance errors through positive reinforcement and habit formation techniques. According to Lado (1975, as cited in Lennon, 2008), errors are byproducts of differences between elements in L1 and L2; hence the concept of *Contrastive Analysis (CA)* was introduced to linguistics. The main concept of CA lies in the belief that language learners learn a new language easily if the new language shares many common characteristics with their L1. If characteristics of L1 and L2 can be identified, language teachers could form oral situation teaching methods based on finite sets of phrases or sentences.

There are benefits of using ALM in language teaching. Students' accuracy of utterances is secure, and teachers prepare grammatically correct phrases for students and ask them to repeat them until they are said correctly. This could benefit students' pronunciation development as students' production of utterances is carefully monitored. A case of Thai students in Songkhla, after receiving ALM through repetition drill technique, shows significant pronunciation improvement as their pronunciation became more intelligible and their confidence in speaking English increased (Hidayati, 2016). Another example from Kunnu (2017) in the Thai context is that 14 Thai students in Hotel and Lodging Business Management program could speak English more fluently and confidently with "adapted ALM" (integration of GTM and ALM). In summary, using ALM aids students' pronunciation skills, resulting in confidence and motivation to practice oral communication.

Although ALM is a convenient teaching tool specifically for oral communication, the authenticity of communication and teacher-student meaningful interaction are in question. Larsen-Freeman (2000) commented that the role of students in ALM is very little- just repeating what was said by teachers. Such repetition does not reflect a target language's true, meaningful, and interactive communication skills. Students must repeat in highly controlled dialogues, resulting in little improvement of total communicative competence. In addition to unauthentic situations, grammatical form and meaning are often ignored. ALM focuses on accurate oral production, not how words and sentences are formed. This lack of form-focus is the opposite of a notion of GTM. As a result, ALM only develops speaking and listening skills (particularly pronunciation). Reading and teachers often neglect writing skills. Lastly, Larsen-Freeman does not believe in ALM because it requires somewhat only repetition and memorization. These low cognitive abilities do not encourage language development in the long run. ALM's pitfalls might explain why it is not as widely used as GTM in Thailand.

Some other teaching methods are recommended in the case of Thai deaf students who study English as a foreign language. GTM looks promising in teaching English grammar, but its limitation in actual use and overall communicative competence is questionable. There is no conclusive study on what causes low grammatical proficiency among Thai deaf students, but GTM might be accountable for it. When grammar is learned, it must be used to communicate in the target language (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; 2003). Since most English teachers in Thailand rely on GTM, including teachers for deaf students, it might be inferred that this teaching method could be responsible for grammatical competence problems among Thai deaf students.

On the other hand, ALM is also another teaching method used in Thailand. It could benefit students' pronunciation and confidence in speaking. However, it does not truly address students' reading and writing skills, the two main language skills available for deaf students. In other words, ALM might work for hearing students who can communicate orally but not for deaf students who cannot speak. An alternative teaching technique, WebQuest, is therefore presented in order to maximize the English grammatical competence of Thai deaf students through interactive technology-based instruction.

6. WebQuest: Proposed Teaching English Grammar to Deaf Students in Thailand

WebQuest is a technology-based instruction model introduced by Professor Bernie Dodge from San Diego State University in 1995. It is an interactive teaching model which allows teachers to interact with their students through meaningful content learning. WebQuest can also be regarded as a project-based learning, according to constructivist perspective (Chen, 2019). Contents from any subject can be integrated into WebQuest. The use of WebQuest is, therefore, versatile. There are many websites that teachers use to prepare their teaching for free. Depending on the variation of subject contents and instructional designs, teachers can adaptively use this model to facilitate their teaching. There are two subtypes of WebQuest: short-term WebQuest and long-term WebQuest. The former type ranges from 1-3 classes, aiming to foster specific content and skills, while long-term WebQuest may take up to one month (Kaur and Kauts, 2018, as cited in Srisinthon, 2021). Regardless of WebQuest duration, there are five major steps in WebQuest development (Manning & Carpenter, 2008):

6.1 WebQuest Introduction

Appropriate teaching materials and instructions must be prepared before class based on students' competence, needs, and differences. This stage aims to gain students' attention and direct students to the lesson. Teachers introduce objectives, procedures, and an overview of lessons to students. In addition, teachers could introduce some background of the lesson to students, creating an engaging atmosphere in class. It could be a storytelling activity, question-response activity, or simply showing some interesting clips to students.

6.2 WebQuest Task

Teachers must design tasks that are achievable, authentic, and interactive. Students should work in a group to ensure collaboration among students. Students help each other plan how to complete assigned tasks - such as giving a presentation about a topic to class or creating a group roleplay. Tasks may vary by objectives, students, and teachers.

6.3 WebQuest Process

In this step, students search for website information by themselves for task completion. Teachers can select websites with interesting themes or authentic materials, enhancing the real-life knowledge of students. Other websites from students' selection are also allowed if teachers consider them relevant and useful. This step allows students to develop their digital literacy skills and technological competence. Guidance from teachers is provided when needed.

6.4 WebQuest Evaluation

Rubrics are given to students to evaluate their websites and progress. Criteria in rubrics may vary depending on class objectives. Teachers also use rubrics to assess students' performance. This stage allows students to self-reflect and the teacher to see students' progress. If students struggle, then teachers can assist accordingly.

6.5 WebQuest Conclusion

When all students complete the tasks, they must present their activity conclusion to teachers (or classmates). Students and teachers help determine whether the class objectives and tasks are fully completed. All comments and suggestions are encouraged, and course contents are summarized in this stage.

6.6 Potential Benefits of Using WebQuest

6.6.1 Enhancement of Metacognitive Strategies

Kuimova et al. (2015) valued WebQuest as one of the best resources for learners to acquire linguistic and extra-linguistic knowledge (p. 167). According to Oxford (1990), there are two main learning strategies: direct and indirect. Direct learning strategies consist of 1) memory strategies, 2) cognitive strategies, and 3) compensation strategies. Indirect learning strategies include 1) metacognitive strategies, 2) social strategies, and 3) effective strategies. Indirect strategies imply an inductive learning approach where language learners require higher critical thinking skills, self-reflection, interaction with others, and emotional control. Through the five stages of WebQuest, students could exercise their indirect learning strategies. It does not mean direct strategies

are inferior to indirect strategies. Rather, Oxford suggested that language teachers promote the use of various learning strategies in order to prepare their students for future use. March (2003) agreed that WebQuest is a scaffolding teaching method that encourages students to be active learners and critical thinkers. The nature of WebQuest allows students to be more critical through a variety of assignments and tasks. Students must apply what they learn from websites and manage plans to complete tasks. Likewise, Álvarez Ayure et al. (2018) introduced a WebQuest English vocabulary instruction to eight-graded Columbian students to evaluate its effect on their vocabulary learning and metacognitive strategies. Using of WebQuest to teach vocabulary for deaf learners was also proven effective with Turkish students (Birinci & Saricoban, 2021). The results show high students' vocabulary performance, employment of metacognitive strategies, and development of learners' autonomy.

6.6.2 Digital Literacy Skills

According to the Basic Education Core Curriculum of Thailand (Ministry of Education, 2008, pp. 1-11), technological skills are explicitly enlisted as one of five desirable qualities of Thai students in 8 learning areas in addition to communicative competencies, thinking skills, problem-solving skills, and real-life application. Employing WebQuest in grammar classrooms encourages students to develop technical mastery as one of the most required soft skills for the 21st century (technological application). Students (and teachers) can engage in technology-based instructions in meaningful, communicative manners, enabling all stakeholders to enhance digital literacy skills. All other mentioned features of successful students could be achieved through WebQuest instruction. It allows teachers and students to interact in meaningful and communicative fashions (communicative competence) through observable and assessable tasks (problem-solving skills). It also requires students to utilize their knowledge and apply it in real-life contexts (thinking and real-life application skills).

6.6.3 Review Cases of WebQuest in the Thai Context

The concept of WebQuest is relatively new in Thailand. There are not many studies regarding the use and effectiveness of WebQuest. Despite the limited number of reported applications, WebQuest is a powerful teaching tool for language development in Thai contexts. Srisithon (2021) investigated the effectiveness of WebQuest in teaching Chinese to Thai university students. She found that students who were taught through WebQuest instruction had an improvement in Chinese language proficiency. According to Saekhow & Kittisunthonphisarn (2015), WebQuest also positively affects Communicative English Lessons (significantly higher mean scores on post-test than on pretest). Likewise, WebQuest effectively enhances Thai college students' vocabulary and oral proficiency (Prapinwong, 2008). However, the use of WebQuest is yet popularized among Thai students with disabilities. Only one study was found by Kaewchote & Chongchaikit (2012) on Thai-language oral and reading skills with Thai Down Syndrome elementary students. The study suggested positive outcomes for the participants' Thai-language reading and pronunciation skills after participating in WebQuest classrooms. Surprisingly, as mentioned above, participants from these studies reported positive attitudes and satisfaction toward WebQuest instruction. This could imply promising effects for Thai deaf students' language development and attitudes towards English grammar and technology-based classrooms.

In conclusion, there is no record of WebQuest-based English lessons for Thai deaf students. Reasons might be because WebQuest is a new concept to Thai society, or teachers are unaware of its existence. This review article could perhaps be a pedagogical breakthrough in English education reformation for the deaf in Thailand. It is believed that WebQuest would benefit Thai deaf students regarding English grammatical competence, employment of metacognitive strategies, and autonomy. More studies and tryouts of WebQuest in English language lessons for deaf students are highly suggested.

7. Conclusion

This paper reviews possible challenges in teaching English grammar to Thai EFL deaf and hard-of-hearing students. It summarizes some teaching methodologies currently adopted by EFL students, including this specific group of learners. However, the current methodologies have their advantages and drawback. The authors propose a technology-based WebQuest as a good instruction to provide grammar learning to deaf and hard-to-hearing students in Thailand. This instruction also promotes students' digital literacy as it becomes one of the literacy skills the learners must possess in the 21st Century education.

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Relationship Between Language Anxiety and English Speaking Performance

I-Ju Chen[1], Kai-Ru Cheng[1] & Chieh-Hsiang Chuang[1]

[1] Department of Applied Foreign Languages, Ling Tung University, Taichung, Taiwan

Correspondence: I-Ju Chen, Department of Applied Foreing Languages, Ling Tung University, Taichung, 408, Taiwan.

Abstract

This study investigated the relationship between language language anxiety and English speaking performance among Taiwanese college students. The participants were 59 students attending a one-semester course entitled English Speaking Communication at a university in central Taiwan. They underwent computer-based oral proficiency tests and completed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and Pearson product-moment correlation. The English majors experienced moderate levels of anxiety when taking the computer-based speaking test, and a negative but nonsignificant correlation was discovered between foreign language anxiety and speaking performance on the computer-based exam. Pedagogical suggestions for second-language educators are presented herein.

Keywords: language language anxiety, English speaking performance, negative correlation

1. Introduction

Speaking is one of four language skills, along with listening, reading, and writing. However, various researchers have proposed that speaking skills are more difficult to master than the other language skills. Speaking occurs in real time, meaning that the person you are talking to is waiting for you to speak right away (Bailey, 2005). Moreover, compared with writing, which can be revised or edited, speaking is more spontaneous. discovered that most learners aspire to speak fluently. Using assignments that require students to attempt real communication to develop their speaking ability, even when their English skills are limited (Hermaniar, 2021).

Speaking is a vital skill because it not only connects people speaking the same language but also helps them to express their thoughts, ideas, feelings, and emotions. Moreover, people who are illiterate deliver and transfer their ideas mainly through speech. The scope of speaking extends from simple conversation to formal public speaking (Salem & Dyiar, 2014), while other researcher argued that speaking is a fundamental skill essential for success in life (El-Basel, 2008).

However, as speaking performance has gained much importance in L2 pedagoy, learners usually felt anxious when they needed to produce language and get involve in interpersonal communication. This anxiety may lead fear of speaking. Therefor, such fear may affect learners' speaking performance (Rofida, 2021).

1.1 Foreign Language Anxiety

Foreign language anxiety (FLA) is prevalent among learners of English as a foreign language. Students who report feeling anxious, afraid, or worried when considering the prospect of using the target language may have FLA. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986) defined language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128). Specifically, Horwitz et al. (1986) indicated that FLA may also include communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. FLA originates in second-language contexts, such as speaking, listening, and learning, and provokes tension and apprehension (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). Although FLA is considered a stand-alone emotion, it is conceptually related to such emotion as test anxiety (Horwitz, 2017). It is also found that a number of studies looked at the relationship between FLA and language achievement with the FLCAS and different testing materials (see Horwitz, 2001).

Anxiety can affect academic performance. The impact of anxiety on learning can be positive or negative. An example of a positive effect is increased motivation to learn and perform tasks; negative effects can include

undesirable academic outcomes. The American College Health Association reported that more than 23% of college students believe that anxiety affects their academic achievement. Anxiety and performance are negatively correlated, and poor performance may lead to further anxiety and to a vicious cycle of decreasing performance (Susanti, Nabilah, & Irasanti, 2018).

Anxiety among learners of English as a foreign language has drawn the attention of numerous researchers in psychology and education. However, no consensus definition of anxiety has been reached. The current study considered anxiety to be a feeling of uneasiness, frustration, uncertainty, or worry (Brown, 1994; Cakici, 2016).

1.2 Speaking and Anxiety

Learners' proficiency and performance are factors related to FLA (Habisbuan & Irzawati, 2019). FLA hinders students' speaking performance and is a debilitative factor in language learning (Pamungkas, 2018). FLA is especially problematic for oral communication (Amini, Elfrida, & Kasmaini, 2019). Horwitz et al. (1986) identified speaking as one of the main sources of anxiety, which manifests as the fear of making mistakes and the avoidance of communication in testing contexts. Similar findings have been reported of anxious students in language learning contexts. A high level of FLA engenders communication apprehension, which can make learners unwilling to communicate (Hasibuan and Irzawati, 2019).

Both low-proficiency and high-proficiency learners are susceptible to anxiety. A study using the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) discovered a moderate negative correlation between FLCAS scores and second-language achievement, implying that, when students start feeling anxious, they tend to avoid learning the target language (Hasibuan & Irzawati, 2019).

Although most researchers support the view that language anxiety in speaking classes may negatively influence language acquisition, others believe that anxiety can increase learners' ability to master a foreign language (Julianingsih, 2018) and their motivation to perform well in the language learning process (Pamungkas, 2018). The relationship between anxiety and performance remains debated. In review of the literature, it was found that there seems to be little exploring FLA in the context of technology-assisted language learning. Considering this attempt, the correlation between FLA and language performance in the online-based speaking test was an important issue that needs to be further explored. This study investigated this relationship during a computer-based oral exam by attempting to answer the following research questions: a) What are students' anxiety levels when taking the computer-based oral exam? b) Are foreign language speaking ability and oral exam anxiety related?

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The participants of the present study were 59 seniors majoring in English who were enrolled in a one-semester course entitled English Communication Skills at a university in central Taiwan. Majoring in applied foreign languages, the participants (44 female students and 15 male students) had studied English for more than 12 years. All participants needed to take this course for two hours every week, giving a total of 36 hours. The participants' English proficiency level ranged from A1 to B2 levels according to the Common European Framework. In particular, four participants got A1 level; 22 participants obtained A2 level; 31 particiapnts reached to B1 level; two of the all got B2 level.

2.2 Instruments

The FLCAS was used as the main instrument in this study. It is a self-report questionnaire designed to measure learners' anxiety in the foreign language classroom and comprises 33 items scored on a 5-point Likert scale, with items rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Horwitz (1986) measured the reliability of the FLCAS, revealing high internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = .93) and high test–retest reliability of .83 (p = .001). To prevent any misunderstanding, the English version of the FLCAS translated into Chinese was used. In order to examine students' oral performance, an online-based mock Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) Bridge Speaking Exam was delivered. The mock speaking test was designed based on the items from the TOEIC Bridge speaking section, including eight questions grouped into six task types. The qustions and tasks include two questions for reading a short text aloud, two questions for describing a photograph, one question for listening and retelling, one question for short interaction, one question for telling a story, and one question for making and supporting a recommendation.

2.3 Procedure

The study was conducted at the university in central Taiwan. The English Communication Skills course aims to enhance students' oral competency by delivering knowledge, promoting oral skills, and having students practice those skills. All participants completed the FLCAS questionnaire and took a mock Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) Bridge Speaking Exam in the first week of the class. The Chinese version of FLCAS questionnaire was delivered to every student at the very beginning. After finishing all the questionnaire, the participants were asked to take a computer-based speaking mock exam in the lab in about 20 minutes. The researcher made sure every participant's microphone is positioned correctly and speak in the normal volume, and asked all participants to say as much as they can in the time allowed. After finishing this online speaking assessment, the students uploaded their audio files onto the computer-based speaking platform. Getting all the audio files of the speaking test, two native English speakers assigned scores based on the criteria of the TOEIC Bridge Speaking Exam.

2.4 Data Analysis

To examine the relationship between speaking performance and language anxiety, the researcher used SPSS software to analyze the participants' speaking and FLCAS scores. The linearity of the relationship between oral performance and anxiety was determined using the Pearson product-moment correlation statistic.

3. Results and Discussion

The mean FLCAS score of all participants was 3.25 (SD = 0.71), indicating a moderate level of anxiety during the speaking test. The participants' mean oral score on the mock TOEIC exam was 77.19 (SD = 6.81), indicating a high-intermediate level of oral proficiency (Table 1). According to Horwitz (2008), a mean score of approximately 3 on the anxiety scale indicates that a student is slightly anxious, and a score of less than 3 indicates low anxiety (Horwitz, 2008). However, students with a mean score of 4 and above are considered to be very anxious (Pamungkas, 2018). The finding of a moderate level of anxiety (M=3.25, SD=0.71) during the speaking test indicates that most of the students seemed to be slightly anxious when performing speaking test. Such finding echoes the result of previous studies (Yao and Dong, 2019; Lui, 2006), which also reported that students have a moderate level of anxiety in speaking context.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

	Means	Std Deviation	N
Speaking performance	77.1864	6.81397	59
Speaking Anxiety	3.2459	.71358	59

As shown in Table 2, many participants (27/59, 45.76%) had moderate speaking anxiety, and some (20/59, 33.90%) had high speaking anxiety. Eight (13.56%) had low speaking anxiety, whereas only four (6.78%) had very high speaking anxiety. The results indicated that most of the participants reported moderate to high speaking anxiety when they take the speaking test. These findings corroborate those of previous studies (Yao & Dong, 2019; Martin & Valdivia, 2017). When Yao and Dong (2019) pointed out that English majors commonly experienced moderate anxiety in learning English, Martin and Valdivia (2017) stated that students reported higher levels of anxiety when doing oral tasks.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Speaking Anxiety Level

No.	Anxiety Level	Score Range	Total	Percentage
1	Very high	4.5-5 (4.61-4.88)	4	6.78%
2	High	3.5-4.4 (3.42-4.48)	20	33.90%
3	Moderate	2.5-3.4 (2.55-3.39)	27	45.76%
4	Low	1.5-2.4 (2-2.36)	8	13.56%
5	Very Low	1-1.5	0	0
Maximum Level		4.88		
Minimum Level		2		
Mean		3.25		
Standard Deviation				

Table 3 presents the participants' speaking performance. More than half of the students (55.93%) had a high-intermediate speaking proficiency level, and 18 (30.51%) had an intermediate level of speaking proficiency. Only four students (6.78%) had advanced speaking proficiency. Only two students (3.39%) displayed superior speaking performance, and the remaining two (3.39%) had an elementary level of speaking performance. It is shown that most of the participants had high-intermediate speaking proficiency level.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Speaking Performance

No.	Proficiency Level	Score Range	Total	Percentage
1	Superior	90-93	4	6.78%
2	Advanced	85-89	2	3.39%
3	High Intermediate	75-84	33	55.93%
4	Intermediate	65-74	18	30.51%
5	Elementary	<64	2	3.39%
Maximum Level		93		
Minimum Level		64		
Mean		77		

The Pearson product-moment correlation between speaking anxiety and speaking performance was negative (−.082), implying that higher speaking scores are associated with lower FLA and vice versa. Yet, this relationship was nonsignificant ($p > .05$; Table 4). Several studies have reported the same tendency regarding these two variables (Hasibuan & Irzawati, 2019; Huang, 2018; Liu, 2006; Rofida, 2021; Tien, 2018; Hasibuan & Izawati, 2019). However, when those studies showed that foreign language anxiety has significant negative correlation with speaking performance, the researcher in the present study only found negative correlation. As Hewitt and Stephenson (2012) indicated, the correlation between foreign language anxiety and speaking exam scores measured by FLCAS and TOEIC Bridge speaking test was negative, suggesting that students exhibiting higher levels of language anxiety performed more poorly on their oral exam than did their less anxious counterparts.

Table 4. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Between Speaking Performance and Speaking Anxiety

		Speaking Performance	Speaking Anxiety
Speaking performance	Pearson Correlation	1	-.082
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.537
	N	59	59
Speaking anxiety	Pearson Correlation	-.082	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.537	
	N	59	59

4. Conclusion

This study investigated the second-language speaking anxiety of students during computer-based oral exams and its relationship with oral performance. Many students taking the computer-based speaking exams had moderate speaking anxiety and high-intermediate speaking proficiency. In line with previous studies (Hasibuan & Irzawati, 2019; Huang, 2018; Liu, 2006; Pamungkas, 2018; Rofida, 2021; Tien, 2018), this study found a negative correlation between FLA and speaking performance, but this relationship was nonsignificant, implying that anxiety may influence students' speaking performance to some extent in certain contexts. Although the relationship between FLA and speaking performance in the present study was negative, the *p value* did not reach to a significant level. This result is different from most of the literature, motivating more researchers to conduct studies on relevant topics.

Pedagogically, there is an urgent need to alleviate students' level of anxiety in order to improve their oral performance. The findings highlighted the importance of providing speaking anxiety-coping strategies with learners in the L2 online testing context (Huang, 2018). Those anxiety-coping strategies may allow test-takers to perform better when they are taking the online speaking test. Also, speaking skills or strategies are suggested to be taught in oral training program before the tests.

Further research should investigate the relationship between FLA and oral performance in different computer learning situations. Furthermore, qualitative methods, such as open-ended questionnaires, interviews, and learning logs, may help to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between anxiety and speaking performance in foreign language learning.

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Maritime Students Meeting the Maritime Industry English Standards: An Analysis of Types of Sentences

Jameela Hanoon Umarlebbe[1,2], Sarimah Shamsudin[1] & Seriaznita Haji Mat Said[1]

[1] Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

[2] Division of Interdisciplinary Studies, Institute of Technology University of Moratuwa (ITUM), Homagama, Sri Lanka

Correspondence: Jameela Hanoon Umarlebbe, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

Abstract

A sentence is the highest unit of grammar. Thus, constructing error-free sentences in writing is one of the biggest challenges encounted by most non-native speakers, and even university students are not an exception to this reality. This study aims at investigating various types of sentences produced by tertiary-level maritime students in a Sri Lankan university. The study was based on a narrative writing activity in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) module. The students were provided forty-five minutes to produce the piece of writing as an in-class activity on a topic relevant to their field visit to a port. This is a descriptive study based on the analysis of a small corpus of essays written by twenty maritime students, and a structural analysis of sentences was employed to examine the students' writing. Different kinds of sentences and sentence errors were identified, and they were classified accordingly. The findings of the study revealed that the students favoured simple sentences over other sentence types. Approximately two-thirds of the sentences produced belonged to the simple sentence category. The compound-complex form was found to be the least utilized sentence type among the target group. The analysis of sentences was based on the elements of the clause structure explained in Quirk et al. (1985) and Oshima and Hough (2006). Interestingly, it was observed that there was no single common clause structural pattern used by the participants. Instead, they used subject-verb-object (SVO), subject-verb-complement (SVC) and subject-verb-adverbial (SVA) types very often when writing. Similarly, fragments and run-on sentences were recorded high among maritime learners' erroneous sentences in writing. The study findings have pedagogical implications for the teaching of English language grammar that subsumes essay writing in the EAP module.

Keywords: clause elements, EAP, ESP, Maritime English, sentence errors, sentence types

1. Introduction

A sentence is defined in different ways. Cambridge Dictionary (2022) defines it as a group of words, usually containing a verb, that expresses a thought, and Oshima and Hough define it as "a group of words that (a) contains at least one subject and one verb and (b) expresses a complete thought" (2007, p. 11). The latter mentions that every sentence is constructed from one or more clauses (Oshima and Hough, 2006).

Structurally, a sentence can be of simple, compound, complex or compound-complex types based on the clause/s in it. Whatever the structural type it may be, constructing error-free sentences in writing is a challenge to most non-native speakers. Though there are numerous studies on grammatical errors in English writing, such studies in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writings are limited. Previous error studies basically highlight the errors made by learners in word classes, word choice, mechanics of writing or word order in sentences (Gayo & Widodo, 2018; Jayasinghe, 2018; Nuruzzaman et al., 2018; Sermsook et al., 2017; Singh et al., 2017; Unar et al., 2017; Al-Shujairi & Tan, 2017; Fareed et al., 2016; Arachchi, 2016). However, research on types of sentence structures in EAP, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) or English as a Second Language (ESL) is rare.

The tree of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Hutchinson and Waters (1987) clearly demonstrates that ESP is a branch of ELT which in turn is branched to EAP such as Medicine, Engineering, Psychology and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) such as English for secretaries, technicians and teachers. Thus, Maritime English

is a typical example of EAP (in broader term, an ESP) with its unique and distinctive features. ESP generally assumes that learners possess some basic knowledge of the language systems (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Hence, it is not surprising if a majority of these learners attempt to produce a variety of sentences in their writing. However, the language used in the maritime field is mostly simple and straight forward.

By listing features of something which has structure, Burton-Roberts (2016) claims that language has structure. According to him, the following are the features of something that has *structure*:

(a) divisible into parts (its constituents),

(b) there are different categories of constituents,

(c) the constituents are arranged in a certain way,

(d) and each constituent has a specifiable function in the structure of the thing.

Structurally wrong sentences in writing may lead to ambiguity, and they eventually lead to misinterpretation and miscommunication between the writer and the reader (Eisa & Balal, 2015). Thus, it becomes necessary to identify the kinds of sentences that cause problem to learners, and the kinds of sentences they need most in their academic and occupational life.

Taking into consideration the gap in the previous studies on types of sentence structures and errors in ESL, ESP and EAP contexts, this study endeavours to examine the types of sentence structures, clause elements in sentence formation and types of sentence errors among twenty tertiary level maritime students in a Sri Lankan university.

1.1 Types of Sentences

Sentences can be classified based on their functions and structure. Functional categories of sentences are declarative, exclamatory, interrogative, and imperative. Structural types of sentences are categorized by some researchers as simple, compound and complex (Hipwell, 2018; Burton-Roberts, 2016; Downing, 2015; Quirk et al., 1985) while others add compound-complex as the fourth type (Charpentier-Jiménez, 2020; Telaumbanua et al., 2020; Demirezen, 2019; Sari et al., 2018; Andersen, 2014; Oshima & Hough 2006, 2007). Those researchers who categorize the sentence structure as three consider the fourth type of other researchers as another form of complex sentences.

According to Quirk et al. (1985), a sentence can either be simple or multiple. A sentence which consists of only one clause (one subject and one verb phrase) is called a simple sentence (Altenberg & Vago, 2010). A multiple sentence is either a compound or a complex category. A simple sentence consists of an independent clause whereas a multiple sentence has one or more clauses as its immediate constituents. When there are two or more independent (co-ordinate) clauses in a sentence, it is called a compound sentence, while an independent clause which has one or more dependent clauses as its immediate constituent is called a complex sentence. The following examples from Quirk et al. (1985) show the difference between a simple and a complex sentence:
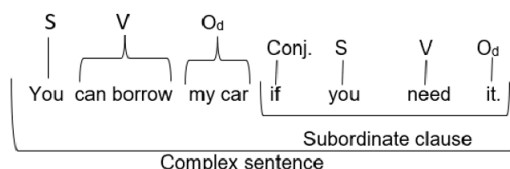
While "*You can borrow my car if you need it.*" is a complex sentence, "*You can borrow the car that belongs to my sister.*" is a simple sentence.
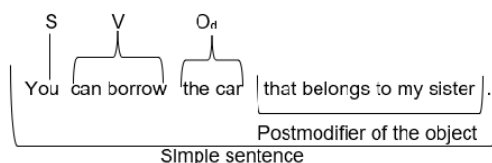
The clause *"that belongs to my sister"* is functioning in the given sentence as a post-modifier of the noun phrase (object) *"the car"*. In that case, the complexity is not at the level of the clause or sentence, but at the level of the phrase. Briefly, it can be said that, the term 'simple sentence' refers to an independent clause that does not contain another clause functioning as one of its elements.

1.1.1 Simple Sentences

In contrast to what most people think, Quirk et al. (1985) argue that a *simple sentence* does not necessarily need to be simple in a non-technical sense. In order to support their argument, they provide an example:

On the recommendation of the committee, the temporary chairman, who had previous experience of the medical issues concerned, made the decision that no further experiments on living animals should be conducted in circumstances that might lead to unfavourable press publicity (p. 720).

As mentioned previously, the complexity noted in the above simple sentence is at the level of its complex phrases. Therefore, the length is not a marker of the type of a sentence.

Oshima and Hough (2007) explain that a simple sentence has one subject-verb pair. While the subject informs who or what did something, the verb expresses the action (jump, work, think) or condition (is, was, seem). As claimed by these authors (Oshima and Hough, 2007), a simple sentence can have several possible 'formulas' as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Simple Sentence Formula

Simple sentence	Sentence formula
1. The Star Wars movies were international hits.	SV
2. Young people and adults enjoyed them.	SSV
3. The films entertained and thrilled audience everywhere.	SVV
4. Luke Skywalker and his friends battled evil and made us laugh at the same time.	SSVV

Note: Adapted from *Introduction to academic writing. Level 3* (3rd ed., p. 11) by A. Oshima and A. Hough, 2007, White Plans.

In Table 1, the subjects have been underlined with a single line, and the verbs with double lines. As suggested by Oshima and Hough (2007), a subject or verb may have one, two or more items; yet they are simple sentences as there is only one subject-verb pair. This definition of a simple sentence, and its formula (SV, SSV, SVV and SSVV) are also emphasised by many other researchers (Covey, 2012; Joshi, 2013; Barkley & Sandoval, 2014). When a subject or a verb has more than one item in them, these scholars refer to them as compound subject and compound verb in a simple sentence.

There are also simple sentences with extended phrasal modifiers, and these extensions can occur at various places of the sentence such as the beginning, in the middle and at the end (Demirezen, 2013). Many grammar books available in the market do not satisfactorily explain the structure of simple sentences. The following are examples of simple sentences with extended phrasal modifiers at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the sentence. Until the early 20th century, Istanbul was the capital of the large Ottoman Empire (Extension at the beginning). Sleeping Beauty, the main character in a fairy tale, is a princess living in a castle (Extension in middle). She turned away, hiding the fear in her eyes (Extension at the end). (Demirezen, 2013). The extensions can even be doubled, for example, During this period, called the Shogunate, the Emperor of Japan had no real governing power.

There is a disagreement with Alwi et al.'s view (2003, as cited in Analisti, 2016), and Oshima and Hogue's (2007) view regarding simple sentences. The former consider that a simple sentence can only have one SV pair while the latter say that it can also have SSV, SVV or SSVV.

1.1.2 Compound Sentences

Unlike a simple sentence, a compound sentence is made up of at least two simple sentences, and they are generally joined by a comma and a coordinating conjunction. The 'formula' of a common compound sentence is shown in the example below:
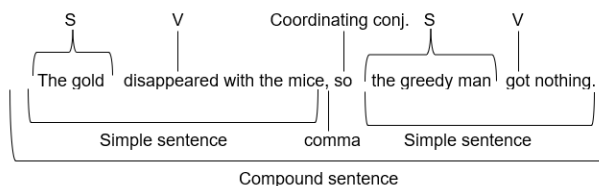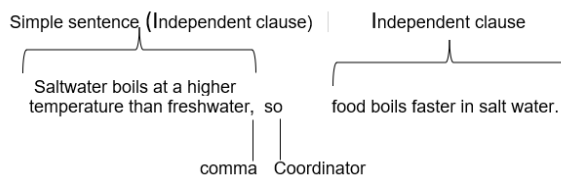

Oshima and Hough (2006) explain that there are three ways to join the clauses in a compound sentence:

(1) Using a coordinator

Independent clause + comma (,) + coordinator + independent clause.

Saltwater boils at a higher temperature than freshwater, so food cooks faster in salt water.

They mention that the coordinating conjunctions in English are seven, and these seven coordinators can easily be remembered by the phrase *FAN BOYS* (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so). They further note that a comma should be used in a compound sentence before the coordinating conjunction, but it is not used to join two words or phrases in a simple sentence.

For example:

Yesterday we went shopping, but we didn't buy anything (a comma in a compound sentence). *Yesterday we went shopping but didn't buy anything* (no comma in a simple sentence) (Oshima & Hough, 2006; 2007). The seven coordinating conjunctions and an example sentence for each conjunction is given in Table 2.

Table 2. Coordinating Conjunctions

	Coordinating conjunction	Example
1.	'*and*' joins sentences that are alike	He dropped a rice ball**, and** it rolled into a hole in the ground.
2.	'*but*' joins sentences that are opposite or show contrast	They were happy**, but** they were poor.
3.	'*so*' joins sentences when the second sentence expresses the result of something described in the first sentence	The greedy man wanted all the mice's gold**, so** he pretended to be a cat.
4.	'*or*' joins sentences that give choices or alternatives	He could choose a big box**, or** he could choose a small one.
5.	'*yet*' is almost a synonym for *but*. Use *yet* when the second part of the sentence says something unexpected or surprising.	I was scared**, yet** I was also curious about the old lady.
6.	'*for*' has the same meaning as *because*, use *for* to introduce a reason or cause.	It is not easy to get there**, for** you have to hike down a long, hot rail.
7.	'*nor*' means not this and not that; use *nor* to join two negative sentences.	She didn't talk**, nor** did she move.

Note: Adapted from *Introduction to academic writing. Level 3* (3rd ed., p. 30 & 69) by A. Oshima and A. Hough (2007), White Plans.

(2) Using a conjunctive adverb / transition signal

Independent clause + semi colon (;) + conjunctive adverb/transition signal + comma (,) + independent clause.

Saltwater boils at a higher temperature than freshwater; therefore, food cooks faster in salt water.
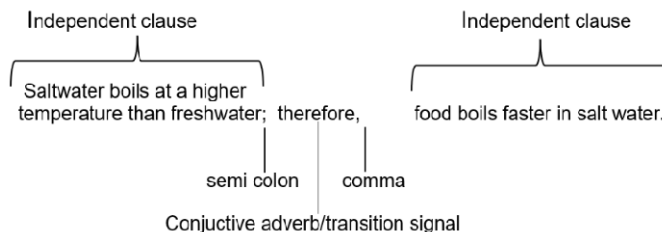
Conjunctive adverbs such as *also, besides, furthermore, in addition, moreover, however, still, nevertheless, nonetheless*, and transition signals, such as *on the other hand, as a result,* and *for example* can connect an independent sentence with another independent sentence using a semicolon and a comma in a compound sentence.

Examples:

- Community colleges offer preparation for many occupations; *also/ besides/ furthermore/ in addition/ moreover*, they prepare students to transfer to a four-year college or university.

- The cost of attending a community college is low; *however / nevertheless / nonetheless / still*, many students need financial aid.

- Native and non-native English speakers have different needs; *accordingly / as a result/ consequently / hence / therefore / thus*, most schools provide separate English classes for each group.

(Oshima and Hough, 2006)

As discussed above, the second means of constructing a compound sentence is with the use of a conjunctive adverb or a transition signal along with a semi colon and a comma.

(3) Using a semicolon

Independent clause + semi colon (;) + independent clause.

Saltwater boils at a higher temperature than freshwater; food cooks faster in salt water.

Thus, a third way to make a compound sentence is to use a semi colon in between the independent clauses. However, this type of compound sentence is possible only for sentences that are closely related in meaning. If they are not closely related, then they should be written as separate simple sentences.

Shown above are the three ways of making compound sentences as in Oshima and Hough (2006).

1.1.3 Complex Sentences

Unlike a compound sentence, a complex sentence contains one independent clause and one or more dependent clause(s). The independent clause will convey comparatively the more important idea than the idea expressed in the subordinate clause(s).

The dependent clauses in a complex sentence are of three kinds: adverb, adjective, and noun.

(1)   Complex sentences with adverb clauses

An adverb clause plays the role of an adverb, which means it tells when, where, how and why. Adverb clauses begin with subordinators, such as *although, if, when, while, so, because,* or *that.* An adverb clause can be placed before or after an independent clause.

The following is an example of a complex sentence with an adverb clause (dependent clause) first.


Complex sentence with an adverb clause (dependent clause first)
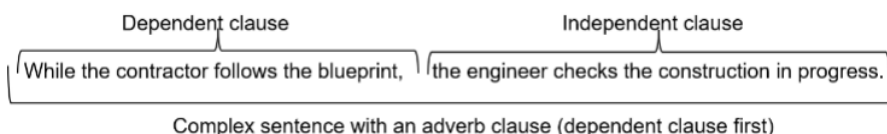
Next is an example of a complex sentence with an adverb clause (dependent clause) last.

Complex sentence with an adverb clause (independent clause first)
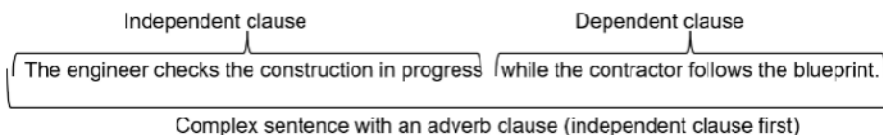
(2)   Complex sentences with adjective clauses

An adjective clause plays the role of an adjective describing a noun or a pronoun in a complex sentence. The adjective clause begins with a relative pronoun, such as *that, which, who, whom* or *whose,* or with a relative adverb, *when* or *where*. The adjective clause follows the noun or a pronoun it describes, for example:
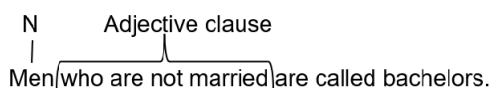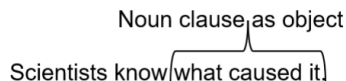
(3) Complex sentences with noun clauses

A noun clause does the work of a noun; that is, it can act as a subject or an object of the independent clause. A noun clause generally begins with a *wh-* question word; in addition, it can also begin with *whether, that,* and *if.* A noun phrase can function as a subject and an object in complex sentences. Oshima and Hough (2006) provide the following examples to illustrate its function within a sentence:

A noun clause as a subject of an independent sentence:

Noun clause as subject

That there is a hole in the ozone layer of Earth's atmosphere is well known.
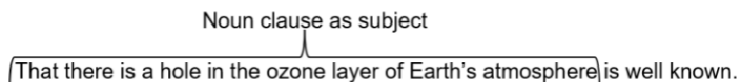
A noun clause as an object of an independent sentence:

Noun clause as object

Scientists know what caused it.

It was highlighted in Subekti (2017) that the most frequent complex sentences written in their study was of a multiple clause structure, which produced more erroneous sentences compared to the other types of complex sentences containing adverb clauses, noun clauses and adjective clauses. Subekti (2018) shows that there was no significant correlation between the number of complex sentences produced (without considering grammaticality), and L2 writing proficiency, but grammatically correct complex sentences had positive correlation with L2 writing proficiency.

1.1.4 Compound-Complex Sentences

As mentioned by Oshima and Hough (2006), a compound-complex sentence should have a combination of both dependent and independent clauses; at least two of them should be independent clauses. The examples below are provided by Oshima and Hough (2006) to demonstrate the compound-complex type of sentences, and the independent clauses are underlined with a singe line and the dependent clauses, with a dotted line:

1. I wanted to travel after I graduated from college; however, I had to go to work immediately.

2. After I graduated from college, I wanted to travel, but I had to go to work immediately.

3. I wanted to travel after I graduated from college, but I had to go to work immediately because I had to support my family.

4. I could not decide where I should work or what I should do, so at first I did nothing.

Punctuation also needs to be proper in compound-complex sentences like the other types. Any English sentence belongs to one of the above four types, and it is decided by the clause(s) in it.

Based on a study with Malaysian tertiary level learners, Singh et al. (2017) commented that construction of complex sentences was a common problem in students' essays. A recent study examined the sentence types used in BBC news articles, and the results of the study showed that the complex sentence was the most frequent (53%) among that four sentence types (Andriani & Bram, 2021).

1.2 Syntactic Functions of Clause Elements

Five functional categories of clause elements have been reported in Quirk et al. (1985), and three of these constituents were further subcategorized: 1. subject (S) 2. verb (V) 3. object (O) 3-I. direct object (O_d) 3-II. indirect object (O_i) 4. complement (C) 4-I. subject complement (C_s) 4-II. object complement (C_o) 5. adverbial (A) 5-I. subject-related (A_s) 5-II. Object-related (A_o).

Eliminating the optional adverbials, Quirk et al. (1985) demonstrated seven types of constituents in a declarative sentence: (1) SV (2) SVO (3) SVC (4) SVA (5) SVOO (6) SVOC (7) SVOA. Thus, the basic seven sentence (clause) types are based on the functional categories of the constituents. The complementation that follows the verb (O_d, O_i, C_s, C_a or A) is determined by the main (full) verb in the sentence. However, identifying the main verb with its class is not always easy as it appears. There are some verbs that belong to multiple classes, for instance, the verb *get* in the following examples:

SVO - He'll get a surprise

SVC - He's getting angry.

SVA - He got through the window.

SVOO - He got her a splendid present.

SVOC - He got his shoes and socks wet.

SVOA - He got himself into trouble.

Therefore, some versatile verbs like *get* is open to most types of complementation.

In addition, ambiguity can arise through multiple class membership. The sentences,

- I found her an entertaining partner.
- She called him her favourite waiter.

could be interpreted as types of sentences belonging to either SVOC or SVOO (Quirk et al., 1985).

Blake (1988) also has highlighted five clause elements though the names slightly differ from Quirk et al. (1985). He points out that these elements can be regrouped to create various sentence styles. In a declarative sentence, most of the time, the subject and the predicator are the elements that take the first and second positions respectively. The minimum elements in a sentence are subject and predicator, and elements followed by a clause are determined by the predicator, for instance: a transitive verb takes an object (e.g.: Deedat threw the ball), whereas a stative verb is followed by either a complement (e.g.: He is a cricketer) or an adjunct (e.g.: He is here).

Blake (1988) illustrates various types of clause arrangements in a declarative sentence by using the abbreviations S (subject), P (predicator), O (object), C (complement), and A (adjunct); Downing (2015) names the fives elements in the same way. Like Quirk et al. (1985), Blake (1988) mentions seven types of clause arrangements, but the only difference in the two is Blakes' *P* (predicate) instead of Quirk et al.'s *V* although they mean the same (SP, SPO, SPC, SPA, SPOO, SPOC, SPOA). Andriani and Bram (2021) highlighted five sentence patterns namely, SV, SVC, SVO, SVOC and SVOO, and SVO was found to be the most frequent (42%) sentence pattern used in the BBC news articles. This pattern was followed by SV, SVC, SVOC and SVOO respectively.

It should be noted that the above sequence of clause elements in both Quirk et al. (1985) and Blake (1988) represents the minimal structures of the arrangements for declarative sentences in English. Indeed, these basic structures can be expanded or elaborated by using optional elements to bring variety and novelty to the expressions. Furthermore, it should also be remembered that some writers purposefully deviate from the structure, which is neither a mistake nor an error, but for emphasis.

e.g.: Ten thousand saw I at a glance!

This deviation from the norm is accepted (and appreciated) in literary creations. The poet William Wordsworth uses this structure for emphasis in his poem, and such deviations are known as poetic licence.

The use of a variety of sentence patterns is an important aspect of writing. An instructor who is marking students' writing skills look for various types of sentences. It is also a criterion for scoring in IELTS writing. The same type of sentences is monotonous to the readers. In literature, the types of sentences are used for various effects.

1.3 Sentence Errors

Errors in sentence structures vary. Apart from common grammatical errors in writing, there are errors that are specific to sentence structures. Kooistra and Kooistra (2001) illustrate three kinds of errors.

As stated by Kooistra and Kooistra (2001), a fragment is an incomplete sentence. It is only a part of a sentence, and a key element in the sentence is missing in fragments. For example, *That man very famous in our area.* Another type of fragment is that a part of a sentence is used with a conjunction. The coordinate conjunctions like *and, but, or* and *so* usually combine two or more sentences to make them one. However, ESL and ESP learners use these conjunctions to write a new sentence which is an error. For example, *And Marco is going to the party.* The error in the example could be removed in two ways. One is that it can be made a part of an extended sentence (Franco and Marco are going to the party), but not a sentence on its own. The second way is that the conjunction *(and)* can be removed, so that it can stand alone as an independent clause *(Marco is going to the party).*

Another sentence error is known as stringy sentence or run-on. It is also known as a *fused sentence*. This kind of error also occurs often in non-native speakers' writing. Like a sentence fragment, a stringy sentence also confuses the reader. The sentence runs on and on without stopping at places where it needs to. The error is obvious in the following example:

This weekend I went camping and I was having fun at first but on Saturday night I saw a bear and I thought it looked hungry so I ran away and then I got lost in the woods but then my friend came and found me (Kooistra and Kooistra, 2001).

The long string above, can be broken into several sentences as follows:

This weekend I went camping. I was having fun at first. On Saturday night I saw a bear. I thought it looked hungry. I ran away. I got lost in the woods. Then my friend came and found me (Kooistra and Kooistra, 2001).

The issue with the above sentences is that they are too short and choppy. Thus, choppy sentences are another type of sentence errors. The above authors (Kooistra and Kooistra, 2001) provide the following as an acceptable kind of correction to the sample sentence:

This weekend I went camping. I was having fun at first, but on Saturday night I saw a bear. I thought it looked hungry, so I ran away. I got lost in the woods, but then my friend came and found me.

Comma splice is a kind of stringy sentence, and thus a type of sentence error. In this kind of error, two complete sentences are spliced together using a comma. For instance:

- *Jamal wants to major in accounting, it is his favourite subject.*

Kooistra and Kooistra (2001) point out that there are different ways to fix this error, and the most common ways are to use a period or a semi colon instead of a comma as shown below:

- *Jamal wants to major in accounting. It is his favourite subject.*

- *Jamal wants to major in accounting; it is his favourite subject.*

Furthermore, the correction can be done by using a conjunction such as *and* or *because*.

- *Jamal wants to major in accounting because it is his favourite subject.*

A study on grammatical errors in writing by Alghazo and Alshraideh (2020) also found structural errors amidst other errors in the writings of Jordanian university students. Similarly, Pouladian et al. (2017) studied errors in writing of adult Iranian EFL learners preparing for IELTS and found that 5% of the total errors were on sentence structure. Amiri and Puteh (2017) identified 13 kinds of errors, and they found 32.9% of them were sentence structure errors; however, their paper did not discuss the types of sentence errors.

The study findings of Utari (2019) on students' paragraph writing revealed that errors in paragraph writing were on grammar and sentence structure. 37% of the errors were on sentence structure, and stringy sentences and run-on sentences were 10% each while sentence fragments, and comma splice were 12% and 5% respectively.

Quibol-Catabay (2016) conducted a study on students' writing to examine the frequency and the types of sentence errors among thirty accounting technology students. They were asked to write the story after watching an audio-visual prompt of a popular story. The highest number of errors occurred in the structural category was sentence fragments (52%). Sentence fragment errors were also found in the study of Phukat and Othman (2015) with Thai university learners.

In a study conducted with teacher trainees in Ghana, Adjei (2015) found that there a was significant level of difficulty in using subordinate clauses. He concluded that a majority of the participants lacked linguistic understanding of subordination. A similar study in Indonesia with twenty-four Pre-service English teachers was conducted to identify their mastery of complex sentences. The findings showed that most sentence structures used by these teacher trainees were multiple clause structures; however, their mastery in the structure was very poor compared to other complex structures with adjective, adverb and noun clauses (Subekti, 2017).

While being the highest unit of grammar and also the basic structure of any long text, sentences constructed by most non-native learners of English suffer poor linguistic quality. Every learner, irrespective of the geographical, linguistic, socio-cultural, ethnic, age or gender differences, ideally strives to write error-free sentences, and every teacher wants his or her learner to do so, but practically many errors are made. Constructing sentences with proper clause elements seems to be a complicated task for many learners. Errors cannot be eradicated completely, but they can be minimized if proper measures are taken by relevant parties. Many content teachers and English language teachers in higher education criticize that a majority of the learners cannot even write a correct 'simple sentence'. Observation of the researcher as an experienced ESL and ESP teacher for several years also confirms this allegation. However, it should be noted that a simple sentence has its own complications, and it can be challenging to learners than it appears to be.

Considering maritime writing correspondence, the intention of the writer is to communicate effectively with the other party about what you want to convey and to respond clearly using simple expressions and effective

descriptions. Over the years, the maritime English writing has developed its own language system with the written requirements of clarity, courtesy, completeness, concreteness, consideration, conciseness, and correctness, known as the "7C principle" (Shen & Zhao, 2011).

A needs survey carried out with the cadets who were taking a Maritime English course in Indonesia showed that the learners consider grammar and vocabulary to be the most difficult aspects for them, and most of the cadets mentioned that they were expected to master oral skills followed by writing skills (Arini, 2010). The needs analysis study conducted by Aeni et al. (2018) with the cadets of a Maritime English class supported the findings of Arini (2010) in that the learners agreed that all four language skills were crucial for them but placed the productive skills as the highest priority for their study programme. Windiahsari and Wen-li (2020) highlight that Maritime English is not only the language at sea, but also helps in the industry for various roles.

With these in mind, the current study was guided by the following questions:

1) What are the types of sentence structures produced in maritime students' EAP writing?

2) What are the clause elements used in the most common sentence type produced by the maritime EAP learners?

3) What are the types of sentence errors made by the maritime EAP learners in writing?

The researchers believe that identifying the sentence structures and sentence errors of maritime learners in their writing will be beneficial for both teachers and learners to improve their writing and to cater to their language needs.

Standard Maritime Communication Phrases (SMCP) recognized by the International Maritime Organization (IMO) comprises utterances which are accepted as the language at sea for communication (Saunders, 2020). These utterances and sentences are short, and used specific terms and phrases (Menon, 2021). However, maritime industry is not limited to the sea alone. They also need to communicate with many stakeholders on land.

2. Methodology

2.1 Research Design

The present research employed analytical and descriptive methods in the study. A frequency count was also made to understand the intensity of the use of different sentence types and sentence errors in students' EAP writing.

2.2 Sampling

The study used a purposive sampling technique to collect data. Twenty freshmen in their first-semester maritime diploma programme at University of Moratuwa, Sri Lanka, were selected for the study, and this number was equally divided between nautical studies and marine engineering diploma programme. All cadets were male since no female student is accepted for the programme by the university. Ninety percent of the participants' first language was Sinhala while the other 10% was able to communicate in the same language. They were between 20-22 years old. All the participants had a minimum credit pass for English language at the General Certificate of Education (Ordinary Level), and this was one of the requirements to enrol in the maritime study programme. English is the participants' second language, and they had at least learnt it at school for ten years.

2.3 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

The data source were narrative essays written by cadets as an in-class activity in the subject of Maritime English. The essays were on a field-visit the students went the week before, and writings were expected to be between 250-300 words long. The participants were given forty-five minutes to write the essay, and another ten minutes were provided for checking their work. This extra time for editing was provided to ensure that they self-correct performance errors. The writings were collected in the last five minutes of the hour.

2.4 Objectives of the Study

1) To identify the types of sentence structures produced in maritime students' EAP writing.

2) To distinguish the clause elements used in the most common sentence type produced by the maritime EAP learners in writing.

3) To categorize the types of sentence errors made by the maritime EAP learners in writing.

2.5 Data Analysis

The identification and categorization of sentence types, error types and clause elements were based on explanations and boundaries given in Quirk et al. (1985) and Oshima and Hough (2006; 2007).

In the analysis stage, initially, the researchers dissected the essay, and every single sentence from each essay was closely examined and was assigned to its category, namely simple, compound, complex and compound-complex. After all the sentences were grouped into their types, the sentences were put into a table for easy reference. In the second stage, the most common sentence structure was noted, and its clause elements were recorded to find how they were used by the participants. Finally, the sentences or sentence-like structures were investigated for any structural errors. Subsequently, the errors were identified and classified under sentence fragments, choppy sentences, run on sentences, comma splices and stringy sentences.

3. Results

This study attempted to identify the types of sentence structures produced by maritime students in their EAP writing, clause elements used in their sentences, and sentence errors found in their writing. Thus, this section presents the key findings of the study.

Figure 1 illustrates the number of sentences produced by individual participants within the time given. The number of sentences ranged from 28-55. The term sentences here comprises all structural types of sentences and erroneous sentences.
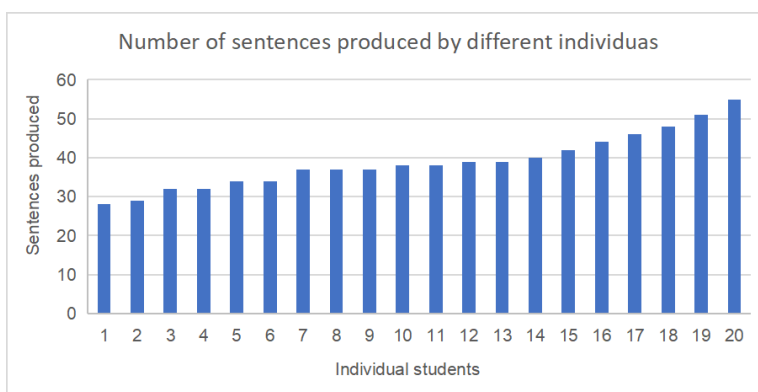
Figure 1. Sentences Produced by Individual Students

Figure 2 demonstrates the percentage of sentence types produced by the sample. The highest number of sentences produced by them belonged to the simple sentence type (63%). Among the other three types, complex sentences were the highest (20%) followed by the compound category (11%) leaving the compound-complex (6%) to the last.
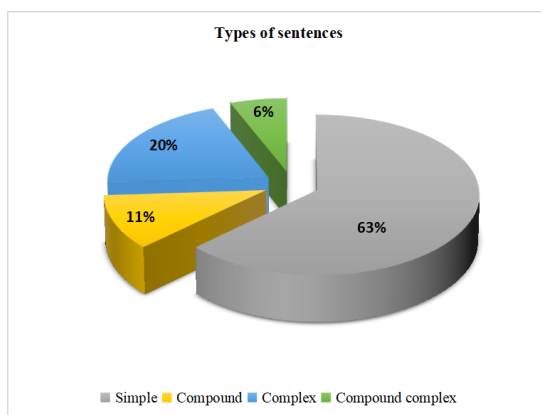

Figure 2. Types of sentences

Table 3 shows the types of sentences that the participants produced along with two examples for each type from the corpus.

Table 3. Types of sentences produced with examples

Sentence type	Example
Simple	In this visit, my friends and me learnt valuable things.
	With support of the harbour master, all of us got practical knowledge about ships and our work life in the sea.
Compound	I always loved the sea and wanted to work in a ship, but my parents were worry about my safety.
	It was getting dark, so we left port.
Complex	When we went to the ship, they were unloading cement.
	I had great respect for the officers, because they answered all our questions without tired.
Compound complex	When we went to sleep, we heard only the waves sound, and it was a lovely music.
	On the last day everyone was very tired so we were sleeping in the bus while we were returning to the university.

Figure 3 demonstrates different clause elements used in simple sentence structure. SVO pattern was the most utilized structure among the participants followed by SVC and SVA. On the other hand, SVOO was the least used clause elements among the seven.
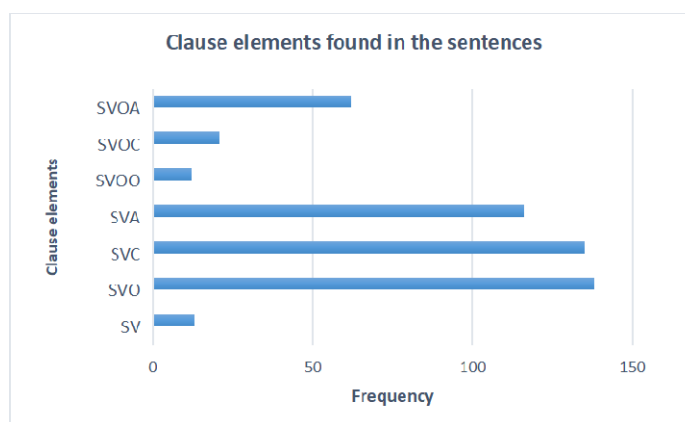
Figure 3. Clause elements in the sentences produced

Examples provided in Table 4 were taken from the participants' writings to show how they combine clause elements to form sentences of different patterns.

Table 4. Examples of simple sentences produced using different clause elements

	Clause elements	Example sentence
1	SV	We were waiting.
		My friends slept.
2	SVO	We saw huge lathe machines.
		I collected a lot of information.
3	SVC	The engine room was very hot and noisy.
		I am an engine lover.
4	SVA	We visited the Naval Museum after our lunch.
		We went to see the engine room first.
5	SVOO	A commander showed us the workshops and their engineering innovations.
		They gave us a boat ride in the harbour.
6	SVOC	We found the Marine engineering workshops at the naval base busy twenty-four seven.
7	SVOA	The ship visit made me happy.
		Every student tried shooting with a gun at Naval Maritime Academy.
		We saw 4 cargo holds in the vessel.
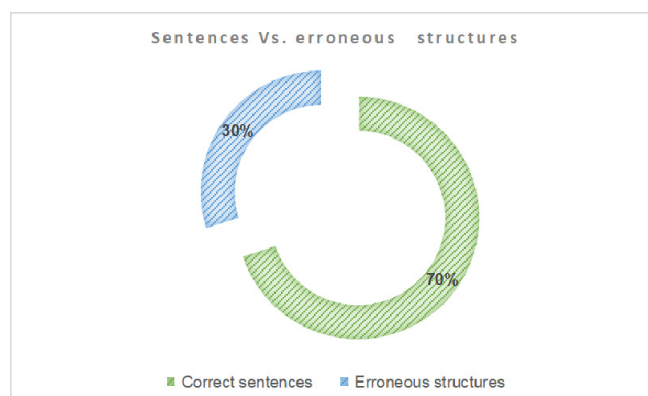
Figure 4. Sentences versus erroneous structures identified

As shown in Figure 4, erroneous sentences were almost one third of the total sentences produced by the participants.

Figure 5 reveals the breakdown of sentence errors and their frequency. 234 sentence errors were identified in total. Sentence fragments were the most occurring while comma splices were the least occurring sentence errors among the participants. Run on sentences were also high in writing after sentence fragments but choppy sentences were less frequent than run on sentences but more than comma splices.
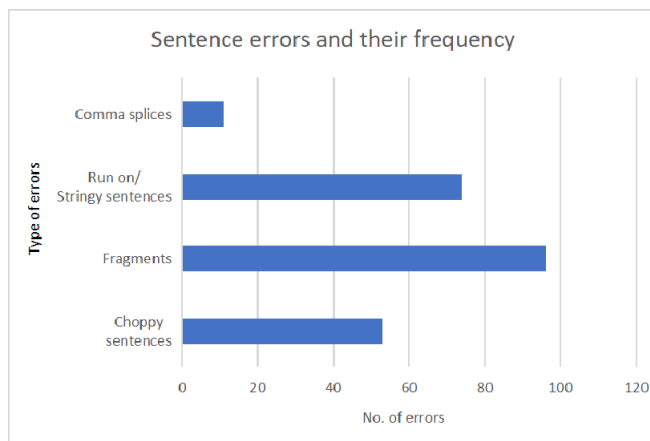
Figure 5. Types of sentence errors

Table 5. Types of erroneous sentences

Type of error	Example
Fragment	The harbour master handsome and amazing.
	Since it was my first visit to the natural harbour.
	In short, enjoyed everything in the field-visit.
	We left the university at 5 o'clock in the morning. We stopped for breakfast on the way. We reached trincomalee before lunch.
Choppy sentence	We enjoyed the trip. We took many pictures.
	The captain shared his travel experiences with us. I felt very happy. I felt I am already a captain.
Run-on/Stringy sentence/fused sentence	The harbour master received us happily and he was one of the past student of our university and some of our lecturers were his lecturers and our Head was his batchmate.
	We saw practically everything we learnt about the ships and it was our first field-visit but it will be an unforgettable visit in my life.
	We spent the nights at a rest-house by the sea we didn't know what time we slept.
	The captain, officers and the crew were very polite with us, explained the procedures to us.
	We saw two Sri Lankan naval ships, a bulk-carrier and a passenger ship, this experience will be very useful for my studies.
Comma splice	The field trip made me satisfied, I am happy for selecting maritime study programme.

Table 5 displays the types of erroneous sentences identified in participants' writing along with examples from their essays.

The findings of the study revealed that the participants used four different types of sentences in narrative writing; in addition, they used seven major sentence patterns. The study findings also demonstrated that a considerable number of the participants' sentences had some structural flaw in them. These sentence errors were identified and categorized. Based on the results found, the data was analyzed in this study.

4. Discussion

This section discusses the findings highlighted in the results in relation to previous literature and research questions. Thus, the section is structured to answer the research questions.

In answering the first research question, the types of sentence structures produced by maritime students in EAP writing witness the ability of this group of learners in producing a variety of simple, compound, complex and compound complex types. The participants produced seven hundred and eighty sentences in total including erroneous sentences. As it was highlighted in the results section, almost two thirds of the sentences written by them belonged to the simple type. There were very short simple sentences with only a few words as well as lengthy sentences with complex phrases, optional adverbials and extended modifiers as pointed out by Quirk et

al. (1985), Oshima and Hough (2007) and Demirezen (2013). Compound subjects and compound verbs highlighted under the sub-section of *types of sentences* in the introduction were also recorded in the participants' writing.

Literature suggests that a sentence which consists of only one subject-verb pair is called a simple sentence, and this idea is emphasized in research occasionally. However, a clear definition or explanation of *one subject-verb pair* is not adequately provided in grammar books that are easy access to learners. Moreover, many grammar books in the market do not highlight extended simple sentences with modifiers at initial, middle and end positions. Therefore, when the students produce this kind of sentences, the students are not sure of the structure. Therefore, they try to produce what they hear and see without understanding them clearly. Thus, not knowing the structural rules causes errors in their writings.

Although the essays had eleven percent of compound sentences, there were many errors especially with the use of comma. The most utilized coordinators, *in the FANBOYS*, were *and*, *but* and *so*; in contrast, *for*, *yet, nor* and *or* were rarely used by the participants. Compound sentences with conjunctive adverbs / transition signals were found, but they were not used correctly with proper punctuation. The use of the structure with a semicolon was rare.

Considering the construction of complex sentences, it was the second highest (one fifth of the total) among the four types. The complex sentences with dependent adverb clauses were common whereas dependent adjective clauses were very limited, and noun clauses were none.

Table 3 provided examples to the types of sentences produced by the participants. The errors of pronoun (*me* instead of *I*), and missing article (*the*) in simple sentences, incorrect verb form (were worry) and missing article (*the*) in compound sentences, unnecessary addition of a comma after an independence sentence in complex sentence, and missing apostrophe (*waves*) and missing commas after the initial modifier (on the last day) and after the first independent sentence (before the coordinator *so*) in compound complex sentence were not taken into consideration in this study as the focus was only the sentence structure and structural errors, not other grammatical errors.

As mentioned in the objectives of this study, this study focused on clause elements of most common sentence type produced. As seen in Figure 2, the highest number of sentences produced by the participants belonged to the simple sentence category. Thus, the second research question has been resolved by identifying and making a list of clause elements used in the simple sentence type produced by the maritime EAP learners which includes SV, SVO, SVC, SVA, SVOO, SVOC and SVOA. The students also used more combinations of clause elements like SVOAAA (*We bought some famous traditional food items in the boutiqs on our way last week.*) and SVAA (*We reached Trincomalee before lunch.*) where the three 'A's in SVOAAA, and the last 'A' in SVAA are optional. Such optional adverbials were not noted as different patterns, and they were only considered as extensions of the basic patterns.

Frequent patterns in the writing were identified as SVO, SVA and SVC. On the other hand, the rare patterns were SV and SVOO. SVOC was also not much common among the participants. Table: 4 demonstrates some examples from the participants' essays. The errors of punctuation, article, spelling and pluralization are not discussed in this paper since the focus is the structure, combinations of clause elements and structural errors.

The recent Indonesian study (Andriani and Bram, 2021) reviewed in this paper found only five sentence patterns in the BBC news articles studied. SVA and SVOA were not identified by the authors. It is not certain whether these two patterns were not found amidst the sentences, or they were taken to SV and SVO patterns respectively considering the "A" as an optional element.

To satisfy the third research question, the findings indicate the types of sentence errors made by the maritime EAP learners in writing are fragments, run on (stringy/fused), choppy sentences and comma spliced. The results of the study show that 30 percent of the total sentences produced are erroneous sentences. There were many errors observed in the writing including errors on subject-verb agreement, tense, preposition, spelling, word choice, word order and article; however, the term *erroneous sentences* in this study is limited to structural errors only.

The most common sentence error recorded in the study was sentence fragments followed by stringy sentences. Sentence fragments observed among the participants are of two types as it was discussed at the early part of this paper. An erroneous sentence from Table 5, for example, *But the jobs there look greater than other offshore jobs* belongs to the second type and it can be corrected by removing the word *But* to make it a new simple sentence or make a complex sentence by joining the previous sentence (*Jobs in the sea are risky.*) in the student's writing.

Thus, the corrected sentence can be a simple, compound or a complex sentence as follows: (1) *The jobs there look greater than other offshore jobs. (2) Jobs in the sea are risky, but they look greater than other offshore jobs. (3) Although jobs in the sea are risky, they look greater than other offshore jobs.* A stringy sentence as a sentence error runs on and on, as Kooistra and Kooistra (2021) suggest, without stopping at places where they need to. The stringy sentences in Table 5, for example, could be corrected by placing the right punctuation marks such as comma and full-stop, or conjunctions. Without them, the writing will confuse the reader.

Choppy sentences are too short when two or more of such adjoining sentences can be combined to give a complete sense. Sometimes, short sentences are purposefully written for some effect; however, having too many of them in writing is a sentence error in language. Approximately, out of every five sentences, one was a choppy sentence. Table 5, for example, demonstrates some of the erroneous sentences produced by the EAP learners in the maritime discipline. The three choppy sentences provided in Table 5 can be easily combined as follows: *We left the university at 5 a.m., stopped for breakfast on the way and reached Trincomalee before lunch.* This combined sentence is still a simple sentence with compound verbs. However, the combined sentences can take any form such as compound, complex or compound complex depending on the ideas expressed in the choppy sentences used. It should also be remembered that not all short sentences are considered choppy. Comma splice was the least type found among the participants. This error occurs when two or more sentences are joined with a comma instead of a coordinator, or a full-stop.

Although sentence errors in writing were identified as an aspect of grammatical errors in some studies (Alghazo & Alshraideh, 2020; Pouladian et al., 2017; Phukat & Othman, 2015), these sentences were not discussed in the papers. The findings of some other studies (Amiri and Puteh, 2017; Utari, 2019) revealed that sentence errors occur in writing at a higher rate (32% & 37% respectively), but the authors did not discuss these errors. Quibol-Catabay (2016) reported that 52% percent of the structural errors were on fragments. Studies in Ghana and Indonesia (Adjei, 2015; Subekti, 2017) stated that subordinate clauses in complex sentences were a problem to teacher trainees. Considering the amount of sentence errors made in previous studies, and lack of discussions on these errors make the current study significant. Moreover, the participants in the present study are maritime learners, and sentence error study with this group of learners is seldom seen.

The SMCP is a set of key phrases developed by the IMO to assist ship to ship and ship to sea communication. They are mostly short utterances. Learning these short phrases could possibly be a main reason for the cadets to produce many choppy sentences. The simple sentences are not to be confused with choppy sentences. As seen in the introduction, simple sentences can vary in length and patterns. As warned by Oshima and Hughes (1983), they can be considered poor style in academic writing.

As indicated by Windiahsari and Wen-li (2020), maritime English is not only a language at sea, but it is also used in the industry in different ways. Written communication demands a variety of sentence structures and patterns which are grammatically correct. Thus, most maritime learners struggle when it comes to writing. Need surveys carried out with cadets (Arini, 2010; Aeni et al., 2018) taking maritime English course showed that speaking and writing were prioritized by the participants as most needed skills, and grammar and vocabulary were considered by them as the most difficult aspects to master.

It was observed from the results that many participants did not know where to use commas. A comma used at the wrong place or absence of a comma where it is needed can give a wrong or distorted message to the readers. No use or improper use of punctuation causes misunderstanding and misinterpretation in writing. Many sentences produced by the participants in the study were observed to have punctuation issues causing confusion to the readers. Especially in the case of maritime learners, miscommunication can cause disaster. Thus, these learners need to learn the correct sentence structures with proper punctuation in order to give the message unambiguously.

5. Conclusion

The present study was designed to determine the types of sentence structures used by maritime learners in narrative writing, clause elements used in sentences they produced, and sentence structure errors found in these writings.

One of the significant findings to emerge from this study is that Maritime students produce more simple sentences although they use compound, complex and compound complex sentences in their narrative writing. The maritime English learners are more accustomed to short utterances because of SMCP, and it could be a reason for them to produce more simple sentences. Another reason for this could be the fear of making errors in the examination when producing sentences with complex forms. The second major finding is that SVO, SVC and SVA are seen as frequent sentence patterns in their writing. The study has also shown that sentence

fragments and stringy sentences precede the sentence structure errors. Thus, the present work makes noteworthy contributions to the study of sentence errors in EAP writing.

The current study has only examined the types of sentence structures, sentence errors and basic clause elements of simple sentences which were the most used type of sentences by the maritime students in their EAP narrative writing. However, the investigation of sentence extensions such as modifiers and sentence constituents (word classes and phrase structure) were not a part of the current study. Further research could therefore concentrate on these aspects. Moreover, the study can be extended to other institutions that offer similar study programs.

Acknowledgments

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