



Proceedings ICON-ELT 2022

14 May 2022

Doctor of Philosophy Program in English
Language Teaching



Advisory Board:

Associate Professor Malinee Chutopama
Associate Professor Dr. Narumon Somkuna

Editorial Board:

Associate Professor Dr. Akkarapon Nuemaihom
Professor Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda
Associate Professor Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk
Assistant Professor Dr. Kornwipa Poonpon
Assistant Professor Dr. Apisak Sukying
Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant
Assistant Professor Dr. Chookiat Jarat
Assistant Professor Dr. Surachai Piyanukool
Assistant Professor Dr. Kampeeraphab Intanoo
Dr Eric Ambele
Dr. Saowarot Ruangpaisan

Copyright 2022:

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University
439 Jira Road, Muang District, Buriram Province 31000, Thailand
Tel: +6644-611-221 ext. 4001
Fax: +6644-612-858
Website: <http://icon-elt-2022.bru.ac.th/2022/03/11/icon-elt-2022/>

First Published in April 2022 by:

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University
439 Jira Road, Muang District, Buriram Province 31000, Thailand
Tel: +6644-611-221 ext. 4001
Fax: +6644-612-858
Email: iconelt@bru.ac.th

Peer reviewers

Professor Ni Ni Hlaing

Associate Professor Dr. Supakorn Phoocharoensil

Associate Professor Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk

Associate Professor Dr. Akkarapon Nuemaihom

Associate Professor Dr. Pham Vu Phi Ho

Associate Professor Dr. Pragasit Sitthitikul

Assistant Professor Dr. DENCHAI PRABJANDE

Assistant Professor Dr. Apisak Sukying

Assistant Professor Dr. Arnon Chaisuriya

Assistant Professor Dr. Nawamin Prachanant

Assistant Professor Dr. Chookiat Jarat

Assistant Professor Dr. Surachai Piyanukool

Assistant Professor Dr. Kampeeraphab Intanoo

Dr. Eric Ambele

Dr. Saowarot Ruangpaisan

Mandalay University of
Distance Education, Myanmar

Thammasat University

Suranaree University of
Technology

Burirma Rajabhat University

Van Lang University, Vietnam

Thammasat University

Burapha University

Maharakham University

Suranaree University of
Technology

Burirma Rajabhat University

Burirma Rajabhat University

Buriram Rajabhat University

Buriram Rajabhat University

Maharakham University

Buriram Rajabhat University

Message from the President of Buriram Rajabhat University

I am as a President of Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) very pleased to welcome scholars, researchers, and graduate students from various distinctive institutes to the international conference held in a hybrid form, online and on-site at BRU campus. Even if this symposium is organized for the first time by the Ph.D. (ELT) Program under the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, BRU, it very much interests not only Thais but also foreigners whose disciplines are relevant to ELT.

It is my personal appreciation to realize that ICON-ELT 2022 or the first international conference on English Language Teaching (ELT) with the theme on "World Englishes in English Language Teaching in the Digital Age" is co-hosted by the following four well-known institutes: Ph.D. (ELT) Program under Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, BRU, Mahasarakham University, Yangon University of Foreign Languages Yangon, Myanmar, and Faculty of Foreign Languages, Van Lang University, Vietnam. The ICON-ELT 2022 is, therefore, the conference held for strengthening academic collaborations among academic partners.

Moreover, it is very honored for all of us to have a worldly recognized keynote speaker, Professor Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda from Arizona State University, USA who is going to deliver a speech on a very trendy topic, and also guest speakers who are experts in the field of ELT. I am certain that the ICON-ELT 2022 will be applicable and useful for all participants whose disciplines are relevant to ELT.

I, on behalf of Buriram Rajabhat University, would like to express my sincere thanks to the four co-hosts, keynote speakers, featured speakers, experts, authors, and participants for their academic support and contribution. Last but not least, I wish this ICON-ELT 2022 ever success in all aspects.



(Associate Professor Malinee Chutopama)
President of Buriram Rajabhat University

Message from the Dean of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences

World Englishes is a term used to refer to varieties of English developed in territories influenced by the United Kingdom. According to Seidlhofer (2005), the current status of English is described as an "unstable equilibrium." This analogy regarding the current state of affairs with English language teaching (ELT). A successful English language teaching and learning under a pragmatic and humanistic approach can be described via the World Englishes (WE) perspectives. Due to tremendous technological progress in a digital age, the scenario of English teaching techniques is entirely changed. Consequently, the teachers of 21st century should shed traditional concepts and techniques of classroom teaching and should adopt the recent and innovative teaching techniques, using different social media. For motivating teachers and students to use different media for learning world Englishes in a digital age, the first international conference relevant to global Englishes applicable to English language teaching in the digital age is held.

ICON-ELT 2022 or the international conference on English Language Teaching (ELT) is hosted for the first time by the Ph.D. (ELT) Program under the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University. Moreover, the other three well-known institutes have also been officially invited to co-host this symposium: Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Mahasarakham University (Thailand), Yangon University of Foreign Languages, Yangon (Myanmar), and Faculty of Foreign Languages, Van Lang University (Vietnam).

On behalf of the conference organizing committee, I would like to express my sincere thanks to Associate Professor Malinee Chutopama, President of Buriram Rajabhat University for being a chair of this academic event. My special thanks go to a keynote speaker, Professor Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda from Arizona State University, USA, and featured speakers from different distinctive universities. Last but not least, I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to the co-hosts, journal editorial board, peer reviewers, commentators, researchers and all participants from both Thailand and overseas. It is highly hopes that this symposium will be beneficial to everyone whose disciplines are about ELT and other relevant areas.



(Associate Professor Dr. Akkarapon Nuemaihom)
Dean, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Buriram Rajabhat University
Ph.D. (ELT) Program Chair
Conference Secretariat

**ICON-ELT 2022: The 1st International Conference on
English Language Teaching
"World Englishes in English Language Teaching in the Digital Age"**
Date: 14 May 2022
Venue: Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

Rationale

According to the International Association for World Englishes (IAWE), the conceptualization of world Englishes within a sociolinguistic framework actually goes back to the early 1960s (Kachru 1965) and mid 70s (Smith 1976). However, organized efforts in discussing the concept of world Englishes and its formal and functional implications were not initiated until 1978 (<http://www.iaweworks.org/about-iawe.html>). World Englishes is a term for referring indigenized varieties of English, especially varieties developed in territories influenced by the United Kingdom or the United States. Seidlhofer (2005) describes the current status of English as an "unstable equilibrium." In many ways, this analogy regarding the current state of affairs with English language teaching (ELT) is appropriate. A successful English language teaching and learning under a pragmatic and humanistic approach can be described via the World Englishes (WE) perspectives. The sweeping changes of globalization and industrialization force teachers to cope with the change in the perception of the learners and to take a closer look at the new roles of teachers in the light of the enormous importance being given to the use of technology in imparting the English Language. The use of technology will help the learners and teachers to move beyond the walls of the classrooms as the learning can take place anywhere anytime. It is necessary to realize that English Language Teaching is not only a work of art but also science. The teachers and researchers have to admit the fact that the demands on the teaching profession have increased and it is necessary that teachers should be an innovative, reflective, and technologically savvy learner by nature (Mangayarkarasi et al. (2011). Due to tremendous technological progress in a digital age, the scenario of English teaching techniques is entirely changed. Consequently, the teachers of 21st century should shed traditional concepts and techniques of classroom teaching and should adopt the recent and innovative teaching techniques, using different social media.

In 2021, the Ph.D. (ELT) Program under the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University has been developed with the aims to develop students' specialization in English language teaching, to equip them with full potential for conducting research and creating innovation in English language teaching, and to build their ability for creating a new body of knowledge in English language teaching and effective application of it. In order to fulfil these aims, the ICON-ELT 2022 or the first international conference on English Language Teaching (ELT) is held with the theme on "World Englishes in English Language Teaching in the Digital Age." This ICON-ELT 2022 will open a platform for researchers, academics, and scholars to present academic and research works relevant to ELT, focusing on World Englishes in a digital age. The forum will also bring together international leading experts on

World Englishes to discuss the influence of English variants on standard Englishes and its implications on English Language Teaching.

Conference Purposes

1. To publicize research, and innovative works on English Language Teaching, covering the conference theme and sub-themes such as *Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL)*, Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), English as an International Language (EIL), World English, and English as a Global Language, etc.

2. To be a platform for researchers, scholars, lecturers, and students both inside the country and abroad to exchange knowledge and experiences, and also to present their quality academic and research work in ELT, and WE.

Target Groups/ Participants

1. 100 lecturers and personnel of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, and from others faculties of Buriram Rajabhat University

2. 100 educators and researchers from both national and international universities where the MoUs have already been signed with Buriram Rajabhat University, and others persons who are interested in the conference.

Venue

Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

Conference Schedule and Venue

14th May 2022 Opening ceremony/ Keynote speech/ Featured speech/
oral and poster presentation

Theme and Sub-themes of ICON-ELT 2022

Oral and poster presentations of academic and research papers cover the following conference themes and sub-themes:

Conference Theme: World Englishes in English language teaching in the Digital Age

Sub-themes:

1. Language, Linguistics, and Literature
2. Applied Linguistics and Language Education
3. Approaches and Methods in English Education
4. Culture and Literature in English Education
5. *Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL)*
6. Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)
7. English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

8. English as an International Language (EIL)
9. World English
10. English as a Global Language
11. English for Academic Purposes
12. English for Specific Purposes
13. English Language Curriculum and Teaching Materials
14. Intercultural Communication
15. Language Learning and Acquisition
16. Language Policy
17. Language Testing and Evaluation
18. Life-long Language Learning
19. Distance Language Education
20. Multimedia and ICT in English Education
21. Teacher Training and Education
22. Translation Studies & Language Teaching
23. Other fields related to the conference theme

Journals Joined in ICON-ELT 2022

1. The conference proceedings

2. Thai journals joined in ICON-ELT 2022

- 1) LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network (TCI 1, ACI, SCOPUS, Q2), Thammasat University
- 2) PASAA (SCOPUS, Q2), Chulalongkorn University Language Institute
- 3) Pasaa Paritat Journal (TCI 2), Chulalongkorn University Language Institute
- 4) PSAKU International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (TCI 2)
- 5) Journal of Humanities & Social Sciences (JHUSOC) (TCI 2)
- 6) Journal of English Language and Linguistics (JEL)
- 7) International Journal of TESOL & Education, Van Lang University, Vietnam

3. Foreign journals joined in IHUSOC III

- 1) Asian Journal of English Studies (UGC), India
- 2) An International Journal of Contemporary Issues (UGC), India
- 3) Studies in English Language and Education (SCOPUS, Q1), Indonesia
- 4) International Journal of Communication and Linguistic Studies (SCOPUS, Q3), Common Ground Research Networks

Remark:

1. The manuscript edited according to peer reviewers will be publicized in the online proceedings. The excellent research papers will be considerably publicized in the journals joined in this conference.

2. The acceptance to publish an article in a particular journal is in accordance with the journal's conditions and requirements.
3. Articles conducted by postgraduate students must be allowed by their advisors, and their advisors' names must also be included.
3. Proceedings editorial board will publish the articles approved by peer reviewers, and can be accessed in Google Scholar.

Consideration of Research Paper

1. Research paper selection presented in the conference and publicized in the proceedings will be in accordance with the announcement of criteria for consideration of research and academic paper presentation and publication in ICON-ELT 2022's Order of Appointing Editor-in-Chief Committee.
2. The research paper will be disqualified in the following cases:
 - 2.1 Abstract, and research articles are not in line with the conference's submission format or the researchers do not edit the paper according to the peer reviewers' comments and suggestions.
 - 2.2 Late and/or incomplete registration and payment
3. The final consideration and decision of paper acceptance and rejection will be made by the appointed conference committee.



Conference Program **ICON-ELT 2022: The 1st International Conference on** **English Language Teaching**

“World Englishes in English language teaching in the Digital Age”

Date: 14 May 2022

Venue: Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

*****&&*****

08.00 am. - 09.00 am.	Registration in front of Bhudharaksa Meeting Hall, 3 rd floor, 15 th building
09.00 am. - 10.00 am.	-BRU Video Presentation & Ph.D. (ELT) Program Presentation -Opening ceremony by Assoc. Prof. Malinee Chutopama, President of Buriram Rajabhat University (BRU) -Report speech by Assoc. Prof. Dr. Akkarapon Nuemaihom, Dean of Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (HUSOC) -Introducing the conference co-hosts, invited Speakers, and distinguished guests & Thank you speech by HUSOC Dean
10.00 am. - 12.00 am.	Keynote address on “Global Englishes in the Era of Global Literacy: Challenges, Opportunities and Strategies” by Professor Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda, Arizona State University, USA.
12.00 am. - 01.00 pm.	Lunch
01.00 - 3.30 pm.	Poster presentation, beside Phuttaraksa Meeting Room, 3 rd floor, 15 th building
01.00 - 04.00 pm.	-Featured speech by invited speakers at parallel sessions -Oral presentation, 7 th , 9 th floors, 15 th building -Online presentation via Zoom Meeting

N.B.: The schedule is subjected to change as appropriate.

Featured Speaker, Commentator and Paper Presenter

**ICON-ELT 2022: The 1st International Conference on
English Language Teaching**

“World Englishes in English language teaching in the Digital Age”

Date: 14 May 2022

Venue: Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand / Zoom

-----&&-----

Online Session via Zoom Meeting

Online Session I

No.	Featured Speaker & Commentator 1	Commentator 2	Presenters	Paper Title	MC.	Facilitator
1	Prof. Ni Ni Hlaing Ministry of Education, Myanmar	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk Suranaree University of Technology	*Prof. Ni Ni Hlaing (Featured speaker 1) *Assoc. Prof. Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk (Featured speaker 2)	Task-based Language Teaching in Myanmar: Insider Perspectives from University English Teachers World Englishes and Research in Pragmatics	Mr. Yuttachak Lamjuanjit	Miss Wipada Thongtam siri
2			Ohnmar Win	Pedagogical Challenges of Online English Teachers During Covid-19		
3			Dr. Van Huy Nguyen	English as Medium of Instruction in Vietnam higher education: Insights from the perspective of a language policy implementation framework		

4			Yee Mon Cho	Global Citizenship Education in ELT at the Age of Globalization		
5			Mr. Yuttachak Lamjuanjit	Artificial Intelligence Powered Writing Assistant: A Review of Recent Insights and Guidance for Future Studies		

NB: The Zoom link together with the Meeting ID and the Passcode for all presenters.

<https://us02web.zoom.us/j/85693172828?pwd=ZlJUbTVFenFpTkU2K2dieGVmUIN2QT09>

Meeting ID: 856 9317 2828

Passcode: 99999

Online Session II

No.	Featured Speaker & Commentator 1	Commentator 2	Presenters	Paper Title	MC.	Facilitator
1	Prof. Dr. Kyi Shwin Rector Yangon University of Foreign Languages Yangon, Myanmar	Assoc. Prof. Pham Vu Phi Ho Van Lang University, Vietnam	* Prof. Dr. Kyi Shwin (Featured speaker 1) *Assoc. Prof. Pham Vu Phi Ho (Featured speaker 2)	Instructional Designing Process for Realizing Learning Outcomes with an Analysis on the Readiness of Teachers Theoretical Framework for Task-based language teaching for e-learning during the lockdown period of Corona Virus	Ms. Purisa Watcharen wong	Ms.Tatiya Tanuanram
2			Professor Dr.Madhuri Gokhale	Attitudinal Identification: An Essential Paradigm for the Growth of Non- native Varieties		
3			Mary	Using Novels in the Language Classroom		
4			Associate Professor Nilar Win	Barriers to Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Classrooms of Myanmar		
5			Associate Professor Wai Hnin Ei	Myanmar EFL University Students' Readiness for Online Learning at the Onset of Covid-19 Pandemic		

NB: The Zoom link together with the Meeting ID and the Passcode for all presenters.

<https://us02web.zoom.us/j/6564235449?pwd=TXJ3cmJMRFZuUG41bXNvZWJWN2xWQT09>

Meeting ID: 656 423 5449 / Passcode: 88888

On-site Session at BRU

On-site Session I (Room 150701)

No.	Featured Speaker & Commentator 1	Commentator 2	Presenters	Paper Title	MC.	Facilitator
1	Prof. Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda Arizona State University, USA.	Asst.Prof. Dr. Chookiat Jarat Buriram Rajabhat University	-	-	Asst.Prof. <i>Rungnapa</i> Moendee	Ms. Thitaporn Putklang
2			Miss Aphichaya Seethongsuk	Enhancing EFL Students' English Reading Ability by Using Visual Thinking Strategies		
3			Assistant Professor Dr.Arnon Chaisuriya	Readiness for Computer-based English Tests among College Students in Regional Thailand		
4			Dr. Pilanut Phusawisot	ESP Teachers: Insights, Challenges and Needs in the EFL Context		
5			Mrs.Wiphaporn Dangsi	The Investigation of Problems on Reading Comprehension of High School Students in Prakhonchai		

On-site Session II (Room 150704/1)

No.	Featured Speaker & Commentator 1	Commentator 2	Presenters	Paper Title	MC.	Facilitator
1	Asst. Prof. Dr.Kornwipa Poonpon Khon Kaen University	Asst. Prof. Dr. Nawamin Prachanant Buriram Rajabhat University	*Asst. Prof. Dr. Kornwipa Poonpon (Featured speaker)	Online Professional Development for English Language Teachers in Thailand	Ms. Pallapa Lertcharoen wanich	Miss Phimpach Warasiwap hong
2			Miss.Natnaree Saibauthong	The Effects of Nursery Rhymes on EFL Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge		
3			Mr .Richardson Okoye	Translanguaging as a Learning Strategy in a Northeastern EFL Classroom in Thailand		
4			Assistant Professor Sittisak Pongpuehee	Essay Writing Challenges encountered by EFL Students		

On-site Session III (Room 150704/2)

No.	Featured Speaker & Commentator 1	Commentator 2	Presenters	Paper Title	MC.	Facilitator
1	Dr Eric Ambele Mahasarakham University	Assoc.Prof. Dr.Akkarapon Nuemaihom Buriram Rajabhat University	* Dr Eric Ambele (Featured speaker)	Pedagogical implications of World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca in Teacher Education	Mr.Ri Thy Ny	Asst. Prof. Chontichali nee Kaenson
2			Miss Nayada Thongmak	The Effects of a Shadowing Technique on EFL Learners' Listening Skills		
3			Rithy Ny et al.	Researching listening and speaking of Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF)		
4			Assistant Professor Dr.Thawascha Dechsubha	Effects of TCRS Innovation on English Instruction of Higher Secondary School Learners for Joining AEC.		

On-site Session IV (Room 150902)

No.	Featured Speaker & Commentator 1	Commentator 2	Presenters	Paper Title	MC.	Facilitator
1	Asst. Prof. Dr. <i>Apisak Sukying</i> Mahasarakham University	Asst. Prof. Dr. Surachai Piyanukool Buriram Rajabhat University	* Asst. Prof. Dr. <i>Apisak Sukying</i> (Featured speaker)	Instructed Second Language Vocabulary Learning: Overview, Application and Trend	Ms. Soranee Nielsen	Ms. Naviya Jutopama
2			Mr.Panupan Panthong	Bundle-Move in Abstracts of Engineering Research Articles		
3			Assistant Professor Somyong Somin	Techniques for Thai into English Translation; Common Mistakes at the Word andxxxz Sentence Level		
4			Ms.Jansuda Boontree	Methods in Collecting Pragmatic Competence Data: A Critical Review		
5			Miss Siraprapha Ratanaruamkarn	Trends in Teaching Critical Reading in Thai Context		

On-site Poster Presentation (Room: Extra room on the right of the Meeting Hall, 3rd floor, building 15)

No.	Featured Speaker & Commentator 1	Commentator 2	Presenters	Paper Title	MC.	Facilitator
1	Asst. Prof. Dr. Kampeeraphab Intanoo Buriram Rajabhat University	Asst. Prof. <i>Supakit Phoowong</i> Buriram Rajabhat University	Pongsatorn Pawabutra	A Survey Study of the Needs, Problems, and Wants of Communicative Skills in English for Mass Media	-	-

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Keynote Speech / Featured Speech	
Global Englishes in the Era of Global Literacy: Challenges, Opportunities and Strategies Prof. Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda	2
Pedagogical implications of World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca in Teacher Education Dr. Eric A. Ambele	3
World Englishes and Research in Pragmatics Assoc. Prof. Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk	4
Instructed Second Language Vocabulary Learning: Overview, Application and Trend Asst. Prof. Dr. Apisak Sukying	5
Online Professional Development for English Language Teachers in Thailand Asst. Prof. Dr. Kornwipa Poonpon	6
Instructional Designing Process for Realizing Learning Outcomes with an Analysis on the Readiness of Teachers Prof. Dr. Kyi Shwin	7
Task-based Language Teaching in Myanmar: Insider Perspectives from University English Teachers Prof. Ni Ni Hlaing	8
Theoretical Framework for Task-based language teaching for e-learning during the lockdown period of Corona Virus Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pham Vu Phi Ho	21
Oral Presentation	
Translanguaging as a Learning Strategy in a Northeastern EFL Classroom in Thailand Okoye R. Chukwuemeka / Eric A. Ambele	23
The Effects of a Shadowing Technique on EFL Learners' Listening Skills Nayada Thongmak / Supaporn Yimwilai	36
Enhancing EFL Students' English Reading Ability by Using Visual Thinking Strategies Aphichaya Seethongsuk / Supaporn Yimwilai	47
The Effects of Nursery Rhymes on EFL Primary Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge Natnaree Saibauthong / Supaporn Yimwilai	59
Attitudinal Identification: An Essential Paradigm for the Growth of Non-native Varieties Prof. Dr. Madhuri Gokhale	69
Using Novels in the Language Classroom: Myanmar Context Mary / Akkarapon Nuemaihom / Kampeeraphab Intanoo	70
Pedagogical Challenges of Online English Teachers During Covid-19 Ohnmar Win / Nawamin Prachanant / Saowarot Ruangpaisan	71

TABLE OF CONTENTS (cont.)

	Page
Global Citizenship Education in English Language Teaching: A Perspective in Myanmar Context Yee Mon Cho / Akkarapon Nuemaihom / Kampeeraphab Intanoo	83
Myanmar EFL University Students' Readiness for Online Learning at the Onset of Covid-19 Pandemic Assoc. Prof. Wai Hnin Ei	96
Methods in Collecting Data on Pragmatic Competence: A Critical Review Jansuda Boontree / Nawamin Prachanant / Saowarot Ruangpaisan	115
The Investigation of Problems on Reading Comprehension of High School Students at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School Wiphaporn Dangsri / Chookiat Jarat / Nawamin Prachanant	125
Essay Writing Challenges encountered by Thai Students in EFL Context Sittisak Pongpuehee / Nawamin Prachanant / Saowarot Ruangpaisan	132
Artificial Intelligence Powered Writing Assistant: A Review of Recent Insights and Guidance for Future Studies Yuttachak Lamjuanjit / Nawamin Prachanant / Chukiat Jarat	147
Readiness for Computer-based English Tests among College Students in Regional Thailand Asst. Prof. Dr. Arnon Chaisuriya	159
Trends and Issues in Listening and Speaking in Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF) Context Chontichaline Kaenson / Rosesamon Panduangkaew / Rithy Ny / Jintana Watcharapothikorn / Panupan Panthong	160
Bundle-Move in Abstracts of Engineering Research Articles Panupan Panthong / Nawamin Prachanant	161
Techniques for Thai into English Translation; Common Mistakes at the Word and Sentence Level Somyong Somin / Kampeeraphab Intanoo / Akkarapon Nuemaihom	162
Trends in Teaching Critical Reading in the Thai Context Siraprapha Ratanaruamkarn / Surachai Piyanukoo / Akkarapon Nuemaihom	163
ESP Teachers: Insights, Challenges and Needs in the EFL Context Apisak Sukying / Nuntapat Supunya / Pilanut Phusawisot	164
Effects of TCRS Innovation on English Instruction of Higher Secondary School Learners for Joining AEC Asst. Prof. Dr. Thawascha Dechsubha	165
Barriers to Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Classrooms of Myanmar Assoc. Prof. Nilar Win	166

TABLE OF CONTENTS (cont.)

	Page
English as Medium of Instruction in Vietnam Higher Education: Insights from the Perspective of a Language Policy Implementation Framework Huy Van Nguyen / Phuong Le Hoang Ngo	167
Poster Presentation	
A Survey Study of the Needs, Problems, and Wants of Communicative Skills in English for Mass Media Pongsatorn Pawabutra / Juthamas Tangkawanich	169

Keynote Speech / Featured Speech

Global Englishes in the Era of Global Literacy: Challenges, Opportunities and Strategies

Paul Kei Matsuda¹

¹Professor Dr., Arizona State University, USA

Abstract

The ideas of global Englishes and global literacy have become so well established that these and other associated set of assumptions can now be taken as “givens” among those who have been following the research literature. Even the public perception has changed dramatically over the four decades. This plenary talk will thus be presented as a non-argumentative academic talk, in which the presenter will discuss the widely accepted ideas and assumptions related to the English language in the era of global and digital literacy. He will then explore ways to update classroom practices to keep up with the reality.

Pedagogical implications of World Englishes and English as a Lingua Franca in Teacher Education

Eric A. Ambele¹

¹Dr., Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Mahasarakham University, Thailand
E-mail: eric.a@msu.ac.th

Abstract

With more research being done in classrooms and teacher education about the pluralistic perspective of World Englishes (WE) and the variability of English as a lingua franca (ELF), this talk will look at whether, how, and to what extent teachers' pedagogical knowledge and reasoning about a WE and ELF-informed perspective in teaching practices may change in our globalized world. Teacher education is a critical step in raising understanding of the sociolinguistic changes wrought by English's current pluralization and lingua franca status. This talk argues that raising awareness of the modified contexts in which English is used today among experienced and, above all, trainee teachers should include reflection on its increased plurality (WE) and variability (ELF), how pedagogic practices can cater for L2 users' communicative needs in 'real' language use contexts, as well as on the relationship between language models (which are necessarily abstractions) and the variable nature of language in interaction.

Keywords: English language teaching, World Englishes,
English as a lingua franca, teacher education, pedagogical implications

World Englishes and Research in Pragmatics

Anchalee Wannaruk¹

¹Assoc. Prof. Dr., School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology

Abstract

Language always carries nuance, meanings, and references beyond merely itself to be inferred through perception at an individual level. The function that language performs can be interpreted based on the interaction between linguistic forms and the users of those forms. The problem inherently lies in that when the interlocutors hail from different cultures. The mismatch in their interpretations might lead to communication breakdowns. Varieties of English continue to emerge around the world due to historical, political, and economic reasons. Research in World Englishes has compared the new varieties with the so-called standard ones in different aspects such as syntax, lexis, and phonology. Another area that is worthy of investigation is the language function. The same statement made in a variety of English language manifestations might carry different meanings as a result of the local culture/dynamics. Pragmatics, which deals with the language in use and the context, plays an important role in World Englishes research. In this talk, I will introduce possible areas of pragmatics research, including cross-cultural pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, and pragmatics in ELF communication. This talk concludes with pedagogical implications, including the integration of pragmatic knowledge and cultural awareness in language teaching/learning.

Instructed Second Language Vocabulary Learning: Overview, Application and Trend

Apisak Sukying¹

¹Asst. Prof. Dr. Mahasarakham University, Thailand

E-mail: apisak.s@msu.ac.th

Abstract

This talk overviews existing research on second language (L2) vocabulary learning. It argues that a large vocabulary size is necessary to function in English. Indeed, research has shown that a vocabulary of 8000-9000 word families for reading and around 6000-7000 families for oral discourses. In addition, several word knowledge aspects need to be learned about each lexical item. Together, these figures remain a huge challenge that many learners fail to meet. Four vocabulary learning partners, including teachers, students, materials writers, and researchers, need to contribute to the learning process to facilitate adequate vocabulary learning. Vocabulary learning programs need to integrate explicit, intentional, and incidental vocabulary learning. The four learning strands, including meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development, suggested by Nation (2001, 2013), offer a detailed guideline to incorporate intentional and incidental vocabulary learning. The overriding principle for improving vocabulary learning is to increase the number of engagements learners have with vocabulary items. All four learning partners need to acknowledge the incremental nature of vocabulary learning and acquisition and develop learning programs that are principled, long-term, and acknowledge the richness, complexity, and scope of the vocabulary knowledge that needs to be fully mastered.

Keywords: Vocabulary size, depth of vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary instruction, intentional and incidental learning, vocabulary acquisition, engagement

Online Professional Development for English Language Teachers in Thailand

Kornwipa Poonpon¹

¹Asst. Prof. Dr., English Language Department, Khon Kaen University

Abstract

The coronavirus pandemic has significantly altered education in Thailand from face-to-face classrooms to remote teaching on digital platforms. This phenomenon has brought both pedagogical and technological challenges for English language teachers. Online professional development, thus, has become crucial and demanding to help them adjust to this disruptive situation. This talk focuses on the roles of online professional development and the methods that have been provided for English language teachers in Thai contexts during the pandemic. Data collection was carried out through a review of surveys, reports, research articles, and related documents. In addition, data from Thailand TESOL professional development projects, participated by more than 1,500 teachers, was employed. All data were analyzed and triangulated. The findings reveal types, content, platforms, and providers of online professional development. The talk will discuss challenges, suggested solutions, and future directions for online professional development for ELT teachers in Thailand, especially in a post-pandemic context.

Instructional Designing Process for Realizing Learning Outcomes with an Analysis on the Readiness of Teachers

Kyi Shwin¹

¹Professor Dr., Yangon University of Foreign Languages Yangon, Myanmar

Abstract

The main purpose of my talk is to share experience of an institution which carries out tasks to align student learning outcomes, teaching learning activities and student assessment together. There are several issues in any classrooms which make the process of teaching and learning less effective. Yangon University of Foreign Languages initiated training faculty members to be able to carry out instructional designing process using a blended model ADDIE and Dick and Carrey. It is investigated that instructional designing process is good for teachers though teachers have a lot of tasks to carry out to complete the process. The talk conclude and answer in which the process of instructional design should be run linear approach every year and then find improvement vertically.

Task-based Language Teaching in Myanmar: Insider Perspectives from University English Teachers

Ni Ni Hlaing¹

¹Professor, Myanmar
 E-mail: ninihlaing59@gmail.com

Abstract

Task-based language teaching is an approach which differs from traditional approaches by emphasising the importance of engaging learners' natural abilities for acquiring language incidentally through the performance of tasks that draw learners' attention to form. A huge body of research has examined the implementation of task-based language teaching (TBLT). However, research investigating the implementation of TBLT in Myanmar remains limited. This study reports on a study of teachers' knowledge of TBLT, difficulties in deploying TBLT and their perceived feasible solutions. Total 21 teachers from selected universities participated in the semi-structured interviews. The findings reveal that teachers' understanding of TBLT was limited and varied. The implementation gap was attributed to various contextual constraints such as exams, teachers' beliefs, and pressures and challenges from the university. Participants of this study distributed both similar and different views towards problems and solutions. The study concludes by highlighting the need for a repair of the reinforcement of teacher support and development.

Keywords: Task-based language teaching, University English teachers, Myanmar

I. Introduction

When Myanmar initiated the opening and reform policy in the late 1970s, English has been gaining accelerating public importance and governmental attention. The traditional English Language Teaching (ELT) approach in Myanmar combines grammar-translation and audio-lingual methods, characterized by thorough and systematic study of vocabulary, grammar, and structural patterns. The approach, however, has been unable to develop a satisfactory level of learners' communicative competence. Since the early 1990s, the Ministry of Education (MOE) in Myanmar has enthusiastically promoted the imported methodology, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to drive the ELT reform in response to a mounting dissatisfaction with the poor quality of ELT. Therefore, in the past decade, the MOE developed a revised national English curriculum standard, in which TBLT (task-based language teaching), an approach under the umbrella of CLT, was advocated. It called for students' active participation in pair and/ or group work. Teachers are supposed to support students with meaningful classroom tasks and facilitate task completion through modelling, experiencing, practicing, participating, collaborating, and communicating. The rationale is that students learn the target language more effectively when involved in meaningful communicative activities, rather than focus on studying or manipulating grammatical rules (Ellis, 2003). Despite the aim of bringing about changes in the education system, an implementation gap arises in the process. The implementation gap of this pedagogic innovation has been accompanied by soaring scholarly interest in the past fifteen years. In order to bridge

some of the gaps of current body of research, this article seeks to investigate what difficulties English teachers have experienced during the implementation of TBLT in Myanmar.

1.1 Problems Regarding TBLT

In Myanmar, the primary role of the teachers is to transmit profound knowledge, and the students receive the authoritative knowledge passively, without challenging or interrupting their teachers, whereas in TBLT, teachers should employ learner-cantered methods to facilitate the learning process. The conventional view of learning languages as a process of knowledge memorization and accumulation rather than a process for practical purposes has been accounted for the failure of nurturing students' communicative competence (Hu, 2002a; Penner, 1995). As for learners, their reluctance to speak English and their diverse purposes of learning English have hindered the practice of TBLT (Lee, 2005; Sun & Cheng, 2000; Yan & He, 2012). Some students learn English only for passing exams, although having an increasing awareness of the importance of communicative competence. Their lack of motivation for speaking English results from the unavailability of a supportive language environment, where English is rarely used outside of the classroom (Hu, 2002b; Liu, 2016; Rao, 2002). Apart from student resistance, many teachers were reported as having a minimal understanding of 'task' and TBLT, in parallel with insufficient knowledge about teaching English under the proposed TBLT method (Adams & Newton, 2009; Deng & Carless, 2010; Hu, 2013; Zheng & Borg, 2014). Moreover, teachers' inadequate proficiency, together with students' limited proficiency in English, makes it difficult to carry out communication activities (Hu, 2005a; Li & Baldauf, 2011; Littlewood, 2007; Yan, 2012; Yu, 2001). Myanmar is used as the main medium of instruction, with the grammar-translation method being the dominant approach. The exam-oriented teachers put absolute emphasis on language knowledge and exercises (Hu, 2013; Yan & He, 2012). Their obsession with exams largely grows out of the current teacher evaluation system, which is chiefly based on test results (Yan, 2012). Some common practical constraints shared by almost all universities are big class size, mixed-ability students, and limited time given for ELT.

1.2 Solutions to the Implementation Gap

Teacher development programs should equip teachers with understandings of TBLT (Zheng & Borg, 2014), enhance their decision-making abilities (Yan, 2012), and improve their pedagogical work (Yan & He, 2012). Therefore, the present study sets out to examine what difficulties English teachers in Myanmar faced with in deploying TBLT. Both similar and different difficulties that confront the teachers will be closely explored and compared. It is hoped that this study could fill the current research gap and enrich the literature with its findings and shed light on some implications for stakeholders, including policymakers, universities, and teachers.

1.3 Aim of the Research

The predominant research goal was to investigate what factors hindered teachers' implementation of TBLT. There are three research questions addressed in this study:

- How much do Myanmar teachers know about TBLT?
- What difficulties they have experienced in deploying TBLT?
- What are their perceived possible solutions to the problems?

II. Methodology

This study was conducted in selected universities of Myanmar. Students are provided with three lecturers and two tutorial classes a week, according to their undergraduate level. Three factors were taken into account when selecting the participants. First, they taught in the same level and had built a close rapport with the author, so reliable and abundant information could be produced. Second, these teachers ranged from novice teachers to senior ones, and therefore, views of all age groups could be generated. Third, they taught undergraduate level and were considered as ideal participants to breed diverse answers to the research questions.

2.1 Participants

There are in total 21 teachers participated in this qualitative study. Table 1 provides the background information of the teachers with pseudonyms. And their educational information is shown respectively.

Table 1: Teachers' background

Sr No	Qualification	Gender		Teaching Experience		Class Information	
		Male	Female	Novice teachers	Senior ones	Who taught undergraduate level	Who taught postgraduate level
1	M.A. in English	1	17	9	9	10	8
2	Ph.D.in English	2	1	-	3	-	3
Total		3	18	9	12	10	11

2.2 Data Collection and Analysis

Semi-structured interviews were employed in this qualitative research, allowing both the author and the 6 teachers flexibility in producing themes that were relevant to the research questions. An open-ended guiding protocol engaged by Chen and Wright (2016) was adapted in this interview. The interview cantered on TBLT, including interviewees' knowledge of TBLT, trainings received about TBLT, perceived frequency of using TBLT, difficulties in employing TBLT, and possible solutions they proposed. Each interview lasted around 20 to 30 minutes, forming around 8 hours of data in total. The audio-recorded interviews were largely conducted enabling the subjects to express themselves fully. Nonetheless, they were allowed to speak Myanmar or English whenever necessary or applicable. Interview recordings were primarily transcribed into Myanmar and translated into English finally. Inductive analysis was adopted in data analysis. This study segmented transcripts of each interviewee according to the questions used in the interview guide and employed codes, categories, and themes to analyse each participant's transcripts.

Themes, categories, and codes were also extracted and highlighted. Through repeated readings of the transcripts, recurrent codes, categories, and themes were identified. Afterwards, data were synthesized, summarized and further grouped for comparison of teachers' views on TBLT.

III. Findings

One of the objectives of this study was to find out how much practitioners know about TBLT. Participants were asked about their knowledge of TBLT and whether they had received relevant trainings at the onset of the whole interview.

Interview Guide

1. How much do you know about TBLT? Have you received any training about TBLT?
2. How often do you use TBLT? What do you think of this approach (effective or not)?
3. What difficulties have you experienced in employing TBLT? What obstacles would you attribute to?

3.1 Teachers' Knowledge of TBLT

According to the responses, some participants acknowledged that they had not been trained to organize this approach. Some replied that they were introduced to TBLT during their master's study, but they forgot most of the theories. As to participants who admitted receiving trainings about TBLT, their answers still varied greatly. Some said that TBLT is to stimulate teaching through tasks. Before practicing, students are usually given a task to arouse their interest. For example, if students are coming to know about the history and culture, the teacher told the students that the best two students will be selected after class to interact with them. The teacher provided them with a wide context and set a clear goal, and this guarantees a better result. Also, interviewee 2 expressed her views on TBLT as follows: It is dividing a class into a few steps. And there will be a task in each step. Teachers should motivate their students to use different tasks to achieve the final goal. Interviewee 8 was regarded as the most senior teacher in all participants as she had been teaching for more than twenty years. As she said, it is to ask students to finish tasks by themselves. They know clearly what they should do. I will guide them in the process. She thought it is also called autonomous learning, which can enlighten the students. Interviewee 4 responded directly; she knew nothing about TBLT. She never experienced the trainings. But she tried to provide as many activities as possible for students. Interviewee 6, Interviewee 7, and Interviewee 9 claimed that there were just some demonstration classes for some English lessons. Interviewee 6 and Interviewee 7 admitted that they did not have a clear concept of TBLT. Interviewee 9 expressed his understanding in this way, teachers must know the objectives. Then they need to determine the lesson type and correspondent teaching procedures to enable students to achieve their best ability. Some do not know what TBLT is. Interviewee 10 stated and asked, TBLT was mentioned frequently when he first came here. It is about cultivating students' speaking ability. But it seemed that it is seldom mentioned nowadays. Is it outdated? Interviewee 12 explained his understanding as follows: There are many tasks in the teaching design. And there should be an authentic context in each task to encourage communication.

During the interviews, as demonstrated above, participants mentioned diversified understandings of TBLT, and some interviewees displayed little knowledge of TBLT. Therefore, before moving to the next research question, all participants were provided with a hardcopy of Nunan's (2004) definition of pedagogical tasks and Ellis (2009) discussion of four additional criteria that characterize a pedagogical task. After reading, all interviewees were demanded to recall their frequency of employing TBLT. Not surprisingly, teachers varied enormously in their responses. Some articulated that they used less than 10%, while some held that the approach took up at least 90% of a whole class.

3.2 Teachers' Perceived Difficulties in Employing TBLT

This study sought to ascertain, from insiders' perspectives, what factors affected the effectiveness of the implementation of TBLT.

3.2.1 Learner Factors

The specific factors in terms of students mentioned by the interviewees are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2: Learner factors mentioned by participants (n=21)

Sr No	Factors
1	English proficiency
2	Beliefs about learning English
3	Study habits

An overwhelming number of teachers claimed that students' inadequate level of English hindered the use of TBLT. Some common explanations given by the teachers were students' lack of vocabulary, which restricted learners from expressing themselves. In worse situations, as Interviewee 6 said that students' poor English forced them to speak Myanmar sometimes. Teachers have no way out because if they do not explain in Myanmar, they will not understand even a word. The second factor was students' wrong beliefs about learning English. As noted by the participants, students still regarded learning English equivalent to mastering grammar points, but not learning for communicative purposes. Most learners in Myanmar still preferred their teachers to use spoon-feeding methods. Interviewee 11 described this difficult situation as follows: "When I organized some pair or group activities, some students would be highly demotivated and would ask me to teach grammar points for exams. The poorly motivated students aggravated teachers' deployment of TBLT". Some Interviewees articulated their opinions as follows: "How to make my students confident and motivated? I think they will only achieve this goal by making progress in study. But how can I help them make progress?". This only proves to be a vicious cycle because students are reluctant to learn. Some interviewees further expanded on how students' bad study habits affect their English study. As he explained, many students' sufferings should be largely attributed to their bad study habits formed earlier.

3.2.2 Instructor Factors

Table 3 lists four instructor factors that shaped teachers' implementation of TBLT.

Table 3: Instructor factors mentioned by participants

Sr No	Factors
1	Comprehensive ability
2	Beliefs about English teaching
3	Professionalism
4	Motivation

The main factor stated by the participants was their incompetent proficiency in English, understanding TBLT and designing appropriate tasks. The lack of confidence was extremely obvious in new teachers. Some interviewees noted, as new teachers, they really do not know how to teach important points and improve students' speaking at the same time. Teachers demonstrated a huge difference with respect to their beliefs about English teaching.

The first group of people (Interviewee 1, Interviewee 2, Interviewee 3, Interviewee 4) attached more importance to the cultivation of students' communicative competence. As Interviewee 1 and Interviewee 2 commented, as language teachers, they should help students achieve their long-term development, educate them as a human but not to produce machines who can only do exercises.

The second group of people (Interviewee 5, Interviewee 6, Interviewee 7, Interviewee 8) realized the importance of fostering students' speaking capability and they tried to stick to their beliefs about teaching English in a more communicative way. However, they exhibited a certain level of deviation according to their description of their actual practice that they have been reminding myself not to be too practical. Interviewee 14 said that instructor should pay more attention to the improvement of students' communication skills. If they do not give students time to speak English, it will only be time shortage before exams.

The third group of teachers (Interviewee 9, Interviewee 10, Interviewee 11, Interviewee 12, Interviewee 13) exemplified a high degree of unfaithfulness regarding the cultivation of students' communication competence. Some extracts are as follows:

Interviewee 9

I want to nurture students' speaking, but it is really hard. And in my view, we should develop more of students' reading and writing skills in undergraduate level.

Interviewee 10

I had thought about it. However, as the final exam approaches, I do not have the energy to do so.

Interviewee 12

I personally think I will teach under the exam guidance. A few teachers displayed a relatively low level of professionalism by admitting that laziness and negative emotion, in fact, have impaired their implementation of TBLT.

Some of their responses are as follows:

Interviewee 8

I am old, so I do not want to learn. I do not want to learn TBLT deeply.

Interviewee 10

I have nothing to pursue.

Interviewee 14

Sometimes I do not spend too much time preparing teaching materials, especially now when I am pregnant. To be honest, sometimes I do not prepare lessons sufficiently.

Interviewee 12

And for convenience reasons, I use the old courseware. People are emotional animals. Therefore, we may have bad mood. This influences my teaching.

Interviewee 1

Both demotivation and motivation were also closely observed and identified as barriers in the implementation of TBLT.

At the same time Interviewee 8 complained that what she had done was not recognized and acknowledged by students, parents, colleagues, and leaders. Henceforth, she was demotivated to devote more efforts. Interviewee 12, however, clarified that his motivation grew more from teaching students to get higher grades. He justified that this granted him a sense of achievement when receiving favourable remarks from others and secured him a place in the classroom.

3.2.3 Classroom-Based Factors

Most participants ascribed the difficulty of adopting TBLT to large class size, which generally brought about classroom management and monitoring problems. When coupled with mixed-ability class, it added paramount difficulties to teachers:

Interviewee 4

I am afraid that my noisy students would disturb neighbouring classes.

Interviewee 14

High-achieving students can always find things to talk, while the low-achieving students usually chat with their neighbours. It is too demanding to monitor and observe each group at the same time. The gap among the students becomes super challenging to design tasks that cater to all students' needs. The male students outnumber the female ones in all classes.

Table 4: Classroom-based factors mentioned by participants

Sr No	Factors
1	Class size
2	Atmosphere

Nevertheless, Interviewee 1 was the only participant who emphasized the importance of class atmosphere. As she said, "You know I once had a class in which the students tended to be silent and did not talk much when I gave them tasks". These situations can be quite discouraging for teachers. However, there are always a few active students in some classes, who can motivate the rest students.

3.2.4 Textbook Factors

Table 5 outlines two factors concerning textbooks.

Table 5: Textbook factors mentioned by participants

Sr No	Factors
1	Types of lesson

Interviewee 1 commented on the types of lessons, when it is a grammar section in the unit, I must sum up important grammar points and sometimes inevitably, give students non-communicative exercises. Interviewee 14, however, highlighted the significance of topics involved in the textbook. She interpreted the topics as Interviewee 7 deterrents of both instructors' and learners' motivation. As she explained that if the topics are fascinating, the teacher would like to spend more time preparing for the class. Students will be demotivated if the topics are not related to their life. Some texts are out-of-date.

3.3 Societal-Institutional Factors

Interviewee 6 was accounted as the overriding reason for the implementation gap. Some practitioners complained, though there are only ten multi choices testing students' grammatical knowledge, some gap-filling questions, listening and writing are all concerned with grammars, like tense. "I have to ask students to recite the words and phrases". (Interviewee 8 and Interviewee 13) "Honestly speaking, we only give students exercises to practice. Doing exercises really improve exam results". (Interviewee 6)

Table 6: Societal-institutional factors mentioned by participants

Sr No	Factors
1	Time shortage
2	Teacher evaluation system
3	Language environment support

Time shortage was also classified as a fundamental factor that constrained teachers' practice of TBLT. Most practitioners reflected that only five classes a week would not suffice for using TBLT, as there was an increasing amount of language points they needed to cover. As Interviewee 11 criticized, as the university only allocates five classes each week. But group discussions and pair work really take time. Especially when the final exam approaches, the teacher really cannot give

students chances to talk when they have not finished the book. It is surprising that most teachers talked about it. Trainings for various levels were reported as being ineffective because they were not applicable. All teaching, and research activities always focus too much on how to analyse the textbook and how to understand writer's purpose. Admittedly learning these is beneficial for high-achieving students. However, there is a constant lack of research on how to effectively teach the low-achieving students. (Interviewee 12). Moreover, Substantial workloads posed difficulty in constructing a supportive environment for TBLT. Some interviewees grumbled; "We spend a lot of time coping with leaders' checking of our attendance. As a senior teacher, I am engaged in too many administrative tasks like attending meetings". (Interviewee 8) "I teach three classes and my daily tasks are preparing teaching materials. Sometimes I really have no time to do lesson plans". (Interviewee 6) "I counted that I need four hours to meticulously prepare for a 50-minute class. However, insisting on it made me both mentally and physically tired. If unfortunately, I have to work overtime at home in the evening". (Interviewee 7) The teachers judged the absence of English-speaking environment, as a challenge undermining teaching and learning.

According to Kachru (1985) three concentric circles model, Myanmar falls into the Expanding circle because English, as a foreign language, is mainly used in restricted circumstances such as in the classroom. Interviewee 8 and Interviewee 11 delivered their opinions respectively, the university has never thought of creating, for example, an English corner for the students to practice English. "I hope you do not mind me saying that the oral English class is just lip service. The leaders do not really know nor care much about the class". Even the teacher was required to learn English with and speak English to students. Although Interviewee 14 enunciated that the timely revision of the textbook might come with, she still considered it indispensable for textbook writers to conduct a more comprehensive and profound needs analysis of both students and teachers. More than half of the teachers expected that the current evaluation system not to be too much exam based. They advocated taking teachers' daily performance in the classroom into consideration. Teachers, generally, called for an increase of teaching hours, allowing them to implement the time-consuming approach and cover all language points simultaneously. Interviewee 7, however, longed for less extra working hours on weekdays. In this way, she could invest more energy and time in lesson planning.

3.4 Teachers' Preferred Solutions to the Implementation Gap

This study also aimed to find out participants' desired solutions to the current problems. Some teachers came up with only one solution, but some raised more than one resolution. Their responses could be summarized in three aspects. From the broadest perspective, almost all interviewees stressed the necessity of overhauling the present high-stakes exam, which was the accepted prerequisite for engendering subsequent changes. Their suggestions included adding speaking as an essential component of the entrance exam, empowering all stakeholders to realize the importance of learning English for communicative purposes. Most of the respondents stressed the impossibility of institutional change at present. However, Interviewee 1 and Interviewee 2 stated that teachers and students should be well prepared for the revolution of the current assessment system. Trainings should also

be geared toward practical needs to enable teachers and students to be real beneficiaries of this prevalent pedagogy. Both Interviewee 3 and Interviewee 7 recommended the mobile learning system, which guaranteed that students were placed at the proper level of their competence and stimulated students' mobility among classes. They appreciated this mode, but they still argued that the student management problems could be an obstacle. Meanwhile, the university could also support learners by simulating an EFL environment to encourage more English use outside of the classroom. Interviewee 1 and Interviewee 2 underlined teachers' obligations to improve themselves by primarily changing their attitudes from teaching for exams to teaching for communicative purposes. A general development of their skills could also be achieved by taking advantage of online resources to enhance English proficiency and lesson planning expertise. Interviewee 11 and Interviewee 4 proposed that teachers could act as a facilitator in reshaping students' view on learning English. Interviewee 6' varied decision appeared reasonable and feasible, i.e., to employ TBLT to develop students' communicative competence in class and to enhance students' academic performance through making use of extra-curricular time. This study has created an abundant source of teachers' implementation of TBLT. By conducting in-depth semi-structured interviews with 21 teachers, respondents' knowledge of TBLT, perceived difficulties in deploying TBLT and possible solutions were generated to breed some tentative insights and summaries.

IV. Discussion

The first research question identified teachers' knowledge of TBLT. Generally, participants lacked an adequate understanding of this pedagogy and their interpretations of 'task' varied substantially. Their responses indicated that TBLT usually involved goals, outcomes and communication in forms of pair work and group discussions. Some even declared an almost total absent knowledge of TBLT. Other reasons could be a noticeable decline of relevant trainings in recent years and teachers' insufficient intrinsic motivation to learn this pedagogy, both of which could account for the unsatisfactory findings.

The second research question examined teachers' insider perceptions of the specific obstacles that prevented the implementation of TBLT in their workplace. The findings echoed previous studies (Deng & Carless, 2010; Hu, 2002a; Li & Baldauf, 2011; Rao, 2002; Yan, 2015) in those constraints like high-stakes exams, student resistance, teachers' proficiency, large class size, mixed-ability class, the evaluation system of the teachers, were all identified within the context. In the same manner, backwash effect of exams was the main factor that posed influences on all stakeholders from all levels. In line with Li and Baldauf's (2011) study, the in-service trainings were reflected as ineffective and impractical in teachers' individual context. The obtainment could be recognized to the author's sympathy with the interviewees, allowing additional hidden factors to be discovered. Remarkably, the findings also suggested that there existed differentiated perceptions of the teachers. Participants seemed to be least affected by exams and displayed positive views and confidence in cultivating students' communicative competence, while those taught mid or low-level classes were explored as being uncertain towards practicing students' communication skills.

The final research question investigated teachers' analyses of potential settlements between the implementation gap and status quo. Other university-level suggestions such as reducing class size and steering the mobile learning system were all observed as being somewhat not entirely applicable and practical. Teachers sought to resolve problems by reflecting on themselves, as they insisted that it was how they could really make a difference.

V. Conclusion

This study has identified teachers' knowledge of TBLT, the problems encountered during the implementation of this pedagogy and their perceived feasible solutions to the difficulties. The findings have been illustrated by semi-structured interviews of 21 teachers. The findings indicate that teachers' understanding of TBLT was limited and varied. The study confirms that contextual factors concerning students, instructors, classroom, university administration and policies continued to apply a great influence on teachers' implementation of TBLT, which proved to echo previous research. However, specific factors reported by teachers differed based on their individual roles and responsibilities. It also suggests that teachers displayed both qualities and conflicts when required to raise some viable solutions.

VI. Recommendation

Two recommendations can be derived from this study. First, urgent action needs to be promoted, including reforming the Myanmar education system on a national scale. It is authoritative that the non-communicative assessment should be repaired to meet the new curriculum goal of cultivating students' competence, which can stimulate changes undertaken by all stakeholders, including curriculum developers, textbook writers, administrators, teachers and students. Second, the support and development of teachers need to be reinforced. In-service trainings should be geared towards providing effective and practical solutions to address participants' specific context, which can be accomplished by firstly establishing a database of information about university, teachers, and students. This supports teacher educators in their efforts to find targeted trainings. Myanmar universities are also supposed to experience changes and reforms. The mobile learning system can be successfully introduced if a teaching assistant can be assigned to each class to resolve student management problems. Teachers are also obliged to stick to the belief of fostering a general development of the students. Their determination can be maintained and strengthened if such a belief can go through a 'brainwash' process in trainings and onsite meetings, empowering the recognition and internalization of the view.

VII. The Limitations of the Study

The limitations of this study must be acknowledged. Although the primary goal of this research was not the actual performance of TBLT in the classroom, teachers' responses could be more objective if the study could be triangulated with classroom observations. In addition, the narrow scope of the qualitative study only concerned 21 participants in the selected universities. Generalizations cannot be drawn from the study, given the economic, cultural and demographic diversity of Myanmar. Nevertheless, this in-depth research has therefore, created a valuable point

of reference for language planners, policy makers, administrators, and teachers in understanding a relatively comprehensive status in quo of the implementation gap of TBLT in Myanmar. Above all, practitioners can obtain a profound understanding of and reflect on their teaching practice of TBLT, from which they can, hopefully, find some possible solutions to their individual dilemmas within their capacity.

References

- Adams, R., & Newton, J. (2009). TBLT in Asia: constraints and opportunities. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching* 19.1, 1–17.
- Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: a context approach to language teaching. *ELT Journal* 57.3, 278–287.
- Butler, Y. G. (2011). The implementation of communicative and task-based language teaching in the Asia-Pacific region. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 31, 36–57.
- Deng, C. R., & Carless, D. R. (2010). The communicativeness of activities in a task-based innovation in Guangdong, China. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching* 19, 113–134.
- Deng, C.R., & Carless, D. R. (2010). Examination preparation or effective teaching: conflicting priorities in the implementation of a pedagogic innovation. *Language Assessment Quarterly* 7.4, 285–302.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford, U.K.: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2009). Task-based language teaching: sorting out the misunderstandings. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 19.3, 221–246.
- Hu, G. W. (2002a). Potential cultural resistance to pedagogical imports: the case of communicative language teaching in China. *Language, Culture and Curriculum* 15.2, 93–105.
- Hu, G. W. (2005b). English language education in China: policies, progress, and problems. *Language Policy* 4.1, 5–24.
- Hu, R. (2013). Task-based language teaching: responses from Chinese teachers of English. *TESL-EJ* 16.4, 1–21.
- Lee, S. M. (2005). The pros and cons of task-based instruction in elementary English classes. *English Teaching* 60.2, 185–250.
- Li, M., & Baldauf, R. (2011). Beyond the curriculum: a Chinese example of issues constraining effective English language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* 45.4, 793–803.
- Liao, X. Q. (2004). The need for communicative language teaching in China. *ELT Journal* 58.3, 270–273.
- Littlewood, W. (2004). The task-based approach: some questions and suggestions. *ELT Journal* 58.4, 319–326.
- Liu, W. (2016). The changing pedagogical discourses in China: the case of the foreign language curriculum change and its controversies. *English Teaching: Practice & Critique* 15.1, 74–90.
- Luo, S. Q., & Yi, B. S. (2013). TBLT in China (2001-2011): the current situation, predicament, and future. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics* 2.2, 147–155.

- Meng, Y. (2010). College students' perceptions on the issues of task-based language teaching in Mainland China. *Journal of Language Teaching & Research* 1.4, 434–442.
- Penner, J. (1995). Change and conflict: introduction of the communicative approach in China. *TESL Canada Journal* 12.2, 1–17.
- Rao, Z. (2002). Chinese students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classroom. *System* 30.1, 85–105.
- Scollon, S. (1999). Not to waste word or students: Confucian and Socratic discourse in the tertiary classroom. In E. Hinkel (ed.), *Culture in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 13–27.
- Song, Y. (2009). How can Chinese English teachers meet the challenge of creating a learner-centered, communicative, intercultural classroom to achieve optimal student learning outcomes? *Canadian Social Science* 5.6, 81–91.
- Sun, G. Y., & Cheng, L. Y. (2000). From context to curriculum: a case study of communicative language teaching in China. *TESL Canada Journal* 19.2, 67–86.
- Xie, C. M. (2010). An investigation into the 2003 new English curriculum in China through teachers. *Sino-US English Teaching* 7.8, 30–36.
- Yan, C. (2012). 'We can only change in a small way': a study of secondary English teachers' implementation of curriculum reform in China. *Journal of Educational Change* 13.4, 431–447.
- Yan, C., & He, C. (2012). Bridging the implementation gap: an ethnographic study of english teachers' implementation of the curriculum reform in China. *Ethnography and Education* 7.1, 1–19.
- Yan, C. (2015). 'We can't change much unless the exams change': teachers' dilemmas in the curriculum reform in China. *Improving Schools* 18.1, 5–19.
- Yu, L. (2001). Communicative language teaching in China: progress and resistance. *TESOL Quarterly* 35.1, 194–197.
- Zheng, X., & Borg, S. (2014). Task-based learning and teaching in China: secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language Teaching Research* 18.2, 205–221.

Theoretical Framework for Task-based language teaching for e-learning during the lockdown period of Corona Viru

Pham Vu Phi Ho

Assoc. Prof. Dr. & Associate dean of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Van Lang University, Vietnam

Abstract

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an educational framework for language teaching practices and has long been employed in the traditional language classroom. However, few studies have reported how to design tasks that work in the technological learning environment. This study aims to inform the trends of research in TBLT, including task types and their effects on the students' language learning. Finally, this paper presents the task design model developed by professor Jozef Colpaert, including the task design processes, task types, and autonomy. This paper suggests future research studies to test the validation of the task design model with empirical evidence.

Keywords: Task-based language teaching, task design, task design model, task types, autonomy

Oral Presentation

Translanguaging as a Learning Strategy in a Northeastern EFL Classroom in Thailand

Okoye R. Chukwuemeka / Eric A. Ambele

English Language Teaching Programme, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences,
Mahasarakham University, Thailand

Abstract

The purpose of the study is to better understand the learning and teaching goals in the context of English as a foreign language. Other goals include determining the extent to which the English language has been assimilated and used as Thailand's first language, to understanding the different learning strategies which can be used in an EFL classroom and to investigate the role played by the use of translanguaging method as a learning strategy in an EFL classroom. EFL context focuses on teaching English Language as a Foreign Language in a classroom which is in a non-English-speaking country. Based on the definition, teaching English language to students in Thailand who are learning English are considered EFL students because English is not the country's official language. EFL is teaching or learning English Language and also using English language as an additional language in a non-English speaking country, EFL is somewhat different from ESL.

ESL focuses on students learning English Language in a country where the language is already a first language; it is the official language of the place. The goal of EFL include acquisition of linguistic and cultural knowledge related to academic settings, expanding academic vocabulary, develop confidence in speaking/listening and reading/writing, including formal and informal registers, learning to monitor and self-correct their linguistic output, developing fluency in the use of higher-level grammatical structures, learning to "think" in the target language and acquire phonological and phonetic knowledge of the sound system of English. English language as a foreign language have moved away from classic approach which focuses on analyzing the language such as grammar translation method to newer/modern approaches such as communicative language teaching. Based on newer models and methods which can be used in teaching English language as a foreign language, translanguaging has been holistically adopted as a linguistically bilingual practice and a pedagogical approach which can be effectively used in teaching and learning. The results shows that The use of translanguaging learning approach on Thailand has evolved over a period of time due to the need, use and growth of English language propagation in the country. In the EFL classroom in Thailand, learners are asked by teachers to perform task that resembles various real-life situations through the use of English Language. The most important reason behind the combination of both English Language and other Thai languages is for the learner to acquire the target language in a way whereby the learner make use of the language as a new LMI.

Keywords: Translanguaging, Learning strategy, Performance, Attitude

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

The growth of English as a global language has prompted academics to argue for a paradigm shift in English language teaching pedagogy to reflect the 21st century's new sociolinguistic context (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021). Teaching English language is becoming an important aspect in every culture or economy due to the increased global use of English in communication in different transactions and other international activities which include scholarly pursuits, professional development and most importantly of international relations. Ooi and Aziz (2021) argued that the use of English language and the teaching of English language as a foreign language in countries with other major languages is increasingly important due to the many positives associated to it which have been highlighted. The authors opined that an estimated 375 million people globally learn English language as a foreign language, and they are either multilingual or bilinguals. Alanawi (2019) implied that many countries especially in South East Asia, Middle East and Africa have either adopted the language as either a first or second language. Many institutions of educational learning have taken keen interest in the act of teaching English language. In the process of learning English language as a foreign language many English teachers and schools have adopted various strategies towards the effectiveness in the learning process. Ooi and Aziz (2021) stated that teachers have continually practiced various standards and even classic English language teaching (ELT) methodology in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) to teach the target language. The growth of technologies and other advancement have brought about many learning strategies which have been adopted and effectively used. According to Yuzlu & Dikilitas; Ambele & Watson Todd (2021) learning English language as a foreign language has moved away from classic approach which focuses on analyzing the language such as grammar translation method to newer/modern approaches such as communicative language teaching. Based on newer models and methods which can be used in teaching English language as a foreign language, translanguaging has been holistically adopted as a linguistically bilingual practice and a pedagogical approach which can be effectively used in teaching and learning. The teaching model can be used as a transformative bilingual/multilingual practice which does not take into account the socially and politically defined language, labels or boundaries. Translanguaging in teaching English language as a foreign language has played hugely important roles towards the promotion, the normalization of the concept of practicing bilingual studying and furthermore (Champlin, 2016). It has helped in the stimulation of newer pedagogical approaches which has brought about the use of the different languages in English as a foreign language classroom. Referring to the view of Danping (2019) that the use of translanguaging in many institutions has served as a foundational element which has helped in the creation of various theoretical applications in multilingual pedagogical stance which accepts the various types of both linguistic and semiotic inventions for both teachers and students to adequately learn English language in a EFL classroom. Translanguaging language ideology can be effectively adopted in various classrooms due to the dynamic nature and the provision of various pedagogical perspective to make learning easy. Based on the importance of English language as a global language, this academic paper focuses on the use of translanguaging as a learning strategy in an English as a foreign language

classroom in Northern Thailand. The reason for adopting the language as major tenet of the study is based on goals of many learners in Thailand which is to either adopt a British or American English language. The dormant use of English language in an EFL classroom might not be an effective/viable approach in practicality and this brought about the adoption of translanguaging learning methodology.

Based on this study, the study will focus on the teaching and learning goals in the context English as a first language. Furthermore, the paper will discuss English as a lingua franca in Thailand and learning strategies which can be adopted in an EFL classroom. Finally, the concept of translanguaging will be fully defined and discussed. The discussion will also be based on translanguaging as a learning strategy in an EFL classroom.

1.2 Objectives of the study

This academic paper focuses on investigating the following;

- i. To understand the learning and teaching goals in English as a foreign language setting
- ii. To understand the extent in which English Language has been absorbed and use as the first language in Thailand
- iii. To understanding the different learning strategies which can be used in an EFL classroom
- iv. To investigate the role played by the use of translanguaging practice as a learning strategy in an EFL classroom

2. Learning strategies in English as a Foreign Language classroom in Thailand

2.1 Teaching and learning goals in EFL context

The term EFL context focuses on teaching English Language as a Foreign Language in a classroom which is in a non-English-speaking country. Based on the definition, teaching English language to students in Thailand who are learning English are considered EFL students because English is not the country's official language. Furthermore, Zarrabi (2018) posited that EFL is teaching or learning English Language and also using English language as an additional language in a non-English speaking country. The author further asserts that EFL is somewhat different from ESL. The author opined that ESL focuses on students learning English Language in a country where the language is already a first language; it is the official language of the place. Some authors refer to the process as TEFL which stands for Teaching English as a Foreign Language. According to Uddin (2019) the term EFL describes the study of English language by speakers who are non-natives and in countries where English Language is not the number one language. Nordquist (2020) inferred that based on expanding circle of theory, English Language speakers and where the language is spoken can be categorized into three concentric circles and they include inner circle, out circle and expanding circle. The author described the inner circle as native English speakers. Outer circle are those countries which have based on historical antecedents have adopted the language as a second language or simply called Lingua Franca and finally based on the circle, the countries whereby English language is spoken but not widely spoken by locals and natives is called the expanding circle. Based on the above definitions of the three circles, Nordquist (2020)

posit that English is a native language in the inner circle (ENL), a second language in the outer circle (ESL) and a foreign language in an expanding circle (EFL).

Nordquist (2020) and Zarrabi (2018) listed various goals of teaching and learning English language as a foreign language (EFL). The authors opined that goal of the EFL Program is focused on the creation of various curricula and instructional materials which will help students and achieving the following;

- i. Acquire linguistic and cultural knowledge related to academic settings –**
 This goals focuses on gaining certain cultural knowledge about the origin of English language. Learners of the language are exposed to information which will help them to get some knowledge about the people, cultural and way of life of the native speakers
- ii. Expand academic vocabulary –** This is one of the most important reasons behind learning and teaching English language in an EFL classroom. Expansion of vocabulary which will help in the communication process of learners and teachers. In defining the term academic vocabulary, Nordquist (2020) suggested that academic vocabulary are words which are traditionally used in academic dialogue and text. The author also asserts that academic vocabulary are words that are not frequently seen or used and are not necessarily common when engaging in an informal conversation. With learning English in an EFL context, learners will be able to communication adequately and improve in their communicative words.
- iii. Develop confidence in speaking/listening and reading/writing, including formal and informal registers –** Another interesting goal of teaching English is to give a sense of confidence to learner when they communicate and speak the language. Furthermore, it helps learners and instructors in read English language and write effectively. The ability to effectively communicate goes a long way in instilling confidence to the learner and help them to achieve so much.
- iv. Learn to monitor and self-correct their linguistic output –** By making use of English in an EFL context, teachers will be able to monitor how learners speak, make use of the language based on tenses and other aspects of the learning experience. When constant communication is carried out with the use of English even when teaching other subjects, correction of learners when the language is used wrongly can be carried out.
- v. Develop fluency in the use of higher-level grammatical structures –** With constant use of the language, learners are able to become fluent in the language. The idea behind achieving fluency is based on the idea of constant practice. With constant practice, learners learn how to use higher level grammatical structures. Continually use of vocabulary, back and forth corrections and application, learners are more equipped to use higher word, make use of English structures and features and also become better in the long run.
- vi. Learn to “think” in the target language –** This goal help learners to use the language without heavily relying on their first or native language. Through continual learning and practice, learners are able to adequately express themselves in the foreign language without switching to the native

language to express a certain. Learning increases the rate of doing something and with continual usage of English in these classrooms, learners can think with the idea of an English language native speakers.

vii. Acquire phonological and phonetic knowledge of the sound system of English –

Continual practice brings about acquisition of deep knowledge about the of the sound usage of the language.

Finally, for teachers in EFL classrooms to achieve the following goals, according to Phonhan (2016) EFL teachers must have excellent interpersonal communication skills, an attitude of flexibility, make use of appropriate classroom management, make use of meaning lessons and be culturally aware of both the culture of the country and the English culture. Phonhan (2016) argued that the teacher must be enthusiastic about the learning process and constantly exude positive energy in the process of teaching. An attitude of flexibility is necessary for effectiveness in the teaching process in an EFL classroom. The use of an appropriate classroom management systems will help in the teaching process.

EFL learning in Thailand

English as a foreign language learning in Thailand has come a long way. English as foreign language can be learned in these classrooms through the use of grammar vocabulary and the use of words and phrases (Sukman and Mhunkongde, 2021). Sukman and Mhunkongde (2021) stated that learning of English language in English as a foreign language classroom focuses on the studying of sentence structure, verb conjugation and the uses of words and phrases. Based on the explanation above, English learning has focused in providing more emphasis on the development of the communication skills of students. Uddin (2018) suggested that teaching has focused on the use of direct method and the adoption of audio-lingual method. Phonhan (2016) also stated that the study of English language is compulsory for Thai students especially in secondary level of education. The country makes use of learner's centered approach to learning in English as foreign language classrooms. In some instances, English language is taught by using both native language and English language at the same time to teach (Songirisak, 2017).

In the process of teaching English language in EFL classrooms in Thailand, According to Sukman and Mhunkongde (2021) and Phonhan (2016) teachers of English language encourages the act of asking questions which signifies the need for participation of all learners in the process of learning. Phonham (2016) argued that sharing knowledge and using the language is always consistent. Furthermore, just like other ASEAN countries, English language is used in mostly all the activities which are carried out in the schools. Songirisak (2017) also opined that teacher in EFL classrooms make use of mote memorization method which means that teachers of English language in Thailand do not often stray away from the books and the teachers are just the instrument in which English lessons are passed down from a more formal source. The author further implied that English grammar and conversation lessons often make use of worksheet which have list of rules which students are often told to memorize and even copy. Based on this strategy, most Thai learners in EFL classrooms do not have the opportunity to interact which will often limit them to make English language their own or even learn it in an individual manner. Furthermore, Sukman and Mhunkongde (2021) suggested that English language

learning in EFL classrooms face the issue of minimal English writing practice. The authors stated that even though Thai students are often required to write essays in class, often times they do not get much time to practice the entire writing process which includes brainstorming, drafting and editing essays. They just go through the various steps of preparing an essay and they turn it in.

2.2 English as a Lingua Franca in Thailand

Thailand was not colonized by the British, or any other European power unlike other countries in South-East Asia. Based on this revelation, Thailand has had a comparatively short history of involvement with the English language (Wathana, 2015). Baker (2012) further suggested that the official use of English in Thailand is generally attributed to the reign of Rama III (1824-1851) who regarded it as a necessity in dealing with the increasing presence of British colonial power and as a force for modernization. His successor who was King Mongkut, Rama IV followed suite in enforcing the use of the language as an official language. It should be noted that in these times, the use of English was largely restricted to the court up until 1921 when it was introduced to the school curriculum (Baker, 2012).

At its introduction into the curriculum of education, the use of the language was predominantly treated as an academic subject and not an effective means of communication (Baker, 2012). In 1996 it was made a compulsory subject for all primary schools. This was followed by the 1999 Education Act and the subsequent National Education Curriculum implemented in 2002 which placed English at the forefront of national intellectual development. Given that Thailand does not have a history of colonization by the British and that English is not an official language in the country, Thailand is typically classified as an 'expanding circle' country (Wathana, 2015) in which English is used as a means of intercultural communication. Importantly such a classification also entails that Thailand is a norm dependent country which does not have its own variety of English and which does not use English for intra-cultural communication. English is thus perceived as an essential lingua franca which links Thailand culturally, intellectually and commercially with other ASEAN countries and the rest of the world. Indeed, English is increasingly referred to as the lingua franca in the Thai setting (Baker, 2012). This expansion in the use of English has resulted in it being viewed as a necessary skill and status symbol for the urban middle classes. The increasing role of English in Thai society has not been unproblematic. Most notable has been the uneven spread of English. While, as previously mentioned, English has been widely adopted as a lingua franca by the urban middle classes, this has not been the case in rural or poorer communities where access to English education is limited. Furthermore, the need for English in rural communities away from tourism or international business is also limited (Wathana, 2015).

This characterization of English in Thailand has a number of important implications for our understanding of the role of English. Most significantly the use of English as a lingua franca challenges previous concepts of English in Thailand. EFL represents a paradigm shift in understanding language use which moves away from the traditional foreign language paradigm (Baker, 2012). Rather than viewing users of English as an L2 as deficient in comparison to NES, EFL users are seen as proficient multilingual communicators with their own repertoire of linguistic and communicative resources.

2.3 Learning strategies in EFL contexts

Language learning is a global phenomenon which is adapted and used globally. Hardan (2013) defined language learning strategy as the continuous approaches, steps and often times behaviors which are used by language learners and tutors to help in the process of acquisition of the language, storage of the language, recall the language and the effective use of the new information which have been gotten in the learning process. The author further implied that language learning strategies are adopted and used to adequately enhance and also facilitate the acquisition of language. Referring to the view of Habok and Magyar (2018) Language learning strategies are activities, steps and technical knowhow which are used by learners to enhance their learning. The authors further implied that the actions and steps which are mostly applied include the act of seeking out the conversation partner in which the target language will be used and giving oneself the needed encouragement, which can be used in tackling the difficult language. According to Lee and Heinz (2016) language learning strategies (LLS) is the special thought-out plan which individuals make use of to adequately comprehend, learn and also retain new information based on the target language. The authors argued that the strategies are focused on acquiring the knowledge and other steps which can be effectively used to make use of the information and the target language.

The definition provided by Kussin, Omar and Kopol (2018) is based on language learning behaviors. The authors posit that language learning strategies focus on learning and regulating the meaning of a foreign language, cognitive theory and the affective views. The cognitive theory can be seen such as the learner's strategic knowledge of language learning while the affective focuses on the learner's motivation and overall attitude.

Finally, based on the definition of language learning strategies, referring to the view Hardan (2013) language learning is specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques which are frequently used by students to effectively seek improvement in their progress in L2 developing skills. The progress is focused on the internalization, storage retrieval and effective use of the new language which has been gotten.

2.2.1. Aspects of Language Learning Strategies

Learners adopt and learn foreign languages with the use of three broad language learning strategies and they include learning strategies, communication strategies and social strategies. Hardan (2013) stated that these broad groups of language learning strategies cover the basic and advanced learning strategies which have been adopted.

Learning Strategies

Hardan (2013) opined that learning strategies are divided into two basic types, and they include the following;

- i. Cognitive learning strategies
- ii. Metacognitive learning strategies

Su (2018) opined that cognitive learning strategies focus on the steps which are used by learning towards problem solving. The learning strategies focus on the direct analysis of the study or learning materials, transformation and synthesis of the materials which are used for learning. Sun and Li (2019) posit that the cognitive learning strategies can be effectively identified based on six categories and they include classification/verification strategy, guessing/inductive inferencing strategy,

deductive reasoning strategy, practicing strategy, memorization strategy and monitoring strategy. Based on metacognitive language learning strategies, Hardan (2013) argued that these strategies are often adopted to help oversee, regulate or self-direct language learning. In this learning strategy processes such as planning, prioritization, goal setting and management of self are effectively adopted in the process of foreign language learning.

Communication Strategies

Lee and Heinz (2016) stated that communicative learning strategies are based on the processes of learners participating in a conversation and the ability to effectively get the meaning of something to the speaker. Sun and Li (2019) also argued that the learning strategy is focuses on classification of what is intended by the speaker. Based on this language learning strategies, Hardan (2013) implied that the communication strategies are adopted by speakers when they are faced with various forms of difficulties which is due to the fact that their "communicative ends outrun their means of communication". The author also implied that the communicative strategy is also used when a speaker is confronted with the inability to fully understand a co-speaker in the communicative process.

Social Strategies

Habok and Magya (2018) assert that these learning strategies are activities which are engaged by learners. It provides them the opportunity to seek exposure and effectively practice the foreign language. Even though these learning strategies help in exposing the learners to the target language, their contribution is an indirect contribution due to the fact that they do not lead to the direct obtaining, storing, retrieving and usage of the targeted language.

Based on the studies carried out in Oxford in 1990, language learning strategies can also be broadly divided into two classes and they are;

- i. Direct language learning strategies
- ii. Indirect language learning strategies.

Hardan (2013) stated that Oxford's two broad language learning strategies can also be subdivided into six taxonomy of language learning strategies. Direct learning strategies are divided in three strategies while indirect learning strategies are also subdivided into three. Direct language learning strategy can be sub divided into memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Memory strategies focus on the following;

- i. It focuses on creating a mental linkage between the learner and the foreign language
- ii. It makes use of images and sounds
- iii. The strategies enable learners to review the processes well
- iv. The strategy also focuses on the employment of different actions.

Based on the cognitive aspect of direct language learning strategy, Hardan (2013) listed the different aspects of the cognitive based strategy and they include;

- i. The strategy focuses on continual practicing
- ii. It also focuses on the receiving and sending of messages
- iii. Analyzing and reasoning of language
- iv. Creation of structures for effective input and output

The last direct form of language learning strategies is compensation strategies. According to Hardan (2013), the learning strategy it involves guessing in an

intelligent manner and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing. Furthermore, the indirect language learning statics include three sub-divisions and they include metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social statics. Metacognitive strategies focus on centering the process of learning, arrangement and planning of the learning process and evaluating the entire learning process. Affective strategies focus on lowering learner's anxiety, encouraging oneself and consistently checking the eventual temperature of learners. Finally, social strategies focus on the act of asking questions, cooperation between different learners and empathizing with the learners.

2.2.2. Good Language Learners

Maftoona and Seyyed (2012) stated that taking into the basic and adaptive characteristics of a good language learner will increase the likelihood of an income to excel in the act of learning a second language. The authors posit that the major interest in language learning strategies is based on the desire to understand the underlying characteristics of a good language learner. Referring to the view of Maftoon and Seyyed (2012) the process of good language learning focuses on the active role and participation of the learner in the learning process. Hardan (2013) posit that a good learner makes use of good and proper strategies which leads to the accurate knowledge acquisition. According to Maftoon and Seyyed (2012), a good language learner makes use of these different language learning strategies and they include the following;

- i. Active task approach – In this strategy, the good language learner is actively involved in the entire language learning process and task which have been given.
- ii. There is a realization that language is a system – A god language learner focuses on developing strategies to take advantage of the system characteristics of language.
- iii. Means of communication and interaction – A good language learner has come into a realization that language is an effective means of communication and interaction.
- iv. Management of effective demand – There is an initial realization or with time that towards effective learning, a learner must learn to cope with the affective demands which is made upon them by language learning and also focus on succeeding in the process of learning.
- v. A good language learner also focuses on monitoring his or her performances based on the target language. Maftoon and Seyyed (2012) and Hardan (2013) argued that the most frequently used techniques which are used by good language learners include having close contact with the native speakers of the target language, listening to the language via radio, television and records, watching movies and listening to commercials, reading magazines, newspapers, professional articles, comics, making up bilingual vocabulary chart and focus on memorizing them and finally, following the various rules which have been provided in grammar books of the target language.

3. Tranlanguaging

3.1 Defining translanguaging

Translanguaging was initially equated with code-switching (Kanpittlayatal, 2018). However, at a later stage, the two concepts were distinguished in theory and practice. Theoretically, translanguaging assumes a heteroglossic view in which bilinguals use their entire linguistic repertoire to make meaning. Code-switching, on the other hand, expresses a monologic view in which bilinguals switch between two language systems (Ooi and Aziz, 2021). Moreover, translanguaging is rooted in Cummins' (1979) theory of 'interdependence', which states that the degree of mastery of the L2 the learner's development in the L1 (Ranjendram, 2021). Code-switching is considered to be a product of L1 interference, which usually has a negative impact on second language teaching and learning (Alsaawi, 2019; Boonsuk & Ambele, 2020). In practice, translanguaging has been established as a pedagogical strategy in language learning and teaching. Code-switching, on the other hand, signals switching back and forth between languages in all kinds of situational contexts (Ambele et al, 2021), which is rarely institutionally endorsed or pedagogically underpinned. In the classroom, code-switching is seen as embarrassing, fraught with dilemmas, feeling guilt and a waste of our bilingual resources as the languages contaminate each other (Champlin, 2016). Instead, translanguaging is seen as a more flexible pedagogical approach to learning and teaching, where 'ideas can be more easily communicated, understood and shared' (Lewis et al. 2012: 649). Moreover, the concept of translanguaging has recently attracted the attention of educators in North America, Africa, Asia, and Europe. As a result, according to Ambele, (2020) the concept has expanded from pedagogical practices to everyday cognitive processing, from classroom instruction to all contexts of a bilingual's life. With this in mind, the term translanguaging has been expanded to include how bilinguals make sense of their world through the use of the two languages in a bilingual community, "when properly interpreted and practiced in school, as a means of enhancing students' cognitive, linguistic, and literacy skills. Prilutskaya, Ambele and Watson Todd (2021) distinguishes between code-switching, translation, and translanguaging because, unlike code-switching and translation, translanguaging "is not merely a means to support scaffold instruction, to make sense of learning and language; rather, translanguaging is part of the metadiscursive regimes that students must perform in the twenty-first century. With this in mind, bilingual/multilingual teachers and students should view their natural translanguaging practice as a valuable (rather than a shameful) tool and use utilize it as an effective learning and teaching method in multilingual classrooms.

3.2 Translanguaging as a learning strategy in EFL contexts

Based on recent studies, only a handful of authors and researchers have explored the use of translanguaging teaching methodological practice in the EFL classroom, response of students and the awareness of teachers and their respective attitudes towards the use of the method in an EFL context. Based on the many recent findings, the need for further research to address whether teachers and students in EFL contexts are familiar with translanguaging. Translanguaging have been found to help language learning in a different way unlike what is seen in traditional learning approach to EFL. According to Lopez et al (2017), translanguaging as an EFL learning method does not inhibit the learning of the language, but proves the opposite.

Which means that through translanguageing, teachers teach students how to demonstrate the possibility of creating the students' own repertoires through scaffolding during learner-learner interaction. From another point of view, Dampling (2019) opined that translanguageing is used as tool for meaning making in the classroom. The findings of the study carried out by the authors showed that there is an abundance of teacher and student translanguageing occurrences which can play an important role in understanding different L2 notions. Furthermore, and based on analyzing language attitudes in the field of classroom translanguageing, Yuzlu et al (2021) focuses on providing various insights into the attitudes of teachers towards their and students translanguageing in an ESL classroom and to uncover information regarding any use of several practices. The results suggest that teachers hold this practice to be of extreme importance in a language learning environment. Furthermore, the author found out that there is an imbalance between teachers' attitudes towards translanguageing and the practice in the classroom. Many other approaches and studies have found out that the use of translanguageing is efficient in helping students to perform better and more efficient.

3.3 Translanguageing in Thai EFL classroom

The use of translanguageing learning approach on Thailand has evolved over a period of time due to the need, use and growth of English language propagation in the country. The use of task-based learning is also adopted when making use of translanguageing teaching approach. In the EFL classroom in Thailand, learners are asked by teachers to perform task that resembles various real-life situations through the use of English Language (Kamolwan, 2021) Teachers in Thai EFL classroom make use of Thai as the central LMI and English language is therefore used when words in English are being used (Liu, 2021). English language is also used in read aloud situations and in instances where English language rules are being referred to when teaching. The most important reason behind the combination of both English Language and other Thai languages is for the learner to acquire the target language in a way whereby the learner make use of the language as a new LMI (Kampittayakul, 2018). Liu and Fang (2021) suggested that based on the inter used of the different languages in the classroom, the learner is given the opportunity to fully interact with their teachers with the use of English Language and learners when they feel inadequate and resort to speaking their local languages, they are not in any way reprimanded. The process is aimed at facilitating interaction in the classroom and also help slow learners and all learners to be part of the learning process.

4. Conclusion

This academic paper focuses on understand the learning and teaching goals English as a foreign language. Other objectives include to understand the extent in which English Language has been absorbed and use as the first language in Thailand, to understanding the different learning strategies which can be used in an EFL classroom and to investigate the role played by the use of translanguageing method as a learning strategy in an EFL classroom. Learning. English language in EFL classrooms in Thailand found out that English language encourages the act of asking questions which signifies the need for active participation of all learners in the process of learning. The review found out that sharing knowledge and actively using the English language which has been learnt in class is always consistent. Furthermore, just like other ASEAN countries, English language is used in mostly all the activities which

are carried out in the schools in Thailand. In Thailand, English language is a foreign language which means that the language is actually the lingua franca of the country. English language as a foreign language have moved away from classic approach which focuses on analyzing the language such as grammar translation method to newer/modern approaches such as communicative language teaching. Based on newer models and methods which can be used in teaching English language as a foreign language, translanguaging has been holistically adopted as a linguistically bilingual/multilingual practice and a pedagogical approach which can be effectively used in teaching and learning.

References

- Ambele, E & Boonsuk, Y. (2020). Voices of learners in Thai ELT classrooms: a wake-up call towards teaching English as a lingua franca. *Asian Englishes*, 23, 1-17. 10.1080/13488678.2020.1759248.
- Ambele, E.A., & Watson Todd, R. (2021). Translanguaging patterns in everyday urban conversations in Cameroon. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 2022, 181 - 197.
- Alsaawi, A. (2019). Translanguaging in the Case of Bilingual University Students. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 9, 6, 281 – 289
- Baker, W. (2012). English as a Lingua Franca in Thailand: Characterizations and Implications. *Englishes in Practice*, 1(1), 1 – 11
- Boonsuk, Y., & Ambele, E. A. (2021). Towards integrating lingua franca in Thai EFL: Insights from Thai tertiary learners. *International Journal of Instruction*, 14(3), 17-38. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2021.1432a>
- Boonsuk, Y., Ambele, E & Mckinley, Jim. (2021). Developing Awareness of Global Englishes: Moving away from 'native standards' for Thai university ELT. *System*, 99, 102511. 10.1016/j.system.2021.102511.
- Champlin, M. J. (2016). Translanguaging and Bilingual Learners: A Study of How Translanguaging Promotes Literacy Skills in Bilingual Students. *Education Masters. Paper 323.*, 1 – 20
- Damping, W. (2019). Researching Classroom Translanguaging. *Multilingualism and Translanguaging in Chinese Language Classrooms, Palgrave Studies in Teaching and Learning Chinese*, 97 – 108. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-02529-8_5
- Duarte, J., García-Jimenez, E., McMonagle, S., Hansen, A., Gross., Szelei, N and Sofia, A. (2021). Research priorities in the field of multilingualism and language education: a cross-national examination. *Journal of multilingual and multicultural development*, 2(1), 1- 15
- Kamolwan, B. (2021). The role of translanguaging in teaching English language in Thailand. *Journal of linguistic studies*, 10(1), 10 - 22
- Kampittayakul, T. (2018). The Role of Translanguaging in Improving Thai learners' Interactional Competence in Dyadic English as a Foreign Language Tutorial Sessions, *PASAA*, 6(1), pp 81 – 113
- Lin, Z and Lei, L. (2020). The Research Trends of Multilingualism in Applied Linguistics and Education (2000–2019): A Bibliometric Analysis. *Sustainability*, 12, 1 – 13

- Liu, Y and Fan, F (2021). Translanguaging Theory and Practice: How Stakeholders Perceive Translanguaging as a Practical Theory of Language. *RELC Journal*, Project: Effectiveness of the Implementation of English as a Medium of Instruction in Higher Education of Guangdong Province
- Lopez, A.A., Turkan, S and Guzman-Orth, D. (2017). Conceptualizing the Use of Translanguaging in Initial Content Assessments for Newly Arrived Emergent Bilingual Students. *ETS Research Report Series*, 1 – 16
- Meier, G. S. (2017). The multilingual turn as a critical movement in education: assumptions, challenges and a need for reflection. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 8(1): 131–161
- Nordquist, R. (2020). English as a foreign language (EFL). *Languages*, 5(1), 1 – 20
- Ooi, W. Z., & Aziz, A. A. (2021). Translanguaging Pedagogy in the ESL Classroom: A Systematic Review. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 10(3), 676–709.
- Prilukstaya, M., Ambele, E.A & Watson Todd, R (2021). Examining Pedagogical Translanguaging: A Systematic Review of the Literature. *Languages*, 6(180), 1 – 18
- Rajendram, S. (2021): Translanguaging as an agentic pedagogy for multilingual learners: affordances and constraints, *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 2(3), 1 – 30
- Saeed, M.A., Ghazali, K and Aljaberi, M.A. (2018). A review of previous studies on ESL/EFL learners' interactional feedback exchanges in face-to-face and computer-assisted peer review of writing. *International Journal of Educational Technology in Higher Education*, 15(6), 1 - 25
- Songiriaki, P. (2017). Non-native English-Speaking Teachers: Uncovering Thai EFL Teachers' Instructional Practices in an International Program of Thai University. *Journal of Education, Mahasarakham University*, 11(4), 125 – 140
- Sukman, K and Mhunkongdee, T. (2021). Thai EFL learners' voices on learning English online during the covid-19 pandemic. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 9(2), 1-9,
- Uddin, M. (2019). Acquiring English in EFL Classroom: Role of Literature. *English Language and Literature Studies*, 9(1), 17 – 24
- Yuzlu, M.Y and Dikilitas, K. (2021). Translanguaging in the development of EFL learners' foreign language skills in Turkish context. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 2(1), 1 – 16
- Yusop Boonsuk & Eric A. Ambele. (2020). Who 'owns English' in our changing world? Exploring the perception of Thai university students in Thailand, *Asian Englishes*, 22:3, 297-308, DOI: 10.1080/13488678.2019.1669302
- Wathana, A. (2015). English as Lingua Franca and its status in Thailand: Implications for teaching English pronunciation. *The journal of Asian Critical education*, 3(1), 1 – 15

The Effects of a Shadowing Technique on EFL Learners' Listening Skills

Nayada Thongmak¹ / Supaporn Yimwilai²

Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand

E-mail: Nayada.Thongmak@g.swu.ac.th

Abstract

This research was designed to 1) examine the effects of a shadowing technique on EFL learners' listening skills, 2) examine the effects of the school-based instruction on EFL learners' listening skills, and 3) compare the effects of a shadowing technique to those of the school-based instruction on EFL learners' listening skills. The participants included 76 eighth-grade learners in Ranong, divided into two groups: learners taught by a shadowing technique and learners taught by the school-based instruction. The instruments included lesson plans and a listening skills test. Mean scores, standard deviations, and the *t*-test analysis were used to analyze the data. The results reveal the effectiveness of both teaching methods. That is, there were statistically significant differences in the pretest and posttest mean scores of learners taught by a shadowing technique ($t(37) = -3.5457, p < 0.05$) and learners taught by the school-based instruction ($t(37) = -3.1817, p < 0.05$). When compared the effects of a shadowing technique to those of the school-based instruction, the mean scores of the learners taught by a shadowing technique were significantly higher than the learners taught by the school-based instruction. This study pointed out that a shadowing technique can be an alternative method to enhance listening skills.

Keywords: shadowing technique, EFL learners, listening skills,
school-based instruction

Introduction

Listening is the first skill that learners of any language need to acquire. According to Sevik (2012: 328), learners who learn a second or foreign language (FL) will first hear, then talk, and then learn how to read and write. Besides, listening is also important to improve other skills in a foreign language (Ghanbari & Hashemian, 2014). This is because listening skills act as a bridge when learning to speak, read, and write. In other words, listening skills are a basic part of learning other skills. Furthermore, listening skills are the most frequently used. Many research studies showed that people spend 40-50% of their time on listening, 25-30% on speaking, 11-16% on reading, and only 9% on writing (Latha, 2018; Morley, 1990). To sum up, listening skills are the first basic communication skill in learning a foreign language that can act as a bridge to learn other skills. Therefore, it is essential to improve learners' listening skills before other communication skills.

Many studies show that although Thai learners spend 12 years learning English, the results were not impressive. Teaching methods have mainly focused on grammar and translation rather than communication skills (Noom-Ura, 2013). When compared to neighboring countries, such as Malaysia and Indonesia, the English skills of Thai learners are lower than others. Although listening skills are very important, they are not received much attention in Thailand where reading and grammar are the

dominant features in Thailand (Ratanapruks, 2015). Also, Choomthong (2014) Stated that with the emphasis on entrance examinations such as GAT (General Aptitude Test) of English skills which only require reading and grammar skills in multiple-choice format, the importance of listening skills has been overlooked. This leads to difficulty when Thai learners communicate with foreigners. For these reason, most Thai learners continue to have problems when communicating with foreigners, especially in listening skills even though they have been studying English for years. Therefore, listening skills should receive more attention to develop communication skills.

Many scholars have suggested methods to improve learners' listening skills, and one of those is "a shadowing technique." According to Hamada (2016), a shadowing technique is an active and highly cognitive activity in which learners can track speech vocalization as clearly as possible when they hear it. The pioneer of a shadowing technique, Tamai (1992) described a shadowing technique as the act of rehearsing information that one hears in a visible way, which is normally done invisibly in the subvocal rehearsal. To sum up, a shadowing technique is a learning process that requires and allows learners to shadow what they hear and to vocalize it in order to practice their listening skills.

Various scholars support a shadowing technique because of many reasons. Firstly, it effectively stimulates the listening strategies--bottom-up, top-down, and interactive processing because it reinforces the phonological loop process in the working memory of learners that leads to improving listening skills. This means that a shadowing technique supports learners' cognitive resources as well as working memory system capacity (Kadota, 2007). In other words, learners can deal with the various aspects of the incoming sounds. Secondly, a shadowing technique also helps improve the learners' communication skills. Hsieh et al. (2013) suggest that a shadowing technique offers more opportunities for learners to speak by repeating the messages, which allows learners to convey and express their own opinions. Besides, a shadowing technique helps to reduce anxiety in class (Chung, 2010). This, in turn, fosters self-confidence and eases anxiety in classrooms. In addition, by practicing a shadowing technique, learners are able to correctly produce different sounds and improve their pronunciation skills. This can help them gain more confidence in public speaking.

There are many studies on a shadowing technique in language classrooms. Most of these studies focused on speaking skills. For example, the study of Yavari and Shafiee (2019) aimed to enhance the speaking fluency of EFL learners by using the shadowing technique. The results revealed that the post-test scores were significantly higher than the pre-test score. Similarly, Hsieh et al. (2013) studied the effects of the shadowing technique on English pronunciation. The findings revealed that the learners had significant improvement in intonation, fluency, word pronunciation, and overall pronunciation. From the previous research studies discussed above, these studies provide a broad view and in-depth knowledge of a shadowing technique, which has been used among various demographics. However, studies that combine a shadowing technique with listening skills are still limited, especially in Thailand. Therefore, this study examined the effects of shadowing on EFL learners' listening skills.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study benefit language teachers and educators in improving learners' listening skills. It will provide an alternative method for teaching English as a foreign language, especially in listening skills, which provides a new perception and experiences of teaching listening skills to the education system of Thailand. Furthermore, this study contributes information to readers to understand the integration of a shadowing technique in teaching English. Lastly, this study can also be used as a guideline for future studies on enhancing learners' listening skills.

Research Objectives

1. To examine the effects of a shadowing technique on EFL learners' listening skills
2. To examine the effects of the school-based instruction on EFL learners' listening skills
3. To compare the effects of a shadowing technique to those of the school-based instruction on EFL learners' listening skills

Methodology

1. Participants

The population of this study were 392 learners in the eighth grade in Ranong province. The participants of this study were 76 learners in the 2021 academic year selected via a simple random sampling method. They were divided into two groups: the experimental group (38 learners) and the control group (38 learners). The experimental group was taught by a shadowing technique while the control group was taught by the school-based instruction. The reasons of selecting these participants are: (a) English teaching in this school methods have been mainly focused on grammar and translation more than communication; as a result, the learners' listening skills scores of midterm and final examination of the academic year 2020 were at a low level; (b) One of the goals of the school's curriculum was to improve learners' English competency; (c) Ranong province is also a secondary city where is promoted to be tourists' destination (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 2018). Thus, using new teaching strategies, such as a shadowing technique, to assist learners' English listening skills will benefit learners' English listening skills and their daily life.

2. Instruments

The instruments in this study were an English listening skills test and lesson plans based on a shadowing technique.

2.1 A Listening Skills Test

A listening skills test was designed by the researcher for pretest and posttest to determine learners' English listening skills before and after the treatment. The test comprised of 20 multiple-choice items. It was measured: 1) understanding the main ideas (5 items), 2) distinguishing different sounds (7 items), and 3) identifying important points (8 items).

2.2 Lesson Plans Based on a Shadowing Technique

To design the lesson plans, Hamada (2016)'s teaching listening using a shadowing technique and Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011)'s the method of listening teaching were employed as a framework.

According to Hamada (2016), teaching listening using a shadowing technique should be divided into eight stages.

Stage 1 (Listening to the passage and comprehension questions): Learners listen to the target passage to prepare for shadowing, and they can start shadowing without vocalizing the words. Next, the teacher gives a few comprehension questions. This stage will be useful for learners to compare their accomplishments in each lesson so that they know their improvement throughout the course.

Stage 2 (mumbling): at this stage, learners shadow words or phrases in a low voice or inarticulately after the incoming sound without necessarily understanding the meaning of the words/phrases. Hence, the purpose of this stage is to concentrate on phonemic aspects by mimicking the words/phrases.

Stage 3 (parallel reading): learners can look at the passage while they are shadowing. Theoretically, a shadowing technique does not come with a written script; however, it is helpful for learners to know what they are shadowing. According to Iwashita (2010), this step helps learners reproduce the sounds better, but they will focus on shadowing more than listening to the sound.

Stage 4 (silently check learners' understanding): this is a stage to check learners' understanding by using various exercises. For example, learners' true understanding can be tested using a fill-in-the-blank exercise. This testing process is crucial to ensure that the learners understand the words/phrases. Thus, they can review the content from their notes.

Stage 5 (shadowing three times): learners repeat shadowing of the target words or passages three times. S. Kadota and Tamai (2004) suggested that three times of shadowing are suitable for beginners, whilst twice of shadowing is appropriate for intermediate and advanced learners.

Stage 6 (reviewing): learners review what they have learned about the text again. At this stage, learners listen to the words/phrases one last time and shadow them. The purpose of this stage is to identify words/phrases that may still be challenging for learners.

Stage 7 (content shadowing): learners shadow the target passage. Then, after shadowing the passage, learners will focus on the meanings of the passage. This is one of the most challenging stages for learners, according to Hamada (2016), because learners may struggle on focusing on both the sounds and their meanings.

Stage 8 (listening to the passage again): at this stage, learners listen to the passage once more. This time, learners should feel the differences between stage 1 and stage 8, and this means that their listening skills have improved. In order to

ensure that, another exercise with comprehension questions should be used to check learners' understanding as well as to evaluate the effectiveness of the shadowing technique.

According to Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011), the teaching of listening should be divided into three stages: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening. The pre-listening stage is an introductory stage in which learners do a warm-up activity before stepping into the course curriculum. During this stage, EFL teachers need to set goals for each task where learners are expected to "express, discuss, predict, realize items and get as much as possible" from the listening activity. Three to four critical words should be introduced to learners at this stage. Activities during this stage could include pre-teaching of vocabulary and guessing the meanings of words from context.

The while-listening stage is a stage that guides learners to collect necessary information through overall listening comprehension. This is the stage where bottom-up and top-down processes are activated. At this stage, learners do not have to understand every word when listening, but they should be able to receive the information and immediately be able to react to it accordingly. Activities during this stage may include listening to a conversation, English passages or other means, while learners are asked to fill in the missing parts, state the right order of events or to consider what is going to happen next.

The post-listening stage needs to be done immediately after the learners finish the listening activity as this is when the teacher can obtain their immediate feedback. It is also beneficial for the learners to evaluate to know if this method has been useful and effective to them. Activities that can be done during this stage include multiple choices or true and false questions, comprehension tasks or even using debates and discussions or role-plays.

To specify, the teaching process in this study was divided into three phrases-- pre-listening, while- listening, and post-listening, and the eight stages of the shadowing technique was blended into these three phrases.

In the pre-listening phase, learners participate in a warm-up activity to motivate their interest. Warm-up activities include reviewing questions, activating previous knowledge and/or introducing learners to the current lesson.

The while-listening phase includes the main learning activities. It covers stage 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 of the shadowing technique. It starts with the first stage of a shadowing technique or *listening to the passage and comprehend questions*. Learners listen to the passage to prepare for shadowing. After that, they begin to shadow the passage without vocalizing words and answer a few comprehension questions. Then, in the second stage of the shadowing technique or *mumbling once*, learners shadow words or phrases in a low voice without a text. Next, in the third stage or *parallel reading*, a written version of the passage is given to learners. Theoretically, a shadowing technique does not come with a written script; however, it is helpful for

learners to know what they are shadowing. In stage 4 of the shadowing technique, namely *silently check learners' understanding*, the teacher checks learners' understanding using various exercises such as filling in a blank or matching. This stage helps to ensure that they understand the words/phrases that they hear. In this stage, they can review the content from their notes. In the next stage of a shadowing technique or *shadowing three times*, learners repeat shadowing the target words or phrases three times.

Finally, the post-reading phrase comprises the last 3 stages of the shadowing technique, which is stage 6, 7, and 8. In stage 6, *reviewing the text*, learners review what they have learned about the text by listening to the words/phrases and shadow them again. The purpose is to identify words/phrases that may still be challenging for learners. In the next stage, stage 7 or *content shadowing*, learners shadow the target passage. Then, after shadowing the passage, learners focus on the meanings of the passage. Lastly, in stage 8 or *listening to the passage again*, learners listen to the passage again. Then, the teacher reviews the lesson and check learners' understanding by post-listening activities such as true or false questions, comprehension tasks, role-plays, matching exercise, etc. The teaching process is also shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Teaching Method of the Study

Teaching Listening Process	A Shadowing Technique
Pre-listening stage	Do warm up activities such as reviewing questions, activating previous knowledge.
While-listening stage	Stage 1: Listening to passage and comprehension questions Stage 2: Mumbling twice Stage 3: Parallel reading Stage 4: Check understanding Stage 5: Shadowing three times
Post-listening stage	Stage 6: Review Stage 7: Content shadowing once Stage 8: Listening to the passage again Do post-listening activities such as true or false questions, comprehension tasks, or role-plays, or matching exercise, etc.

3. Validity and Reliability

In term of validity, three experts were asked to review the instruments—lesson plans, and an English listening test to determine the validity and commented on the appropriateness of language using the evaluation form (Item-Objective Congruence Index, IOC). The first expert was a thesis advisor. The second one was an English teacher teaching 8th-grade EFL learners at a school. The third expert was a teacher teaching English to the participants of this experiment. The items with the scores higher than or equal to 0.5 were considered

appropriate; those with the scores less than 0.5 were revised according to the suggestions. To examine the reliability, two instruments were tried out with 40 learners in another class who also were 8th - grade EFL students and were not the participants of this study. The data were analyzed using the reliability co-efficient Cronbach's alpha. The reliability of the instruments was 0.75. Since Cronbach's alpha value was higher than 0.7, all instruments were strong enough to employed in this study

4. Data Collection

The experiment was conducted in the first semester of the 2021 academic year. Learners in the experimental and control groups were asked to do the pretest in the first week to determine their English listening ability before the experiment. In the second week, both groups were taught using the different methods for five sessions per group. The experimental group was taught by a shadowing technique while the control group was taught by school-based instruction. After the instruction, learners were asked to do the posttest in the seventh week.

5. Data Analysis

The data from the pre-test and post-test were analyzed by mean scores, standard deviations, and the *t-test* analysis. The dependent *t-test* analysis was employed to compare whether there are any differences in the pretest and posttest mean scores of learners in both groups. The independent *t-test* analysis was used to compare whether there were any differences in the post-test mean scores of learners in the control and experimental groups

Results

1. The effects of a shadowing technique on EFL learners' listening skills

Table 2 The Comparison of Pretest and Posttest (Shadowing Technique)

	n	M	Max	Min	SD	t	df	p-value
Pretest	38	9.7105	16	5	2.6702	-3.5457	37	0.0005*
Posttest	38	12.3158	17	5	3.0412			

* $p < 0.05$

It was found that there were statistically significant differences in the pretest and posttest mean scores of learners' listening skills ($t(37) = -3.5457$, $p < 0.05$). The mean score of the pretest was 9.7105 ($SD = 2.6702$) whereas the posttest mean score was 12.3158 ($SD = 3.0412$). The posttest score was significantly higher than the pretest score. Therefore, the results indicate that a shadowing technique had potential in enhancing EFL learners' listening skills.

2. The effects of the school-based instruction on EFL learners' listening skills

Table 3 The Comparison of Pretest and Posttest (School-based Instruction)

	n	M	Max	Min	SD	t	df	p-value
Pretest	38	8.5263	18	2	3.2693	-3.1817	37	0.0005*
Posttest	38	9.5789	18	2	3.0724			

* $p < 0.05$

The analysis reveals that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the pretest and the posttest ($t(37) = -3.1817, p < 0.05$). The pretest mean score was 8.5263 ($SD = 3.2693$) while the posttest mean score was 9.5789 ($SD = 3.0724$). This means that the posttest mean score was significantly higher than the pretest mean score. This points out that the school-based instruction had positive effects on listening skills.

3. The comparison of a shadowing technique to the school-based instruction

Table 4 The Comparison of the Effects of a Shadowing Technique to those of the School-based Instruction

	Group	n	M	SD	df	t	p-value
Pretest	A shadowing technique	38	9.7105	2.6702	37	1.6529	0.1068
	The school-based instruction	38	8.5263	3.2693			
Posttest	A shadowing technique	38	12.3158	3.0412	37	3.7895	0.0003*
	The school-based instruction	38	9.5789	3.0724			

* $p < 0.05$

Table 4 shows that before the experiment, there were no statistically significant differences ($t(37) = 1.6529, p = 0.1068$) between the pretest mean score of learners taught by a shadowing technique ($M = 9.7105, SD = 2.6702$) and that of learners taught by school-based instruction ($M = 8.5263, SD = 3.2693$). This suggests that in both groups had listening skills at the same level. However, after the experiment, the analysis shows that listening skills mean score of the learners taught by a shadowing technique were significantly different from that of learners taught by school-based instruction at 0.05 level. The mean score of the learners taught by a shadowing technique was 12.3158 ($SD = 3.0412$), and that of learners taught by the school-based instruction was 9.5789 ($SD = 3.0724$). This can be concluded that the mean scores of the learners taught by a shadowing technique were significantly higher than learners taught by the school-based instruction.

Discussions

According to the findings of the research, a shadowing technique is effective in improving learners' listening skills for several reasons. Firstly, a shadowing technique provides an active learning environment for the EFL learners. In this study, the activities in the classroom allowed learners to shadow the eight stages—listening to the passage and comprehending questions, mumbling once, parallel reading, silently check learners' understanding, shadowing three times, reviewing the text, content shadowing, and listening to the passage again. The teacher is involved in every stage as the observer who allows the learners to learn by themselves. Similar to the claim of Hamada (2018) and Ginting (2019), a shadowing technique's methods offer an opportunity for the learners to listen to the spoken texts in the target language and provide an authority for them to shadow the words they hear immediately at the same time the speaker said. A shadowing technique provides

learning space in which encourages the learners to learn and improve listening skills. In other words, the learners taught by a shadowing technique in this study were encouraged to be more active, focused, and involved in the listening lesson automatically.

Secondly, a shadowing technique can motivate EFL learners to do activities. Like the ideas of Hamada (2016), Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011), post activities help to support an environment where learners are fully motivated to learn listening skills. In this study, learners had the opportunity to do post activities in many ways such as true or false questions, comprehension tasks, or role-plays, or matching exercise, etc. Therefore, the learners were encouraged to become more involved in the listening lesson since it was challenging for them in a way that they could have a chance to compare their accomplishment from the beginning to the end of the class. As a result, giving post activities is the good way to keep the learners attention and to motivate them to learn by enjoyment and curiosity resulting from post activities.

Thirdly, a shadowing technique provides the less stressful environment for the learners, as Chung (2010) claims that this technique helps reduce the learners' anxiety in the class. According to the findings of this study, the learners had their own authority to shadow the words they heard, to express the feeling they experienced in the listening lesson without the teacher's intervention. Like the ideas of Hsieh et al. (2013), a shadowing technique significantly allows the learners to convey and express their own sounds and voices freely without stress and fear of mistakes.

Lastly, besides reducing learners' anxiety, a shadowing technique leads to the very positive effect that the learners gain more self-confidence, self-assertion, and self-satisfaction. In this study, the learners, without any interference from the teacher, had time to evaluate the message, whether from their prior knowledge or background experience, before vocalizing and practicing. Similar to the ideas of Kadota (2017), a shadowing technique which reinforces the phonological loop process in the EFL learners' working memory through various repetitions of the words the learners receive supports the learners' cognitive resources through the various aspects of the incoming sounds. This is very important since, for the learners, to have time to think, process, flashback, and consider before shadowing the words or phrases is the better way to gain more confidence while getting rid of fear.

In conclusion, a shadowing technique, thus, leads to the way in which the learners can improve their listening skills productively through the active environment and several activities that can motivate the learners' listening skills. Furthermore, it does not help them reduce stress so that they can participate in activities without worrying about mistakes, but also gain more self-confidence as well.

Implications of the Study

This study proved that using a shadowing technique was a good method to enhance learners' listening skills. Since this technique comprises of various interesting activities, learning listening through a shadowing technique made listening learning process easier and more enjoyable. This study points out that a shadowing technique is valuable for not only academic purpose that may encourage more educational experts to apply this technique to design courses or curriculum, but also motivational purpose that may create interesting listening activities, motivation, and active and less stressful environment. Therefore, the findings of this study will be

helpful for the teachers or educators to adopt this technique to improve listening skills in EFL learners. Moreover, the results can be useful for educators to develop curriculum in order to enhance and improve learners' listening skills.

Limitations of the Study

Even though the use of a shadowing technique in this study reveals the very impressive results in comparison to the school-based instruction, it contains limitations. Firstly, this study was limited to the 8th grade learners at a secondary school, which was a very particular group of learners. The findings, as a result, might not be a representative of learners in other grade levels and other groups of learners in different context. Secondly, because of the nature of a shadowing technique, this study focused on sound and learners might not access the meaning of what they were shadowing. Finally, this study limited to only listening skills, namely, understanding the main ideas, distinguishing different sounds, and identifying important points, so it might not be applicable to other listening skills.

Recommendations

The findings of the present study may encourage more experts to use a shadowing technique in the classroom, because of the effectiveness of this methodology that improve learners' listening skills. For the future research, it might be good to conduct with other grade levels of learners in different educational institutes or different areas in Thailand. In addition, it may be interesting to increase the amount of sample groups, so it can possibly strengthen the findings. Hence, the further study should be conducted with a larger sample size of participant group which may be advantageous in gaining more credible information and results.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge the Graduate School of Srinakharinwirot University for their academic support and all services.

References

- Choomthong, D. (2014). Preparing Thai students' English for the ASEAN economic community: Some pedagogical implications and trends. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 7(1), 45-57.
- Chung, D.-U. (2010). The effect of shadowing on English listening and speaking abilities of Korean middle school students. *English Teaching*, 65, 97-127.
- Ghanbari, F., & Hashemian, M. (2014). The effects of English songs on young learners' listening comprehension and pronunciation. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 6(3), 337-345.
- Gilakjani, A. P., & Ahmadi, M. R. (2011). A study of factors affecting EFL learners' English listening comprehension and the strategies for improvement. *Journal of Language Teaching and research*, 2(5), 977-988.
- Ginting, S. A. (2019). Shadowing technique; Teaching listening skill to ESOL learners in university. *Southeast Asia Language Teaching and Learning Journal*, 2(2), 83-87.

- Hamada, Y. (2016). Shadowing: Who benefits and how? Uncovering a booming EFL teaching technique for listening comprehension. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(1), 35-52.
- _____. (2018). *Teaching EFL learners shadowing for listening: Developing learners' bottom-up skills*. Routledge.
- Hsieh, K.-T., Dong, D.-H., & Wang, L.-Y. (2013). A preliminary study of applying shadowing technique to English intonation instruction. *Taiwan Journal of Linguistics*, 11(2), 43-65.
- Kadota, S. (2007). Science of shadowing and oral reading [Shadoingto ondoku no kogaku]. *Language Education & Technology*, 48, 1-22.
- Krainara, C. (2016). *Policy analysis on development of special boarder economic zones in Thailand*. https://www.academia.edu/download/43493425/Policy_Analysis_on_SEZ_in_Thailand.pdf
- Latha, A. M. (2018). Importance of listening skills over other skills. *International Journal of Advance Engineering and Research Development*, 5(2), 1-4.
- Morley, J. (1990). Trends and developments in listening comprehension: Theory and practice. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.), *Georgetown University round table on languages and linguistics 1990: Linguistics, language teaching and language acquisition: The interdependence of theory, practice and research* (pp. 317-337). Georgetown University Press.
- Noom-Ura, S. (2013). English-teaching problems in Thailand and Thai teachers' professional development needs. *English Language Teaching*, 6(11), 139-147.
- Ratanaprucks, A. (2015). *The description and evaluation of listening on a Thai university fundamental English course: A case study* [Doctoral disseration, University of Essex]. University of Essex Research Repository.
- Sevik, M. (2012). Developing young learners' listening skills through songs. *Kastamonu Egitim Dergisi*, 20(1), 327-340.
- Tamai, K. (1992). *The effect of "shadowing" on listening comprehension* [Master's thesis, M.A.T. School]. M.A.T. School for International Training.
- Tourism Authority of Thailand. (2018). *"Tourism in Ranong" is strong, growing 23% in half year*. <https://www.thansettakij.com/business/350383>
- Yavari, F., & Shafiee, S. (2019). Effects of Shadowing and Tracking on Intermediate EFL Learners' Oral Fluency. *International Journal of Instruction*, 12(1), 869-884.
- Zuhriyah, M. (2016). Improving students' listening skill through shadowing. *Register Journal*, 9(2), 124-136.

Enhancing EFL Students' English Reading Ability by Using Visual Thinking Strategies

Aphichaya Seethongsuk¹ / Supaporn Yimwilai²

Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand

E-mail: aphichaya.seethongsuk@g.swu.ac.th

Abstract

In the information age, English reading is essential; however, many studies revealed that Thai students had difficulty in English reading. This study aimed to develop EFL students' reading ability. The objectives were: (1) to examine the effects of Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) on EFL students' reading ability and (2) to compare the effects of VTS on EFL first-year students' reading ability to those of third-year students. The participants consisted of 45 students majoring in English at a university in Thailand. They were selected by a purposive sampling and divided into two groups: 20 first-year students and 25 third-year students. Each group was taught by VTS. The research instruments included lesson plans and an English reading ability test. Mean scores, standard deviations, the *t*-test analysis, and the analysis of covariance were used to analyze the data. The results of the study revealed the effectiveness of VTS in developing EFL students' reading ability ($t(44) = 7.08, p < .05$). The effects of VTS on both groups were similar ($F(1) = 2.88, p > .05$). This points out that VTS are effective in developing reading ability.

Keywords: reading ability, Visual Thinking Strategies, EFL students, teaching reading

Introduction

The ability to read is considered a necessary skill for everyone, especially students. Reading is an essential skill to reach learning goals and academic success (Cubalit, 2016; Lindeblad et al, 2019: 2). In general, students learn new knowledge through reading, and gain useful information through several reading sources such as books, journals, and websites. Students having good reading skill can attain the information from printed texts and online texts more effectively (Sukeemok, 2012). In addition, reading can help encourage students' creativity. Wang (2011) states that spending time on reading within or outside the classroom can improve higher creative performance. He concludes that reading ability is important for students to achieve their learning success.

In the information age, English reading is one of the four learning skills that should not be ignored. According to Mahu (2012: 374), English is used as native language, second language as well as a foreign language worldwide. As a result, English becomes the universal language, which is generally used in economy, politic, culture, society, technology as well as education (Zhu & Adipattaranan, 2016: 174). Furthermore, Flammia and Saunders (2007) suggest that 70% of online contents are displayed in English. As the impact of English is increasing nowadays, English reading has an important role for all academic levels. Hayikaleng et al. (2016) support that reading is a vital skill to succeed in academic field. Moreover, English is fundamental in acquiring academic knowledge from reading English materials like

books. This is because many academic sources are published in English. Besides, reading literary works can enhance students' writing ability more effectively (Tuan, 2012). Therefore, English reading has become an essential skill for students.

English reading is a necessary skill for students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) to achieve academic success (Dorkchandra, 2010). Therefore, English is required at elementary, secondary and university level for EFL classes (Uraiman, 2011). This is because English reading can help EFL students gather knowledge in learning English. According to Songsiangchai (2010), most EFL students discover knowledge in their academic environment from reading. As a result, English reading is a crucial ability for EFL students.

In Thailand, many studies revealed that reading is a problematic area among Thai students. Thongyon and Chiramanee (2011) pointed out that English reading problems are found in every educational level in Thailand. In elementary level, students know a set of A-Z letters, but they cannot read English in words (Kodae & Laohawiriyanon, 2011). In secondary level, students lack vocabulary knowledge as well as reading strategies (Suebpeng, 2017). In undergraduate education, despite years of learning English, some undergraduates do not understand academic texts, which signifies that reading skills and strategies from reading non-academic texts are required (Chaothaisong & Piyanukool, 2011).

Poor English reading skills among Thai students stems from many causes. First, Thai students have negative attitudes toward English reading, and they also believe that English is too difficult (Phantharakphong & Pothitha, 2014: 498). Second, reading English texts is excluded from their daily reading activities. Although they spend much time reading on various reading sources, mostly on social media platforms, they are not interested in reading in English (Khamsri, 2018: 78). In other words, they enjoy reading on social media platforms, but they prefer reading in Thai. The final cause is that their English grammar knowledge is limited, and this leads to ineffective English reading (Gunning, 2002).

More importantly, the English teaching process does not support students to improve their English reading ability. According to Sawangsamutchai and Rattanavich (2016: 55), the process of English teaching in Thailand does not motivate students. The teaching style in Thai schools is teacher-centered style (Nutalak, 2019: 90; Sanitchai & Thomas, 2018: 48; Stone, 2017: 66). That is, teachers act as conductors in classrooms; they point out the right and wrong answers directly (Emaliana, 2017: 60) while students are passive listeners. Students are passive in class because teachers control the whole activities in classrooms (Liu & Gillies, 2021; Nutalak, 2019: 90). Moreover, students lose interaction, engagement, and collaboration with their teacher (Barr & Chinwonno, 2016: 28). In addition, students lack confidence to share their opinions in the classroom. To conclude, teachers dominate the whole activities in classrooms in a teacher-centered style. The setback of this style is that students are not motivated to be engaged in classrooms.

Many scholars suggest that active learning can be an engaging teaching style. In this teaching style, students are encouraged to be more active, and teachers become assistants helping students in classrooms. Students have more opportunities to learn from different activities such as watching, listening, and creating short notes in classrooms (Felder & Brent, 2009: 1). This leads to students' better performance. Moreover, students can practice critical thinking, learn about decision making, prove

evidence, form questions and answers, develop positive arguments, and brainstorm (Langu & Lekule, 2017). Therefore, active learning has been shown to provide benefits for students, and Thai government promotes an active learning approach (Cheunsuang, 2017, as cited in Sanitchai & Thomas, 2018: 48).

Visual Thinking Strategies (VTS) are considered as one of the active learning styles. Students in the classrooms using VTS are required to be active and cooperative (Cappello & Walker, 2016). Similarly, Poirier et al. (2020: 451) stated that VTS are an approach that allows students to view artworks through their lens based on VTS questions. The three basic VTS questions are: "What's going on in this picture?," "What do you see that makes you say that?," and "What more can we find?" (DeSantis & Housen, 2009). On the other hand, the teachers facilitate the discussion by asking questions, observing students' ideas, collecting their thoughts, and weaving their views into conclusions that are based on the students' ideas (Bomgaars & Bachelor, 2020: 4; DeSantis & Housen, 2009). Moreover, teachers do not offer right or wrong answers to the students (Yanawine, 1997).

VTS can help students improve various skills. VTS can be applied to help increase critical thinking. Curva et al. (2005) found that students quickly learned to back up their claims with evidence utilizing VTS method, and usually use "because" in their statements for their responses. VTS have also been proven to improve observation. Students discovered that the longer they stare at an image, the more they observe because the amount of time spent looking at artworks and the number of words used to describe it were both indicators for deep observation (De Santis et al., 2016). In addition, VTS can help develop creative skills. According to Moeller et al. (2013: 58), students can create new ideas freely and independently. In terms of speaking and writing ability, Bomgaars and Bachelor (2020: 1) supported that VTS can help students improve these two skills. That is, students discuss and write about the actual artworks in several teacher-facilitated classes. In this sense, discussion can increase students' fluency skills and boost their confidence in speaking. Additionally, writing about the artworks that they view can improve their writing skills. Bomgaars and Bachelor (2020: 1) found that there is a significant development in writing among students. Likewise, Yeom (2018) also discovers that using VTS can improve students' writing ability. Importantly, VTS can improve reading skills because students' vocabulary knowledge can be expanded as they explore concrete and abstract ideas from artworks through the use of VTS (Arnheim, 1969, as cited in Zelvis, 2008: 2). This can be concluded that VTS can help students master various skills by using artworks.

Moreover, Yeom (2018: 25) stated that finding artworks that are suitable for language classrooms can be challenging. Therefore, teachers need to be creative and adaptive. Huh (2016: 4) suggested that teachers of non-art subjects, including English, can apply any visual materials to VTS classrooms, namely images or symbols, photos, maps, graphs, posters, cartoons and picture books. For example, picture books offer students both pictures and texts that are effective to improve the ability to interpret and understand through visual works (Nicholas, 2007: 20).

There are many studies on the effectiveness of VTS. VTS are found to be useful in critical thinking in several studies. For instance, Housen (2002: 100) investigated the effects of VTS on critical thinking skill among students in the third and the fifth grade. In addition, O'Leary (2010: 2) studied how young children

responded to what they see through VTS discussions. Moeller et al. (2013: 57) also explored the effects of VTS on fourth and fifth grade-students. Some scholars reported the potential of VTS in writing classrooms. For example, Yeom (2018: 23) used VTS to teach writing to secondary students.

There are many studies on the effect VTS. However, the research on the effects of VTS on English reading is still limited, especially in Thailand. To fill in the gap, this study aims to study the effects of VTS on EFL students' English reading ability. Moreover, some students have higher knowledge in English; some students have lower knowledge in English. Therefore, this study also aims to study the effects of VTS on students with different background. The findings obtained from this study will help foreign language teachers, especially English teachers, improve instruction method that English teachers adopt when teaching English reading. Furthermore, this study provides information for foreign language learners to understand the importance of English reading. In addition, the result of this study can be a guideline for other studies on developing students' English reading ability. Lastly, this study will create new ideas in teaching English reading to the undergraduate students in Thailand.

Research Objectives

1. To examine the effects of VTS on EFL students' reading ability.
2. To compare the effects of VTS on EFL first-year students' reading ability to those of third-year students.

Methodology

1. Participants

The participants of this study comprised 45 students majoring in English for International Communication in 2021 academic year at Rajamangala University of Technology Rattanakosin. The participants were selected by a purposive sampling method. The participants were divided into two groups: a group of 20 first-year students and a group of 25 third-year students. Each group was taught by VTS. These participants were selected because of two major reasons. According to Chaiyapong and Taraporn (2013), Rajamangala University of Technology Rattanakosin aims to produce quality students. Therefore, it is a university goal to develop good English skills for students. Moreover, as shown in Jindarungreangrat's study (2008), Rajamangala University of Technology Rattanakosin students' English reading ability needs to be improved. They cannot interpret reading passages effectively as the English teaching techniques at the university are based on teacher-centered style.

2. Instruments

Lesson plans and an English reading ability test were used in this study. To design the lesson plan, Grabe and Stoller's (2011) three stages of reading activity and DeSantis and Housen (2009)'s VTS were employed as frameworks. The teaching process was divided into three stages: pre-reading, during-reading, and post-reading. Four steps of VTS were integrated into these three stages. In the first stage, pre-reading, the teacher introduced the students to a topic or a reading passage by using images such as videos, pictures, posters, cover books, or movies related to the reading passages. The teacher asked the three questions to the students. Then, students worked in group. After that, the teacher discussed with the students to create the background

knowledge before actual reading. In the second stage, during-reading, the students read assigned reading passages and completed the comprehension exercises such as choosing the correct answers from multiple choices or filling in the blanks. Then, the teacher explained the passages by using PowerPoint slides with images. In the third stage, post-reading, the students did various activities such as answering short critical questions related to the reading passages, arranging timelines of passages, playing games, role-playing as characters in the passages that the students read or drawing the image.

An English reading ability test was designed to measure students' reading ability before and after the experiment. Also, this test was used for both the pre-test and the post-test. It consisted of 4 reading passages with 20 multiple choice questions. These 4 reading passages were: "Christmas in England", "Chocolate", "Galaxies", and "Pets and mental health". The objectives were to read for topics (3 items), main ideas (4 items), details (10 items), and guessing meaning from the contexts (3 items). These sub-reading skills were selected because these four skills have been emphasized in several studies as essential skills to improve reading ability (Yimwilai, 2008: 135; Yang, 2014: 284; Hans & Hans, 2015).

To determine the validity, three experts in teaching English were asked to help validate the instruments, which include lesson plans and an English reading ability test by using the criteria of index of item objective congruence (IOC). To determine the reliability, all research instruments were tested with 30 students who were not the participants in this study. The instruments were analyzed using the reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha.

3. Data Collection Procedures

The experiment lasted six weeks. In the first week, the students were asked to do English reading ability tests as pre-test. The passages chosen for the test were at intermediate level; the test comprised 20 multiple choice questions. From the second week to the fifth weeks, the students in both groups were taught English reading by the lesson plans based on VTS. In the sixth week, the students were asked to do English reading ability tests as post-test.

4. Data Analysis

The data from the pre-test and post-test were analyzed by mean scores, standard deviations, the *t*-test analysis, and the analysis of covariance to compare whether there were any differences in the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the students in both groups and to compare whether there were any differences in the post-test mean scores of the students in both groups.

Results

1. The Students' English Reading Ability

To investigate the effects of VTS on all the students' reading ability, the data from the pre-test and post-test were analyzed using mean score, standard deviation, and a *t*-test analysis. The results are presented in Table 1.

Tables 1 Descriptive Statistic of English students' Reading Ability Mean Score

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
First-year Students	10.80	4.73	14.00	3.76
Third-year Students	10.36	4.99	15.28	3.59

Table 1 reveals that the pre-test mean score of first-year students was 10.80 ($SD = 4.73$), the pre-test mean score of third-year students was 10.36 ($SD = 4.99$), the post-test mean score of first-year students was 14.00 ($SD = 3.76$), and the post-test mean score of third-year students was 15.28 ($SD = 3.59$)

In order to investigate the effects of VTS on all the students' reading ability; mean scores, standard deviation, and a *t*-test analysis were utilized to analyze the data. The finding is presented in Table 2.

Tables 2 The Comparison of the Pre-test Mean Score to Post-test Mean Score

Time	N	Mean	Max	Min	SD	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
Post-test	45	14.71	20	7	3.68	7.08	44	0.00**
Pre-test	45	10.56	19	1	4.83			

$p < .05$

Table 2 reveals that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of pre-test and post-test ($t(44) = 7.08, p < .05$). The pre-test mean score was 10.56 ($SD = 4.83$) while the post-test mean score was 14.71 ($SD = 3.68$). Therefore, the post-test mean score was significantly higher than the pre-test mean score. The results suggest that VTS had the potential in improving EFL students' reading ability.

2. The comparison of the effects of VTS on EFL first-year students' reading ability to those of third-year students

To compare the effects of VTS on EFL first-year students' reading ability to those of third-year students, the analysis of covariance was used. The results are shown in Table 3 and 4.

To compare mean scores between two groups, estimate marginal means was used to receive results. The mean scores of two groups were adjusted. The adjusted and unadjusted means for the first-year students and third-year students are presented in Table 3.

Tables 3 Unadjusted and Covariance Adjusted Descriptive Statistic

Group	Before Treatment			After Treatment (Unadjusted)		After Treatment (Adjusted)	
	N	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SE
First-year Students	20	10.80	4.73	14.00	3.76	13.89	0.65
Third-year Students	25	10.36	4.99	15.28	3.59	15.37	0.58

Tables 4 The Analysis of Covariance of Mean Score of First-year Students and Third-year Students

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Before Treatment	221.01	1	221.01	26.07	0.00**
Between Groups	24.44	1	24.44	2.88	0.10
Error	356.03	42	8.48		

$p < .05$

The analysis of covariance reveals that there were no statistically significant differences ($F(1) = 2.88, p > .05$) in the mean score of first-year students ($M = 13.89, SE = .65$) and the mean score of third-year students ($M = 15.37, SE = .58$). This points out that the effects of VTS on reading ability of first-year students and third-year students were similar.

Discussions

According to the results of this study, VTS helped the students to improve their reading ability. There are many reasons to explain these results. First, the activities conducted in this study allowed the students to see images before reading the passages. Images could help them understand the reading passages better. The post-test mean scores of the students' reading ability test were significantly higher than the pre-test mean scores of both groups. Like the ideas of Sonna and Jogthong (2020), the students could easily understand what was happening by visualizing. Therefore, the students were able to improve their reading ability by using VTS.

Secondly, this method of teaching in this study created an active learning environment in the classrooms. In this study, the teacher was involved as assistants in the classrooms. Similar to the idea of Bomgaar and Bachelor (2019: 4), the teacher listened to the students' ideas, gathered their opinions, and weaved their views into conclusions based on their ideas. The lesson plans were created to provide the students with opportunities to be active in the classrooms and to assist them to gain more knowledge. In addition, the students were encouraged to use their ideas and their background knowledge by asking questions based on VTS. More importantly, the students' answers were not judged right or wrong answers, so the students felt confident. Like the ideas of Moeller et al. (2013: 58), students could share ideas freely and independently without teacher's judgement. It can be concluded that an active

learning environment was emphasized in VTS. Students in this study were encouraged to be active, and share their ideas to help one another gain more knowledge in the classrooms as the ideas of Hess et al. (2019: 171).

Thirdly, VTS motivated the students to do the activities in the English classrooms. Similar to the work of Unnathamani (2018), VTS helped to create an environment where students in this study were motivated to learn English. In this study, students had the opportunity to do activities in many ways such as drawing pictures, creating story, or sharing ideas in VTS classrooms. Therefore, students enjoyed doing the activities through VTS. This led to their learning outcomes.

Lastly, VTS offered a good learning environment. In this study, VTS provided a less stressful environment where the students could express their opinions and their background knowledges in the classroom activities without being afraid of making mistakes. Similar to the ideas of Cappello and Walker (2016), VTS provided a safe environment for students. As a result, students had confidence and were not stressful. Besides, the students were also pleased to work in groups. Like the ideas of DeSantis and Housen (2009), the students participated in group activities to share their opinions. The activities in the classrooms led students to think and share their ideas with their group members in order to better understand the reading passages. Therefore, VTS created a safe environment for students to develop reading and helped them improve their performance in English reading.

Despite all the advantages of VTS, the teacher remains the major element in motivating the students to read. However, using VTS in the classroom come with difficulties for the teachers, such as finding an image. It may take much more time than before to plan the lessons because the teacher was not be an art expert. This means that the teacher should be innovative and adaptive to find any visual elements required in a VTS classroom such as photos, maps, graphs, posters, cartoons, or picture books related to reading passages.

Limitations of the Study

There is limitation to this study. Firstly, this study was limited to only first-year and third-year students. As a result, the findings may not be able to generalize other levels or institutions. Secondly, this study was conducted with two experimental groups. This means that there is no control group to compare with. Lastly, an English reading ability test only evaluated reading for topics, reading for main ideas, reading for details, and reading for guessing meaning from the contexts. Therefore, the results might not be consistent with other reading skills.

Recommendation

Even though the results of this study confirmed the positive effects of teaching English reading through VTS on EFL students' reading ability, further studies should be conducted to improve knowledge in the field of EFL learning. Firstly, other English ability, such as listening, speaking, and writing, can be taught using VTS. Secondly, it will be interesting to investigate the effects of VTS on students in other levels. Finally, since this study lasted for 6 weeks, other studies can be conducted for a long period of time to confirm the results.

Acknowledgement

I would like to acknowledge Srinakharinwirot University's Graduate School for their academic support and assistance. My gratitude also goes to Buriram Rajabhat University for providing the chance for the research conference.

References

- Barr, P. S., & Chinwonno, A. (2016). The effects of project-based reading instruction on English reading ability and intercultural communicative competence of undergraduate students. *Journal of Education Naresuan University*, 18(3), 27-44.
- Bomgaars, J., & Bachelor, J. W. (2020). Visual thinking strategies: Exploring artwork to improve output in the L2 classroom. *Online Submission*, 5(1), 1-34.
- Cappello, M., & Walker, N. T. (2016). Visual thinking strategies: Teachers' reflections on closely reading complex visual texts within the disciplines. *The Reading Teacher*, 70(3), 317-325.
- Chaiyapong, S., & Taraporn, T. (2013). *English speaking problems of students who enrolled in English conversation subject*. Rajamangala University of Technology Rattanakosin, 2013. <http://repository.rmutr.ac.th/123456789/451>
- Chaothaisong, R., & Piyanukool, S. (2011). Thai EFL University students' reading strategy use to comprehend academic English texts: A preliminary study. *National Graduate Research Conference 2011* (pp. 239-247). Buriram Rajapath University.
- Cubalit, A. N. (2016). Listening comprehension problems of Thai English learners. In *Proceedings of the Third International Conference on Language, Literature & Society* (pp. 207-214).
- Curva, F., Milton, S., Wood, S., Palmer, D., Nahmias, C., Radcliffe, B., & Youngblood, T. (2005). *Artful citizenship project: Three-year project report* (Vol. 17). Wolfsonian Museum.
- De Santis, S., de Felice, G., Napoli, A., & Realfonzo, R. (2016). Strengthening of structures with steel reinforced polymers: A state-of-the-art review. *Composites Part B: Engineering*, 104, 87-110.
- DeSantis, K., & Housen, A. (2009). *VTS: Visual thinking strategies-A brief guide to developmental theory and aesthetic development*. http://ocmatours.net/wp-content/uploads/a_brief_gde_dev_thry.pdf
- Dorkchandra, D. (2010). Improving Thai university EFL students' reading comprehension and use of English tenses through question-generating strategy. In A. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *6th CamTESOL Conference* (pp. 1-18). National Institute of Education (NIE), Cambodia.
- Emaliana, I. (2017). *Correlation between EFL epistemic beliefs and English language proficiency among Indonesian EFL students*[Doctoral dissertation]. Universitas Negeri Malang, Indonesia.
- Felder, R. M., & Brent, R. (2009). Active learning: An introduction. *ASQ Higher Education Brief*, 2(4), 1-5.
- Flammia, M., & Saunders, C. (2007). Language as power on the Internet. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 58(12), 1899-1903.

- Grabe, W., & Stoller, F. (2011). The nature of reading abilities. In W. Grabe & F. Stoller (Eds.), *Teaching and Researching Reading* (pp. 9-37). New York: Pearson.
- Gunning, T. G. (2002). *Assessing and correcting reading and writing difficulties* (2nd ed.). Allyn and Bacon.
- Hans, A., & Hans, E. (2015). Kinesics, haptics and proxemics: Aspects of non-verbal communication. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science (IOSR-JHSS)*, 20(2), 47-52.
- Hayikaleng, N., Nair, S. M., & Krishnasamy, H. N. (2016). Thai students' L2 reading comprehension level for lower order thinking skills and higher order thinking skills questions. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 3(5), 83-91.
- Hess, S., Young, J., & Arbogast, H. (2019). Visual thinking strategies in the composition classroom. In S. J. Corbett, J. L. LeMesurier, T. E. Decker, & B. Coope (Eds.), *Writing in and about the performing and visual arts: Creating, performing, and teaching* (pp. 171-181): University Press of Colorado.
- Housen, A. C. (2002). Aesthetic thought, critical thinking and transfer. *Arts and Learning Research*, 18(1), 99-132.
- Huh, K. (2016). Visual thinking strategies and creativity in English education. *Indian Journal of Science and Technology*, 9, 1-6.
- Jindarungreangrat, S. (2008). *The Effect of Questioning the Author Strategy on English Reading Comprehension of the First Year Undergraduate Students at Rajamankala University of Technology Rattanakosin* [Master's thesis] Srinakharinwirot University.
- Khamsri, T. (2018). The use of mind oneself reading strategy (MORS) to enhance Thai students' English reading comprehension. *FEU Academic Review*, 12(3), 77-94.
- Kodae, H., & Laohawiriyanon, C. (2011). Effects of intensive phonics instruction on reading and spelling attainment of thai Grade 5 learners with reading difficulties. In C. Antweiler (Ed.), *Proceedings-English Studies in Various Contexts. 3rd International Conference on Humanities and Social Sciences (IC-HUSO 2011)* (pp. 1-17). Prince of Songkla University, Songkla.
- Langu, N., & Lekule, T. (2017). Effectiveness of learner-centered approach in teaching and learning geography in secondary schools. *Tanzania Journal of Education*, 3, 126-136.
- Lindeblad, E., Nilsson, S., Gustafson, S., & Svensson, I. (2019). Self-concepts and psychological health in children and adolescents with reading difficulties and the impact of assistive technology to compensate and facilitate reading ability. *Cogent Psychology*, 6(1), 1647601.
- Liu, H., & Gillies, R. M. (2021). Teacher questions: Mediated-learning behaviors involved in teacher-student interaction during whole-class instruction in chinese english classrooms. In S. Pinnegar (Ed.), *Frontiers in Education* (Vol. 6, pp. 1-15). Frontiers.
- Mahu, D.-P. (2012). Why is learning English so beneficial nowadays? *International Journal of Communication Research*, 2(4), 374-376.
- Moeller, M., Cutler, K., Fiedler, D., & Weier, L. (2013). Visual thinking strategies= creative and critical thinking. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 95(3), 56-60.

- Nicholas, J. L. (2007). *An exploration of the impact of picture book illustrations on the comprehension skills and vocabulary development of emergent readers* [Doctoral dissertation]. Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
- Nutalak, P. (2019). The effects of extensive reading on English reading ability and attitudes of business English major students. *Southeast Bangkok Journal*, 5(1), 88-102.
- O'Leary, S. (2010). *What do you see that makes you say that?: The role of asking young children to provide evidence for their observations in visual thinking strategies discussions* [Master's thesis]. Tufts University, Boston.
- Phantharakphong, P., & Pothitha, S. (2014). Development of English reading comprehension by using concept maps. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, 497-501.
- Poirier, T. I., Newman, K., & Ronald, K. (2020). An exploratory study using visual thinking strategies to improve undergraduate students' observational skills. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*, 84(4), 451-458.
- Sanitchai, P., & Thomas, D. (2018). The relationship of active learning and academic achievement among provincial university students in Thailand. *Association of Private Higher Education Institutions of Thailand*, 7(1), 47-61.
- Sawangsamutchai, Y., & Rattanavich, S. (2016). A comparison of Seventh Grade Thai students' reading comprehension and motivation to read English through applied instruction based on the genre-based approach and the teacher's manual. *English Language Teaching*, 9(4), 54-63.
- Songsienchai, T. (2010). *Strategies in reading online and printed academic texts of English major students of Srinakharinwirot University* [Master's thesis]. Srinakharinwirot University.
- Sonna, L., & Jogthong, C. (2020). The use of Webquests focusing on local tourism to promote English reading ability of eleventh graders. *Journal of Sirindhornparithat*, 21(2), 345-359.
- Stone, G. (2017). Implementation of critical literacy for English writing classes in the Thai context. *New English Teacher*, 11(2), 65-76.
- Suebpong, K. (2017). *Students' use of reading strategies: A survey study of Grade 9 EFL students at Nonkhor School* [Master's thesis]. Ubon Ratchathani University.
- Sukeemok, T. (2012). *Effect of using multiple intelligence theory based activities on English reading comprehension and students' internet in learning English of Matheyomsuksa III students at Taweethapisek School* [Master's thesis]. Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok.
- Thongyon, P., & Chiramanee, T. (2011). The effect of pre-reading activities on reading comprehension ability. In C. Antweiler (Ed.), *Proceedings-English Studies in Various Contexts. 3rd International Conference on Humanities and Social Sciences (IC-HUSO 2011)* (pp. 1-17). Prince of Songkla University.
- Tuan, L. T. (2012). Teaching writing through reading integration. *Journal of Language Teaching & Research*, 3(3), 489-499.
- Unnathamani, C. (2018). Visual thinking strategies improve intrinsic motivation of English learners-A study. *International Journal of Creative Research Thoughts*, 6(1), 1252-1255.

- Uraiman, Y. (2011). *Developing secondary school students' reading ability and motivation using extensive reading program* [Master's thesis]. Srinakharinwirot University.
- Wang, H. (2011). Promoting university English majors' learner autonomy in the Chinese context. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(2), 408-412.
- Yanawine, P. (1997). *Thoughts on visual literacy*. <https://vtshome.org/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/12Thoughts-On-Visual-Literacy.pdf>
- Yang, Z. (2014, May). Effective methods to improving reading skills in english study. In *International Conference on Education, Language, Art and Intercultural Communication (ICELAIC)* (pp. 284-286).
- Yeom, E. Y. (2018). How visual thinking strategies using picture book images can improve Korean secondary EFL students' L2 writing. *English Teaching*, 73(1), 23-47.
- Yimwilai, S. (2008). English reading abilities and problems of English-major students in Srinakharinwirot University. *Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 4(2), 130-148.
- Zelvis, R. R. (2008). *The effects of visual thinking strategies on reading achievement of students with varying levels of motivation* [Doctoral dissertation]. Western Connecticut State University, Danbury, CT.
- Zhu, J., & Adipattaranan, N. (2016). Using jigsaw reading and semantic mapping activities to develop English reading and writing abilities among Mathayom Suksa 4 students. *Veridian E-Journal, Silpakorn University (Humanities, Social Sciences and Arts)*, 9(5), 173-184.

The Effects of Nursery Rhymes on EFL Primary Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge

Natnaree Saibauthong¹ / Supaporn Yimwilai²

Faculty of Humanities, Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand

E-mail: Natnaree.sai@g.swu.ac.th

Abstract

This study investigated the effects of nursery rhymes on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. The objectives were: 1) to study the effects of nursery rhymes on EFL learners' English vocabulary knowledge, and 2) to compare the effects of nursery rhymes on EFL third-grade learners' vocabulary knowledge to those of EFL fourth-grade learners' vocabulary knowledge. The participants included 57 learners from a private primary school in Kanchanaburi province. The participants were chosen using simple random sampling and were divided into two groups: 29 third-grade learners and 28 fourth-grade learners. These two groups of learners were taught by lesson plans based on nursery rhymes. The instruments employed in the study were: 1) lesson plans based on nursery rhymes, and 2) an English vocabulary test. Mean score, standard deviation, the *t*-test analysis, and the analysis of covariance were used to analyze the quantitative data. The results revealed that nursery rhymes positively impact EFL learners to improve their vocabulary knowledge. When compared English vocabulary knowledge of both groups, no statistically significant differences were found ($F = 1.56, p > 0.05$). This pointed out that nursery rhymes have effects on different background learners.

Keywords: Nursery rhymes, EFL learners, Vocabulary, Vocabulary knowledge

Introduction

Learning English seems to be the difficulty of EFL learners because they are facing several obstacles in developing English. According to British Council (2021), EFL learners are learners who learn English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This means EFL learners are a group of learners whose English is not their mother language. Some experts specified the five difficulties which block learners to succeed in English (Abolfathiasl & Abdullah, 2015). These obstacles are insufficient vocabulary knowledge, the notoriety of English grammar, the arduousness and inconsistency of pronunciation, cultural differences, and the variations of English (Abolfathiasl & Abdullah, 2015; Alaraj, 2017). Among these obstacles, inadequate vocabulary is considered as the most crucial problem because to succeed in studying English depends on vocabulary possessed by a language learner (Jadoon et al., 2020).

Generally, Thai learners spend a significant length of time studying English from elementary school to university; however, their English proficiency is still questionable. Comparing the total scores for TOEFL iBT among Asian countries, the score of Thailand was 78. It was lower than Indonesia, Malaysia, and Singapore, members of ASEAN (Education Testing Service, 2017). This shows that even though Thai learners have been supported to study English for several years, the results are showing in the opposite way. There are experts identified that one of the biggest difficulties for Thai learners in learning English vocabulary is the limitation of vocabulary knowledge (Saengpakdeejit, 2014). According to the study of

Wiriyaichitra (2003), Thai learners could not speak English naturally because they did not have various circumstances to collect new words by sharing English conversations with others. Moreover, there are additional factors that obstruct Thai learners to be successful in learning English vocabulary. One of these barriers is a lack of motivation and enjoyment in classroom (Hossain, 2021). There are several papers discussing the motivation in learning, and some works declared that enjoyment and amusement have a powerful effect on learners' learning, memory, and communication skills (Hernik & Jaworska, 2018; Schuitema et al., 2016). There are also earlier studies suggested that nursery rhymes, songs, or games are the need of the classroom (Ara, 2009: 162). Some experts prove that the influence of emotions had effects on learning, and enjoyment and happiness led to a positive effect on learning, memory, and social behavior (Hernik & Jaworska, 2018). The reason why teachers should bring entertainment into the classroom is that when learners feel enjoyable, they will feel relaxed and able to learn. According to Ara (2009: 161-172), one of the best ways of drawing learners' attention in the language classroom is to create the joyful classroom using activities, songs, rhymes, and games.

According to "Oxford English dictionary online" (2002), the word "nursery" refers to "a place where young children are cared for while their parents are at work," and the word "rhyme" refers to "a word that has the same sound or ends with the same sound as another word." The word nursery rhymes are extensively used to refer to a normal tradition poem or song for small children. Elaine (2000: 3) defines, the meaning of nursery rhymes that they are verses told or sung to little children. Similarly, Pratama (2017: 1) states that nursery rhymes are known as verse often sung for children. In addition, nursery rhymes are normal poems that easily found in local area and the language used in rhymes are a specific language depends on each community (York, 2011). To sum up, nursery rhymes are referred to short poems or songs normally sung to little children, and generally found in a local community. The language used will rely on the native community where nursery rhymes were created.

Nursery rhymes play a significant role in learning vocabulary knowledge. According to Harper (2011), learners who listen to nursery rhymes will be exposed to the rich vocabulary. Nursery rhymes are the store of vocabulary; learners will learn new vocabulary and understand how to articulate them (Bryant et al., 1989; Kenny, 2005). Moreover, Nursery rhymes consist of various simple words, and this characteristic help children to expand their knowledge of vocabulary, and they are capable to select words to apply in their daily lives. According to Kenny (2005), listening to nursery rhymes, learners can learn vocabulary, especially words about people, places and ideas which would be constructed for their background of knowledge. This will enlighten children to enlarge a store of words (Shwetha & Phil, 2013).

Furthermore, nursery rhymes can be the valuable resources to engage student in the classroom because of the merriment, and learners' basic skills will be advanced (Shwetha & Phil, 2013). According to York (2011), nursery rhymes are divided into many lines, and in each rhyme consists OF the special beats. These beats can attract children's attention. As Džanić and Pejić (2016: 40-54) support that nursery rhymes, songs, and chants affect children's enjoyment, and their English proficiency will develop as a consequence. Similarly, May (2019) proposes that

nursery rhymes serve as ideal teaching material to entertain a classroom; they can engage children by supporting their emotional development as well as improving the classroom atmosphere.

Some research studies reveal the effectiveness of using nursery rhymes in classroom. For example, the study of Hery and Arshad (2020) found that nursery rhymes could enhance young English learners' vocabulary knowledge in Indonesia. Two English teachers and eighty learners from two elementary schools located in Depok-Sleman, Yogyakarta were involved in the study. Additionally, the study of Nurhudayah (2018) concluded that nursery rhymes were effective in teaching vocabulary in first-grade learners at MTs DDI Pattojo Soppeng in Indonesia. The participants were sixty learners. They were divided into two groups: experimental group and control group. Each group consisted of thirty learners.

There are some studies on teaching vocabulary in Thailand. For instance, the study of Xiaofei and Modehiran (2019) revealed that the participants improved their vocabulary knowledge after learning the words through story telling method by using pictures. Forty seventh-grade learners from a public Thai school were the participants. A test, and a questionnaire were employed as the instruments in the study.

In conclusion, there are several research studies focusing on teaching vocabulary and using nursery rhymes to enhance learners in learning English both in international countries and in Thailand. Nevertheless, Thai learners who study English as EFL learners are still facing the obstacle in learning English because they are inadequate vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, this study proposes to study the effects of nursery rhymes on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge.

This study could benefit learners, educational staff, parents, and other research. The study might serve as an instruction and reference for the learners undertaking related studies, and this study would serve as guidelines that would be the reference in the future study.

Research Objectives

1. To study the effects of nursery rhymes on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge.
2. To compare the effects of nursery rhymes on EFL third-grade learners' vocabulary knowledge to those of EFL fourth-grade learners' vocabulary knowledge.

Methodology

1. The Population and Participants

The population were 64 third-grade learners and fourth-grade learners from a private school in Kanchanaburi province. The participants were 57 learners from two classes: third-grade learners (29 learners) and fourth-grade learners (28 learners) selected by simple random sampling. The reasons of selecting these learners were: a) this level of learners seem to appreciate learning through nursery rhymes (Prosic-Santovac, 2015), b) learners in this age are the proper groups to start learning how to use the word parts and perceive the meaning of vocabulary knowledge (Cynthia & Johnson, 2009 as cited in Kusumawati & Widiati, 2017), and c) according to the scores of an English test in the second semester of the academic year 2021, the

score of English vocabulary test of the learners were lower than other English proficiency tests.

2. Instruments

The instruments used in this study were: 1) lesson plans based on nursery rhymes, and 2) an English vocabulary test.

The lesson plans were designed by the researcher to teach English vocabulary knowledge. Five nursery rhymes in the study were selected: 1) If You Are Happy and You Know It, 2) Old MacDonald Had A Farm, 3) What's Your Favorite Color?, 4) Head, Shoulders, Knees, and Toes, and 5) Look Outside. The teaching vocabulary methods of Marzano (2019) was employed as a framework to design the lesson plans. Specifically, the teaching methods were divided into six stages, including 1) Explain 2) Restate 3) Show 4) Discuss 5) Refine and reflect, and 6) Apply in learning games.

During the Explain stage, the teacher provided an explanation, description, or example of the new words by using nursery rhymes to introduce and present the words to the learners. In the Restate stage, the teacher focused on assigning learners to work on the assignment 1 to recall the words that learners had learnt through nursery rhymes. In the Show stage, learners were requested to construct a picture, graphic or symbols referring to the target words that they had learnt on the worksheets 2. In the Discuss stage, teacher played a role as a facilitator of an activity which encouraged learners to review and discuss the vocabulary that they had reviewed, in which they noted in their notebooks. The learners were asked to do the activity by following the teacher's instruction. In the Refine and reflect stage, learners worked in a pair or small groups. This activity encouraged learners to interact together. In the Apply in learning games stage, some games were used to energize and remind the learners to the words that learners had learnt through nursery rhymes.

To evaluate learners' vocabulary knowledge, an English vocabulary test was designed. There were three parts: meaning, spelling, and the use of words. There are ten multiple choice questions and ten items of matching pictures with words. All the vocabulary in the test was selected from the textbooks which the learners were assigned to study by the school.

To determine the validity, the researcher asked three experts in teaching English to determine content validity of all research instruments by using the criteria of index of item objective congruence (IOC). For an English vocabulary test, the experts reviewed an English vocabulary test. After that, the test was revised. Meanwhile, to determine the reliability, all research instruments were tested on 28 third-grade learners who were not involved in this study. The instruments were analyzed using the reliability coefficient Cronbach's alpha. The reliability of an English vocabulary test 0.73. Since Cronbach's alpha value was higher than 0.7, the research instruments of this study were powerful enough to evaluate learners' English vocabulary knowledge through the teaching method.

3. Data Collection

This study lasted seven weeks. The learners were asked to complete consent forms and the pre-test at the first week. From the second week to the sixth week, two groups of learners were taught by lesson plans based on nursery rhymes. After that, they were asked to do post-test at the seventh week.

4. Data Analysis

The data collected from pre-test and post-test were analyzed by mean scores, standard deviations, the dependent *t*-test analysis, and the analysis of covariance. The dependent *t*-test analysis was used to compare whether there were any differences in the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the learners in both groups. Meanwhile, the analysis of covariance was used to compare whether there were any differences in the post-test mean scores between two groups of learners.

Results

1. EFL Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge

To investigate the effects of nursery rhymes on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge. The data from vocabulary test including pre-test and post-test were analyzed by mean scores, standard deviations, and the dependent *t*-test analysis. The results are shown in Table 1.

Tables 1 Descriptive Statistic of EFL Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge Mean Scores

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Third-Grade Learners	8.72	2.30	16.93	1.93
Fourth-Grade Learners	10.97	2.72	16.59	2.56
EFL Learners	9.84	2.74	16.76	2.25

According to Table 1, the results reveal that the pre-test mean score of the third-grade learners was 8.72 (*SD* = 2.30), and the pre-test mean score of the fourth-grade learners was 10.97 (*SD* = 2.72). The post-test mean score of the third-grade learners was 16.93 (*SD* = 1.93), and the post-test mean score of the fourth-grade learners was 16.59 (*SD* = 2.56).

In order to determine the effects of the nursery rhymes on all EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge, the data were analyzed by mean scores, standard deviations, and the dependent *t*-test analysis. The results are shown in Table 2.

Tables 2 The Comparison of the Pre-test Mean Score to Post-test Mean Scores

Time	N	Mean	Max	Min	SD	<i>t</i> -value	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i> -value
After learning English vocabulary through nursery rhymes	57	16.76	20	6	2.25	16.30	57	0.00**
Before learning English vocabulary through nursery rhymes	57	9.84	16	3	2.74			

****p* < 0.05

According to Table 2, the results reveal that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test ($t(57) = 16.30$, $p > 0.05$). The pre-test mean score was 9.84 ($SD = 2.74$) while the post-test mean score was 16.76 ($SD = 2.25$). The results reveal the post-test mean score was significantly higher than the pre-test mean score. The results reveal that teaching English vocabulary through nursery rhymes had potential in developing EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge.

2. Comparing the effects of nursery rhymes on EFL third-grade learners' vocabulary knowledge to those of EFL fourth-grade learners' vocabulary knowledge

To compare the effects of teaching English vocabulary through nursery rhymes on third-grade learners' vocabulary knowledge to those of fourth-grade learners' vocabulary knowledge, the analysis of covariance was used to find out the results. The results are shown in Tables 3 and 4

To compare the mean scores between two groups, estimate marginal means was used to find out the results. The mean scores of both groups were adjusted. Wagner (2017) stated that by adjusting the mean scores on the dependent variable in this fashion, ANCOVA provides the best estimates of how the comparison groups would have performed if they had all possessed identical (statistically equivalent) means on the control variable(s). The adjusted and unadjusted means for the third-grade learners and fourth-grade learners are shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Unadjusted and Covariance Adjusted Descriptive Statistic

Group	Before Treatment			After Treatment (Unadjusted)		After Treatment (Adjusted)	
	N	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SE
Third-Grade Learners	29	8.72	2.30	16.93	1.93	17.16	0.43
Fourth-Grade Learners	28	10.97	2.72	16.59	2.56	16.36	0.43

Table 4 The Analysis of Covariance of the Third-Grade Learners and the Fourth-Grade Learners

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Before Treatment	14.63	1	14.63	2.95	0.09
Between Groups	7.70	1	7.70	1.56	0.22
Error	272.27	55	4.95		

*** $p < 0.05$

According to Table 4, the analysis of covariance was conducted to compare the effects of teaching English vocabulary through nursery rhymes on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge of third-grade learners to those of fourth-grade learners. The analysis reveals that there were no statistically significant differences ($F = 1.56$, $p > 0.05$) in the mean score of third-grade learners ($M = 17.16$, $SE = 0.43$) and the mean score of fourth-grade learners ($M = 16.36$, $SE = 0.43$). This points out that the effects of teaching English vocabulary through nursery rhymes on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge on the third-grade learners and the fourth-grade learners were similar. Therefore, it can be concluded that teaching English vocabulary through nursery rhymes has effects on different background learners.

Discussion

According to the findings of the study, the post-test mean score was higher than that of the pre-test. This revealed that EFL learners' English vocabulary knowledge was improved by nursery rhymes. There are two major reasons to explain the results. Firstly, nursery rhymes consist of simple words that learners are able to face or hear in their daily lives. According to Kenny (2005), nursery rhymes can provide vocabulary relating to places, people, and ideas which would heighten learners' background of vocabulary knowledge. Similarly, Dodson (1981: 325-346) stated that the language used in nursery rhymes are the language that young children can catch up easily, and those words are short enough to draw children's attention. In this study, nursery rhymes played a significant role as a powerful tool. The five nursery rhymes used in the study provided a lot of normal vocabulary to the learners. For example, the vocabulary through *Old MacDonald Has A Farm* were about animals. The offered common words, such as cow, dog, sheep, duck, and cat. Another nursery rhyme was *What's Your Favorite Color*. The provided words were: blue, red, green, yellow, orange, and purple. Nursery rhymes assisted learners to gain several words due to the simplicity of each word. In other word, nursery rhymes consist of rich ordinary vocabulary which benefit learners to absorb a lot of words.

Secondly, teaching vocabulary through nursey rhymes offers a merriment atmosphere in the classroom. According to York (2011), the uniqueness of nursery rhymes is the special beats along with each rhyme, these beats can allure children's attention. Similarly, According to Kenny (2005), the rhyme, the rhythmic, and the melodic flow of language is joyful. In the present study, the selected nursery rhymes consisted of the merry and unique melodies which helped the learners to more focus on the rhymes and the lessons. For instance, in *If You Are Happy*, the rhythm was cheerful, and there were some stress beats to the focused vocabulary. The merriment of nursery rhymes transformed classroom to be cheerful, and this led the learners to be more interested in the lessons. Similar to the ideas of Shwetha (2013), teaching vocabulary through nursery rhymes offered a non-threatening environment for learners and led to the achievement. In summary, because of the rich vocabulary and the merriment through nursery rhymes. It led learners to develop their vocabulary knowledge.

The results of this study were in line with the study of Nurhudayah (2018) which reported that using nursery rhymes was effective in teaching vocabulary. Nurhudayah (2018) implemented using nursery rhymes in teaching vocabulary to ESL

learners (English as a second language), but the present study used nursery rhymes in teaching English vocabulary to EFL learners (English as a foreign language). This pointed out that nursery rhymes are able to develop both ESL and EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge.

According to the findings from Table 4 which reveal that there were no statistically significant differences in the mean score of EFL third-grade learners and the mean score of EFL fourth-grade learners. Although these two groups of learners had different levels of vocabulary knowledge, teaching English vocabulary through nursery rhymes can similarly improve learners' vocabulary knowledge. It can be suggested that this teaching method encouraged all EFL learners including the lower proficiency learners to gather several vocabulary, their vocabulary knowledge had been improved in the same way. This can be concluded that teaching English vocabulary through nursery rhymes was effective in heightening vocabulary knowledge of learners who have different background.

Limitation of the Study

This study was limited to the third-grade learners and the fourth-grade learners at a private school in Kanchanaburi province, which were the particular groups of learners. The results of this study might not be a representative of learners in other levels and other groups of learners in different circumstances.

Implication of the Study

The findings of this study may encourage more educational experts to use nursery rhymes in designing curriculum or courses because of the effectiveness of this method that may improve learners' English vocabulary knowledge. However, following the teaching method in the lesson plans of this study, teachers need to control the time in teaching in each stage because some activities need more time than the expectation.

Recommendations

Although the results of the study confirmed the positive effects of teaching English vocabulary through nursery rhymes on EFL learners' vocabulary knowledge, it would be interesting to conduct the further studies by using nursery rhymes to enhance other skills. Additionally, it might be advantageous to conduct a research study with learners from different levels. The present study applied specific five nursery rhymes to teach learners. It might be interesting to select other nursery rhymes in teaching other skills to learners.

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the Graduate School of Srinakharinwirot University for their academic support and services.

References

- Abolfathi, H., & Abdullah, A. (2015). Pragmatic consciousness-raising activities and EFL learners' speech act performance of 'making suggestions.' *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 6(2), 333-342.
- Alaraj, M. M. (2017). EFL speaking acquisition: Identifying problems, suggesting learning strategies and examining their effect on students' speaking fluency. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Invention*, 4(1), 3215-3221.
- Ara, S. (2009). Use of songs, rhymes and games in teaching English to young learners in Bangladesh. *Dhaka University Journal of Linguistics*, 2(3), 161-172.
- British Council. (2021). *How to teach English as a lingua franca (ELF)*.
<https://www.britishcouncil.org/voices-magazine/how-teach-english-lingua-franca-elf>
- Bryant, P. E., Bradley, L., Maclean, M., & Crossland, J. (1989). Nursery rhymes, phonological skills and reading. *Journal Of Child Language*, 16(2), 407-428.
- Dodson, F. (1981). *Give your child a head start in reading*. Simon and Schuster.
- Džanić, N. D., & Pejić, A. (2016). The effect of using songs on young learners and their motivation for learning English. *New Trends in Social and Liberal Sciences (NETSOL): An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 1(2), 40-54.
- Education Testing Service. (2017). *Test and score data summary for TOEFL iBT tests January 2017-December 2017 test data*. Education Testing Service (ETS).
- Elaine, D. (2000). *The importance of nursery rhymes* (Paper no. ED442117). Educational Resource Information Center (ERIC) Database.
<https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED442117.pdf>
- Harper, L. J. (2011). Nursery rhyme knowledge and phonological awareness in preschool children. *Journal of Language and Literacy Education*, 7(1), 65-78.
- Hernik, J., & Jaworska, E. (2018). The effect of enjoyment on learning. In A. L. Martínez, I. C. Torres, & L. G. Chova (Eds.), *12th International Technology, Education and Development (INTED2018) Conference Proceedings* (pp. 508-514). IATED, Valencia, Spain.
- Hery, I. S. P., & Arshad, I. (2020). Using nursery rhymes to enhance vocabulary among young English learners in Indonesia. *International Journal of Management*, 11(9), 212-226.
- Hossain, M. A. (2021). English as a foreign language: Insights from a Public University in Bangladesh. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation*, 4(1), 234-237.
- Jadoon, A. U. R. R., Chishti, M. I. Afzaal, M., & Afza, T. (2020). Challenges faced by newly inducted teachers implementing revised English curriculum in Pakistan. *English Language Teaching*, 13(7), 52-66.
- Kenny, A. (2005). *Philosophy of language*. Blackwell.
- Kusumawati, E., & Widiati, U. (2017). The effects of vocabulary instructions on students' reading comprehension across cognitive styles in ESP. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 8(2), 175-184.
- Marzano, R. J. (2019). *Marzano's six steps for teaching academic vocabulary*. Texas Education Agency.
- May, B. N. (2019). The rhyme and reason for nursery rhymes in the elementary music classroom. *General Music Today*, 33(2), 90-96.

- Nurhudayah. (2018). *The effectiveness of teaching vocabulary by using nursery rhymes to the First Grade Students at Mts Ddi Pattojo Soppeng*. [Undergraduate 's thesis]. Alauddin State Islamic University.
- Oxford English dictionary online*. (2002). Oxford University Press.
<https://www.oed.com/>
- Pratama, I. D. (2017). Meaning and form in nursery rhymes translation. *Humanus: Jurnal Ilmiah Ilmu-ilmu Humaniora*, 16(1), 1-12.
- Prosic-Santovac, D. (2015). Making the match: Traditional nursery rhymes and teaching English to modern children. *Children's Literature in English Language Education (CLELE) Journal*, 3(1), 25-48.
- Saengpakdeejit, R. (2014). Strategies for dealing with vocabulary learning problems by Thai university students. *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities, and Arts*, 14(1), 147-167.
- Schuitema, J., Peetsma, T., & van der Veen, I. (2016). Longitudinal relations between perceived autonomy and social support from teachers, and students' self-regulated learning and achievement. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 49, 32-45.
- Shwetha, R., & Phil, M. (2013). Nursery rhymes as an effective instructional material for young language learners. *ELT Journal*, 772-780.
- Wagner, W. P. (2017). *Understanding analysis of covariance*.
<https://www.coursehero.com/file/86475037/UNDERSTANDING-ANALYSIS-OF-COVARIANCEdocx/>
- Wiriyachitra, A. (2003). Thai teachers' role in teaching: Motivating students and guiding their learning. *Thai TESOL Focus*, 16(2), 25-27.
- Xiaofei, H., & Modehiran, P. (2019). Vocabulary teaching using picture storytelling to improve English vocabulary knowledge of grade 7 Thai students. *An Online Journal of Education*, 14(2), 1-13.
- York, J. (2011). Music and MEXT: How songs can help primary school English teachers teach and their students learn. *Language Teacher*, 35(4), 62-67.

Attitudinal Identification: An Essential Paradigm for the Growth of Non-native Varieties

Madhuri Gokhale¹ / Kampeeraphab Intanoo²

¹Professor Dr., Department of English, Fergusson College, Pune, India

²Asst. Prof. Dr., English Language Teaching Program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

E-mail: kampeeraphab.it@bru.ac.th

Abstract

The significance of English as a 'Link language' and as a 'Global Language' has increased in the past few decades. English is seen as 'a language of career' and 'a passport for success' in different walks of life. Active steps have been taken for imparting knowledge of English in the 'Outer Circle'. In the outer circle, English is used as a Second language and it includes countries like India, Singapore, Pakistan and Africa. Though some research has been carried out on these varieties, a lot of exhaustive work still needs to be done from the perspective of standardizing these varieties.

The present study sheds light on the attitudes of teachers, learners, curriculum designers, the corporate world and the decision makers in India towards the language variety they use. Though Indian English is considered to have achieved recognition and prestige in the past few years, it is observed that most of the Indian speakers of English still do not take 'pride' in asserting the fact that the variety of English that they speak is 'Indian English', and also quite often label the variety that they speak as either 'British English' or 'American English'. It is felt that 'Attitudes' play a significant role in the growth or decay of a particular language variety. The study argues that the Attitudinal Identification with the variety that we speak is an essential paradigm for the growth of a language variety. The study cites some examples and it suggests some strategies that could be adopted so as to bring a shift in the people's attitude.

Keywords: Attitudinal Identification. Non-native varieties, Pride, Standardization

Using Novels in the Language Classroom: Myanmar Context

Mary¹ / Akkarapon Nuemaihom² / Kampeeraphab Intanoo³

¹Ph.D. Scholar, English Language Teaching Program, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

E-mail: 640427092006@bru.ac.th

²Assoc. Prof. Dr., English Language Teaching Program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

E-mail: akkarapon.nm@bru.ac.th

³Asst. Prof. Dr., English Language Teaching Program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

E-mail: kampeeraphab.it@bru.ac.th

Abstract

The objectives of this quantitative and qualitative research were 1) to examine the attitudes of students and teachers towards using novels in EFL classrooms 2) to investigate if novels can motivate students, enrich their cultural knowledge and improve their linguistic level and 3) to identify certain problems students may face in reading novels. The samples were composed of 71 English specialization students from third year to fourth year and 24 English teachers who are currently teaching novels at selected universities in Myanmar. They were selected through a purposive sampling method. The instruments used to gather information were questionnaire and selected teacher's semi-structured interviews. The statistics employed to analyze the quantitative data were percentage, mean, and standard deviation. The findings showed that both students and teachers held positive attitudes towards using novels in the EFL classes. In addition, the interview with teachers revealed that novels can motivate students, foster linguistic fluency and cultural enrichment. The results are of pedagogical significance to EFL teaching in that they present how well a novel was received in an EFL class, the benefits it offered as well as the difficulties it entailed to the reading process.

Keywords: Novels, EFL teaching, language classroom

Pedagogical Challenges of Online English Teachers During Covid-19

Ohnmar Win¹ / Nawamin Prachanant² / Saowarot Ruangpaisan³

¹First Year Ph.D. Student, English Language Teaching Program,
 Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand
 E-mail: 640427092008@bru.ac.th

²Asst.Prof. Dr., English Language Teaching Program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences,
 Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand
 E-mail: nawamin.pc@bru.ac.th

³Lecturer, Dr., English Language Teaching Program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences,
 Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand
 E-mail: saowarot.rp@bru.ac.th

Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic has had a considerable impact on educational activities and has disturbed the traditional standards of education in colleges and universities around the world. As a result, more and more teaching and learning is taking place online because of the epidemic. As a result, the consequence of the COVID-19 epidemic has unexpectedly compelled educators and educational leaders to examine pedagogical approaches to provide students with a high-quality education and to make modifications to their curriculum and instructional methods. The purpose of this study is to investigate the pedagogical obstacles faced by English as a foreign language teacher who are practicing online teaching in Myanmar during the COVID-19 epidemic. A quantitative and qualitative research methods were used in this study, which included closed-ended surveys and interviewing with EFL teachers regarding with the pedagogical challenges of online English teachers during Covid-19. Following the distribution of online surveys, a simple random selection procedure was used to select participants. The descriptive statistical tests used to assess the research data, such as the mean and standard deviation, were used to analyze the findings. The findings demonstrate that EFL teachers have a positive attitude toward the use of virtual platforms for instruction. Similarly, EFL teachers found several difficulties that hampered their ability to provide competent teaching and learning. Furthermore, EFL teachers lacked solid expertise in conducting online sessions, and they were not provided with appropriate technical assistance or information and communications technology infrastructure to deal with the technological issues. According to the findings of this study, EFL teachers should be provided with enough professional development opportunities to gain technical and ICT infrastructure competencies that would enable them to successfully teach online courses.

Keywords: Pedagogical Challenges, Online, Covid-19

Introduction

The World Health Organization's declaration of COVID-19 as a pandemic prompted an urgent transformation in teaching from face-to-face to online in 107 nations, affecting over half of the world's student population (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2020). During this transition period, teachers were under pressure to develop knowledge and skills to teach their pupils using digital virtual platforms. Meanwhile, integrating technology into educational institutions has been a hot topic on the international stage for decades

(Daniela et al., 2018; U.S. Department of Education, 2017). Even though traditional technological teaching tools like PowerPoint and Videos are widely used and applicable to online teaching, educational technology experts continue to assess the integration of technological teaching tools in pedagogical practices (Guillén-Gámez et al., 2018; Nikolopoulou & Gialamas, 2016). Furthermore, effective online educational approaches require the integration of ICT; similarly, the quality of teachers and the e-learning system play a vital role in students' satisfaction and success (Theresiawati et al., 2020). As a result, professional training should be used to integrate technology into education (Guillén-Gámez et al., 2020).

This rapid transformation in educational practice increased the demand for educational institutions to produce high-quality learning results for pupils (Rodriguez-Segura et al., 2020). Teachers in China were forced to offer lectures from their homes due to a lack of technical support and online teaching infrastructure (Zhang et al., 2020). EFL teachers in Myanmar did their best to continue educating students. Still, they faced various obstacles in distance teaching and could not appropriately assign interactive activities to students (Waqar, 2020). This urgency needs a re-evaluation of EFL teachers' online teaching professional development. Furthermore, mainly in wealthy countries, online learning is successful (Basilaia & Kvavadze, 2020). While online teaching and learning have improved significantly in underdeveloped countries such as Myanmar, various limitations still exist that limit the efficiency of ICT integration in education (Salam et al., 2017). Previous research in Myanmar has found that students do better on digital platforms than on traditional platforms (Shehzadi et al., 2020). Teachers' digital competency in terms of producing pedagogical courses, on the other hand, is found to be insufficient (Farid et al., 2015), even though teachers' contribution to effectively integrating ICT in the classroom cannot be overlooked (Oguguo et al., 2020). Furthermore, the research primarily targeted students as end-users (Alharbi, 2019; Niederhauser et al., 2018). Although most EFL teachers are deemed digitally literate, they must learn about professional ICT integration in the classroom (Al-Samarraie & Saeed, 2018). Some research found that each EFL teacher has a unique experience with ICT. There is a substantial gender gap in digital instructional growth, with males outnumbering females (Boyte-Eckis et al., 2018).

Problem Statement

In the world, the COVID-19 epidemic was unexpected. It put pressure on institutions to emphasize the necessity of ICT integration in education and the need to reform teaching techniques. According to previous research, teachers can conduct online courses but lack the necessary skills to effectively integrate ICT into their educational practices (Al-Samarraie and Saeed, 2018). Teachers in Myanmar are frequently unprepared to implement digital instructional methods into their courses (Adnan & Anwar, 2020). As a result, EFL teachers must have technical skills to adapt to online teaching (Uerz et al., 2018) properly. This study aims to look into the challenges that EFL teachers face during Covid-19. The researchers of this study decided to make it a research plan to investigate the practices and issues that EFL teachers in Myanmar face when teaching online. As a result, this study aims to fill up the empirical knowledge gap by adding to the literature on EFL teachers' challenges, attitudes, and experiences in online teaching in Myanmar.

Literature Review

Online teaching is defined by the following principles: (1) the teacher and learner are geographically separated; asynchronous learning occurs when groups of students learn at the same time, (2) access to learning materials is provided through technology and shared documents, (3) interaction between the teacher and learner is provided through computer-technology media, and (4) synchronous learning occurs when groups of students learn at the same time (Anderson, 2011a). In general, online teaching is comparable to teaching in any other traditional educational setting (Anderson, 2011b). Online teaching involves a variety of technologies, resources, instructional approaches, responsibilities, institutional frameworks, and forms of involvement, all of which are supported by monitoring and guidance (Bastes, 2019; Bullen & Janes, 2007). The flexibility of time, place, environment, and interaction is emphasized in online teaching (Anderson, 2011b). The online learning environment can significantly improve educational teaching methods (Anderson et al., 2001). The teaching method entails selecting lesson-specific strategies, such as lesson plans or teaching aids, and the implementation of a well-thought-out framework (Richey et al., 2011). In online education, the teacher takes on the role of facilitator and actor, assisting students in their learning (Goodyear & Dimitriadis, 2013).

Online classes differ from regular classrooms because they do not allow for face-to-face interaction. As a result, teachers face a problem in conveying their lectures accurately so that students can achieve their targeted learning objectives. Teachers and students in poor nations, on the other hand, are more likely to face technological obstacles or barriers. Eltahir et al., 2019. Prior literature knowledge identified several barriers to the adoption of technology in teaching and learning in developing countries; for example, in Saudi Arabia, the main challenges in adopting technological applications were found to be poor communication between learner and instructor, ineffective assistance, inadequate infrastructure, and inadequate ICT competence (Aljaber, 2018). In Pakistan's higher education institutions, insufficient digital self-efficacy and low internet connectivity have been cited as major barriers to ICT adoption (Kanwal & Rehman, 2017). Another study identified the barriers to successful ICT integration in higher education that are caused by a lack of technical expertise and skills, categorizing them into three groups: (a) learners, (b) teachers, and (c) content production (Kebritchi et al., 2017). External barriers, such as a lack of funding, infrastructure, training, time, vision, and content, positively affect internal barriers, such as technological pedagogical self-efficacy, guidance, family resistance, and learning-teaching activities beliefs, according to Hamutolu and Basarmak (2020). According to Al-Samarraie and Saeed (2018), instructors' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation significantly impact their continued usage of flipped teaching and digital self-efficacy. Furthermore, Tosuntaş et al. (2019) highlighted weak infrastructure, limited digital competence, and low motivation as important impediments to technology integration. In Myanmar, English Foreign language teachers are practicing online teaching during the COVID-19 epidemic. In this study, pedagogical challenges were investigated to examine how EFL teachers feel about online instruction, what ICT teaching platforms EFL teachers used in their online classes, and what pedagogical problems EFL teachers faced when implementing online learning. To proffer the solutions to these challenges concerning with EFL teachers' online teaching in English language classrooms, the following approaches are used to collect

the data through quantitative method. They are classroom management, guidance, resources, attendance of students, technical challenges, communication challenges, and assessment challenges.

Classroom Management

Class management is a crucial component of effective pedagogy. Teachers engage students and build discipline in the classroom by cooperating effectively (Evertson & Weinstein, 2006).

Guidance

Professional development is essential for teachers to adapt technical skills in an online education environment by providing training and assistance (Hyndman, 2018).

Resources

Resources are defined as the assistance or support offered by the institution to teachers to achieve their learning objectives as efficiently as possible (Hung, 2016). Teachers find it difficult to deliver effective lessons when they do not have enough facilities.

Attendance of students

Students' regular attendance at school is critical to their performance in higher education (Freeman et al., 2014), and student absenteeism can result in worse marks (Neri & Meloche, 2007).

Technical Challenges

Teachers must develop technology skills and knowledge to match the educational system with the needs of the twenty-first century. Teachers will be responsible for teaching and directing pupils by offering technical support. (Care and colleagues, 2018)

Communication Challenges

Communication between the teacher and the student is critical to achieving successful learning outcomes (Zee & Koomen, 2016).

Assessment Challenges

Learners can use online assessments to help them achieve their final grades and learning objectives (Collings et al., 2018). Because of the unfamiliarity with the new approaches, online assessments during the epidemic era proved another problem. Students were unable to participate in real-time problem-solving activities or obtain teacher feedback. On the other hand, formative and summative assessments are conducted in both synchronous and asynchronous modes.

Research Objective

To investigate the pedagogical obstacles faced by English as a foreign language teacher who are practicing online teaching in Myanmar during the COVID-19 epidemic.

Research Questions

1. How do EFL teachers feel about online instruction?
2. What ICT teaching platforms do EFL teachers use in their online classes?
3. What pedagogical problems do EFL teachers face when implementing online learning?

Research Methodology

This study uses a quantitative method research strategy, as recommended by Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) since it allows for a more thorough description of the facts and a more accurate approaches in questionnaire survey. Following the research design, questionnaires are used to synchronize quantitative data. The quantitative data assisted in determining the strength of the relationship between relevant aspects of instructional techniques.

Population

The study's participants were EFL teachers in some universities and private schools in Myanmar. The questionnaires were distributed through the internet, followed by a simple random selection strategy to improve data gathering and analysis. Fifty (50) EFL teachers from some universities and private schools in Myanmar completed the surveys. And 10 EFL teachers who are randomly selected from some universities and private schools in Myanmar were interviewed. Table 1 shows their demographic information.

Table 1
Demographic Profile (N= 50)

No.	Participants	Total No.	Gender		Age Range	Education			Teaching experiences
			Male	Female		BA	MA	Ph.D.	
1	Teachers	50	0	50	25-56	0	50	0	0 to above 16
2	Teachers	10	1	9	25-56	1	9	0	0 to above 16

Data Analysis

Data collection was divided into eight sessions in which the demographic profile of EFL teachers was firstly collected and then the following sessions were for seven approaches: classroom management, guidance, resources, attendance of students, technical challenges, communication challenges, and assessment challenges. In each session of the approaches, the five likert scale was used to investigate the challenges of the EFL teachers in teaching English language via online. During the process of data collection from the five likert scale, two parts "agree" and "strongly agree" and "disagree" and "strongly disagree" were combined for the results of pedagogical challenges. Then, the results are calculated with the percentages and frequencies by each group. The quantitative data were statistically evaluated using SPSS (version 25) and various statistical tests such as Mean, Standard Deviation.

Research Results

In this study, the participants have responded in questionnaire survey to show the results for how EFL teachers feel about online instruction, what ICT teaching platforms EFL teachers used in their online classes, and what pedagogical problems EFL teachers faced when implementing online learning as in the following tables.

Table 2
Classroom Management

Classroom Management	Disagree	Not Decided	Agree	Mean	SD	Interpretation
1. I have challenges in monitoring students.	0%	0%	100%	3.00	0.00	Yes, often
2. I have challenges to make engagement with students.	0%	33.3%	66.7%	2.67	0.47	Yes, often
3. I have challenges in time management.	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
4. I have challenges in delivering content.	0%	0%	100%	3.00	0.00	Yes, often
5. I have challenges in practical work.	0%	0%	100%	3.00	0.00	Yes, often
Average Response	4.00%	6.66%	89.34%	2.85	0.45	Yes, often

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=No, never

1.67-2.33=Yes, sometimes

2.34-3.00=Yes, often

In this table, most teachers agree with these five statements (Average mean=2.85). The results revealed that most teachers have challenges in monitoring students, in making engagement with students, in time management, in delivering content and in practical work. This study stated that taking student attendance was challenging for them. Teachers could not accurately monitor pupils' engagement, which posed a further obstacle.

Table 3
Guidance

Guidance	Disagree	Not Decided	Agree	Mean	SD	Interpretation
1. I lack training for online teaching	33.3%	0%	66.7%	2.33	0.94	Yes, sometimes
2. I am lacking guidance while teaching online	60%	0%	40%	1.80	0.98	Yes, sometimes
3. I lack attending workshops relating to online teaching	80%	0%	20%	1.40	0.80	No, never
4. There is lacking accountability while teaching online	60%	20%	20%	1.60	0.80	No, never
Average Response	58.33%	5.00%	36.68%	1.78	0.95	Yes, sometimes

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=No, never

1.67-2.33=Yes, sometimes

2.34-3.00=Yes, often

In this table, most of the teachers disagree with the negative statements concerning lacking guidance while teaching online, lack attending workshops relating to online teaching and lacking accountability while teaching online with the mean score (1.78). Most of the teachers agree with the statement that they lack training for online teaching. It can be concluded that they have guidance, workshops and accountability while teaching online. As a result, it can be assumed that they have sufficient level of guidance concerning with the virtual teaching skills.

Table 4
Resources

Resources	Disagree	Not Decided	Agree	Mean	SD	Interpretation
1. There is electricity failure while teaching online	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
2. The ICT infrastructure is poor	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
3. There are lack of compatible devices while teaching online	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
4. The internet connectivity is poor while teaching online	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
5. There are financial limitations	33.3%	33.4%	33.3%	2.00	0.82	Yes, sometimes
6. There is limited time while teaching online	0%	0%	100%	3.00	0.00	Yes, often
Average Response	18.88%	5.57%	75.55%	2.57	0.79	Yes, often

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=No, never

1.67-2.33=Yes, sometimes

2.34-3.00=Yes, often

In this table, approximately mean score (2.57) of EFL teachers said that their university did not offer them enough support, such as a lack of ICT infrastructure, internet speed, compatible devices, electricity, and finances.

Table 5
Attendance of students

Attendance of students	Disagree	Not Decided	Agree	Mean	SD	Interpretation
1. The interest of students is low while teaching online	20%	40%	40%	2.20	0.75	Yes, sometimes
2. The participation of students is low while teaching online	20%	20%	60%	2.40	0.80	Yes, often
3. The workspace is limited while teaching online	20%	20%	60%	2.40	0.80	Yes, often
Average Response	20.00%	26.67%	53.33%	2.33	0.79	Yes, sometimes

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=No, never

1.67-2.33=Yes, sometimes

2.34-3.00=Yes, often

Another key obstacle, according to participants, is students' low attendance rate, particularly in synchronous sessions. Challenges linked to technology access, restricted time, workspace, or home working environmental difficulties are some reasons.

Table 6
Technical Challenges

Technical Challenges	Disagree	Not Decided	Agree	Mean	SD	Interpretation
1. I have limited Technology competence	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
2. I have limited technical use in pedagogy	40%	0%	60%	2.20	0.98	Yes, sometimes
3. I have limited technological experience	60%	0%	40%	1.80	0.98	Yes, sometimes
Average Response	40.00%	0.00%	60.00%	2.20	0.98	Yes, sometimes

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=No, never

1.67-2.33=Yes, sometimes

2.34-3.00=Yes, often

In this table, the majority of the EFL teachers stated that they had no prior experience using technology in pedagogy. As a result, their technical knowledge was limited. They had to deal with several challenges when it came to virtual teaching.

Table 7
Communication Challenges

Communication Challenges	Disagree	Not Decided	Agree	Mean	SD	Interpretation
1. I have challenges in providing enough feedback	0%	20%	80%	2.80	0.40	Yes, often
2. I have challenges making proper discussions while teaching online	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
3. I have challenges getting student-instructor interaction while teaching online	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
Average Response	13.33%	6.67%	80.00%	2.67	0.70	Yes, often

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=No, never

1.67-2.33=Yes, sometimes

2.34-3.00=Yes, often

Another obvious disadvantage of online training for instructors is the inability to connect appropriately with students face-to-face. Teachers cannot check in with pupils on their grasp of lessons in a tangible way. As a result, they cannot alter their teaching activities and online discussions because they do not know what their students require.

Table 8
Assessment Challenges

Assessment Challenges	Disagree	Not Decided	Agree	Mean	SD	Interpretation
1. There are challenges in assessing students	40%	0%	60%	2.20	0.98	Yes, sometimes
2. There are teachers' incompetence	20%	0%	80%	2.60	0.80	Yes, often
3. There are less useful for practical evaluation	0%	20%	80%	2.80	0.40	Yes, often
Average Response	20.00%	6.67%	73.33%	2.53	0.81	Yes, often

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=No, never

1.67-2.33=Yes, sometimes

2.34-3.00=Yes, often

Because of the unfamiliarity with the new approaches, online assessments during the epidemic era proved another problem. Students were unable to participate in real-time problem-solving activities or obtain teacher feedback. On the other hand, formative and summative assessments are conducted in both synchronous and asynchronous

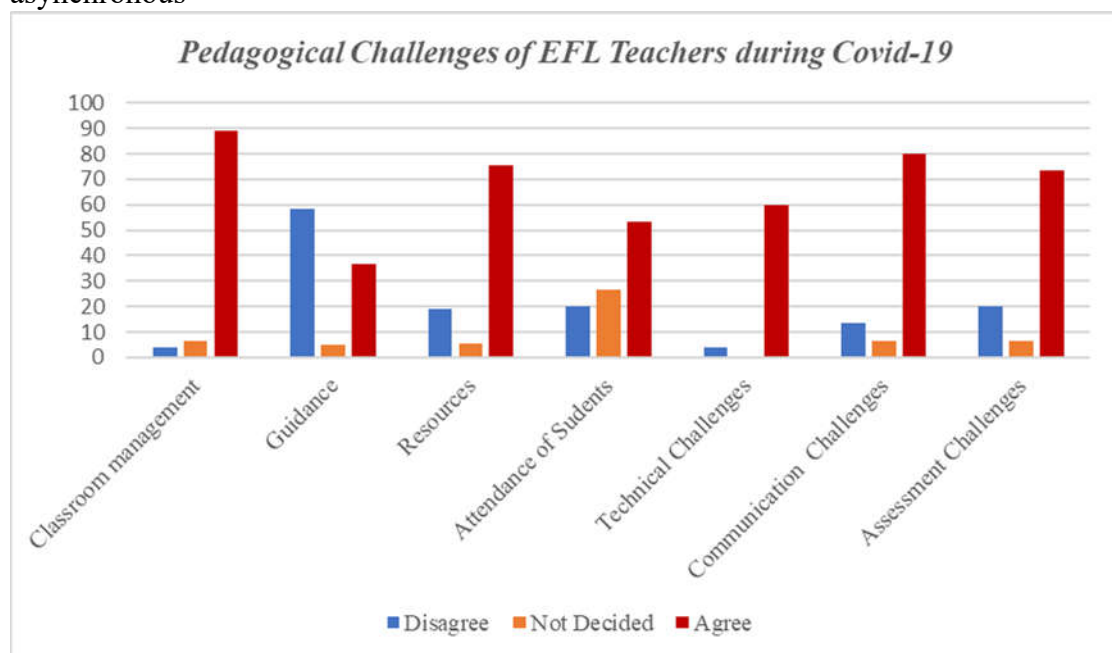


Figure 1
Pedagogical Challenges of EFL Teachers during Covid-19

According to the replies of EFL teachers, classmanagement, resources, communication challenges and a lack of supervision are the most significant

obstacles, while difficulty in students' low attendance rate is the least significant. Specially to the results of the guidance, their disagreement in negative statements showed that they had sufficient satisfactory concerning with guidance, workshops and accountability in online teaching while they showed training as their need. A comparison of all the themes, as shown in Figure 1, indicates the importance of class management (89.3%) and the difficulties in attendance of studnets (53.3%).

Interview of pedagogical challenges of online english teachers during covid-19

According to the findings of the interview, Most of the teachers are having difficulties managing the classroom in a way that encourages participation from a large number of students during the online lecture. This is one of the findings. Aside from that, instructing students online is a new experience for most teachers, and it might be challenging to cover a lecture in the allotted amount of time. The teachers stated that the move from face-to-face to online teaching method was a hasty decision made by the institution, but that they were not given any training or support to successfully implement the decision. Due to the lack of resources, the lecturers were having issues with the electric supply. As a result, classes were frequently being disrupted, which caused the students to feel disengaged. In addition, some of the students do not possess gadgets that are suitable for participating in online classes. In regard to the students' level of attendance, the instructors acknowledged the fact that students frequently confronted a number of technical issues during synchronous sessions. This was due to the fact that students were experiencing difficulties in consistently attending lectures. When asked about the technical challenges, the teachers who were interviewed stated that some of the teachers were not familiar with the use of technology in teaching, which is why they had to face several challenges in order to understand new teaching applications. This was mentioned in relation to the technical challenges. Due to the fact that teachers in online classes cannot see one other, it might be challenging for them to provide sufficient feedback to all of their students at the same time. This topic was brought up during a conversation regarding obstacles in communication. The teachers have said that they have never conducted an assessment online, which is why they do not have the experience necessary to conduct an online exam smoothly. This is one of the problems associated with the assessment process.

Discussion

Findings of the previous study by Wulandari Putri (2021) showed that productive skills, including speaking and writing skills, become the most challenging skills to teach. Moreover, giving feedback and teaching difficult materials in the basic competence also become the challenges in conducting e-learning for EFL teachers. Therefore, a training specifically provides an effective strategy and approach in online environment is required. The results of the study by Kyungmee Lee (2021) demonstrate that two groups of university faculty, separately identified as novice online teachers and expert online teachers, faced different dilemmas and challenges. An essential lesson learned from this analysis is the need for a more holistic, realistic, and sensitive approach to emergency teaching scenarios that may enable educational institutions to better respond to such emergencies in the

future. Compared to earlier empirical investigations and literary information, the study's findings reveal both comparable and dissimilar conclusions by seeing the pedagogical issues that EFL teachers face. In the context of EFL teachers from some universities and private schools in Myanmar, the adopted framework was modified, reliable, and verified. It can be used to investigate pedagogical challenges faced by teachers from some universities and private schools in Myanmar. This research also shows that teachers have positive views about the use of ICT in the classroom and that the COVID-19 transition phase impacts their degree of expertise in using educational technologies in the classroom. However, EFL teachers had to overcome several obstacles to utilize new technology platforms. The main one has to do with class management and a lack of guidance, which made it difficult for teachers to teach effectively. According to the study, ICT infrastructure is of poor quality; as a result, institutions should be provided with the most up-to-date technical infrastructure to maximize student learning results. Policymakers, higher education institutions, professors, students, government officials, and national and international academics can all benefit from the conclusions of this study. This study also raises concerns about the need for more research on the impact of virtual teaching and learning in education.

Recommendation

Through the questionnaire survey, how EFL teachers feel about online instruction, what ICT teaching platforms EFL teachers used in their online classes, and what pedagogical problems EFL teachers faced when implementing online learning were investigated in this study. Policymakers, higher education institutions, professors, students, government officials, and national and international academics can all benefit from the conclusions of this study. This study also raises concerns about the need for more research on the impact of virtual teaching and learning in education. In this study, questionnaire survey was used to show the results for how EFL teachers feel about online instruction, what ICT teaching platforms EFL teachers used in their online classes, and what pedagogical problems EFL teachers faced when implementing online learning. Additional studies can be conducted at secondary level, while also including other specialization teachers such as physics, history, geography and so on. The present study sought to investigate the pedagogical obstacles faced by English as a foreign language teacher who are practicing online teaching in Myanmar during the COVID-19 epidemic. Future studies might consider conducting research with study other specialization teachers using the mixed method strategy, classroom observation and interview. Further researches can be done to investigate psychological challenges, administrative challenges and technical challenges. Future research should be conducted to improve the quality of teaching and the way students learn, helping them gain a deeper grasp of fundamental material. Being mindful of the way the teachers can gain the better understanding will help students achieve deeper learning.

References

- Anh Tram, H. T. (2021). EFL Teachers' Perception on Challenges of Online Teaching during Covid-19 Pandemic: A Case Study. *International Journal of Social Science and Human Research*, 04(06). <https://doi.org/10.47191/ijsshr/v4-i6-42>
- Anugrah, P. M. (2022). Teachers' Challenges in Teaching Speaking Through Online Learning during Covid-19 Pandemic. *The Art of Teaching English as a Foreign Language*, 3(1), 25–34. <https://doi.org/10.36663/tatefl.v3i1.140>
- Hermansyah, H., & Aridah, A. (2021). Teachers' Perception toward the Challenges in Online English Teaching during the Covid-19 Pandemic. *Indonesian Journal of EFL and Linguistics*, 6(1), 63. <https://doi.org/10.21462/ijefl.v6i1.342>
- Rahman, M. M. U. (2020). Challenges and Solutions of Teaching English as a Foreign Language Online During a Global Pandemic like COVID-19: Saudi EFL Teachers' Perspectives. *Journal of Southwest Jiaotong University*, 55(6). <https://doi.org/10.35741/issn.0258-2724.55.6.10>
- Sari, M. H., & Keser, H. (2021). Classroom teachers' online teaching experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic: The perspective of technological pedagogical content knowledge. *Journal of Pedagogical Research*, 5(4), 251–269. <https://doi.org/10.33902/jpr.2021474706>
- Taimur, S., Sattar, H., & Dowd, E. (2021). Exploring Teachers' Perception on Successes and Challenges Associated with Digital Teaching Practice During COVID-19 Pandemic School Closures. *Pedagogical Research*, 6(4), em0105. <https://doi.org/10.29333/pr/11253>
- Virgin, N. F., Qalyubi, I., & Qamariah, Z. (2021). The Challenges of English Teachers in Remote Areas toward Online Learning during Covid-19 Pandemic. *Project (Professional Journal of English Education)*, 4(4), 728. <https://doi.org/10.22460/project.v4i4.p728-737>

Global Citizenship Education in English Language Teaching: A Perspective in Myanmar Context

Yee Mon Cho¹ / Akkarapon Nuemaihom² / Kampeeraphab Intanoo³

¹Ph.D. Student, English Language Teaching Program, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

E-mail: 640427092011@bru.ac.th

²Assoc.Prof.Dr., English Language Teaching Program, Faculty of Humanity and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

E-mail: akkarapon.nm@bru.ac.th

³Asst.Prof. Dr., English Language Teaching Program, Faculty of Humanity and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand

E-mail: kampeeraphab.it@bru.ac.th

Abstract

This qualitative, interpretivist case study sought to examine and evaluate the perceptions and experiences of teachers and students towards global citizenship education from the perspectives of Myanmar context. The objectives of the research are: to investigate the curriculum through learning goals for undergraduate English courses, to explore the international activities currently practiced at Myanmar Universities, and to find out the forms of pedagogy and instructional practices. The study also included observations and analysis of course curriculum which is currently practiced, survey from thirty-six undergraduate students who enrolled in the undergraduate English courses and interviews from fifteen English teachers from different universities in Myanmar. The purposeful or purposive sampling was employed in collecting the data. This study advances three primary findings. First, the need for continued curriculum development and design of curriculum goals related courses and content. Second, the students' positive view of global citizenship (including their roles and responsibilities in a global society) and the need for class projects, international education programs, and other experiential learning opportunities (such as fieldwork, service-learning, or community programs) to cultivate students' interest in global citizenship education. Third, the importance of experiential learning, among other forms of pedagogy and instructional practices, in furthering the goals of global citizenship education.

Keywords: global citizenship education, English Language Teaching, Myanmar Context

Introduction

With the continued growth of the internet and the advent of a new digital age, the dissemination of information is accelerating at an unprecedented rate (Gentz & Kramer, 2006). Through the rapid flow of capital, goods, and services, the world has become an increasingly interconnected global system (Centeno, Nag, Patterson, Shaver, & Windawi, 2015). The divides that once kept peoples and countries apart—be it cultural, economic, geographic, historical, or linguistic—are smaller and less recognizable (Friedman, 2000; Maguth, 2012; Oblinger, 2001). People (particularly of

younger generations) are not as tethered to their national or ethnic identities, and the concept of citizenship has expanded to include global belonging (Bagnall, 2015; Vallory, 2012). In recent years, the idea of "global citizenship" has grown in scholarly circles and developed into a nascent discipline known as global citizenship education (Brigham, 2011; Fernekes, 2016). Entering the 21st century, many countries have made substantial changes in their curriculum as one of the main components of education system by using the results of numerous investigations and studies conducted in the field of citizenship. Various stakeholders will benefit from this study, including students, teachers, administrators, curriculum writers, and policymakers. This qualitative, interpretivist case study seeks to examine and evaluate the perceptions and experiences of teachers and students in a global studies curriculum at Myanmar universities. The findings of this study will help to advance global citizenship education and to assist educators in this growing field of English language teaching at the age of globalization.

This section of the literature review examines how Myanmar universities and other countries have promoted global citizenship education through curriculum goals, students' interests in global citizenship education through international activities on the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals or SDG goals and teachers' forms of pedagogy and instructional practices based on the experiential learning experiences.

1. Global Citizenship Education: Curriculum Goals

The concept of citizenship has evolved over time. Growing interest in global citizenship has resulted in increased attention to the global dimension in citizenship education as well, and the implications for policy, curricula, teaching and learning. Global citizenship education applies a lifelong learning perspective, beginning from early childhood and continuing through all levels of education and into adulthood, requiring both formal and informal approaches, curricular and extracurricular interventions, and conventional and unconventional pathways to participation. To integrate GCED into the curriculum and using appropriate pedagogies, it is useful to understand the traits and qualities that GCED aims to develop in learners. Oxfam (2006) published a curriculum in the United Kingdom in 1997 to promote global citizenship education. They maintain that the curriculum is fluid, changing as needed to meet the needs of the changing world. Oxfam believes that global citizenship education should start at an early age, encompassing all curricular areas within the school and offering programs and resources for teachers worldwide to utilize in their classrooms in support of global citizenship education (2006). Oxfam (2006) remains one of the strongest proponents of global citizenship education and expounds it as an essential component of learning for the 21st century, arguing that *'In a fast-changing and interdependent world, education can, and should, help young people to meet the challenges they will confront now and, in the future'*. According to Oxfam (2006)'s GCED curriculum framework, there are three categories: (1) knowledge and understanding, (2) skills and (3) values and attitudes.

In the following table 1, Oxfam defines clearly the key elements of knowledge and understanding, skills, and values and attitudes for responsible global citizenship.

Table 1:
The Key Elements for Responsible Global Citizenship (Oxfam, 2006)

Knowledge and Understanding		Skills	Values and Attitudes
Social justice and equity		Critical thinking	Sense of identity and self-esteem
Diversity		Ability to argue effectively	Empathy
Globalisation and interdependence		Ability to challenge injustice and inequalities	Commitment to social justice and equity
Sustainable development		Respect for people and things	Value and respect for diversity
Peace and Conflict	Cooperation and conflict resolution		Concern for environment and commitment to sustainable development
			Belief that people can make a difference

2. Sustainable Development Goals or SDG Goals

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), also known as the Global Goals, were adopted by the United Nations in 2015 as a universal call to action to end poverty, protect the planet, and ensure that by 2030 all people enjoy peace and prosperity. The Sustainable Development Goals are the blueprint to achieve a better and more sustainable future for all. They addressed the global challenges we face, including poverty, inequality, climate change, environmental degradation, peace and justice. And multilateral institutions like the UN recently have taken steps to address these growing challenges. The UN General Assembly (2015) adopted a resolution for "transforming our world", otherwise known as the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The resolution set forth a to-do-list of 17 sustainable development goals (SDGs) which encompass:

- (1) No poverty;
- (2) Zero hunger;
- (3) Good health and well-being;
- (4) Quality education;
- (5) Gender equality;
- (6) Clean water and sanitation;
- (7) Affordable and clean energy;
- (8) Decent work and economic growth;
- (9) Industry, innovation, and infrastructure;
- (10) Reduced inequalities;
- (11) Sustainable cities and communities;
- (12) Responsible consumption and production;
- (13) Climate action;
- (14) Life below water;
- (15) Life on land;
- (16) Peace, justice, and strong institutions;
- (17) Partnerships (United Nations General Assembly, 2015).

3. Experiential Learning Theory

From the perspective of ELT there is a widespread idea of what experiential learning is that fails to capture the full potential of the process of learning from experience. The theoretical framework for this study is experiential learning, which derives from the ideas of John Dewey (1916, 1938), Kurt Lewin (1951), Jean Piaget (1952), and most notably David Kolb (1984, 2009). Recently, a framework has been created to assist educators in their application of the ELT concepts of the learning cycle and learning style in the dynamic matching model of teaching around the learning cycle (Kolb et al. 2014). To help educators understand their own teaching approach from the perspective of teaching around the learning cycle, the KERP describes four common educator roles: Facilitator, Subject Expert, Standard-Setter/Evaluator, and Coach. To help learners move around the learning cycle, educators must adapt their role, moving from Facilitator to Subject Matter Expert to Standard-Setter/Evaluator to Coach (Alice Y. Kolb & David A. Kolb, 2017).

- (i) **The Facilitator Role.** When facilitating, educators help learners get in touch with their personal experience and reflect on it. They adopt a warm affirming style to draw out learners' interests, intrinsic motivation, and self-knowledge. They often do this by facilitating conversation in small groups. They create personal relationships with learners.
- (ii) **The Subject Expert Role.** In their role as subject expert, educators help learners organize and connect their reflections to the knowledge base of the subject matter. They adopt an authoritative, reflective style. They often teach by example, modeling and encouraging critical thinking as they systematically organize and analyze the subject matter knowledge. This knowledge is often communicated through lectures and texts.
- (iii) **The Standard-Setter/Evaluator Role.** As a standard setter and evaluator, educators help learners master the application of knowledge and skill in order to meet performance requirements. They adopt an objective results-oriented style as they set the knowledge requirements needed for quality performance. They create performance activities for learners to evaluate their learning.
- (iv) **The Coaching Role.** In the coaching role, educators help learners apply knowledge to achieve their goals. They adopt a collaborative, encouraging style, often working one-on-one with individuals to help them learn from experiences in their life context. They assist in the creation of personal development plans and provide ways of getting feedback on performance.

Research Objectives

Objectives of the research in this study include:

- (1) to investigate the curriculum through learning goals for undergraduate English courses whether they are in line with global citizenship education at the age of globalization;
- (2) to explore the international activities currently practiced at Myanmar Universities focusing on students' interest in global citizenship education;
- (3) to find out the forms of pedagogy and instructional practices based on teachers' experiential learning experiences applied by English instructors in Myanmar

Research Methodology

This presents the route by which the study was conducted to present a detailed description of research methodologies. The qualitative interpretivist case study was conducted to address the research participants, the research instruments and the steps of data collection and statistics of data analysis. Through this approach, this study will proffer the answers to the following questions concerning a foundation course at Myanmar Universities:

- (1) How is the content of the undergraduate foundation course structured and conveyed to the students?
- (2) How do the students' perspectives of global citizenship (including their roles and responsibilities in a global society) through the international activities?
- (3) How do the teachers incorporate the course through the forms of experiential learning?

Population

This study took place at different universities in Myanmar. The purposeful or purposive sampling was employed in collecting the data from teachers and students. Like the sample size of other studies, this study included survey of thirty-six participants of students who enrolled undergraduate English course with the age range between 16 to 20 and interviews of fifteen participants of teachers who were aged 35-58 from the English departments of different universities.

Table 2:

Demographic Information of Participants (n= 51)

No.	Participants	Total No	Male	Female	Age Range
1	Teachers	15	4	11	35-58
2.	Students	36	9	27	16-20

Research Instruments

This research employed a mixed-method. This study was conducted in the academic year 2021-2022 for the topic. For the validity and reliability, one Emeritus professor and two associate professors who are experts in ELT field were invited to examine and consider the research tools. A pilot study was also conducted with the help of invited experts' suggestions and guidance. The instruments used in this study were observations and analysis of course curriculum, an open-ended questionnaire

survey and interview survey. Observations and analysis of course curriculum included English textbooks for undergraduate level, named "Straightforward" from first year to fourth year. Questionnaire survey with close-ended questions and interview session with open-ended questions were also used.

Procedures of the Study

Data collection was divided into three phases which were analysis of textbooks, survey questionnaires and semi-structured interview. In collecting data, it focused primarily on prescribed textbooks which are currently used at undergraduate level of Myanmar, evaluating the key elements for responsible global citizenship as the curriculum goals. Each of the textbook is explored as a distinct case, examining how the lessons in the units operationalize through the key elements for the goal of global citizenship education. For the protocol, I prepared a recruitment letter, an informed consent form, sample evaluation of textbooks, survey and interview questions, which were prepared by the researcher through literature review and the opinions and guidance from one Emeritus professor and two associate professors who are experts in ELT field.

Through a pilot testing, the evaluation of textbooks which were currently used in Myanmar can also be brought to light and ease to evaluate with the help of three experts. In practice, one male student and two female students were selected to try out the draft questionnaire survey as a sample, and an English educator, who had ample knowledge and experience about the curriculum of undergraduate course, was selected to do one-on-one interview for 15 minutes. With a similar purpose, the researcher was also advised to give a free choice on the language of responses in questionnaire survey and to use mother-tongue or English freely in the interview session. After the pilot study, the undergraduate students are sampled to examine their roles and responsibilities in a global society based on 17 SDG goals. Then, interview was conducted with English language teachers by investigating how they apply the forms of pedagogy and instructional practices in incorporating the course into global citizenship education. During the process of the interview, the seven stages have been followed that should be put in consideration when conducting interview-based research: thematizing: designing: interviewing: transcribing: analyzing: verifying: and reporting. Prior to conducting the semi-structure interview, had to conduct first in case it may need to adjust or change some of the questions. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyze quantitative data from both students and academics.

Research Results

This study was devoted to examine the perceptions and experiences of global citizenship education in English language teaching, first of which relates to three key components of responsible global citizenship, second of which relates to students' perspectives on the most important topics from 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and the third of which relates to teachers' experiential learning experiences to apply the forms of pedagogy and instructional practices.

Phase 1: Three Components of Responsible Global Citizenship including: Values and Attitudes; Skills; Knowledge and Understanding (Oxfam, 2006)

In table 3, undergraduate English prescribed texts were selected to collect the data for the summary of background information on three components of responsible global citizenship education to investigate the curriculum through learning goals for undergraduate English courses whether they are in line with global citizenship education.

Table 3:

The Components of Responsible Global Citizenship found in Curriculum Goals currently used in Undergraduate English Prescribed Texts at Myanmar Universities

No	Components	No	Sub-components	English Prescribed Texts			
				First year text	Second year text	Third year text	Fourth year text
1	Values and attitudes	i	Sense of identity and self-esteem	-	√	√	√
		ii	Empathy	√	√	√	√
		iii	Commitment to social justice	√	√	√	√
		iv	Value and respect for diversity	√	-	-	√
		v	Concern for the environment and commitment to sustainable development	√	√	√	√
		vi	Belief on people who can make a different	-	-	-	√
2	Skills	i	Critical thinking	√	√	√	√
		ii	Ability to argue effectively	-	-	-	-
		iii	Ability to challenge and inequality	-	-	√	√
		iv	Respect for people and think	√	√	√	√
		v	Co-operation and conflict resolution	-	√	√	√
3	Knowledge and understanding	i	Social justice and equity	-	√	√	√
		ii	Diversity	√	√	√	√
		iii	Globalization and interdependence	√	√	√	√
		iv	Sustainable development	√	√	√	√
		v	Peace and conflict	-	-	-	√

In evaluating the textbooks from three components of responsible global citizenship education, the data were collected through the curriculum goals which were currently used and prescribed at undergraduate level in Myanmar Universities. In

collecting the data, the Oxfam (2006)'s GCED curriculum framework was used to evaluate the texts for first year to fourth year. While there is still need in the sub-component in value and respect for diversity in the courses of second year and third year, the sub-component of sense of identity and self-esteem is not found in the lessons of first year course concerning with the first theme of value and attitudes. Moreover, the lack of the sub-component on belief on people who can make a different has been found in the courses of first year, second year and third year except fourth year. The results from the second theme of skills showed that the need for the sub-component: ability to argue effectively in all levels, ability to challenge and inequality in first year and second year, and co-operation and conflict resolution in first year respectively. For third theme of knowledge and understanding, the continuous need will follow in first year, second year and third year from the sub-theme: peace and conflict and also in first year from the sub-theme: social justice and equity.

Phase 2: Students' Responses on the Perspectives of Global Citizenship Education (United Nations General Assembly, 2015)

To explore the international activities currently practiced at Myanmar Universities focusing on students' interest in global citizenship education, how the students have responded to these SDG goals in terms of their own identity and their views can be seen in the following table 4.

Table 4:

Students' Views on the Most Important Topics from the United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (n=36)

No	SDGs	Total	No. of Respondents	Average
1.	No Poverty	36	19	53%
2.	Zero Hunger	36	11	31%
3.	Good Health and Well-being	36	22	61%
4.	Quality Education	36	31	86%
5.	Gender Equality	36	20	56%
6.	Clean Water and Sanitation	36	8	22%
7.	Affordable and Clean Energy	36	8	22%
8.	Decent Work and Economic Growth	36	16	44%
9.	Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure	36	9	25%
10.	Reduced Inequality	36	18	50%
11.	Sustainable Cities and Communities	36	9	25%
12.	Responsible Consumption and Production	36	7	19%
13.	Climate Action	36	10	28%
14.	Life Below Water	36	4	11%
15.	Life on Land	36	6	17%
16.	Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions	36	23	64%

17.	Partnerships for Goals	36	20	56%
-----	------------------------	----	----	-----

In table (4), the findings presented regarding students' conceptions of global citizenship how they understand the meaning of global citizenship, in terms of their beliefs and attitudes and what characteristics they emphasized more than others. However, the participants' views about global citizenship shared many similarities on some factors. While some students put the greatest emphasis on concerning with their inclusive and equitable quality education and lifelong learning opportunities, other participants expressed their less interest to conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development.

Phase 3: Teachers' Interview Responses on how the Course incorporates Forms of Experiential Learning (Alice Y. Kolb & David A. Kolb, 2017)

The following table presents the data to find out the forms of pedagogy and instructional practices based on their experiential learning experiences applied by English instructors in Myanmar.

Table 5:

Experiential Learning Experiences mentioned by Participants (n=15)

No.	Theme	Sub-themes	Participants
1.	Experiential Learning Experiences	The Facilitator Role	Interviewee 3, Interviewee 5, Interviewee 6, Interviewee 8, Interviewee 11, Interviewee 15, Interviewee 13
		The Subject Expert Role	Interviewee 2, Interviewee 4
		The Standard-Setter/Evaluator Role	Interviewee 7, Interviewee 9, Interviewee 14
		The Coaching Role	Interviewee 1, Interviewee 12

Table 5 lists four factors that shaped teachers' implementation of global citizenship education concerning with the selected teachers' experiential learning experiences how they incorporated undergraduate course. Most of the teachers adopt each of these roles to some extent in their educational and teaching activities concerning with the curriculum goals. This is in part because these roles are determined by the way we resolve fundamental dilemmas of education. All are required for maximally effective teaching and learning and the results are grouped into four according to their responses. The first group of teachers (as the role of facilitators) in teaching because they mentioned that they helped their learners get in touch with their personal experience and reflect on it. They drew out learners' interests, intrinsic motivation, and self-knowledge by facilitating conversation in small groups. The second group (as the subject expert role) helped learners organize and connect their reflections to the knowledge base of the subject matter. They often taught by example, modeling and encouraging critical thinking as they systematically organize and analyze the subject matter knowledge. The teachers from the third group as the standard-setter/evaluator role mentioned that they created performance activities for learners to evaluate their learning. For the last group as the coaching role, the

teachers encouraged the learners to apply knowledge to achieve the learners' goals through a collaborative, encouraging style, often working one-on-one with individuals to help them learn from experiences in their life context.

Discussion

Global citizenship education aims to be transformative, building the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that learners need to be able to contribute to a more inclusive, just and peaceful world. Global citizenship education takes 'a multifaceted approach, employing concepts and methodologies already applied in other areas, including human rights education, peace education, education for sustainable development and education for international understanding and aims to advance their common objectives. Goals as the most important component of curriculum, serve a visionary function in it; a rallying point for all curriculum activities. Goals also have a global quality and a broad framework. Recently, federal and state governments, local and organizational entities, and the private sector have made efforts to refocus curricula. For instance, Departments of Basic and Higher Education in Myanmar designed a strategy for the years 2012-2016 to help produce a more globally competent citizenry. The strategy recognized that, "in today's globalized world, an effective domestic education agenda must address global needs and trends," and that "students will need to have the substantive knowledge and understanding to address issues, phenomena and catastrophes that cut across borders, like the spread of disease, climate change, natural disasters, and financial crises" (Ministry of Education, 2012).

Despite these studies and concerns, some steps have been taken to further the curriculum goals of global citizenship education and related fields of study. Scholars and practitioners have called for updating curricula (Waks, 2003) and additional ways to address insufficient training and lack of teacher professional development (Levine, 2010). The educational system has too often failed to train teachers or structure curricula in ways that prepare the next generation to address global challenges (Levine, 2010; Reimers, Chopra, Chung, Higdon, & O'Donnell, 2016). Indeed, for years, teachers have had insufficient schooling or experience in global education (Gallavan, 2008; Rapoport, 2013). Indeed, certain universities have fostered a global learning environment at the local level (Kaplan, 2011; Reimers et al., 2016). Through local commitment to global issues, otherwise known as "glocalization" or "global localization" (Benyon & Dunkerley, 2000; Vallory, 2012), students can learn to "think globally and act locally" (Sparapani & McClain, 2016, p. 111). Despite recent events and trends, proponents of globalization still look to the United States and other leading powers of the international community to confront the most pressing political and economic challenges facing the world today (Cohen & Gabel, 2017). Global citizenship education can help the next generation of leaders address climate change, poverty, world hunger, global health issues, child mortality, and many other challenges (Reimers et al., 2016; United Nations General Assembly, 2015).

This study also was conducted under the broader conceptual framework of "Global Citizenship Education" which describes three main areas: curriculum goals for undergraduate English courses, students' perspectives and interests in global citizenship education through international activities, and teachers' use of the forms of pedagogy and instructional practices based on the experiential learning experiences. The findings of the present study revealed that teachers' experiences and students' perception and involves a significant role in implementing the current curriculum for global citizenship education. The curricular materials will promote "global citizenship," in practice that can be challenging with the vision statement: "Students will become global citizens who are self-directed, creative, collaborative, caring, and multilingual and will flourish in a global, competitive 21st century". On the other hand, students' active participation in international education programs, and other experiential learning opportunities needed more than before to cultivate their interest in global citizenship education. Although the results showed that the students are interested in international activities concerning with quality education, peace, justice, and strong institutions, and good health and well-being with the highest points, in reality, they still focused on lessons, passing exams, getting good grades in the classrooms. The teacher participants are encountering the challenges of course books and insufficient training experiences including mainly dominant cultures to enhance global education in the Myanmar. Moreover, they did not have enough preparation, training, and materials as concerns with the curriculum for global citizenship education at Myanmar Universities. Although many of the participating teachers used opportunities and pedagogies within the curriculum goals to teach about global awareness and issues, some teachers offered other suggestions. Suggestions included integration of curriculum for class projects, through local and/or international field trips, international education programs, and other experiential learning opportunities such as fieldwork, service-learning, or community programs to cultivate students' interest in global citizenship education. The lack of enough time for extra activities for global awareness was the largest barrier reiterated by the participating teachers and they focused on only course curriculum to finish the lessons within the limitation of time.

In conclusion, global citizenship empowers individual human beings to participate in decisions concerning their lives, including the political, economic, social, cultural, and environmental conditions in which they live. Education for Global Citizenship gives children and young people the opportunity to develop critical thinking about complex global issues in the safe space of the classroom, encourages children and young people to explore, develop and express their own values and opinions. One of the most important goals in the curriculum goals is the global citizenship education in order to prepare global citizens, while the continuity and exact and organized overlap between all goals is observable. It is strongly felt that it is necessary to offer a new definition of citizenship, knowledge of its goals and the requirement of global citizenship education to seek specifically the following goals: Explaining global citizenship concept, Explaining global citizenship education concept, Global citizenship implications for curriculum goals. According to the survey, it was noted that there is still in need for the students to practice some of the international activities more concerning with global issues of life below water, life on

land, responsible consumption and production, clean water and sanitation, affordable and clean energy, industry, innovation and infrastructure. The findings from the interview suggested that teachers are in need with well-preparation for lesson plan, teaching materials, innovative pedagogies, instructional practices, effective in-service professional development trainings as important elements of educational and institutional considerations when planning and developing GCE programs.

Recommendations

This study has a number of important implications for future practice. Through the undergraduate English courses currently used in Myanmar universities, the present research revealed that the curriculum goals being used had not been specially created for global citizenship yet. Although the teachers were able to frame their definitions and curriculum for global citizenship, they still need to implement it when planning and developing global citizenship programs. The purpose of this present study was to evaluate the current curriculum for global citizenship education at Myanmar Universities. This study would begin with educators at Myanmar universities engaging in understanding and practice of global citizenship education, and how they can take action through the forms of their pedagogies and instructional practices in the classrooms which will help the students empower to be active and engaged global citizens from fully implementing for global citizenship education. The teacher participants are concerned with the insufficient in-service professional development trainings and lack of support from both their peers and from the community concerning with global citizenship programs.

As noted in this study, the undergraduate course was used as curriculum goals for global citizenship education conducting together with English language teachers and undergraduate students. Additional studies can be conducted at postgraduate level, while also including other specialization teachers such as history, geography, and so on. The present study sought to examine and evaluate the perceptions and experiences of teachers and students towards global citizenship education at Myanmar universities. Future studies might consider conducting research with study abroad students using the mixed methods strategy. Study abroad is often characterized as a transformative experience in the lives of those who engage in this educational platform, with students, "expecting to learn about others and return home with new understandings about themselves and their place in the world" (Martinez, Ranjeet & Marx, 2009). However, further researches can be done to evaluate not only the curriculum used during the time of this study, but also past curriculum for global citizenship education. Future research should be conducted with the curriculum specialists who can engage in open dialogue and collaborative efforts amongst school personnel to encourage for global citizenship education among the various teachers and stakeholders in Myanmar.

References

- Bertoni, M., & Bertoni, A. (2019). *Measuring experiential learning: An approach based on lessons learned mapping*. Blekinge Institute of Technology, Department of Mechanical Engineering, 37179 Karlskrona, Sweden. Educ. Sci. 2020, 10, 11; doi:10.3390/educsci10010011.

- Banks, J. A. (2004). *Teaching for Social Justice, Diversity, and Citizenship in a Global World*. *The Educational Forum*, 68.
- _____. (2008). *Diversity, Group Identity, and Citizenship Education in a Global Age*. [http:// dx.doi.org/10.3102/0013189X08317501](http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/0013189X08317501)
- Brigham, M. (2011). *Creating citizen and assessing outcomes*. *Journal of Global Citizenship & Equity Education*, 1.
- Cartwright, C. T., Kerrigan, P. Pusch, M., Brown, B., & Yamashita, M. (2009). *Global Citizenship; Challenges and Opportunities for U.S. Higher Education*. Presentation for AAC&U Seattle, WA.
- Chen, S. (2008). *Developing Global Citizenship: The Effect of Studying Abroad*. Osaka University, Japan.
- Evans, M., & Reynolds, C. (2003). Introduction: Educating for Global Citizenship in a Changing World. Project Coordinators.
- Guo, L. (2014). *Preparing teachers to educate for 21st century global citizenship: envisioning and enacting*. University of Prince Edward Island. *Journal of Global Citizenship & Equity Education*, Vol 4, No 1.
- Jarrar, A. J. (2012). *Global citizenship education in Jordanian Universities*. SciVerse Science DIRECT. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.06.924>.
- Jett, T. (2013). *Teacher Perceptions of Global Citizenship Education in a Southern Elementary Public School: Implications for Curriculum and Pedagogy*. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://scholarcommons.sc.edu/etd/>
- Kolb, D. A., & Fry, R. (1975). *Toward an applied theory of experiential learning*. In C. Cooper (Ed.), *Studies of group process* (pp. 33–57). New York: Wiley.
- _____. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. (Vol. 1). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kolb, Alice Y. and Kolb, David A. (2017). "Experiential Learning Theory as a Guide for Experiential Educators in Higher Education," *Experiential Learning & Teaching in Higher Education*: Vol. 1: No. 1, Article 7. Available at: <https://nsuworks.nova.edu/elthe/vol1/iss1/7>.
- _____. (2017). *The Experiential Educator Principles and Practices of Experiential Learning*. Printed in the United States of America. ISBN-10: 0998599905 ISBN-13: 9780998599908. Library of Congress Control Number: 2017903139
- Kolb, A. & Kolb, D. (2018). *Eight Important Things to know about The Experiential Learning Cycle*. Australian Educational Leader. Volume 40, Issue 3.
- Kolb, D. (2015). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Second Edition. [Pearson FT Press. ISBN-13: 9780133892406.
- Miliziano, K. R. (2009). *Teaching social studies in an age of globalization: A case study of secondary social studies teachers' participation in the UNA-USA's Global Classrooms curriculum program*. Ph. D dissertation. Department of Secondary Education College of Education, University of South Florida.
- Noddings, N. (2005). *Educating citizenship for global awareness*. Published in teachers college press, New York, USA.

Myanmar EFL University Students' Readiness for Online Learning at the Onset of Covid-19 Pandemic

Wai Hnin Ei

Associate Professor, English Department, Yangon University of Foreign Languages, Myanmar
E-mail: eiwaihnnin2020@gmail.com

Abstract

Nowadays, especially after the COVID-19 crisis lockdown, the heavy reliance on technology and online platforms led to a greater expectation of more learning autonomy among English learners in EFL contexts. The sudden shift to online learning requires an investigation into students' readiness and willingness for such a mode of learning. This can provide educators with many prospects about learning outcomes and interaction during classes. Therefore, the current study seeks to contribute to the well-known area of learner autonomy research, which is still lacking in the context of the study of how to identify how well-equipped Myanmar EFL university students are in terms of learning English autonomously and the second essential approach of how to investigate if there are differences in the autonomy levels displayed by English major and non-English major students by exploring the readiness of Myanmar undergraduate English learners towards online education. Participants' level of readiness is identified according to their autonomous behaviours and activities. It was found that university students are moderately autonomous, that they have moderate level of aptitude and readiness for taking responsibility for their learning, and that English major and non-English major groups showed comparatively different levels across different learning autonomy dimensions. Interestingly, English major participants displayed a relatively higher autonomy level than students of other majors.

Keywords: English learners, Online learning, Learning during covid19 lockdown

Introduction

Learner Autonomy (LA) and online learning have become inseparable areas in the area of education research; hence they are always investigated together. It is believed that the boom in technological educational tools and platforms has promoted independence in learning (Reinders & White, 2011), which is the essence of LA. At the same time, the indisputable sovereignty held by technology over education has spurred a repertoire of skills learners should be equipped with, which all stand on the ground of autonomy and self-learning. Online channels, resources, and learning platforms have been employed in educational settings to varying extents (i.e., in different modes, either as a primary means of instruction or supportive integrated practice). That said, with the current crisis of the COVID-19 pandemic, online education has stood as the only available alternative for learning. Accordingly, the whole world has suddenly shifted to the internet and the virtual space to cope with this situation and fulfil the already set educational goals. Although the study context is fully equipped with online and virtual educational tools, those tools have not been well or fully exploited until the beginning of this recent crisis. It can be argued that due to the nature of the 21st century with its large expansion in digital tools and

social media, which has endowed users with freedom and individualism, individuals' independence and responsibility have developed across most countries and cultures. Thus, research in these contexts should be vibrant and constant. In a similar vein, learners in non-western countries have been stereotyped for their teacher dependency. In the context targeted by the upcoming study, although teachers are meant to be available to students online, through emails, discussion boards, or during live sessions, online learning represents a new situation to students. Students should work and learn entirely through a mode in which their teachers are kept at a distance, a situation they most likely have never experienced. This new experience means that they have to hold themselves responsible, develop independence, and realize the 'new' roles that should be played by both themselves and their teachers. Embarking on the journey of online learning and teaching without adequate understanding about the learner's position, role in, or preparedness for this process may yield false assessment and interpretation about the whole journey. At the same time, investigating learners can help drawing a better learning situation if educators pay attention to and provide solutions for all potential challenges. Therefore, the study will shed light on participants' perceptions about their roles alongside perceptions about their teachers. It will also investigate how these LA components might be interpreted in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts.

1.1 Learner Autonomy

As learners have been thrust to the centre of the learning-teaching process, the digital era has prompted research into their behaviours and talents. With its plentiful user-friendly digital tools, technology has forced a comparatively new nature or style on individuals. As a result, it has produced learners who can debunk misconceptions about learning styles based on situations and cultures. Individuals all throughout the world are taking control of their activities and actions these days (Candy, 1991). Learners' individuality and freedom are well-suited to the subject of learner autonomy in virtual worlds. For a long time, LA has been viewed as a western value imposed on non-western educational environments (e.g., Pokhrel, 2016; Wang & Wang, 2016; Stroupe, Rundle & Tomita, 2016). Western researchers such as Holec (1981), Dickinson (1987), and Little (1988) coined the term (1991). It has been investigated in English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, which embraced the term and its application in those contexts. The basic concept that underlies all those definitions is the learner's independence and responsibility for learning. For example, Mistar (2001) has defined LA as the learner's active and creative involvement in language learning activities; in planning, conducting, and evaluating the learning process, which was driven by their positive attitude. According to its pioneering scholars, LA represents learning outside the classroom, a situation in which learners direct their learning independently (Dickinson, 1987). According to Solomon and Schrum (2007), learners nowadays are expected to take charge of their learning due to their familiarity with the internet. That is, the link between LA and online learning has indeed been established in the literature, and the two elements can be looked at as always in a mutual relationship. That is, the use of technology renders LA and it requires it at the same time. As Reinders and White (2016:143) put it, "the use of technology for learning often requires a degree of autonomy". Furthermore, Boulton, Chateau, Pereiro, and Azzam-

Hannachi (2008) assert that learners in the digital age must have the ability to take responsibility for all the elements of their learning, from setting the goals and objectives to the assessment. At the same time, Chapelle (2001) has indicated that the supportive online tools available for learners help to develop their learning independence and management. Reinders and White (2016) stated that the roles of learners and teachers have changed in the online learning milieus, following the influence of technology on the understanding of LA. Thus, most of the studies across various fields attempt to identify those roles and interpret them according to LA perspectives. For example, in his investigation into teacher and learner's perceptions about LA, Joshi (2011) attempted to define the teachers and learner's roles through a scale that depicts various autonomous practices and activities. Regarding their views about their teachers' roles, most of the participants, although agreeing that most of their learning can be achieved without teachers, still attach the responsibility of learning to them. This overlapping situation is indeed found in most of the studies conducted in EFL contexts, as will be indicated through the following review. Joshi's study, although it does not specifically approach online learning, will be replicated in the context of the upcoming study. This latter study, however, adapted Joshi's tool by excluding the items created to assess participant's perceptions of learner and teacher's roles. In general, participants in that study showed a moderate level of autonomy. A similar situation was found in Ghobain (2020), wherein Saudi learners showed awareness about the concept, and an overall moderate level of LA. Yet, they indicated a heavy reliance on teachers.

Research Objectives

In details, the upcoming study aims to achieve the following objectives through answering the research questions presented hereafter.

1. To identify how well-equipped Myanmar EFL university students are in terms of learning English autonomously.
2. To investigate if there are differences in the autonomy levels displayed by English-major and non-English major students.

Methodology

To conduct this research the scholar used the quantitative method and its instrument, questionnaire is included.

2.1 Participants

This quantitative study aimed to explore the university students' readiness for online education and examine the influence of gender and field of research on their autonomy when learning English.

Table 1: Demographic Data of Participants

Sr No	Total Participants	Male	Female	English	Non-English
1	102	31	71	51	51

A total of 102 English learners participated in the survey; of these learners, 71 were female participants, and 31 were male participants. Among them, 51 students were studying English as an intensive course to be qualified to study their majors,

which adopts English as the medium of instruction, whereas 51 students were studying English as a major.

2.2 Research Instrument and Procedures

For the study, Joshi's (2011) Learner Autonomy Questionnaire (LAQ) was used after validating its translation into Myanmar by two bilingual experts in both languages (i.e., English and Myanmar). The questionnaire includes 30 items that assess the following dimensions: learners' awareness in language learning, their efforts in learning English on their own, self-motivation, broader autonomous activities, self-esteem, use of reference materials, self-motivation in learning, use of technology in learning, perceptions of the roles of learners, and their perceptions of teachers' roles. The questionnaire elicits responses on a 3-point Likert scale, from 1 'disagree' to 3 'agree'. For the reliability of the questionnaire, a reliability analysis was carried out on all of the 30 items. For the data analysis, preliminary assumption testing showed no serious violations. Besides the descriptive data analysis, we used independent-samples t-tests to examine the differences between participants in their autonomy, based on their genders and academic majors.

Results

In terms of learning autonomy, to what extent can Myanmar undergraduate students be considered ready for online education? We assessed students' online learning readiness by analysing their awareness in terms of learner autonomy concept, their autonomous behaviours and practices, and their perceptions about learners and teachers' roles in learning the language.

Phase 1: Learners' awareness in language learning

Table 2a: Autonomy level displayed by non-English major students (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
1	I think I have the ability to learn English well.	22%	12%	66%	2.44	0.83	High awareness level of LA
2	I make decisions and set goals of my learning.	26%	11%	63%	2.37	0.87	High awareness level of LA
3	I make good use of my free time in studying English.	42%	11%	47%	2.05	0.94	Moderate awareness level of LA
Grand mean		30.00%	11.33%	58.67%	2.29	0.90	Moderate awareness level of LA

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

In terms of awareness in language learning to remove all, most participants responded in agreement, particularly to the first two items concerning the ability to learn English well and making decisions, and setting goals of their learning (66%, 63%, respectively). Participants, however, showed a lesser degree of agreement regarding using their free time in learning English. Nearly half of them (47%) agreed with this statement. That said, the grand mean of the three items combined indicated a high awareness level of LA, $m=3.70$.

Table 2b: Autonomy level displayed by English major students (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
1	I think I have the ability to learn English well.	14%	10%	76%	2.62	0.72	High level
2	I make decisions and set goals of my learning.	19%	9%	72%	2.53	0.79	High level
3	I make good use of my free time in studying English.	37%	8%	55%	2.18	0.94	Moderate level
Grand mean		23.33%	9.00%	67.67%	2.44	0.84	High level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Participants, however, showed a lesser degree of agreement regarding using their free time in learning English. Nearly half of them (47%) agreed with this statement. Table 2b symbolizes a high-level awareness of LA according to the mean score (2.44) perceived by English major students.

Phase 2: Learners' self-efforts in learning English

Table 3a: Non-English major students' self-efforts in learning English (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
4	I preview before the class (i.e., see summary, lessons etc.)	44%	10%	46%	2.02	0.95	Moderate level
5	In the class, I try to use every opportunity to take part in the activities where and when I can speak in English.	49%	19%	32%	1.83	0.88	Moderate level
6	I speak confidently in front of the people.	67%	18%	15%	1.48	0.74	Low level
7	I make notes and summaries of my lessons.	56%	12%	32%	1.76	0.91	Moderate level
8	I talk to the teachers and friends outside the class in English.	74%	20%	6%	1.32	0.58	Low level
Grand mean		58.00%	15.80%	26.20%	1.68	0.86	Moderate level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 3b: English major students' self-efforts in learning English (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
4	I preview before the class (i.e., see summary, lessons etc.)	34%	9%	57%	2.23	0.93	Moderate level
5	In the class, I try to use every opportunity to take part in the activities where and when I can speak in English.	28%	10%	62%	2.34	0.89	High level
6	I speak confidently in front of the people.	33%	12%	55%	2.22	0.91	Moderate level
7	I make notes and summaries of my lessons.	48%	10%	42%	1.94	0.95	Moderate level
8	I talk to the teachers and friends outside the class in English.	49%	6%	45%	1.96	0.97	Moderate level
Grand mean		38.40%	9.40%	52.20%	2.14	0.94	Moderate level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

When the two mean scores of item 5 is compared English major students' is higher because they wait and catch the opportunities to speak out English whenever they are given the chance.

They also showed a high level of self-esteem in learning English and improving strengths and weaknesses, as shown through their agreement levels (73%) with statement 14, with a mean score of 3.79. Over half of the participants (60%) displayed a good level of self-motivation in learning by agreeing with the statement of item 17, scoring a mean of $m=3.47$. Under the category of self-efforts in learning English, the participants showed high levels of agreement with making efforts in learning English. Yet, the higher levels were mainly class-based, shown by items five and seven, as 73% and 61% of the respondents respectively indicated using opportunities to participate in class activities and also making notes and summaries of their lessons.

The participants' responses to other out-of-classroom activities such as previewing before class and speaking in front of people and friends, as in items four, six, and eight, are lower than in the previous two items. Similarly, the results of broader autonomous activities beyond the class also showed either moderate or low levels of agreement, as in items nine, ten, twelve, and thirteen, with 54%, 40%, 40%, and 62% agreement levels, respectively.

Phase 3: Learners' broader autonomous activities beyond the class

Table 4a: Non-English major students' broader autonomous activities beyond the class (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
9	I practice English outside the class also such as: record my own voice; speak to other people in English.	75%	10%	15%	1.40	0.73	Low level
10	I use library to improve my English.	67%	11%	22%	1.55	0.83	Low level
11	I use audio-visual materials to develop my speech such as: listen to BBC, watch English movies, read English newspapers etc.	74%	11%	15%	1.41	0.74	Low level
12	I attend different seminars, training courses, conferences to improve my English.	83%	15%	2%	1.19	0.44	Low level
13	I take risk in learning the English language.	88%	10%	2%	1.14	0.40	Low level
Grand mean		77.40%	11.40%	11.20%	1.34	0.67	Low level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 4b: English major students' broader autonomous activities beyond the class (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
9	I practice English outside the class also such as: record my own voice; speak to other people in English.	33%	7%	60%	2.27	0.93	Moderate level
10	I use library to improve my English.	44%	11%	45%	2.01	0.94	Moderate level
11	I use audio-visual materials to develop my speech such as: listen to BBC, watch English movies, read English newspapers etc. (that why higher)	25%	10%	65%	2.40	0.86	High level
12	I attend different seminars, training courses, conferences to improve my English.	48%	10%	42%	1.94	0.95	Moderate level
13	I take risk in learning the English language.	58%	10%	32%	1.74	0.91	Moderate level
Grand mean		41.60%	9.60%	48.80%	2.07	0.95	Moderate level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

The mean score of English major students is higher than those of Non-English major. The reason found out is according to the two tables. English major students use audio-visual materials to develop my speech such as: listening to BBC, watching English movies, reading English newspapers etc. The participants' highest level of out-class activities was in item 11, with 65% agreement regarding using audio-visual materials to improve speaking skills.

Phase 4: Learners' self-esteem

Table 5a: Non-English major students' self-esteem (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
14	I note my strengths and weaknesses in learning English and improve them.	74%	10%	16%	1.42	0.75	Low level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 5b: English major students' self-esteem (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
14	I note my strengths and weaknesses in learning English and improve them.	21%	10%	69%	2.48	0.82	High level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Item 14 had the highest amount of out-of-class participation, with 69 percent agreeing that they should note their strengths and weaknesses in learning English and improve them.

Phase 5: Learners' use of references materials

Table 6a: Non-English major students' use of references materials (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
15	I revise lessons and seek the reference books	66%	15%	19%	1.53	0.79	No, never
16	Besides the contents prescribed in the course, I read extra materials in advance.	64%	12%	24%	1.60	0.85	No, never
Grand mean		65.00%	13.50%	21.50%	1.57	0.82	No, never

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 6b: English major students' use of references materials (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
15	I revise lessons and seek the reference books.	29%	16%	55%	2.26	0.88	Moderate level
16	Besides the contents prescribed in the course, I read extra materials in advance.	20%	15%	65%	2.45	0.80	High level
Grand mean		24.50%	15.50%	60.00%	2.36	0.85	High level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

They also showed moderate and high awareness levels regarding using reference materials with 24% and 65% agreement levels to revising lessons and seeking reference books, and reading extra materials in advance, scoring means of m=2.26 and m=2.45 for items 15 and 16, respectively.

Phase 6: Learners' self-motivation in leaning

Table 7a: Non-English major students' self-motivation in leaning (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
17	When I make progress in learning, I reward myself such as: buy new things, celebrate parties etc.	63%	20%	17%	1.54	0.77	Low level motivation

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 7b: English major students' self-motivation in leaning (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
17	When I make progress in learning, I reward myself such as: buy new things, celebrate parties etc.	26%	21%	53%	2.27	0.85	Moderate level motivation

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

A very relevant activity to the question and the overall aim of the study is the way the English major participants reward themselves which is reflected through item 17.

They also showed similarly high levels with 53% agreement and a mean score of 2.27 regarding making progress in learning, they reward themselves such as: buying new things, celebrating parties etc.

Phase 7: Learners' use of computers and internet for learning English

Table 8a: Non-English major students' use of internet and computers to study and improve English (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
18	I use internet and computers to study and improve English.	45%	22%	33%	1.88	0.87	Moderate level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 8b: English major students' use of internet and computers to study and improve English (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
18	I use internet and computers to study and improve English.	21%	12%	67%	2.46	0.82	High level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

The participants showed a high level of agreement of using internet and computers to study and improve English with a positive response of 67%, scoring $m=2.46$. Participants' perceptions about the roles of teachers and learners in learning language reflect their autonomy level as levels are interpreted in the light of responsibility and independence in learning. A high number of participants showed good to high levels of responsibility through interpreting perceptions about teachers according to the items in Appendix I somehow differs from doing so with the other items, since high scores for these items indicate negative results in terms of participants' autonomy. High results can be considered positive in this category only with first item that states learning can be achieved without teachers.

Phase 8: Learners' perceptions of their own roles

Results, however, did not show a static trend in this category, since high agreement scores to the first item overlap with high scores of the rest of the items that indicate negative perceptions in light of the concept of LA.

Table 9a: Non-English major students' perceptions of their own roles (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
19	Students have to be responsible for finding their own ways of practicing English.	53%	17%	30%	1.77	0.88	Moderate level
20	Students should use much self-study materials to learn English.	49%	11%	40%	1.91	0.94	Moderate level
21	Students have to evaluate themselves to learn better newspapers etc.	85%	10%	5%	1.20	0.51	Low level
22	Students should mostly study what has been mentioned under the course because studying English course is actually for exam purpose.	8%	10%	82%	2.74	0.59	High level
23	Students should build clear vision of their learning before learning English.	48%	10%	42%	1.94	0.95	Moderate level
Grand mean		48.60%	11.60%	39.80%	1.91	0.94	Moderate level

The participants showed a high level of agreement to "Students should mostly study what has been mentioned under the course because studying English course is" with a positive response of 82%, scoring $m=2.74$. Participants' perceptions about the roles of teachers and learners in learning language reflect their autonomy level as levels are interpreted in the light of responsibility and independence in learning. A high number of participants showed good to high levels of responsibility through interpreting perceptions about teachers according to the items in Appendix I somehow differs from doing so with the other items, since high scores for these items indicate negative results in terms of participants' autonomy. High results can be considered positive in this category only with first item that states learning can be achieved without teachers. Participants indeed scored high agreement levels.

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 9b: English major students' perceptions of their own roles (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
19	Students have to be responsible for finding their own ways of practicing English.	20%	10%	70%	2.50	0.81	High level
20	Students should use much self-study materials to learn English.	45%	10%	45%	2.00	0.95	Moderate level
21	Students have to evaluate themselves to learn better newspapers etc.	45%	10%	45%	2.00	0.95	Moderate level
22	Students should mostly study what has been mentioned under the course because studying English course is actually for exam purpose.	78%	10%	12%	1.34	0.68	Low level
23	Students should build clear vision of their learning before learning English.	8%	10%	82%	2.74	0.59	High level
Grand mean		39.20%	10.00%	50.80%	2.12	0.94	Moderate level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

With 82 percent favourable responses and $m=2.74$ score, the participants agreed that "Students should build clear vision of their learning English." Participants' impressions of teachers and learners in language acquisition reflect their level of autonomy, which is understood in terms of responsibility and independence in learning. A large number of participants demonstrated good to high levels of responsibility when interpreting instructor judgements using the questions in Appendix I, which differs from doing so using the other items because high scores for these items signal unfavourable results in terms of participant autonomy.

Phase 8: Learners' perceptions of their teachers' role

Table 10a: Non-English major students' perceptions of their teachers' roles (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
24	A lot of learning can be done without a teacher.	67%	13%	20%	1.53	0.81	Important
25	Teachers have to be responsible for making students understand English.	39%	11%	50%	2.11	0.94	More important
26	Teachers should point out the students' errors.	65%	10%	25%	1.60	0.86	Important
27	Teachers not only have to teach 'what' but should also teach 'how' of English.	28%	10%	62%	2.34	0.89	Most important
28	Teachers have to provide exam-oriented notes and materials.	38%	10%	52%	2.14	0.94	More important
29	The failure of the students is directly related to the teachers' classroom employment.	44%	12%	44%	2.00	0.94	More important
30	Teachers have to use their authority in teaching if necessary.	33%	12%	55%	2.22	0.91	More important
Grand mean		44.86%	11.14%	44.00%	1.99	0.94	More important

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 10 b: English major students' perceptions of their teachers' roles (n=51)

Sr No	Item	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
24	A lot of learning can be done without a teacher.	27%	13%	60%	2.33	0.87	More important
25	Teachers have to be responsible for making students understand English.	58%	11%	31%	1.73	0.90	More important
26	Teachers should point out the students' errors.	55%	10%	35%	1.80	0.93	More important
27	Teachers not only have to teach 'what' but should also teach 'how' of English.	20%	10%	70%	2.50	0.81	Most important
28	Teachers have to provide exam-oriented notes and materials.	78%	10%	12%	1.34	0.68	Important
29	The failure of the students is directly related to the teachers' classroom employment.	86%	10%	4%	1.18	0.48	Important
30	Teachers have to use their authority in teaching if necessary.	65%	10%	25%	1.60	0.86	Important
Grand mean		55.57%	10.57%	33.86%	1.78	0.92	More important

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

That is, participants showed a high level of dependence on teachers agreeing with all the other statements, particularly items 24 and 27, with percentages of 60%, and 70%, respectively. That, again, in terms of autonomy, is considered positive. At the same time, most of the participants did not agree with item 29 as only 4% agreed with it, indicating good independence levels. To calculate the grand mean for this category, and to avoid possible misinterpretation related to the nature of these items as shown above, all items, except item 24, were reversed so that high negative results would not be calculated with other high positive results. The grand mean was $m=2.16$ $sd=1.03$, indicating negative perceptions about teachers' roles in terms of learners' autonomy, as it correlates to high levels of dependency on teachers in learning. Combining all the items of the scale items to generate an overall level of participants' autonomy, the data generally showed participants' level of LA as good to moderate, based on the mean score of $m=3.59$ $sd=.76$ and a median of 4. The classification of the LA levels is based on Orawiatnakul & Wichadee's (2017) 5-point Likert scale analysis, in which they identify the levels as follows: 1.00-1.50 = very low, 1.51-2.50 = low, 2.51-3.50 = moderate, 3.51- 4.50 = high, 4.51-5.00 = very high. Do males and females differ in their learning autonomy? To examine gender differences in students' learning autonomy, independent-samples t-test was used. The following table presents the results from the independent t-tests comparing the students' mean scores on different dimensions of their autonomy contributed by their gender.

Table 11a: Non-English major students' levels of autonomous behaviours (n=51)

Sr No	Variables	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
1	Learner awareness in language learning	30.00%	11.33%	58.67%	2.29	0.90	Moderate awareness level of LA
2	Learner self-efforts	58.00%	15.80%	26.20%	1.68	0.86	Moderate level

	in learning English						
3	Broader autonomous activities	77.40%	11.40%	11.20%	1.34	0.67	Low level
4	Learner self-esteem	74%	10%	16%	1.42	0.75	Low level
5	Use of reference materials	65.00%	13.50%	21.50%	1.57	0.82	No, never
6	Learner self-motivation in learning	63%	20%	17%	1.54	0.77	Low level motivation
7	Use of technology in learning	45%	22%	33%	1.88	0.87	Moderate level
8	Learner perception of their roles	48.60%	11.60%	39.80%	1.91	0.94	Moderate level
9	Learner perception of teachers' roles	44.86%	11.14%	44.00%	1.99	0.94	More important
Grand mean		56.21%	14.09%	29.71%	1.74	0.89	Moderate level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

Table 11b: English major students' levels of autonomous behaviours (n=51)

Sr No	Variables	Responses			Calculation		Interpretation
		Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Mean	SD	
1	Learner awareness in language learning	23.33%	9.00%	67.67%	2.44	0.84	High level
2	Learner self-efforts in learning English	38.40%	9.40%	52.20%	2.14	0.94	Moderate level
3	Broader autonomous activities	41.60%	9.60%	48.80%	2.07	0.95	Moderate level
4	Learner self-esteem	21%	10%	69%	2.48	0.82	High level
5	Use of reference materials	24.50%	15.50%	60.00%	2.36	0.85	High level
6	Learner self-motivation in learning	26%	21%	53%	2.27	0.85	Moderate level motivation
7	Use of technology in learning	21%	12%	67%	2.46	0.82	High level
8	Learner perception of their roles	39.20%	10.00%	50.80%	2.12	0.94	Moderate level
9	Learner perception of teachers' roles	55.57%	10.57%	33.86%	1.78	0.92	More important
Grand mean		32.29%	11.90%	55.81%	2.24	0.91	Moderate level

NOTE:

1.00-1.66=Low awareness level of LA

1.67-2.33=Moderate awareness level of LA

2.34-3.00=High awareness level of LA

University students were found to be relatively independent, with a moderate level of aptitude and ready to take responsibility for their own learning, and that English major and non-English-major groups exhibited comparatively varied levels across key learning autonomy aspects. Overall, the research contributed to learners' lack of autonomy. When they make progress in learning English major students award themselves like buying new things, celebrating parties etc. and table-a and table-b of item 7 is almost tripled.

This study also shows Myanmar students' dissatisfaction with online learning, which appears to be due to similar problems related to instructor dependence. Through a survey of students and professors, this study looked into the undergraduate students. This study found that 55% of sample were facing challenges while learning online. They were dissatisfied with online communication. Use of technology in learning of non-English major students scored 33% and English major counted 67% in the table of autonomous behaviours. The difference is doubled and it showed those participants' low engagement and motivation, low self-efficacy, and absence of goals. Myanmar students in this study showed a need for teachers' instruction, and simultaneously indicated willingness and tendency to do some autonomous behaviours in their future. Also, participants in the study indicated a dire need for training in areas of autonomous learning while exhibiting high autonomy in other areas, the most important of which was motivation. They also, as in the other reviewed studies, revealed a dependency on their instructors. According to the score on the item "A lot of learning can be done without a teacher", the result is 20% and 60%. It is the different tradition view of those two groups of students, the former non-English major and the latter English major. In addition, learners displayed a high level of multidimensionality in participants' autonomy. Students in that study equally showed aptitude and readiness for autonomous learning through the training and actions conducted by the researcher. As a result, it is possible to assume that inherited perceptions of Myanmar LA are gradually shifting. They were motivated by a similar motivation as the current study, and they realized the importance of analysing the kids' readiness and perceptions about autonomous learning as a result of the pandemic in Myanmar. As research methodologies, they used an online questionnaire and an interview. It was found that some participants did not have the autonomy level that might support their learning of the language online. Those participants preferred face-to-face classes and direct teacher support. The mixed findings about the dependence on or the need for teachers while exhibiting other autonomous learning behaviours. In their viewpoint, dependence on teachers should not be treated as a significant aspect overlapping with learners' autonomy in EFL contexts. They elaborated that the need and reliance on teachers might be associated with sociocultural views and values that empower teachers with respect and trust. They discovered, however, that all of the participants in their study preferred teacher-led learning while demonstrating independent learning characteristics. They clarified that not all of those students were self-sufficient. This study also emphasizes the complexity of LA as a concept, which must be evaluated in light of a variety of elements, including cultural, psychological, social, and political considerations. Affective linguistic characteristics, including as skill levels, academic performance, age, and goals, can also be used to approach LA. The current study attempts to

incorporate that understanding by focusing on the academic major. The factor of academic-major factor, the study assumes that learning the language as an academic major should provoke higher autonomy levels than in other scientific fields. Regarding the academic-major factor we are assuming that students who are supposedly involved in English literature, teaching methods, and linguistics would show higher LA levels than those who study the language as a course for specific purposes. The scores of the item "Learner awareness in language learning" and "Use of technology in learning", English major students got the high levels and it proved the autonomous behaviours of them. Participants' LA was shown to be substantially linked with their language proficiency in the study. However, the current study will look to see if students majoring in English have different autonomous behaviours and activities than students majoring in other academic fields.

Discussion

The findings of our study show that students, like many other EFL learners, are self-sufficient and possess the requisite attributes for online learning. However, the responses of the participants in this study varied across LAQ dimensions and sub-categorical items within those dimensions, indicating not only that the construct of LA is complex and multifaceted, but also that LA is context-dependent due to the diversity of individuals' perspectives, perceptions, behaviours, and practices. English students have a high level of learning autonomy, while students who major in English take on more responsibility. Participants' perceptions of teachers and learners in language acquisition reflect their level of autonomy, which is characterized as learning accountability and independence. A large number of participants demonstrated good to high levels of responsibility when interpreting instructor judgments using the questions in Appendix I, which differs from doing so using the other items because high scores for these items indicate unfavourable results in terms of participant autonomy. They also showed equally high levels of agreement for using reference materials, with 62 percent and 45 percent agreement for revisiting lessons and obtaining reference books, and reading more materials in preparation, respectively, scoring averages of $m=2.26$ and $m=2.45$.) The grand mean was $m=2.16$ $sd=1.03$, showing unfavourable opinions of instructors' duties in terms of learners' autonomy, which connects to high levels of learning dependency on teachers. The data showed that participants' level of LA was generally good to moderate, based on the mean score of $m=3.59$ $sd=.76$ and a median of 4. When all of the scale items were combined to generate an overall level of participants' autonomy, the data showed that participants' level of LA was generally good to moderate.

There is a lot of LA, as well as knowledge about the concept of language learning and students' perceptions of their roles in language learning. In the remaining categories, such as learning self-efforts, bigger independent activities, and using materials for language acquisition, students in this study exhibited intermediate levels. According to the standard interpretation of these results, Myanmar learners, like their Myanmar counterparts, have a low LA level. Findings generally corroborate earlier research in Myanmar, and EFL environments in terms of very similar degrees of autonomy in specific autonomy aspects, such as high levels of awareness, moderate levels of actions, and substantial reliance on teachers. The data also show how multifaceted the concept is, especially in the context of Myanmar. Surprisingly,

people learning English had a lower amount of autonomy than those studying other subjects. Few studies appear to have compared English majors' LA performance to that of students with other degrees. This research looks at the LA of English major students in the context of other characteristics that were outside the focus of the study. Although the current study found a slightly significant difference between the two groups, this difference was more toward the non-English-major students. Thus, majoring in English was not an influencing factor for more autonomy in itself unless incorporated with other affective linguistic factors as in the two latter studies. The English major participants contradicted the assumption of being more autonomous due to other factors, which are probably higher in their non-English major peers. Teachers should encourage students especially majoring in other majors to be self-sufficient and may surpass them in a variety of areas. This research supports a lot of identify how well-equipped Myanmar EFL university students are in terms of learning English autonomously. The findings also approved to confirm the results of how to investigate if there are differences in the autonomy levels displayed by English-major and non-English-major students.

Conclusion

The unexpected change to online learning following the COVID-19 outbreak prompted this study to look into the amount of readiness and autonomy of English learners in an underrepresented context, taking into account the influence of their gender and subject of study. Previous research on EFL learners of Myanmar claims that learner autonomy levels are moderate to high. It helps learners who have excellent or high aptitude and knowledge of independent learning, behaviour, and learner accountability. However, they are lacking in practical actions. As a result, the situation is changing as learners now display fulfilling aspects of the learner-centered approach. If they are neither trained or scaffolded, they are expected to improve their autonomous behaviours. In addition to demonstrating learner-centered characteristics, the study adds to the idea that these students are reliant on teachers. As a result, it confirms Ming and Alias' (2007) conclusion that displaying characteristics of teacher dependence cannot be understood as a factor impeding learner autonomy in the EFL environment. It may now be reasonable to assume that learners in EFL settings can be autonomous, regardless of their views on teachers. A large number of participants demonstrated good to high levels of responsibility when interpreting instructor judgments using the questions in Appendix I, which differs from doing so using the other items because high scores for these items signal unfavourable results in terms of participant autonomy. Only the first statement, which states that learning can be accomplished without teachers, can be regarded beneficial in this category. To summarize, EFL students are more likely to lack training in autonomous behaviours and activities than they are to lack autonomy. Their demand for teachers is understandable, given that youngsters have not yet been taught to take responsibility for their own education. As a result, we shouldn't label people non-autonomous based on their actions or views. This study discovered that 55% of the participants had difficulty learning online. They weren't happy with how they communicated online. The findings revealed low involvement and motivation, low self-efficacy, and a lack of goals among the participants. In this study, Myanmar pupils acknowledged a need for teachers' teaching while also indicating a readiness and tendency to engage in

some autonomous behaviour in the future. Furthermore, survey participants showed a critical need for training in areas of autonomous learning while demonstrating great autonomy in other areas, the most important of which was motivation. They also indicated a dependence on their professors, as did the other research evaluated. Furthermore, learners demonstrated a high level of multidimensionality in the autonomy of participation. Through the researcher's teaching and actions, all of the students in that study demonstrated aptitude and preparedness for independent learning. We can argue that if educators use them effectively, their knowledge of the value of their roles in learning can ensure their independence. Furthermore, given the small number of factors included in this study, the findings highlight the importance of investigating autonomy with other multidimensional elements if it is to be fully understood. As a result, other criteria, the most essential of which may be their language competency and sorts of motives, would help interpret the position of English major students in this study.

References

- Albadry, H. (2018) Using mobile technology to foster autonomy among language learners. (*Unpublished PhD Thesis*). Newcastle University, The United Kingdom. Available at <https://theses.ncl.ac.uk/jspui/bitstream/10443/4112/1/Albadry%2C%20H.%202018.pdf>.
- Al-Jarf, R. (2020). Distance Learning and Undergraduate Saudi Students' Agency During the Covid-19 Pandemic. *Bulletin of the Transilvania University of Braşov Series IV: Philology and Cultural Studies*, 13(62), 2, 37-54
<https://doi.org/10.31926/but.pcs.2020.62.13.2.4>
- Asiri, J., & Shukri, N. (2020). Preparatory Learners' Perspectives of Learner Autonomy in the Saudi Context. *Arab World English Journal*, 11(2), 94-113. DOI:<https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol11no2.8>
- Bekleyen, N. & Selimoğlu, F. (2016). Learner Behaviors and Perceptions of Autonomous Language Learning. *The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language*, 20(3), 1-20.
- Benson, P. (2011). *Teaching and Researching Autonomy* (2nd ed.). London, England: Pearson Education.
- Boulton, A. R., Azzam-Hannachi, M. P., & Chateau, A. (2008). Learning to Learn Languages with ICT - but How? *CALL-EJ Online*, 9(2), 1-19. Retrieved from <https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal00273307/document>.
- Candy, P.C. (1991). *Self-Direction for Lifelong Learning*. California: Jossey-Bass.
- Chapelle, C. 2001. *Computer Applications in Second Language Acquisition: Foundations for Teaching, Testing, and Research*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chen, H., & Li, N. (2014). The analysis of factors affecting autonomy of English-major postgraduates. In S. Narayanasamy (Ed.), *14th International Conference on Social Science and Management (ICSSM 2014)* (pp. 250-253). Lancaster, PA: DEStech Publications.
- Denekamp, C. (2016). *The development of L2 Arab writers' proficiency: Autonomy, online self-access centers, and advisement*. (*Unpublished PhD Thesis*). Massey University, Manawatu, New Zealand. Retrieved from https://mro.massey.ac.nz/bitstream/handle/10179/11217/02_whole.pdf.

- Dickinson, L. (1987). *Self-Instruction in Language Learning*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Ghobain, E. (2020). Indirect Specialized Vocabulary Learning and Learner Autonomy. *International Journal of Instruction*, 13(3).
- Hayta, F., & Yaprak, Z. (2013). Learner Autonomy and Computer Technology As a Facilitator of Autonomous Language Learning. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 3(2), 57-63
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy in Foreign Language Learning*. Oxford, England: Pergamon
- Jianfeng, Ch., Raj, G. S., & Ai, J. T. T. (2018). The Correlations among Learning Motivation, Autonomy and Language Proficiency in Chinese EFL Context. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network Journal*, 11(1), 1-14
- Joshi, K.R. (2011). Learner Perceptions and Teacher Beliefs about Learner Autonomy in Language Learning. *Journal of NELTA*, 16(1-2), 13-29. <https://doi.org/10.3126/nelta.v16i1-2.6126>
- Jianfeng, C., Raj, G.S., & Ai, J.T. (2018). The Relationships Among Language Learning Strategy, Motivation, Anxiety and Autonomy in Chinese EFL Learners. *International Journal of Engineering and Technology*, 7, 508.
- Little, D. (1991). *Learner Autonomy. 1: Definitions, Issues and Problems*. Dublin, Eire: Authentik.
- Lu, J., & Fan, S. (2013). Gender Differences in Autonomous Learning: A Study of Non-English Majors in a Chinese University Discourse. *The Internet Journal Language, Culture and Society*, 36, 18- 27
- Mardjuki, M. S. (2018). Learner Autonomy: Gender-Based Perception among EFL Indonesian Students. *Indonesian Journal of EFL and Linguistics*, 3(1), 1-17
- Mistar, J. (2001). Maximizing Learning Strategies to Promote LA. *TEFLIN Journal*, 12(1), 88-100. Available at www.journal.teflin.org/index.php/journal/article/download/232/222.
- Mısır, H., Koban, D. K., & Koç, S. E. (2018). An Analysis of Learner Autonomy and Autonomous Learning Practices in Massive Open Online Language Courses. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ) Special Issue on CALL*, 4, 24-39. DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/call4.3>
- Muliyah, P., Aminatun, D., Nasution, S., Hastomo, T., Sitepu, S., Tryana. (2020). Exploring Learners' Autonomy in Online Language-Learning in STAI SUFYAN TSAURI MAJENANG. *Getsempena English Education Journal*, 7(2), 382-394. <https://doi.org/10.46244/geej.v7i2.1164>
- Nabila, T. F. (2019). *Teachers and students' perception of learner autonomy in language learning at Sman 1 Gedangan Sidoarjo. (Unpublished Master's Thesis)*. Uin Sunan Ampel Surabaya University. Retrieved from http://digilib.uinsby.ac.id/38707/2/Tuchfah%20Fulan%20Nabila_D75215113.pdf.
- Orawiwatnakul, W., & Wichadee, S. (2017). An Investigation of Undergraduate Students' Beliefs about Autonomous Language Learning. *International Journal of Instruction* v10(1), 117-132.

- Pokhrel, S. (2016). Learner Autonomy: a Western Hegemony in English Language Teaching to Enhance Students' Learning for Non-Western Cultural Context. *Journal of NELTA*, 21(1-2), 128-139. <https://doi.org/10.3126/nelta.v21i1-2.20209>
- Reinders, H., & White, C. (2011). Learner Autonomy and New Learning Environments. *Language Learning and Technology*, 15(3), 1–3.
- Reinders, H., & White, C. (2016). 20 Years of Autonomy and Technology: How Far Have We Come and Where to Next? *Language Learning & Technology*, 20(2), 143-154.
- Solomon, G., & Schrum, L. (2007). *Web2.0: New Tools, New Schools*. Eugene, OR: International Society for Technology in Education.
- Stroupe, R., Colin, R., & Tomita, K. (2016). Developing autonomous learners in Japan: Working with teachers through professional development. In R. Barnard, & J. Li, (eds.), *Language Learner Autonomy: Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Asian Contexts* (pp 43-61). IDP Education (Cambodia) Ltd.
- Thang, S. M & Alias, A. (2007). Investigating Readiness for Autonomy: A Comparison of Malaysian ESL Undergraduates of Three Public Universities. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, 6 (1), 1-18
- Varol, B., & Yilmaz, S. (2010). Similarities and Differences between Female and Male Learners: inside and outside Class Autonomous Language Learning Activities. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 3, 237–244. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.07.038
- Wang, Y., & Wang, M. (2016). Developing learner autonomy: Chinese University EFL Teachers' Perceptions and Practices. In B. Roger, & L. Jinrui, (eds.), *Language Learner Autonomy: Teachers' Beliefs and Practices in Asian Contexts* (pp. 23-42). IDP Education (Cambodia) Ltd.

Methods in Collecting Data on Pragmatic Competence: A Critical Review

Jansuda Boontree¹ / Nawamin Prachanant² / Saowarot Ruangpaisan³

¹PhD Student, English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: jansuda.bt@bru.ac.th

²Major Advisor, Assistant Professor Dr., Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: nawamin.pc@bru.ac.th

³Co-advisor, Dr., Faculty of Education, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: saowarot.rp@bru.ac.th

Abstract

This study aimed to overview the commonly used methods for data collection in researching pragmatic competence. The data were collected by reviewing 78 domestic and international academic documents and research articles in pragmatics published from 2000 to 2021. The data were categorized into critical issues according to methods for collecting pragmatic competence data. The findings ranged from Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs), role plays, naturalistic interaction, verbal reports, and conversation tasks. The study is helpful for those interested in developing the tools for measuring learners' pragmatic competence and collecting pragmatic competence data.

Keywords: Pragmatic, Pragmatic Competence, Methods in Collecting Data

Introduction

The nature of human communication is that the speakers often intend to convey more than the words they utter. At the same time, the hearers go beyond what speakers have uttered to retrieve the intended interpretation of the utterances (Taghizadeh, 2017). Therefore, the study of speaker meaning and how the language is used in communication is called pragmatic. Pragmatic concerns the meaning communicated by a speaker and interpreted by a listener. Yule (1996) adds that only pragmatics allows humans into the analysis among the three linguistic components as syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. The advantage of studying language via pragmatics is that learners can talk about people's intended meanings, assumptions, purposes, and actions they perform when they speak. Crystal (1985) defines pragmatics as the study of language from users' point of view, especially of their choices, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects of their use of language. On the importance of studying pragmatics, Leech (1983) claims that humans can begin to understand the nature of language only if they understand the language used in communication. The ability of someone as the hearer to understand the message implied by the speaker is called pragmatic skill or pragmatic competence.

1.1 Pragmatic competence

Pragmatic competence is one component of communicative competence. According to Savignon's (1991) explanation, it claims that the communicative competence needed for participation includes grammatical competence and pragmatic competence. As the ability to convey and interpret the contextual meaning, pragmatic competence plays a significant role in communicative ability. Canale and Swain

(1980) comprise pragmatic competence as a critical component of their model of communicative competence. Likewise, Chomsky (1980) acknowledges the intention of language use and proposed the concept of pragmatic competence as the ability to understand how language relates to the context in which it is used. According to Cruz (2018), pragmatic competence is significant so that hearer comprehends what speakers say contextually. Understanding the intention of what people say is one aspect that makes the communication run as it is supposed to be. However, the inability to understand the message implied in communication is called pragmatic failure. The term “pragmatic failure” is chosen instead of “pragmatic error,” unlike grammatical errors, which can be judged according to prescriptive rules. Pragmatic competence entails probable rather than definite rules. Therefore, it is impossible to say that the pragmatic force of an utterance is wrong, but rather it failed to achieve the speaker’s purpose. Lu (2019) mentions that pragmatic inappropriateness is a pragmatic failure in line with the idea proposed by Thomas (1983). Thomas (1983) indicates that pragmatic failure is the inability to understand what is meant by what a human is saying. As a result, failure may cause misunderstandings and sometimes communication breakdowns. So, one of the essential skills associated with pragmatic competence is recognizing the appropriateness of an utterance within a given context and choosing one possible form over another based on that understanding (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

1.2 Pragmatic Assessment

Pragmatic assessment is involved in developing pragmatic competence. Assessment of pragmatic skills is vital to identify learners who need additional intervention in social communication. The pragmatic assessment identifies and measures single cognitive processes underlying a range of communication behaviors. They differ in two dimensions; the extent to which they are based on the underlying theory and the components of pragmatic competence they tap (Sobhani, 2014). The speech act theory, which focuses on the communicative functions of utterances and attempts to explain the use of language to accomplish intended actions, is commonly employed in pragmatic assessment. For instance, the synthesis study of Boontree et al. (2022) revealed that the speech acts of request, refusal, and apology were found to assess learners’ pragmatic competence because they are the daily communication principle, and the ecological niche speech acts are situated easily (Mitchell, 2007; Green, 2007). As a result, the speech acts are primarily concerned with collecting and assessing the learners’ pragmatic competence. Nevertheless, a difficulty in research pragmatics is the method or instrument used to elicit and gather data (Hinkel, 1997). Therefore, how to collect appropriate data is a crucial issue in pragmatic research because the data collection instrument and the methodological issues will determine whether the data gathered are reliable or not. Additionally, the methods equate with specific design elements and strategies of inquiry, such as how to recruit participants, the type of data collection, and methodology are more closely linked to philosophical issues within the research process (Giacobbi, Poczwardowski, & Hager, 2005).

1.3 Critical Review

Boaheng (2020) defines a critical review as an overall critique of a text with its use of evidence and can contribute to historical understanding. A critical review provides a reasonable evaluation of a secondary historical source so that those who

have not read the source can understand its key contributions to studying a historical topic or period. Furthermore, it is a form of literary criticism in the texts analyzed based on their contents, styles, and distinction. There are 3 purposes of critical review. First, a critical review ensures that researchers/learners acquire the skills of engaging in intellectual discussion on what they read. Second, the critical review involves analytical skills that push reviewers to read and think about a text more profoundly, moving beyond a "book report." Third, it allows others to keep track of the latest research without necessarily reading the entire document.

Research Objective

The research objective was to overview the commonly used methods for data collection in pragmatic competence.

Research Methodology

This study reviewed 78 domestic and international research articles online based on pragmatics competence published from 2000 to 2021. First, those articles were searched with keywords: pragmatic competence, pragmatic development, pragmatic language testing, and data collection methods. The data were then categorized into critical issues according to methods of collecting pragmatic competence data.

Research Results

This study reviews the commonly used methods for data collection in pragmatic competence. Generally, the data gathered in the pragmatics research methods can be divided into natural discourse data or observational data collection and elicited data collection (Félix-Brasdefer, 2007). The data collection in pragmatics draws on various methods. The methods mentioned are discourse completion tests (DCTs), multiple-choice questionnaires (MCQs), role plays, role play self-assessment, self-assessment, rating scales, verbal reports or think-aloud protocol, corpus linguistics, diary, interview, naturalistic data or naturally occurring data, i.e., field observations, audio and video recordings of real-life conversations, and technology-based data collection as mentioned by many scholars (Hudson, Detmer, & Brown, 1992, 1995; Kasper, 1999; Demeter, 2007; Golato, 2013; Taguchi, 2018; Nguyen, 2019).

According to the data analysis, the methods for collecting pragmatic competence data found in the study are presented in Table 1 as follows:

Table 1 Methods in Collecting Pragmatic Competence Data

Data collection methods	Frequency	Percentage
Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs)	55	56.71
Role plays	24	24.75
Naturalistic interaction	9	9.27
Verbal reports	6	6.18
Conversation tasks	3	3.09
Total	97	100

As shown in Table 1, it could be explained that 5 data collection methods were employed in this study. The result also informs that the highest data collection method was DCTs ($f=55$, 56.71%), followed by role plays ($f=24$, 24.75%), naturalistic interaction ($f=9$, 9.27%), verbal reports ($f=6$, 6.18%), and conversation tasks ($f=3$, 3.09%), respectively.

Each data collection method can be shown in detail at the following points.

a) Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs)

DCTs are the most widely used type of data collection method. DCTs can be separated into Witten Discourse Completion Tasks (WDCT), Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Task (MDCT), and Oral Discourse Completion Task (ODCT). There were 55 research articles that employed DCTs in this study: 30 Witten Discourse Completion Tasks, 17 Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Task, and 8 Oral Discourse Completion Task. In the DCTs method, the test-takers requires to read a description of a situation or listen to the recorded description situation. The test-takers then write, choose, or record what they would think to come next in the situation, respectively. Some of the critical studies on DCTs were done by many scholars, e.g., Brown 2001, Golato (2003), Rose (2009), Chang (2011), Nemati, Rezaee, and Mahdi (2014), Liu & Xie (2014), Li & Bin (2014), Tabatabaei & Farnia (2015). Nemati, Rezaee, and Mahdi (2014) assessed the pragmatic competence of Iranian EFL learners through MDCT. The finding suggested that MDCT can be reliably used in EFL contexts as a valid measure of pragmatic competence. Also, Rose (2009) applied ODCTs in her study since the participants might be understood the tasks and scenarios beforehand. Then the participants were instructed to say (in English) what they thought the role in the scenarios would say. Furthermore, real-time oral responses provide insights into how learners can apply specific, pragmatic knowledge. However, Chang (2011) used WDCT in his study in order to reveal participants' actual language ability. The participants in his research were young learners whose L2 proficiency was low. The oral tasks would elicit their great anxiety, which led to the production of brief and irregular utterances. DCTs afford administrative advantages and do not require time-consuming transcriptions (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000), and remain the most widely used type of instrument. However, it is also criticized for its inadequateness to represent the actual pragmatic competence in actual performance. It gives rise to another method, role play, which emphasizes more actual interaction.

b) Role Plays

Role plays are one of the most common methods used in pragmatic competence studies. The role-play method encourages the test-takers to read a description of a situation and then play a particular role with another person. So, role plays help gather data about the types of discourse that are difficult to access in real-life situations because of the sensitivity of the data (Archer et al., 2012). There are two types of role plays: closed and open. A closed role play requires participants to act out a scenario alone without an interlocutor and produce one-turn responses. In contrast, open role play allows participants to take as many turns as they need to complete the required task (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). Several researchers have advocated the use of role play method. Ghavamnia et al. (2018) used closed role plays innovatively to elicit naturally sounding suggestions from L2 English learners. Hassall (2003) examined how Australian learners of Indonesian perform requests in everyday situations compared to Indonesian native speakers. Battaler (2013) compared role plays and natural data for asking for a drink at a cafeteria in Peninsular.

Besides, Ghavamnia, Eslami-Rasekha, and Vahid-Dastjerdia (2018) employed role play to examine the effects of input enhanced instruction on Iranian EFL learners' production of appropriate and accurate suggestions. Role plays were conducted among adults because they were better at processing and performing linguistic actions without causing too much anxiety. In addition, role play can become evident the natural use of pragmatic competence. The researchers have recognized that the data may not be equivalent to genuine conversations, and it was not always possible to distinguish in analyses whether participants were oriented to the role play or the make-believe situation in the role play (Taguchi, 2015).

c) Naturalistic interaction

Naturalistic or naturally occurring data are usually collected via audio/video recording in a real-world setting with or without the researcher's presence. Field observations and technology-based data collection can add to this kind of method. Participants are usually aware of being recorded while engaging in real-life tasks. The researchers applied discourse analysis or conversation analysis techniques to transcribe and analyze a conversation to reveal how certain linguistic forms occur over conversational sequences and serve as resources for participants as they jointly construct a pragmatic act (Taguchi, 2015). The naturally occurring speech represents the most valid measure of actual language use (Tran, 2004). However, it does not allow the researcher to exercise control over social and contextual variables. This lack of control makes it difficult to systematically replicate the same scenario and compare speech samples from different individuals or groups (Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Tran, 2004). Some researchers employed naturalistic interaction in their study; for example, Shively (2011) applied field observations to investigate pragmatic development in Spanish service encounters studied abroad. Taguchi, Li, and Liu (2013) comprehended the conversational implicature in L2 Chinese via field notes. Also, Shively (2015) employed audio and video recording to collect the data for developing interactional competence during study abroad. Cunningham (2017) used technology-based data collection in the second language survey pragmatic appropriateness in telecollaboration.

d) Verbal report

A verbal report is also known as a verbal or think-aloud protocol. It is the thoughtful way that converts the thinking process of the subjects when they complete tasks into speech, whose purpose is to explore the reasoning process when learners are producing written or oral language. It is the direct access to the cognitive problem-solving steps a learner performs in working memory when dealing with the task (Sun, 2021). The verbal report used second language pragmatics to investigate students' L2 pragmatic competence. In the case of interactive data collection, verbal reports can only be retroactive and thus reflects the participants' hypothesis about their performance rather than their cognitive processes. Li and Ren (2018) explored the dynamic and multi-facet relationship between learners' L2 pragmatic performance. They found that the subjects can refer to their pragmatic output and recall why they chose the corresponding pragmatic strategy in the specific situation in a verbal report. Timpe (2012) also utilized a verbal report methodology to access respondents' cognitive processes while working on the tasks.

e) Conversation tasks

Conversation tasks have been used to collect semi-naturalistic conversation data. Conversation tasks are defined by Kasper (2008) as a task in which participants

discuss a topic to reach a particular goal that determines by the researcher. This method includes recordings of spontaneous conversations when participants engage in activities by the researcher, but the speakers are not aware of being observed or of the research focus. For example, Al-Gahtani and Roever (2014) employed conversation tasks to investigate L2 requests in Arabic. The students had a conflict in scheduling, which they needed to resolve by requesting a schedule change from their school administrators. Also, Nguyen (2017) used conversation tasks and retrospective methodology to investigate L2 pragmatics development of EFL criticisms and responses to criticisms. However, data obtained by conversation tasks are close to those of naturalistic conversations. Although they are spontaneous and can be consequential (Bardovi-Harlig, 2010), conversation tasks are motivated by the researcher's goals and thus are not truly authentic, unlike naturally occurring discourse which comes from real-life interaction.

Discussion

Pragmatic competence is one of the language aspects that causes many challenges for L2 learners. L2 learners need to develop their pragmatic competence to be able to use the language appropriately. This section discusses the research results on methods in collecting pragmatic competence data, which is in line with previous studies such as discourse completion tests (DCTs), role plays, verbal reports, naturalistic data, and conversation tasks. Kasper and Dahl (1991) introduced that the instruments such as discourse completion, closed role play, open role play, and observation of authentic discourse are placed as production methods. In addition, the rating scale, multiple-choice, interview tasks, discourse completion, closed role play, and open role play are recognized as the elicited methods in data collection. Demeter (2007) stated that methodology and instruments used in gathering pragmatic knowledge of individuals are crucial, influencing the outcome of the study. He compared two sets of results obtained through role play and a discourse completion test. He understood that "although DCTs are more appropriate for studying the main types of strategies in speech act production, role-plays seem a better choice when the interaction between the speaker and hearer is also important for the study." Kusevska and Ivanovska (2017) also indicated that DCTs and role plays are the most common means for data collection in interlanguage pragmatics. The advantages of these instruments are that different variables can be controlled and that a considerable amount of data can be easily collected. The study by Sun (2021) discovered that the Metapragmatic judgment item, discourse completion task, role play, and verbal reports were the most widely used instruments in L2 pragmatic competence of Chinese tertiary-level students. As the results indicated, the primary method of collecting pragmatic competence data employed in this study was the Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs). DCTs are attractive because they elicit real-world speech act performance (McNamara, & Roever, 2006). The WDCT demands the learners to read a situation description and write what they would say next to produce a particular language considering the usual contextual constraints (Hudson et al., 1995; Oller, 1979), and the MDCT can be administered to large numbers of learners simultaneously. The advantages of DCT can also support high reliability in this type of test (Brown, 2001). However, compared to role plays, role plays are more like real-life speech situations than DCTs (McNamara, & Roever, 2006). Role plays have an

advantage in that they closely represent oral production; for instance, they contain turn-taking features, hesitations, silences, and negotiation of meaning (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). However, they are still driven by the researcher's interests and do not always allow for the same free topic or action development as Kasper (2000) mentioned. Nevertheless, only limited efforts have been made to evaluate the validity of this method. Rintell and Mitchell (1989) compared DCTs with role plays and found out that the collected data from the two methods are very similar. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) reached native and non-native English rejections using two different DCTs: open and dialogue-type questionnaires. They found out that the variation of DCT type affects non-native speakers' responses more than the native speakers' answers. Also, Hinkel (1997) made a similar comparison between DCTs and multiple-choice questionnaires. It can be argued that no method is inherently better than another and that methodological choice essentially depends on research goals.

Recommendations

This article tried to overview various methods for collecting pragmatic competence data. There are many issues that researchers and teachers will need to consider in pragmatics competence. It could be claimed that no method is essentially better than another, and those methodological choices effectively depend on research goals. It is hoped that the results of this study will be used as guidelines for collecting and developing the tools for measuring learners' pragmatic competence as well as helpful in future research in the field of collecting pragmatic competence data and pragmatic competence development. As was discussed, each method has its own advantages. In this sense, it could be suggested that future research should adopt more different methods to examine pragmatic competence and compare the results. Although this trend is time-consuming and impractical, it can provide researchers with reassuring data. Also, the operation of various methods will indeed reduce the validity problems. Moreover, in raising students' pragmatic competence, the examination of other aspects of communicative competence such as grammatical competence, discourse competence, and sociolinguistic competence should be concerned.

References

- Al-Gahtani, S., & Roever, C. (2014). Insert and post-expansion in L2 Arabic requests. *System*, 42(1) : 189-206.
- Archer, D., Ajmer, K., & Wichman, A. (2012). *Pragmatics: An advanced resource book for students*. London: Routledge.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010). Exploring the pragmatics of interlanguage pragmatics: Definition by design. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Pragmatics across languages and cultures*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. & Hartford, B. (1993). Refining the DCTs: Comparing open questionnaires and dialogue completion tests. In L. Bouton and Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and Language Learning, Monograph Series*, 4 : 143-165.
- Bataller, R. (2013). Role-plays versus natural data: asking for a drink at a cafeteria in peninsular Spanish. *Medellín-Colombia*, 18 (2) : 111-126.

- Beebe, L. M. and Cummings, M.C. (1996). Natural speech act versus written questionnaire data: How data collection method affects speech act performance". In S.M. Gass and J. Neu (Eds.). *Speech Acts across Cultures*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Billmyer, K., & Varghese, M. (2000). Investigating instrument-based pragmatic variability: Effects of enhancing discourse completion tasks. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(4) : 517–52.
- Boaheng, I. (2020). Writing a Critical Review: A Suggested Approach. Retrieved 22 May 2022, from https://noyam.org/blog_writing-a-critical-review/.
- Boontree, J., Prachanant, N. & Ruangpaisan, S. (2022). A Synthesis Study of Assessing Learners' Pragmatic Competence. *Proceedings of the 5th National and International Research Conference 2022, Universities for Local development Based on Sustainable Development Goals, Buriram Rajabhat University: Thailand*, 1 : 212 - 222.
- Brown, J. D. (2001). Pragmatics tests. In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approach to Second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1 : 1-47.
- Chang, Y. F. (2011). Interlanguage pragmatic development: the relation between pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence. *Language Sciences*, 33(5) : 786-798.
- Chomsky, N. (1980). *Rules and representations*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Crystal, D. (1985). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. 2nd ed. New York : Basil Blackwell.
- Cruz, M. P. (2018). Pragmatic competence injustice. *Social Epistemology. A Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Policy*, 32 (3) : 143-163.
- Demeter, G. (2007). Role-plays as a data collection method for research on apology speech acts. *Simulation & Gaming*, 38(1) : 83-90.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2007). Natural speech vs. elicited data: A comparison of natural and role play requests in Mexican Spanish. *Spanish in context*, 4(2) : 159-185.
- Ghavamnia, M., Eslami-Rasekha, A., & Vahid-Dastjerdia, H. (2018). The effects of input enhanced instruction on Iranian EFL learners' production of appropriate and accurate suggestions. *The Language Learning Journal*, 46(2) : 114-131.
- Giacobbi, P. R., Poczwadowski, A., & Hager, P. F. (2005). A Pragmatic Research Philosophy for Applied Sport Psychology. *Sport Psychologist*, 19(1) : 18-31.
- Golato, A. (2003). Studying compliment responses: A comparison of DCTs and recordings of naturally occurring talk. *Applied Linguistics*, 24(1) : 90–121.
- Green, M. (2007). *Self-Expression*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hinkel, E. (1997). Appropriateness of Advice: DCT and Multiple Choice Data. *Applied Linguistics*, 18 (1) : 1-26.
- Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J. D. (1992). *A framework for testing cross-cultural pragmatics*. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

- Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J. D. (1995). Developing prototypic measures of cross-cultural pragmatics. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.
- Kasper, G. (1999). Data collection in pragmatics research. University of Hawai'i Working Papers in ESL, 18(1) : 71-107.
- Kasper, G. (2000). Data collection in pragmatics research. In H. Spencer-Oatey (Ed.), *Culturally speaking: Managing rapport through talk across cultures* London, England: Continuum.
- Kasper, G. (2008). Data collection in pragmatics research. In H. Spencery-Oatey (Ed.), *Culturally speaking. Managing rapport through talk across cultures* (2nd ed.). New York: Continuum.
- Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13(2) : 215-47.
- Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Michigan: Blackwell.
- Kusevska, M. & Ivanovska, B. (2017). In Search of Reliable Methods for Data Collection in Interlanguage Pragmatics Research. *Proceedings of 10th annual International Conference of Education, Research and Innovation*, Seville, Spain. 1895-1904.
- Leech, G. N. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. New York: Longman.
- Li, Q., & Bin, K. (2014). Development of English pragmatics of Chinese EFL learners: Recognition and production of English routines. *Foreign Language World*, 6 : 11-20.
- Li, C., & Ren, W. (2018). L2 pragmatic competence and subjectivity under the third place theory. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, (2) : 68-78.
- Liu, J., & Xie, L. (2014). Examining rater effects in a WDCT pragmatics test. *Iranian Journal of Language Testing*, 4(1) : 50-65.
- Lu, L. (2019). Pragmatic failure in interpretation and the development of students' pragmatic competence in interpreting. *English Language Teaching*, 12(3) : 37-45.
- McNamara, T. F., & Roever, C. (2006). *Language testing: The social dimension*. Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.
- Mitchell, G. (2007). Speech Acts. *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* (Spring 2009 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (Ed.). Retrieved 20 January 2022, from <http://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2009/entries/speech-acts/>.
- Nemati, M., Rezaee, A. A., & Mahdi H. M. (2014). Assessing Pragmatics through MDCTs: A Case of Iranian EFL Learners. *Iranian Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 6(2) : 43-66.
- Nguyen, T.T.M. (2017). Using conversation tasks and retrospective methodology to investigate L2 pragmatics development: the case of EFL criticisms and responses to criticisms. *The Language Learning Journal*, 45(3) : 399-417.
- Nguyen, T.T.M. (2019). Data collection methods in L2 pragmatics research: An overview. In Taguchi, N. (Ed.), *The Routledge Handbook of SLA and Pragmatics*. New York: Routledge.
- Oller, J. (1979). *Language tests in schools: A pragmatic approach*. London, UK: Longman.

- Rose, K. R. (2009). Interlanguage pragmatic development in Hong Kong, phase 2. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 41(11) : 2345-2364.
- Rintell, E.M., & Mitchell, C.J. (1989). Studying requests and apologies: An inquiry into method. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*. Norwood. NJ: Ablex. 248-272.
- Savignon, S. J. (1991). Communicative Language Teaching : state of the art. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(2) : 261-275.
- Shively, R. L. (2011). L2 pragmatic development in study abroad: A longitudinal study of Spanish service encounters. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43(6) : 1818-1835.
- Shively, R. (2015). Developing interactional competence during study abroad: Listener responses in L2 Spanish. *System*, 48(1) : 86-98.
- Sobhani, R. D. (2014). A review on adult pragmatic assessments. *Iran J Neurol*, 13(3) : 113-8.
- Sun, H. (2021). A Literature Review of the Research Method in the Study of L2 Pragmatic Competence of Chinese Tertiary-Level Students. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 18(12) : 377-382
- Tabatabaei, S., & Farnia, M. (2015). Learner's English Proficiency and their Pragmatic Competence of Refusal Speech Acts. *Beyond Words*, 3(1), 53-77.
- Taghizadeh, R. (2017). Pragmatic competence in the target language: A study of Iranian learners of English. Doctoral Thesis : University of Salford, Manchester.
- Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching*, 48(1) : 1-50.
- Taguchi, N. (2018). Data collection and analysis in developmental L2 pragmatics research: Discourse completion test, role play, and naturalistic recording In A. Gudmestad & A. Edmonds (eds.), *Critical reflections on data in second language acquisition*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Taguchi, N., Li, S., & Liu, Y. (2013). Comprehension of conversational implicature in L2 Chinese. *Pragmatics and Cognition*, 21(1) : 139-157.
- Thomas, J. (1983) Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, 4(2) : 91-112.
- Timpe, V. (2012). Strategic decoding of sociopragmatic assessment tasks—An exploratory think-aloud validation study. *Second Language Studies*, 30(2) : 109-246.
- Tran, G. (2004). The naturalized role-play: An innovative methodology in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics research. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, 5(2) : 124.
- Yuan, Y. (2001). An inquiry into empirical pragmatics data-gathering methods: Written DCTs, oral DCTs, field notes, and natural conversations. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 33 (2) : 271-292.

The Investigation of Problems on Reading Comprehension of High School Students at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School

Wiphaporn Dangsri¹ / Chookiat Jarat² / Nawamin Prachanant³

¹PhD in English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: 640427092013@bru.ac.th

²Major Advisor, English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: k_choo_k@yahoo.com

³Co-advisor, English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: nawamin.pc@bru.ac.th

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the problems of reading comprehension of high school students at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School. The participants of the study include 53 grade 11 students who enrolled the English course (E32102) in the second semester of the academic year 2021 at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School in Prakhonchai District, Buriram Province. The research instrument included open-ended questionnaires. The data were analyzed statistically by using means, and standard deviation. The results of the study showed that the grade 11 students scraped with three main problems in reading: background knowledge (3.83), technical vocabulary (3.77) and sentence and structures (3.56), respectively. It can be concluded that the grade 11 students revealed that background knowledge causes the most difficulty in their reading. They also stated that technical vocabulary and knowing sentences and structure are significant factors in facilitating to understand reading text.

Keywords: reading problem, high school students, reading comprehension

Introduction

Reading plays a central role in our educational, working, recreational, and social lives. The ability to read is highly valued and important for social and economic advancement. Reading is the most important skill among the four language skills as it can improve the overall language proficiency (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; Krashen & Brown, 2007). Even though one may have reading difficulties in his or her mother tongue, the problems get worse when reading is applied to a second language, as students might be lagging behind in a number of reading components, including accuracy, comprehension, and speed. Lagging behind is a cognitive difficulty associated with the process of reading in another language (Alsamadani, 2008). In other words, these difficulties are more likely to be associated with the nature of the language pragma linguistic or even sociocultural aspects.

To improve communication, English language learners have required four macro skills to include reading, listening, speaking, and writing (Aydogan & Akbarov, 2014). Among the four macro skills, reading skills are considered the main doorway to knowledge (Shehadeh, 2016). Previous studies (Amin, 2019; Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012) also stated that reading played a significant role in education. Reading is an "interactive" process between the reader and the text in which the

reader interacts dynamically to elicit some meaning. Reading plays an important part in second language learners' academic achievement for many reasons: it has a positive effect on student's vocabulary acquisition, spelling and writing (Zare, 2012). Many studies have explored several factors to determine ESL reader's comprehension and to identify how reading strategies contribute to effective reading.

Reading comprehension is one of the most important study skills in higher education. One of the vital factors in the process of learning English language is reading comprehension. Researchers have indicated that the process of reading comprehension is quite complex and students often struggle in constructing the meaning and comprehension of the text. (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Theoretically, reading comprehension is an interactive process of deriving meanings from a text (Rumelhart, 1981). Research shows that reading comprehension is a complex process and students usually have difficulties in constructing meaning from texts (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). The study conducted by Salataki & Akyel (2002) suggests that students, who start to learn the English language, are most likely to have serious difficulties in constructing meaning and understanding texts. Most researchers agree that reading comprehension is not simply recognizing individual words, or even understanding each individual word as our eyes pass over it. All models of comprehension recognize the need for readers to build up a mental representation of text, a process that requires integration across a range of sources of information, from lexical features to knowledge concerning events in the world (e.g., Garnham, 2001; Gernsbacher, 1990; Kintsch, 1998). For this reason, the Simple View of Reading, which could be seen as the first endeavor to describe the "balanced literacy", suggests that reading comprehension results from developing skills in the areas of decoding and linguistic comprehension (Kirby & Savage, 2008).

Nowadays, reading become necessary device toward the English Foreign Language learner's growth their English proficiency level. Moreover, reading is important to develop EFL learners in their socio-cultural competence. In education part, reading is one of compulsory activities that students and the teachers have to do that all of the time. They may read many kind of texts based on their various purposes. Based on Hung and Ngan (2015), they said that the basic skill to improve vocabulary, writing, fluency and speaking is reading.

It is recognized that all of four skills in English, reading skill is regarded as a necessary skill which EFL or ESL learners need to achieve in learning and teaching outcomes. Reading skill plays the most significant role in language learning especially studying in higher educational levels. Some research found that many Thai EFL students have low proficiency in reading (Adunyarittigun, 2005; Sasaki, 2000).

Thus, this study was conducted to investigate of the problems on reading comprehension of high school students at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School. The results of this study are anticipated to serve as a guideline for improving and developing appropriate courses of English for high school students' purposes for them.

Research Objectives

To investigate the problems that high school students at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School face when reading English for comprehension.

2.1 Research Questions

What are the problems that high school students at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School face when reading English for comprehension?

2.2 Scope and Limitations of the Research

This study investigated the problems in reading of high school students at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School in Prakhonchai District, Buriram Province who enrolled the English course (E32102) in the 2 semester of the academic year 2021. They were studying at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School in Prakhonchai District, Buriram Province.

2.3 Significance of the Study

The results of the current study may assist the English teachers, course designers in developing English language course for the high school students in the context of EFL or ESL. The findings of the study may also enable the English teachers to make informed decisions concerning the students' reading comprehension problems field in the development of intensive or extensive course and designing reading materials. The studies may also be advantageous to the Thai students so that they can recognize and understand their specific problems in reading skills.

In addition, the findings of the study also could be valuable to assist Thai High school teachers to identify their students' reading problems and to find some suitable solution methods for teaching and learning reading.

Methodology

3.1 Participants

The participants were 53 grade 11 students who enrolled the English course (E32102) in the second semester of the academic year 2021. They were studying at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School in Prakhonchai District, Buriram province. Selection of the school was decided by convenience sampling.

3.2 Research Instruments

Questionnaire

In this present study, there was questionnaire comprised of open-ended questions. The questionnaire was constructed by using the Five-Point Likert scale. A mean score derived from the students' opinions was interpreted by ranking from very high, high, moderate, low, and very low. 'Very high' is valued as '4.5 - 5.0'. 'High' is valued as '3.5 - 4.4'. 'Moderate' is valued as '2.5 - 3.49'. 'Low' is valued as '1.5 - 2.49', and "Very Low" is valued as '1.0 - 1.49'.

3.3 Data Collection

Fifty-three participants were asked to complete the questionnaires in a span of 15 minutes. The participants spent 15 minutes to complete the questionnaires with good cooperation.

3.4 Data analysis

Quantitative data was analyzed as mean and standard deviation, and with the assistance of the SPSS program in order to achieve the research purposes concerning analyzing and interpreting the data obtained from the questionnaire.

Results of the Study

Questionnaire

Research Question: What are the problems that high school students at Prakhonchaipitthayakhom School face when reading English texts?

Students' Specific Problems of Reading Texts

There are many specific difficulties of reading that we want to explore and examine after we confirm that these students feel difficulty in reading English texts. The table 1 below showed the results for specific difficulties of reading English text.

Table 1: The Results for Specific Problems of Reading English Text

Problems in Reading English Texts	Mean	SD
1. You have difficulties because of vocabulary	3.37	1.11
2. Background knowledge helps you Read.	3.83	0.97
3. You feel worried when you have to read English text.	3.37	1.38
4. You enjoy reading English text.	3.37	1.02
5. Practicing reading comprehension in the classroom is enough for you.	2.66	0.97
6. You will get the main idea after reading.	3.16	1.10
7. You get the supporting details after reading.	3.50	1.12
8. You are unable to understand the structure in the reading text.	2.90	1.16
9. The same word has different meaning when in academic context.	3.33	0.87
10. You do not know technical vocabulary.	3.77	1.06
11. Sentences and structures are quite complex in reading.	3.56	0.93
12. Reading passages are too long.	3.33	1.01
13. You are not interested in the material read	2.66	0.85
14. You do not realize the benefits of English Reading	2.54	0.74
15. You do not know the strategy using in reading comprehension	3.06	1.33

Table 1 shows the mean scores of 53 students' report for each question. It indicates that they have difficulties in reading. The difficulties that students agree are:

1. Background knowledge helps you Read (3.83).
2. You do not know technical vocabulary (3.77).
3. Sentences and structures are quite complex in reading (3.56)

The findings from this questionnaire also revealed that the participants have problems in 1) You get the supporting details after reading with 3.50 mean scores 2) You feel worried when you have to read English text with 3.37 mean scores, and 3) You enjoy reading English text (3.37).

Discussion of the Findings

The research findings revealed that there are 4 main difficulties in reading. The results obtained indicated that the participants have difficulties in reading. They have difficulties in background knowledge, vocabulary, grammatical rule, and low understand supporting details to read and understand texts. Some discussion for reading for high school students may be drawn as follows:

1. The results of the questionnaires revealed that background knowledge is the most important things in reading comprehension. This might result from the theories of reading that bottom up and top down is important in reading (Cohen, 1994). Reading comprehension is core to academic progress, because it underpins content-area learning in all subjects. Research in reading over the last 40 years has increasingly emphasized the importance of background knowledge as a significant contributor to the reading ability of middle school students (Recht & Leslie, 1988), college students (Chiesi, Spilich, & Voss, 1979; Garner & Gillingham, 1991; Spilich, Vesonder, Chiesi, & Voss, 1979) and adults (Walker, 1987).

We consistently found that higher levels of background knowledge enable children to better comprehend a text. Readers who have a strong knowledge of a particular topic, both in terms of quantity and quality of knowledge, are more able to comprehend a text than a similarly cohesive text for which they lack background knowledge.

2. Students revealed that vocabulary is one of the difficulties in their reading. The results show that not only students have difficulties in reading, but also, they have a problem in vocabulary. This finding was in agreement with the previous results of the study that students encountered vocabulary problems. Furthermore, a lot of research on vocabulary also supported this result, that students are poor in vocabulary (Biemiller, 2006). They also mentioned that they cannot understand the passages if they lack vocabulary. This finding was in agreement with Harris's opinion mentioned that in reading, students do not understand main ideas of the passages they read because of some words. Some readers said that difficult vocabulary was the main obstacle in their reading. The more word students know, the more successful they are. It can be clearly seen that vocabulary and reading is very close relationship as many scholars mentioning that this might be due to the fact that improvements in vocabulary might result in improvements in reading skill. Other related studies on vocabulary and reading and, for example, Laufer (1989); Hirsh and Nation (1992); Laufer (1992); Hu Hsueh-chao and Nation (2000); Qian and Schedl (2004); Chujo and Utiyama (2005); Shiotsu and Weir (2007).

3. The data obtained from the questionnaire indicated on the same results that the main difficulties on reading were grammatical rules. The results of the questionnaire and interview indicated that students are facing with grammatical rules and language competence which some research studies also supported this result, the use of grammar in reading as a basis for understanding in the teaching of a foreign language. It is concerned with the use of grammar in reading for increasing the level of reading comprehension in a foreign language. The knowledge of sentence structure, that is of sentence syntax or word order is also necessary for the comprehension process. The reader could use it to determine the meaning of sentences and the grammatical function of a word. Therefore, language structure has an influence in reading comprehension. Due to the lack of using structure correctly, the students cannot understand the texts, which affect their getting the main idea, identifying inferences, and drawing conclusions (O' Donnell & Wood, 2004). Most ESL/EFL students have problems in reading English texts. Limited knowledge of vocabulary and of sentence structure is regarded as the main problem (Gunning, 2002). Knowledge of vocabulary is very important for helping students to understand the complex materials such as textbooks which contain many concepts and technical

vocabulary (Hayes, 1991; Kinzer, & Leu, 1995). The role of grammar in L2 reading has not received much attention by researchers (Alderson, 1984, 2000; Urguhart & Weir, 1998; Nassaji, 2007; Shiotsu & Weir, 2007).

4. The participants of the study revealed that they need to understand unknown words of the text read to understand main idea of the text read and to understand the supporting details of the text read. This is an agreement with Sutta (1994), the reading ability of Thai students is low. They lacked the ability in getting the main idea, drawing conclusion, and predicting the author's purpose. These problems lead to difficulties in reading comprehension. In the study, the participants also had comprehension problems. Few of them could use the information in the passage to predict what would happen next. Less than 30% of them were able to identify the topic or the important ideas of a passage.

Recommendations

Recommendations for further research study were as follows:

1. The future study can be charity with other larger groups of learners in other High school in Thailand.
2. The next study should be conducted to focus on reading strategy.
3. The next study should be conducted to investigate students' reading problems in depth in the three following extents: vocabulary, grammatical structure, and motivation. Similarly, the Thai teachers' teaching methods should be investigated using a questionnaire on the teaching strategies leading to problems in reading.
4. Background knowledge is continually the most problematic issue for high school students in reading comprehension.
5. Vocabulary is still the problems for high school students.
6. Grammatical structures are quite complex in reading when teaching and learning reading skill, the language competence and grammatical structure should be emphasized.

References

- Adunyarittigun, D. (2005). Reading comprehension strategies of Thai EFL non-proficient, Readers at the college level: Research Report. Bangkok: Thammasart University.
- Alderson, J.C. (1984). Reading in a foreign language: a reading problem or a language problem? In J.C. Alderson and A.H. Urquhart (eds.), *Reading in a Foreign Language*. London: Longman
- Amin, M. (2019). Developing Reading Skills through Effective Reading Approaches. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanities*, 4(1), 35-40.
- Aydoğan, H., & Akbarov, A. A. (2014). The Four Basic Language Skills, Whole Language & Intergrated Skill Approach in Mainstream University Classrooms in Turkey. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(9), 672.
- Biemiller, A. (2003). Vocabulary: Needed if more children are to read well. *Reading Psychology*, 24 (3-4), pp. 323-335.
- _____. (2006). Vocabulary development and instruction: A prerequisite for school learning. In D. K. Dickinson & S. B. Neuman (Eds.), *Handbook of early literacy research*, Vol. 2 (pp. 41-51). New York, NY: Guilford.

- Chujo, K., & Utiyama, M. (2005). Understanding the role of text length, sample size and vocabulary size in determining text coverage. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 17(1), pp. 1-22.
- Cohen, A. D. (1994). *From testing to assessment: English as an international language*. London, UK: Longman.
- Hirsh, D., & Nation, P. (1992). What vocabulary size is needed to read unsimplified texts for pleasure? *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 8(2), pp. 689-696.
- Hu Hsueh-chao, Marcella, & Nation, Paul. (2000). Unknown vocabulary density and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 13(1), pp. 403-430.
- Laufer, B. (1989). What percentage of text lexis is essential for comprehension?. In C. Lauren & M. Nordman (Eds.), *Special language: From humans thinking to thinking machines*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- _____. (1992). How much lexis is necessary for reading comprehension?. In H. Bejoint & P. Arnaud (Eds.), *Vocabulary and applied linguistics* (pp. 126-132). London, UK: Macmillan.
- Leu, D. J., & Kinzer, C. K. (1995). *Effective reading instruction, K-8* (3rd ed.). Columbus, OH: Macmillan.
- Levine, A., Ferenz, O., & Reves, T. (2000). EFL academic reading and modern technology: How can we turn our students into independent critical readers? (Online). Available: <http://teslej.org/ej16/a1.html>.
- Madhumathi, P., & Ghosh, A. (2012). Awareness of Reading Strategy Use of Indian ESL Students and the Relationship with Reading Comprehension Achievement. *English Learning Teaching*, 5(12), 131-140.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *The learner-centered curriculum: A study in second language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- O' Donnell, M. P., & Wood, M. (2004). *Becoming a reader: A developmental approach to reading instruction*. Boston, MA: Pearson Education.
- Phantharakphong, P., & Photita, S. (2014). Development of English reading comprehension by using concept maps. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 116, pp. 497-501.
- Pimsarn, P. (2009). A comparative study of reading strategies instruction on graduate students reading comprehension. *Language Institute Journal*, 4, pp. 19-33.
- Qian, D., & Schedl, M. (2004). Evaluation of an in-depth vocabulary knowledge measure for assessing reading performance. *Language Test*, 21, pp. 28-52.
- Recht, D. R., & Leslie, L. (1988). Effect of prior knowledge on good and poor readers' memory of text. *Journal of Educational Psychology*.
- Sasaki, M. (2000). Toward an empirical model of EFL writing processes: An exploratory study. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 9(3), pp. 259-291.
- Shehadeh, A. (2016). Reading Strategies Used by Palestinian College Students. *Arab World English Journal*, 6(4), 15-25.
- Shiotsu, T., & Weir, C. J. (2007). The relative significance of syntactic knowledge and vocabulary breadth in the prediction of reading comprehension test performance. *Language Testing*, 24, pp. 99-128.

Essay Writing Challenges encountered by Thai Students in EFL Context

Sittisak Pongpuehee¹ / Nawamin Prachanant² / Saowarot Ruangpaisan³

¹Ph.D. in English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: sittisak.pp@bru.ac.th

²Major Advisor, English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: nawamin.pc@bru.ac.th

³Co-advisor, English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, E-mail: saowarot.rp@bru.ac.th

Abstract

The purposes of this study were to 1) investigate writing problems encountered by EFL students and 2) study the causes of the writing problems encountered by EFL students. The samples used in this study were 64 students, selected by purposive sampling. The instruments used for data collection were questionnaire and interview. Data were analyzed using frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation. The results of the research could be summarized as follows: 1) The students had problems in writing composition overall were at moderate level (\bar{x} = 2.99, S.D. = 0.852). The most frequently found problems in writing were grammatical problems (\bar{x} = 3.16, S.D. = 0.831), followed by word choice problems (\bar{x} = 3.10, S.D. = 0.911) and sentence structure problem (\bar{x} = 3.00, S.D. = 0.835), respectively. 2) The main causes of composition writing problems were lack of practice (\bar{x} = 2.89, S.D. = 0.826), followed by inadequate time (\bar{x} = 2.78, S.D. = 0.826), and lack of reading (\bar{x} = 2.77, S.D. = 0.828), respectively. The results suggest that teaching and learning activities in writing courses, the emphasis should be placed on teaching grammar, vocabulary, and sentence structure. Additional grammar and vocabulary exercises should be prepared for students to practice writing skills before writing compositions. Adequate feedback should be also committed for the students to realize how to improve their written works properly.

Keywords: Causes, Challenges, EFL Students, Essay Writing

1. Introduction

Since it became the universal language of communication in the twenty-first century, the English language has grown in importance. It may also be used to evaluate a person's knowledge repertoire. As a result, English has become a required subject in academic institutions all over the world (Seensangworn & Chaya, 2017).

It is taught as a second language as well as a foreign language, with students required to be able to communicate successfully in English. All four English language skills, including listening, communicating, reading, and writing, are mastered and learned in terms of teaching and studying. Writing, on the other hand, is widely regarded as the most difficult skill to master in most English schools (Negari, 2011; Salma, 2015).

Thailand has been a member of the ASEAN Community. As a result, English is basically a medium tool for daily correspondence and career advancement. As a result, English is critical for all member countries developing their human capital in order to succeed in the Asian job market, whether local, national, or regional. It is

unavoidable for Thai universities to highlight the importance of students having English communication skills, such as writing, speaking, reading, and listening. Filling out forms, taking calls, sending letters, and having business communications all need the ability to write. Furthermore, such a skill is essential for certain students who engage in foreign contexts, such as studying abroad to pursue their studies. For a large number of Thai pupils, writing is the most difficult skill to master (Boonyarattanasoontorn, 2017).

Writing is one of the main language skills. It plays a major role in expressing one's ideas, thoughts, opinions, and attitudes. Through writing, people are capable of sharing ideas, feelings, persuading and convincing others. People may write for personal enjoyment or for some other purpose. They may address an audience of one person or more persons. The audience may be known or unknown. Taking notes for study purposes is an example of writing for one's self. Blogging publicly is an example of writing for an unknown audience (Alfaki, 2015). A letter to a friend is an example of writing for a known audience. It is always important to consider one's audience when writing. There are many different styles of writing, from formal to informal. There are many reasons to include writing in a second or foreign language syllabus. One important reason is that: writing helps learners learn. It helps them have a chance to adventure with the language, to go beyond what they have learned (Reimes, 1993).

Hedge (1988:5) also states that a good deal of writing in the English language classroom is undertaken as an aid to learning; for example, to consolidate the learning of new structures or vocabulary or to help students remember new items of language. In this context, writing allows students to see their progress and get feedback from the teacher, and also allows teachers to monitor students and diagnose problems encountered. This shows that writing plays a predominant role in language learning.

The challenges that ESL/EFL students face are caused by a variety of factors, including the inherent difficulty of writing, insufficient practice, inadequate input, and the students' information limitations (Anwar, 2000). Furthermore, students do not write in the classroom very much, and what they produce is typically restricted to 'classroom-bound' writing practice (Bakir, 2013). When a foreign language is involved, the level of difficulty is considerably higher (Mohamed & Zuoaoqi, 2014). Because of the inconsistencies between the linguistic and rhetorical patterns used in their first and second languages, writing can be considered one of the most difficult tasks for the majority of ESL/EFL students (Kaplan, 1996).

Byrne (1988:4) thinks that because of the absence of the prosodic features in writing, the writer has to compensate these features by keeping the channel of communication open through his/her own efforts by selecting appropriate structures and by using appropriate connecting devices so that the text can be interpreted on its own. Similarly, Hedge (1988: 5) thinks that so as the writer to compensate the absence of the prosodic features in writing, he/she has to write with high degree of organization, careful choice of vocabulary and using complex grammatical devices. Grammatical problems, mechanical problems, sentence structure problems and problems of diction are linguistic problems that hamper students' effective writing in English. Students' problems in writing may occur from cognitive aspects (Raimes, 1983) thinks that "when students complain about how difficult it is to write in a second language, they are talking not only about the difficulty of finding the right words and using the correct grammar.

The causes of the problems experienced by students stems from a number of factors. Firstly, students encounter problems when they lack motivation. According to Zamel (1997), the writing class should consider the learners' goals for writing. When students' concerns and desires are recognized, they are given several opportunities to write, and they are encouraged to participate, writing assignments can be established quickly. Davies (1998:25) believes that learners would be inspired to write if writing tasks are interesting and motivating. Next, inadequate time for writing can lead to the problems According to Hedge (1988: 11), the aspect of time must be considered because writing tasks have various phases that require adequate time. Learners need time to accumulate ideas, organize their ideas, write drafts, proofread, and revise. Moreover, writers encountered difficulty because they do not gain sufficient practice. "Writing is basically an artistic rehearsal," writes Davies (1998:25), and "successful authors must learn to express their thoughts explicitly to an invisible audience." It requires a lot of practice to do this. Grabe and Kaplan (1996:6) agree that writing is a skill that must be acquired by hard work and practice. Finally, students need teachers' feedback to improve their writing capability. According to Zamel (1985: 79), teacher reviews will be useful if teachers refer to students' writing as sincere and informed readers rather than as judges and evaluators. Similarly, (Seensangworn & Chaya, 2017). (Negari, 2011; Salma, 2015). (Boonyarattanasoontorn, 2017). (Alfaki, 2015). Hedge (1988:5) (Reimes,1993). (Anwar, 2000). (Bakir, 2013). (Mohamed & Zuoaooui, 2014). (Kaplan, 1996). Byrne (1988:4) Hedge (1988: 5) aspects (Raimes, 1983) Zamel (1997) Davies (1998:25) Hedge (1988: 11), Davies (1998:25), Grabe and Kaplan (1996:6) believes that if we want to be true readers rather than judges, we should consider what the learners have achieved in achieving rather than what they have struggled to do. This may assist student writers in appreciating and incorporating feedback into their revisions. Norish (1983:71) writes about correction errors, saying that "when considered correction of errors as the stage of more or less free writing, it is a valuable and relaxing activity for the students to review their work in groups or pairs." This saves teachers' time and facilitates student communication."

The researchers are well aware of the significance of Thai students' English writing difficulties. As a result, the aim of this study was to look into the writing problems that students encounter while writing English essays, as well as the causes of those problems.

2. Research Objectives

In accordance with the stated problems, the objectives of this study were as follows:

- 2.1 To investigate writing problems encountered by students in English program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at BRU
- 2.2 To study the causes of writing problems encountered by students in English program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at BRU

3. Research Questions

In accordance with the stated purposes, two research questions are raised:

- 3.1 What are writing problems encountered by students in English program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at BRU?

3.2 What are the causes of essay writing problems encountered by students in English program, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at BRU?

4. Significance of the Study

It is hoped that the results of this study would be benefit to language instructors who teach writing and to students who study writing as well. The results could help in guiding language instructors to effectively address writing materials for writing courses.

5. The Scope and Limitations of the Study

5.1 The Scope of the Study

5.1.1 The sample group in this study was the second year English major students Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at BuriramRajabhat University

5.1.2 The duration of the study was during June - October 2020

5.2 Limitations of the Study

This research was a research conducted with English major students Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at BuriramRajabhat University. The results of the study will be used to study essay writing problems. The results of the study may not be generalizable to students in other contexts.

6. Literature Review and Related Studies

Learners' Writing Problems

Byrne (1988:4) considers that since of the nonattendance of the prosodic highlights in composing, the writer has to compensate these highlights by keeping the channel of communication open through his/her own endeavors by selecting suitable structures and by utilizing suitable interfacing gadgets so that the content can be deciphered on its claim. Similarly, Hedge (1988: 5) considers that so as the author to compensate for the nonattendance of the prosodic highlights in writing, he/ she must compose with a high degree of organization, cautious choice of lexicon, and utilizing complex syntactic gadgets. Linguistic issues, mechanical issues, sentence structure issues, and issues of phrasing are phonetic issues that obstruct students' viable composing in English.

Grammatical Problems

In their attempts to write in the second language, learners face a variety of challenges. "As verbstake different forms depending on tense and subjects they are used with, they create problems forsecond language writing students" (Tyner, 1987). Similarly, Kharma (1987) in Melese (2007: 12) states students struggle with subject-verb agreements, pronoun references, and connectors.

Problems of Sentence Structure

Different syntactic constructs are reflected in sentences. (Reid, 1983). Incapable students, on the other hand, use run-on, incorrect, and scattered words. (west 1966, in Tsegaye 2006:16). Kharma (1986) states that students who struggle with sentence structure are unable to construct longer sentences that require subordination and coordination. According to Zamel(1983:22), in writing, the use of cohesive

devices is essential. For English language students, however, the linking devices have proven to be problematic.

Problem of Word Choice

A good writing or composition should include a wide range of appropriate and varied vocabulary, as well as proper grammar and a wide range of sentence structures. (Norish, 1983; Alamirew, 2005). As stated by Reid (1983) in Melese (2007: 13), When the writer practices using language that reflects a consideration for the reader and the intent of writing, the student's composition may become more understandable to his or her reader. Writing in a second language with the right words in the right place, on the other hand, is a challenge for students. For instance, White (1980) states that typically, students use "big phrases" in their essays in order to convince the reader, as well as their teacher. The need to please the reader causes a diction problem.

Cognitive Problems

Students face cognitive problems such as punctuation, capitalization, pronunciation, content, and organization.

a. Punctuation Problems

According to Byrne (1988: 16), it is complicated because punctuation has never been as standard as spelling. Similarly, Carrol and Wilson (1995: 191) note that "students' writing faces punctuation problems since there are no universal punctuation rules."

b. Capitalization Problems

Capital letters are useful for sentence beginnings, essential word beginnings, subjects, headings, and so on (Kroll, 1991). However, students struggle with proper capitalization. There are many explanations why students struggle with proper capitalization. "The rules of capitalization are not universal, and students find it difficult to distinguish between proper and popular nouns" (Gowere et al., 1995)

c. Spelling Problem

Because of the presence of other languages, variant pronunciations, and other historical factors, the English spelling system has become complex for students (Gowere et al, 1995).

d. Content Problem

Because of the presence of other languages, variant pronunciations, and other historical factors, the English spelling system has become complex for students (Gowere et al, 1995). According to Leki (1991), this may be due to the conventional approaches used by teachers to teach writing for spelling, punctuation, and grammar mastery. According to Clifford (1987), teachers should allow students to concentrate on the message, concepts, or thoughts they want to express rather than grammar, spelling, punctuation, and other details.

e. Problem Organization

According to Kharma (1986), learners struggle with structuring the essay, developing a paragraph's subject, structuring the entire discourse, and identifying a theme in a discourse. "The most common student issue with paragraphing is that the paragraph is not confined to a single topic or that the single topic is not sufficiently formulated or exemplified" (West, 1966: in Tsegay 2006: 17). According to Raimes

(1983), the other challenge of organization in student writing is the difficulty of distinguishing between a topic and supporting ideas or generalizations and precise information. Pincas (1982) also demonstrated that learners struggle to write united paragraphs due to a failure to use coherent devices properly.

Causes of Learners' Problems in Writing

There are several causes of writing problems encountered by students.

Lack Learners' Motivation

According to Zamel (1997), the writing class should consider the learners' goals for writing. When students' concerns and desires are recognized, they are given several opportunities to write, and they are encouraged to participate, writing assignments can be established quickly.

Davies (1998:25) believes that learners would be inspired to write if writing tasks are interesting and motivating. According to Leki (1991, p. 9), the writer's ability to express something is important because it is far more difficult for students to write about something they are uninterested in. According to Silva (1997) and Thomsan (2003), allowing students to choose their own topics is both "fair and inspiring," and that when students are given this opportunity, their work is more effective. Similarly, Hudelson (1989) and Thomsan (2003:25) discovered that when students were able to choose their own subjects, the quality of their writing improved. Furthermore, Pincas (1982: 4) believes that placing writing in a concrete sense increases inspiration for people of all ages and levels. According to Byrne (1988:2), most authors write less well when they are forced to write about something.

Lack of Reading

Lack of reading has also been linked to poor writing. It's been proven that better readers make better writers. According to Raimes (1998:42), the more pupils read, the more familiar they become with native speakers' vocabulary, idioms, sentence patterns, organization flow, and cultural assumptions. Reading is considered to be an effective strategy to be followed and appreciated in addition to writing strategies to improve writing competence. In other words, one of the reasons for unhappiness with English essay writing is a lack of reading.

Inadequate Time

According to Hedge (1988: 11), the aspect of time must be considered because writing tasks have various phases that require adequate time. Learners need time to accumulate ideas, organize their ideas, write drafts, proofread, and revise.

According to Colions and Gethen (1980) and Kroll (1990:140), much of writing derives from a set of conditions that must be accomplished and organized at different "structural levels," namely the, overall text structure, paragraph structure, sentence structure, and word structure.

They contended that attempting to organize all of these specifications is a massive undertaking, and that the amount of time allotted to generate a wiring can affect the degree of mastery of the aforementioned products.

Lack of Practice

"Writing is basically an artistic practice," writes Davies (1998:25), and "successful authors must learn to express their thoughts explicitly to an invisible audience." It requires a lot of practice to do this. Grabe and Kaplan (1996:6) agree that writing is a skill that must be acquired by hard work and practice.

Furthermore, if successful learning is to occur, learners must accept accountability for their own learning. He also adds that practicing any talent is the only way to master it. Driving is the perfect way to learn to be a professional driver. Similarly, the only way to become a proficient writer is to publish a lot.

Teachers' Feedback

According to Zamel (1985: 79), teacher reviews will be useful if teachers refer to students' writing as sincere and informed readers rather than as judges and evaluators.

Similarly, Byrne (1988:29) believes that if we want to be true readers rather than judges, we should consider what the learners have achieved in achieving rather than what they have struggled to do. This may assist student writers in appreciating and incorporating feedback into their revisions.

Influence of L1 into TL

According to Blanchard & Root (2004:203), writing is still difficult to master, and each language has its own set of writing rules that the writer must learn avoiding interfering with other languages. In certain circumstances, students appear to be unaware of English writing standards, and their first language takes precedence in their minds over the target language. As a result, they just string words together to construct their own written effort, just as they would in their native tongue. Overall, the influence of the first language is a significant impediment to producing an English essay.

7. Research Methodology

7.1 Population and Samples

7.1.1 The population of this study was 32 English major students who enrolled in the Essay Writing course (1554901) in the first semester of the academic year 2021 at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at BRU.

7.1.2 The samples of this study were 32 English major students who enroll in the Essay Writing course (1554901) in the first semester of the academic year 2021 at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, BRU, selected by purposive sampling.

7.2 Research Instruments

The instruments employed in this study were as follows:

1) Open-ended questionnaires: In this research, the researchers distributed open ended questionnaires in order to have factual data regarding with the students' difficulties in essay writing and their causes. The instruments employed in this study were as follows:

The research instrument was a questionnaire. The constructions of the instruments were as follows:

The researchers reviewed the studies related to the present study, the problems in writing and the causes of the problems.

The researchers consulted the adviser how to construct the questionnaire to be an instrument of the study.

The researchers constructed the questionnaire of the study. It consists of 4 parts as follows:

Part 1 - General information data is about basic data of the important information including gender, age, class, and grade point average.

Part 2 - Questions regarding writing problem in writing in Essay Writing course. The researchers drafted the questionnaire using the rating scale from Likert's 5 levels determined by scoring in each question.

5	means	most
4	means	much
3	means	moderate
2	means	less
1	means	least

Part 3 – Questions about causes of writing problems in Essay Writing course. The researchers drafted the questionnaire using the rating scale from Likert's 5 levels determined by scoring in each question.

5	means	most
4	means	much
3	means	moderate
2	means	less
1	means	least

Part 4 – Suggestions and Opinions. The respondents wrote the suggestions about essay writing problems in and the causes of the problems in writing in Essay Writing course.

The researchers submitted the draft of the questionnaire to the expert to check for the correctness and appropriateness, and revise according to the expert's suggestions.

The revised questionnaire were examined by the three experts to check for the IOC. The IOC was 0.95.

The questionnaire was edited according to the experts' suggestions.

2) Semi-structured interview: Semi-structured interview was conducted to investigate the students' perception regarding challenging they encountered in the essay writing. The interview employed in this study were as follows:

The researchers reviewed the studies related to the present study, the problems in writing and the causes of the problems.

The researchers consulted the adviser how to construct the interview to be an instrument of the study.

The researchers constructed the interview of the study. It consists of 4 parts as follows:

Part 1 - General information data is about basic data of the important information including gender, age, class, and grade point average.

Part 2 - Questions regarding writing problem in writing in Essay Writing course . The researchers drafted the questions related to the writing problems and causes of the problems in writing.

The researchers submitted the draft of the interview to the expert to check for the correctness and appropriateness, and revise according to the expert's suggestions.

The questionnaire was edited according to the experts' suggestions.

7.3 Data Collection

The data were collected by using the questionnaire. The students were asked to fill out the questionnaire relating to their writing problems and the causes of the problems. After that, the researcher interviewed them about their writing problems. After filling out the questionnaire, the researcher interview students to find out the information about the student's problems in writing and their causes.

7.4 Data Analyses

The data obtained were analyzed by using the data analysis methods as follows.

After checking the completion of each questionnaire, the researchers analyzed the data collected from questionnaires by using statistical package. Three statistical devices were employed in this study as follows:

7.4.1 The general information of the samples was calculated by frequency and percentage

7.4.2 The data about the writing problems and their causes obtained from the questionnaire were calculated by mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (S.D.). The following criteria were employed for interpretation (Criteria Likert's Scale). Mean range and degree of problem were 4.50 - 5.00 means most; 3.50 – 4.49 means much; 2.50 – 3.49 means moderate; 1.50 – 2.49 means less; 1.00 – 1.49 means least.

7.4.3 The data from the interview were analyzed by content analysis.

7.5 Statistics Used in Data Analyses

Statistics used in this study were mean, percentage and standard deviation.

8. The Results

8.1 Writing Problems Encountered by Students

The writing problems encountered by students in Essay Writing course consisted of five problems: grammatical problems, content problem, sentence structure problem, word choice problems, organization problem. The results were presented in table 9.1 as follows:

Table 8.1 Writing Problems Encountered by Students in Writing

Writing Problems	\bar{x}	S.D.	Meaning
1. Grammatical Problems	3.16	0.831	moderate
2. Sentence Structure Problems	3.00	0.835	moderate
3. Word Choice Problem	3.10	0.911	moderate
4. Content Problem	2.98	0.798	moderate
5. Organization Problem	2.72	0.886	moderate
Total	2.99	0.852	moderate

From Table 9.1, the results showed that the students had the problems in writing totally at “moderate” level (\bar{x} = 2.99, S.D = 0.852). When considering in aspect, it was found that the highest writing problems encountered by the students were grammatical problems (\bar{x} = 3.16, S.D. = 0.831), followed by word choice problems (\bar{x} = 3.10, S.D. = 0.911) and sentence structure problem (\bar{x} = 3.00, S.D. = 0.835), respectively.

8.2. Causes of Writing Problems encountered by Students

The causes of writing problems encountered by students in Essay Writing course consisted of four problem causes: lack learner’s motivation, inadequate time, lack of practice, and teacher’s feedback. The results were presented in table 9.2 as follows:

Table 8.2 Causes of Essay Writing Problems encountered by Students

Causes of Essay Writing Problems	\bar{x}	S.D.	Meaning
1. Lack Learner’s Motivation	2.66	0.898	moderate
2. Lack of Reading	2.77	0.828	moderate
3. Influence of L1 into TL	2.64	0.828	moderate
4. Inadequate Time	2.78	0.826	moderate
5. Lack of Practice	2.89	0.826	moderate
6. Teacher’s Feedback	2.75	0.878	moderate

From the Table 9.2, the results showed that the highest causes of writing problems encountered by students were lack of practice (\bar{x} = 2.89, S.D = 0.826) followed by inadequate time (\bar{x} = 2.78, S.D. = 0.826), and lack of reading (\bar{x} = 2.77, S.D. = 0.828), respectively.

8.3 Data from the Interview on Writing Problems encountered by Students and Their Causes

After getting the questionnaire findings, the interview was used to find out the information about the student’s problems in writing and their causes. The researcher interviewed ten students to probe in dept information about their writing problems and their causes. The questions of the interviews were as follows:

1. What are writing problems that you have in essay writing?
2. What are the causes of those writing problems that you have in essay writing?

The content analysis of the interview transcription was used to analyze the transcription of the interview. The results of the content analysis is described in the following table 8.3, and table 8.4

Table 8.3 Data from the Interview on Writing Problems encountered by Students

No	Sample Responses	Theme
1	<i>The problems I have in writing essay include I worry about using the correct grammar and sentences in my writing. I am sometimes not confident to use tense in sentences. I also found that it is the most difficult when I have to revise the first draft and</i>	- Grammatical Problems - Organization Problem

No	Sample Responses	Theme
	<i>edit the errors in editing step because it requires some grammatical rules to correct it. It is also difficult to generate ideas for writing a story because I cannot think of the ideas to start writing the story.</i>	- Word Choice Problem - Sentence Structure Problems
2	<i>In my writing, I have some problems. For example, I don't know how to start the essay. I cannot think of the vocabulary that can communicate to readers and convey the meaning I want. I have problem in writing essay and in particular, in editing step, I am not good at grammar. So, I think it is hard for me to edit the written essays.</i>	- Organization Problem - Grammatical Problems - Word Choice Problem
3	<i>I faced some problems in writing essay in this course. Sometimes, I cannot generate ideas for beginning my story. I have difficulty in translating from Thai to English language when I think of the ideas for writing in Thai language. I am not sure about the correct grammar and sentences that I write in my essay. I have problems when I arrange the sequence of ideas in my writing, too because it must be logical and understandable. Sometimes, I cannot figure out how to lead to a conclusion for my essay.</i>	- Content Problem - Organization Problem - Grammatical Problems
4	<i>I have the problems in writing essay when I write the first step of writing process because I have to think and analyze which matter to take to write. Also, I have problems in thinking of words to write, as I have little experience or language background knowledge. I have problem to arrange sentences according to sentence structure incorrectly, and I have problem in translation from Thai to English, too.</i>	- Word Choice Problem - Sentence Structure Problems
5	<i>I have problem in writing essay and I think editing is the hardest. Editing is the hardest because the knowledge of grammar is not very good. Also, I have problems in translating from Thai to English. I have problems when I don't have a good place without disturbing people (very rare). I have not enough ideas and vocabulary and it makes difficulty to study writing essay.</i>	- Grammatical Problems - Word Choice Problem
6	<i>I have problems in editing grammar in writing because editing requires correct grammar rules and I am not good at grammar such as tense, punctuation. I also have problems in thinking of titles. Another problem is that the device is not ready. My thoughts is not flow. I sometimes not have responsibility in writing. I faced a problem with creativity, too.</i>	- Grammatical Problems
7	<i>I have problems in writing that I can't think of words. I don't have a lot of free time to write. I have difficulty in editing step because it must employ grammatically correct. Also, I have difficulty in brainstorming ideas. I sometimes use repetition of word. The problem is that I know little words. I am not confident in writing correct sentences in my essay. I don't have enough time to write essay. The problem in writing that I have is the lack of vocabulary, too</i>	- Word Choice Problem - Grammatical Problems
8	<i>I have problems in revising the ideas in revising step because I have to try to compose it as much as possible. I think it is difficult in writing essay in every step because the writing is quite detailed. I have problems in the use of connecting word in the sentences. The story in the essay I wrote is too short. When I write essays, there is a stirring dog and a child's voice which make me lose concentration. Another problem is that I don't know a lot of words, but I have to try to do it.</i>	- Organization Problem - Word Choice Problem - Organization Problem
9	<i>The problem is that I cannot remember some English words.</i>	- Grammatical

No	Sample Responses	Theme
10	<i>I am confused about the grammar rules such as writing incomplete sentences. I have problems in thinking of the ideas to write and how to order the ideas in my essay.</i>	Problems
		- Content Problem
		- Organization Problem
	<i>I also have problem in the first step brainstorming ideas, when I generate ideas to write. I have difficulty in editing, too because I have to check the correctness of the sentences and fragments.</i>	- Word Choice Problem
	<i>I have problems when I try to find mistakes and check correct grammar. I am concerned about grammar use of verbs tense.</i>	- Organization Problem
	<i>I can't find the words to begin writing.</i>	- Grammatical Problems
	<i>I don't know how to start and I don't know what tense to use when begin my essay.</i>	

From the interviewed data, the students said that they have some problems in writing essays. Those problems were grammatical problems, sentence structure problems, word choice problem, content problem, and organization problem.

Table 8.4 Data from the Interview on the Causes of Writing Problems encountered by Students

No	Sample Responses	Themes
1	<i>Causes or factors of problems in essay writing are Lack of a good foundation of English. At the time of writing, people are disturbed, resulting in a lack of concentration in thinking and writing the essay.</i>	- good English skill - Places or environment
2	<i>The cause of the problem in writing essays is the lack of motivation for students to want to use more English. Therefore, motivation should be created. Maybe by watching a movie and or telling a story in the room.</i> <i>Another factor of the problem is personal emotions. Because I like to write when I'm in a good mood. and have a feeling of wanting to write</i>	- Motivation
3	<i>The cause of the problem with writing an essay for me is the lack of inspiration to write. I think there should be more examples. To have more imagination in writing and still lacking knowledge and vocabulary in the head that will be written</i>	- Motivation
4	<i>I think the cause of the problem with essay writing is time. I need a lot of time to write the essay each step of the writing process, and the other thing is to memorize the principles of the writing process every step of the way correctly.</i>	- Time - Practice
5	<i>I think the cause of the problem with essay writing is probably the time factor. will need time to think, compose, and check for correctness.</i> <i>Another reason is that there is no concentration or consciousness in writing. therefore need time And the author himself had to concentrate.</i>	- Time - Concentration
6	<i>The cause of the problem of writing an essay for me is the lack of reading enough books to get ideas. and then write</i> <i>Another factor is a lack of confidence. And there's too much in the brain to think about. until he was unable to concentrate on writing</i>	- Reading - Concentration

- | | | |
|----|--|----------------------------|
| 7 | <i>The main reason for writing problems is Lack of concentration in writing and the inspiration for writing a story that will be used to write an essay</i> | - Motivation |
| 8 | <i>The reason for the problem in writing an essay is Lack of interesting and stimulating activities, so add interesting activities such as storytelling, novels, songs, and vocabulary presentations. that can be used for writing</i> | - Practice |
| | <i>The reason for the problem is that there are no interesting activities and the mother encourages them to write, so they should increase interesting activities. For example, reading novels, songs and speeches can be used to write.</i> | |
| 9 | <i>The reason for writing problems is Lack of research on the subject to write adequately Lack of a quiet and comfortable place to write. The cause of writing problems is the lack of research on the subject to be adequately written. The absence of a quiet and well-suited place to write</i> | - Time
- Environment |
| 10 | <i>The reason for the problem of writing an essay for me is a lack of reading. Lack of a quiet place to concentrate on writing. and lack of study and research on the topic to be written.</i> | - Reading
- Environment |

From the interviewed data, the students said that they have some problems in writing essays, and the causes of those problems were lack of motivation, lack of reading, lack of practice, lack of time, lack concentration and inappropriate environment.

9. Discussion of the Findings

The research results revealed that the students had the problems in writing overall at “moderate” level. This means that they found the difficulty in writing, but it might not make the students got much troubles when they were doing their writing tasks. This is probably because they have already learned in two writing courses before enrolling the essay writing course this semester, so they could employ their knowledge and skills of writing.

When considering in aspect, it was found that the highest writing problems encountered by the students were grammatical problems, followed by word choice problems, and sentence structure problem, respectively. It was found that grammatical problems occurred most frequently. It means that the students had difficulty in the use of correct grammatical rules when writing essays. This could be explained that their proficiency to apply correct grammatical rules to write essays might be still insufficient. It is thinkable that they did not understand some grammatical rules, and they might feel unconfident to write English sentences as well. The results were consistent to by Rodsawang (2015) who conduct a research on writing problems of EFL learners in higher education and found that that the writing problems regarded to EFL of the subjects could be classified and divided into four facets: grammar uses, lexical issues, writing styles, practicing hours and feedbacks from instructors.

The results revealed that the main causes of writing problems encountered by students were lack of practice, followed by inadequate time, and lack of reading,

respectively. It was found that the important cause of writing problem was the students lack of practice. It means that the students did not get enough training in writing lessons before starting to write their essays. This could be explained that the students did not have practice writing lessons or the sentences that they need to apply in their writing tasks. Also, it may be because the examples or the exercises provided by the teachers were still insufficient. This is supported by Grabe and Kaplan (1966) who think that since writing does not come naturally but rather gained through continuous effort and much practice as it becomes a complex skill. The results were consistent with the study by Sharhan et al. (2021) who found that the causes of the problems were lack of reading, lack of practice and low English proficiency.

In conclusion, the results suggest that in organizing teaching and learning activities in writing courses, the instructors should focus more on teaching grammar, vocabulary, and sentence structure. From the causes of the problems in writing, the instructor should also prepare additional exercises so that students can practice writing sentence patterns following correct grammatical structures and prepare additional vocabulary exercises before students begin writing their writing work. Moreover, the teaching periods should have been set for both lectures and practices. This is for the students can ask questions when they get troubles. Finally, the instructor should give students sufficient and clear feedback so that they certainly understand how to properly improve their writing.

10. Recommendations

10.1 The results of the study revealed the problems and the causes of the problems encountered by students. So, it provided insightful understanding of the problems the students reflected from their experience. This can raise awareness and comprehension for the teachers who teach writing to pay more attention to the difficulties encountered by the students and try to improve the students' writing skill.

10.2 Since the results of this study indicated the problems in writing encountered by the students, the teachers of English writing can use the results of this study to be as a guideline to prepare the lesson and teaching activities appropriate to the students.

10.3 This study was conducted on a small number of students. Therefore, the conclusion reached might not be generalizable to students in other contexts. The future study should set the pace covering a bigger number of students.

10.4 The future studies can compare the problems for writing of other groups of students to gain more understanding regarding the writing problems encountered by different groups of students.

References

- Adas, D., & Bakir, A. (2013). Writing difficulties and new solutions: blended learning as an approach to improve writing abilities. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 9(3), 254-266.
- Alfaki, I. M. (2015). University Students' English Writing Problems: Diagnosis and Remedy. *International Journal of English Language Teaching* 3 (3), pp.40-52.
- Boonyarattanasoontorn, P. (2017). An investigation of Thai students' English language writing difficulties and their use of writing strategies. *Journal of Advanced Research in Social Sciences and Humanities*, 2(2), 111-118.
 doi:10.26500/JARSSH-02-2017-0205

- Byrne, H. (1988). *University Students' English Writing Problems: Diagnosis and Remedy*. <http://www.eajournals.org/wp-content/uploads/University-Students---English-Writing-Problems-Diagnosis-and-Remedy.pdf>
- Byrne, D. (1988). *Teaching Writing Skills*. London: Longman Press.
- Davis, S. (1988). "Creative Writing." 36 (4): p.44
- Grab, W. and Kalan, R. (1996). *Theory and Practice of Writing*. London: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Negari, G.M. (2011). A study on strategy instruction and EFL learner's writing skill. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 1(2). 299-307.
www.ccsenet.org/ijel.
- Norrish, J. (1983). *Language Learners and their Errors*. London. Mac Millan Publishers.
- Raimes, A. (1983). *Investigating EFL Students' Writing Difficulties and Common Errors in Writing*. <http://univbejaia.dz/dspace/bitstream/handle/123456789/5858/Investigating%20EFL%20students%27%20writing%20difficulties%20and%20common%20errors%20in%20writing.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Raimes, A. (1983). *Techniques in Teaching Writing*. Oxford: OUP.
- Raimes, A., & Zamel, V. (1997). Response to Ramanathan and Kaplan. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 6, 79-81.
- Rodsawang, S. S. (2015). Writing Problems of EFL Learners in Higher Education: A Case Study of The Far Eastern University. *EFU Academic Review*, 11 (1).
- Seensangworn, P. & Chaya, W. (2017). Writing Problems and Writing Strategies of English Major and Non-English Major Students in a Thai University. *Journal of Humanities*, 39 (1). P.113-135.
- Sharhan, K. S. (Ph.D.), Al-Ābedi, H. K., Al-Hilu, M. J. (2021). Investigating College Students' Problems in Writing English Composition. *International Journal of Research in Social Sciences and Humanities*, (IJRSSH), 10 (2).
- Zamel, V. (1985) "Responding to student writing." *TESOL Quarterly* 19 : 79-101.
- Zamel, V. (1997). Toward a model of transculturation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31, 341-352.

Artificial Intelligence Powered Writing Assistant: A Review of Recent Insights and Guidance for Future Studies

Yuttachak Lamjuanjit¹ / Nawamin Prachanant² / Chukiat Jarat³

¹Student, Ph.D. Program in English Language Teaching, Buriram Rajabhat University and Lecturer, Business English Program, Roi Et Rajabhat University, Roi Et, Thailand

E-mail: 640427092001@bru.ac.th

²Assistant Professor, Ph.D. Program in English Language Teaching, Buriram Rajabhat University, Buriram, Thailand

E-mail: nawamin.pc@bru.ac.th

³Assistant Professor, Ph.D. Program in English Language Teaching, Buriram Rajabhat University, Buriram, Thailand

E-mail: k_choo_k@yahoo.com

Abstract

In this digital age, the ever-changing information technology plays a revolutionary role in the process of second language acquisition, creating the mode of second language writing more intellectualized and humanized. Artificial Intelligence is used to assist humans in various aspects. In the field of English language teaching and learning, AI has its place in all the skills, from teaching to evaluation. This brings about wide areas of research such as the role, the reliability, and the preciseness of Artificial Intelligence. English teaching and writing are considered the hardest skills in English language teaching. For AI in writing, previous and existing research investigate what extent AI helps students write better and helps teachers evaluate works. This article reviews and discusses recent studies on Artificial Intelligence powered writing assistant to gain insights and provide guidance for future studies. This review article contributes to the field of English writing teaching and research on AI applications in several aspects. Teachers and scholars will be aware of its effective roles. Researchers will have more channels to make contributions to the research field. Moreover, educators and scholars will gain more perspectives on policy-making involved with AI applications to their programs or institutions.

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence; Writing Assistant; English Writing; Writing Evaluation; Second Language Writing

Introduction

Writing as a member of the major two productive skills is regarded as the most difficult skills for student writers. They are expected to achieve certain goals to ensure their writing competence. Writing is such a difficult task as it involves a great deal of cognitive and language skills (Faller, 2018). The most basic writing skill that students should possess includes the ability to know, comprehend, and articulate a concept into a paragraph or essay (Yamin, 2019). Besides, instead of demonstrating competence in the use of the conventions of spelling, punctuation, and grammar, the point of writing is to express thoughts (Fairbairn & Winch, 2011). Student writers are expected to be able to develop and sequence ideas correctly, logically, and following the logic of the English language so that it will completely convey the meanings of a text/essay in the essay.

In recent years, the advancement and prevalence of interactive technologies together with their applications are popularly accepted inside and outside the language

class. Those technologies are adaptive to meet language learners' diverse needs and situations as well as to enhance competence and competitiveness in global education. The computer-based applications are increasingly becoming alternatives to facilitate writing through automated writing evaluation (AWE), automated essay scoring (AES), and automated written corrective feedback (AWCF). New writing tools, powered by Artificial Intelligence (AI) and available in mobile devices, are enjoyable tools to assist student writers in learning and developing writing skills that are hard to learn from traditional methods (Nazari, Shabbir, & Setiawan, 2021). Grammar and spelling checkers online or software plays an essential role in English language teaching and learning. It is used when other language teaching materials are required, that is when teachers cannot find what they need in other resources in both printed or online (Mammadova, 2019). There are various easy and free tools that users can use to improve English writing. They can check grammar, spelling, punctuation, and other errors in their writing. Users can install them for free.

The objective of this review article is to gain an overview of the development and the applications of Artificial Intelligence powered writing assistant. This review study examines relevant articles published in indexed journals. This investigation is important for some reasons. The analysis of trends in the application of AI can reflect the evolution of production and interest as well as global progress and development tendency in the field of AI. In addition, analysis of research on AI applications for writing helps identify the foci of research-based publications in this field in the past, current, and future (Snyder, 2011).

This review study contributes to the research field of AI application to teaching writing in several aspects. First, it enables ELT teachers and scholars to understand the status and development of relevant AI powered writing assistant. Second, it helps them identify the trends in AI powered writing assistant research and application. Third, researchers and educators are able to establish relevant research topics dealing with AI powered writing assistant to seek more channels to make contributions to the community. Fourth, it enables educators and scholars to be more aware of policy-making involved with AI application to their program or institutions. In addition, this review article helps ELT scholars identify relevant software tools concerning the application of AI for ELT purposes.

Artificial Intelligence in a Nutshell

The beginnings of the term AI can be traced to classical philosophers' attempts to describe human thinking as a symbolic system. In 1956, The term "Artificial Intelligence" was first introduced at the Dartmouth Society at a conference at Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire. Four scholars (John McCarthy, Marvin Minsky, Allen Newell, and Herbert Simon) defined "Artificial Intelligence" as a discipline. AI is an umbrella term to describe an automated device that can behave the way human intelligence processes such as learning, reasoning, and self-correction (Popenici & Kerr, 2017). The main task of AI is to establish the theory of intelligent information processing and to design some computing systems that can show some approximate human intelligent behavior. One of the most important goals for AI is to design automated devices that can analyze the environment and do a task as humans do.

Artificial intelligence has some characteristics of machine learning and intelligent search. Machine learning is the summary and reorganization of the knowledge structure of the data in the system and the analysis results formed by the system. As a very important research field in artificial intelligence, machine learning can effectively analyze and deeply mine the data of teachers and students in the application of education industry, and provide more development possibilities for future teaching and learning. Teachers and students can analyze the problems and causes of learning based on these valuable data and information, and then put forward the desired learning programs and promotion measures. The general machine learning system includes four elements; system environment, learning, knowledge base, and execution of commands. An effective learning process can be formed in the process of system operation, and the continuous improvement and expansion of knowledge base can promote the self-judgment and self-learning ability of the system to continuously enhance as shown in Figure 1.

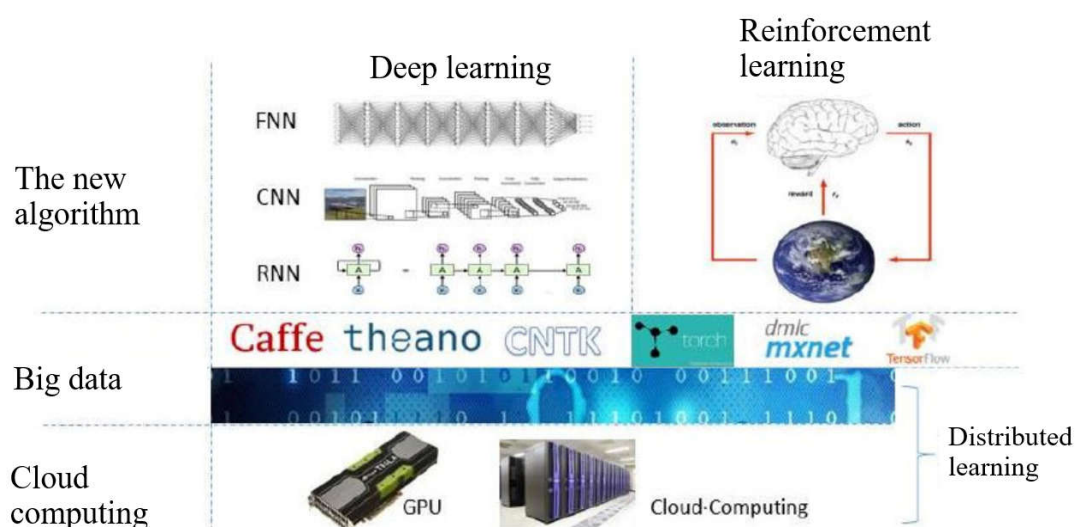


Figure 1. An effective learning process of AI (Zhaoyi, 2018)

At present, there are more new writing-assisted applications. They potentially offer flexible and time-saving additions to the writing curriculum (Koltovskaia, 2020). With advances in technology, AI new teaching and learning experiences in the assessment, tutoring, content generation, and feedback for teachers and writers. Perhaps the most contributions of digital writing tools are defined throughout the formative feedback and assessment. Moreover, the new AI Applications provide a comprehensive instructional practice and plagiarism detection component that may assist ESL in research writing progress. Furthermore, the idea of AI compounded with Mobile teaching and learning (m-learning) is emerging in higher education (Pedro et al., 2018), which can afford new opportunities to enhance pedagogical flexibility, learning process or outcome, and feedback immediacy (Cheung, 2015).

Findings and Discussions

This part of the article summarizes the results of the synthesis of reviewed articles. The review covers research and academic articles on Artificial Intelligence powered writing assistant recently in indexed journals. Some distinct studies are presented to highlight specific issues. In this part, the findings revealed by the articles are also discussed to conclude commonalities. The findings and discussions are presented in a sequence of issues below.

Artificial Intelligence versus English Writing

The application of Artificial Intelligence has been widely found throughout the world and in various fields. AI has played some role in second language for more than half a century, especially for writing and evaluation. In general, the application of AI in the field of writing is separated into four stages; 1) designing courseware in high-level writing, 2) producing courseware with writing system as work, 3) applying multimedia network information technology in a large area, and 4) combining expert systems with AI program application (Gaoda & Zhongmin, 2008).

In the field of writing, AI was first applied to review written passages. The history of AI as writing reviewer has experienced these three stages. In the first stage in the 1960s, Ellis Page and team in the United States developed the world's first Automatic Writing Evaluation system (AWE), Page Essay Grade (PEG), which only provided the score of the written products without feedback. In the 1990s as the second stage, on the basis of the earlier AWE system, a feedback evaluation system was added. It included scanning, evaluation, diagnosis, and scoring. The third stage is the advanced intelligent network evaluation system. Nowadays, the Automated Essay Grading (AEG) is still in use worldwide. This system plays an important role in the TOEFL writing evaluation as well as the manual evaluation. There have been other well-known AI for writing evaluation such as Writing Roadmap developed by McLaughler, Peer Mark system launched by Turnitin, Calibrated Peer Review system of the University of California, Peerceptiv system developed by the University of Pittsburgh and Peer Scholar system developed by the University of Toronto in Canada. These writing review systems require big data technology, which can comprehensively evaluate the writer's linguistic skills and examine his/her cognitive ability, and provide real-time feedback.

Recently, there have been several AI-powered writing assistant emerging in the market. They are widely diverse in their scope such as medical, marketing, legal, business, academic, and academic writing. Their scales range from fully augmented, semi-automated, and simpler bots. A few tools serve as "writing platforms", which authors and writers use to develop content. The others are mere checkers and bots that support writing activity outside their platform by suggesting modifications. Interestingly, like the highly-rated Grammarly, some products have extensively been used in academic settings and scholarly research with positive feedback (Rao, Gain, & Bhat, 2019).

PerfectIt, as an example, can be customized to suit any in-house style. Besides regular grammar checks, it focuses on abbreviations, style guides, and consistency in table/figure order and headers.

ProWritingAid serves as a grammar checker (including avoidance of overused words and suggestion of word combinations, repeats, and echoes), a style editor (including structure, length, and transition), and a "writing mentor" (providing tips for

readability and consistency). This device combines recommendations, texts, audio-visuals, and quizzes to make writing entertaining and interactive.

Trinka, developed by Crimson.ai, is specially designed for academic and technical writing. Beyond its functions in correcting grammatical errors, it helps writers develop submission-ready documents. It auto-edits documents and provides corrections in track-changed versions. In addition to consistency checks similar to PerfectIt, Trinka offers a publication-readiness review.

AuthorONE, Crimson.ai's other flagship product, performs a comprehensive assessment by checking over 60 items to finalize a submission-ready draft.

Sci-Note Manuscript Writer extracts data from references using keyword search and adds them to the draft adequately cited and annotated. Although the tool provides intellectual content for writing literature-based sections like introduction, the most creative and crucial part of the manuscript, the discussion section, requires a human touch.

Artificial Intelligence devices and associated non-AI solutions which are widely used by authors to write and publish scholar articles are presented in Figure 2.

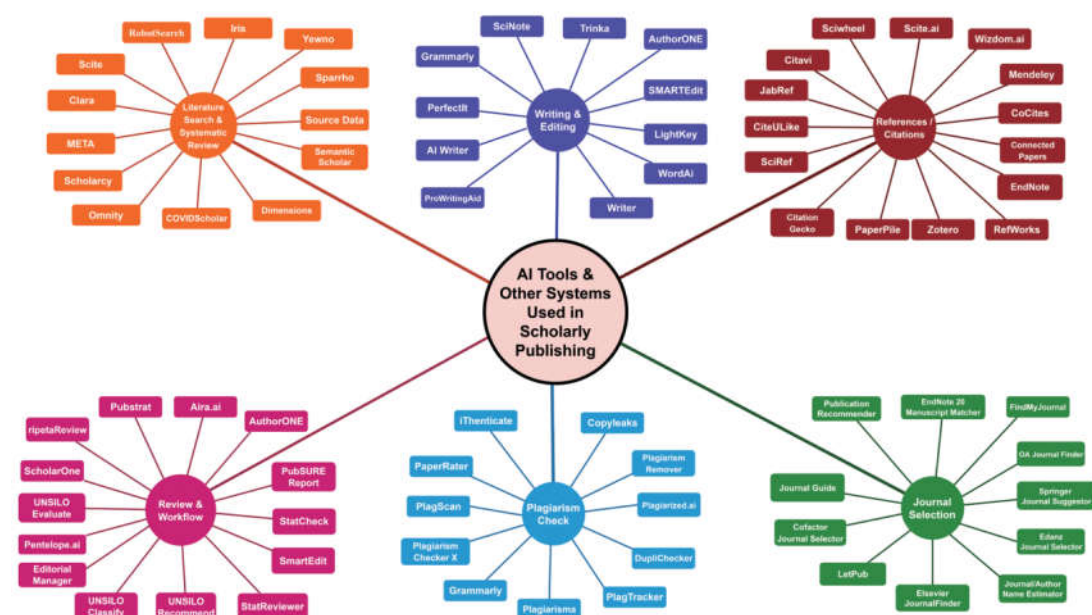


Figure 2. Artificial Intelligence (AI) devices and associated non-AI solutions used in scholarly publishing (Razack, Mathew, Saad, & Alqahtani, 2021)

Upward Trend in Research on Artificial Intelligence for Writing

Over the past few decades, there has been an upward trend in the application of AI to assist writing and writing evaluation. A number of reviews, synthesis studies, and systematic studies have been conducted and confirmed the upward trend in AI application to writing and writing evaluation. Su, Miao, and Man (2019) review research trends in China and worldwide. In data collection, they searched for existing research by entering the keywords of "Artificial Intelligence" and "Writing." 285

articles were collected in the whole network, especially the most concentrated ones published after 2013. It was found that there was an upward trend as shown in Figure 3.

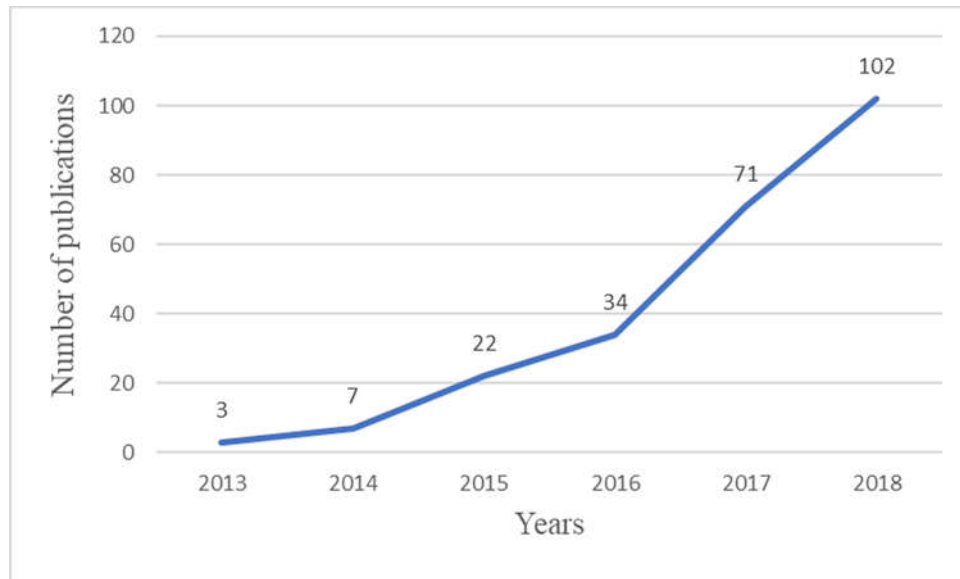


Figure 3. An upward trend in research on AI for writing (Su, Miao, & Man, 2019)

A further deeper search in the Scopus English academic literature database for topics, abstracts, and keywords “AI” and “writing,” it was found that 50 English academic documents were included. Those papers were published from 2000 to 2018. Likewise, an upward trend was found as displayed in Figure 4.

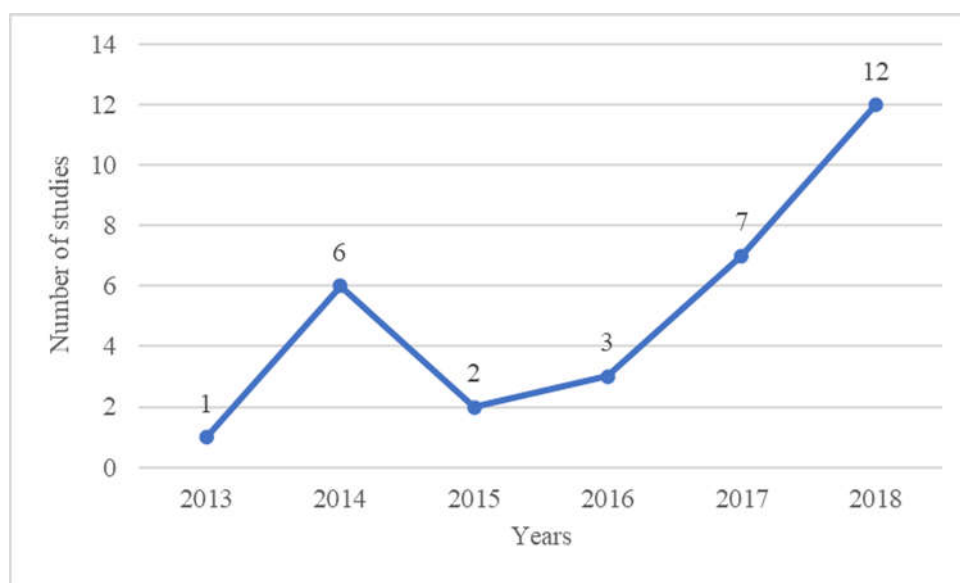


Figure 4 An upward trend in research on AI for writing from Scopus database (Su, Miao, & Man, 2019)

In this article, a review on the development and the applications of Artificial Intelligence powered writing assistant is presented, particularly in terms of published review and research articles in indexed journals. It can be concluded that research in the Artificial Intelligence powered writing assistant field entered a stage of rapid development over a decade ago and the numbers are still growing. The dramatic growth in citations received by the AI applications studies demonstrates the increasingly wide impact and influence of research on AI applications among academia. Previous reviews reveal a diverse interest in AI applications among scholars from a variety of fields.

AI versus Psychological Dynamics

This kind of research was aimed to prove that AI system can automatically improve information updating and pushing according to writers' usage characteristics (Xiaoqiong & Yunqian, 2015). At the same time, based on large data theory and corpus construction, this kind of intelligent marking system can complete multi-dimensional quality feedback of vocabulary, grammar, and content for L2 writers' individualized writing, thereby eliminating L2 writers' anxiety and conflict in the process of writing.

AI as Knowledge Suppliers

AI systems can provide individualized and situational learning resources for L2 writers such as idioms. It plays an effective role in stimulating the writers' learning motivation in the process of L2 writing. This AI assessment system can stimulate students' potential interest in English writing teaching. With more guided words, phrases, idioms, or structures, second language writers are encouraged to shift from shallow learning to deep learning. In the meantime, AI systems based on cloud computing and speech recognition technology can also monitor the changes in the ability and mood of second language writers, and provide teachers with first-hand learning analysis data by generating relevant data and graphs.

Some research has been done to review the perspective of cognitive psychology. As AI relies on big data to turn the traditional static review process into a dynamic information intensive feedback process. This is operated through monitoring the writers' writing ability and emotional changes, so the diachronic data tracking is completed (Wardle & Roozen, 2012). The North American Writing Peer Assessment Computer-Aided System (CAIS) can provide real-time feedback on the writing motivation and quality of L2 writers. It can also complete diachronic information interaction and follow-up surveys by combining background databases (Schunn, 2016)

Even though those earlier AI systems have confirmed writers' better writing knowledge, some current AI writing evaluation systems are not always perfect. This is due to the fact that online English composition review websites can only provide vocabulary and grammar improvement suggestions in information feedback. They cannot provide relevant examples yet. As a result, this drawback causes anxiety for foreign or second language writers.

AI versus *Writing Achievement* as Independent and Dependent Variables

Second language writing is a complex psychological cognitive process influenced by diverse factors. As it is difficult, writing anxiety is also created among L2 writers. Writing anxiety is described as negative emotional experience in the process of L2 writing (Yuhong & Satellite, 2011). It has a significant negative correlation with writing ability and writing achievements. At present, AI rating system is different from traditional manual scoring and computer-based scoring. AI evaluates and analyses students' second language writing in an open form. Thus, the effective application of AI rating system is positively correlated with writing achievement and writing motivation. AI intelligent feedback yields positive effects on writers' English writing quality, especially in vocabulary (Jing & Huaqing, 2018). AI assessment systems such as AEG can correct the target language deviation based on the cognitive characteristics of second language writers. It helps L2 writers avoid the influence of their mother tongues on second language writing and also provides more authentic corpus usage (Ghosh, 2019).

AI versus *Attitudes on Writing* as Independent and Dependent Variables

Reviews of previous studies reveal that L2 writers have positive attitudes towards the feedback provided by AI systems (Dikli & Bleyle, 2014). Nowadays, based on big data and cloud computing, AI Intelligent Writing Review System can control the second language writers' learning style, cognitive tendency, learning strategies, motivation types, and humanistic accomplishment. AI Intelligent Writing Review System not only minimizes the writing anxiety of second language writers, but also stimulates the writers' writing interest and motivation.

AI versus *Writing Teaching Methods* as Independent and Dependent Variables

For the teaching of writing, it is generally accepted that traditional second language writing is affected by the mother tongue environment. AI evaluation system can evaluate writing ability according to the social, linguistic, and cultural environment where the writer lives (Behizadeh & Engelhard, 2011). This makes the teaching of second language writing more humanized and provides a more effective communication bridge between teachers and students (Deane, 2013).

Traditional Marking versus AI marking

Previous studies have examined differences between traditional English composition marking and AI marking. For traditional manual marking, it demands a large amount of teachers' personal time. It cannot personalize learning plans according to individual problems in the process of marking. On the contrary, AI marking system makes teachers more effective in the teaching process. With AI, teachers can target teaching based on the data processed and summarized by the intelligent system.

In comparison, empirical research revealed that L2 writers usually tend to adopt teacher feedback (Yong & Wenxia, 2016). The feedback provided by AI marking is used only for reference. However, feedback which is the combination of teacher and AI can help stimulate writers' autonomous learning consciousness. From the reviewed research above, an insight has been gained on methods of previous research on the application of AI evaluation systems for student writing. Those

methods cover questionnaire surveys and interviews. Few studies focus on text analysis.

Therefore, it can be concluded from the review that the effective use of the AI marking network promotes English writing achievement and writing ability, and also inhibits writing anxiety. The longer the AI evaluation systems are used in the writing class, the better the L2 writers' English writing achievement and writing ability, and the lower writing anxiety. The more AI systems for L2 writing are adopted, the better writing performance and writing ability will be. Also, the convenience of using the marking network can promote the improvement of writing performance.

Artificial Intelligence will gain more popularity in the field of education including English language teaching. For L2 writing teaching, Artificial Intelligence will affect both teachers and students. That is to say, teachers release more time through AI evaluation system, which can better trace students' writing process and characteristics, formulate more detailed analyses of writer conditions, and feedback of opinions. For students, they can progressively improve writing through AI evaluation system. Moreover, self-writing ability through the AI machine review and feedback gives the joy and confidence of writing in the process of repeated revision. Therefore, Artificial Intelligence should be introduced to L2 writing teaching. It cannot only deeply integrate teaching and learning, create a new mode of second language writing, and build a new sense of writing, but also stimulate the internal motivation of second language writers. Furthermore, Artificial Intelligence fundamentally improves the quality of English teaching and effectively confirms the power of information technology.

Pedagogical Implication

From a pedagogical perspective, the advantages of AI in teaching writing can be effectiveness, satisfaction, and efficiency. An accurate self-assessment is associated with productive writing strategies and social, behavioral engagement, such as help-seeking. AI can help develop self-regulation and self-reflection abilities. Students can become capable of self-assessment. They also have their motivation and confidence boosted as a result. They also take responsibility for learning and become autonomous writers.

In terms of sustainability, ELT programs and institutions should reconsider their assessment methods to equip their learners with new skills and competencies for sustainable assessment. This self-assessment feature of AI helps students become more active writers to manage to learn and assess their works (Boud & Soler, 2016). At the same time, the institutions move away from teacher-centered learning to student-centered. In traditional L2 writing environments, the teacher's role is predominant, which generates dissatisfaction, anxiety, and boredom. To shift from teacher-centered to student-learner-centered, feedback and assessment can play a valuable role. Technology can provide an opportunity for teachers to reduce the workload with student self-assessment. Self-assessment can develop students' motivation, increase their ability to lead their learning (McMillan and Hearn, 2008). There is evidence that

an online grammar checker is useful for low-proficient L2 writers' writing (Grimes and Warschauer, 2010). Compared to teacher feedback, AI's significantly reduced writing errors.

Research indicates that technology-powered digital devices can support student writers to become self-directed learners. These technologies can enhance the creation of knowledge and develop new competencies. Findings of current studies are crucial. For instance, Grammarly can be utilized to enhance self-efficacy. For students with a fixed mindset, Feedbacks can modify the students' views of intelligence. When students see that ability and skill can be developed through practice, practice is central to gain the skill, and mistakes are part of the learning process (Shute, 2008).

Emotions as an integral part of learning success can potentially be influenced by teachers and other educators who will have developed pedagogical understanding to know how to push students without ridicule or demotivation. To enhance teachers' effectiveness of learning, teachers are encouraged to identify affective-stimulating and provide a supportive learning environment so that they can devote their complete working memory resources to the learning tasks (Chen and Chang, 2017).

For mobile learning, technology can be positively influenced by technology in line with recent research. Within the pedagogical perspective, technology can reformulate the learning environment. The media are commonplace for learners outside school. Mobile technologies can provide teachers with flexible teaching opportunities and ongoing formative assessment, specifically through social media (Reeves et al., 2017). Social media can be utilized as a sharing information platform and creative learning environment.

Conclusion

The increasing popularity and importance of AI applications for teaching writing has been confirmed and highlighted. AI scholars have shown great interest in various issues and perspectives in this field. In terms of writing software developed based on AI technologies, more attention should be paid to facilitate the learning of various skills. Online writing devices offer Artificial Intelligence-based virtual assistant through browser extensions, web-based editors, add-ins for Microsoft Office, to desktop interfaces and mobile keyboards. They are digital writing platforms that utilize Artificial Intelligence and process language naturally and grammatically. They work by suggesting corrections for spelling mistakes that are automatically highlighted, suggesting synonyms for words on double-tap, and substitutions for or suggestions for removing overused words. AI advancements have led to more sophisticated intelligent writing assistant that offer synchronous feedback to the writer than traditional word processors.

It is hoped that this review can provide a brief overview of AI-powered writing assistant studies to facilitate readers' understanding of its active status and promising future. The future of English language education is related with the advancement of novel intelligent technologies and the rapid development of computational capacities. The ELT community is meeting the opportunity and challenge created by the continuously developing artificial intelligence (AI) technologies (Popenici & Kerr, 2017).

References

- Behizadeh, N., & Engelhard, G. (2011). Historical view of the influences of measurement and writing theories on the practice of writing assessment in the United States. *Assessing Writing*, 3(1), 189-211.
- Boud, D. & Soler, R. (2016). Sustainable assessment revisited. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 41(3), 400-413. doi.org/10.1080/02602938.2015.1018133
- Chen, I., & Chang, C.C. (2017). Cognitive load theory: An empirical study of anxiety and task performance in language learning. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology*, 7(18), 729-746.
- Cheung, S. K. S. (2015). A case study on the students' attitude and acceptance of mobile learning. *Communications in Computer and Information Science* 494, 45-54. doi:10.1007/978-3-662-46158-7_5
- Deane, P. (2013). On the relation between automated essay scoring and modern views of the writing construct. *Assessing Writing*, 1(1), 7-24.
- Dikli, S., & Bley, S. (2014). Automated essay scoring feedback for second language writers: How does it compare to instructor feedback? *Assessing Writing*, 22(1), 1-17. doi:10.1016/j.asw.2014.03.006
- Fairbairn, G., & Winch, C. (2011). *Reading, Writing, and Reasoning: A guide for students*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Faller, J. M. V. (2018). Grammarly investigation into EFL writing issues involving Omani learners. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 5(3). https://doi.org/10.30845/ijll.v5n316
- Gaoda, H., & Zhongmin, L. (2008). Application of artificial intelligence in foreign language teaching. *Foreign Language Audiovisual Teaching*, 5(1), 74-80.
- Ghosh, S. (2010). Online automated essay grading system as a web-based learning (WBL) tool in engineering education. *Web-based Engineering Education: Critical Design and Effective Tools*, 1(1), 53-62.
- Grimes, D., & Warschauer, M. (2010). Utility in a fallible tool: A multi-site case study of automated writing evaluation. *Journal of Technology, Learning, and Assessment*, 8(6), 1-44.
- Jing, H., & Huaqing, H. (2018). Research on the influence of human-computer feedback on students' writing behavior. *Foreign Language Audiovisual Teaching*, 12(1), 19-24.
- Koltovskaia, S. (2020). Student engagement with automated written corrective feedback (AWCF) provided by Grammarly: A multiple case study. *Assessing Writing*, 44 (1). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2020.100450
- McMillan, J.H., & Hearn, J. (2008). Student self-assessment: The key to stronger student motivation and higher Achievement. *Educational Horizons*, 87(1), 40-49.
- Mammadova, T. (2019). *Teaching grammar to a grammar-free generation*. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Nazari, N., Shabbir, S.M.S., & Setiawan, R. (2021). Application of artificial intelligence powered digital writing assistant in higher education: Randomized controlled trial. *Heliyon*, 7(1), 1-9.

- Popenici, S.A.D., & Kerr, S. (2017). Exploring the impact of artificial intelligence on teaching and learning in higher education. *Research and Practice in Technology Enhanced Learning*, 12(1), 22. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41039-017-0062-8>
- Rao, M., Gain, A., & Bhat, S. (2019). Usage of Grammarly: online grammar and spelling checker tool at the health sciences library, manipal academy of higher education, Manipal Academy of Higher Education, Manipal: A Study. *Library Philosophy and Practice (e-journal)*, 26(10), 1-13,
- Razack, H. I. A., Mathew, S. T., Saad, F. F. A., & Alqahtani, S.A. (2021). Artificial intelligence-assisted tools for redefining the communication landscape of the scholarly world. *Science Editing*, 8(2), 134-144. <https://doi.org/10.6087/kcse.244>
- Reeves, J.L., Gunter, G.A., & Lacey, C. (2017). Mobile learning in pre-kindergarten: Using student feedback to inform practice. *Journal of Educational Technology and Society*, 20(1), 37-44.
- Schunn, C.D. (2016). A study on the mutual evaluation system of Peerceptiv to assist students in English writing. *Foreign Language Audiovisual Teaching*, 8(1), 38-44.
- Shute, V.J. (2008). Focus on formative feedback. *Review of Educational Research*, 78(1), <https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654307313795>
- Slomp, D. H. (2012). Challenges in assessing the development of writing ability: Theories, constructs, and methods. *Assessing Writing*, 2(1), 81-91.
- Su, Z., Miao, L., & Man, J. (2019). Artificial intelligence promotes the evolution of English writing evaluation model. *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering*, 646(1). doi:10.1088/1757-899X/646/1/012029
- Wardle, E., & Roozen, K. (2012). Addressing the complexity of writing development: Toward an ecological model of assessment. *Assessing Writing*, 2(1): 106-119.
- Xiaoqiong, Y., & Yunqian, D. (2015). Practical research on the teaching model of college English self-directed writing based on correction network. *Foreign Language Audiovisual Teaching*, 2(1), 17-23.
- Yamin, M. (2019). Learning from students' experiences in writing paragraph. *Metathesis Journal of English Language Literature and Teaching*, 3(2), 188-202.
- Yuhong, W., & Satellite, Gu. (2011). An empirical study on cooperative learning to reduce English writing anxiety of non-English majors. *Foreign Language and Foreign Language Teaching*, 6(1), 51-55.
- Zhaoyi, L. (2018). "Wing lesson net" big data, artificial intelligence for English teaching and teaching. *English Teachers*, 18(10), 8-10.

Readiness for Computer-based English Tests among College Students in Regional Thailand

Arnon Chaisuriya

School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology

Abstract

This survey research was conducted to assess Thai regional college students' readiness for taking high-stakes computer-based English tests, which are offered more widely and regularly, in the country. The data were collected from 572 university students in five regions. The questionnaire solicited their opinion regarding readiness in terms of computer skills and English language skills. The computer skills included online registration, using a mouse, typing in English, and operating audio equipment. The English skills consisted of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. It was found that although students were less confident in typing, they possessed high computer skills and could operate the testing equipment with ease. However, their readiness in English language skills was only moderate. Consequently, more intensive English language teaching must be organized for students in regional colleges and universities so that they are ready for computer-based English tests.

Keywords: computer-based test, English language assessment, Thai students, regional areas

Trends and Issues in Listening and Speaking in Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF) Context

**Chontichalineee Kaenson¹ / Rosesamon Panduangkaew² / Rithy Ny³ /
Jintana Watcharapothikorn⁴ / Panupan Panthong⁵**

¹⁻⁵Business English Department, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences,

Buriram Rajabhat University, Buriram, Thailand

chontichalineee.kae@bru.ac.th¹, rosesamon.pd@bru.ac.th², rithy.ny@bru.ac.th³, jinny_wat@bru.ac.th⁴,
panupan.pt@bru.ac.th⁵

Abstract

Conducting businesses successfully plays a vital role in English for communication especially in speaking and listening, but to date, not only native English speakers but also non-native English speakers use English to communicate within their community as a lingua franca. This paper reviewed the trends of ongoing research on listening and speaking in Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF) context based on the situations. There are five situations in the research reviews including (1) socialization, (2) telephoning, (3) business meeting, (4) Hospitality Industry and (5) business trip. These reviews emerge as the theme and suggestion for the future research for BELF context to supplement the knowledge of various Englishes.

Bundle-Move in Abstracts of Engineering Research Articles

Panupan Panthong¹ / Nawamin Prachanant²

¹⁻²Business English Department, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences,
Buriram Rajabhat University, Buriram, Thailand
E-mail: panupan.pt@bru.ac.th¹, nawamin.pc@bru.ac.th²

Abstract

Lexical bundles are the continuous phrases framing and shaping thoughts as the building block the discoursal units in rhetorical moves. These bundles also distribute the variations among academic disciplines. Therefore, this work aimed to identify lexical bundles in electrical engineering abstracts, analyze the structures of lexical bundles and connect them to the rhetorical moves. The self-compiled corpus entitled Eng-Corpus was the collection of four prestigious journals in an engineering field in the recent years. Using the form-first approach, this study found that there were 84 bundle types occurred in the corpus. Structurally, most of lexical bundles were cooperated with noun phrase and prepositional phrase fragments while those with dependent clause fragments are scarce. For the connection between lexical bundles and move, it was found that some bundles function as the multifunctional bundles across different moves of abstracts. These findings are drawn to the pedagogical use for engineering abstract writing discourse.

Keywords: lexical bundles, rhetorical moves, bundle-move, engineering discourse, a corpus-based analysis

Techniques for Thai into English Translation; Common Mistakes at the Word and Sentence Level

Somyong Som-In¹ / Kampeeraphab Intanoo² / Akkarapon Nuemaihom³

¹Ph.D student in English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, E-mail: somyong.si@bru.ac.th

²Advisor in English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, E-mail: Kampeeraphab.i@gmail.com

³Co-advisor in English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, E-mail: akkarapon2512@gmail.com

Abstract

The translation is a method of transferring information between two different languages. It helps the people understand the political, economic, social, and cultural situation as well as change their knowledge for the development of the country. Most of the languages spoken are English, which is the lingua franca of the global community. Therefore, in order to recognize and understand things that happen in the world, English is the medium. Translation of academic or other documents from Thai to English will be published in foreign countries and exchanged knowledge for developing the countries. However, cultural differences are one of the factors contributing to translation problems. The transmission of the meaning at the word level and sentence structure is often problematic because Thai and English are different. The use of words with similar patterns or with conjunctions in different sentence structures will have the difference meanings. As a result, the meaning in English is different from Thai. Therefore, knowing the meaning of words, how to use them, and how to construct proper English sentences can help translators translate Thai documents into English correctly, naturally, and in accordance with the original text's goals.

Keywords: common mistake, translation, technique

Trends in Teaching Critical Reading in the Thai Context

Siraprapha Ratanaruamkarn¹ / Surachai Piyanukool² / Akkarapon Nuemaihom³

¹ Ph.D. Student, English Language Teaching, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, and E-mail: 640427092014@bru.ac.th

² Major Advisor, Assistant Professor Dr., Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, and E-mail: surachai.py@bru.ac.th

³ Co-advisor, Associate Professor Dr., Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Buriram Rajabhat University, Thailand, and E-mail: akkarapon.nm@bru.ac.th

Abstract

This study aimed to identify and review recent studies on the trends of methods, instructions, or models, and teaching levels in teaching critical reading skills in Thailand. This research was conducted by studying relevant 13 studies including academic documents and research published between 2011 and 2022. The data were categorized into two components including the teaching methods, instructions, or models, and teaching levels. The finding revealed 8 trendy methods, instructions, or models for teaching critical reading skills including Literature-Based Instruction, Group Reading Strategy (GRS) Method, QUEST Analysis Method, Multimodal Tasks Method, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Model, PISA Reading Literacy Assessment Method, Applied Linguistic-Based Method, and SQ5R Method. Moreover, there are 3 levels of teaching critical reading in Thailand including the University Level, Secondary School Level, and Elementary School Level. This study is helpful for those interested in finding the appropriate method for teaching critical reading abilities in the Thai context.

Keywords: Critical Reading, Thailand, English Language Teaching (ELT), Teaching Levels

ESP Teachers: Insights, Challenges and Needs in the EFL Context

Apisak Sukying¹ / Nuntapat Supunya² / Pilanut Phusawisot³

¹Assistant Professor in ELT at Mahasarakham University, Thailand

Email: apisak.s@msu.ac.th

²Lecturer in ELT at Mahasarakham University, Thailand

Email: Thebporn.k@msu.ac.th

³Lecturer in ELT at Mahasarakham University, Thailand

Email: Pilanut.p@msu.ac.th

Abstract

This research investigated ESP teachers' perceptions of the underlying concepts, challenges, and needs of ESP teaching in Thailand. A six-Likert questionnaire and checklist were given to 63 ESP teachers at a Thai government university. An interview was also used to further explore 12 teacher participants' issues, challenges, and needs in ESP practices. The results indicated that Thai university teachers had a piecemeal understanding of ESP concepts, and they also agreed that ESP practice is a complex and challenging task. Moreover, the current findings indicate that language teachers must work in tandem with the content teachers. Indeed, the results strongly suggest that teachers require professional training in ESP teaching. Overall, ESP teachers must embody the five essential elements of ESP, including a language teacher, a content teacher, a researcher, a course planner and material provider, and a course evaluator.

Keywords: ESP, ESP teachers, ESP elements, task, ESP in the EFL context

Effects of TCRS Innovation on English Instruction of Higher Secondary School Learners for Joining AEC

Thawascha Dechsubha

Shinawatra University, Thailand

Abstract

The purposes of this study were to 1) study the effects of TCRS innovation on English instruction of higher secondary school learners at Boonluawithayanusorn higher secondary school for joining AEC, 2) compare ability of English speaking for communication of higher secondary school learners at Boonluawithayanusorn higher secondary school for joining AEC, and 3) create a teacher' manual to develop ability of English speaking for communication of higher secondary school learners at Boonluawithayanusorn higher secondary school for joining AEC.

The population in this study consisted of 75 higher secondary school learners at Boonluawithayanusorn higher secondary school who took English course during the second semester of the academic year 2018. Samples consisted of 35 higher secondary school learners at Boonluawithayanusorn higher secondary school who took English course in the 2018 academic year through the purposive sampling random. This technique can answer the purpose of research. Moreover, the characteristics of population were in accordance with research purposes. This was an experimental research design. Eight weeks were spent on this research. The instruments were (1) the questionnaire related to students' problems about the English instruction, (2) classroom observation, (3) semi-structured interview, and (4) English speaking ability test (pre-test and post-test). The scores of English speaking ability were analyzed and interpreted statistically in terms of mean (\bar{x}), standard deviation (S.D.), and t-test (pretest and posttest) with the criterion of 60%.

The results of the study showed as follows:

- 1) The ability of English speaking for communication of higher secondary school learners at Boonluawithayanusorn higher secondary school who had studied English through the TCRS process was significantly higher than before the experiment.
- 2) The post-test scores of higher secondary school learners' speaking ability were significantly higher than the criterion of 60%.
- 3) A teacher' manual to develop ability of English speaking for communication of higher secondary school learners at Boonluawithayanusorn higher secondary school for joining AEC was developed.

All in all, after the experimental process to the TCRS process, the majority of learners speaking ability had developed satisfactorily and significantly. They also had a positive attitude on the process of speaking training through the TCRS process.

Keywords: TCRS innovation, AEC, English Instruction

Barriers to Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Classrooms of Myanmar

Nilar Win

Associate Professor, English Department, Myitkyina University, Ministry of Education, Myanmar
E-mail: 1968nilarwin@gmail.com

Abstract

The teaching of culture has been listed as one of the goals in foreign language teaching and learning in the new century. However, the beliefs of foreign language instructors towards the teaching of culture at the university level remain unclear. Forty language teachers (33 females and 7 males ranging between 38-54 years of age) from English departments at selected universities participated in this research. This study was conducted through interview survey to study the teaching of culture and cultural perspectives in the language classrooms. In this study we found two profound barriers to the teaching of cultural perspectives: (i) many language instructors did not recognize that culture is an important objective for teaching foreign language in the 21st century, such as lack of knowledge by instructors, lack of enough time for preparing classes with cultural elements embedded in them, and (ii) the knowledge of how to teach a language is undervalued such as lack of appropriate materials, the absence of technological support, and stereotypes of the target culture. In fact, the English instructors' beliefs are the real barrier to the teaching of culture and cultural perspectives. Unless these instructors realized that culture is an important objective for foreign language teaching in the 21st century, they would not consider the teaching of culture as a significant part of their teaching. The second major barrier to the teaching of culture is that the knowledge of the target language is sufficient and the knowledge of how to teach a language is optional.

Keywords: Barriers to teaching culture, Foreign language classroom, Myanmar

English as Medium of Instruction in Vietnam Higher Education: Insights from the Perspective of a Language Policy Implementation Framework

Huy Van Nguyen / Phuong Le Hoang Ngo

Department of English, University of Foreign Languages, Hue University, Vietnam
Corresponding author, nguyenvanhuy@hueuni.edu.vn

Abstract

As the policy implementation of EMI across different education contexts, including that of Vietnam, has gained increased attention in language education research, it is vital to adopt a framework that could scaffold adequate analyses of the current literature. This paper thus attempts to adopt a policy implementation perspective to critically reflect on EMI policy and current milieu for its enactment in the context of Vietnam. With that critical analysis of the research findings and insights across different domains of a language-in-education framework including access, personnel, curriculum, teaching methods, materials, resources, community and evaluation, the paper endeavours to enrich the literature of and add new textures and dimensions to Kaplan and Baldauf's (2005) framework as a meta-analysis tool to provide more insights into the prospect of EMI policy implementation.

Keywords: EMI, Vietnam, framework, meta-analysis, language policy

Poster Presentation

A Survey Study of the Needs, Problems, and Wants of Communicative Skills in English for Mass Media

Pongsatorn Pawabutra / Juthamas Tangkawanich

Foreign Language Department, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University, Thailand

E-mail: pongsatorn@snru.ac.th, juthamastang@snru.ac.th

Abstract

The purposes of this study were to investigate and clarify the needs, problems, and wants of English for Business Communication students regarding English communicative skills in the English for Media course. The sample of the present study consisted of two groups: fourth-year students (48), and third-year students (50). The quantitative approach was utilized through a questionnaire, and the purposive sampling technique was used to collect the data. The statistical procedures in this study included: frequency distribution, percentages (%), a five-point Likert scale, Arithmetic mean (\bar{x}), and Standard Deviation (S.D.). The major findings were as follows: (a) The students needed better listening and understanding of conversations on general situations in the classroom. (b) The students had problems with listening and understanding conversations on general situations in the classroom. (c) The students wanted the course to include English for use in their daily life. This study has implications for the research and development of communicative skills in the English for Mass Media course, English for Business Communication program, Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University, and can assist in the development of instructions, textbook, etc., as well as guidelines for other English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses.

Keywords: needs, problems, wants, English communicative skills,
English for Mass Media

Introduction

English is the most used language on Earth, with 2 billion speakers worldwide (Taylor, 2022). English has the power to connect people from many different cultures, and build relationships as well as understanding (Nordquist, 2020). According to the British Study Centres, people nowadays are devoting more and more time to learning English. Many countries have English as part of their school curriculum, and children are learning English at an ever-younger age. Whether it's for professional or personal reasons, learning English can help people step forward to achieve their goals. English as a Second language helps learners meet new people or travel around the world; it increases their career skills and makes them more competitive in the global job market.

It is important to have a good basis of General English to be able to communicate effectively. Business English, on the other hand, focuses on specific vocabulary, topics, and skills that are relevant to the job and enables accurate communication, as mentioned by the English training centre ECS Scotland. According to Ellis and Johnson (1994), Business English must be considered in terms of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which includes needs analysis, syllabus

design, course design, and materials selection and development that are common to all fields of work. To fulfill the needs of modern businesses, having strong Business English skills can make professionals progress toward their professional goals. Many universities in other countries, including Thailand, have established distinct courses to keep up with the globalization of trade and economic circumstances, and expand the number of professional communicators in specialist business English (Pitchayawisitkul, 2010).

In Thai university education, there are many ESP programs at the university level, for example, Business English Programs, English for Business Communication Programs, etc. This suggests that English is widely used for various specific purposes, and that its usage in the Thai workplace has grown remarkably. In the aforementioned programs, there are different English courses, such as English for Mass Media, English for Business Airlines, English for Hotel Industry, etc. One of the major courses in the English for Business Communication Program, Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University (SNRU) is the English for Mass Media course. This course aims to develop English communicative skills, along with the acquisition of new terminology and phrases; moreover, to integrate these communicative skills with the principles and working skills in the Mass Media Industry, including newspapers, magazines, film, etc. The course also involves a workshop that invites experts to share their hands-on knowledge in such areas as using Adobe PhotoShop for designing a magazine cover, CapCut for editing video, etc.

Research results are necessary for the instructional design of any course. And according to lesson design theory, Needs Analysis (NA) plays an important role in helping educators gather information for curriculum development. It is an effective way to identify the scope of course content and to design learning processes and activities that will appeal to learners. The effectiveness of the needs analysis can lead to lesson plans consisting of goals, content specifications, approaches, and materials that reflect real-life situations and address the learner's problems and requirements. The goal of any course's needs analysis is to observe the learner's behavior and interests, and design instructions that correspond to those results. To collect the data needed for instructional design, many educators use needs assessments. Richards (2001, p.52) stated that NA can be used to examine the difference between learners' current and required abilities, and that it can help learners find the skills they need to learn, determine matches between their existing courses and needs, and identify learning problems.

Based on this understanding of Needs Analysis, and the researchers' work in the English for Business Communication program, the researchers aimed to investigate the needs, problems, and wants of the students who enrolled in the English for Mass Media course, as pertaining to English skills acquisition. In this study, the researchers expected the results to be profitable for the program, leading to improvements in the course, instruction, and syllabus, as well as the development of new ways to practice English in English for Mass Media, so as to develop the skills of the students who enroll in the course.

Literature Review

Needs Analysis is the preliminary stage of designing courses, syllabuses, materials, and the educational activities that take place (Jordan, 1997, 22). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated that a needs analysis is the process of determining the needs for which learners or groups of learners require a language, and arranging the needs according to priorities. The targets of a needs analysis are to find out what learners want to use the language for and what level of competencies they have in the language at present. Thus, it is considered to be a key point when developing an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, 54-57) divide needs into two categories: target needs and learning needs. The target needs (what the learner needs to do in the target situation) are divided into three categories: Necessities, Lacks, and Wants. Necessities are the type of needs that are determined by the requirements of the target situation, i.e., what the learner needs to know in order to function effectively in the target situation. Lacks are the needs that learners do not have, and wants are the learners' desires and beliefs about what they need to learn. Learning needs (what the learner needs to do to learn) include language elements, skills, strategies, and expertise.

Needs analysis can be used to determine what language skills a learner needs to fill a particular role, such as sales manager or student; to identify a gap between current language level and required skills; and to identify problem areas for learners (Richards, 2001, 52). There are several ways to obtain information about learners' needs. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998, 132) state that the main methods of data collection are questionnaires, interviews, observations, discussions, and assessments.

In summary, the data obtained from the needs assessment will enable a course designer to design an ESP course and the materials that meet learners' interests and needs, to choose the best approach to language instruction, and to make the ESP course and materials more appropriate and relevant.

Objectives

1. To investigate the needs of the students enrolled in the English for Mass Media course at Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University
2. To explore the problems the students face in the English for Mass Media course at Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University
3. To find the students' wants in the English for Mass Media course at Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University

Methodology

1. Population

The population of this study was 213 students from the English for Business Communication Program: 63 first-year students, 52 second-year students, 48 third-year students, and 50 fourth-year students.

2. Samples

The samples of this study were 48 third-year students and 50 fourth-year students who already studied the English for Mass Media course when they were in second year, using purposive sampling technique.

3. Research Instruments

The instrument used in this study was a modified questionnaire created in accordance with the literature review, content in the course, and teaching experiences. The questionnaire was divided into 5 parts: general information of samples, opinions on the needs related to English communicative skills in the English for Mass Media course, opinions on the problems encountered when using English communicative skills in the English for Mass Media course, preferences concerning the revision of the English for Mass Media course, and student recommendations.

The outline of the questionnaire was developed in Thai and English to ensure the validity, as well as to minimize any problems that might arise due to lack of clarity or word misinterpretation. The questionnaire was constructed as follows: firstly, the drafted Thai-English version was reviewed by experts for potential modification, as well as to verify the research questions. Secondly, the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) version was distributed to be validated by three experts in English language usage who work in the Foreign Language Department, faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University. Finally, the questionnaire was adjusted based on the experts' comments: unclear terms, relevant items, and irrelevant items.

4. Pilot Study

In accordance with the COVID-19 situation, an online pilot study was conducted in order to examine whether the instructions and statements of the questionnaires would be clearly understood. A section of 30 third-year English-program students who already studied English for Mass Media course, Foreign Language Department, faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University, were requested to complete the questionnaires and evaluate its content to identify unclear terms and to give suggestions in general. From the information obtained, the researchers clarified the unclear terms, and excluded the irrelevant items.

5. Distribution and Collection

In accordance with the pandemic COVID-19 situation in Thailand, the online Thai-English questionnaires were sent to 98 subjects: 48 third-year students and 50 fourth-year students. A purposive sampling method was used to select the samples. The questionnaires were collected within one week. There were 84 students (85.71%) who turned in the questionnaires, whereas 14 students did not respond back (14.29%). Lastly, the data were coded and typed into a computer.

6. Data Analysis

The results of the questionnaires were analyzed, categorized, tabulated, and calculated into statistical values by using the SPSS program. The data concerning the general information of samples were presented in frequencies and percentages. Arithmetic mean (\bar{x}) and Standard Deviation (S.D.) were used to analyze the respondents' opinions on their needs related to English communicative skills in the English for Mass Media course, their opinions on the problems in using English communicative skills in English for Mass Media course, and their preferences

concerning the revision of the English for Mass Media course. Other comments or suggestions were also discussed and analyzed to support the study and be beneficial for solving problems in using English communicative skills.

Results

Three major results: needs, problems, and wants of the students who already studied the English for the Mass Media course, English for Business Communication program, Foreign Language Department, Sakon Nakhon Rajabhat University are illustrated in Table 1, Table 2 and Table 3.

1. Needs in using English communicative skills in the English for Mass Media course

The result showed that the overall needs of students was at a high level (\bar{x} = 3.88, S.D. = 0.88). When considering mainly four language skills, it was found that listening skills was considered as the highest need level (\bar{x} = 3.98, S.D. = 0.84), followed by speaking (\bar{x} = 3.90, S.D. = 0.88), reading (\bar{x} = 3.88, S.D. = 0.88), and writing (\bar{x} = 3.78, S.D. = 0.92) respectively.

Table 1: The students' needs in using English communicative skills in the English for Mass Media course

Present needs	Mean	SD	Needs
Extent of need in the activities of listening			
1.1 Listening and understanding the conversations on general situations in the classroom	4.12	0.78	High
1.2 Listening and understanding the lectures in the classroom	3.94	0.84	High
1.3 Listening and understanding the presentations in the classroom	3.90	0.84	High
1.4 Listening and understanding the related academic audios	3.95	0.83	High
1.5 Listening and understanding the related academic videos	4.00	0.88	High
Total	3.98	0.84	High
Extent of need in the activities of speaking			
2.1 Speaking on the general topics in the classroom	4.08	0.85	High
2.2 Discussing or explaining about academic issues	3.81	0.87	High
2.3 Presenting the provided assignments in the classroom	3.88	0.81	High
2.4 Explaining the summarized knowledge from related academic audios and videos	3.87	0.93	High
2.5 Reporting news	3.83	0.93	High
Total	3.90	0.88	High
Extent of need in the activities of reading			
3.1 Reading textbooks	3.86	0.89	High
3.2 Reading academic articles/reports/researches to cite in provided assignments	3.80	0.83	High
3.3 Reading for information on websites/blogs	3.95	0.85	High

3.4 Reading brochures/magazines/newspaper/other handouts	3.90	0.87	High
3.5 Reading screenplays	3.90	0.96	High
Total	3.88	0.88	High

Extent of need in the activities of writing

4.1 Writing phrases in each lesson	3.88	0.90	High
4.2 Writing simple sentences/compound sentences/complex sentences/compound-complex sentences	3.71	0.93	High
4.3 Writing news headlines	3.76	0.94	High
4.4 Writing covelines	3.70	0.94	High
4.5 Writing advertisements	3.79	0.91	High
4.6 Taking notes in classroom lectures	3.82	0.89	High
Total	3.78	0.92	High

According to this table, as for listening skills, it was found that "Listening and understanding the conversations on general situations in classroom" was rated the most needed skill (\bar{x} = 4.12), while "Listening and understanding the presentations in classroom" was reported the least needed skill (\bar{x} = 3.90). For speaking skills, "Speaking on the general topics in classroom" (\bar{x} = 4.08) was needed the most while "Discussing or explaining about academic issues" was reported as the least needed (\bar{x} = 3.81). Furthermore, reading skills was needed the most when "Reading for information on websites/blogs" (\bar{x} = 3.95) whereas "Reading academic articles/reports/researches to cite in provided assignments" was reported the least needed skill (\bar{x} = 3.80). Lastly, "Writing phrases in each lesson" (\bar{x} = 3.88) was the most needed in writing skill, on the other hands, "Writing covelines" was reported as the least needed skill (\bar{x} = 3.70).

2. Problems in using English communicative skills in English for Mass Media course

The result showed that the overall problems of students was at a high level (\bar{x} = 3.74, S.D. = 0.88). As the shown table, it was found that listening skill was rated as the highest problem (\bar{x} = 3.86, S.D. = 0.91) followed by speaking (\bar{x} = 3.76, S.D. = 0.93), reading (\bar{x} = 3.67, S.D. = 0.99), and writing (\bar{x} = 3.66, S.D. = 1.01) respectively.

Table 2: The students' problems in using English communicative skills in English for Mass Media course

Present problems	Mean	SD	Problems
Problems in the activities of listening			
1.1 Listening and understanding conversations on general situations in the classroom	3.99	0.90	High
1.2 Listening and understanding lectures in the classroom	3.75	0.93	High
1.3 Listening and understanding presentations in the classroom	3.76	0.96	High

1.4 Listening and understanding related academic audios	3.89	0.89	High
1.5 Listening and understanding related academic videos	3.93	0.88	High
Total	3.86	0.91	High

Problems in the activities of speaking

2.1 Speaking on the general topics in the classroom	3.79	0.96	High
2.2 Discussing or explaining academic issues	3.75	0.93	High
2.3 Presenting the provided assignments in the classroom	3.65	0.92	High
2.4 Explaining the summarized knowledge from related academic audios and videos	3.83	0.93	High
2.5 Reporting news	3.79	0.92	High
Total	3.76	0.93	High

Problems in the activities of reading

3.1 Reading textbooks	3.64	1.03	High
3.2 Reading academic articles/reports/research to cite in provided assignments	3.71	0.94	High
3.3 Reading for information on websites/blogs	3.68	1.03	High
3.4 Reading brochures/magazines/newspaper/other handouts	3.69	0.97	High
3.5 Reading screenplays	3.63	0.98	High
Total	3.67	0.99	High

Problems in the activities of writing

4.1 Writing phrases in each lesson	3.69	0.97	High
4.2 Writing simple sentences/compound sentences/complex sentences/compound-complex sentences	3.70	1.03	High
4.3 Writing news headlines	3.61	1.05	High
4.4 Writing coverlines	3.64	1.06	High
4.5 Writing advertisements	3.67	0.96	High
4.6 Taking notes in classroom lectures	3.64	0.99	High
Total	3.66	1.01	High

(N=84)_ Note: VH = Very high, H = High, M = Moderate, L = Low, VL = Very low

As presented in Table 2, the results revealed that the biggest problem regarding listening skills was "Listening and understanding the conversations on general situations in classroom" (\bar{x} = 3.99) at a high level, whereas "Listening and understanding the lectures in classroom" was determined as the lowest problem (\bar{x} = 3.75) at a high level. Then, the biggest problem regarding speaking skills was "Explaining the summarized knowledge from related academic audios and videos" (\bar{x} = 3.83) at a high level, while "Presenting the provided assignments in classroom" was rated as the least problem (\bar{x} = 3.65) at a high level. Furthermore, the biggest problem of reading skills was "Reading academic articles/reports/researches to cite in

provided assignments" (\bar{x} = 3.71) at a high level, while the lowest problem was "Reading screenplays" (\bar{x} = 3.63) at a high level. Finally, "Writing simple sentences/compound sentences/complex sentences/ compound-complex sentences" (\bar{x} = 3.70) was reported as the primary problem in writing English at a high level; however, "Writing news headlines" was the least problem (\bar{x} = 3.61) at a high level.

3. Wants in using communicative English in revising the course "English for Mass Media"

The results showed that the overall wants of students was at a high level (\bar{x} = 4.15, S.D. = 0.86). It was found that the statement "The course should contribute to English use in my daily life." was ranked at the strongly agree level (\bar{x} = 4.35, S.D. = 0.77), followed by "The course should teach equally all four-language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing." (\bar{x} = 4.26, S.D. = 0.76), "The course should improve my English in the workplace or prepare me for my future career after graduation." (\bar{x} = 4.25, S.D. = 0.73), and the least was "The course should be based on the lecturing method." (\bar{x} = 3.96, S.D. = 0.97) at the agree level.

Table 3: The students' preference on using communicative English in revising the course "English for Mass Media"

Wants for the purpose of the course	Mean	SD	Interpre- tation
1. The course should improve my English in the workplace or prepare me for my future career after graduation.	4.25	0.73	Strongly agree
2. The course should contribute to English use in my daily life.	4.35	0.77	Strongly agree
3. The course should teach equally all four-language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	4.26	0.76	Strongly agree
4. The course should be taught by Thai instructors.	4.19	0.78	Agree
5. The course should be taught by more than one instructor.	4.11	0.94	Agree
6. The instructors should lecture in English when teaching; Thai should be used only when necessary.	4.12	0.90	Agree
7. Three hours per week is appropriate for teaching and learning the English for Mass Media course.	4.08	0.92	Agree

8. The course should be based on the lecturing method.	3.96	0.97	Agree
9. Participation activities should be provided more in the classroom, for example, brainstorming, news analysis, etc.	4.05	0.90	Agree
10. The course is satisfying when doing group work in the classroom.	4.11	0.94	Agree
Total	4.15	0.86	Agree

(N=84)_Note: Strongly agree, Agree, Unsure, Disagree, Strongly disagree

Discussions

The needs, problems and wants of English for Business Communication students in English for Mass Media course were researched to explore their English communicative skills. According to Hutchinson and Water (1987), if the students' needs can be met, the students can learn faster and better in the course. Moreover, Munby (1978) Mackey (1981), and Nunan (1990), state that the first step to developing an ESP syllabus is to do a needs analysis (NA) of the language of the students.

1. Needs

The survey of English for Business Communication students' needs revealed that students needed all four major skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) at a high level. These results agreed with the previous studies of Su-ya-ai (2018), and Intorn, Charoenarnpornwattana, and Chuchuen (2020), who mentioned that all four skills are equally important to students. This might be explained by the fact that students require English communicative skills while studying at university. The needs of the students were divided separately into four skills as follows:

Listening skills: "Listening and understanding conversations on general situations in the classroom," "listening and understanding related academic videos," and "listening and understanding related academic audios," were the highest needs and rated at high levels. This suggests that the students need more practice in these skills. For classroom activities, they might have more practice during the class, drill more on conversation, watch and explain academic videos and audios. These needs are consistent with Yuh (2021), who states that students have few opportunities to practice their speaking skills.

Speaking skills: "Speaking on general topics in the classroom," "presenting provided assignments in the classroom," and "explaining the summarized knowledge from related academic audios and videos" were ranked as the most needed, at high levels. These results correspond with the fact that the students needed to improve their speaking skills in order to engage in classroom activities effectively. This agrees with the results of Intorn, Charoenarnpornwattana and Chuchuen (2020), who states that accountants in Pattaya needed to enhance their speaking skills in order to respond back to their clients. And which shows that speaking skills are needed just as much as listening skills.

Reading skills: "Reading for information on websites/blogs," "Reading brochures/ magazines/newspaper/other handouts," and "Reading screenplays" were rated at high levels. This is understandable, as students need to practice reading skills to complete assignments and produce their own media works. When considering the most difficult type of reading material, it is likely reading screenplays, which have many rhetorical features, language devices, etc. The students need to develop reading skills in order to prepare themselves for any project which requires reading skills, even indirectly.

Writing skills: "Writing phrases in each lesson," "Taking notes in classroom lectures," and "Writing advertisements" were scored at the highest need, at high levels. For this reason, students should practice many useful phrases in each unit during the class — especially in writing advertisements, which students often find difficult due to the figurative language and language devices that are often applied.

2. Problems

The Business Communication students revealed that listening was their biggest problematic skill acquisition, followed by speaking, reading, and writing, in which all four major skills were rated at high levels. The students' problems in each skill were described separately as follows:

Listening skills: "Listening and understanding conversations on general situations in the classroom," "Listening and understanding related academic videos," and "Listening and understanding related academic audios" were determined to be the biggest problems at high levels. These problems were consistent with Thepvongsa and Klinchan (2020), who found that students had difficulties with technical or unfamiliar words in the messages they heard, as well as limited vocabulary and poor grammar, so they could not understand the content of what the speakers were saying. The speaker's speed, concentration level, limited vocabulary, interpretation, established language habits, and accent also caused them problems in listening. This might be due to the students having few opportunities to listen during the conversation, as well as unfamiliar vocabulary used in the mass media industry. Moreover, more than half of the students preferred to watch movies in their first language and listen to Northeastern Thailand's Morlam music instead of international music.

Speaking skills: "Explaining the summarized knowledge from related academic audios and videos," "Speaking on general topics in the classroom," and "Reporting news" were the most problematic items at high levels. This is understandable in view of the fact that students have difficulties with academic videos and audios which use vocabulary and terminology different from daily life. In addition, students might be unsure of their English language skills and remain silent during lessons, which can lead to difficulties in speaking English. Yaorm (2019) noted that speaking tasks, unlike reading, writing, and listening, require a degree of real-time access to the audiences. Students are often afraid of making mistakes, fear criticism or losing face, or are simply nervous about being the center of attention when speaking English. Poor grammar rules, limited opportunities to practice, limited vocabulary, and lack of English proficiency can also affect students' ability to communicate and participate in class.

Reading skills: "Reading academic articles/reports/research to cite in provided assignments," "Reading brochures/magazines/newspaper/other handouts,"

and “Reading for information on websites/blogs” were the top problematic items rated at high levels. For this reason, students have difficulties with academic articles, because they often rely on a literal translation, and spend a lot of time reading technical terms, slang, idioms, and specific vocabulary but not understanding the documents at all. Furthermore, they might be unfamiliar with the terminology and figures of speech used in some printed and online publications. For example, alliteration and rhyming are often used in a magazine’s coverline. According to Maneechoetvichanat (2020), reading skill depends mainly on perceptual, linguistic, and cognitive processes such as word recognition, syntactic process, and semantic process.

Writing skills: “Writing simple sentences/compound sentences/complex sentences/ compound-complex sentences,” “Writing phrases in each lesson,” and “Writing advertisements” were the biggest problems at high levels. This might be interpreted as meaning that the students lacked vocabulary and word choice, spelling knowledge, grammar and punctuation knowledge, and an understanding of language devices (metaphor, word play, etc.) — all of which make students unable to create understandable sentences, especially in advertisements. This corresponds with Ogano (2012), who found that the English students face problems when writing sentences, using punctuation in a sentence, using grammar and vocabulary correctly, and organizing a paragraph.

3. Wants

The Business English students’ wants were shown to be “The course should contribute to English use in my daily life,” “The course should teach equally all four-language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing,” and “The course should improve my English in the workplace or prepare me for my future career after graduation.” These were ranked at the highest score in the table and rated at strongly agree. It can be assumed that the students want to apply knowledge from English for Mass Media for use in their daily life. The instruction thus might be adjusted and simplified for more practical daily purposes in future classes. In addition, the instructor might adjust all four skills equally in the activities, which currently emphasize reading and writing more than listening and speaking. Apart from that, the course should practice more those skills that can help students reach their goal when applying for a future job in the Mass Media industry or be co-taught with a specialist or experienced person in this industry. This agrees with Hutchinson and Waters (1987) who state that ESP instructors might find themselves having to work in close cooperation with sponsors or subject specialists who are responsible for the learners’ work or study experience outside the ESP classroom. Ellis and Johnson (1994) state that objectives are set in accordance with learners’ needs, building on the previous capacities of the learners.

Recommendations

1. Recommendations from the results of the study

According to the results, listening skills was rated as the highest need in the English for Mass Media course by English for Business Communication students. Moreover, speaking skills were as needed as listening skills. Therefore, listening and speaking skills should be taken into account when designing the course, in order to improve student proficiency in English and also to develop the course.

2. Recommendations for further study

Needs Analysis of English communicative skills in other courses should be investigated, since many occupations in Thailand have a growing need for English communications, for example, English for Massage Therapists, English for Crypto Trader, etc.

In-depth interviews should be conducted in order to clarify more how the course might be adjusted to address the needs, problems, and wants of the students.

References

- Dudley-Evans, T. & St. John, M. J. (1998). *Development in English for specific purposes: A multidisciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, M., & Johnson, C. (1994). *Teaching business English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hutchison, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purpose: A learning centered- approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Intorn, C., Charoenarpornwattana, P., & Chuchuen, R. (2020). *Problems and Needs for the Development of English Communication Skill of Bank Staff in Pattaya City*. Pathumthani University Academic Journal. 12(2), 266-276. Retrieved from <https://so05.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/ptujournal/article/view/246770/169254>
- Jordan, R. R. (1997). *English for academic purposes: A guide and resource book for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mackay, R., & Bosquet, M. (1981). *LSP Curriculum Development-from policy to practice*. In R. Mackay & J.D. Palmer (Eds.), *Languages for specific purposes* (1-28). Rowley, MA: Newbury.
- Maneechoetvichanat, N. (2020). A Needs and Problems Analysis in English for Specific Purposes at the Workplace of Thai Customs. THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY OFFICERS. Retrieved from http://ethesisarchive.library.tu.ac.th/thesis/2020/TU_2020_6221040162_14247_14011.pdf
- Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative syllabus design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nordquist, R. (2020). English Language: History, Definition, and Examples: How It's Evolved Over Centuries—And Still Changes Today. Retrieved from <https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-the-english-language-1690652>
- Nunan, D. (1990). *Using learner Data in Curriculum Development*. English for Specific Purposes. 9(1), 17-32. Retrieved from [https://doi.org/10.1016/0889-4906\(90\)90026-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/0889-4906(90)90026-9)

- Ogano, J. A. (2012). Teaching learners with reading and writing problems in the classroom: an interview study with teachers in Norwegian schools. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/30900378.pdf>
- Pitchayawisitkul, N. (2010). *A research study of needs of the 3rd year students studying Communicative Business English II*. Thammasat University, academic year 2009. Retrieved from https://tdc.thailis.or.th/tdc/browse.php?option=show&browse_type=title&titleid=198797
- Richards, J. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Su-ya-ai, K. (2018). English Communication Problems and Needs of ESP Learners: A Case Study of Songthew Driver in Chiang Mai. *FEU Academic Review*. (12) Supplement, 150-165. Retrieved from <https://so01.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/FEU/article/view/104090/92341>
- Taylor, C. (2022). The Importance of English: The World Language of 2020 and Beyond?. Retrieved from <https://preply.com/en/blog/the-importance-of-english-in-today-s-world/>
- Thepvongsa, V., C., & Klinchan, N. (2020). *A Study of Problems in English Listening Comprehension of Matthayomsuksa Students*. *MCU Humanities Journal*. 6(1), 189-198. Retrieved from <https://so03.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/human/article/view/236471/165653>
- Yaorm, P. (2019). *English Speaking Problems of Undergraduate students in a Public University*. (Master's thesis). Retrieved from http://ethesisarchive.library.tu.ac.th/thesis/2019/TU_2019_6121040254_12581_12270.pdf
- Yuh, A., H., & Kaewurai, W. (2021). An Investigation of Thai Students' English-speaking Problems and Needs and the Implementation Collaborative and Communicative Approaches to Enhance Students' English-speaking skills. *The Golden Teak: Humanity and Social Science Journal*. 27(2), 91-107. Retrieved from <https://so05.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/tgt/article/view/252425/170806>

ICON-ELT 2022

The 1st International Conference on English Language Teaching

“World Englishes in English Language Teaching in the Digital Age”



<http://icon-elt-2022.bru.ac.th/>