



TESOL INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL

Volume 15 Issue 4 2020

Chief Editor

Ramon Medriano, Jr.

Published by the TESOL International Journal
www.tesol-international-journal.com

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ISSN. 2094-3938

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Foreword

We are pleased to present 8 articles in this Volume that reports on the research findings into Second language acquisition in Saudi Arabia. The first paper is co-authored by Dr. Abdullah Alshayban and Dr. Abdurrazzag Alghammas entitled “*Allowing or Refusing the Use of a Student’s Mother Tongue in an English Learning Classroom: An Explorative Study*”. The research advances one of Ellis’s principles of second language acquisition, namely the use of L1 in learning the L2. The authors note further attention to the use of L1 in an ESL classroom that goes beyond cultural restraints needs to be studied in the Saudi context.

In the second paper, “*Communicative Language Teaching and the Saudi EFL Learners’ Communicative Competence: An Empirical and Interventional Study*”, Dr. Paiker Fatima Mazhar Hameed shows the results of student’s learning revert back to a student’s motivation to learn and speak in the foreign language and the educator’s role and training in advancing a student’s interest to learn and use the L2. Cultural constraints underlie the challenges language teachers in the KSA face.

The third article, “*Exploring reading strategies through introspective and retrospective think-aloud protocol*” is by Dr. Abdulkhaleq A. Al Qahtani; it supports the findings of Nation *et al* that reading strategies are underpinned by a hitherto successful vocabulary acquisition learning. The results underpin some of Krashen’s well known principles that sequential learning and teaching precedes a student’s ability to strategize his comprehensible input. Critically, it is found that again culture underpins a student’s learning.

The fourth article is by Dr. Waleed B. Al Abiky who reports on the underlying difficulties a county such as Saudi Arabia, where the study of English has taken on paramount importance, comes to grips with traditional teaching methods and values that are underpinned by cultural norms combined with introducing foreign teaching methods. He ascertains that teachers of ESL should be prepared to take an eclectic approach in their teaching methods.

The fifth article is by Dr. Bashar Ragheb Hasan Odeh entitled “*Students' Attitudinal Effects of Product Writing Approach in the Saudi EFL Classroom*”. It is said that writing is one of the most critical abilities for learning a foreign language which involves creating a definition, the acquisition of mental representations of information, and awareness of subjects. While a vast range of methods to developing EFL learners has been proposed, the most commonly adopted approaches to writing remain process and product approaches. The study assessed the language and attitude effects of product approach to writing.

The sixth article in this volume is by Dr. Paiker Fatima Mazhar Hameed, “*Learner-Centered Language Learning Strategy in Digital Environment: Its Effect to Students' Vocabulary, Collaboration and Independence*”. The research investigates two important questions, namely will 3D virtual learning have a more influential impact than the teacher-centered approach and do autonomous modes of learning have more impact than the teacher-centered approach to vocabulary education in the simulated 3D environment? As we head into the coming decade, the question this research underlies goes to the very heart of the profession itself, namely will AI advances replace the human, or conversely, will advances in AI and its variations lead to further and more complex research questions for academia to investigate.

The seventh paper is by Dr. Arif Ahmed Mohammed Hassan Al-Ahdal and Dr. Fahd Hamad Alqasham entitled “*EFL writing tasks and the application of the concept of situatedness: Evaluating the theoretical and practical aspects of the Saudi EFL context*”. The researchers note that Situated Learning strategies over the last decade have predominantly focused on situated English learning in a conventional classroom setting but students' use of strategy to enhance their writing skills in online learning has been overlooked. Their study explores how the Situated Learning approach affects EFL Saudi student writing tasks (with comments extending to a global usage.) SL is an ideal tool for creating role-playing scenarios for learning, provided there is a correct balance of motivation and structure. SL builds a broad variety of language skills, leadership skills, and analysis capability.

The final paper in this Volume is by Ninuk Lustyantje and Fitria Aprilia entitled “*Reading Interest and Achievement Motivation: A Study in an EFL Context*”. Whereas studies have been conducted

on different combinations of factors that influence reading comprehension in L2, the interplay of reading interest and achievement motivation is still a new area of study and research in the Indonesian EFL environment and culture. The research shows that reading comprehension is influenced by reading interest and achievement motivation and fills an existing gap in the corpus. This is a multifaceted area of Second language Acquisition requiring further research especially relating to specific cultural underpinnings.

We hope you find this edition rewarding and valuable for your further research.

Allowing or Refusing the Use of a Student's Mother Tongue in an English Learning Classroom: An Explorative Study

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Bio-profiles

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Abstract

This study examined how students who do not speak English as their first language rely on their native tongue while studying English and participating in English courses. The researchers focused primarily on student opinions and perspectives related to their first language. Data were collected

from 175 respondents through an online survey; a questionnaire survey of 21 teachers was also used. The participants came from diverse backgrounds, were of different ages, had different English language skill levels, and spoke various first languages. The study showed that students use their first languages in a classroom for numerous reasons, which are affected by factors such as their age or their English comprehension. Teachers and students can use this study to evaluate first language usage in the classroom and improve learning outcomes by recognizing why students revert to their first languages.

Keywords: L1 (Arabic), L2 (English), ESL/EFL, Attitudes, Positive, Negative

Introduction

Instructors want students to immerse themselves deeply in the curriculum they are studying, yet this effort can cause stress and a sense of disequilibrium for students. Hence, foreign language teachers coax students out of their comfort zones as they expose them to a new language (Alharthi, 2020, Artieda, 2017; Dewaele & Salomidou, 2017; Tribushinina, Dubinkina-Elgart, & Rabkina, 2020). People in an unfamiliar setting sometimes struggle to stay connected to their roots, which offer a familiar haven. English language students exemplify this reliance on the known when they revert to their native tongues when learning a second language (L2). The first language (L1) helps an individual to understand his or her culture and assert some understanding or control of a confusing situation. This paper focuses on exploring students' perspectives of and habits when using an L1 in an English course. The researchers explore how experts have assessed L1 use and dealt with it in English courses while also examining various classroom approaches that encourage or discourage L1 use, before investigating how bilingualism affects the habit of relying on a native tongue.

Much of the existing research surrounding students' use of L1s in English classes has come from classroom observations. This concentration on the professional has left a sizeable gap as L2 students who use an L1 are often not included in these studies. Cook (2001) evaluated L1 use in the classroom and discussed some of the potential benefits of using native languages in L2 courses. Her research focused on how various language systems conflict with one another in certain aspects, such as grammar and syntax, so that students must focus entirely on an L2 to comprehend it. Cook's position, which is common among linguists and educators, insists that students must reduce

or eliminate their L1 usage to integrate the new linguistics of an L2. Exposure is also considered essential to understanding a new language; therefore, students are encouraged to speak entirely in the L2 and interact with people who are native speakers of the L2. Despite being encouraged to separate their languages, students often compared and contrasted characteristics of the L1 and L2 as they learned the L2 (Cook, 2001).

Cook (2001) also examined the processes for developing languages, revealing that, when students began learning their L1, they did not understand other languages to facilitate learning. As a result, she concluded that students should only use an L2 for language acquisition and develop skills based on their skills in their L1. Some techniques making L1 use more positive in a classroom include:

- Understanding and verifying word meaning;
- Developing grammatical skills;
- Managing students;
- Instructing students and explaining classroom rules; and
- Contacting students and families outside the classroom.

Polio and Duff (1994) addressed L1 use in English courses, probing how university educators employed English in U.S.-based foreign language courses. Their discoveries about why people rely on an L1 when learning a new language aligned with those of Cook (2001). They discussed several reasons why English might enhance a foreign language course, such as communicating directions to students, developing grammar and syntax skills, confirming vocabulary words, developing student relationships, and explaining abstract linguistic concepts. According to Polio and Duff (1994), the most common reason for using an L1 in a foreign language setting was to obtain information on the meaning of words, phrases, and concepts.

Auerbach (1993) insisted that the instructor should be the one to decide whether to use the English-only method, because every classroom and every student group are unique and no approach fits all situations. Schweers (1999) was one of the first researchers to look at L1 use from the perspective of the language student. He researched why and how often students relied on their L1 in English courses, focusing specifically on Spanish students at the University of Puerto Rico. Approximately 88.7% of students believed speaking Spanish should be allowed in L2 English courses, whereas no instructor at the university supported the idea; this showed a stark contrast in how the two groups viewed the issue. Likewise, no student interviewed thought instructors should only use

English outside the classroom, with many students and instructors agreeing that Spanish should be used to explain complicated concepts. Both sides showed very little support for using Spanish for English testing, with only 6.4% of the students favoring the idea. Students unanimously believed Spanish should be practiced 30% of the time, and 1.1% of the participants thought 90% of the time was appropriate. Approximately 68.3% of students admitted to using Spanish in English courses to avoid confusion.

Experts conducting instructor-centric studies have found that instructors and students have sharply contrasting views of the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms. Rodriguez Juarez and Oxbrow (2008) revealed that most of the students interviewed in their study claimed that L1 use in an English classroom improved their learning experience; most preferred to have grammar explained in their L1 rather than English. However, the students asserted that instructions and other activities should be in English instead of the L1. Hence, students mostly agreed with and supported L1 use in L2 classrooms, at least in specific situations. Scholars should investigate these issues further to understand the basis of these beliefs and why students feel they are presenting viable options.

Literature Review

L1 use in English classrooms has remained a contentious issue among researchers, instructors, and students. Each person possesses a unique opinion on the issue based on a unique perspective and preference. The researchers examine studies focusing on using an L1(Arabic) in English classrooms and provide insights into this ongoing discussion.

First Language Usage

Most research surrounding L1 use has focused on a broad, generalized examination of specific languages or viewpoints. Historically exploring expert insights might shed light on L1 use in an L2 setting. Cook (2001) analyzed reasons for supporting L1 use in English courses, refuting the claim that a student's knowledge of one language might interfere with the learning of another language. Cook (2001) contended that students in a language course interpret and understand linguistic information better than they are given credit for and can use their knowledge of their L1 to better grasp an L2. Students could connect the L1 and L2 in their minds based on phonology and grammar, even if an instructor went to great lengths to separate the two languages. Miming or

providing physical examples did not prevent students from applying an understanding of an L1 to the learning of an L2. Instead, Cook (2001) suggested several ways instructors could leverage L1 knowledge in their curricula to explain word meanings and grammatical concepts. Teachers often used their students' L1 to explain what words meant and how they were used. These findings led Cook (2001) to recommend that instructors use students' L1 to teach as long as L1 use remains minimal.

Of course, any research into the nature of L1 use in English courses would not be complete without exploring student perspectives. Kim, Kweon, & Kim (2017) assessed English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) in Korean higher education was studied in the engineering colleges. This research aimed to study students' perceptions of EMI and L1 use in EMI classes of engineering and to include directions for EMI to be followed by Korean engineering schools. A research was carried out by the undergraduate students of the three universities. Five hundred and twenty-four students were in the sample, with more students insufficient than enough in terms of English, and most students opted to study middle Korean instead of EMI. However, most research participants believed that the EMI should be sustained, but that it should strengthen compulsory school policies. Furthermore, the usage of L1 in EMI classrooms was preferred by students without school differentiation: about 90 percent of pupils in any school accepted that L1 should be used to help them learn.

Kovačić and Kirinić (2011) also looked at L1 use in the classroom through the lens of a specific language, Croatian, in English for specific purposes (ESP) courses. They approached both students and instructors about whether or not students' L1s should be used in classrooms, measuring how they interpreted the regularity, utility, and suitability of L1 use in an English course. Both instructors and students agreed that L1 use could help in a specific context, but some differences did exist between the two groups. For example, 56.1% of students stated they occasionally preferred to use Croatian, but only approximately 45% of instructors agreed. In addition, 50.9% of students preferred instructors to use their L1 in class moderately. Moreover, 73.1% of students and 80% of teachers believed that using Croatian remained essential to learning. Most participants across both groups agreed that using a student's L1 facilitated the teaching of complicated or abstract concepts. Consequently, experts have demonstrated that L1 use benefits English learning, although no researcher has comprehensively analyzed students' perspectives on

this issue. Because of this gap in understanding, the current study focuses on research related to students and their opinions.

Asif, Bashir and Zafar (2018) noted that English is already a core pedagogy. Many advanced universities in Pakistan use English as their medium, but students and teachers, particularly Urdu, were engaged in their first languages. This study has been done at the Center of Communication and Cultural Studies at the University of Management and Technology to explore whether students and teachers are limited to interactions in English. Qualitative techniques for characterizing English-only variables have been used. The surveys have shown that most students wish to learn English, but know certain core elements that keep them from learning English in schools. Linguistic, human, social, psychological and structural influences became key factors focused primarily on objectives, theories, desires and wishes.

Student Attitudes Toward Using Their L1s with Different Languages

Despite the value of discussing student perspectives on L1 use in English courses, few experts have looked into this topic; those who have discussed it tended to focus on comparing students' and instructors' opinions. Khati (2011) performed a study similar to that of Sharma, focusing on L1 use in an English course, and it yielded similar results. In addition to exploring students' perspectives, Khati (2011) asserted that L1 use in English courses could improve the acquisition and understanding of various subjects beyond English. He reported that allowing students to use their L1s as needed could improve learning rather than impede it. Although these studies provided critical information about students' perceptions, they only sparsely analyzed the reasoning used by the students. The current study concentrates not only on L1 use and opinions regarding it, but also on assessing other issues related to L1 use and varying linguistic skill levels.

Alshammari (2011) found that 61% of students and 69% of instructors supported using Arabic in English courses, the inverse of the other experts' findings, with instructors favoring Arabic use more highly than students. Furthermore, 54% of students supported explaining new words and concepts in Arabic, but only 5% favored Arabic instruction all the time. Conversely, instructors embraced using Arabic for new linguistic topics but not for discussing vocabulary words and phrases. Instructors also agreed that using Arabic in class instead of English saved time. Interestingly, 21% of all participants supported always using Arabic in English courses.

Mahmoudi and Amirkhiz (2011) scrutinized how students at various educational levels perceived the use of an L1 in English classrooms. Students across all levels embraced using English as the dominant language in class instead of their L1.

Kong and Wei (2019) analyzed from different perspectives English as Medium of Instruction (EWMI) in the Chinese context, a small number of semibiographical variables were used to assess the impact of most experiments on attitudes. Furthermore, the tests involved often demonstrate methodological limitations (e.g., loss inadequate sizes). In order to overcome these restrictions, this study investigated the effect on the attitudes of students at six Chinese tertiary institutes towards the EMI and the sociobiographical variables selected. Five recently tested factors and two others including those that have been understood, were included. The supposed injustice and risk correlated with the English language and therefore broadened the focus of this research line. Participants were highly positive regarding EMI. The study on 'perceived unfairness' and 'university' regression was described as statistically important EMI forecasters. Strategy and research implications have been discussed.

Alkhudiry and Al-Ahdal (2020) analyzed the EFL discourse of Saudi Learners. Language researchers and teachers have long been interested in discourse research as a means of assessing the mental processes affecting written or spoken writing. This research is particularly relevant for the whole Saudi EFL community since it attempts to explain the intervention pattern in the EFL success of students in their mother tongue. The purpose is to propose alternatives to this particularly confusing problem for teachers and students alike. Incidents of MT interference have been statistically identified and linguistically examined to support disturbance and damage patterns. Language breakdown was then established on ten parameters of the language. The findings illustrate, that Saudi EFL students are mainly facing written problems with a subject-verb agreement, insufficient verb form, redundancy of preposition and so on. Research would be necessary to overcome these problems in the early stages of EFL exposure in the pre-university scene.

In conclusion, existing research on L1 use in language courses is heavily weighted toward teachers' perceptions, with little direct or in-depth analysis given to students' perspectives. Few scholars have conducted research set in EFL classrooms, and few have analyzed English as a second language (ESL) course. This study hopes to bring attention to this discrepancy and encourage further research into students' perspectives on L1 use in English courses.

Purpose of Study and Research Questions

The study aims to understand the perceptions and reasons of Arab learners of the English language about using Arabic in English classrooms. The study also seeks to understand the measures employed by classroom managers, teachers, and curriculum developers to prevent using Arabic in English classes.

Furthermore, the measures employed to motivate the usage of English in the classrooms are identified as well as students' perceptions towards such measures effectiveness. These research aims help to identify the positive reinforcement of using English language in English classes. Particular emphasis will be placed on differentiating between measures prescribed by an institute and those used by a specific teacher to limit pedagogy. Finally, students' opinions about punishments and positive reinforces are elicited. The following questions guide the study:

1. Why do Arab learners of the English language use Arabic in English classes?
2. What measures are employed in English classrooms to dissuade use of the Arabic language?
3. How do teachers and classroom managers motivate Arab learners of the English language to use English in classes?
4. What challenges are perceived by English teachers when teaching English to Arabic speakers?

Methodology

The current study employed a quantitative approach to assess the factors affecting the use of Arabic language in English classrooms. The study used a questionnaire survey to understand students' perspectives regarding Arabic use in English classes, the punishing behaviors that might dissuade them from resorting to Arabic while in class, and the motivators promoting them to use English.

Participants

A sample of 175 students and 21 teachers participated in the study voluntarily. The study targeted native speakers of Arabic who are learning English. Because Arabic is the L1 of many Middle Eastern nations, such as Saudi Arabia, Morocco, Egypt, Libya, Lebanon, Jordan, and Yemen, the sample was expected to be multicultural while also having varying levels of language proficiency.

The classrooms for this study were sampled using convenience sampling so the researchers could secure prior permission from the institute, teachers, and students before administering the student questionnaire and teacher questionnaire. Although convenience sampling is considered inferior to random sampling concerning the generalizability of findings, it is believed to be justified while exploring research questions where easy access and lack of availability of a sampling frame are vital considerations (Emerson, 2015).

Instruments

An online questionnaire, consisting of 21 items, was designed to elicit students' opinions about reasons for using the Arabic in English classrooms, their teachers' ways of punishing them for using the Arabic, the ways used to dissuade them from using the Arabic, and the positive motivators for using English (Appendix A).

In addition to the student questionnaire, teachers' online questionnaire including 12 open-ended questions was used to recognize the perspectives on the negative punishments and positive reinforces used in English classrooms to encourage students to use English language only. The semi structured questions asked the teachers if they had any special tools or techniques to motivate students to use English or prevent students from reverting to Arabic. The inclusion of teacher questionnaires helped assess if the differences in pedagogy and other teacher-related factors, such as the delivery of lessons, use of teaching aids, choice of evaluation criteria, and frequency of evaluations, significantly impacted students' English learning (Appendix B).

Results

The pilot study of 10 respondents established the questionnaire's reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.84, which is considered acceptable (all values above 0.70 are believed to indicate a reliable instrument; Cohen, 2013).

Students' Questionnaire Survey

The final sample of 175 respondents included 44.51% women and 55.49% men, with two respondents choosing not to declare their gender. The majority (70.11%) were 18 to 24 years of age, 19.54% were between 25 and 34 years of age, and 8.05% were 35 to 44 years of age. As the questionnaire was administered to students, this age profile reflects the population (see Figure 1). The nationalities of the respondents were also noted. The majority were Saudi Arabian (82.67%

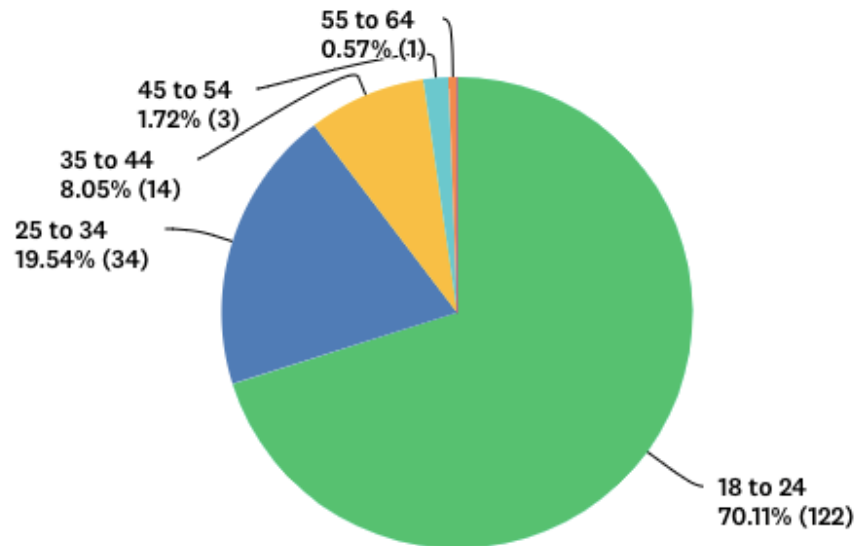


Figure 1. Age profile of respondents

of the entire sample), and 10.67% were Jordanian. Figure 2 shows the distribution of nationalities.

Jordanian	<div><div></div></div>	10.67%	16
No response	<div><div></div></div>	2%	3
Other	<div><div></div></div>	3.33%	5
Palestinian	<div><div></div></div>	1.33%	2
Saudi Arabian	<div><div></div></div>	82.67%	124

Figure 2. Nationalities of the sample

Students' language proficiency is shown in Figure 3. Of the respondents, 32.18% stated they were at the low-intermediate level, 29.31% at the high-intermediate level, and 10.34% at the low-beginner level. Most respondents had intermediate English language skills, according to their own assessments. One respondent skipped the question.

The highest educational levels of the respondents are presented in Figure 4. Six respondents declined to share their details. Most had a high school education (49.11%) or a bachelor's degree (39.05%), and smaller percentages had a master's degree (9.47%) or a doctorate (2.37%). This distribution reflects the greater opportunities for polishing language skills as students' progress through their years of education.

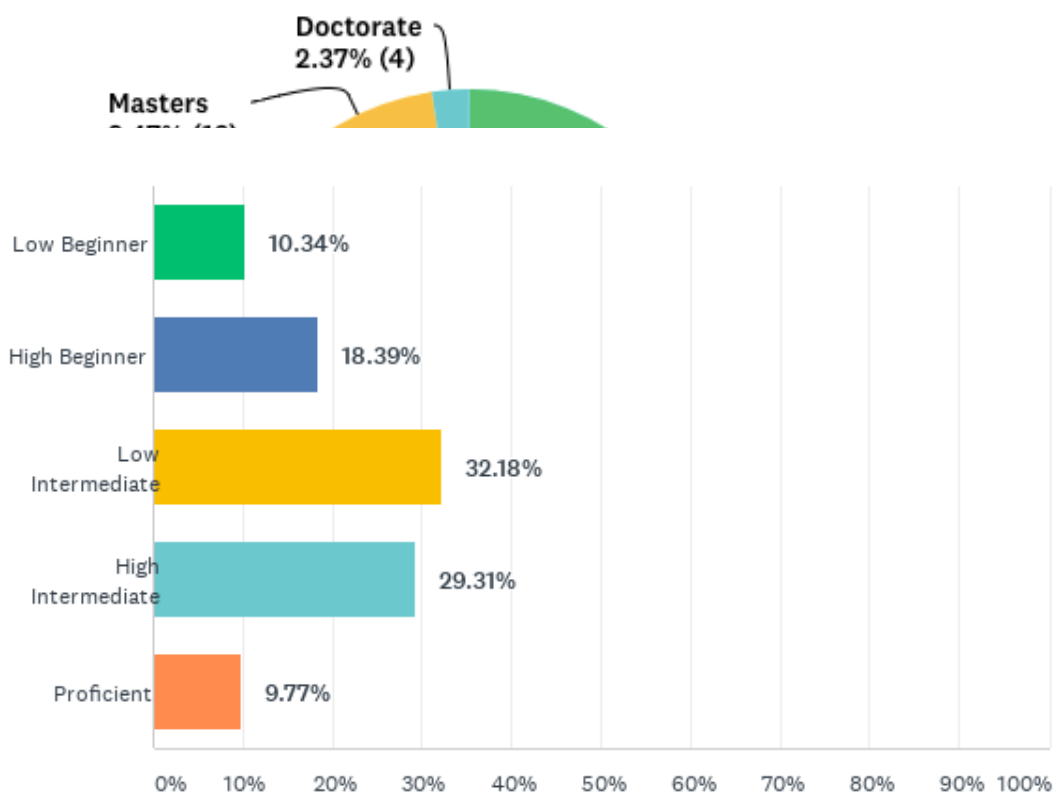


Figure 3. English proficiency of the sample

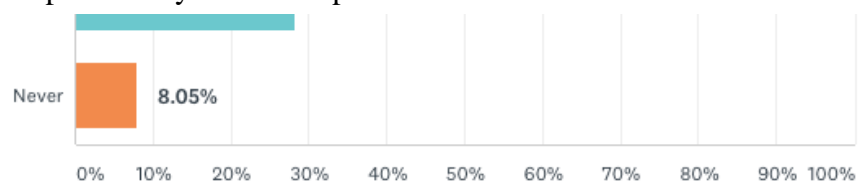


Figure 5. Frequency of use of the L1 in class

Figure 5 shows how frequently students used their L1 in the L2 classroom. Most respondents used the L1 either sometimes (28.74%) or rarely (28.16%), 22.41% used it usually, 12.64% always used it, and 8.05% never resorted to it.

When asked about their reasons for reverting to their L1, 20.69% of the respondents said that explaining a new idea was always a cause, 27.59% said that was usually a cause, and 32.76% said it was sometimes the cause. Only 5.75% said that explaining a new idea was never a reason. Using the L1 to chat with classmates had even more support, with 35.06% saying they preferred to always chat in their native language, 28.74% saying they usually preferred to do so, and 21.84% saying they sometimes preferred to do so. Only 6.90% of respondents said they never chatted with their classmates in Arabic during class.

Students seemed to have more discipline when they were asked about it with regard to the need to use Arabic to understand English lessons better, with only 7.56% saying they always needed to learn English lessons in Arabic, 16.86% saying they usually needed to do so, 30.23% saying they sometimes or rarely needed to do so, and 15.12% saying they never needed to do so. When asked how often they had to revert to Arabic to understand the meaning of a new word, 19.65% of respondents said always, 26.59% said usually, 28.32% said sometimes, 18.5% said rarely, and 6.94% said never. Using Arabic for self-expression was always necessary for 4.02% of respondents, usually necessary for 10.92%, and sometimes or rarely necessary for 32.76%. Only 19.54% claimed they never needed the help of Arabic to express themselves.

Of the respondents, 32.76% admitted to using Arabic when talking with classmates, 28.16% said they usually did so, 22.41% said they sometimes did so, 9.77% said they rarely did so, and 6.9% said they never did so. Regarding the use of Arabic for non-class-related work, 36.78% always used it, 30.46% usually used it, and 19.54% sometimes used it. When asked, 38.73% said they always needed to use Arabic to feel connected to their culture, 23.7% said they usually did, and 23.12% said they sometimes did. When asked whether they used Arabic to complete classwork faster, 15.61% stated always, 21.39% usually, 31.21% sometimes, 24.28% rarely, and 7.51% never.

Table 1 lists the reasons for using the L1 in an L2 class and includes the mean and standard deviation values. The highest possible value for the mean was 4.

Table 1.

Reasons for Using Arabic in L2 Classrooms

Reason	Mean	Standard Deviation
To explain a new idea	1.6	1.13
To chat with classmates	1.2	1.2
To understand English lessons	2.3	1.14
To understand the meaning of a new word	1.7	1.19
To express oneself	2.5	1.05
Because classmates are using Arabic	1.3	1.22
To work on non-class-related topics	1.2	1.18
To feel connected to their culture	1.2	1.21
To complete classwork faster	1.9	1.17

The next set of questions inquired about the measures taken to dissuade students from using Arabic in class. Of the respondents, 79.07% asserted that their institutes did not impose punishment. Similar results were reported when students were asked if teachers used punishing behaviors, with 72.35% asserting no and only 27.65% saying yes. Figure 6 lists the punishing behaviors employed by teachers based on the reports of the respondents. The most common punishment reported for L1 usage was the admonition to repeat the same statement in English (53.37%), followed by a verbal warning (38.65%) and a written warning (11.04%). When asked how often the punishing behaviors seemed to be successful in changing student behavior, only 11.11% claimed always, 26.9% claimed usually, 28.07% claimed sometimes, 16.37% claimed rarely, and 17.54% claimed never.

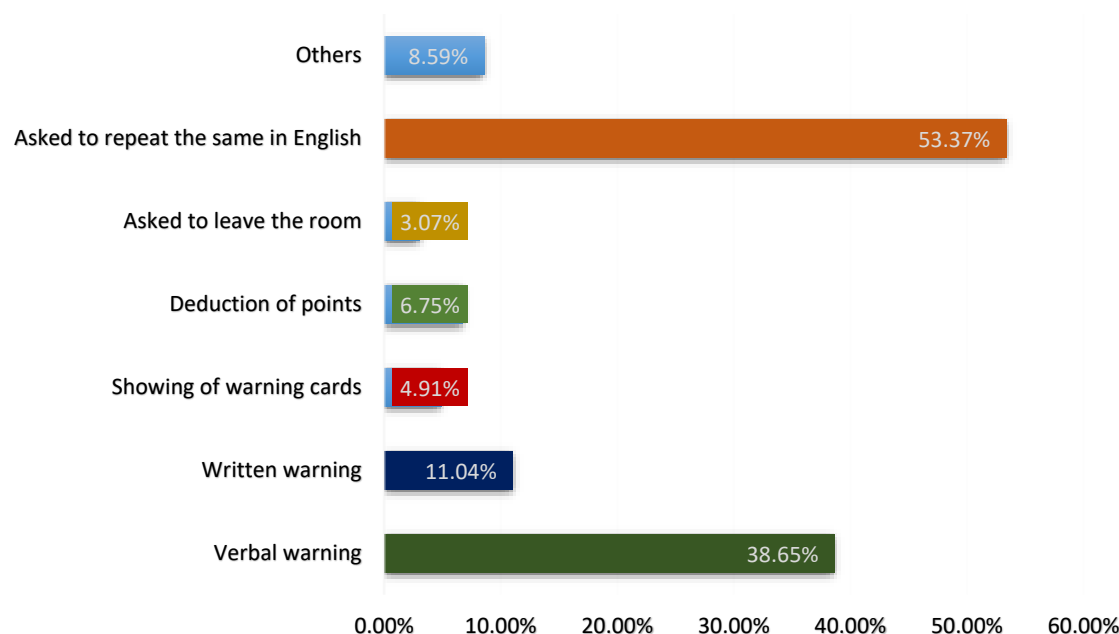


Figure 6. Punishing behaviors employed by teachers in L2 classrooms

Figure 7 shows the punishing behaviors the students would like to see employed in their classes. A majority of the respondents, 61.35%, said they would like their teachers to use the tactic of asking them to repeat the same statement in English. The other punishing behaviors received little support.

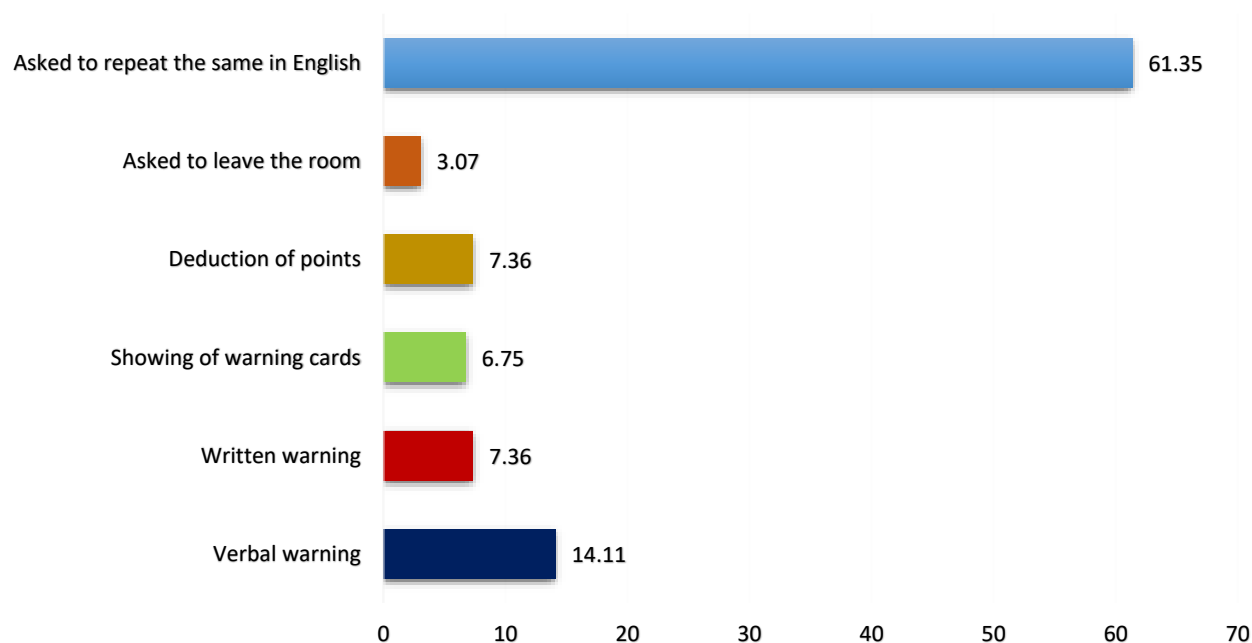


Figure 7. Punishing behaviors respondents would like to see in their classes

The next questions inquired about positive reinforcers used in the classroom that promoted English language usage. Many of the respondents, 59.76%, asserted that there was no declared policy for positive reinforcement at their institute, although 40.24% said that was such a policy. Nearly equal numbers of respondents declared that their teachers used positive reinforcers to motivate them to speak in English, with 49.12% saying they did and 50.88% saying they did not. Figure 8 lists the positive reinforcers and percentages of respondents who said that positive reinforcers were employed in their classes. A significant number of respondents (33) did not answer this question. These respondents may not have felt that positive reinforcers were used in their classes and, therefore, chose not to answer the question. Among the respondents who answered the question, 45.77% reported they were awarded points and 40.14% said they were praised.

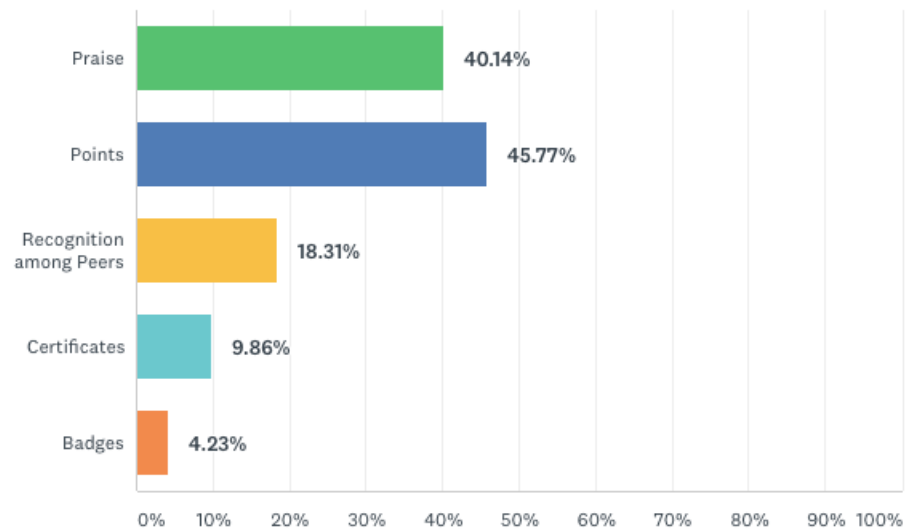


Figure 8. Positive reinforcers for promoting the usage of English in L2 classrooms
Recognition among peers was also reported (18.31%). The awarding of certificates or badges was uncommon. The responses about the success of positive reinforcement were mostly positive, with 38.82% of respondents saying it was always successful compared to 30% usually, 22.35% sometimes, 5.29% rarely, and 3.53% never. Figure 9 shows the positive reinforcers the respondents would like to see used in their classrooms.

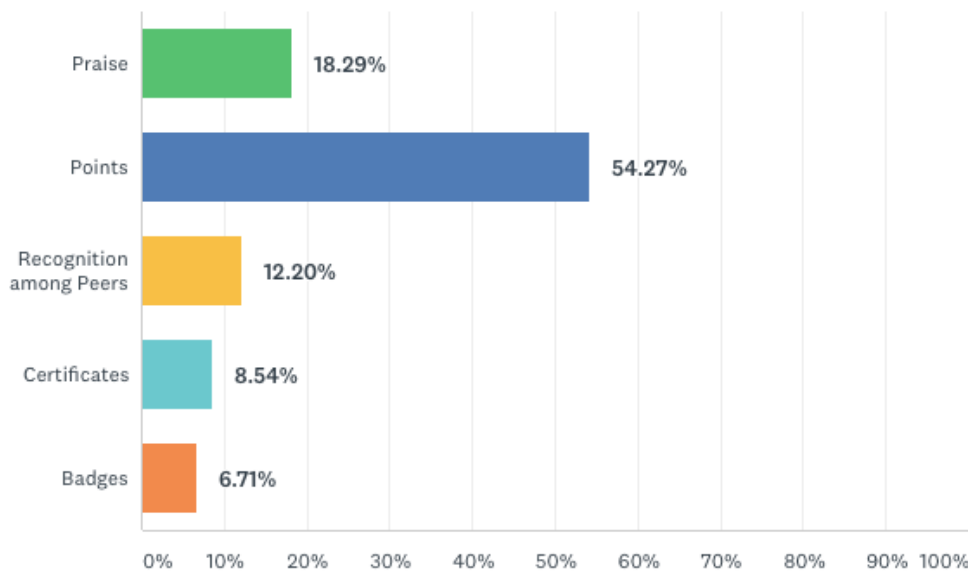


Figure 9. Positive reinforcers preferred by respondents for promoting the use of English in L2 classrooms

More than half of the respondents (54.27%) would have liked to see points awarded for English usage; praise (18.29%) and recognition (12.20%) were other popular options. When asked which motivation worked better in promoting English use, the respondents asserted that positive reinforcement was the most successful (55.23%), followed by both positive and negative reinforcement (33.14%) and then neither type of enforcement (6.4%). A small percentage, 5.23%, would have liked to see negative reinforcement employed.

Teacher Questionnaire Survey

The questionnaire for teachers employed open-ended questions. The classes taught by the teachers ranged from levels 1 to 7, with listening, speaking, and writing skills covered. The range of teaching experience varied from 3 to 30 years. When asked why L2 learners tended to use their L1 in class, half of the teachers mentioned that it was because the students lacked English skills. This lack was described for vocabulary, fluency, and ability to express what they were thinking. Seven teachers believed familiarity with their L1 pulled them toward it, and four teachers cited psychological reasons, such as hesitancy and shyness about speaking an unfamiliar language. The L1 offered ease in communication, many teachers reported.

The role of culture in influencing L1 use in the classroom received a matched response, with 10 teachers agreeing that a student's culture influenced L1 use and another 10 feeling that it

did not. One teacher claimed she could not decide what her opinion was on this matter. Among the teachers who believed culture played a role in L1 use in class, the responses suggested that students from cultures that are more open to making mistakes would be more likely to practice the L2 without feeling shame; in addition, Arabs tend to be more social than some other groups, so they may be more likely to learn the L2 while conversing.

When asked if the institute had a clear policy discouraging L1 use in the classroom, 52.38% of teachers said it did not while 23.81% asserted that there was an implicit policy but there was no explicit policy. Finally, 23.81% professed that their institute had declared that L1 was not to be used in the classroom. Among the teachers' respondents, 90.48% declared they never used any punishments to prevent the usage of L1 in class, and the remaining 9.52% (only two teachers) said they indirectly punished the use of L1 by not responding to questions unless they were stated in English. The teachers who refused to employ punishments stated that punishments did not work but positive reinforces and encouragement did work.

When teachers were asked if, in their opinions, admonishments can reduce the usage of English, surprisingly, 47.62% agreed that they could and another 19.05% answered that they might work in some circumstances. Only 28.57% reported they did not believe punishment would work. Among the teachers insisting it would not work, an example of the responses was: "L2 proficiency is a spontaneous process. It can be achieved through maximum exposure to L2, not through penalizing learners." Some thought punishment might work but felt that positive reinforcement was better. One of the teachers believed that allowing students to use their L1 might help them learn English.

Only one teacher reported a formal policy (i.e., a point system) for rewarding the non-use of L1 in the classroom, whereas all others mentioned that their institutes did not have any such policy. More than half of teachers, 57.14%, declared they did not employ a reward policy for not using the L1 in the classroom, with one teacher saying, "This will add extra anxiety to introverted students and could undermine their progress." The teachers who said they used such a policy discussed point systems and encouragement, pointing out the benefits of using English, ignoring mistakes, and awarding extra marks in their practices.

Despite the fact that more than half of the teachers did not use rewards to motivate their students to not use the L1, 66.67% believed such policies could be beneficial. A further 19.05% professed they would work but would depend on certain factors, including "the learners' level of proficiency

in L2. Sometimes, the instructor himself has to resort to L1 to fill in the gap between L1 and L2 cultural differences.” Another teacher thought it would work, but its negative impact would offset the benefits.

Of the teachers who responded to the survey, 80.95% mentioned that changes were required in the existing pedagogical framework to address students’ L1 use in L2 classes. Some of the suggested changes were providing motivation, generating a more engaging learning environment, and offering an English introductory course at the beginner’s level before embarking on the course. Some teachers disagreed and were not averse to students using the L1, including the teacher who said, “I don’t think forcing students to use only the L2 is very useful; using their first language might help them understand some difficult words or concepts, which would help them in learning the L2.”

Finally, some teachers suggested motivating students by speaking to them outside the classroom in English, customizing the curriculum according to the student’s age, and even involving the L1 in the teaching of the L2: “Sometimes the use of the L1 can be effective in connecting the form and meaning of a new vocabulary.” The use of technological aids was also recommended.

Discussion

Students use their L1 in the classroom for many reasons. The respondents in this study reported that they use Arabic, their mother tongue, to express themselves (mean 2.5, SD = 1.05), understand their L2 lessons (mean 2.3, SD = 1.14), complete classroom activities faster (mean 1.9, SD = 1.17), understand a new word (mean = 1.7, SD = 1.19), and explain new ideas (mean = 1.6, SD = 1.13). Higher average scores were seen for using the L1 to help learn English, chatting with classmates, communicating with classmates as they talk in Arabic, talking about topics not related to class, and feeling connected to the Arab culture. These reasons received more support from fewer students but were cited as having a higher frequency of usage, as indicated by the number of respondents stating they always used Arabic to fulfill these functions. Therefore, task-related and social factors were featured in the student responses.

Some experts have identified these factors as contributing to the usage of L1 in L2 classrooms. De la Fuente and Goldenberg (2020) reported that students use their L1 to understand the meaning of new words and concepts. In one seminal study, Tammenga-Helmantel, Mossing

Holsteijn and Bloemert (2020) pointed out that, if students cannot use their L1 in their English learning classroom, individuals who do not know English will detach from the language because they cannot participate. In this way, the use of the L1 can help bridge the learning gap to the new language, as students employ the L1 to understand the meanings of their lessons and new words, complete classroom activities, and explain ideas. Werang and Harrington (2020) who professed that L1 usage might have some benefits for the learning of the L2. Notably, some surveyed teachers voiced this opinion, asserting that—despite recognizing the benefits of generally discouraging the usage of the L1 in their classrooms—they still preferred to allow it sometimes because it helped students.

This insight about the L1 having a particular relevance for teachers is one of the primary findings of this paper, which leads to two questions: (1) How often should teachers allow usage of the L1? (2) If the L1 is a necessary bridge for language learning, should punishments and positive reinforces be withheld?

The first question, regarding how often teachers should allow usage of the L1, will be addressed first. Ellis (2012) as well as the teachers surveyed in this study, believed that circumstances and the teacher's judgment should ultimately decide these cases. It is noteworthy that earlier studies indicated that students primarily supported L1 usage in learning, especially when explaining a new concept or introducing grammar (Antonova-Unlu and Wei, 2020; van Rijt, et al, 2019; Antonova-Ünlü, 2020). Shvidko (2017) pointed out that having an English-only policy in L2 classrooms could instill positive attitudes, such as improved English proficiency, better preparation for interactions outside the classroom, and a more respectful environment for students and teachers and their learning goals. It has been noted that Saudi EFL teachers have been reported to be aware of the pragmatic competence of using L1 to teach L2 but their implementation is still lagging behind (Al-Qahtani, 2020; Tulung, 2020; Li, Zhao, & Han, 2020; Chien, et al, 2020).

The second question was, if the L1 is a necessary bridge for language learning, should punishments and positive reinforces be withheld? The answer to this question is complicated. On their questionnaires, students and teachers were asked if they had formal policies about such motivators. Significantly few students admitted to experiencing formal punishment policies for dissuading them from speaking in their L1, with 20.93% of students stating that their institutes had such a policy and 27.65% reporting that their teachers used such measures. However, more than half reported that being asked to repeat a statement in English was a punishing behavior that could

also be construed as a positive reinforce. Other punishing behaviors were limited to verbal and written warnings—the latter in rare cases (11.04%). The teachers confirmed the students' statements, with 23.81% saying that there was no explicit policy that forbade L1 use. Another 23.81% added that there was an implicit policy discouraging the use of the L1 in the classroom. Most teachers (90.48%) contended they did not like to punish their students for using the L1, although nearly half (47.62%) agreed that punishments work and an additional 19.05% claimed they might work in certain circumstances. Students buttressed the success of punishing behaviors, with 66.08% claiming they sometimes or always work. Most students (61.35%) were prepared to repeat the statement made in the L1 in English, but very few (14.11%) were ready for a verbal warning.

Neither the teachers nor the students preferred punishing behaviors unless they were learning tools. None of the punitive behaviors, such as deducting points, issuing warning cards or written warnings, or being asked to leave the room, received much support from teachers or students.

Macaro, Tian, and Chu (2020) bolstered these findings, reporting that any hostile environment in the classroom detracted from the learning process, fostered negativity about the L1, and undermined the effectiveness of the English language. These researchers also asserted that only those actions encouraging L2 use, promoting independent language use, and enabling the learning culture should be promoted. Lee and Levine (2020) who reported some positive benefits of a formal policy against the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms, pointed out that students feel such policies and admonishments encroach on their agency and can lead to negativity. Moreover, the anxiety in students while learning L1 can actually affect their reading skills and achievement in class (Alhuwaydi, 2020, Blankenbeckler, 2020; Carter et al, 2020; Fall, 2020; Wicht, Rammstedt & Lechner, 2020). Furthermore, students who have lower levels of anxiety perform better in L2 classes. Therefore, the context of the learning and the students' and teachers' perspectives on it matter when deciding to use punishing behaviors.

Conversely, the questionnaires asked if the institute had a formal policy on employing positive reinforcement or whether teachers used it as their chosen practice. Among the students, 59.76% said their institute had no such policy, and only one teacher agreed. Moreover, 50.88% of students added that their teachers did not use any positive reinforcers to encourage them to speak in the L2. Among the teachers, 66.67% agreed that positive reinforcers could encourage English

use and learning. The positive reinforces identified by respondents were formal ones, such as a point system (45.77%), and informal ones, such as praise (40.14%) and recognition by peers (18.31%). More formal awards, such as giving certificates (9.86%) or badges (4.23%), were not popular. This showed a weakness in teaching L2s because formal policies for positive reinforcement can enhance learning. Technology has enabled the generation of digital badges related to a service user's learning experience, which has been found to be significantly and positively related to the learning experience and satisfaction of the service users. Such aids can help in enhancing the students' desire to learn the L2.

Conclusion

This study explored why Arab L2 learners use their mother tongue in the classroom. A variety of factors emerged, including social factors and factors related to language learning, indicating that the mother tongue is difficult to remove entirely from student discourse. The study also looked at whether the presence of a punishment policy at an institute or the use of punishment by teachers inhibits students from using their L1 during class. The results showed that neither students nor teachers favored such behaviors unless they also had a positive learning component, such as asking a student to repeat a statement in English. Some teachers believed that the L1 can act as a bridge to the learning of the L2; existing literature supports this idea. When students and teachers were asked if they would like to implement a reward policy, the response was more positive, but the existing learning frameworks do not support such an effort—at least in terms of formal institute policies. As a result, this study suggests that administrators and teachers at educational institutes should introduce positive reinforcements to encourage students to use English during classes.

Pedagogical Implications

The pedagogical implications of this study include a need to establish a formal positive reinforcement policy and practice within classrooms that clarifies to the students when they can use L1 and how it can help them move toward learning L2. The use of technological aids (e.g., digital badges) or even non-technological ones (e.g., a points system) that recognize positive effort is needed. With Saudi ESL teachers lagging behind in the pragmatic competence implementation of L1 in their classrooms. Recommendation that they be asked to convey some of their speech acts

in daily activities in L1 and provide them with some training for better awareness of how to employ pragmatics in teaching hold merit.

Limitations and Recommendations for Further Study

The limitations of this research related to its focus exclusively on Arab students learning English. More studies that explore other contexts of L1 and L2 learning are needed to substantiate the findings of this study. The shared teacher suggestions that could improve the current pedagogical framework of teaching in L2 classrooms include the shift to a more motivated form of teaching pedagogy, with both students and teachers recommending the addition of either positive reinforces or positive and negative reinforces. The results indicated that teachers and students should introduce formal policies and informal measures encouraging students to speak in English without resorting to punishing behaviors for preventing the use of the L1. The respondents' opinions in this study and the existing body of knowledge suggest that the L1 could and should be employed to bridge the learning path to the L2. Forbidding the use of the L1 makes students feel psychological alienation, hesitancy, shyness, and even shame, all of which contribute to negative perceptions about the L1 and the learning of the L2. Further studies should explore the impact of gender on using Arabic language in English language classes. It is worthy to explore the use of Arabic in online English classes and whether technology has effect on using L1 or not as Alghammas (2020) reports that using technology in English classes improves Saudis' speaking skills. It is also presented that the study only used a quantitative research design. Future studies should be carried out utilizing experimental research methods to be backed up by qualitative analysis to cross validate the findings of the current study.

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Appendix A

Questionnaire for Arab L2 Learners of English

This study aims to assess why Arab L2 learners of the English language use their first language in classrooms. It also explores the measures utilized to discourage using the first language and the positive influencers for using a second language. Before agreeing to participate in this study, you should be informed that no identifying details are collected during this study or shared with any third-party agencies for any commercial purposes. Furthermore, all responses collected during this study will be kept confidential with the researchers. As a participant of this study, you retain the right to withdraw your voluntary support and participation at any stage of this research. If you so wish, the study results will be shared with you after they have been compiled and processed. We remain sincerely indebted to you for your time and efforts in answering this 15-minute questionnaire.

Part A. General Personal Information

1. Please indicate your gender
 - a. Female b. Male
2. What is your age?
3. What is your nationality?
4. How would you describe your proficiency in the English language?
 - a. Low Beginner b. High Beginner c. Low Intermediate d. High Intermediate e. Proficient
5. What are your educational qualifications?
 - a. High school diploma b. Bachelor's degree c. Master's degree d. Doctorate e. Other

Part B. Reasons for Using the First Language during L2 Learning

1. How often do you use Arabic in the classroom?
 - a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently
2. Do you use Arabic to explain a new concept to your peers?
 - a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

3. Do you prefer to chat with your classmates in Arabic?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

4. How often do you need the help of Arabic to understand an English lesson?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

5. Do you need to refer to Arabic to understand the meaning of a new word?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

6. How often do you resort to Arabic because you cannot express yourself in class?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

7. How often do you talk in Arabic because your friends are talking in the language?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

8. How often do you use Arabic to talk about non-class-related topics with your peers?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

9. Do you use Arabic because it makes you feel connected to your culture?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

10. Do you resort to Arabic because it helps you complete class activities faster?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

Part C. Punishment for Using Arabic

11. Does your institute have a declared policy for punishing students who speak Arabic during class?

- a. Yes b. No

12. Does your teacher use punishing behavior to dissuade students from using Arabic in class?

- a. Yes b. No

13. Which of these punishing behaviors are used by your teacher to discourage the usage of Arabic during class?

- a. Verbal warning
- b. Written warning
- c. Showing of warning cards
- d. Deducting points
- e. Asking the student to leave the room
- f. Asking the student to repeat the same statement in English
- g. Other: _____

14. Do you believe the punishing behaviors are successful?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

15. What punishing behaviors would you like your teacher to employ to discourage the use of Arabic in class?

- a. Verbal warning
- b. Written warning
- c. Showing of warning cards
- d. Deducting points
- e. Asking the student to leave the room
- f. Asking the student to repeat the same statement in English
- g. Other: _____

Part D. Positive Reinforcement for Not Using Arabic

16. Does your institute have a declared policy for positive reinforcement for students who do not speak Arabic during class?

- a. Yes b. No

17. Does your teacher use positive reinforcement for students who do not speak Arabic during class?

- a. Yes b. No

18. Which of these positive reinforcers are used by your teacher to discourage the usage of Arabic during class?

- a. Praise
- b. Points
- c. Recognition among peers
- d. Certificates
- e. Badges
- f. Other: _____

19. Do you believe that positive reinforcement is successful?

- a. Never b. Rarely c. Sometimes d. Frequently

20. What positive reinforcers would you like your teacher to employ to discourage the use of Arabic in class?

- a. Praise
- b. Points
- c. Recognition among peers
- d. Certificates
- e. Badges
- f. Other: _____

21. Which techniques do you believe are more effective in promoting the use of English?

Appendix B

Questionnaire Survey for Teachers

Q1. What classes are you teaching?

Q2. How many years have you been teaching English to L2 learners?

Q3. In your opinion, why do L2 learners resort to their first language in class?

Q4. Do you feel that a student's cultural origin affects the use of the first language in class? For example, is there any difference between Arab learners and other students when using the first language in class?

Q5. Does your institute have any policy for discouraging the use of the first language in L2 classes? If so, what does it say?

Q6. Do you personally use any punishing behaviors to dissuade students from using their first language in an L2 class?

Q7. Do you feel such punishing behaviors are effective in discouraging students from using their first language in class?

Q8. Does your institute have any formal policy for rewarding students for not using their first language in class?

Q9. Do you personally use any rewarding techniques to encourage students not to use their first language in an L2 class?

Q10. Do you feel that this positive reinforcement effectively encourages students not to use their first language in class?

Q11. Do you feel that any changes are required in the existing pedagogical framework to address students' use of their first language in class?

Q12. Would you like to add anything to the topic of study?

Exploring reading strategies through introspective and retrospective think-aloud protocol

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Abstract

The present study reports reading strategies of Arabic L1 EFL college-level learners at three reading ability levels: high, medium, and low. Thirty students were asked to take the reading section of the TOFEL to determine their reading abilities. Then two participants from each level were selected randomly to go through the think-aloud protocol and the retrospective report. Then they were interviewed for further insights. Ten reading strategies were identified with the high ability, 10 with the medium ability, and 2 with the low power. The findings support that each reading ability employs these strategies differently and apparently for different purposes. Pedagogical suggestions were presented.

Keywords: EFL, introspective think aloud, L1 interference, reading strategies, retrospective reporting.

1. Introduction

It is a fact that reading is at the essence of literacy. As reading ability goes higher, academic success positively correlates (Grabe, 1991; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Al-Ahdal, 2020). This importance kept educators and researchers on their tiptoes to analyze the underpinnings of reading and the skills required to enhance their students' reading abilities. A sizable amount of research was geared to find a possible relationship between reading comprehension and reading strategies (ex. Giath and El-Sanyoura, 2019; Gurses & Bouvet, 2016; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Malcolm, 2009; Park, 2010). Many studies yielded mixed results as to the extent to which reading strategies correlate positively to reading comprehension. Many of these studies were quantitative and were done with various learners from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. For example, there are studies which were conducted with Persian EFL learners like Ahmadian & Pasand (2017) and Koshima & Samani (2014), with Arab EFL students like Al-Sobhani (2018) and Meniado (2016), with Taiwanese EFL learners such as Chen (2015), etc.

There are three possible explanations for the inconsistent results when it comes to reading strategies and comprehension relationship. First, it seems that there are cultural/educational/linguistic features that do not share with other cultures or at least have their approach to literacy in L1, and that approach affects the way they handle reading in L2, as contended by Abbott (2006) and Bang & Zhao (2007). This explanation may account for the discrepancies found in numerous replicated studies with various groups of EFL learners. Second, the reading ability level of the participants in those studies could account for the mixed results. High ability readers tend to use strategies in a way that is different from lower ability learners (Gaith & El-Sanyoura, 2019; Malcolm, 2009; Lai, Li & Amster, 2013; Zhou & Zhao, 2014; Alkhudiry & Al-Ahdal, 2020; Almakrob & Al-Ahdal, 2020).

The third possible explanation could be ascribed to research methodology. From about 30 studies that I reviewed partially for methodological purposes since the year 2000, only Abbott (2006) and Bang & Zhao (2007) were qualitative. All the other studies were quantitative and were based mainly on preceptive reports about strategy use. This might have caused the inconsistency in the results of previous research. Twenty years ago, Lazaraton (2000) reported a paucity of qualitative research in applied linguistics in the nineties, and it appears that the same scarcity remains until now. Thus, the need for qualitative studies to describe the actual use of reading strategies by EFL learners from a given culture at various reading abilities is appealing and well-justified.

The present study explores the reading strategies relevant to Arabic L1 learners of English as a foreign language at three reading ability levels: high, medium, and low. It specifically seeks to answer the following key questions:

1. what are the strategies that Arabic L1 students use when they read English as a foreign language?
2. Will different ability readers use other methods?

2. Method

2.1 Participants

The participants were selected in two phases: First, a whole class of thirty EFL college students was asked to participate in the present study. They were all enrolled in third-semester reading comprehension class in an English BA program at one major university in Saudi Arabia. They were all male and their ages ranged between 19-23 years old. The participants were recruited as volunteers who would receive 10% extra marks in the reading course. The class was selected randomly from 8 other courses/sections enrolled in the same reading course. It is hoped that this class is representative of the general population of enrolled university students. In the second phase and based on test results, only six were selected: two students at three ability levels: High, medium, and low.

2.2 Materials

Three types of materials were employed in this study. First, an older version of the reading section of the TOFEL were retrieved from the WWW (the World Wide Web). A think-aloud Protocol and a retrospective report about their reading process were gathered through audio recording and note-taking. Third, based on their reports, a semi-structured interview questions were asked for further clarification.

The TOFEL test consisted of five passages with varying topics and difficulty levels. The test is valid and reliable and widely accepted globally as a valid assessor of reading ability. The Think-aloud Protocol is one of the best techniques to measure higher-order mental processes (Olsen, et al, 1984). The retrospective report was also essential to cover the elliptical nature of the think-aloud procedure. Both procedures were audio recorded during the second phase of data collection concurrently (without interruption). The audio-records were saved in audio files on a smartphone. After the think-aloud protocol finished, the participants are prompted to describe their reading process as it has just happened.

Then, they would answer five questions based on their specific performances. The interview questions were meant to elicit information about how they rated their comprehension and described the kind of problems they faced and how they solved them. Thus, each participant had to answer a set of questions that were adapted based on their reports in the think-aloud and the retrospective report.

2.3 Procedures

This study aimed to explore the reading strategies or techniques that are commonly used by EFL learners whose L1 is Arabic. We need to sort the participants according to their reading ability levels. Thus, the ability levels were determined by having participants sit for a reading section of the TOFEL test. Based on their reading test performance, they were divided into three groups: High, medium, and low-ability readers.

Then the concurrent and retrospective think-aloud protocol was employed to identify those strategies; the elicited techniques should reflect the actual reading strategies used not the perceived ones (actual use not opinion which is an established strength of the think-aloud protocol, usability). To do so, all participants read the TOFEL passages and responded to the questions during one of the class meetings that went on for 60 minutes. After that, a total of six participants were randomly selected after sorting the three levels: two participants from each level. They were interviewed by the researcher and were asked to describe their reading processing in one of the passages where they performed the highest. They were asked to read each passage individually, verbalize their thoughts while reading, and then stopped and asked to describe their mental processes without knowing how they did in those passages. The whole procedure of thinking aloud and the retrospective report was audiotaped for further reflection and analysis by the researcher. Then, the interview questions followed.

Since the language used in the think-aloud and the retrospective report was Arabic, the participants were summoned once more couple of days later to doublecheck that what was translated into English was an accurate representation of their intentions.

2.4 Analysis

The artifacts were collected, the participants were given ID numbers and were assigned to their ability levels according to their performance on the TOFEL. Those who scored one standard deviations above the mean were considered high ability, and one below the mean were low. The rest were considered medium ability. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the test results.

Table 1: the descriptive statistics of the TOFEL scores

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
TOFEL Score	30	7	25	13.10	4.286
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Then, two participants from each level were selected randomly to do the concurrent (introspective) and retrospective think aloud protocol. The researcher gathered the six participants to a meeting. In the meeting, the researcher modeled the think-aloud procedure couple of times until the participants got the hang of it. Then one from each level rehearsed the procedure to the group to make sure they know the exact task. They would be asked to verbalize their thoughts and after reading will describe their reading process in Arabic, their reports would be transcribed in Arabic. Afterwards, they would be asked the five interview questions in Arabic and their responses would be written down. Then, the reported strategies were identified and typified. They were discussed and conclusions were made.

3. Results and discussion

To answer the first question, “What are the strategies that Arabic L1 students use when they read English as a foreign language?” , and the second question, “will different ability readers use different strategies?”, six participants were randomly chosen from the 30 students pool based on their levels, two from high, two from medium, and two from the low reading ability levels.

3.1 The two high ability participants

the scores of the two participants were: 25, and 24 of 30. They were assigned the numbers 1 and 2 as IDs, respectively.

3.1.1 No. 1 Participant

The first student came to the meeting and was asked to read the first passage in which he attained the full score, Passage 2, he attained the full score in passages 2 and 3 (see appendix A). Following the modeling session procedure, he glanced over the entire passage up and down, and then he started reading to himself, he tended to raise his voice in the middle of each sentence around the verb phrase. He slowed down at some points and stopped at certain words then moved ahead a little bit and reread the sentence in which the word occurred. Then moved on following the same pace until the end. When asked to report his reading process in retrospect, he stopped and recollected saying that he did not know one word (debris) and tried to guess its meaning but could

not (he said that he replaced it by the word waste in his mind). He stopped when he made this exchange of meaning. he reread a few sentences and tried to connect the topic to a video that he watched on YouTube about communication satellites.

The interview session started immediately by the first question:

How well did you comprehend the passages: 1, 2, and 3? (for this participant they were Passages 2,4, & 5 respectively)

He replied around 95% for Passage 1. He claimed that if he knew that word it would have been 100%. As for passages 2 &3, he claimed his comprehension to be around 85%. The lack of comprehension was ascribed to unknown words and insufficient familiarity with the topics. He also said that pondering ones understanding of a written text help enhance comprehension. When asked how, he said,” after reading I usually check my comprehension and review the passage and think about it.” I said, but I did not see you doing this, he said, “I already know this topic very well. The reading did not add to my knowledge about the topic.”

Why were you raising your voice around the verb phrase in almost every sentence? He said, “I don’t know, I think I do that when I believe I got the point in that sentence”. He added, “at times I do that when I meet an unfamiliar word or a new idea that I did not connect to my understanding of the passage”.

You were repeated some of the sentences that you read, did you look ahead to the following sentences? he inquired about the exact meaning and said, “ yes I usually move my eyes to the subsequent sentence to confirm my understanding of the ideas already established from the previous sentences, I try to connect them”.

What do you do when you face a new word that you could not possibly know? He said that he would try to make a meaning for that word that fits the general understanding of the whole passage. he said that he usually replaces such words with his own words that would fit the general meaning. When asked about dictionary use, he said that it would be a wasted time at the expense of the flow of ideas. I asked he to elaborate, and he said, “when I am reading, I construct a mental dialogue with myself about the topic, pulling up a dictionary would be like someone who disrupts your line of thought by a question in the middle”.

What would you add to our curriculum that you think would help you enhance your reading ability? He replied, “I believe if you would assign extra readings to the students to read on their own other than the assigned texts, the reading level would rise”.

3.1.2 No. 2 Participant

This participant attained the full mark on Passage 3 (Appendix A). Therefore, he was asked to read it according to the think aloud protocol that we rehearsed in the training session. He looked at the passage from beginning to end. Then, he read aloud in almost monotonous tone with higher pitch at the end of each sentence. He seemed to jump whole words and phrases and then at the *1.6 km phrase*, he stopped and said “amazing”. Then he stopped in the second paragraph at *the phrase 100* and then moved on. He was raising his voice pitch at the last word in almost each sentence, and then he stopped and moved his eyeballs ahead and then resumes reading. After he finished, he said, “I love this”, reflecting about the entire passage. Retrospectively, he reported in Arabic that he loves this topic and watched a few documentaries on bacteria. He reported that he reads the familiar topics with ease and that help him use English and expand his vocabulary size. He also said that he previewed the whole passage and he remembered that he liked it when he sat for the exam the first time.

The interview followed immediately:

How well did you comprehend the passages: 1, 2, and 3? (for this participant they were Passages 3,2, & 1 respectively) He replied for Passage 3, I had no problem I found it very easy and informative. He thought that he felt as if he were reading it in Arabic. Passage 2 (scored 5/6, the missing point was question 4, reference question) provided a lot of information. He said that he is not fond of these types of topics particularly issues that are related to physics. As for Passage 1, (scored 3/5. He missed items 2 &5) he believes that he got it right except for unfamiliarity with two or three words like the word *feat* in the passage. he complained about the large number of passages and questions that worried him when he received the test paper. He had a general look at the entire exam and quick glance at the questions. He did not actually mark the answers on the exam sheet for the two items he missed in Passage 1. He reported that he got preoccupied with the amount of work that he had to do in 60 minutes.

Why were you raising your voice at the end of almost every sentence and then paused for a second or two? He recollected and then said, “yes, I was actually previewing the following sentence not reflecting on the said word”. I, the researcher, have noticed that his eyeballs were moving forward. I did not tell him about my observation so I would not be leading the witness, as the saying goes. That reported previewing was possibly the reason for those quick jumps that I observed.

What do you do when you face a new word that you could not possibly know? he responded to this question by saying, “Nothing. I just ignore it and if I feel it was a key to understanding, I underline it and look it up in my dictionary application”. I asked, “what if you were in the exam and you were not allowed a dictionary”, he said, “I would try to guess it form context”. I asked about how often he used dictionaries when he reads, and he replied, “I do not use a dictionary when I read passages and chapters, I usually understand without looking up single words here and there.”

What would you add to our curriculum that you think would help you enhance your reading ability? He said that we should concentrate more on vocabulary building exercises in our reading classes because reading is about vocabulary that if you do not have, your reading would be meaningless.

I did not ask this participant about rereading strategy because he did not display it in the reading aloud or the retrospective report. However, he did reflect on his general understanding and pondered the ideas in the text.

To sum up, the two high ability participants manifested high use of reading strategies. The researcher did not ask about them directly, but they were observed while they were in actual use during think-aloud protocol and retrospective reports. The questions helped clarify the observed behaviors. The following reading strategies were observed:

- previewing the text, its length and structure.
- Moving back and forth around unfamiliar words
- Glancing ahead to confirm understanding
- Guessing meaning of unfamiliar diction from context
- Connecting the topic to previous knowledge
- Speed reading when there is no comprehension need to slow down
- Slowing down to construct meaning
- Raising their voice to indicate difficulty
- Connecting ideas within the text through repetition and moving eyeballs ahead
- Reflecting and checking their comprehension after reading

3.2 The two medium ability participants

The two participants in this group scored 15 and 14 out of 30. They were assigned the numbers 1 and 2 as IDs, respectively.

3.2.1 No. 1 Participant

The first participant in the intermediate level scored 15/30. The best score was on Passage 1 where he made 3/5. I asked him to read the passage following the read aloud protocol model. He started by looking up and down the passage and then said, “okay”. He read loud enough for me to hear and annunciate each word as if it stands alone. He mispronounced several words, I took note of them without interruption, he reread the second and third sentences. and moved on saying, “I don’t get this word (in Arabic)”. He stopped at the word “reckoned” read it twice and paused for couple of seconds moving his eyeballs back and forth and then moved on. When he came to the boldfaced *which* in the passage, he looked down to the questions item 4. Then moved on until he finished doing the same technique. Then he was asked to describe his reading process in retrospect in Arabic. He said that I usually start by seeing the length of the text. I look at any outstanding aspects of the text like boldfaced words and italics. Then he started reading sentence by sentence trying to know what it is all about. But he always meets words that are not familiar or do not seem to fit to his emerging comprehension. This creates a serious problem to him. Then he rereads and imagine the connection to his general knowledge. He thinks that reading is a huge challenge and boring.

The interview session started immediately by the first question:

How well did you comprehend the passages: 1, 2, and 3? (for this participant they were Passages 1 ,5 & 2 respectively) He scored 3/5 in Passage 1, 4/7 in Passage 5, 2/6 in passage 2. To this question, like all the others, he replied unknowing about his scores by saying, “well I did not comprehend them 100%. The best one was Passage 1 because we talked about this topic in another class. So, I know what it was all about. I also, did not know a number of words”, when asked about them, he responded that they were “feat and reckoned}, I asked about *Acquiring* because he mispronounced it. He said that he got right because the context gave the meaning away. As for the other two passages he said he did not understand them because it was his first time ever to read about the topic of Passage 5. As for Passage 2 in which he scored the least, 2/6, he said,” I could not locate the main idea, I did not understand the questions, and I spent a lot of time trying to connect the story to anything that I already know, but failed.”

Why were you enunciating each word alone as if they were standing alone? He said, “I feel trapped by the words I only focus on one word at a time. That is why I spend a lot of time on a short passage”. He also complained about many unfamiliar words whenever he reads.

You were repeating the second and third sentences, and then repeated the word *reckoned* two times, but you did not repeat other sentences? he said that he repeated while thinking about the other class information as they were talking about first language acquisition in that class. He claimed that he understands the gist even though he did not know many words such as *reckoned*, but he guessed it correctly in Question 3 (see Appendix 1). So, I checked my understanding by asking, you repeated while trying to connect to the other class and to have time to guess a word from the context and he confirmed my understanding.

What do you do when you face a new word that you could not possibly know? He said that he would guess it from the context like the word *reckoned*, or if it is allowed would use a dictionary. Otherwise, he would leave it.

What would you add to our curriculum that you think would help you enhance your reading ability? “I think if the teacher explains the new words before the reading passage, then it would help a great deal”. He replied without much thinking.

3.2.2 No. 2 Participant

This participant scored 14/30. His top score was in Passage 3 which was 6/6. I asked him to read Passage 3 following the read-aloud model as we did in the training session. He looked at the passage up and down, flipped the page and said, “three paragraphs”. He started reading each word alone and sometimes a word and a subsequent word together especially if they were functional words before and after (function words like determiners, demonstratives, and auxiliaries). He paused at the word *microns* in the second line and then moved on and read the third sentence. He went back to the middle of the third sentence reread it, faster and better this time. He said, “yes I got it, size of bacteria.” He would stretch his pronunciation of a word with a gap filler like “aaaaaaa” or sometimes he would prolong the middle vowel of a word and moves his eyeball forward two or three jumps or fixations ahead. He did not pass a number without a pause. He read the first sentence of each paragraph carefully and repeated the first sentence of the third paragraph. After he finished, I asked him to describe his reading process as it just happened. He said, “first I checked the passage, the length I skimmed for numbers or dates, I read the first sentence and I recognize the topic right away. The first word was bacteria, so I knew it was about bacteria I also realized that measurements and sizes were important”. He said that he did not know what the word micron was, but he knew it was a tiny/microscopic measurement from the context. Then he said that is it.

The interview questions were asked as follows:

How well did you comprehend the passages: 1, 2, and 3? (for this participant they were Passages 3, 4 & 1 respectively) He responded that he did not have a problem with Passage 3, as a matter of fact he said that he enjoyed it. Also, he mentioned that he employed the reading strategies that he was learning in the reading class. But as for Passage 4 he said, “I started losing hope because I exerted most of my energy in Passage 3. The topic was different and frankly I do not like history”. He continued, “I had an idea when I responded to this passage. I thought to scan for words used in the passage and if I find the word used in the options, I will pick that choice, apparently it did not work”. I asked, “How about Passage 1? He replied, “I did not understand it I was overwhelmed with new words and did not know what it was about”.

Why were you enunciating two words together and prolonging the vowels (I modeled his performance to him to make the question clearer)? He said that he learned in the reading class that reading should flow in chunks of related phrases and he was trying to do just that. He thought phrases not words alone should be read together to build comprehension.

You repeated the second sentence from the middle and then you repeated the third sentence, and then you repeated the first two sentences in the second and third paragraphs, you also repeated the word *microns*, why all these repetitions? He said, “I was trying to understand and from an accurate meaning of the topic.” As for the word microns, I did not know its meaning, but I knew it was a very tiny unit of measurement as I said earlier.”

What do you do when you face a new word that you could not possibly know? He said that he would try to guess its meaning from the context like the word microns. When asked what if he could not. He said, “I would use a dictionary. If in the exam I would just find the question with the same word and then pick that option hoping it would be the right answer”.

What would you add to our curriculum that you think would help you enhance your reading ability? He answered this question by praising the focused instruction of reading strategies that we were implementing in our curriculum, but he adds that practicing and ensuring that those strategies are actually used is the problem.

The following strategies were observed:

- previewing the text, its length and structure.
- Moving back and forth around unknown words.
- Guessing meaning from context though not as effective as the high ability readers.

- Using previous knowledge as a tool to grasp the ideas in the text
- Reading pace is very slow and careful.
- Stopping to construct meaning.
- Raising their voice to show difficulty
- Connecting ideas within the text through repetition and moving eyeballs ahead. Did this but not as frequently as the high ability.
- Skimmed and scanned for print features
- Expressed need for dictionary

3.3 The tow low ability participants

The two participants in this group scored 9 and 8 out of 30. They were assigned the numbers 1 and 2 as IDs, respectively.

3.3.1 No. 1 Participant

The first participant scored 9/30 which is considered low. He scored 3/6 in both Passages 3 and 4. So I asked him to choose one of them and read it to me and verbalize his thoughts as he reads. He looked at both passages and chose Passage 3. He started by looking at the first page and read the first sentence word by word as if they were in isolation. he completed the whole task in this manner. No repetition, no movement of eyeballs back and forth. It was monotonous all long with lots of mispronunciation. He did not verbalize his thoughts. He was too absorbed in the text. He was holding a pen in his hand and underlined five words: *microns*, *100 times*, *power*, *are so small*, *molasses*. After he finished, I asked him to tell me in retrospect how he approached the reading task. He had this to say, “I started by reading the first word which is bacteria. I realized that the passage is about bacteria. I read microns, and I know this word. Frankly, I did not know most of the words”. He said it was difficult.

The interview questions were presented, and he responded to them as follows:

How well did you comprehend the passages: 1, 2, and 3? (for this participant they were Passages 3 or 4 ,5 & 1 respectively). He replied to this question by saying not much. He admitted that he did not know much except for Passage 3 because it started with the words *bacteria* and *microns* which was a measurement unit that he knew before. Similarly, he knew the words *children* and *language* in Passage 1 and guessed the passage was about how children acquire language, which is true.

Why were you enunciating each word alone as if they were standing alone? He replied that he was just reading each word as they appear in the text one by one. I wondered about how he read in Arabic and said that he was a good reader. I suggested that he would better apply the same speed in English. he commented that he has a problem with unknown words. He reported that he did not know almost all the words and could not make the connection. So, I pulled his test paper and showed him his responses and I asked him to explain how he managed to score 3/6 in Passage 3 despite the fact that he admitted not comprehending the text. He said, “Question 1 had the word bacteria in option A so I picked it. The second had the word microns so I picked it. As for the third option he just made a wild guess”.

You underlined the words, microns, 100 times, molasses, power, and so small, why? He said that these were the familiar words. I wondered are you saying you do not know the words like water, place, different, etc. words that are very common to many people. Puzzled as if was caught off guard, he replied that he definitely knew all these words, but he did not know how the passage meaning was constructed along with the unfamiliar words.

What do you do when you face a new word that you could not possibly know? He answered saying that he would use a bilingual dictionary to look it up. I asked what if it were in the exam, he said that he would just leave it. I asked if he had been practicing ways to guess meaning from context and the like (we practice this strategy in our reading classes), he said that he knew that but never applied it.

What would you add to our curriculum that you think would help you enhance your reading ability? He said, “I suggest that we do more reading and practice reading strategies more”.

3.3.2 No. 2 Participant

This participant scored 8/30. His best score was in Passage 3, 4/6. So, asked him to read Passage 3 following the read-aloud protocol that we modeled in an earlier session. He started by reading the first word bacteria and moved on reading each word alone with difficulty. He spelled out almost every word. He said “I don’t know what this is” about almost every content word. The same tone went on for the whole passage. He had no problems with function words particularly prepositions but struggled a lot in content words. In retrospect, I asked him to describe his reading process, and he said, “I start by looking at the comprehension questions to know what to look for, then I start reading from the beginning to try to understand what the passage is about and find similar words in the questions.” When I find a word, I underline it then I choose the item in which the word is

mentioned.” I asked even if you do not know the word. He smiled and said, “I usually do not them.”

The interview questions followed immediately:

How well did you comprehend the passages: 1, 2, and 3? (for this participant they were Passages 3, 4, & 5 respectively). He replied that he his comprehension was extremely low in all the three passages even Passage 3. He admitted that his limited vocabulary was his main problem like many others.

Why were you enunciating and spelling out each word as if they were standing alone? He replied by saying that he was trying to read hoping that if he would recognize a word, he would know something about the topic of the passage. I asked, did you? He said, “yes” the passage was about bacteria. I asked about his score of 4/6 in Passage 3, and he said that he just scans for the same words that are mentioned in the text and in the question. Then he would choose the option with similar word. As for the rest, he would guess them.

You were reading word by word to the end, why did not you reread to check your understanding? He said that he did not understand anything accept the first word so he kept going to see if he would find a clue to connect to the first, but he did not. So, there was no need to reread or double check. He said that he would reread when he attempts the questions and connect repeated words in the passage.

What do you do when you face a new word that you could not possibly know? he responded by saying I would look it up in google translation website. When asked what if it was in the exam, he said then only connecting repeated words and the questions that he explained earlier.

What would you add to our curriculum that you think would help you enhance your reading ability? He said that vocabulary is a huge obstacle. H said,” many students resort to test taking tricks to overcome their lack of reading ability”. He added, “It would be great to find a solution for this problem.”

The observed strategies were as follows:

- Expressed need for bilingual dictionary.
- Underlining familiar words

In sum, L1 Arabic learners of EFL exhibited high use of reading strategies at the high and medium ability levels. They did not, however, display much use at the low level. Table 2 shows the observed reading strategies in the three ability levels.

Table 2: reading strategies observed in the three levels of reading ability

<u>High ability strategies</u>	<u>Medium ability strategies</u>	<u>Low ability strategies</u>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • previewing the text, its length and structure. (GLOB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • previewing the text, its length and structure. (GLOB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expressed need for bilingual dictionary. (SUP)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moving back and forth around unfamiliar words (PROB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moving back and forth around unknown words. (PROB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Underlining familiar words (SUP)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guessing meaning of unfamiliar diction from context (PROB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guessing meaning from context though not as effective as the high ability readers. (PROP) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting the topic to previous knowledge (GLOB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Using previous knowledge as a tool to grasp the ideas in the text (GLOB) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speed reading when there is no comprehension need to slow down (PORB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reading pace is very slow and careful. (PROB) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slowing down to construct meaning (PROB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stopping to construct meaning (PROB) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raising their voice to indicate difficulty (SUP) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raising their voice to indicate reading difficulty (SUP). 	

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting ideas within the text through repetition and moving eyeballs ahead (PROB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Connecting ideas within the text through repetition and moving eyeballs ahead. Did this but not as frequently as the high ability. (PROB) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Glancing ahead to confirm understanding (PROB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Skimmed and scanned for print features (GLOB) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reflecting and checking their comprehension after reading (GLOB) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expressed need for dictionary (SUP) 	

To sum up the results and answer the research questions, I can say in addressing Question1 (*what are the strategies that L1 Arabic students use when they read English as a foreign language?*) that L1 Arabic readers of English used 22 reading strategies not 14 or 16 because each level use what seems to be the same strategy in their specific way for their different purposes; they are listed in Table 1. These strategies can be classified in accordance with one of three renowned reading taxonomies:

1. Block (1986); Lee-Thompson (2008) where they classified reading strategies to local strategies which are considered bottom-up and general strategies which are considered top-down strategies.
2. Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) who classifies reading strategies into global (GLOB), problem-solving (PROB) and support (SUP) strategies.
3. O'Malley & Chamot (1990) who classified reading strategies into cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies.

However, the taxonomy employed in this study is Mokhtari and Sheorey's because it's the most used and referred to in the literature (Gaith and El-Sanyoura, 2019; Lin, 2018). Thus, the strategies are marked according to their type in Table 2.

The answer to Question 2 (*will different ability readers use different strategies?*) is as follows: yes, these readers use reading strategies differently based on their reading ability. High ability uses more problem-solving strategies (60%) than the medium ability who used them 50% with one more support strategy. The low level did not employ reading strategies as much. The only observed

ones were the two support strategies listed in Table 1. The use of dictionary though did not happen, but the need for it was expressed in both the medium and the low level.

4. Discussion and conclusion

The main finding in this study asserts that Arabic L1 learners use reading strategies variously. Each reading level has its own set of strategies that are used to serve comprehension. The high ability readers used a set of ten strategies, the medium ability used nine strategies, and the low ability readers used two strategies. Most of these strategies have been recognized in the literature and were typified as metacognitive/global, cognitive/problem solving, and support strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001).

The entire spectrum of the strategies used by high ability readers seems to land between two parentheses: The opening parenthesis is a preview of the entire task, and the closing parenthesis is a reflection on general comprehension. What happens in between these two global strategies six problem solving strategies, one other global and one support strategy, following Mokhtari & Sheorey (2002) taxonomy. The effort exerted on the written text was minimal. Most of the work dwelled around comprehension and fitting the reading content into the readers' existing knowledge. Thus, readers at this level read strategically. They would fit Grabe's (2009) definition of what strategic reading is. As he put it in his words, "reading is a strategic process in that a number of the skills and processes are needed on the part of the reader to anticipate text information, select key information, organize and mentally summarize information, monitor comprehension, repair comprehension breakdowns, and match comprehension output to reader goals" (p.15).

However, the strategies observed with the medium ability readers are to some extent similar to the ones listed for the high ability. However, the anomaly in the way these readers used the strategies was not to be mistaken. They seem to use a modified version of the same reading strategies for different ends. Thus, the medium ability readers were strategic but in their own ways. They used skimming and scanning to get a general idea of a reading text (Participant 2); a strategy that was not used by the high ability readers. They also employ their background knowledge as a supporting tool to access the text, while the high ability readers seem to use the text to reflect on and evaluate their previous knowledge. Further, repetition and speed were at a much lower rate than those observed in the high ability readers. This finding supports Abbott (2006) findings who compared intermediate Arab readers with their Chinese counterparts. She suggested that Arab readers employ

strategies like skimming, connecting ideas to general knowledge, and inferring from reading. These strategies were similar to the ones observed for this level.

By contrast, the two low ability readers did not actually use reading strategies compared to both the high and medium ability users. This could be ascribed to what Ericsson and Simon (1980) call the “high cognitive load” of the task. The only strategy they used was the underlining known words. They, as Participant 1 put it, were trying to connect those words to the comprehension questions. Thus, it was a test taking technique not a reading strategy. So, as the low ability used underlining strategy as a technique to make connection between ideas, the high and medium ability readers did not. It seems that the high ability did not use this technique because they simply did not need to as the passages were short and not that demanding.

We can conclude that the use of reading strategies escorts reading level above the low ability level. We observed that low ability readers did not use reading strategies. As a matter of fact, the low ability readers were trapped at the word recognition level leaving no room for any other process to take part. As reading ability moves higher and word recognition becomes better, readers seem to free some space for the use of reading strategies.

The intermediate level exhibited more use of reading strategies, but still in a different manner from the high ability readers. They managed to search their previous general knowledge to establish connection with the text through previewing techniques and keywords. They at this level are just becoming aware of the importance of connected reading and constructing comprehension. Resorting to previous knowledge was used as a means to comprehend the reading. Thus, the purpose and use of previous knowledge is different from the high ability readers.

By the same token, as the reading ability rocket higher, the free space for strategy employment becomes vaster and more effective. Reading strategies at this level extends its role from being a helping tool to comprehension as a main job to help evaluate and reconstruct readers’ schemata through reflection on newly acquired knowledge after reading. The text, at this level and unlike the medium ability level readers, is used as a tool to reconstruct, evaluate and/or modify existing knowledge.

4.1. Implications

the present study, though qualitative in nature, builds on mounting evidence of the importance of reading and its pertinent skills to lead EFL and ESL learners to academic success. Even though reading strategies might not have a causal relationship with reading ability, but we now know they

are related somehow. Thus, teachers should help their students in two in tandem phases: First, as proven in this study, there are indeed other factors that are involved in the reading process, for example, they need to have their students build their lexicon. We cannot teach reading as a skill if students do not know the words to begin with (Hu & Nation, 2000; Schmitt et. al., 2011). Second, teachers need to find ways to enhance word recognition process; low ability readers get trapped at this level. Thus, the immediate goal should be the automatization of word recognition and sentence structure. I have seen this problem firsthand in practice and as explained in this paper. It might not be an effective suggestion to instruct students on reading strategies at this level except for dictionary use, as it was considered a support reading strategy by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002).

One approach to help learners at this low level is to employ a narrow reading instruction approach as discussed by Han and D'Angelo (2009). In this approach the reading material is narrowed down to read for a single author or a single topic. Krashan (2004) argued that developing readers need topics that are easy and excessive to allow for the realization of his Input Hypothesis (1985). In doing so, learners would have ample opportunity to practice reading, build vocabulary, get acquainted with grammatical forms, and consequently allow incidental language learning and acquisition as supported by Gass & Slennher (2008).

Once learners are freed from word-recognition trap, we can now talk about reading and reading strategies. Students should be instructed in metacognitive strategies like prereading and planning strategies to help them make the connection between the main idea of the reading with their previous experiences. One way of doing this is to continue to present readings with familiar topics as suggested in the narrow approach but in addition to strategy training. As their reading level moves higher, the topics showed move to less familiar zones, and cognitive strategies should be introduced at this level. By and by students will become more versed in reading strategy use and consequently in reading ability level.

As I suspect that reading strategies might be language/culture specific, teachers and researchers should replicate reading strategy studies in their learners' first language to discover culture-specific preferences and possible difficulties.

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Appendix A: Texts Read by the Participants

Passage 1

Having no language, infants cannot be told what they need to learn. Yet by the age of three they will have mastered the basic structure of their native language and will be well on their way to communicative competence. Acquiring their language is a most impressive intellectual **feat**. Students of how children learn language generally agree that the most remarkable aspect of this feat is the rapid acquisition of grammar. Nevertheless, the ability of children to conform to grammatical rules is only slightly more wonderful than their ability to learn words. It has been **reckoned** that the average high school graduate in the United States has a reading vocabulary of 80,000 words, **which** includes idiomatic expressions and proper names of people and places. This vocabulary must have been learned over a period of 16 years. From the figures, it can be calculated that the average child learns at a rate of about 13 new words per day. Clearly, a learning process of great complexity goes on at a rapid rate in children.

1. What is the main subject of the passage.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (A) Language acquisition in children | (B) Teaching languages to children |
| (C) How to memorize words | (D) Communicating with infants |

2. The word "feat" in line 4 is closest in meaning to which of the following?

- | | | | |
|----------------|----------|--------------|--------------------|
| (A) Experiment | (B) Idea | (C) Activity | (D) Accomplishment |
|----------------|----------|--------------|--------------------|

3. The word "reckoned" in line 8 is closest in meaning to which of the following?

- | | | | |
|---------------|---------------|------------|----------|
| (A) Suspected | (B) Estimated | (C) Proved | (D) Said |
|---------------|---------------|------------|----------|

4. In line 9, the word "which" refers to

- | | |
|--------------------------|------------------------|
| (A) their ability | (B) reading vocabulary |
| (C) idiomatic expression | (D) learning process |

5. According to the passage, what is impressive about the way children learn vocabulary.

- (A) They learn words before they learn grammar
- (B) They learn even very long words.
- (C) They learn words very quickly.
- (D) They learn the most words in high school.

Passage 2

Scientists estimate that about 35,000 other objects, too small to detect with radar but detectable with powerful Earth-based telescopes, are also circling the Earth at an altitude of 200 to 700 miles. This debris poses little danger to us on the Earth, but since it is traveling at average relative speeds of six miles per second, it can severely damage expensive equipment in a collision. This threat was dramatized by a cavity one-eighth of an inch in diameter created in a window of a United States space shuttle in 1983. The pit was determined to have been caused by a collision with a speck of paint traveling at a speed of about two to four miles per second. The window had to be replaced.

As more and more nations put satellites into space, the risk of collision can only increase. Measures are already being taken to control the growth of orbital debris. The United States has always required its astronauts to bag their wastes and return **them** to Earth. The United States Air Force has agreed to conduct low-altitude rather than high-altitude tests of objects it puts into space so debris from tests will reenter the Earth's atmosphere and burn up. Extra shielding will also reduce the risk of damage. For example, 2,000 pounds of additional shielding is being considered for each of six space-station crew modules. Further, the European Space Agency, an international consortium is also looking into preventive measures.

1. Which of the following would be the best topic for the passage?
 - (A) The Problem of Space Debris
 - (B) The Space Shuttle of 1983
 - (C) The Work of the European Space Agency
 - (D) A Collision in Space

2. It can be inferred from the passage that debris was harmful to one of the space shuttles because the debris was
 - (A) large
 - (B) moving very fast
 - (C) radioactive
 - (D) burning uncontrollably

3. What effect did orbital debris have on one of the space shuttles?
 - (A) It removed some of the paint
 - (B) It damaged one of the windows
 - (C) It caused a loss of altitude
 - (D) It led to a collision with a space station

4. The word "them" in line 13 refers to which of the following?
 - (A) Astronauts
 - (B) Wastes
 - (C) Tests
 - (D) Crew modules

5. Which of the following questions is NOT answered by the information in the passage?
 - (A) How can small objects orbiting the Earth be seen?
 - (B) What is being done to prevent orbital debris from increasing?
 - (C) Why is the risk of damage to space equipment likely to increase?
 - (D) When did the United States Air Force begin making tests in space?

6. Where in the passage does the writer mention a method of protecting space vehicles against damage by space debris?
 - (A) Lines 1-3
 - (B) Lines 6-8
 - (C) Line 9
 - (D) Lines 13-15

Passage 3

Bacteria are extremely small living things. While we measure our own sizes in inches or centimeters, bacterial size is measured in microns. One micron is a thousandth of a millimeter a pinhead is about a millimeter across. Rod shaped bacteria are usually from two to four microns long, while rounded ones are generally one micron in diameter. Thus if you enlarged a founded bacterium a thousand times, it would be just about the size of a pinhead. An adult human magnified by the same amount would be over a mile (1.6 kilometers) tall.

Even with an ordinary microscope, you must look closely to see bacteria. Using a magnification of 100 times, one finds that bacteria are barely visible as tiny rods or dots. One cannot make out anything of their structure. Using special stains, one can see that some bacteria have attached to them wavy - looking "hairs" called flagella. Others have only one flagellum. The flagella rotate, pushing the bacteria through the water. Many bacteria lack flagella and cannot move about by their own power while others can glide along over surfaces by some little understood mechanism.

From the bacterial point of view, the world is a very different place from what it is to humans. To a bacterium, water is as thick as molasses is to us. Bacteria are so small that they are influenced by the movements of the chemical molecules around them. Bacteria under the microscope, even those with no flagella, often bounce about in the water. This is because they collide with the water molecules and are pushed this way and that. Molecules move so rapidly that within a tenth of a second the molecules around a bacterium have all been replaced by new ones even bacteria without flagella are thus constantly exposed to a changing environment.

1. Which of the following is the main topic of the passage?

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| (A) The characteristics of bacteria | (B) How bacteria reproduce |
| (C) The various functions of bacteria | (A) How bacteria contribute to disease |

2. Bacteria are measured in
- (A) inches (B) centimeters (C) microns (D) millimeters
3. Which of the following is the smallest?
- (A) A pinhead (B) A rounded bacterium
(C) A microscope (D) A rod-shaped bacterium
4. According to the passage, someone who examines bacteria using only a microscope that magnifies 100 times would see
- (A) tiny dots (B) small "hairs"
(C) large rods (D) detailed structures
5. The relationship between a bacterium and its flagella is most nearly analogous to which of the following?
- (A) A rider jumping on a horse's back (B) A ball being hit by a bat
(C) A boat powered by a motor (D) A door closed by a gust of wind
6. In line 17, the author compares water to molasses, in order to introduce which of the following topics?
- (A) The bacterial content of different liquids
(B) What happens when bacteria are added to molasses
(C) The molecular structures of different chemicals
(D) How difficult it is for bacteria to move through water

Saudi EFL affordances of one-pronged and two-pronged oral language teaching approaches: An exploratory study

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Abstract

This study examined the comparative productivity of oral one-way and two-ways contact language approaches to boost the listening comprehension skills of EFL learners. A quasi-experimental research method was used in which a random sample of 60 Saudi EFL learners consisted two groups: control and experimental. The results of the study reveal that 1) EFL students in the experimental group scored significantly higher than control group, 2) the two-way oral strategy was more effective, and 3) there were no major gaps or statistically significant differences based on respondents' gender and language learning approaches. In addition, it is concluded that the linguistic skill of the respondents showed a significant connection to the teaching approach during language learning.

Keywords: *English teaching and Learning; Saudi EFL, Two-way oral language approach.*

Introduction:

English is now the world language that governs all markets, business, science, education and the humanities. English language skills help individuals to understand the world's diverse citizens. Globalization stresses English to establish a connection, develop links and grow

through time and distance (Wilson, 2019; Rasool & Winke, 2019). The school services around the world implement projects to prepare learners for foreign leadership skills. The ability to use English in a number of ways is a beneficial attribute for students to improve global skills. Consequently, language training requires that teachers learn the use of effective language instruction strategies to meet the needs of the global economy and to emphasize English as a world language (Magulod, 2018).

Saudi is no exception to the challenge. Saudi is now changing its standard for language research (Xu & Gao, 2014). The problems occur with traditional teaching methods which generate poor language speakers, which mean that students do not really use English language (Fang, 2017; Li, Tao & Xu, 2018; Wang, Smyth & Cheng, 2017). It has been confirmed that EFL Saudi students have no facility to talk directly with or listen to native English speakers. In 2003, the Saudi Ministry of Education began to implement a plan to standardized English for all stages of schools in order to improve students' linguistic skills. Given the lack of primary resources for Saudi students to practice listening skills with authentic English, this study aimed to assess the listening comprehension skills of Saudi intermediate students and suggest viable options.

Saudi English teachers are classified as transfer officers. Their position is vital to the growth of professional communicative students in fostering language learning. This study emphasized the cognitive and attitudes of Saudi EFL's characteristics, competence and attributes by using two oral techniques, one-way and two-way oral. This new study includes effective strategies to enhance English language learning in Saudi Arabia and to provide knowledge on conversations between traditional and contemporary methods of language learning and methods for acquisition to existing literature.

Literature Review

Saudi is improving its focus for English language achievements (Alkhudiry & Al-Ahdal, 2020; Shariq, 2020). Despite the long years of teaching English in public schools, Saudi students are still behind and unable to use English linguistic skills properly (Tao & Xu, 2018; Wang, Smyth & Cheng, 2017). More than a decade ago, the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia were doing tremendous work in adopting new curriculum standards and teaching frameworks to help students succeed and develop English skills adequately. Textbooks were replaced and changed several times, for instance. However, English teaching strategies are

essential and vital to the growth of professional communicative students in fostering language learning (Alkhudiri, 2020).

In addition, English language learners are usually preoccupied with improving their listening and speaking skills than any other skills to be able to communicate with others and feel their learning progress (Chen & Kent, 2020; Chien, Hwang & Jong, 2020). Many recent studies have also shown that the use of reporting, presenting, podcasting, voice captioning, inappropriate speech and demonstration are ways of one-way oral communication technique which promote language learning and language acquisition (Cabrero, & Campos-Dintrans, 2018; Sen & Sen, 2012; Toki, Pange & Mikropoulos, 20).

In a longitudinal analysis Butler and Ye (2018) recorded that the success of foreign language learning is affected by gender and socio-economic status. As seconded by Hay (2016), it reports that foreign language favours women's learning by a sophisticated teaching approach. Iwaniec, Dunn & Sandoval-Hernandez (2018) concluded that gender gaps are evident for language learning. Liang, Wen & Dong (2018) report that gender is a restriction in English language learning in the Saudi sense. Female advantages have also been reported in other literature (Oga-Baldwin, & Nakata, 2017; Öz, Demirezen, & Pourfeiz, 2015; Shiu, Yalcin & Spada, 2018; Tenney, Paiva, & Wang, 2019).

Theoretical Grounding and Research Gap

This study reflects on the theory of communication-language education (Canale, 2014) on the basis that linguistic teaching is more successful in the natural approach to communicating its intent, as it was implemented in modern language learning (Martienz, Morales, & Aldana, 2017). The traditional methods for language teaching did not provide the true communicative learning atmosphere which helped transition to language teaching into a system that focuses on learners. Consequently, the success of one-way communicative linguistic instruction strategies in increasing Saudi EFL student linguistic competence should be adequately assessed. One-Way Oral language teaching refers to language instruction where the teacher dominates the language instruction. The teacher monopolizes the language instruction (Bax, 2003; Savignon, 1987; Larsen-Freeman, 2012). In contrast, the two-way oral communication allows students' interaction. It facilitates (Balci, Rich & Roberts, 2020; Fandiño, Muñoz, & Velandia, 2019). Despite existing literature, Saudi EFL students also do not use the English language properly (Crespo, Gross, & Kaushanskaya, 2019; Presbitero, 2020; Zhou, Zhu, & Zheng, 2020). Saudi EFL students have trouble with their speaking and listening skills (Stickler

& Shi, 2013). Problems with this are due to the fact that the students in Saudi EFL require adequate and correct language teaching. This research aims to recommend realistic language teaching measures and the use of one-way and two-way language teaching approaches. The current study also investigated the effectiveness of two-way oral language strategy on listening skills and comprehension. The central questions of the study: 1) is the two-way oral strategy effective in improving listening skills, and 2) are there a statistically significant differences between participants due to their gender?

Materials and Methods

Research Design

The study utilized a quasi-experimental method, commonly used and seen in the field of teaching and learning. Pre- and post- tests were administered before and after the intervention (Bloomfield and Fischer, 2019; Campbell & Stanley, 2015; Dugard & Todman, 1995; Secomb & Smith, 2011). Two groups were formulated: a) control group mainly taught by one-way oral strategy, and b) an experimental group taught by the two-way oral approach. The methodology measures students' listening performance and growth before and after the intervention. The results of Saudi EFL intermediate students who had been exposed to one and two- oral bidirectional contact strategies were reported. The pre-test post-test approach were used to analyse the progress of and strategy effects on Saudi EFL learners.

Participants:

The study participants composed of a total of 30 Saudi EFL intermediate students grouped through the experimental group taught by the two-way oral speech strategy, and the control group with the same sample size. The bidirectional oral group consists of 16 female and 14 male in each group. The two classes were named Class A and Class B. The sample size calculation used the t-test for the G*Power mathematical pairs with a power of 0.90. The Oxford Simple Placement Exam (2001) suggests that all candidates have advanced or intermediate degrees in English skills to guarantee that the students' English grammar skills are in line with the language skills. Meanwhile, the Levene's 0,05 alpha degree equality test uses the homogeneity test for English language degree disparities. Centred on the study's understanding of ethics testing, participants viewed personal data and information with confidentiality. The researcher had secured the guardians' approval. Details of the risks and benefits of the research for their children were given to the participants and their parents as well.

Instruments:

The study utilized two evaluation instruments, the Oxford Listening Quality Test and the Oxford Grammar Scale to make sure that the participants mastered the required level of English proficiency. The test of the English Language listening Proficiency was chosen from Oxford listening quality tests (2001). The instrument comprises 60 item scales, but is reduced by 15 in certain choices in order to match the pupils' norm and age. Language learning and acquisition tools were used by previous students in Europe, Asia and America (Bagheri, Hadian & Vaez-Dalili, 2019; Barner, Inagaki, & Li 2009; Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012; Sato, Gygax, & Gabriel, 2013). Meanwhile, the validity and reliability of the test was reported with Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.874 which is considered to be highly precise, as the instruments were also used in other studies by previous language researchers (Demir, 2018; Karatas et al., 2016; Uzun, 2013; Yang, Chen & Jeng, 2010).

Procedure and Treatment Phases:

The trial uses three-step care design to meet the study. Step I included the pre-treatment process in which participants were divided in the two groups and the pre-test were administered, phase II delivery cycle and intervention, the stage III post-treatment phase. Prior to the implementation of the two teaching methods in the Saudi EFL curriculum planning and class planning were done. The required preparation of the learning content to be covered was designed to guarantee the accuracy and reliability of the data. The experimental sessions lasted three weeks and involved grammar courses included in the curriculum and the designed work. In the morning, the lessons were taught. The two classes of respondents underwent the language and grammar test.

Data Analysis:

Data collected and statistics such as frequency, baseline and standard deviation were evaluated and screened. Inferential statics were also used and reported. The examination for dependent samples was used to identify significant differences in language competence and the English grammar approach using single and two-way methods of verbal language teaching before and after the intervention. Similarly, Cohen's d effect size has been used to measure the impact of advantages before and after the treatments. Cohen's implementation excludes type II or β errors (Albers & Lakems, 2018; Lakens, 2013; Sullivan & Fein, 2012). Pearson r, in conclusion, was used to test the relationship between English listening achievement and gender were used utilizing one-way and two-way oral language teaching. Pearson r highlights linkages

between variables (Akoglu, 2018; Ly, Marsman, & Wagenmakers, 2018; Mu, Liu, & Wang, 2018). In addition, the Levene test for homogeneous variances of English language skills for equality of variances set at alpha 0.05 was used to ensure the necessary assumptions and assumptions were observed. Also used was the traditional distribution analysis.

Results:

RQ 1. in order to include a clear assessment of the pre-test and post-test scores by utilizing the one-way and two-way oral communication strategies, the details of the performance for the two groups of respondents were primarily reported. Table 1 indicates the results of EFL students receiving a decent entry score of 8.23 (sd = 1, 22) while in a two-way oral approach, all identified as having a strong to moderate degree of quality got an entry score of 7.83 (sd = 2.49). This indicates that before the approaches are applied in the two respondent classes, Saudi EFL learners have already attained an average standard of English listening skills. As a result, after implementing these two learning strategies, students were able to make progress, as shown by a mean of 10.36 (sd = 2.42) for single-way oral strategy and 13.67 (sd = 1.02) for two-way oral strategy. The data indicate an increase in the performance of the respondents after the application of the two approaches in Saudi EFL classrooms in English grammar.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of the One-Way and Two-Way Oral Strategy Pre-test Post-test Achievement

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Descriptive Interpretation
One-Way oral Communication Strategy				
Pre-test	30	8.23	1.22	Fair
Post-test	30	10.36	2.42	Fair
Two-Way Oral Communication Strategy				
Pre-test	30	7.83	2.49	Fair
Post-test	30	13.67	1.02	Very Good

Notes: 13-15- Excellent; 10-12- Very Good; 7-9- Fair; 4-6- Poor; 1-3- Very Poor

As the above table indicates that participants in the two groups showed a moderate level of listening skills in the pre-test phase. In the post-test phase, however, the average scores increased for both groups. To detect the statistical significance difference, independent t-test

was using SPSS was performed. Table 2 reveals, surprisingly, the variations between the pre- and post-performance outcomes in oral single-way contact and oral two-way communication techniques. The pre-test and post-test were provided to assess the major gaps in respondents' English-language grammar skills. Statically important findings found that the two classes of interviewees, after exposure in one-way oral ($M=12,36$, $SD=2,42$, $p=0,00$, $d=0,723$ and two-way oral contact ($M=13,66$, $SD=0,02$, $p=0,00$, $d=0,74$), were significantly higher in the post-test scores than in the pre-test scores. Their output improved dramatically from fair to really strong English grammar skills. Thus, the pre and post achievement grades of the Saudi EFL students are slightly different after their exposure to the one-way oral and two-way oral language learning approaches. Therefore, the null statement is denied.

Table 2

The difference between the Pre-test-Post-test achievement scores for control and experimental groups

One-Way Communication Strategy	oral	Mean Score	SD	Mean Diff.	t-value	df	p-Value	Effect Size
Pre-test		8.22	1.22	-2.13	-9.47	29		0.73
Post-test		10.36	2.42				0.00**	
Two-Way Communication Strategy	Oral	Mean Score	SD	Mean Diff.	t-value	df	p	Effect Size
Pre-test		7.83	2.49	-5.83	-11.70	29		0.74
Post-test		13.66	1.02				0.00**	

*= Significant at 0.01 level ns= not significant d=Effect Size Convention (Cohen's d): Large Effect Size

Answer of the second question:

RQ2- the second question of the current study deals with the difference between participants in the listening skills according to their gender. The debate about which gender performs better in English learning is still going and not finalized (Tulung, 2020; Zhao, et al, 2019). Table 3 provides a summary results of the language learning process of the two groups, control and experimental, separated by sex.

Table 3

The difference between the Control vs. Experimental groups based on their Gender

Group	Category	N	Mean Score	SD	t-value	df	p-value
One-Way oral Communication Strategy							
Pre-test	Male	14	2.35	0.74	-1.71	28	0.096 ns
	Female	16	2.87	0.88			
Post-test	Male	14	4.50	0.51	0.02	28	0.056 ns
	Female	16	4.30	0.77			
Two-Way Oral Communication Strategy							
Pre-test	Male	11	2.63	0.50	0.20	28	0.839 ns
	Female	19	2.68	0.67			
Post-test	Male	11	4.42	0.52	-0.13	28	0.890 ns
	Female	19	4.45	0.69			

*= Significant at 0.01 level

**=Significant at 0.05 level

ns= not significant

Table 3 reveals the respondents' differences in their listening skills in pre- and post- tests based on their gender. As indicated by the *p* value, the differences between respondents' scores based on their gender were not statistically significant. Therefore, in contrasts between men and women in the one-way oral approach and the two-way oral approach, no major variations were observed in all classes of respondents prior to and after the introduction of the one-way oral communication strategy and the two-way oral communication strategy. The findings show that both sexes made different progress from the usage of one-way and two-way oral contact techniques. The Null Hypothesis is thus acknowledged.

To investigate the matter further, a correlation between listening achievement and gender was done using SPSS to measure the possible relationship between listening achievement and gender. The interaction examination was performed to determine the interaction between results and actions of the two groups subject to oral or bidirectional communication techniques. Table 4 shows that in respondents to a one-way oral communication technique ($r = 0.114$, $p = 0.54ns$) and a two-way oral communications method there were no significant connections between English listening skills in both groups ($r = -0.125$, $p = 0.51ns$).

Table 4

Correlation between listening achievement and gender

Variables	Mean	SD	r	p-value
One-Way Oral				
Achievement	10.36	2.42	0.114	0.54 ns
Gender	4.10	0.75		
Two-Way Oral				
Achievement	13.67	1.02	0.125	0.51 ns
Gender	4.43	0.62		

*=*Significant at 0.01 level***=*Significant at 0.05 level**ns= not significant*

Discussion of Findings:

This research seeks to explore the efficacy of one-way and two-way oral contact techniques in the Saudi EFL classroom. Until adopting one-way oral and two-way oral language learning techniques, the respondents reached a reasonable degree of listening skill and comprehension. Since introducing them to all teaching approaches, the learners developed very strong English skills and a favourable outlook towards language learning (DeLuca, Coombs, & LaPointe-McEwan, 2019; Green, et al, 2020; Parkinson & Dinsmore, 2019; van Schaik, et al, 2019). It is a result of a substantially higher success ratio of those subjected to one-way oral and two-way oral contact techniques. Therefore, all oral contact techniques have a positive influence on the success and progress of the students. The students are expected to report on the chosen topics in the classroom to remind them that they wish to communicate new knowledge and ideas. It offered a better interpretation of a subject the listener already understands. Apart from the reporting, the instructor often offers simulated company presentations, announcement and experiment demonstration in the school. These contact conditions are intended to educate or advise students to enhance their comprehension or knowledge. This one-way oral communications practices have driven students to talk, express their feelings, entertain and manifest. This language learning practice therefore had essential consequences on the achievement of Saudi EFL learners' listening skills. The usage of one-way contact is clear and linear where knowledge exchanged by sender and recipient is communicated explicitly to educate, entertain or convince (van Ruler, 2018). Results revealed even the factual usage of one-way contact in linguistic learning (Nothhaft et al., 2018; O'connor, 2018; Wilson, 2019; Kacatl & Semradova, 2020).

The two-way oral language techniques may be due to the substantial improvement in learner success and mood in coping with different contact circumstances. The instructor offered the students the ability to use English, listen to English, by cooperation and teamwork. Teacher discussion was minimized and student discussions were granted greater time and focus. Another important characteristic of two-way oral contact, which has improved the listening skills of learners, is the contextualization of the events. The students had actual interactions like telephone talks, act interviews or dialogues to counsel a mate. The usage of two-way contact in this research was commonly emphasized as follows: (1) emphasis on alignment rather than on ability separation; (2) emphasis on type and function; and (3) contextualization of learner-centred and not teacher-oriented practices. Integration should not rely on formal aspects, rather on functional language parameters. It is focused on the premise that effective and sufficient English language learning can be accomplished through expressing it. Interactive linguistic learning is the process to learn English (Candlin, 2016; Sarfraz, Mansoor & Tariq, 2005; Savignon, 2018; Zhang & Wang, 2016). Thus, the involvement of students in actual conversation enhanced their linguistic competence. The efficacy of two-way oral language education shows its supremacy as a solution in previous research (Asassfeh et al., 2012; Huang and Andrews, 2010; Huang, 2016; Littlewood, 2010; Lixin, 2011; Ochoa et al., 2016; Rao, 2010; Wolf, 2013; Wong, 2012).

In comparison, the research found no substantial change in the respondents' results due to gender. There were no major variations between the two classes of respondents prior to or after the introduction of the one-way oral communication approach, but not the two-way oral communication strategies. The results indicate that, when sex is taken into account, the cognitive and ability of both genders are identical. This conclusion is confirmed by earlier research that indicate little or hardly defined difference in the listening ability of students (Basöz, 2016; Fryer, 2015; Lai, 2015; Lattenkamp & Vernes, 2018; Qi et al., 2018). The findings of this research dispute previous claims that sex is a feature that distinguishes various types and perceptions of language teaching and that is higher for women than for males.

The findings of this analysis also indicate that the learners in the two-way oral contact approach have been considerably higher relative to a one-way oral language learning strategy. It suggests that students who are used to two-way oral language instruction do well in listening. The result is suggestive that students were more able to succeed in a two-way oral language approach than students with one-way instruction, independent of their linguistic mind set. This

conclusion is compatible with previous research findings on the discrepancies that demonstrate the supremacy of collective language learning. It explains that the strongest possible way to engage together in language learning tasks across various channels is when students engage and interact (Chen & Kent, 2020; Cho, 2017; Dao & McDonough, 2016; Hoi, 2020; Jin & Dewael, 2018; Peng & al., 2016; Tseng, Liou, & Chu, 2020; zhang, 2019; Zheng & Warschauer, 2017; Bravo-Agapito, Bonilla & Seoane, 2020; Chater & Christiansen, 2020; and Dao & McDonough, 2017). The advantages of a two-way oral communication approach have given an incentive for students to use the target language in multiple communication contexts. Discussion, game play, pair work, community discussion, brainstorming, input writing and the like shape part of the language learning operation. Recent studies encourage fluency, inspiration and teamwork through role oriented language teaching (Chen & Kent, 2020; Ellis, Li, & Zhu, 2019; Rassaei, 2019; Robaina & Larenas, 2020; York, 2020).

In addition, the result suggests that, regardless of the mind set of students towards listening, all oral language instruction methods continue to obtain the same standards of language skills. The non-significant findings can be due to many associated factors not included in this analysis. Since there is no substantial connection, additional research may be done considering other factors not included in the study. The findings align with the previously analysed results, which illustrate the negligible connection between language and language abilities (Berowa et al., 2018; Dehbozorgi, 2012; Jahin & Idrees, 2012; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019; Lee & Lo, 2017; Stephan, 2019; Wong, 2018). This result is contradictory to studies that have recorded positive associations between language learning success and listening (Asmalı, 2016; Fandiño, Muñoz, & Velandia, 2019; Kunnan & Liao, 2019; Lin, Zhang and Zheng, 2017; Mellom et al., 2018; Rasool & Winke, 2019).

Conclusion

This work adds to existing research on the usefulness of auditory and auditory interaction strategies in improving the listening skills of Saudi EFL students. It employed a quasi-experimental design in both classes of 30 Saudi EFL students. Two groups of respondents were included in the study for an almost experimental research method. Notable findings have shown that one-way oral and two-way oral communication strategies have improved students' listening skills and linguistic thinking. However, in comparison to both approaches, it demonstrated that Saudi EFL students were better placed when taught with the one-way oral communication approach in the oral communication system. The sex of respondents does not represent a significant difference between their linguistic skills and listening, which suggests

that both men and women benefit from the oral language strategies they research. This study illustrates the characteristics of both the oral and the analytical and practical dimensions of study.

Both one-way oral and two-way oral language dialog techniques have improved Saudi EFL students' language skills. All demonstrated benefits in pragmatic and natural language learning. The usage of these oral language training techniques would allow students to improve the communicative language skills of students by utilizing them properly. The present research stresses the efficacy of two-way oral language teaching strategies, when supplemented with two-way teaching strategies or supplemented with them. It means that language teachers must be willing to take an eclectic English teaching method in such a manner that students are interested in actual language application.

Acknowledgements:

The author is very grateful to the participants of the study, parents and to the anonymous reviewers for their variables suggestions and comments.

Declarations of interest: none.

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First Language Acquisition: A Qur'anic and Linguistic Perspective

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Biodata

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Abstract

The current study establishes the reliability of the Holy Qur'an as one of the earliest treatise on language acquisition by humans. This is not to say that it is a scientific treatise: Rather what we know as modern 'knowledge' finds mention in a book much older. This applies to many aspects of human life, whether they spring from scientific inquiry or social, political or linguistic facts. Children acquire language fast and efficiently. They become masters and handle the complexities of human language. This paper seeks to examine, on a Qur'anic and practical level, the first language learning and its various processes, finding parallels between the language learning process and Qur'anic verses on language. The study employed a qualitative research design. The process of language acquisition varies from the phase of language learning. This article explores the stages of children's language learning and the methods for analysis used in the linguistic development study by linguists, scientists, and psychologists. This paper explicitly demonstrates that children are inherent in their mother tongue. When the children start acquiring their mother

tongue, they learn the grammar, phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic rules. No one teaches these rules, but they are pre-programmed with innate capacity, a gift from Allah.

وَهُوَ الَّذِي أَنشَأَ لَكُمُ السَّمْعَ وَالْأَبْصَارَ وَالْأَفْئِدَةَ قَلِيلًا

مَا تَشْكُرُونَ ﴿٥٨﴾

"It is He Who has created for you (the sense of) hearing (ears), eyes (sight), feeling and (hearts) understanding; little thanks you give"

Al-Qur'an - 23:78

"We are designed to walk. That we are taught to walk is impossible. And pretty much the same is true of language. Nobody is taught language. In fact you can't prevent a child from learning it"

Chomsky 1994

Introduction

Children acquire language quickly and efficiently. In fact, looking at them acquiring language, it seems that this process is simple and straightforward. They master their mother tongue (and any other language that they are sufficiently exposed to), and handle the complexities of language in a few years. Adults, on the other hand, face many challenges in learning a new language. During the last few decades, developmental psycholinguistics in the field of child language, has attempted to address some fundamental questions: how can an infant speak in such a short period very clearly? And what's the course for language learning? These questions have provided us with information about how the first language was taught (Kess, 1993; Ali, Hasnain, & Beg, 2019). Stork and Widdowson (1974) stress that language learning requires two main factors: an inherent human capacity for language acquisition, and a language environment. In the theory of innateness Stork and Widdowson (1974), propose that: (1) all people have the facility to learn a language; (2) It is possible to know all human languages equally; (3) All human languages on the surface are different, but each has specific essential characteristics which make them "learnable"; (4) These fundamental aspects that hold good for all human beings are the secret of what is 'innate'.

Islam and Qur'an are an integral part of the Muslim people. The Holy Qur'an is an all-time guidebook for the Muslims in all matters of their lives. It is also a marker of their identity, both social and linguistic. Indeed the Qur'an elucidates on the origin, diversity and acquisition of

language. The very ability for humans to acquire and use language are an evidence of God's love and power.

Literature Review

Human language production is a question of physical growth and conceptual development (Chomsky, Gallego & Ott, 2019; Mulyani, 2019). Therefore, this progression requires a cognitive disability or developmental delay that will impair physical growth or if their behavioral development is not the same as the physical development (Benati, 2020; Matthews & Krajewski, 2019; Ali, 2012; Ali, Hasnain & Beg, 2011). The analysis of language production can also be contrasted, for the most part, with that of the physical organs and this is evident since the Chomskian revolution. Noam Chomsky believed that in the human brain there is a language learning device, which expands and grows. This reality must also be taken into account in researching language production in infants. Therefore, language processing and language learning are distinguished.

Almakrob and Al-Ahdal (2020) explored whether two pairs of nearly equivalent words had related or different meanings in the Saudi context. A contemporary methodology has been employed in the assessment of corpus – collocational analysis – to examine the distinction between certain almost synonyms selected from many chapters in the Holy Qur'an, namely noun plus conjunction + noun (synonym). Discussions of the cases found that almost synonyms in the Qur'an have entirely different definitions. Their co-occurrence adjacency has demonstrated that each lexeme tends to have a distinct meaning. More explicitly, each word has its definition and characteristics according to its surrounding lexema. Each lexeme has its own meaning when the co-occurrence of nearly synonymous pairs in the Holy Qur'an is analyzed whether it can be used interchangeably with its neighbour. There are therefore no two lexemes in the Holy Qur'an, particularly those co-existing words, with the same meaning. Such an analysis would be helpful for translators who genuinely understand the real meaning of the words associated with it explicitly. Consequently, Al-Qunayeera, Al-Ahdal, and Shawosh (2020) from a Saussurian structuralist viewpoint, examine the meaning and the portrayal of the binary / spoken word in the Qur'an and reveal, through semi-dialectal analysis, that the ancient Arabic text is suitable for modern science reading. This is an important observation in the context of this research as it works on the premise that the Holy Qur'an is also a scientific treatise in many of its significant sections, one of them being language

acquisition, and that many of the facts related to it that are part of recent scientific discovery, are, in fact, 'revealed' therein.

The potential intrinsically perceived by the world is less and argues that linguistic development is attributed to environmental factors (Rahimpour, 2004). Children master their first language in a certain progression. Listening is the first language, and children start listening within their mothers' womb. Allah explains in many ways, the life of a person in the womb of his mother in the Qur'an. In all these literal verses, Allah addresses humanity to comprehend or respond first:

إِنَّا خَلَقْنَا الْإِنْسَانَ مِنْ نُطْفَةٍ أَمْشَاجٍ نَبْتَلِيهِ فَجَعَلْنَاهُ
سَمِيعًا بَصِيرًا ﴿٢﴾

"Verily, We have created man from a drop of thickened fluid (semen) to test him; so We made him hearing, knowing." (Qur'an - 76:2)

وَاللَّهُ أَخْرَجَكُمْ مِنْ بُطُونِ أُمَّهَاتِكُمْ لَا تَعْلَمُونَ شَيْئًا
وَجَعَلَ لَكُمُ السَّمْعَ وَالْأَبْصَارَ وَالْأَفْئِدَةَ لَعَلَّكُمْ
تَشْكُرُونَ ﴿٥﴾

"It is He Who brought you forth from the wombs of your mothers when you knew nothing, and He gave you hearing and sight and intelligence and affections; that you may give thanks to Allah." (Qur'an - 16:78)

ثُمَّ سَوَّاهُ وَنَفَخَ فِيهِ مِنْ رُوحِهِ وَجَعَلَ لَكُمُ السَّمْعَ وَالْأَبْصَارَ
وَالْأَفْئِدَةَ قَلِيلًا مَّا تَشْكُرُونَ ﴿١٠﴾

"But He fashioned him in due proportion, and breathed into him the soul; And He gave you (the faculties of) hearing (ears), sight (eyes) and heart (feeling and understanding); little is the thanks you give!" (Qur'an - 32:9)

قُلْ هُوَ الَّذِي أَنْشَأَكُمْ وَجَعَلَ لَكُمُ السَّمْعَ وَالْأَبْصَارَ
وَالْأَفْئِدَةَ قَلِيلًا مَّا تَشْكُرُونَ ﴿٣٧﴾

"Say It is He Who has created you (and made you grow), and made for you the faculties of hearing (ears), seeing (eyes), feeling and understanding (heart): little thanks you give." (Qur'an - 67:23)

Prenatal studies show that the infant registers and is influenced by what occurs about six months after its birth. As Allah notes in the Qur'an, the auditory structure is one of the first to function correctly. Unbelievably, unborn children can feel their hair or raise their pupils. Another point of concern is whether or not sounds are produced in wombs. It is believed that the mother's voice is heard by the embryo floating in the amniotic fluid in the womb.

The practice of performing Athan in a newly-born baby's ears is considered to be Sunnah when the child is born. The Qur'an guides that the first words that a child should hear are, *God is great, there is no God but Allah. Muhammad is the messenger of Allah. Come to prayer* (Gatrad & Sheikh, 2001; www.bbc.co.uk, 2009) The children hear the first sentences, they say, they proclaim the beauty and supremacy of Allah. These are the phrases a man says as he embraces Islam. Satan stands out from the voice of Athan. Thus, the boy is called to Allah and glorifies Allah. New-borns are requested to listen to music as a calming device for their academic success or mental relaxation in many hospitals worldwide right after birth. This has been supported even on the official site of UNICEF (www.unicef.org).

Language Development

When we look at language development, we see that there are many different theories about how children acquire language, and we also see that there are many controversies that persist (Assaiqeli, 2013; Jayasundara, 2018). Even so, specialists as well as laymen are struck by the fantastic process itself. Following are some of the leading theories in the field:

Social Cognitive Learning and Behaviourism

It is widely said that children acquire repeated words, which is the central principle for learning social cognitive psychology. This theory demonstrates the value of social interaction for language learning. Here too, there are two possibilities. One, the focus is on the social-pragmatic aspects of the input (Akhtar & Tomasello, 2000; Bloom, 2000). Two, the indication that child language development is influenced by a 'complex set of relationships among several variables' that involve both the adult and the child (Chapman, 2000).

As the mother talks to her infant, she uses phrases to communicate, and the child can emulate her mother to carry on having fun. If we note that reinforcement happens, it is clear that we are developing baby language in many ways. This suggests that the more people respond to their children's vocalizations, the sooner they master the language (Tamis-LeMonda, Bornstein & Baumwell, 2001). This view of language learning suggests that **need** and **reward** (Ripolles, 2014) are the two prerequisites for language learning. Needs are products of internal and external stimuli and rewards may be in the form of word or gesture, but do play a significant role in the language learning experience of children.

Nativism

Yule (2006) attempts to answer the puzzle of the basis of the existence of language in the human mind and suggests the idea of innateness as potentially a central mutation in human biology. This might not be a natural change, nor one that occurs very quickly. We may not know whether this genetic modification has existed or how it could lead to the physical modifications described previously. However if we take this hypothesis into account, we find our speculation that language origins go away from fossil facts or the physical basis of basic human sounds into analogies about how computers work (for example, they are pre-programming or hardwired) and the analysis of genetics takes ideas. However, this does not necessarily refer to a neuronal network that 'contains' as it were, language related genetic information. This is also **not** what is suggested by Chomsky (Blitman, 2014).

Chomsky (1968) suggests that the human brain is innately wired for language learning. He assumes that also there is a grammatical framework for children to understand the language. This is the universal grammar he calls. According to this hypothesis, listening to spoken language activates the triggering of this structure and encourages more than imitation. Chomsky argues that the vocabulary we typically understand is not sufficient to clarify how all the grammar laws are created that children easily acquire. Chomsky points to the evidence that babies will say things they have never heard, for example, "The cats eated the mouses" rather than "The cats ate the mice." It is assumed that babies have never heard adults saying "eated" or "mouses," and therefore, they could not just be imitating language they have listened to. Though, we can observe that, even if the first sentence is grammatically wrong, it could be correct in some respects. In English, we do add *-ed* for the past tense and *-s* for plurals. We have exceptions to this rule, however, called irregular verbs or nouns. This process is called

over-regulation, which acts as if irregular words follow the rules of the regular, which in fact, is not the case. Certain terms are produced only by children and Chomsky argues that the fundamental rules of grammar are inherent (Levine, 2010).

In the light of Chomsky's theory of the innateness of language, it is important to note what the Qur'an says

Then Adam received from his Lord words...

(2-The Cow, 37)

فَتَلَقَّى آدَمُ مِنْ رَبِّهِ كَلِمَاتٍ فَتَابَ عَلَيْهِ ۚ إِنَّهُ هُوَ التَّوَّابُ الرَّحِيمُ ﴿٣٧﴾

Can we even begin to imagine how mankind would have survived had they been deprived of this unique ability to of speech. The Quran's states that the first human being was taught to speak, that Adam was given the gift of speech. Man is born equipped with the mental capacity, with an ear ready to hears, and a complex oral mechanism to express himself. Coincidences cannot account for the perfect and complex creation of our ear, mouth and tongue. To all these, however, has to be added the endowment by our Creator of the potential a priori faculty of speech.

Interactionism

This hypothesis of the production of languages implies that the physical readiness of the infant combines with the interactions of the child in his community in order to improve his vocabulary. In other words, when the human mind meets with the right conditions of language acquisition, it acts like a trigger and the mind responds to the stimulus, leading to language production. Referring to the Holy Qur'an,

“O Adam, give them their names.” When he told them their names, He said: “Did I not tell you that I know the secrets of the heavens and the earth? I know whatever you reveal and whatever you conceal.”

(2-The Cow, 33)

قَالَ يَا آدَمُ أَنْبِئْهُمْ بِأَسْمَائِهِمْ ۚ فَلَمَّا أَنْبَأَهُمْ بِأَسْمَائِهِمْ قَالَ أَلَمْ أَقُلْ لَكُمْ إِنِّي أَعْلَمُ غَيْبَ السَّمَاوَاتِ

(33) وَالْأَرْضِ وَأَعْلَمُ مَا تُبْدُونَ وَمَا كُنْتُمْ تَكْتُمُونَ

So clearly, the Qur'an recognises the fact that interaction with real language is the means to ensure language acquisition.

Caretaker speech (Motherese)

The characteristically simplistic way to communicate is known as caregiver's expression for someone who spends a lot of time engaging with a small child. The standard actions of adults in the home setting definitely encourages children to understand their language. Adults like mothers typically have a basic sentence form and repeat a lot. An example of caretaker speech is as follows;

Mother	:	dekho 'look'
Baby	:	touches the picture
Mother	:	ye kya hai? 'what is this?'
Baby	:	vocalizes a babble and smile
Mother	:	ye billi hai. 'this is cat'
Baby	:	vocalizes and smiles
Mother	:	han, billi hai. 'yes, this is cat'

Crying

Babies start crying just after birth. As we hear babies crying, we begin to discover the reason and make attempts to stop it. Interestingly, communication starts when babies start learning that crying can do something as a signal that can provide them relief from hunger, discomfort, and loneliness.

Cooing

Around two to four months after birth, children start producing happy noises (Menn and Stoel-Gammon 2005). Because of their physical background, the noise they make is limited, but it sounds like cooing doves. Children continue to participate with parents in the pre-language 'talk' (Tamis-LeMonda, Cristofaro, Rodriguez and Bornstein, 2006). The series of actions are as follows: the child, parents are talking; the kid is happy and laughing; parents are smiling and talking. In this way, long before they talk, infants begin to use vocabulary (Levine, 2010).

Babbling

Typically infants begin babbling at six months and stir for a long time. It is made up of a long string of vowels and consonants. The babbling value is it is used primarily as a preparation for

corresponding expression. Secondly, mutual rewards or pure enjoyment for babble children (Jannedy et al. 1994:268). You build strings of pairs of consonants, such as:

Ma-ma-ma-ma

Ba-ba-ba-ba

Da-da-da-da

Sometimes these combinations are seen very long da-da-da-da-da-da-da-da-da-da-da-

Gestures

Children start using gestures, such as showing or pointing towards something, at about 8 to 12 months of age. They may tell or show something which they need.

One word or holophrastic stage

Young children will be driven to their first vocabulary by babbling. Their first sentences are babbling (Menn & Stoel-Gammon, 2005). According to Stubbs, "Holophrases define early childhood terms" (1995:379). When babies communicate using isolated phrases, treating each phrase as a sentence (called Holophrastic communication), the words they use -are characteristic of people, objects, animals and other important and common locations. Very soon, their vocabulary expands, bringing in other useful words.

Following words have been observed as examples;

abba:, ba:ba: 'father'

amma: *or* ammi: 'mother'

da:da: 'grandfather'

du:dh 'milk'

pa:ni: 'water'

Two-word stage

Children can produce two-word utterances around two years of age, but this can vary (earlier or later) in some children. This is a remarkable stage in the life of a child. During which the child acquisition begins quickly after the one-word stage. Now, the child can produce two-element utterances and makes the semantic relationship between them.

ammi: du: dh 'mummy milk'

da:da: acche 'grandfather good' grandfather is good

pa:pa: biskiT 'Papa biscuit'

There can be an absence of syntactic or morphological markers during this stage, that is, no derivation or inflection for number or person or tense or gender. The child may address a feminine gender as masculine or masculine as feminine.

Telegraphic stage

There appears to be no triple-word sentence level (Jannedy et al. 1994:276). If a child attempts to string more than two sentences, the expressions maybe 3, 4, 5 or more. We say that infants employ telegraphic language as the notable feature of their language use at this stage is the selection of content words, dropping the function words, much like the language that was used in writing telegrams. In other words, children at this stage are already aware that only using content words can convey most of the message.

Telegraphic speech	Instead of saying	Gloss
me a:m kha:ya:	<i>mene</i> a:m kha:ya:	'I ate mango' -the absence of ergative - <i>ne</i>
du:dh frij me de do	du:dh frij me <i>se</i> de do	'Give me milk from the fridge' -the absence of postposition <i>se</i>

After two years of age children rapidly acquire words and develop other linguistic skills like; grammar, semantics, pragmatics etc. The process of learning begins at schools. Children start learning other language skills e.g. reading and writing.

The Holy Qur'an also talks of the 'names' as being the primary component of language. Indeed, the words that were taught to Adam were 'names' or content words, the very first words that are produced by young infants.

And He taught Adam all the names. Then presented them to the angels, saying: "Tell Me the names of these if you are truthful."

(2- The Cow, 31)

(31) وَعَلَّمَ آدَمَ الْأَسْمَاءَ كُلَّهَا ثُمَّ عَرَضَهُمْ عَلَى الْمَلَائِكَةِ فَقَالَ أَنْبِئُونِي بِأَسْمَاءِ هَؤُلَاءِ إِنْ كُنْتُمْ صَادِقِينَ

Conclusion

The query how the first man in this land learned a sentence. The Qur'an verse can be spoken about

وَعَلَّمَ آدَمَ الْأَسْمَاءَ كُلَّهَا ثُمَّ عَرَضَهُمْ عَلَى الْمَلَائِكَةِ فَقَالَ أَنْبِئُونِي بِأَسْمَاءِ هَؤُلَاءِ إِنْ كُنْتُمْ صَادِقِينَ ﴿٣١﴾

And He taught Adam all the names (of everything), then He showed them to the angels and said, "Tell me the names of these if you are truthful." [Qur'an - 2:31]

When the children start acquiring their mother tongue, they learn the grammar and phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic rules. No one teaches these rules, but they are pre-programmed with innate capacity, a gift from Allah.

This paper has endeavored to establish the relevance of Qur'anic verses as parallels to modern ideas of early language acquisition. The Qur'an, as a fountainhead of knowledge, has enunciated on diverse subjects including astronomy, anatomy and geology. The current study establishes its relevance in linguistics and language learning as well. Religious philosophy is a reflection of human life, and nowhere is this more obvious than in the Holy Qur'an which offers answers to numerous questions that relate to mankind. It once again establishes the infallibility of the Qur'an as an immense ocean of knowledge.

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Learner-Centered Language Learning Strategy in Digital Environment: Its Effect to Students' Vocabulary, Collaboration and Independence

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Abstract

Three-dimensional virtual (3D) environments provide EFL students with a rich and dynamic multimodal understanding of vocabulary. This study aims to explore implementing a 3D vocabulary learning strategy for young students on EFL vocabulary. The relationship between two facets of learning – autonomy and collaboration – has been studied in particular to investigate the consequences of this process's social-cultural nature. An almost theoretical research paradigm explores the effect of 3D virtual space experiences, learner influence, and cooperation on language learning. The findings demonstrated the favorable impact of virtual environments on the

development of vocabulary. Specific and simultaneous autonomous usage that conflicts with the program's architecture structure has encouraged vocabulary retention rather than instruction. Importantly, pair analysis has found that survival improved more rapidly than human activity. Successful vocabulary teaching in a 3D environment is demonstrated by students' autonomous administration and their positive contact with these items and close collaboration with the employees.

Keywords: *Virtual environment, learner autonomy, collaboration, vocabulary, Virtual Reality, IT, VEs, Language Learner Autonomy*

Introduction

In the past decade, I.T. developments have expanded funding and expanded the number of language learning opportunities and schooling opportunities. Digital environments (V.E.s) have been a useful technique since the early 2000s, as technology offers plentiful opportunities for learners to interact through audi, test, and video based communicatin channels. However, which allowing language-learning systems to mimic real worlds in which visual, textual, and auditory interfaces help users observe, explore, and obtain multimodal feedback. Such virtual worlds have evolved from simplified representations of shared reality in complex environments with the advent of technology. For starters, e-mail tandem learning provides language students versatility and text-based online contact networks (Warschauer, Turbee & Roberts, 1996). Interactive material helps users change circumstances or roles according to their preferences (Gardner & Garcia, 1996). Virtual worlds (V.W.s) and new game technologies currently common create permanent V.E.s in which the users of avatars play their part (Peterson, 2011). Latest Virtual Reality (V.R.) putting viewers in V.E.s of ground-breaking, first-person immersive systems (Garcia-Ruiz & Edwards, 2008).

V.W.s are time-kept domains managed by powerful database servers that allow users to join and depart at will. Even after users leave these regions, the V.E.s continue to work, and other users who enter or enter later can use it. V.W.s are typical manifestations of second Life: the Active Realms and the Warcraft Realms (Peterson, 2011). Such games can be played on wear-free mobile devices, and the third party would be omniscient. The V.R. entertainment software increases the realism of visual and auditory sensory input by integrating wearable devices. This V.R. feature's

fundamental aim is to network or play, while implicit and indirect learning can be accomplished with space for the use of language. (Sadler, 2012). Behavior. In addition to games, V.W.s can be used for language learning and other educational purposes. Software incorporating critical features of V.W.s (e.g., E.D.s or multimodal presentations) have been able to generate personalized tutorials, which serve as interactive sources of language elements such as vocabulary, to understand them better. Tutorial packages have features that optimize the opportunity to understand as students follow a new task and study terminology relevant to thematic contexts. 3D multimodal meaning and type data help these projects, which contributes to an advanced vocabulary learning system. Based on these V.W. characteristics, this paper aims to decide how much EFL students can learn their vocabulary using a 3DVW vocabulary system.

Among the wide applications areas that Virtual Reality (VR) can have a major impact, One is Education, lthough tutorials for the virtual world should encourage language teaching by rich contextualization through simulation and multimodal input, it is also expected to lead to a more inclusive learning and learner cooperation. Understanding language is only defined by learners' intention to navigate the environment, which transforms the study of vocabulary into a learning mechanism centered on learners. However, educational programs are also used as a supplement to teaching for instructors in their regular classes. This may be because of a strict curriculum or shortage of funding, which may enable teachers to pursue a traditional teaching style and take jobs so the whole class may practice on the 3-screen. Learner-centered and student-centered approaches vary in the extent to which students autonomously control the learning experience. The second aim of the thesis is to determine how an interpersonal difference, namely teacher-centered versus learner-centered approaches to 3DVW instruction, makes it possible for students to understand EFL vocabulary broadly.

Furthermore, cooperation with a partner may help to facilitate sense searching and develop the learning of terms in navigation. Whereas the social culture hypothesis indicates that good understanding occurs in social communities, it is uncertain whether a social component of the term learning implemented in a V.E. lesson program will have a different learning result. The third issue addressed in the analysis is why the 3DVW vocabulary system is more effective than individualism for peer collaboration in a collective organization.

Multimedia models of learning and vocabulary acquisition

It has been shown that multimedia tools are successful in second language learning and proposed by many scholars (Tsai 2004; Chang 2006). Graphical software has been developed to improve vocabulary learning by enhanced visual, graphic, and audio entry through text, picture, video, and 3DVW (Wang, 2003; Lin, 2009). Dual coding theory (DCT) (Paivio, 1986) explains the beneficial influence of visual feedback on vocabulary growth. It reveals the text's development as constructing two mental representations: the spoken and the nonverbal. If information is written in both formats, referential relations improve all types of information (Paivio, 1986), enhancing quality and alertness compared with data coding on the same system. The interconnection between visual, verbal, and audio input often makes it possible for students with comparatively low cognitive ability to learn in a contextualized way (Folse 2006; Walters 2006; Webb 2008). Mayer (2001) has also incorporated DCT for second language learning into the Generative Theory of Interactive Learning (GTML). The theory splits the oral system into two classes, L1 and L2, with four familiar pictures. Both language systems are integrated by translation to add to the L2 scheme. The information (Paivio and Desrochers 1980) and language learning (Mayer 2001) are supported by improved processing and storage. Hong (2010) thus notes that the multimedia system would facilitate language learning by increasing learner interest, inspiring learners, encouraging diversity in education, identifying productive and experiential modes, and enhancing technical and research skills.

The use of the 3D virtual world as a language-learning tool

The central feature of the V.W.s, the virtual 3D environment, has been seen in several ways to make language learning simpler. The 3D world that simulates real or imagined situations for experiential word-learning helps children understand, understand, and grow their word knowledge (Lin, 2010). Secondly, Avatar's new individual increases the fun factor and reduces anxiety because of mistakes in real social contexts, especially for EFL students who may be vulnerable to an affront in their language ego (Jung, 2002). In reality, in several cases, the almost genuine realistic experience can occur without strict time limits that pertain to proper face-to-face interaction (Jung, 2002; Chang & Ho, 2009). In a 3D virtual environment, these motivational tasks are more significant than traditional classrooms to create learner awareness and cognitive dedications.

Language autonomy and computerized learning

Learners' autonomy has been increasingly widespread in language education and learning for over three decades (Holec, 1981). The learner's autonomy includes the opportunity to assume responsibility for instruction, including the setting of goals, the assessment of material and development, the evaluation of approaches and strategies to be used, the monitoring of the learning process, and an analysis of the results obtained. In a similar vein, Benson (2013) identified control in three levels: the power of learning management, control of cognitive processes, and control of materials. Benson states that the three levels of learning autonomy should be developed first by designing, arranging, and assessing learning at the first level, fostering learners' participation in language input, expressing their expertise, and consolidating metacognitive information at the second stage. It merely presupposes and implies that a pupil has a strong psychological link with their academic environment and resources. The ability for autonomy can be seen not only as students understand but also as learning is being translated into broader contexts. (Small, 1991). Little (2002) called for a more comprehensive approach to learners' autonomy and said that self-employment requires experience, an optimistic viewpoint, and a desire to communicate with others. Students were allowed to make their own decisions, they were monitored, and more relaxed and satisfied (Lepper, 1985; Cotterall, 1995). Indeed, evidence indicates that a computerized world full of interactions, information, and individualization can increase student-language comprehension, encourage interaction and communication and strengthen learner autonomy in a learning setting (Benson, 2013; Schwienhorst, 2002, 2008). In other words, immersive multimodal software systems are capable of improving students' language skills and promoting and growing their organization's meaning through interaction and cooperation with their peers. The idea of partnership with pairs has been widely discussed in ESL / EFL learning (Webb, 1982; Johnson & Johnson, 1990; Nunan, 1992; Zurita & Nussbaum, 2004). Some possible advantages of pair work have been established (Johnson & Johnson, 1990 and 1999). Secondly, when students work together, they can exhibit positive interdependence since they share a similar purpose. Secondly, students should accept obligations not only for the sake of accountability but also for society, which will allow high-level students to cooperate and promote the understanding of low-level citizens. Finally, shared interest and uncertainty should be encouraged, which leads to a supportive environment for good learning.

Despite the opportunity to facilitate learner management in language learning through technology-enhanced tools, experimental studies on these findings are still scarce in virtual environments. One example is the Collentine research (2011), which examines the connection between autonomy in surfing V.W.s and written follow-up correspondence from Spanish students as L2. It was shown that during a 3D discovery test, the autonomous gestures of students significantly influenced the accuracy of the findings L2 input and thus influenced the consistency and complexity of their written follow-up. Reinders and White (2011) sought observational research on the autonomy of language learners by V.W.

Effects of the Virtual Environment on Development of Language

In addition to increasing education quality, several tests have shown virtual environments that have beneficial effects on the learners' oral language skills. The teamwork in the virtual environment – be it Second Life or recordings – has been noticed by Canto, Jauregi and van den Bergh (2013) to boost Japanese college students' performance in oral study. Second Life was also carried out in a college with Chinese international students who studied Mandarin in Taiwan. In the recorded debate in the classroom, it was discovered that the second life experimental group offered more class lectures and open answers than the control group, who used the same material as the teacher. The improvement in talk continuity during the study has helped improve the oral test success and positive testing attitude at the end of the sessions. In recent times, the author and collaborators discussed the effect of a meta-analysis on the language learning of 3DVWs. The study successfully analyzed 13 primary studies between 2008 and 2019 and found a vital effect ($d = .832$) of 3DVW on language learning. A medium to high effect ($d = .739$) was noticed for vocabulary training, which shows that applications for 3DVW help improve L2 vocabulary learning. Research has shown in particular that the creation of 3DVWs supports learners' autonomy (Yeh & Lan, 2018).

Despite the promising ability of 3DVW to facilitate vocabulary acquisition, only a few studies have followed the experimental versus control group method to permit intergroup comparison, which exposes superior effects of 3DVW (Chung, 2012; Ali Mohsen, 2016; L) since only a few 3DVW trials are possible with experimental population configuration versus control,

In a teacher-centered environment with no benefits of 3DVWs, a prior study has often never compared the effects of teacher-centered 3DVWs. In comparison to two forms of student teaching, 3DVW can be used as a platform for students. This is especially true in traditional classrooms based on Asian students.

Therefore, the analysis of 3DVW's effect on vocabulary growth can not be complete without comparing it with the third form of use — the student-driven approach.

The inquiry includes the use, individualistic, mixed, and presentation of 3DVW vocabulary systems in three different cases, as contrasted with teacher-led vocabulary education without 3DVW's assistance. This is definitely important if the effects of a 3DVW system based on the instructor are to be evaluated in order to illustrate how much 3DVW architecture goes well beyond a traditional methodology without 3DVW components. The inclusion of the 3DVW group of teachers also facilitates a collective evaluation framework to display the effect of an affiliation of 3DVW teachers in both person and peer modes of study in 3DVW environments. Due to its emphasis on social and cultural elements of user interfaces and its role in incorporating 3D virtual worlds into a classroom, teacher work is important and fundamental, as pedagogy and not technology influences the progress of language learning (Liou, 2012; Wang and Vásquez, 2012).

In brief, the present study is intended to address the above void, comparing the outcomes of a longitudinal review of vocabulary learning with the impact of different pedagogical techniques. The effects of 3DVWs conducted by classroom teachers must be explored in a 3DVW setting with respect to independent and interdependent autonomy. In this study, students' autonomy is evaluated by the presence / absence of a supervisor (i.e. teacher-centered versus student-centered condition) and the presence/absence (i.e. independent function versus pairing) of a peer indicates two separate forms of autonomy that is both autonomous.

Research Questions

Three research questions explored the impact of 3D virtual reality mediation and two distinct forms of autonomous learning modes on vocabulary acquisition.

1. Will 3D virtual learning have a more influential impact than the teacher-centered approach without the advantages of 3D virtual environments?

2. Do autonomous modes of learning have more impact than the teacher-centered approach to vocabulary education in the simulated 3D environment?
3. Did the pair-work autonomous learning mode have more pronounced results in 3D simulated worlds than the individualistic vocabulary mode?

Methods

Participants

Ninety-six of third graduates studied in this study at four integrated groups of elementary school. With 24 pupils, the four conditions in each class – one control group, three simulated experimental conditions, one group (hereinafter V.E.), were distributed to each of the four learning environments: the matched V.E. group, the independent V.E. group and the teacher-centered V.E. Group. Prior to the intervention study, a 20-point pictorial vocabulary awareness test was administered. The words used in the vocabulary test were taken from the 80 words learned in English between the first and second school years. The findings showed that no substantial variation had been found by the use of one-way ANOVA to evaluate the means of the four parties ($F = 0.78, p > .05$). All four-study subjects thus had a standard amount of vocabulary before they engaged in the systemic review.

Instrument and Procedure

3D Virtual Environment Vocabulary Framework is an immersive 3D Virtual Language platform co-developed by a federal department and a local author. In an immersive forum within a local network, multimodal content is distributed (textual, pictorial, audio, and visual). Students may select their character and create a new identity to travel across the Welcoming Land area by various transport means. The program covers four topics: families, community, schools, and programs, as well as several modules of learning. The study used the airport module, one of the transport module. Although the study site was a high school in Taipei's city with an international airport, the researchers looked at the students and noticed that most children were heading to national or foreign airports. The students then grasped the situation at the airport, and the vocabulary could be considered practical. This research uses Virtual World (V.E.) rather than V.W. to refer to the education system's 3D context because schooling is perceived, and the setting exists entirely in one school's digital network.

The first two conditions were demonstrated and conducted in the daily classroom, the regulation, and the teacher's 3DVE state. Students in charge had a graphic flashcard with words inserted in the same images as students under V.E., while teachers under V.E. 3D virtual worlds were aimed at teachers who took an avatar, browsed spaces, and taps their target words for information. Both these movements were shown for the entire college on a projected projector. The other two criteria were student-centered, one 3DVE, and the combined 3DVE, and ten were applied in the simulated laboratory. In both cases, the students underwent the word learning process in the same classroom environment as the students focusing on teaching at V.E. Former students have separate access, while new students have mixed computer access. The students sat side by side, signed in, hugged one Avatar, and sailed across the room, clicked on words and worksheets together.

When it enrolled and picked as Avatar students in the individual V.E. and V.E. environments, there was the opportunity to explore six different virtual spaces at both levels of the airport. The first floor has a luggage carryover gate, check-in area, and screening room where 10 words are introduced; the second floor has a hub for shopping, a waiting area and an aviation cabin with 10 other words. Three types of information can be sent in response to each word: the English word structure, its spelling, and the background.

Target word selection for the study

A timely version of the 30-points was used by the 96 participants to remove words that students were previously aware of or readily imagined based on aircrafts description terminology in the 3D segment. An item-response analysis was conducted, and ten objects were deemed eligible for withdrawal. A second round of item tests demonstrated high reliability of Cronbach's alpha value of 0.81. Twenty comparison words were used for evaluation and the two post-tests in the main study. In twenty languages, four stories (paper, table, sink, tie), five words (baggage, mirror, bathroom, sofa, T-shirts), five words (board panel, makeup, bag-cart, monitor, passenger), and three names (check-in, flight attendant, x-ray machine) and three words (automatic lock, metal detectors) with five or more syllables were all included. Both verbs were called nouns with 12 single words and 8 compounds. Two 40-minute class sessions were also splitting the 20 words into two classes to be analyzed: 10 connected to the first floor of the virtual airport in a class session,

and 10 to the second floor. The 20 words were also keywords for the 20 multiple-choice subjects' immediate post-tests. Multiple-choice components were used when the relationship between L2 children and words at the level of understanding was properly assessed (Schmitt, 2010). The factor stem indicates the desired language accompanied by four written equivalents, one right response, and three distractors. The order and sequence of the element choices varied among the two posts.

Map-matching worksheet, word card, picture card, and bomb-matching worksheet

There are two worksheets for vocabulary learning: a worksheet that matched the map and a worksheet that matched the explosion. A photo card and a word card were produced to complete a map-matching workbook for each of the 20 target words. The same teacher advised all four-study groups to track the effects of teaching expertise and the inconsistencies from teachers' influence. This positions the four classes on a common point of reference to refine and describe the outcomes of the V.E. program. The worksheet was used as the first challenge for students to refer to the meaning, structure and pronunciation of words. It reveals the floor map of the airport with bomb icons at each target. Any explosives have been identified, and others have not been counted. Students were told about a terrorist threat at the airport, which was planned by identifying the designated terrorist symbols on the map to distinguish the locations with the right word and picture cards. Any student received a set of 40 cards to help complete the worksheets for the plan: 20 picture cards and 20-word cards.

An example is presented on one side of the picture card and a number that fits the chart on the other side. On one side of the text, card is a typewritten word. A worksheet for Bomb Matching was used to strengthen guidance. Divided into 13 upper and lower parts, 10 examples in the upper one were marked with a letter and ten target words with a bubble formed with a blank parenthesis next to each word to be filled with a letter designating the picture upper portion.

Data Collection Procedure

Data were obtained during regular class hours within four weeks. In the first week, the researchers held an orientation session to introduce 3D V.E. to the three V.E. groups and participate in the process. The selection of student I.D. numbers from a lottery box is a spontaneous activity in the V.E. division. The researchers then offered the necessary therapies for each of the four classes in the second week in two class sessions. The three tasks included ten terms during the first part-

session, each for a length of 20, 12, and 8 minutes. The same procedure was performed for the remaining 10 terms in the second session. After a break, the immediate post-testing was done in 5 minutes at the start of the third class session. Two weeks later, another post-test was completed. Several previous retrospective vocabulary studies confirmed vocabulary retention within 1-2 days of immediate postoperative review in students (e.g. Beréndi, Csábi & Kövecses, 2008; Condon, 2008; Csabi, 2004). However, it is challenging to interpret the outcomes of these studies validly and to say the long-lasting implications of specific interference in their research. Indeed, experiments were undertaken in this way endanger instrument familiarity due to the concise post-test duration. Researchers suggested that it could take at least three weeks (Brown, Irving, & Keegan, 2008). However, the pilot analysis conducted in the current work largely ignored the maintenance effects of the V.E. system for three weeks. These results may be attributed to the sample's low average age (i.e., ten years). In short, both theoretical and pilot results led the continuing research to use a two-week interval between the immediate post-test and the postponed repair evaluation.

Moreover, the 20 words studied during the immediate post-test over two weeks were not listed or repeated in the guide in the school, and the students concentrated on in-class games and activities that were not linked to the V.E. system during the analysis. Usually, the exercises and events were carried out so that the V.E.s in the learning environment for the four study groups were not used. Ses games and activities were carried out in groups of four or six students, and we did not work together but separately. Eventually, 16 flashcards were withdrawn temporarily for two weeks to reduce the training impact on the research population.

Data Analysis

The values of immediate post-test delays were measured by IBM SPSS using a 4x2 model of ANOVA with a group of subjects as an independent variable and two-time stages as an independent variable within subjects. There were more variations between groups since the group factor revealed a significant distance.

Results

Item response analysis of the 20-item vocabulary test

Essentially, the final set of 20 target terms for the formal analysis is calculated to predict little likelihood during the pre-test process. A psychometric analysis of the proper research results was carried out using the 3PL model of object response theory (IRT). The significances and standard deviations of the three IRT measurements of the 20-item pictorial vocabulary test. The mean test difficulty was -0.19; the average inequality was 2.67; and the average guess rate was 0.05, which was very close to zero. There was a variation for the devaluation index that decreased from zero to 0.122, and the average deviation rate was just below 0.25, while four alternatives for each test item were given. There were very few odds of the participants being correctly responded, i.e., the low chance of guessing, with the typical curves of all 20 vocabulary items. Therefore, the test values of the 96 participants could be deemed accurate and correct, and the probability of error could safely be removed in the two post-tests.

Main effects of group and time

In the immediate post-test, a modest retention rate between a mean of 7.13 and 11.97 words and a mean of 5.42 words to 10.25 words was reached in the late post-test. Analysis of ANOVA showed a significant main effect for the Group ($F = 3.98$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .12$) and a significant principal effect for Time ($F = 18.91.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 < .02$) as well as a significant main effect for Time. In other words, substantial variations between the four classes and between the two post-test results may be found. No substantial correlation was also detected between Group and Time ($F = 1.26$, $p > 0.05$), indicating that time variations did not vary between the four groups, and the disparity between the two post-tests did not differ between groups. In comparison, the combined V.E. group only lost a mean of 1.54 (S.E. = .38), the least of the three study groups. In a related way, the human V.E. group had fewer mean qualities of terms ($M = -2.0$, S.E. = .34) and a more real, post-test mean than the teacher-centered V.E. group ($M = -2.38$, S.E. = .48). The findings of the 95 % confidence intervals revealed, above all, that the paired V.E. group had the lowest attrition of verbal memory, followed by the independent V.E. group, as well as the instructor V.E. group. Essentially, of the four classes, the control group with complete instructor regulation and no V.E. mediation earned the fewest words of the four groups ($M = 7.13$, $SE = 1.31$), although the number of words maintained was the least ($M = 5.42$, $SE = 1.12$).

Post-hoc multiple pairwise comparisons

The three pairs of contrasts have been tested for study question one about the impact of 3D virtual reality mediation on the immediate and delayed learning of vocabulary by students, both between the V.E. group and the control group. Since the party has the main effect, posthoc Tukey HSD experiments have been conducted for multiple pair comparisons on all post-tests. First, on immediate post-test, the matched group of VE ($M = 11.79$, $SD = .88$) the independent groups of VE ($M = 10.04$, $SD = .881$), and the group of teachers of VE ($M = 9.46$, $SD = 1.01$), both of which scored substantially better in immediate vocabulary test with all of their p -values < 0 . ($M = 7.13$, $SD = 1.31$) Secondly, the dominance of the control group was preserved in the post-test delayed on the VE group ($M = 10.25$, $SD = .97$), but not the teacher-centered VE ($M = 8.04$, $SD = .86$) group, and in the individual VE ($M = 8.04$, $SD = .86$). This result indicates that the teacher-centered V.E. group's impact on the number of words remembered is close to that of the control group. On the other hand, two student-centered V.E. requirements will supplement or override the traditional teacher-centered flashcard instructions, as well as the teacher-centered V.E. implementation system. We contrasted both of the two student-centered classes, the paired V.E. group, and the independent V.E. group, with the VE-centered instructor on two positional grades, in reaction to study questions two on the impact of learning autonomy vocabulary acquisition by V.E. mediation.

The matched group VE ($M = 11.79$, $SD = 1.88$) demonstrated a slightly improved advantage in the immediate post-test than the group VE-centered instructor ($M = 9.46$, $SD = 1.01$), as the 95 % CI in that matched contrast $[-5.73, -0.41]$ did not include zero in an immediate post-test. Likewise, during the posttest postponement, the VE group paired ($M = 10.25$, $SD = .97$) was again considerably superior to the VE group based on the teachers ($M = 7.08$, $SD = .99$), as shown by the 95-per-cent CIs without zero ($[-5.75, -0.38]$). But mean variations between the V.E. and the V.E. instructors did not exceed statistical significance, either in the immediate post-test ($M_{diff} = .58$, 95 percent CI $[-3.20, 4.36]$) or in the post-test delayed ($M_{diff} = .996$, 95 % CI $[-4.62, 2.70]$). To answer study question three, the two classes focused on learners were compared with 21. Although there was no substantial gap in the immediate post-test between the paired V.E. group and the single V.E. group, the paired V.E. group surpassed the single V.E. Group in the post-test period dramatically. In this clustered pair relation, 95 percent CI for immediate post-test $[-5.33, 0.73]$ is zero, compared to the post-test $[-5.12, -0.12]$ the area supporting the V.E. pair category

without zero inclusion. The paired V.E. group thus tended to bear more weight in class than the independent V.E. group in implementing V.E. guidance.

Discussion

Effects of V.E. mediation

In brief, changes in the virtual world affect immediate, post-test performance when students behave autonomously in workplaces and in teacher-centered V.E. settings. However, when the evaluation was delayed, only the composite V.E. variables remained the same. An earlier study has scarcely looked at the effect of V.E. interference on students' language learning, and the first systematic attempt is made in the current analysis. Such results support the facilitative role of V.E. mediation by students themselves or teachers in language acquisition. In comparison to the control case, all three V.E. groups have developed in favor of the post liberation of dual-code theory (Pavio, 1986) and generative multimedia theory of learning at various stages of the V.E. system (Mayer, 2000). Multimedia feedback tends to enhance learning by the introduction of an alternative route to meaning instruction. Previous research findings suggest that the open multimedia content has a greater impact on vocabulary education in the virtual world than on a traditional teacher-oriented approach to English (Folse, 2006; Walters, 2006; Webb, 2008).

In a similar vein, incorporating the 3-D worlds with avatar navigation between facilities is part of a geographic connectivity network that can be connected to the personal interactions of an airport tour. It helps learners to cohesively exercise relationship theory (Dunas, Alexander & Crossnickle, 2013). As the link between target words is presented in three 22 dimensions, students may deduce their relative geographical position from broader 3D space when performing the Avatar for search and execution missions. This unique 3D V.E. element helps students to render integrated, functional, and interactive experiential gestures by integrating physical and mental information in the sense of experience (Kolb 2015). It is also suggested that V.E. would be a useful vocabulary-teaching tool for young learners, independent of the theory and the existing commitment consequences. While the instructor-led approach to V.E. vocabulary learning was marginal, the findings are distinct as a single study exploring the role of teacher intervention in V.E. learning. The results from this group are significant as follows. Secondly, previous research (as reviewed by the author & colleagues) never addressed the effect on teachers or students of the cumulative

presence of everyday classrooms. This flexible situation is typically influenced by practitioners from substitute computer labs to tight teaching schedules.

Moreover, several research studies compared VE-centered student learning with traditional teacher-directed teaching as a control mechanism, which included elements that disputed the results.

Furthermore, this comparison discusses two distinct influences in a single shot: E.V. and student association versus traditional and instructor's direction. The inclusion of a V.E. group in this analysis taught the role of V.E. and the effect of instructor instruction, enabling a more in-depth review of teacher outcomes engaging in a V.E. program. Thirdly, in the past V.E. language research was primarily based on sociocultural elements of user experience. The current process enables VE-centered teachers and students to collectively access and track the search process and to analyze the search results collectively by introducing a potential mode of social-cultural engagement to V.E. The unorthodox use of technology, multimedia input, and collaborative meeting with teachers and students in schools could be better than classroom flashcard preparation as a teaching tool. It is also recommended that vocabulary instructors adopt vocabulary-learning systems such as the study. The traditional application of vocabulary can be applied to flashcards or blackboards and V.R. elements can be used to enhance language interpretations. The addition of a V.E. to the language classroom is gaining attention due to the innovative adoption of an electronic whiteboard. Consequently, language teachers will navigate the seas by incorporating a V.E. into their creations. "Language teachers will explore how to establish and manage 23 unique factors that contribute to improved learning and training standards," as Gao (2019) puts it (p. 165) about the department of language education. The move will be achieved by the use of the current V.E. scheme to fund education.

Effects of Learner Autonomy on Vocabulary Learning in 3D Virtual Environments

Only the pair feature V.E. condition surpassed the teacher-centered state in both late experiments. On the contrary, the individual V.E. criteria did not differ in any post-test from the teacher-centered situation. The learner agent then only functions while another human is present. These findings were partially verified in the previous studies on how a virtual world can facilitate learning in a digital environment (Jung, 2002; Schwienhorst, 2002; Garcia-Ruiz & Edwards 2008). However, the results do not align with the results of Hitosugi, Schmidt, and Hayashi's (2014), which suggest

that ART practice is not an alternative to explicit vocabulary instruction. This discrepancy can be explained by the strong locus of the aims and improving ways of this study, on the one hand, and the implicit existence of the vocabulary of Hitosugi et al.'s review (2014). The results suggest that joint self-reliant use fixes the software's interface complexity and improves vocabulary retention.

The current qualitative study has shown that V.E. has a more significant influence on the teacher-centered traditional situation without V.E. (Lan, 2015; Lan, Hsiao, & Shih, 2018a; Lin, 2010). The present research is advancing on this idea by demonstrating that the individual V.E. condition was as good as the VE-treatment based on the instructor. This is because the effect of the apprenticeship on the particular V.E. condition is accounted for by the benefits obtained by the V.E. condition of the teacher. In other words, instructor help with an unambiguous interpretation should be accompanied by a reduction in the right of the school to use the V.E. system, which in all the post-tests as individualistic V.E. culture resulted in a similar outcome. In brief, teacher-led V.E. vocabulary workshops in tandem with straightforward implementation and contextualized instruction may be an alternative for individual vocabulary learning.

Effects of Pair Work

The results indicate that the V.E. status of the pair feature would reach the V.E. 24 individual level after the test, but not after the test. Their study reveals collectively that words learned through consultation with teachers or individualistic tests in the virtual world can be lost quicker than words learned by peer work by teachers. Not only the V.E. group was paired higher, but also even less word turnover was seen than the single V.E. party. One possible explanation is that mixed study with three networks (i.e. family, peer, and virtual) may contribute to greater cognitive analysis and a greater involvement of students than individual learning research. Nevertheless, the autonomous supervision of all student-centered classes in the teaching process seems to have given more priority to the commitment of the learner and seems to have led to improved cognitive development. In contrast, pair students can have advantages, which are not accessible to individual students. They also have a chance to discuss their questions and review their solutions with study colleagues (Ellis, Gibbs & Rein 1991; Schwienhorst 2002; Zurita & Nussbaum 2004). By contrast, the help given by the workers can be more dependent, precise and reliable than that given by a lecturer as a whole (Slavin 1978; Vygotsky 1978).

For these reasons, the superior performance of the paired V.E. team was more evident in the late post-test. Therefore, pair work in V.E. applications may play a more vital role than social labor. We conclude by outlining crucial facets of mutually controlled learning in a virtual environment that does not take account of the human VE-learning type, i.e. encouraging positive interdependence, shared accountability, and scaffolding learning (Ellis et al. 1991; Schwienhorst, 2002; Peterson, 2012a, 2012b) and subsequently closing the study discrepancy. In summary, this study indicates that it is easier for students to communicate with peers rather than behave in isolation in a virtual environment to affect their autonomy.

Pedagogical Implications

This result points to the usefulness of action in the virtual vocabulary environment and the positive role of pairing experience in promoting the production of EFL vocabulary at the primary level for children. Many suggestions are often collected for integrating virtual environments into the classroom. Second, immersive training reality apps that incorporate language in multiple forms may be designed to get children into practical vocabulary learning in line with textbooks' lessons. Such projects, as suggested for Jung (2002), Garcia-Ruiz, and Edwards (2008), can be extended in 25 unique contexts, simulating the actual reality of teens, creating interactive ways of contact, utilizing interactive media to encourage awareness, and defining the manufactured identities of avatars. Teachers should be exposed to educational opportunities both in the school and for children in and out of the school. In particular, a student-centric strategy would be pursued to facilitate learners' accessibility through the usage of virtual reality language learning systems. Training should be offered during use to enhance the quality of navigation and foster schemes and peer interactivity (Wang & Vásquez, 2012).

Furthermore, pair study, especially in school settings, is advised to foster a healthy attitude and encourage vocabulary growth through peer interaction. Finally, the effects of this study suggest that teachers play a redefined function in language learning virtual reality sports. Ideally, teachers can take on the role of mentor or facilitator as an instructor's oriented teaching is only needed during the initial course of instruction where the students are in a virtual environment. If students are conscious of the game code, guidance for navigation, and goal, teachers will study independently. As facilitators, the student pairs are monitored to ensure that their partners perform

together and reassign their partners if necessary. Teachers may often interrupt if students are unwilling to carry out communication and learning tasks during the assigned time.

Conclusion

Finally, the higher intermediate findings of learner autonomy in the paired job situation represent contemporary learning theory as fundamentally social (Vygotsky, 1978). Devolving other people, including peers and instructors, not just in conventional classrooms but also in the interactive environments we build, use, and play every day, as this study illustrates. This study aims to clarify the feasibility of learning autonomy and collaboration in the virtual environment, a transformation in teacher learning technology.

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Students' Attitudinal Effects of Product Writing Approach in the Saudi EFL Classroom

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Abstract

The paper assessed the linguistic and attitudinal effects of the product strategy for writing. The study adds to the current literature on the efficacy of a product strategy for Saudi EFL students. The respondents of the study were a total of 63 Saudi EFL undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia. The sample measurements were determined with a G*Power T-test Mean differential between two distinctive (matched) sample media with A priory power test shape. The results indicate that a product strategy successfully increases Saudi EFL students' writing and writing abilities as assessed by their accomplishments and attitudinal outcomes before and after the application of writing approaches, utilizing quasi-experimental testing techniques for respondents. Finally, the study concludes that there is no connection between the writing skills and the attitude of respondents' writing after introducing them to a product approach, which implies that they may display better-written results with the use of a product approach, regardless of their attitude to writing. The research findings would have real consequences for language instruction.

Keywords: *Writing skill, process approach, composing, product approach, teaching strategies, writing proficiency*

Introduction

Writing is deemed a vital communication ability in the modern field of communication. This initiative encapsulates the psychological initiative to consider meaningfully, constructively, and conversations and share these terms (Al-Haq & Al-Sobh, 2010; Als-by, 2010). Writing is even more difficult by illustrating essential aspects of the vocabulary. Several non-born English language educators have trouble writing English (Bingham, Quinn, & Gerde, 2017; Shao & Purpur, 2016; Strobl, et al , 2019). Teachers also face difficulties in writing English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom to enable students to grasp the writing convention, which is crucial for efficient and targeted communication (Elola, & Oskoz, 2017; Liao, 2016, Magulod, 2018). Therefore, this study was intended to benefit instead of reacting from previous research. The respondents were 63 Saudi EFL undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia. The sample measurements were determined with a G*Power T-test Mean differential between two distinctive (matched) sample media with A priory power test.

Recent research explored the usage of various methods to the challenge of writing teachers in reacting in writing to EFL students' national and foreign success (Alfaki, 2015; Bayat, 2014; Faraj, 2015; Hyland, 2016; Klimova, 2014; McQuitty, 2014; Teng, 2016). Liao (2014) used an automatic written assessment that increased Taiwanese students ' written results. Ellis (2018) modelled the students ' writing process. Baker (2016) utilized peer evaluation as a method to develop student writing abilities. Pascual (2019) has also stated that genre-based method methodology enhances the student's writing efficiency. Consequently, Marshall and Underwood (2019) identified the process-oriented writing method as a fruitful technology in undergraduate economics study. Azari (2017) has positively represented the impact of web-blog writing that boosts student success in EFL. Henao (2017) sponsored students' writing skills by utilizing ICT through the online portal.

Writing may be called a significant EFL talent since it needs consideration. It can not only be used as a networking tool but also as a knowledge-building process. As a skill, it must be learned how and when to write (Strobl et al., 2019). Writing skills have focused mainly on good EFL educated students (Hsieh, Hiew & Tay, 2017). The shift in writing viewpoint as a result is traditionally seen as one of the key paradigms of writing teachings (Magulod, 2018). The process method is beneficial for language students as students have developed the expression of the

language and must rely on content and intention (Azari, 2017, Barrot, 2018, Gielen et al, 2010). Process writing is a process through which students reflect not on the goods themselves, but on how their written products are created (Hwang, Hung & Chen 2014). Method writing is a writing methodology that allows teachers and students to experience a process of writing a document jointly (Özkul & Ortactepe, 2017). Students were granted the ability to talk about what they would read, provide feedback, re-write and include details and gain guidance on their writing before a final version of their text was created (Strijbos, Narciss, & Dünnebier, 2010). Therefore, this report is separate from the product strategy, where the key purpose is to compose the text for students (Woo et al., 2011).

Literature Review

Writing is one of the most critical abilities for learning a foreign language. It involves creating a definition, the acquisition of mental representations of information, and awareness of subjects (Mirshekaran, Namaziandost, & Nazari, 2018; Kurniaman, Yuliani, & Mansur, 2018). Writing consistency is an essential question in EFL writing colleges. Students' writing progress is typically calculated on the basis of how accurate they are in the areas of lexico-grammatics, spelling and punctuation (Huber, et al, 2020). After reviewing the core components of a sample text in many classrooms, students are asked to compose papers. They are essentially supposed to copy the sample text's operational characteristics. This is what is attained in product-based strategies. In process-product approaches, when a model text is present, students may also prepare their writing piece after a detailed analysis of the modeling text. Although there is an excess of studies on writing process approaches and even product approaches, there is a deficiency in literature on writing process-product approaches, and this discrepancy is specifically evident in the Saudi EFL sense.

There are diverse approaches to teaching writing. One of the earliest approaches is a product-based strategy in which, as stated by Bowen and Van Waes (2020) students start from pre-writing to composing and correcting. What is emphasized in this approach is to increase learners' awareness of grammatical structures in particular. According to Dovey (2020), in this approach, the focus is on the final product, which should be a cohesive, error-free text, and students can initiate, copy and convert templates produced by textbooks or instructors (Al-Ahdal, 2020; Sa'diah, Mujahidin, & Hartono, 2020).

Modeling is at the heart of this method. It has long been considered a valuable source for giving guidance to students and being an important instructional technique if appropriately incorporated into the framework of the writing process (Imelda & Astuti, 2019). Michel, Révész, Lu, Kourtali, Lee and Borges (2020) points out certain disadvantages to using model texts in L2 writing courses; the biggest downside being that model texts avoid L2 learners' creativity. Especially criticized was the way model texts were used in the product-based method, which reads the document, analyzes it and then starts to compose. Furthermore, Strobl, et al, (2019) points out that the product-based method allows learners in diverse contexts to use the same technique, to apply the same types, regardless of material, thus inhibiting writers rather than inspiring or freeing them. On the other hand, Li and Razali (2019) stress that when templates are appropriately incorporated into the writing method's material, they become effective instructional methods. Models may make students aware of numerous writing components, such as tone, language, organization, and structure (Alfallaj & Alfallaj, 2020; Alkhodimi & Al Ahdal, 2019; Ali, Ali, & Ghani, 2020).

Alghizzi and Alshahrani (2020) examined the degree of effectiveness in growing and decreasing the difficulty, precision, and fluency (CAF) of Saudi advanced EFL undergraduates in reaction writing. The results showed that the product genre technique might not have any major absolute or partial impact on the syntactic difficulty, lexical density, lexical maturity and fluency of the reaction article of the participants. However, the findings revealed that the treatment has only partial impact on the reaction essay's lexical variance and accuracy (through some measures) of the participants. Finally, the report offers EFL writing teachers, pupils, and scholars many pedagogical ramifications and guidelines.

While a vast range of methods to developing EFL learners has been proposed, Ghuftron (2016) emphasized that probably the most commonly adopted approaches to writing remain process and product approaches. The product method, which emerged first, sees learners as passive individuals who are expected to respond to the instructor's instructions. The ideals of this method were derived from the behavioral approach in which learners could produce an identical text based on the reproduction of instructor input (Chen, 2017; Durga & Rao, 2018; Jubran, 2017).

Samsudin (2016) maintained that linguistic comprehension was highly stressed, but this approach overlooked imagination and original ideas. As a reaction to the commodity solution, Parveen, Iqbal, and Javaid (2018) promoted the usage of the process technique, which values learner participation and idea composition. This approach draws on communicative philosophy

and cognitive psychology, which substantially affirm the value of learners' interaction in the classroom. However, a significant drawback of this approach is that it improves writing fluency at the detriment of other language skills and writing mechanics (Bowen & Van Waes, 2020).

Objectives of the Study

The study assessed the language and attitude effects of product approach to writing. It answers the following:

Research Question 1. What is the Writing Performance and Attitude of the Saudi EFL students before and After the Implementation of the product approach ?

Research Question 2. Is there Difference between the pre and post achievement scores of the respondents in Product approach?

Research Question 3. Is there a Relationship between the Achievement and Attitude of the Respondents in Product approach?

Materials and Methods

Research Design

The paper employed a quasi-experimental testing design widely utilized in the area of education. It used the experimental testing approach before the examination. The approach tests students development and learning gains with exposure before and during a specific intervention.

Research Participants, Sampling Procedure and Ethical Considerations

The respondents of the study were a total of 63 Saudi EFL undergraduate students in Saudi Arabia. The sample measurements were determined with a G*Power T-test Mean differential between two distinctive (matched) sample media with A priory power test shape, placed in a two-tailed test with actual power of 0.90 and effect measurements of 0.5. To guarantee the uniformity of participants' English grammar skills to ensure they have the same standard of language skills. The Levene judgment on the homogeneity of the English-language criterion's variances uses the 0.05 alpha amount of an equality judgment. The personal information and data gathered by the researchers was viewed confidentially. Prior to the compilation, acknowledgment, and placement of learners, a structured order was submitted and approved by school authorities. The researcher gained the guardians' permission. They were informed about the study goals and were informed of their voluntary participation. The parents were advised about the risks and rewards of their son's

research. The respondents and parents have completed a form for data security. Finally, the privacy of respondents and organisations was observed for ethical considerations.

Research Instruments

Writing Attitude Questionnaire

The investigation aimed to determine the influence of the mentioned interventions on participants' behaviours and written skills and therefore followed a behavioral checklist from Mehr (2017). The fifteen arguments were included, and the respondent had either to agree or disagree with each of these statements, by specifying one response from "strongly accepted" to "strongly disagreed." The Alpha coefficient of Cronbach, of 0.854, is deemed extremely credible.

English Writing Proficiency Test

The Cambridge Preliminary English Exam (2003) was the assessment of English Language Writing Proficiency. It contained 25 questions and it was going to assess the degree of competence of EFL students. The interviewees had 30 minutes to address the questions. Which covered 25 elements and assessed the degree of competence of Saudi EFL students. The participants had 30 minutes to respond. The fluidity of the texts was measured holistically by a scale. At this point, the flow degree of the written sentences was holistically determined. Via the scale of discourse markers, attempts were made to assess the extent of discourse markers in respondents' writing practices. The Cambridge Preliminary English Exam (2003) was used since it is a self-study pack on the English language proficiency test. The English Good Practice Standards of the Cambridge Assessment describe the processes and practices that guide the quest for quality and continuous development. Although complex analysis and technologies are involved in these schemes, the fundamental philosophy is simple.

Procedure and Treatment Phases

Data obtained were scoring and analyzed, as were statistical statistics such as frequency, baseline, and standard deviation. Post-tests were evaluated using the scale of 13-14- Outstanding, 10-12- Very Fine, 7-9- Decent, 4-6- Bad, 1-3- Very Bad. Very Poor were evaluated. In addition , the following scale was introduced to evaluate and perceive the respondents' behaviors before and

after introduction to the method and to the product approach: 4.20-5.00- Extremely Benefavorable; 3.40-4.19- Beneficial; 3.60-2.39- Neutral; 1.80-2.59- Not Beneficial; 1.00- 1.79- Very Beneficial. Inferential statics have also been implemented. The t-testing of contingent sample approaches was used to determine substantial variations in writing and writing abilities through the use of process approach and product approach before and after treatments, divided by gender. It is also used to compare the discrepancy between means in the design of matching samples (Kim, Park & Wang, 2018). Likewise, the Cohen's d impact size was used to interpret the impact of the benefit effects before and after the interventions. The application of cohen d prevents errors of type II or β (Albers & Lakems, 2018; Lakens, 2013; Sullivan & Fein, 2012). Finally, Pearson r was used to assess the connection between language ability and grammar in English by utilizing the method and product strategy. Pearson's r stresses the interaction between variables (Mu, Liu, & Wang, 2018; Ly, Marsman, & Wagenmakers, 2018).

Results

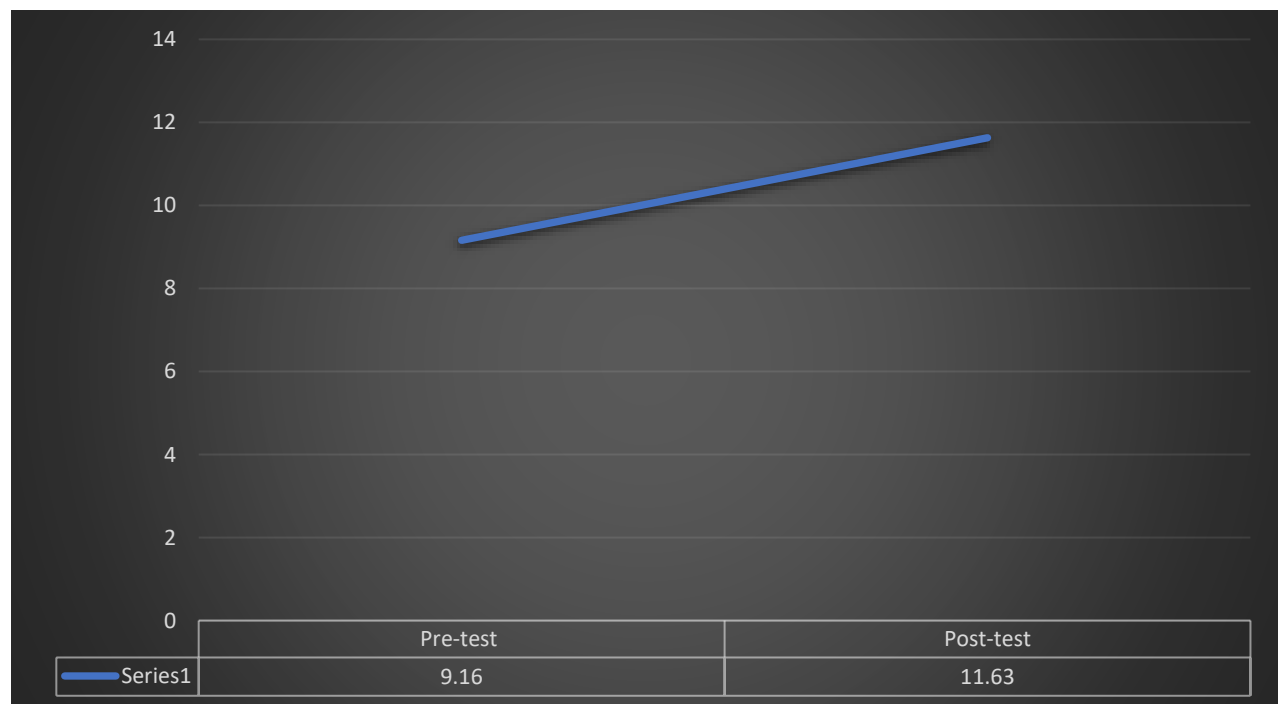
Research Question 1. What are the Writing Performance and Attitude of the Saudi EFL students before and After the Implementation of product approach ?

In this section of the report, details of the findings were presented mainly to include a consistent background of the pre- and post-test findings utilizing the product approach to writing. Table 1 reveals that EFL students have an entry score of 9.16 in product approach (sd = 2.50). It reveals that Saudi EFL students have already achieved an appropriate degree of writing proficiency in English before utilizing the participants' approaches. Therefore, by looking at the students' post-test results, students were able to reach a very high standard of success as shown by their 11. 63 (sd=1.93) for approaching the commodity. The findings indicate that participants' test scores improved after the Saudi EFL undergraduate classroom went through the writing approaches.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of the Product approach Pre-test Post-test Achievement Scores

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Descriptive Interpretation
Product Approach Achievement Score					
	Pre-test	30	9.16	2.50	Fair
	Post-test	30	11.63	1.93	Very Good

Notes: 13-14- Excellent; 10-12- Very Good; 7-9- Fair; 4-6- Poor; 1-3- Very Poor

**Figure 1.** Descriptive Statistics of the Product approach Pre-test Post-test Achievement Scores

On the other hand, when the respondents' attitude was drawn as whole, the respondents conveyed a neutral or uncertain degree of writing attitude prior to the implementation of the product approach with the mean of 2.80 (sd=0.76). However, after implementing the writing approaches, the groups of respondents obtained favourable attitudes towards writing where the product approach has the post-test score of 4.03 (sd=0.8). The results show a change in the attitude of the Saudi EFL students following the implementation of both writing approaches.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of the Product approach Pre-test Post-test Attitude Scores

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Descriptive Interpretation
Product Approach Attitude Score					
	Pre-test	30	2.80	0.76	Neutral
	Post-test	30	4.03	0.88	Favourable

Notes: 4.20-5.00- Highly Favourable; 3.40-4.19- Favourable; 3.60-2.39- Neutral; 1.80-2.59- Not Favourable; 1.00- 1.79-Very Unfavourable

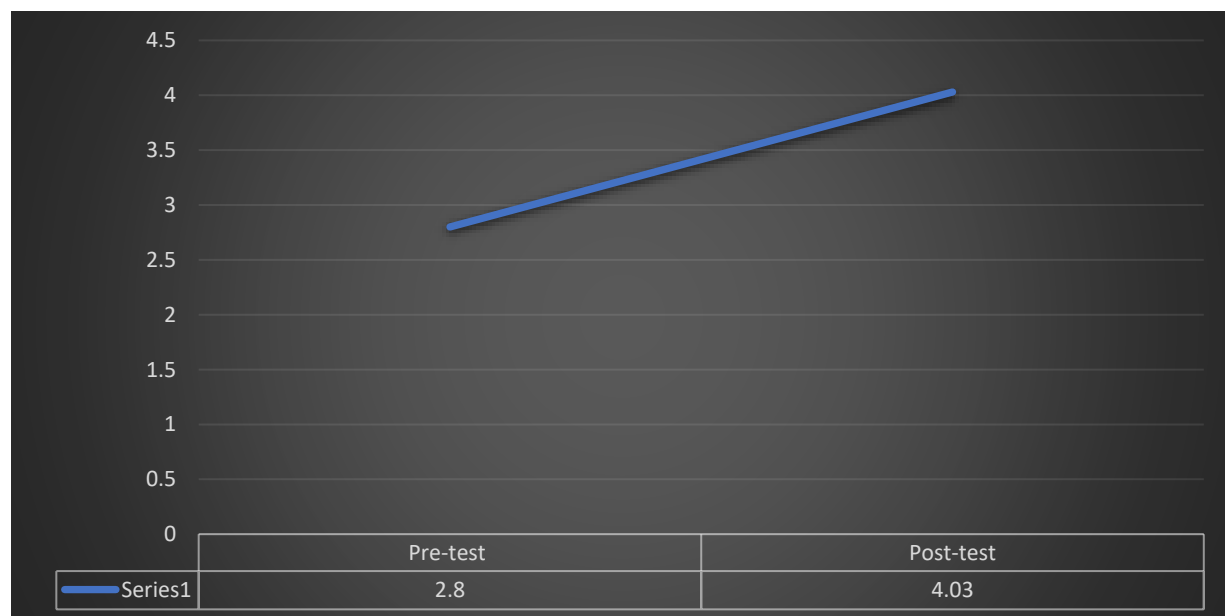


Figure 2. Descriptive Statistics of the Product approach Pre-test Post-test Attitude Scores

Research Question 2. Is there Difference between the pre and post achievement scores of the respondents in Product approach?

Interestingly, Table 3 indicates the variations in the product between pre- and post-performance ratings. The pre-test and post-test were conducted to determine major variations in the respondents' writing abilities. It can be found that statically relevant findings have shown that the post-test scores have substantially increased relative to the pre-test scores after the presentation to the respondents in the Product method ($M=11.63$, $SD=1.93$, $p=0.00$, $d=0.72$). Their success has improved dramatically from fair to really strong writing abilities. As a result, there are substantial

variations in Saudi EFL students' grades before and after their introduction to product approach approaches for language teaching.

Table 3. The difference between the Pre-test-Post-test achievement scores in Process approach and Product approach

Achievement in Product approach	Mean Score	SD	Mean Diff.	t-value	df	p-Value	Effect Size
Pre-test	9.16	2.50	-2.466	-4.337	29		0.72
Post-test	11.63	1.93				0.00**	

*= Significant at 0.01 level

ns= not significant

d=Effect Size Convention

(Cohen's d): Large Effect Size

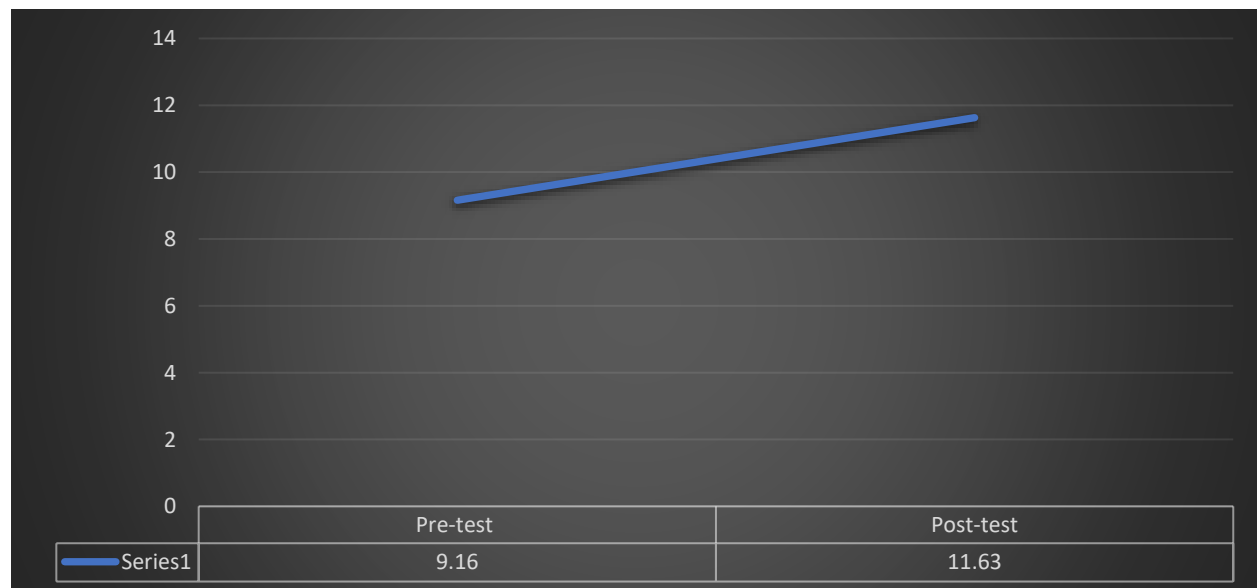


Figure 3. The difference between the Pre-test-Post-test achievement scores in Process approach and Product approach

Research Question 3. Is there a Relationship between the Achievement and Attitude of the Respondents in Product approach?

Test of the relationship was conducted to ascertain the relationship between the achievement and attitude of the group of students exposed to the process approach and product approach. Table 4 shows that no significant associations were found between the level of proficiency and attitude towards writing of the two groups of respondents after their exposure to Product approach ($r=-$

.113, $p=0.55ns$). Hence, the hypothesis of the study is rejected. This implies that regardless of the respondents' attitude towards learning writing, the respondents will attain the same English language grammar proficiency score.

Table 4. Relationship between Post-test Achievement and Attitude Scores of the Respondents in Process approach and Product approach

Variables	Mean	SD	r	p-value
<i>Product approach</i>				
Achievement	11.63	1.93	.310	0.95 ns
Attitude	4.03	0.88		
*= Significant at 0.01 level		**=Significant at 0.05 level		ns= not significant

Discussion of Findings

This thesis explored the linguistic and attitudinal impacts of Saudi EFL students at the bachelor level. The respondents had a good degree of language skills and mindset before the two methods were applied. After introducing both techniques, the respondents achieved powerful writing abilities and a favorable learning writing mindsets. This is a manifestation of a higher degree of success for those who have been introduced to the method approach and product approach.

The success of a product-oriented writing method was based on the usage of text, sentence and rhetoric styles. In the background of the treatment stage of the research, the investigator uses the model paragraph and sentence to incorporate tasks. The researcher used five model paragraphs in the processing of the product strategy. During the session, the students were required to write down paragraphs according to the numerous templates. They were also told about the written conventions on grammar, word use, and sentence structure. Hyland (2016) confirmed that writing is known to be a product which is substantially dependent on linguistic and syntactic information and that writing output is treated as the consequence of imitation and repetition, as well as exploitation of the instructor's model. For the majority of people who are approaching items, writing is seen as a means to improve linguistic trends by behaviors and encourage students to learn to write as the best way to assess students' writing skills (Lee, 2009; Rus, 2016). Storch (2005) and Liaghat and Biria (2018) claim that students are engaged in a product approach and

emphasis on the surface in a cohesive way rather than delivering message. In this way, students were able to understand that by writing with a product approach they would learn to compose driven by the principles and norms of writing. Therefore, the usefulness of the product approach to learning often demonstrates its advantages in a college classroom compared to previous experiments (Alfaki, 2015; Yang, 2016; Zeng, 2010; Zhang, 2018).

The research also revealed substantial variations along with the variations between the pre- and post-performance and the respondents' attitude values in the method approach and the product approach as gender grouped. Gender was taken as a major factor in writing across Saudi EFL students' method approach and product approach. In terms of writing ability, the female students at Saudi EFL demonstrated higher levels of success relative to their male peers before and after the usage of the method approach and the product approach thus having an attitude effect, which created positive results from both sexes. In view of past language teaching studies, gender has been shown to be a variable which defines differences between language learning styles and written attitudes (Atmatzidou & Demetriadis 2016; Bulut 2017; Dhadhodara & Joshi 2017).

Finally, this research showed no important association between respondents' writing skills and attitudes in the method approach and product approach. The result suggests that regardless of the students' mindset towards studying writing, the processes and product strategy appear to obtain the same degree of writing skills. Non-significant findings can be clarified by the amount of associated variables not addressed by this analysis. While no substantial association is observed, additional research must be carried out in the light of other variables not addressed in this review. This result contradicts studies that report a strong association of writing success and attitude (Graham, Berninger & Fan, 2007; Wang, 2012; Limpo, Alves, & Connelly, 2017; Jabali, 2018; Wright, Hodges, & McTigue, 2019; Zhang & Min, 2019; Jiang & Zhang, 2020). These studies have identified a positive correlation between success and attitude in writing.

The correct usage of the product approach to the writing, in particular, requires the written production of EFL students with regards to their success and writing attitude, centered on the overall results of the analysis. Given the reliability of the method approach relative to the product approach, language teachers and students can also test all writing methods to reach Saudi EL students' optimal writing skills. Chen (2017) reported that both method and product methods are balanced in writing, allowing students more versatile in writing. Gao (2007) also offered an eclectic approach to both method and product writing.

Conclusion

This research contributes to the current literature on the success of the product strategy in Saudi EFL students. Using quasi-experimental testing methods, results revealed that the product method is productive to improve Saudi EFL students' communication and communication skills as assessed by their success and attitude scores before and after introducing writing approaches. Finally, the study concludes that no link between the writing and writing skills of the respondents following their exposure to product approach is formed, which means that they can achieve enhanced output in writing through the use of a process approach regardless of the students' written attitude. The role of product approach to writing is essential in the development of students linguistic writing competence.

Practical Teaching and Learning Implications

The findings of the study on the use of Product approach provide practical teaching and learning implications in language education to offer better opportunities for students to develop their communicative competence. This study contends that it is difficult to develop writing skills of the students when their grammatical skill is at a low level hence, this study provides significance to literature showing the effectiveness of process approach to writing will be better implemented when supplemented or complemented with product approach. It implies that language teachers must be capable enough to adopt an eclectic teaching approach in teaching writing in such a way that students will be engaged to master the rules in language as well as exposing them to the real-application of language use.

Limitations and Future Research Direction

This research has a range of drawbacks that may shape the foundation for subsequent studies. Second, the research is restricted to the limited sample size of undergraduate Saudi EFL students which can restrict differences. Second, the usage of the simplistic pre-test after testing as the poorest form of quasi-experimental trial design did not cover all the considerations and variables required for applying the method and product approach. For more study, the usage of mixed process architecture is advised. These hybrid study designs may be more accurate when utilizing two or three tools, to triangulate results that rely on fluency, precision and discourse markers. Third, potential studies promote the study's replications or adoptions at various educational levels

taking account and correlating other variables such as the cultural context of students, parents' schooling, income levels, and linguistic efficiency. Finally, the awareness and mindset of other types of product and methods to writing based on prewriting, writing and post-writing practices must be established.

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Reading Interest and Achievement Motivation: A Study in an EFL Context

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Abstract

This study aims to determine the direct effect of reading interest and achievement motivation toward comprehension. A quantitative approach with a path analysis method was used to assess

reading interest and achievement motivation towards understanding English text. Furthermore, the instruments used were questionnaires of reading interest and achievement motivation. EFL Reading comprehension tests of English text were distributed to 60 students of the English Literature Undergraduate Program. Also, the data were analyzed using path analysis technique and multiple regression analysis. The results showed a positive direct effect of (1) reading interest in English texts comprehension by 21.2%, and (2) achievement motivation towards reading comprehension by 7.6%. This study recommends that the 21st-century literacy learning process, both informal or non-formal educational institutions, needs to be more relevant and supportive for the growth and increase of reading interest and achievement motivation. Therefore, it will develop 21st-century competencies, especially in literacy learning and reading comprehension of English texts.

Keywords: *Reading Interest, Achievement Motivation, L2 and EFL, EFL Reading Comprehension of English Texts*

1. Introduction

As a language skill, reading in the sense of understanding is quite difficult for students to master. Furthermore, it is about pronouncing the symbols or letters in writing and understanding the concept and meaning. Reading is a complex activity that does involve not only physical but also psychological factors. Although currently, the use of electronic devices has become advanced and widespread, their function is still unable to replace written language. In this modern 21st century, information dissemination through written means cannot be abandoned. Based on this phenomenon, reading skill is increasingly seen as very important. Furthermore, it determines both performance in other subject areas, such as science and humanities, in an early stage and also academic achievement in a much later stage (Abbott et al, 2017). This is borne out by the fact that English is a library language and the window to the world of information. The latest inventions, discoveries and research findings in different fields are indeed encoded in this language. To access this vast corpus, it is necessary to have good reading skills.

In the educational world, reading activities and assignments are something that cannot be negotiated. This is because students acquire most of their knowledge through reading activities, and

almost all forms of learning are related to reading. Al-Ghazo (2015) noted that the task is an interactive process involving four elements: the reader, text, fluent reading, and strategic reading. This activity is productive and necessary to understand messages, interpret, analyze, or predict the text's meaning to arrive at an understanding. Furthermore, a reader is an active participant who has a central role as an interpreter, analyzer, and book predictor. In this case, the reader is not only someone who is passive and receives information from the text but is someone who gives meaning to the text (Benge et al, 2010).

The ability and willingness to read broadly affect the success of studies. A student needs to have good reading skills to be superior in obtaining information. The ability referred to in this case is the ability to understand the content of reading. Also, the reader's representation of the text occurs at three recursive hierarchical levels, which are (a) the linguistic level (specific words and sentences), (b) semantic level (the real meaning resulting from individual speech and sentence construction), and (c) the situational level (the importance of the text produced in combination with the book and the reader's background knowledge) (Bilal, et al 2013).

The Al-Ahdal's current analysis (Al-Ahdal, 2020b) assessed the importance of e-book communication logs for Saudi EFL students' progress. It employed 30 male students at Qassim University, Saudi Arabia, for 12 weeks in an experimental sample. The BookRoll approach was used and required by the EFL teachers to import material from textbooks and allow students free access everywhere. In addition to the availability, the approach apart from teaching at the school was the sort of confidentiality and individual learning pace that the device provides the learner: They proceeded to replay those sections that the tutor described, reviewed the notes, and took part in other reading activities (even repeatedly) which the teacher placed on the e-book. The study examined the computer logs to determine the prevalent reading patterns and model reading behaviors. It illustrates the methods utilized by students while reading papers. The findings have shown that BookRoll is ideal for forecasting student reading habits with a reasonably reliable standard, which will be beneficial to a broad variety of stakeholders, not just education advice providers, who are willing to adopt technology in the EFL classroom in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Regarding reading a text in English, a common phenomenon in classes is the disappointment of the lecturer in students' understanding of the reading given. Meanwhile, the process of reading a foreign language text involves the interaction of two languages. When reading, the readers have access to their first language, and it is not uncommon to use it as a strategy. However, it takes time

and confuses the students. Also, they often encounter many new words and find it difficult to grasp the main idea from the reading. Therefore, students are reluctant to continue reading because they do not understand the texts. This results in passive discussion as a common condition in the classes. In other words, reading in a non-native language requires extra effort and it seems difficult to understand in a foreign language. In this case, reading skills with the right technique is very important for academic and personal growth in the future (Ifnanti, 2015).

Several factors affect reading ability, they include 1. Internal factors: (a) physiological: eyes and ears, (b) psychological: reading interest, intelligence, visual perception skills, vocabulary mastery, and attitudes towards reading; 2. external factors: (a) teaching: teaching methods and attractive programs, curriculum, and available facilities, (b) social: environmental motivation. From these factors, it can be seen that one of the internal factors which can affect comprehension is reading interest.

2. Reading Interest and the learner

Reading interest is a complex psycho-cognitive phenomenon that specifically refers to the three but more emphatically to the pre reading stage out of the three phases of a reading class viz. pre-reading, while reading, and post-reading. It is an initial condition that needs to be met before reading. In the pre-reading or reading interest stage, the aim is to arouse or investigate the learners' interest in the subject matter of the text chosen for reading by making them draw on their knowledge of the world, and by eliciting their views on the subject. The line to take for the teachers is to enable the learners establish or discover a relationship with the text. Different approaches may be taken for this. Some are as follows:

- i. Asking questions on the subject which the learners are scheduled to read about;
- ii. Activation of the learners' background knowledge on the subject;
- iii. Enable learners to vocalize their opinions so that they may look forward to what the writer's views are.

Interest is the acceptance of a relationship between oneself and the reading content. Hence, the stronger or closer the relationship, the greater the attraction. Furthermore, the claim describes a learner's tendency to approach rather than avoid engaging in specific content or actions, for example, reading or writing, from time to time (Jones & Brown, 2011). Therefore, to understand reading

in English, the reader needs to have an interest. This interest is the basis of motivation for reading activities. A high part is an element that needs to be considered in entering the information society. Khairuddin (2013) stated that interest development is not only determined by the desire and attitude towards matters regarding reading. Several factors influence both from within (personal) and from outside (institutional). Meanwhile, individual elements exist in a person, including age, gender, intelligence, reading ability, attitudes, and physiological needs. While, institutional factors are that outside of oneself, which include the number of available reading books and the types of books, social status, economic background and ethnicity of parents, friends of the same age, the influence of teachers and parents.

2.1 Scope and conceptualization of Reading Interest in enhancing reading ability

McKool (2007) has extended the meaning and interpretation of Reading Interest by stating that it is a pointer of the out-of-school reading that learners engage in. This is an especially meaningful opinion as it means that real learning of reading in a second or foreign language need not be limited to a structured learning environment. Moreover, autonomy in selection of reading materials is seen as a deciding factor in enhanced reading interest in learners across age groups. In a study conducted in a setting similar in many ways to the current study, Khairuddin (2013) reported lower reading interest amongst the male respondents in the study and that a variety of reading options may be recommended to enhance reading interest. Educational and cognitive psychology have, over the past many decades, established that interest and learning are directly proportional, but studies on the specific subject are few. When speaking of conceptualization of second or foreign language reading interest of learners, the thrust is on treating interest as a state of mind or disposition. By default, this brings in the question of duration (of interest) which may be classified into the following:

- i. Individual interest: This refers to an intrinsic or individual predisposition to engage frequently in an activity, reading, in this case. Prior knowledge of the subject matter on which the reading content is based, is part of this. In other words, learners will find those or that material of engaging interest, about which they have prior knowledge. In the context of L2 or foreign language acquisition, this implies exposure to the target culture to provide learners with some schema to which they may relate new reading experiences.

Schank's (1979) seminal study zeroed in on certain subjects like death, which can be considered subjects of 'absolute interest', that is, subjects that engage a significant number of readers individually. Individual interest is sustained over a long period of time, even when the stimulus of structured learning environment is over.

- ii. Situational interest: This is a relatively short-lived, environment dependent state and is the outcome of an emotional stimulus such as impact of imagery, mystery or comedy coupled with ease of comprehension. Once the learners' interest is sparked situationally, appropriate steps can ensure its transformation into the long-term individual interest.

In the other two stages of reading, ie., while and post reading, interest of the learners may be aroused by modifications, whether in tasks or material presentation. Research indicates that making these more meaningful yet challenging, and individually relevant can ensure better reading interest.

2.2 Role of Reading Interest on text processing

Early thinking on reading was focused on speed and knowledge of words, in the belief that any text could be comprehended if read slowly and all the words therein were known to the reader. However, research since 1980s has established that this is not necessarily so and even with limited or just adequate comprehension, a text can be processed well by the reader if their interest is engaged in the content (Richards, 1990). McDaniel et al. (2000) concluded that the processing of text is deeper and more elaborate when readers' interest is engaged. Learners' ability to actively interact with the text helps them construct meaning, aiding in retention of recall of the text. Persistence, engagement, attention (Hidi, 1990, 2000), and direction and duration of attention (Schraw & Lehman, 2001) have been directly correlated to reading interest.

3. Motivation and reading comprehension

Motivation has been argued as perhaps the second most significant factor in second and foreign language acquisition, ranked second only to learner needs. As early as 1959, Gardner and Lambert demonstrated that motivational variables played a significant role in foreign language acquisition.

A shift of educational philosophy to the cognitive and affective characteristics of the second language learners in the 1990s revived the interest of educators and researchers in motivation in the language classrooms. In a notable study, Dornyei (1990) demonstrated that where learners are mostly ignorant of the target language culture, motivational factors assumed great significance. Moreover, a new paradigm of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations came into play. These related to the individual and environmental parameters and were more or less along a broad continuum. Guthrie et al (2007) concluded that motivation predicted reading comprehension growth, though the vice-versa was not true. Wigfield, Gladstone & Turci (2016) concluded that gender and ethnic differences impact learners' reading motivation and hence, reading comprehension. Takaloo and Ahmadi (2017) pointed out that the role of motivation in ELT is highly underscored, and conclude that without motivation nothing can be achieved in the EFL classroom. Corpus literature on the role of motivation in online learning is limited though Yaghi (2019) found that, where students independently read online materials, they are motivated by individual purposes, such as, for discovering new things or for pleasure. More recently, Khatee (2020) argued that when educators want to improve students' language achievement, they need to first turn on student motivation. When this motivation to learn language has been provoked, it is hoped that they will persist in their learning. Furthermore, achievement motivation is an individual factor that comes from within students, and the existence of good motivation in learning will show good results. As a boost, this motivation plays a dominant role for every student to achieve the highest possible goal. It is also as a driving force to achieve maximum learning outcomes. Hartnett (2020) has pointed out the lacuna of previous studies on motivation in reading comprehension success in online learning environment by stating that they overlooked the 'real-life' online settings and recommended that narrow conceptualizations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations need to be abandoned if a more wholesome picture of the scenario is to be obtained.

Through this motivation, students will have a strong drive to achieve the best learning outcomes. Furthermore, they will have a high sense of self-confidence and desire for achievement, which will of course affect their learning performances. Those who have good achievement motivation are characterized by several things, namely responsiveness to challenges, especially in learning, rational in thinking, in this case, always being honest and passionate about learning, trying to excel in groups, and always being able to adjust when interacting with friends. The effect of this motivation will be seen from their learning activities where they show a high enthusiasm, a desire to

achieve the best performance, and endurance against challenges in the learning process. Also, achievement motivation is important in psychological development, because it can encourage students to overcome challenges, solve problems, compete in a healthy manner, and have an effect on individual achievement. Therefore, those who have high motivation have a very good chance of achieving high levels of success in every learning activity.

Through high motivation, students have an opportunity for high achievement in EFL reading comprehension course which is shown by the high scores in English. This is because those with high motivation also have an internal drive to carry out learning activities as well as have resistance to difficulties. These difficulties include encountering many English words they do not understand, inadequate grammar knowledge, as well as assignments to read English texts that are less or not interesting.

Review of Literature

In a study with Arab EFL learners, Noortyani (2018) held that if students are to succeed at reading comprehension, then reading interest must be taken seriously. Reski (2018) also concluded that positive correlation existed between reading interest and students' reading comprehension in a study with university students of English in a university in Mexico. Parmawati and Yugafiati (2017) recommend the use of authentic reading materials to cater to learners' reading interests which will, in turn, ensure enhanced reading comprehension. Putro & Lee (2017) expressed doubt if the meaning of reading interest may have changed in the current digital age. In a pertinent observation, they indicate that future research needs to consider the psychological meaning of reading given the fact that the psycho-behavioral components of reading have undergone much change in the recent decades. Springer, Harris & Dole (2017) hold that reading interest can be a deciding factor impacting the cognitive and affective experiences of the students in an age when teachers find themselves in a fix between ensuring grade-level literacy and engendering a lifelong reading interest in their students. The onus to capture learners' curiosity and channel it into long term reading habits falls squarely on teachers and timely and optimum tapping of learners' reading interest can certainly help do the needful. In a study with trainee teachers in Indonesia, Pasaribu (2016) found that vocabulary achievement was positively impacted by the reading interest of subjects. Further, these results were obtained with the subjects' free exposure to library facilities.

Pittman & Honchell (2014) found that encouraging reading interest amongst struggling middle school readers was effective in ensuring enhanced reading comprehension.

Kinley & Ben-Hur (2015) expressed that motivation to read is linked to a system of rewards and punishments: the conviction is that if you reward certain practices you will get a greater amount of them; and, on the contrary, if you rebuff certain practices, you will get less of them.

Schaffner & Ulferts, (2013) stated in their study that it was imperative to emphasize on creating inherent reading motivation rather than extraneous. Students who read more would do well, understanding and perceive the text better. Indeed, an evaluation of reading comprehension can foretell the advancement of students' general language skills. A few investigations on proficiency advancement had been executed to sort out the improvement of reading understanding of students at schools. Scientists who had highlighted on motivation had examined about the parts of psychological and inspiration options of communication and the effect of factors on students' accomplishment. Also, ongoing investigations zeroed in on the creating of psychological aptitudes and fiery exercises to upgrade students understanding inspiration. A portion of these examinations had inspected natural inspiration as an indicator of progress in a few locales, for example, reading, sports, and arithmetic. Examiners brought up that inborn inspiration was a ground-breaking indicator of primary school students' understanding cognizance, so the main point for teachers was to drive pursuers to incorporate in understanding exercises. Therefore, making an agreeable air for the students to look with integrative exercises could build students' inspiration for understanding accomplishment.

As per Usher and Kober (2012), policies and practices are designed to improve student motivation. They hold that intrinsic inspiration is the longing to do or get to something since one truly needs to and takes fulfilment in accomplishing something. At the point when a student is inherently motivated to peruse, they read for delight, to find new information, or for some other positive outcomes. A student might be spurred to read for a profound interest in the substance or primary concern of a book (object-explicit), or in light of the fact that the content pulls the student inside the story (action explicit). Since students, who are characteristically inspired, discover joy in reading, they like to read more in their spare time. As a result of an expanded measure of understanding time, it is envisioned that inherent inspiration or motivation builds understanding cognizance. Instructors who use numerous outer elements to spur students to read could progressively crush stu-

dents' natural inspiration. McGeown, Norgate, and Warhurst (2012) claimed that extrinsic motivation alludes to the outside elements that can invigorate students' longing to read. These elements include scores, prizes, reverence, or a craving to be superior to others. Students who are outwardly activated normally attempt to repress negative results and just anticipate explicit or positive results. Besides, educators should have an inspirational mentality to reading perception to accomplish the best outcomes in understanding turn of events. This uplifting disposition is performed by the homeroom instructor inspecting during individual reading, discussing their pleasure in a specific book or prescribing books to students, showing books around the study hall, or perusing resoundingly consistently. To investigate students' perspectives towards reading, instructors can utilize numerous gadgets, for example, reviews, polls, and homeroom conversations. Extrinsic motivation alludes to accomplishing something since it causes a recognized result (Deci and Ryan, 1985). As per traditional writing, extraneous motivation has commonly been described as a pale and ruined type of emotion that appeared differently in relation to natural motivation. In outward motivation, the learner investigates outside benefits and rewards, for example, to forestall the discipline of instructors or to pick up gratefulness from guardians. Indeed, outward motivation is identified with the objective direction, so the students do their activities with the most ideal approach to accomplish an important thing. As indicated by Ahmadi and Hairul (2012) and Ahmadi and Gilakjani (2012), reading appreciation is definitely not a simple cycle since students should have the option to read the composed content, decipher the words, and distinguish the implications of the words. Reading perception is one of the principle components in English language learning for all students since it gives the establishment to a considerable measure of learning in instruction. Since reading cognizance is so legitimate regarding scholarly achievement, it very well may be contended that 'making' a student read is fundamental. To comprehend the significance of what is read, however, one must be a basic reader. Basic readers can follow the composed content carefully and can relate sentences to one another to accomplish a profound comprehension of it. Reading understanding is a functioning and open cycle between the reader, the content, the understanding, and the bigger socio-cultural setting for reading. A connection happens inside the individual, including both top down and base up reading and psychological systems. A reader can appreciate and review composed content well on the off chance that the person in question incorporates the earlier information with the accomplished data. Duke, Pearson, Strachan, and Billman, (2011) expressed that the significance of students' learning and their advancement in language abilities, a large part of the time

is given to the improvement of understanding expertise. It should be referenced that students attempt to build up their reading perception exceptionally the particular gathering of students who need more offices and are subject to their instructors. These students can't accomplish great imprints in understanding cognizance and don't procure it helpfully. One of the manners in which that can be utilized as an answer for incite students and build up their perusing ability is the utilization of perusing obstruction programs. Explores demonstrated that intellectual and inspiration factors influence students' understanding cognizance (Pressley and Harris, 2006). Past exploration has upheld perusing inspiration in association with students' cognizance progress since perusing understanding grants students to examine data that they have an earlier information about it to expand their perception. Cambria and Guthrie (2010) expressed that motivations allude to intrigue, devotion, and certainty. An intrigued student reads in light of the fact that he appreciates it; a committed student reads on the grounds that he trusts it is significant; and a certain student reads in light of the fact that he can do it, for example, their objectives, capability related convictions, and requirements that impact their accomplishment and exercises. They contended that students need to read on the grounds that they are persuaded. There are two kinds of motivation: inherent and outward. Students deliberately attempt to realize what is imperative to them. They want to learn and they don't have the requirement for outer outcomes. Characteristic motivation pushes the students to learn without remunerations on the grounds that the need is inborn and relies upon their own yearning. Harmer (2008) said both integrative and instrumental motivation are grouped under the head of extraneous motivation. Outward inspiration negatively affects the students since they don't learn with their solid expectation, yet they learn in light of the fact that they are pushed by the worry in the prizes or the discipline.

4. Significance of the study

Reading comprehension is a very important ability because it through this that learners succeed in accessing information from various kinds of reading, including in English. For students, reading comprehension, especially in English is one of the keys to achieving success in school or college. Comprehension can also be summarized and verbally assessed in writing form, answering questions, filling in missing words, art or acting out stories through puppet games, written responses, group discussions, peer assessments and self-assessments, questionnaires, interviews, as well as reading audiotapes (Boyraz & Altinsoy, 2017; Al-Ahdal, 2020a; Al-Ahdal, 2020b).

In countries where English is studied as a foreign language, such as Indonesia, the ability to read is usually considered an important skill especially for students studying English as their main course. Here, education mostly involves texts or references written in English. Therefore, they are required to develop good skills in reading English texts. Many studies have been conducted on EFL students' reading comprehension in Indonesia. Generally, the main focus is reading in the classroom on the basis of seeing the problems that arise in teaching and learning, the reasons behind the problems, and ways to solve them. The results of these studies ended in unpleasant stories about the practice of reading English as a foreign language or EFL (Ahmed, 2016; Al-Ahdal, 2020c).

Whereas studies have been conducted on different combinations of factors that influence reading comprehension in L2 or EFL, the interplay of reading interest and achievement motivation is still a virgin area in the Indonesian EFL environment. Hence, this study is expected to fill an existing gap in the corpus.

5. Research Questions

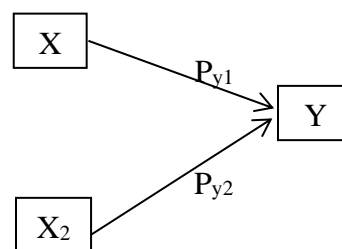
Based on the brief summary of the corpus literature on reading interest and achievement motivation in reading comprehension success, we formulated the following research questions to give direction to this study:

- i. Does a correlation exist between reading interest and reading comprehension in English literature undergraduate students in an Indonesian University? If yes, what is the nature of this correlation?
- ii. How does achievement motivation influence reading comprehension in the sample respondents?

6. Method

This research used a quantitative approach with survey method and path analysis technique. Path analysis (Wright, 1925), on the other hand, is an effective method to draw specific causal relationships between variables and also helps indicate the magnitude of influence of a factor on the result. Coupled with retrospective survey, path analysis is quite useful in relationship establishment between cause and effect. The inferential statistical analysis was used to analyze data.

The population was the Undergraduate Students of English Literature Study Program of Universitas Bina Darma, Palembang-Indonesia. The sample was chosen using a simple random sampling technique on students who met the research criteria, and 60 students were selected. Furthermore, the instruments used included English reading comprehension test (Y), reading interest questionnaire (X₁), and achievement motivation questionnaire (X₂). The research instruments were piloted to students not involved as the sample to determine their validity and reliability. The validity analysis used was the corrected item-total correlation. Moreover, the reliability analysis was Cronbach's alpha for the questionnaire and KR-20 for the reading comprehension test. According to the validity and reliability analysis results, the reading interest questionnaire had 34 valid items with the reliability of 0.975, while the achievement motivation questionnaire had 33 valid items with the reliability of 0.981. In comparison, a reading comprehension test had 26 valid items with reliability of 0.987. The following figure shows the research model



6.1 Research Results and Discussion

The following table shows the direct effect of reading interest and achievement motivation on reading comprehension of English text.

Model	R Square	Standardized Coefficients (Beta)	t	Sig.
X ₁	0.212	0.461	3.954	0.000
X ₂	0.076	0.275	2.181	0.033

The table shows that in X₁ column, the coefficient of determination (R^2) was 0.212 and 0.076 in X₂ column. Also, in the error X₂, $\varepsilon = 1 - R^2 = 1 - 0.076 = 0.92$. Furthermore, in X₁ the value of $F_{0.05, 1, 58} = 15.636$ was obtained. The results show that $db_1 = 1$; $db_2 = 58$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000$ less than 0.05,

hence H_0 was rejected. In X_2 the value of $F_0 = 4.756$, $db_1 = 1$, $db_2 = 58$, and $p\text{-value} = 0.033$, smaller than 0.05. For this reason, H_0 was rejected. Each of reading interest (X_1) and achievement motivation (X_2) influenced the reading comprehension in English (Y). The path coefficients were shown by Beta (Standardized Coefficients) column on X_1 and X_2 .

The results also show that $py_1 = 0.461$; $t_0 = 3.954$, $p\text{-value} = 0.000 / 2 = 0.000$, less than 0.05. H_0 was rejected, meaning that reading interest (X_1) had a positive direct effect on reading comprehension in English (Y). Additionally, $py_2 = 0.275$; $t_0 = 2.181$, $p\text{-value} = 0.033 / 2 = 0.016$, smaller than 0.05 or H_0 was rejected, meaning that achievement motivation (X_2) had a positive direct effect on reading comprehension in English (Y).

The regression coefficient value of 0.212 indicates a positive effect, meaning that the higher the reading interest, the higher the value of reading comprehension in English and vice versa. Also, this coefficient value means that reading comprehension would increase by 0.212 units for every one-unit rise in reading interest. The coefficient of the direct effect of reading interest toward reading comprehension was 0.461. Furthermore, the regression coefficient value of 0.076 showed a positive effect, meaning that the higher the achievement motivation, the better the reading comprehension in English and vice versa. This coefficient value also means that reading comprehension in English would increase by 0.076 units for every one unit rise in achievement motivation. The coefficient of the direct effect of achievement motivation on reading comprehension in English was 0.275.

In this research, reading interest (X_1) had a positive direct effect on reading comprehension (Y). Thus, an increase in reading interest would increase students' comprehension. Therefore, reading interest had a positive direct effect on English reading comprehension. This finding empirically supported the theories or opinions of experts regarding the effect of reading interest on English reading comprehension.

When students are interested in a reading topic, their moods are affected and they can focus on reading. Students with a high reading interest will be deeply involved and immersed in reading activities, increasing reading comprehension. This finding is in line with another Indonesian study conducted by Muzaki (2017) which aimed to identify students' reading interest in the second language and to examine differences in interest based on gender. The results showed that students have a relatively low interest in reading English texts with significant differences between male and female students. For this reason, educators should take actions related to the development and

enhancement of male students' reading interest. The higher the reading interest, the higher the comprehension skills. The more diligent a person reads, the higher the interest in reading, which can be traced through the level of comprehension. Increasing reading interest improves the ability to understand the content. Students interested in reading conduct reading activities because of their desire to obtain information. This means increasing reading interest improve comprehension abilities. The higher the reading interest, the higher the comprehension. Importantly, low comprehension can be improved by increasing their reading interest. Educators should increase students' reading interest to enhance their comprehension.

This study showed that achievement motivation (X_2) had a positive direct effect on reading comprehension in English (Y). The results were supported by research from Ningrum and Matondang (2017) also conducted in Indonesia, which focused on the correlation between student motivation and their achievement in reading comprehension. The objective of the study was to determine the relationship between student motivation and their achievement in reading comprehension. The results showed that there was a significant correlation between students' motivation and their achievement in reading comprehension, shown by the high correlation coefficient. For this reason, English teachers should create teaching strategies that increase student motivation in the reading class. Students with high learning motivation tend to have high reading comprehension scores. This is because they find it easier to understand what they read. However, those with low learning motivation tend to have lower reading comprehension scores. This is possible because high motivation is required to understand the reading.

Achievement motivation determines learning success with the amount of influence depending on intensity. Concerning learning, motivation is closely related to the need for self-actualization with the most significant influence on student learning activities. In case students have no motivation to learn, there will be a feeling of laziness, both in following the teaching and learning process and doing individual assignments. Motivation has a very important function in the student learning process because it determines the intensity of students' learning efforts. In general, students with high motivation learns better than those with low. This means that those with high learning motivation are diligent in learning and study continuously without despair. Achievement motivation plays an essential role in restoring the original motivation to become a specific goal.

A study by Salehi, Samimi and Razmjoo (2018) in Iran aimed to examine how motivation affects the understanding of English texts. According to the findings, motivational techniques can

increase EFL students' intrinsic motivation to read. Also, motivation and attitudes influence EFL participants' reading comprehension skills, and different teaching reading comprehension techniques help understand English texts. Students with high achievement motivation understand English lessons better than those with low motivation. In this case, students understand and convey information correctly. Furthermore, students with high achievement motivation get higher learning outcomes than those with low motivation, especially in learning English.

This research shows that reading comprehension was influenced by reading interest and achievement motivation, supporting the theories previously discussed.

7. Conclusion

The results of path analysis and discussion show that reading interest and achievement motivation directly affect reading comprehension of English texts. This means that reading interest and achievement motivation significantly influence the level of reading comprehension. The higher the students' reading interest and achievement motivation, the better their understanding. The 21st century literacy learning process, both informal and non-formal educational institutions should be more relevant and supportive for the growth and increase in reading interest and achievement motivation. This will help students develop 21st-century competencies, especially in literacy learning and reading comprehension with education shifting majorly to other platforms such as online and distance modes where reading interest and achievement motivation play critical roles in as support systems. Therefore, educators and parents need to work together to maximize the students' self-potency, especially reading interest and achievement motivation.

Further research with a broader scope should be conducted to identify other variables, including vocabulary, diction, socio-economic status, learning styles, learning attitude and many other factors that affect literacy learning in the 21st century, particularly in students' English reading comprehension.

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EFL writing tasks and the application of the concept of situatedness: Evaluating the theoretical and practical aspects of the Saudi EFL context

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Abstract

Research strategies over the last decade have predominantly focused on situated English learning in a conventional classroom setting. The students' use of strategy to enhance writing skills in online learning has received little attention. This study explores how the Situated Learning (SL) approach affects EFL Saudi student writing tasks in which an experimental research comparison has been conducted between two groups of Saudi students learning English at Qassim and Bisha Universities. The experiment included a comparison between one control group (n=10), that received conventional written lectures, and one experimental group (n=10) received the similar treatment by conducting their courses through a virtual online learning environment. The five-phase training-technology design framework for researchers included: (1) analysis, (2) design, (3) production, (4). Experiments, and (5) utilization and growth. Measuring strategies included: (a) essential communication capabilities during testing, (b) a self-efficient curriculum plan, and (c) e-portfolio curricular evaluation. The results showed that the virtual language experience based on tasks improved participants' practical English writing skills and that the SL for participants' automated technology was much higher than the control group level. This paper provides suggestions and concluding remarks for the development of English language learning (ELL) by utilizing artificial worlds in real and SL settings.

Keywords: Situated learning, English writing skills, EFL learning

Introduction

Writing is a way of life that helps people communicate, recall and represent themselves as individuals. It gives shape to one's thoughts and beliefs. It enables us to make our ideas intelligible

for others and ourselves; precisely because writing is a dynamic mechanism of multiple dimensions, including brainstorming, preparation, explanation, and coordination of a variety of cognitive and metacognitive tasks (Abedi, Namaziandost, & Akbari, 2019; Fareh, Jarad & Yago, 2020; Saeed, Al-Ahdal, & Al Qunayeer, 2020). The cognitive dimensions of learning have been of great importance, as scholars have studied the mechanisms underlying the authors' framework (Atayeva, Putro, Kassymova & Kosbay, 2019). Writing requires that the composition comprises the ability to either replicate, convert details in the form of accounts, or clarify, as in the case of an expository statement, or an argumentative one (Keller, Fleckenstein, Krüger, Köller & Rupp, 2020). This is perhaps best described as a collection of activities varying from, on the one side, the more technological and formal elements of writing to the more abstract processes involving creating, on the other side, technical or organized elements of writing to the more abstract method (Thomas, Gerde, Piasta, Logan, Bailet & Zettler-Greeley, 2020; Zajic & Wilson, 2020).

A broad variety of literature demonstrates that language learning strategies allow students to build motivation (Bergil, 2016; Jiang & Zhang, 2020; Lee & Hsieh, 2019; Manalo, Tsuda, & Dryer, 2019; Yeh, Sherwood, Durham, Kardong-Edgren, Schwartz, & Beeber, 2019). Early language research indicates multiple learning approaches utilized by active students in a second language, or a foreign language instruction. Research reveals that practical L2 / FL students are conscious of, and using, learning strategies (Zhang & Ardasheva, 2019). In Ausubel (2000), theory offers realistic learning experience as students prepare to integrate fresh material into the everyday experience. A student who needs to incorporate knowledge includes a more extensive network of understanding; and, thus, of additional search routes. Richards, Platt and Platt (1992) introduced a common concept of strategic teaching, and outlined three different methods: learning techniques to increase the learner's performance. There are several strategic training approaches, including explicit or straightforward training: students are presented with details on the importance and intent of different approaches, whether they should be implemented, and how they track their usage of such techniques. The second method is embedded process training: the procedures to be mastered are not clearly illustrated unless incorporated into common material, such as education, arithmetic, or analysis in a field of study. The third method is referred to as combined strategy training: explicit strategic practice is followed by embedded training. Students who write in a second language or a foreign language in academic contexts face some challenges because they at times do not know

how to generate ideas into writing . Since an EFL student is challenged to write efficiently, specific teaching methods are crucial to improve their writing performance.

Research context and problem

In the Saudi context, students of Qassim and Bisha Universities find it difficult to use English pragmatically, particularly about writing and speaking as language skills (Al-Ahdal & Al-Awaid, 2014; Al-Ahdal & Al-Ma'amari, 2015; Al-Ahdal 2014; Al-Ahdal, Al-Hattami, Al-Awaid & Al-Mashaqba, 2015). This is important for their education; without appropriate functional skills, they will not be able to acquire the needed skills in their future lives. After graduation, their demand for practical writing skills will increase significantly, particularly if they decide to teach some functional elements of English (Al-Mudhaffari, Hussin, & Abdullah, 2020). It means that they can use English pragmatically at an early level in education. It was evident that teachers had hardly any immersive linguistic learning environments regarding linguistic learning, which effectively fostered their pragmatism, and, thus allowing them to write English in action through some interviews and observations.

Nevertheless, computers and language labs are rarely used for anything other than language processing and listening. There are little – if any – opportunities to communicate and engage in the language laboratory using electronic means. A limited semi-structured interview found that several of these student-teachers could not use English in written simulation in real life. Also, discussions between EFL student-teachers on a course Forum revealed inadequate pragmatic skills. Some of them clearly expressed many personal needs in writing, such as self-expression, guidance, and direction. But most of them had a negative view of themselves and their academic success, especially as far as their perceptions of their abilities to do specific tasks were concerned. This indicates that technological flexibility should be improved to become trustworthy in English users. Therefore, EFL students must be engaged in a normal, input-rich, and practical learning setting, where the target language can be used naturally and functionally. A language education system based on SL shall promote the realistic usage of EFL students in writing as well as increase their technical autonomy. EFL teachers can receive a realistic input in this interactive, virtual and situation environment that takes the shape of daily tasks and situations.

Research Objectives

The aims of the study are to: (1) provide a location, web-based language learning environment to enable EFL learners to use pragmatic languages to improve their authentic writing skills; and (2) allow EFL students with SL web-based application, and an integrated collaborative learning environment, which supports a pragmatic language learning environment.

Research questions

This study aims specifically to answer the following research questions:

- (1) What is the task-based language-learning framework that helps SL develop students' practical writing skills in an EFL environment?
- (2) What is the effect of simulated language learning system use of SL on the technical autonomy of EFL students?
- (3) What is the connection between EFL learners' (experimental community only) practical writing skills and technical efficiency?

Pragmatic writing

In addition to knowledge, language learning includes practical application and detailed approaches. It is not in dictionaries and books. It is in practice, the nation and conversation that language has its proper habitat. One of the main problems facing the learning of English as a foreign language (EFL), or English (ELL), in general, is how the involvement of students in the target language in and outside the classroom for meaningful purposes can be improved (Guzmán-Simón, Torres-Gordillo, & Caballero, 2020; Maulana, Musthafa, & Hayati, 2020; Yao & Du-Babcock, 2020). This made both spoken and written English mastery. As such, pragmatic competence in English is desperately needed to link it to real life. According to Canale (1983), pragmatic competence concerns the relation of utterances to the practical actions that speakers expect to execute in these utterances, and the language meaning characteristics that decide the adequacy of report, including the scientific and precise analysis of English with a view to fostering, expanding, and complementing theoretical awareness of English.

Students of foreign languages (FL) may learn the vocabulary and grammar of the target language, but without having an equal influence on its functions. The word 'Practical Linguistics', thus, refers

to the organized usage of English for a variety of practical purposes (Navidinia, Akar, & Hendevalan, 2019; Nie & Wang, 2020). It refers to the usage of English to accomplish a specific function, or reach a certain social objective (Biber, Gray, Staples & Egbert, 2020; Maamuujav, Krishnan, & Collins, 2020; Magulod, 2018). Writing means "efficiency", instead of "quantity," so that students continue to focus on one piece before they are happy. A practical approach to ELL, particularly in relation to writing, ensures that, students can communicate in English meaningfully to achieve certain goals (Halaczkiwicz, 2020). This improves writing significantly if instruction specifically addresses the student's wishes. In other words, pragmatic reading is intended to achieve realistic goals, such as redeeming and preparing students towards their future. Pragmatic writing in English is also seen as a useful means, by which a social role of writing can be performed within a certain cultural framework (e.g. requesting a work, or writing a letter). However, there are few studies discussed the functional uses of EFL, in particular as regards to the Saudi EFL background (Alghizzi & Alshahrani, 2020; Alharbi, 2019; Alhujaylan, 2019; Ali & Ramana, 2018; Alotaibi, 2020; Alshakhi, 2019). Recent related research undertaken by the first author was primarily intended to suggest a functioning taxonomy and a list of the practical writing skills currently required to be learned in English by Saudi EFL students.

Situated-task-based (STB) language learning

Many teachers and scholars strongly agree that teamwork and situated task-based learning are the basis for effective learning (Eddy, Hao, Markiewicz & Iverson, 2019; Nomura & Yuan, 2019; O'Brien & Battista, 2020; Uz Bilgin & Tokel, 2019; Yeoman & Wilson, 2019). Located relationships are thought to contribute to deep understanding and practical thinking. Learning position, in general, applies to the students as involved creators of information, which place their own. Lunce (2006) defined situated learning as a teaching technique, utilizing the learning method in real-life situations to incorporate the course material into action. The paradigm further illustrates qualities, such as communication, collaboration, coordination, observation, analytical thought, and realistic idea execution from the 21st century. Enabling students to engage in community activities in the field allows them to learn educational methods and integrate and apply knowledge in a realistic context while enhancing education and learning. Adult students, especially graduates, apply their information most effectively to current circumstances (Canipe & Decker, 2004). Support is an on-the-job opportunity, which provides significant benefits in an instructor

management program; Akiba and Alkins (2010), and Contu and Willmott (2003) examined how learning conditions improve the capacity of students to develop their abilities in the social sense; namely, they reap the fruits of their learning in their own quotidian experiences. Studies found that, when students were immersed in their experiential learning process, the more highly skilled they manifest themselves in the workforce and society (Miraglia & Smilan 2009; Taguchi, & Kim, 2018).

Task-based language learning (TBLL) is a way to promote a culture that is committed to common language goals (de la Guía, Camacho, Orozco-Barbosa, Luján, Penichet & Pérez, 2016; Moore, 2018; Bygate, 2016; Almakrob & Al-Ahdal, 2020). This role is seen as a concrete linguistic function, which enables students to understand and use a target language in relation to the actual language context. It is not about language and workpieces, but about language, i.e., the roles of language include connectivity, the expression of personality, play, creative expression, and emotional release. The key aim of the learning scenario will be "research writing," first because of the expected effects in realistic writing. This defines task-based language learning (TBLL) as a method of language learning focusing on student activities. The professor will plan exercises for the students, even if they do not. When accurate, engaging, focused, and directed activities are carried out, learning is consistent.

Learning strategies

Abdallah and Mansour (2015) assessed the EFL pragmatic writing of Arab students. The results of the study showed that task-based is successful in establishing realistic writing and technical autonomy within the SL climate. For the study, the investigators focused heavily on urban design and sensory elements of the learning experience. In like manner, Lidawan and Alshlowi (2020) ascertained the effectiveness of pragmatic interactive calls to students. As they amply demonstrated, the creation of digital and technology proliferates in the 21st century, as it produces a media-rich climate, which may vary from the way most school students study. Many third-world countries cannot provide state-of-the-art facilities; and, as a consequence, are deprived of the necessary exposures. To answer the issue, writers explain how students indiscriminately use the integrative computer-assisted language learning (CALL). This study responded to students' questions in terms of their primary thinking skills, which combine digital taxonomy with natural

material via integrating requests, which revolve around three analytical approaches. The findings showed that using explicit language activities consisting of natural computer-aided resources for automated taxonomy is virtually beneficial. It then follows that pragmatic creativity may tackle systemic problems associated with a lack of professional instruments to teach students skills in the 21st century using three approaches developed to promote integrative CALL. Using accurate content activities for digital taxonomy helps students to think objectively when understanding various pedagogical implications for language learning. This study uses modes to identify critical trends, proportions, and frequencies that support the importance of 35 responses collected by English instructors from higher education institutions. This analysis is an empirical summary. Work on the present paper, it must be emphasized, needs to be focused on an expanded population to quantify the association, or relevance, of student analyst, thought by dedicating students to digital taxonomy when integrating new, accurate materials with Integrative CALL.

In addition, Peterson (2012) reported on the task-based engagement between EFL students in SL, which reflects on a review of an SL Text Chat of students at a university in Japan. An analysis of the data revealed a socio-cultural environment, tasks, and collaborative interaction in language development. Lexis-based peer-scaffolding and clarification were included in collective involvement. Participants' input was overwhelmingly favorable, suggesting that unique SL features, such as different avatars paired with a computer-based interface, tend to enhance speech control, engagement, and participation. Findings indicated that SL creates a learner-centered social interaction atmosphere, which offers beneficial opportunities for target language instruction and the development of independence.

From a practical perspective of language learning, SL enables students to form groups and collaborate by distancing themselves from others in order to engage in interactive semi-real-life conversations. In this way, students can dynamically create and redefine groups based on pedagogical imperatives, or interpersonal/social dynamism instead of a forum for discussion or text chat (Henderson, 2009). Throughout this context, Jauregi, De Graaff, and Canto (2012) researched the added benefit that synchronous teamwork ventures throughout language learning could provide by video-communication or SL. The findings indicated that expertise in telecollaboration brings importance to linguistic and behavioral effects. In particular, intercultural

social interactions were promoted by the synchronous learning conditions used in tandem with appropriate activities for engagement and the ability to communicate efficiently with professional peers. Furthermore, Kastoudi (2012) explored the power of the 3D virtual search games in SL to improve vocabulary benefit in another language learning setting through contact, meaning negotiation, and notes. Qualitative work has revealed detailed observations, and practical interactions and meaning sharing, and there has been a small but important amount of unintended vocabulary education. In addition, the language exchange itself allowed communication skills to be created. Likewise, Lan (2020) study aimed to determine SL's effectiveness in enhancing the oral performance of Chinese Mandarin students outside China. Tests showed that learning Mandarin in an SL setting substantially increases the speaking skill of the students, who also greatly enhanced their verbal performance.

Remarkably, writing and speaking are both productive skills. Al-Ahdal (2020a) assessed the speaking skill of Saudi EFL learners with the help of podcasts. Correct pronunciation was deemed a problem by the EFL students to be a restriction element in the test. The study used the audio-visual MP3 option to continue smartphones for students and connect them to innovative, yet demanding activities to search for an improvement in learner pronunciation skills. Of the two study schools, the experimental category 87 of EFL leading students reported a remarkable improvement of approximately 50 percent in the Group average after three months of podcast interference. The study concluded that podcasts are a popular learning medium to support Saudi EFL students.

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However, research strategies over the last decade have predominantly focused on situated English learning in a conventional classroom setting (Kofar, 2016; Lin, Zhang, & Zheng, 2017; Prat, et al, 2016; Zhang, Thomas, & Qin, 2019). The students use of strategies to enhance writing skills in online learning has received little attention. There have been several empirical initiatives to rigorously analyze the lectures of classroom professionals on rounded learning experience in EFL discursive settings in comparison. The latest model reverses the standard school-based framework, in which students study critical topics outside of school and the opportunity for urgent problem-based learning is allocated. The debate and effect of the model is focused more on hypothesis than on evidence to consider qualitative input before drawing a judgment.

The essence of learning includes experiences, such as people's meetings with others and their community, involvement in social gatherings, collaboration, and the production of shared knowledge. Words are learned gradually and painfully, away from their meanings and contexts; therefore, people can better grasp vocabulary in their everyday lives, particularly in conversation. Since then, real, functional, and specific environments in vocabulary teaching have been popular. Related academics and analysts also stress that, the usage of a common term has beneficial consequences, in particular as second language requiring practical use of a target language as a culture, or as a foreign language, which prevents group use, to ensure that students can use words effectively in the target language. If the group uses the target language, students learn immensely by motivating them to use the target language, and to use the terminology in the current setting. Furthermore, because the culture has no target vocabulary, students do not choose to use the word. Thereupon, teachers must provide students with functional interactions, and specific explanations for solving this issue.

Methodology

In order to achieve the core research goals, and resolve scientific concerns, the study employed a group experimental design. The main reason for using this approach is to make it possible for researchers to assess how the proposed technique (SL-environment) may function with targeted respondents, in contrast to the successes of student, teachers (i.e. the control group studying normally, and the experimental group subjected to SL) in each after-test sample.

Participants

Random sampling was used to select 10 participants from an experimental (SL) population to meet testing objectives. Random sampling is part of a collection procedure where and sample is similarly likely to be picked. A randomly selected survey is intended to reflect the entire population without discrimination. Although the sample technology tends to be qualitative, non-random sampling was used to meet specific needs in experimental research projects. A similar control group (n=10) was, then, assigned by random sampling. The primary reason for choosing such small numbers was the challenge of having face-to-face meetings in a virtual university laboratory, and SL party leaders had to operate on their own PCs from home (see phase 1 of the design framework for more information).

Data collection

The present study used two data collection instruments including; (1) academic self-Efficacy scale; (2) pragmatic writing skills pre-test and post-test. Comparison of the pre-test and post-test result used dependent sample -test. The pre-test after-test framework was used to assess improvements in students' expectations and behaviors by utilizing a sample questionnaire to define the impact of improvement utilizing the TBLT in the classroom. In the analysis with G*Power, the impact size or benefit score is determined. In this template, the effects of a given intervention can be described. The data were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Cohen's d effect size was used to interpret the effect of the gain scores. Responses were tabulated correctly and subjected to an appropriate statistical test.

Results and Discussion

Research Question 1. 'What is the task-based virtual learning framework, which helps SL develop the practical writing skills of EFL students?

On the basis of the research inquires, the findings of the analysis are described sequentially in this portion. In response to question one, two scoreboards were performed for both the test groups and the SL class in the Realist Writing Exercise, and the average score was taken per person.

Table 1. Results of pragmatic writing assessment score

Group		N	Mean Rank	Z Value	Significance	Effect Size
Student's Score	Control	10	7.30	3.203	0.01	0.97
	Situated learning	10	15.80			

(Mann-Whitney Results)

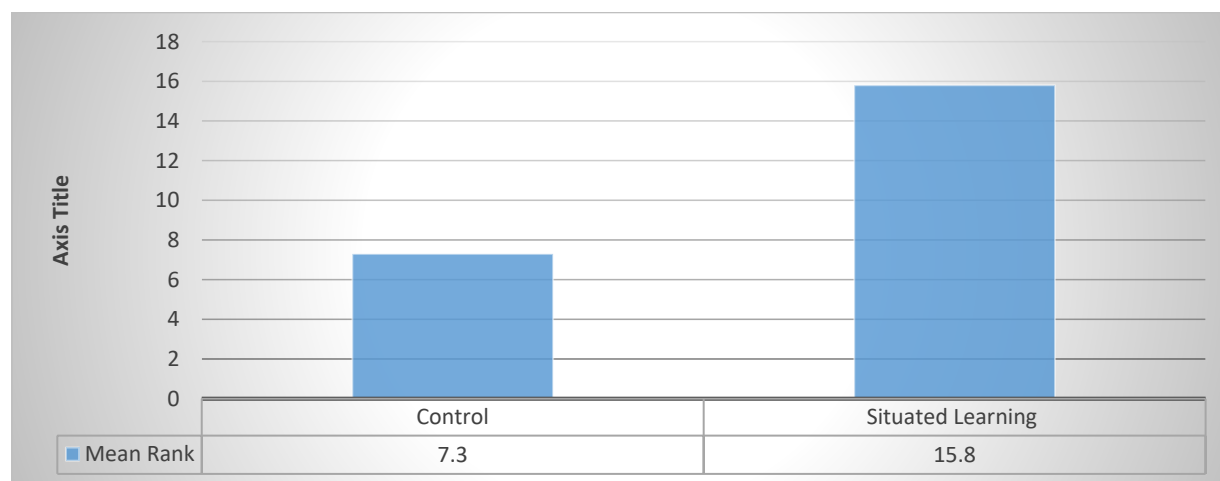


Figure 1. Results of pragmatic writing assessment score

The table above shows statistically significant variances at 0.01 points between the average ranks of participants in the pragmatic writing test in both sample groups. The effect size value was 0.97, which shows high gains by the participants in the SL group. The following benefits of the SL party can be linked to such good results. SL recommended innovative and non-traditional methods and techniques, such as appropriate engagement strategies, peer review, avatars, and oral and written expression. Through other academic courses, the participants had a rich language input; and were, thus, able to implement it in a cheerful, playful, and interactive environment, which encouraged them to work creatively in certain workplaces in SL. In a virtual learning climate, SL made participants feel deeply personal. SL linked language theory with experience by introducing additional criteria for language use and action, including avatars, and identity playing roles. The test in SL was conducted using formative evaluation techniques, rather than traditional lecture approaches, culminating in significant changes in the test results. In the SL environment, the participants performed a range of different roles, leading them to develop their pragmatic writing skills, and reflective diaries of participants led them to understand what they learned in SL, and how they became aware of their own perspectives. The findings above are compatible with the outcomes obtained in other experiments of SL as an efficient learning platform for various

language learning purposes particularly on pragmatic writing (Abdallah & Mansour, 2015; Al-Malki, Baharith, Almasre, Surouji & Al-Marzougi, 2015; Alqahtani, 2016; Egbert, Shahrokni, Zhang, Yahia, Borysenko, Mohamed & Aljarah, 2020; Geris & Özdener, 2020).

Research Question 2. What is the effect of simulated language learning system use of SL on the technical autonomy of EFL student?

To answer the second question, the computer self-efficiency scale was measured in both groups by utilizing SPSS; the tests were carried out using the Mann-Whitney non-parametric method, then the impact size was determined by using the same equation as above.

Table 2: Technological autonomy

Group		N	Mean Rank	Z Value	Significance	Effect Size
Student's Score	Control	10	7.12	2..567	0.01	0.79
	Situated learning	10	17.89			

(Mann-Whitney Results)

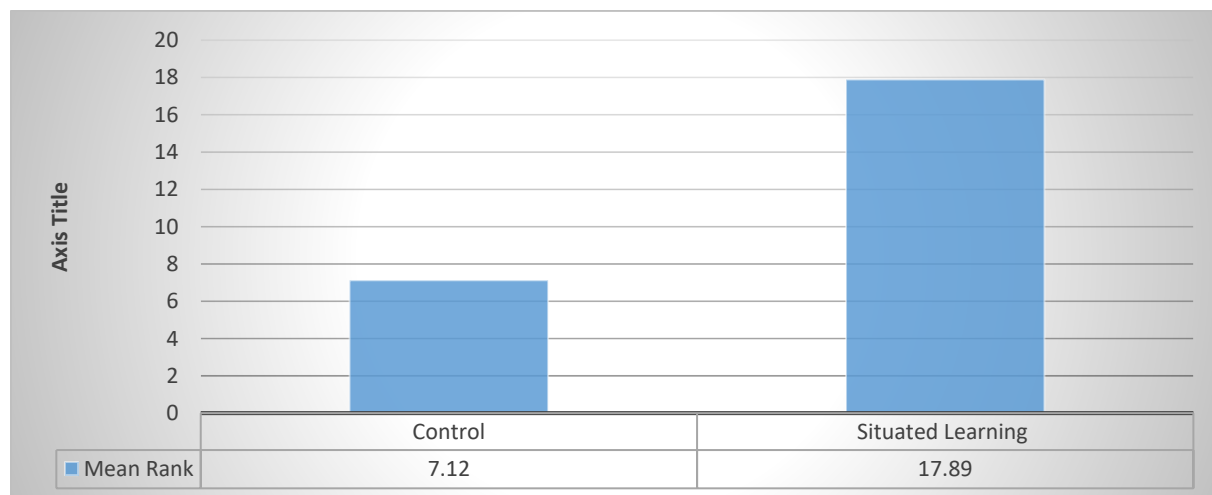


Figure 2: Results of Technological autonomy

The above table shows a statistically significant gap between the two-study system (SL) participants at a median level of 0.01; the average amount was less than 0.05; which, in contrast to the partners, is a remarkable improvement in the technical efficacy of individuals, who are subject to the simulated SL world. This may be due to the open, constructive, engaging, and fun attraction of the SL community in this immersive learning atmosphere; and to the continuity of the

volunteer efforts in SL, as well as the effects of the SL Scale (Chang, et al, 2020; Lukas & Personn, 2019; Ünal & Yelken, 2020). As demonstrated through their reviews for formative evaluation, the simulated reinforcement of the use of the language, and the experience provided by the SL system were able to introduce, evaluate, and modify those communication methods orally and by writing within the limits of the classrooms. Within this artificial environment, this type of interaction has been reported to be enjoyed. The feeling identified with their avatars in order to apologize for having wrongly hit a new avatar. The feeling was part of an exciting collaborative effort that shaped real life. Given the logistical and practical challenges, most SL's strong usage as a supporting learning atmosphere is stated by most participants. The result of the present study, therefore, are in harmony with the previous literature that situated learning is effective in enhancing students writing skill in which authentic learning experience is apparent and evidential and students will be able to present their experiences (Horowitz, 2019; Levak & Son, 2017; Saranraj & Meenakshi, 2016; Wang, 2017).

Research Question 3. (3) 'What is the connection between EFL's (experimental community only) practical writing skills and their technical efficiency?

In response to the third and final query, 'What is the connection between EFL's second-year education and technological autonomy? The correlation coefficient was obtained in the SPSS Spearman equation. The results presented in the table indicate that the correlation the coefficient is 0.5 and 0.05, and emphasize that the development of realistic writing capabilities in SL environments is linked to SL participants' self-efficacy in their technologies. As shown in the participants' accounts, this is mainly because the SL used to encourage and enhance participants' learning through the unique features of SL and the position of learning tasks. These features require social networks to be added in order to enable participants to assess and execute their ideas and policies actively. Model SL on the modern environment, as participants in study classes and face-to-face encounters allowed learners to employ, use, and develop a range of skills (for example, social, technological, interactive, cross-cultural, reflecting, and time management skills).

Table 3: Pragmatic writing test & technological self-efficacy scale for SL group

Group	N	Spearman's Coefficient	Significance
Situated learning	10	0.50	0.05

In general, this study has reinforced the findings of other linguistic learners and scholars that successful learning is grounded in situated learning, connectivity, and social growth (Abdallah, 2015; Bamman, Dyer, & Smith, 2014; Nguyen & Terry, 2017; Vazquez, et al, 2017). A Contextualized experience is often meant to contribute to producing clear comprehension and substantive learning. Located learning typically refers to a form of learning, which takes place in the same sense in which it is used. It uses the social aspect of human nature to help students feel comfortable and relaxed while learning. Learning should not inherently be interpreted as the exchange of abstract and decontextualized information between individuals, rather as a mutual process for co-construction of awareness. This indicates that such a concept is put in a certain way, and incorporated into a specific social and physical environment. Language learning is specifically described as effective building of information which has learning requirements, strategies, and styles; as well as, skills and knowledge best taught across realistic mechanisms and trustworthy environments, engaging students in experiential linguistic learning practices.

Conclusion

The study results show the TBSLL's effectiveness in improving participants' realistic writing and technical automaticity in the SL environment. In addition, a close correlation has been identified between realistic writing and technical self-efficacy. We have given considerable attention to interactive aspects of the learning process in analyzing these findings. Based on the findings, some conclusions, particularly concerning the SL climate, can be drawn. The SL environment is an essential extension of traditional education, particularly in terms of functionality. It is called the creation of the learning method through mixing abstract and actual. It is a way to build and turn fantasy into a real fact in ELL. This contributes to incorporating certain teaching strategies, such as task and creativity, experimenting with certain learning experiences and the growth of other language skills. It was clear that SL is a perfect tool for creating role-playing scenarios for learning, provided we have the correct balance of motivation and structure. SL builds a broad variety of

language skills, leadership skills, and analysis capability. Therefore, the concept of utilizing the SL framework may be integrated into actual language learning environments. SL can create and encourage many ELL opportunities with regard to teaching the communicative language and community-based approaches.

Implications to language teaching

The findings of the analysis have long-term consequences not only for the Saudi EFL courses, but also for the global background in the quest for the development of ESL learners in communication skills. The use of Situated Learning coupled with SL principles can be widely used by language teachers in order to give students better opportunities for language learning. Language teachers should be able to correctly integrate TBLT not only in language subjects but also in other fields of study, because of its strong position in helping students to overcome barriers to speaking, the illustration of which may best be perceived in the need for continuous professional development for language arts teachers with a focus on benefits and other TBL-based strategies. The paper has a certain impact on language learning. On the one hand, students become stronger learners if they become more aware of this knowledge, and then practice. On the other hand, teachers may create confidence in their students by familiarizing them with the methodology of mapping ideas. Besides, the article has several other consequences about the existence of curricula. Conceptual education will allow students to identify themselves. This course not only works in writing, but also strengthens the sense of remembrance, understanding, problem solving and progress of the students at school. It is, therefore, also beneficial for teaching other qualifications. While current research indicates that the mapping technique supports university students, other fields must be further explored. The integration of instructional methods into classroom teaching is one area for further study. The teacher can offer certain models for implementing various strategies in various capacities. Another field for further research is interacting with a variety of language users, including school students, and students of various backgrounds. Finally, teachers should know which technologies, programs, content; and how to teach so that the SL environment can be brought to the classroom. Teachers, therefore, need to make effective use of their technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge (TPACK). This study's goal was to enable teachers to raise knowledge as to how to utilize the technologies to build web-supported SL materials throughout the language learning phase.

Implications to future studies

Although several literature reviews have underlined the utility of SL-TBLT in language education, this analysis has been conducted utilizing case studies and post-test prototypes to further resolve the research gap by considering the latest trials Saudi EFL students in high school utilizing TBLT with corrective guidance in enhancing speech flux and accuracy. The results found that, the usage of TBLT is successful in developing speech abilities, and its perceptual and attitude impact can be observed in the learning of languages. Since this analysis utilizes only a small number of cases and the basic nature of the test system, comparable experiments have to be repeated, or revised, taking into consideration the use of certain similarly important variables, including characteristics of the instructor, and the student's temperament, socio-economic status of the instructor, and certain school-related influences that can be associated. A longer study duration using other hybrid research methods may yet be performed for the verification of research findings.

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