Table of Contents

Foreword

Welcome to the TESOL international Journal, Volume 16 Issue 6.1 2021. In this edition we present papers from Saudi Arabia, the Kingdom of Bahrain and Indonesia. It is worth noting that less than 3% of papers submitted for publication in fact make it through the various screening processes. This also suggests there is a rising global demand by authors who research areas of SLA but find difficulty in reaching an outlet where their research can be reviewed. It is suggested that university administrators and governments consider this when setting milestones that academics must reach in order to be considered for promotion or advancement or job interviews. Assuming our statistics represent a fair cross section of SLA journals, then it is clear the profession as a whole need to look to this imposing barrier and demand that is being burdened on the academic journals, many of which are run on a voluntary basis.

In the first paper entitled Academic Performance of IELTS Exempts at the Preparatory Year Program by renowned Profs. Abdulaziz Alfehaid, Abdel Monim H. Baniawwad and Nada Alkhatib from Imam Abdulrahman bin Faisal University, Saudi Arabia, the acclaimed authors examined the impact of exempting IELTS holders from the English language course on their academic performance during their studies. Importantly for researchers across the globe, this research found the university placement test proved its predictive validity in that advanced students reached a significant threshold that enabled them to outperform IELTS students in academic success. Finally, the study recommends that IELTS holders should attend the preparatory year English courses not only to improve their language proficiency but also their academic performance as well.

The next paper Enhancing Writing Skills through Online Publishing is by co-authors Sofia Ligawen and Rhoda Batul Videz from the Bahrain Training Institute. Their research centered around two questions, namely 'What are the learners' difficulties in writing' and secondly 'How does the use of digital tools and project-based learning enhance the writing skills of the learners?' Their findings showed contemporary classrooms are equipped with digital components which are accessible to learners. Project-based learning through the use of digital tools generates new learning opportunities for the learners, enhances multiple skills, increases engagement, and promotes differentiation. Project-based allows English teaching and learning to move beyond the classroom. In the third paper, Contemporary Practices of Code-Switching

in EFL Indonesian University Classrooms by Dr. Muh Kholiq and Taufiq Effendi from Indonesia, the researchers investigated the contemporary practices of Indonesian-English code-switching in the EFL Indonesian higher education classrooms. Alternation between languages in the form of code-switching is a widely observed phenomenon in foreign language classrooms. This study analyzed the issues surrounding the linguistic dimensions of code-switching in the classrooms. Although centered in Indonesia, the research has findings that may guide researchers in other locales.

In the fourth paper entitled Integrating Employability Skills in EFL Speaking and Writing Curricula through Digital Platforms, co-authors Hajar Mahfoodh and Sofia Hashimin their paper, explore further potential opportunities for integrating employability skills in the EFL classroom, focusing on writing and speaking courses through digital and social media platforms, abiding by the 21st Century rubrics and skills and concludes with the opportunities and suggestions for integrating employability skills in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classroom through digital and social media platforms. The fifth paper, Constructivist Training Pedagogies for Employability in The Post -COVID19 World of Business, is by Dr. Harris Saseendran of the Bahrain Training Institute. The study is conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of blending constructivist approaches with digital tools to support developing the 21st century skills that will be most beneficial for employees to succeed in the organizational environment of the next decade. Recommendations were made for betterment of the Training Institutes programs. The sixth paper is, Incorporating Creativity and Communication Skills among the Students of Media Department, by co-authors Rizwana Wahid, Shanjida Halim and Tanzina Halim from King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia. Their research looks at the learning objectives of the Media curriculum offered to the undergraduate students and investigated whether the curriculum met the goals of the students. The researchers found in the curriculum of the Media department that the focus on life and employability skills should have be more intense. Their research paper focused on the teaching of life and employability skills to these students by incorporating communication and creativity in the curriculum.

In the seventh paper, co-authors Anita Dewi Ekawati, Herri Mulyono, Vista Sulaim Arrummaiza, Siti Zulaiha and Sri Kusuma Ningsih present a paper entitled Evaluating EFL teachers' self-efficacy and attitude towards web-based professional development practices: A Rasch analysis. The current study was aimed to address the previous research gap by measuring self-efficacy and attitudes towards online-based professional development among

EFL teachers at three different school levels. The authors noted the high level of teachers' self-efficacy and positive attitudes should be carefully considered in any design and application of web-based teacher training programs. Importantly, whereas technological anxiety has been identified as an issue, web-based professional development thus should also be designed to be enjoyable for teachers and more so critically, with sufficient technological supports available. The eighth paper entitled Lecturers' Motivation of Using English Medium Instruction to Support Internationalization of Indonesian Universities is presented by Drs. Amirullah Abduh, Mayong Maman and Ramly Ramly from the Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. The authors look at the two major debates on EMI in Indonesia. The in-depth exploration of the phenomenon and the results contribute to understanding educators' perception of and motivation for engaging in EMI, and future studies are recommended into uncovering learners' investment within the context of EMI implementation. The ninth paper is The Professional Standards for Teachers in Saudi Arabia as A framework for EFL Teachers' Professional Development Needs Assessment by Hussein Assalahi who researched and investigated the EFL teachers' perceptions about their professional development needs assessment in light of the professional standards for English Language teachers in Saudi Arabia. The implications for teachers and professional development providers are discussed, and directions for future professional development research are highlighted.

We hope the aforementioned research papers can provide valuable suggestions – guidance to other researchers seeking to advance research into their specialised areas of English Second Language Acquisition research. We thank the authors above for their service and dedication to the profession.

Academic Performance of IELTS Exempts at the Preparatory Year Program

Abdulaziz Alfehaid

*English Language Department, Deanship of Preparatory Year & Supporting Studies,
Imam Abdulrahman bin Faisal University, Saudi Arabia*

Abdel Monim H. Baniawwad

*Self-Development Department, Deanship of Preparatory Year & Supporting Studies,
Imam Abdulrahman bin Faisal University, Saudi Arabia*

Nada Alkhatib

*English Language Department, College of Arts,
Imam Abdulrahman bin Faisal University, Saudi Arabia*

Bio-profiles:

Abdulaziz Alfehaid is a professor in the English language department at Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University (Saudi Arabia). He obtained his MA and Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics and TESOL from the School of Education at the University of Leicester, UK. He has taught applied linguistics and EFL, and consulted on assessment, program evaluation projects and pedagogy in ESL and adult education settings. His research focuses mainly on preparatory (first) year student retention, English language education, English for academic purposes, developing and evaluating preparatory year curriculum and programs and student transition. He can be reached at aalfehaid@iau.edu.sa

Abdelmonim Hasan Mohsen Bani Awad has Ph.D. in foundation of education from Amman Arab University for Graduate Studies since (Feb 23, 2008), and a master's degree in foundation of education from The University of Jordan 1994 and a Bachelor's Degree in PE & Education from Yarmouk University, 1990. He is now an assistant professor at the self-development department in Prep year deanship (Imam Abdulrhman Bin Faisal University) and served as Academic Supervisor, General Coordinator of Science Track. His mail address is: ahawad@iau.edu.sa

Nada Alkhatib is currently an assistant professor of Applied Linguistics in the English language department at Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University in Saudi Arabia. She taught academic writing, reading and research methods in linguistics. She obtained her MA and Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics and TESOL from the School of Education at the University of Essex, UK.

Abstract

The primary objective of this study is to examine the impact of exempting IELTS holders from the English language course on their academic performance during their studies (2016-2019) at Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University (IAU). 294 students out of a total of 2410 registered students participated in the current study. These participants were divided into two groups: the first one comprised 134 students who were exempted from taking the English language course, and the second one, consisting of 160 students, were enrolled in this course. The second group were divided according to their English language proficiency into three levels: advanced (35 students), intermediate (97) and beginner (28). The study resorted to t-tests to compare between the two groups. Then, ANOVA was used to compare the three levels of English proficiency for the second group. The findings revealed no differences between students who were exempted and those who were not (students at beginner and intermediate levels); yet, there were differences in favor of students at the advanced level. The results also indicated that there were no differences between students at beginner and intermediate levels; yet, there were differences in favor of the advanced-level students compared to those at beginner and intermediate levels. So, the university placement test proved its predictive validity in that advanced students reached a significant threshold that enabled them to outperform IELTS students in academic success. Finally, the study recommends that IELTS holders should attend the preparatory year English courses not only to improve their language proficiency but also their academic performance as well.

Keywords: *IELTS, Preparatory Year, Student Exemption, Student Level, English Language, Grade Point Average.*

1. Introduction

The predictive validity of international tests for accessing university has attracted the attention of researchers and stakeholders since a couple of decades ago. The International English

Language Testing System (IELTS) is widely recognized as a certified, proficiency test across the world of assessing whether students' English language proficiency allows them to study at university level using English as a medium of instruction. IELTS examines students' levels in the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Because this test provides exclusive evidence of its holders' adequate language command, it opens the doors to the candidates who envision to pursue their studies not only in their countries but also in the English-speaking countries such as the UK, the USA, Canada and Australia.

The English Language Department at IAU conducted approves the exemption of students from the placement test and hence from studying English in the preparatory year program (PYP) if they provide a copy of the results of the IELTS. In this case, they will be eligible for exemption from the General English course (101) provided that they score at least 6 out of 9 across in the four language skills on the IELTS Test. For students who obtain an exemption, their GPA will be calculated without requiring English 101. English constitutes approximately one third of the students' credit hours required to successfully pass the PYP. However, some students scored 6 and above in the ILETS but insist on studying English in the preparatory year. They believe that passing this exam alone is not enough for them and they need further language competences to promote their reading, writing, listening, speaking and cognitive skills. They also believe that the collaboration with their peer students increases their opportunities to practice English and enhances their overall performance.

According to MacDonald (2019, p.158), "The IELTS guidelines recommend an IELTS score of 7.0 as 'probably acceptable' for linguistically demanding academic courses and 'acceptable' for linguistically less demanding academic courses.". This recommendation is not intended to predict future academic success but to signal whether or not students possess a level of proficiency in English sufficient enough to cope with the linguistic demands of an academic program.

Furthermore, most students who were enrolled in academic programs had already achieved a minimum proficiency set by the institution. In terms of IELTS, this is generally 6 or 6.5 for entry to undergraduate or graduate studies. So, there is no indication for English ability as measured by test scores to correlate effectively with the academic results obtained. Most predictive validity studies, therefore, have not been able to consider how well students with IELTS overall band scores below 6.0 might have performed in the academic context (Schoepp, 2018).

The importance of English language for enhancing educational attainment through improved communication ability can never be underestimated. Students who experience difficulties in communication skills may not be taught effectively in the English language as well as in academic subjects. The English language in Saudi Arabia today is the language of instruction in schools and universities (Sonnenschein, Metzger, Dowling, & Baker, 2017). When Students possess high proficiency in English, they will definitely improve their academic performance. Nevertheless, where their English proficiency is poor in any academic setting, it will definitely lower their academic performance. Vargas (2017) concluded that the lack of proficiency in the English language is one of the factors contributing to poor performance in all disciplines.

Current research has confirmed that it is important for students to be proficient readers in order to continue learning any academic content as they advance through grade levels (Kazakoff, Macaruso, & Hook, 2018). Equally important, Villegas, SaizdeLaMora, Martin, and Mills (2018) investigated the use of English language proficiency to predict the future academic success of English learners. Their study revealed that English language proficiency is a factor of prediction for future academic success. On the other hand, low language proficiency has been considered as a barrier to learning academic courses at higher education level. Universities require students who seek admission to obtain a score in English language proficiency tests to give evidence that they are proficient enough to succeed in their academic studies (Williams, Powers, Kong & Starr, 2012).

Globally speaking, the poor performance of students in English language at public examinations in recent times has been explained as a major cause of the decline in academic achievement and standard of education (Hyland, 2017). In a similar vein, Hall (2017) examined students' understanding of the contents and concepts of the various subjects of the curriculum taught in English and found that comprehension is the most serious challenge that students face in the course of their study. These studies provide strong evidence that exemption provisions may have unexpected consequences. However, the overall effect of exemption on students' achievement has not been covered in the current literature. Cummins's (1979) threshold hypothesis states that English language learners must possess a higher level of cognitive academic language proficiency in order to be able to participate in academic learning tasks in an effective way. It is generally assumed that when students' English proficiency is relatively low, TOEFL or IELTS scores can predict deficient academic performance. Although the basic academic requirements for admission must be met, the first consideration must take into

account sufficient language proficiency to carry out any academic program (Müller & Daller, 2019).

2. Literature Review

In the last few decades, many moans and groans have been voiced out about students' falling standards. These complaints have been more and more aggravating concerning mainly sophomore university students. They have been found to experience great difficulties in using English as a medium of instruction. As a consequence of these educational complaints, a plethora of studies have been conducted to investigate language proficiency in connection with academic performance.

Initially, many studies investigated the general relationship between language proficiency and academic performance in terms of general grades and revealed discrepant results. For instance, McLean, Murdoch-Eaton, Shaban (2012) examined Gulf medical students' strengths and deficiencies in terms of generic skills such as communication, critical thinking and problem-solving. Results showed that although students achieved considerable progress in information-handling, communication and presentation skills, poor language proficiency hampered the development of their skills. Specifically in the UAE, Rogier (2012) found that students did not possess an adequate level of English language proficiency that enables them to pursue higher education. In the same connection, the study of Kaliyadan et al. (2015) explores medical students' English language proficiency and academic performance in the PYP, Saudi Arabia. After 103 students had completed an English language course and a medical introductory course, their test scores were analyzed revealing a significantly positive correlation. As a consequence, they recommended English language proficiency as an important factor in determining students' academic proficiency.

In the same vein, Ghenghesh (2015) explored the relationship between English language proficiency and academic performance of Preparatory Year students in three faculties: Engineering, Business and Computer Science. The results revealed that the higher the English proficiency of students on entry to the university the better they will perform not only in English but in their scientific courses. Consequently, it is suggested that the academic institutions should raise the university entry-level for English. In more recent studies, Atac, Özgan, Ericon and Bulut (2018) strived to identify the difference between achievement levels of optional and compulsory English preparatory class students according to the English instructors' standpoints. The findings indicated that the change in preparatory class system

from compulsory to optional had caused negative results in English proficiency and lowered student motivation level. In the same line, Ozowuba (2018) concurred previous studies indicating that the continuous low scores of final-year senior secondary school students are due the limited proficiency in English. The researcher recommended a prompt language policy intervention to boost up English proficiency among students to enable them to succeed in all subjects.

Other studies have investigated the issue of students' low language proficiency in terms of specific language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. For example, Hellekjær (2009) investigated academic English reading proficiency of 578 Norwegian university students. The findings showed that 30% of the students had serious difficulties in reading English because of their poor vocabulary and slow reading. According to this study, the problem is due to the failure of Norwegian EFL instruction to develop students' proficiency needed for higher education. Some other studies also point out students' poor performance. Specifically, Mallillin and Castillo (2016) investigated the language proficiency of 349 college students and found that their speaking and vocabulary skills are not significant and they need to develop even their listening, reading and writing skills. In sum, controversial results between language proficiency and academic performance either in terms of grade point average or specific language skills are pinpointed.

In an attempt to put an end to the conundrum of the poor language proficiency, universities worldwide require students to obtain the IELTS test as a preliminary condition to their admission. Nevertheless, some doubts have been raised about the predictive validity IELTS. Consequently, numerous research works have been conducted to explore this thorny issue. After examining many research studies, the general picture that emerges is that the results appear to be controversial and inconclusive. While some studies found out positive results, others revealed negative results concerning IELTS language proficiency and academic performance. However, it goes without saying that a minimum level of language aptitude is really a sine qua non for success at university level.

Studies investigating the relationship between IELTS admission scores and academic performance among native and foreign students have also yielded varying results ranging from positive to negative impacts. Some studies investigated the general IELTS scores and the grade point average. Other studies found that this monolithic undertaking was not reliable and set out to explore the relationships between specific IELTS sub-scores and their corresponding grades.

Still more other research works pinpointed other factors influencing success such as students' washback and attitudes towards the test construct *per se*.

A battery of studies identified a positive correlation between IELTS language scores and academic performance but with varying degrees. For illustration, Yen and Kuzma (2009) investigated the relationship between Chinese students' IELTS results and their academic performance. They reported a positive correlation between IELTS scores and GPAs and consequently confirmed the predictive power of IELTS in heightening students' academic performance. By the same token, the research study conducted by Schoepp and Garinger (2016) in the UAE demonstrates a positive correlation between a higher IELTS entrance score (≥7.0) and academic success whereas students at a lower level (6.0 - 6.5) did not prove such a solid relation leading to raising the question of the appropriate IELTS entry level for students. Subsequently, Schoepp (2018) surveyed the validity of IELTS in predicting students' academic success in terms of grade point average in the UAE. Results indicate that IELTS 6.0 scores can be regarded as a key benchmark that predicts academic success. In the same vein, Feast (2002) recorded a substantial connection between language proficiency as measured by IELTS scores and academic performance as measured by Grade Point Average (GPA). He recommended raising IELTS scores for university admission, but he recognized that universities will lose on financial grounds due to the loss of international students. Concurrently, the research study conducted by Schoepp and Garinger (2016) in the UAE demonstrates a positive correlation between a higher IELTS entrance score (≥7.0) and academic success whereas students at a lower level (6.0 - 6.5) did not prove such a solid relation leading to raising the question of the appropriate IELTS entry level for students. Equally important, MacDonald (2019) regarded the IELTS as a valid test in Canada and showed that most universities there set similar IELTS cut scores for admission to meet some political and administrative concerns. The study of Shakibaei and Memari (2019) disclosed a high predictive validity of IELTS in the four modules of the takers' performance in academic settings.

Numerous studies have pinpointed negative correlations between IELTS language scores and academic performance but with varying degrees. As a case in point, Cotton and Conrow (1998 investigated the relationship between IELTS and academic outcomes of international students in Australia and found no positive correlations. They rendered student language obstacles to many variables namely tuition, motivation, cultural adaptation and welfare snags. In the same manner, Dooey and Oliver (2002) explored the accuracy of IELTS as a predictor of success

and concluded that "The findings show little evidence for the validity of IELTS as a predictor of academic success." (p. 36). Yet, they indicated that there are other nonlinguistic factors that exert a great impact on learning. More specifically, Ingram and Bayliss (2007) concluded that students can generally produce the language implied by an IELTS test but not the course tasks beyond language proficiency.

Similarly, Yen and Kuzma (2009) reported that although using the IELTS band 6.0 as an admission criterion, lecturers at Worcester Business School showed that Chinese students' language proficiency represented a great impediment to learning. Correspondingly, Craven (2012) launched a caution against the assumption that students who attain a score of 6.5 in an IELTS Test when accessing university are in the offing to reach a score of 7.0 after some years of study in English. In a compatible manner, Mozaffarzadeh, Pourgasem and Gerami (2019) concluded that native and foreign students' academic performance was not as successful as it was predicted by the IELTS and their communication problems overflowed.

It is worth mentioning that many studies disclosed controversial results. O'Loughlin and Arkoudis (2009) point out the impossibility of achieving firm conclusions at all about the potential of IELTS as an exit test for students. Gagen (2019) conducted a meta-analysis on IELTS scores and academic success and found contradictory domino effects due to some variables such as bias, sub- scores, level, field, country, courses and GPA. In a recent meta-analysis of 32 published IELTS predictive validity studies, Pearson (2020) revealed that the findings remain inconclusive because of variations in research methodology.

Due to the inconsistency of the studies that investigated the correlations between general IELTS results and academic success, some researchers embarked on investigating any parallels between particular sub-scores of various language skills and their corresponding course results. After surveying the research literature about this issue, we noticed that the majority of the studies focused on writing and their findings also were full of controversy. At the outset, Hansen et al. (2004) stressed the earnestness of providing students with additional writing instruction in college because of their low writing competence. They therefore emphasize the importance of not excluding students from English language course despite their advanced level. They recommended that the policies allowing exemption based on advanced placement scores should be discarded in favor of a valid placement test and suggested raising the bar before allowing students to join the English Department.

Numerous researchers investigated IELTS writing sub-scores. For instance, O'Loughlin and Arkoudis (2009) examined IELTS exit score gains in higher education and found that "Students showed the least improvement in Writing" (p. 42). Similarly, Ellis, Chonga, and Choy (2013) found that students got the lowest score on writing and highly recommended to help them enhance their level in this essential skill. Within the same perspective, Craven (2012) examined non-native English speakers in an Australia university with a general score of 6.5 in the IELTS Test and 6.0 in writing. The findings showed that students improved very well in listening and reading but proved insignificant progress in writing and speaking. Nevertheless, the IELTS speaking preparation courses are found to yield positive effects on classroom participation. (Razavipour, Hoseini and Validi 2020). In a recent study that sought to find out IELTS candidates' weaknesses, Alavi, Nemati and Dorri (2020) also corroborated previous research studies stressing that students need more support and training in writing. In sum, students seem to experience difficulties in writing.

A great number of studies call for a washback of IELTS on learning and teaching operations. In particular, some academics question the test construct validity. For instance, Suryaningsih (2014) found that the participants make different perceptions on three aspects of IELTS and TOEFL tests: on the tests, in the tests, and effects of the tests. In particular, Moorea and Mortonb (2005) uncovered that the type of writing the test elicits were affected by some public nonacademic genres inappropriate for university writing. In the same line, Uysal (2010) provides a critical review of the IELTS writing sub-test and its assessment procedures and reveals some flaws on its reliability and validity issues. In another dimension, Pearson (2019) revealed that many candidates expressed desperate incredulity about the accuracy of speaking and writing assessment due to single examiner marking and lack of feedback. Specifically, Quaid (2018) examines the IELTS's speaking component in the East Asia region from theoretical and practical standpoints and insists on improving the test qualities. Overall, the IELTS seem to produce positive washback on learners' language ability and test preparation strategies especially vis-à-vis productive skills (Allen (2016).

Along the lines of the previous studies, many researchers cast light on various interconnected manifestations of the test. After surveying some critical works on IELTS, Hashemi and Daneshfar (2018) acknowledge its importance and popularity but underline the urgent need of the IELTS washback to improve its authenticity, usefulness, validity and reliability. In the same token, Müllera and Dallerb (2019) urge researchers to rethink the way English tests

such as IELTS are applied to entry in university degrees involving a clinical component to support nursing students. In a broader dimension, the project advanced by Hyatt (2013) examines stakeholders' perceptions about the role of IELTS in the UK admission procedures and reveals tensions between standard-setting and economic imperative for recruiting students. He urges stakeholders to take appropriate decisions on the content and process of IELTS.

In the last two decades, numerous research studies report that there are many interfering factors that exert various impacts on IELTS applicants. Rea-Dickins, Kiely, and Yu (2007) found that students' performance on IELTS vary in terms of many factors such as language skills, affect, perception, staff admission, and test influence on student performance. Another impeding factor documented by Mickan and Motteram (2009) lies in the lack of appropriate preparation for testing especially for full-time working students and its subsequent consequences on their future career. On their part, Dooey and Oliver (2002) came to the conclusion that their study corroborates previous research works which intensely advocate the role of language proficiency, but does not neglect other contributing factors such as motivation, financial support and adequate study skills. In this context, Lewthwaite (2007) evidenced a strong connection between the IELTS writing tasks requirements and students' and teachers' perceptions and expectations. So, in addition to the role of language aptitude, cognitive and affective factors also have an impact on academic success.

As a conclusion, research to date uncovers controversial findings in their endeavor to set up a correlation between IELTS results and academic performance in various national and international universities for native and foreign students alike. While some research works investigate students' general results of IELTS compared with their global point average in academic performance, others focus on its separate sub-scores either listening, speaking, reading or writing. The general picture that emerges is that neither the generic grades nor the sub-scores seem to warrant consistent correlations and prove the validity of IELTS as a predictor of successful academic performance.

3. Research Questions

This study seeks to compare the GPA of students who were exempted from studying the General English course at the PYP because they got an IELTS test certificate and the GPA of students who normally followed and passed the General English course at IAU, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The research also tries to find out any significant differences due to the level of

these direct entry students who were exempted from studying English and were admitted straight into the baccalaureate program.

The research questions are put forth as follows:

3.1.   Are there statistically significant differences at (0.05) between the average rates of students who were exempted from the General English course because they passed the IELTS test and the average rates of students who followed the General English course?

3.2.   Are there statistically significant differences at (0.05) in the average rates of the exempted students due to their beginner, intermediate, and advanced level?

4.   Research Method

4.1.   Participants and Data Collection

At the outset, the authors of this article obtained an approval from the university where the study was carried out. The population of this study comprises 2,410 students enrolled at IAU in the Preparatory Year Program (PYP) during 2016-2019. The sample consists of 294 students who pursued their studies in various colleges during 2016-2019 at IAU. In addition to the ethical clearance, students' identities are kept anonymous and confidential.

4.2.   Research Methodology

The students were divided into 4 groups:

- Students who were exempted from compulsory courses after passing the IELTS test.
- Students who took the placement test and obtained a beginner level.
- Students who took the placement test and obtained an intermediate level
- Students who took the placement test and obtained an advanced level.

The results were based on the average rates of students who regularly studied at the university and completed the requirements for success.

4.3 Data Analysis

4.3.1 Presenting the results of the first question: Are there statistically significant differences at (0.05) between the average rates of students who attended study at the university and were exempted from the General English course because they passed the IELTS test and the average rates of students who attended study at the university and were subject to the General English

course according to levels (beginner, intermediate Advanced) each level separately? T-test was performed for the independent groups, and the results rum as follows:

4.3.1.1 A comparison of the average rates of students who were exempt from the courses and the average rates of students who were subject to the beginner level decisions.

Table 1: Mean, SD, and T-test to differences between students' scores (Exempt- Nonexempt and Beginner)

level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T-test	P-value
Exempt	118	4.3586	0.66174	0.06092		
Nonexempt and Beginner	24	4.4279	0.32443	0.06622	-0.500	**0.618**

Result 1

Table 1 represents the average rates of students who were exempt from compulsory courses (4.3586) and students who were subject to the courses at the beginner level (4.4279). The result of the test showed that there were no differences in terms of P-value (0.618).

4.3.1.2 Comparing the average rates of students who were exempt from the courses and the average rates of students who were subject to the intermediate level courses.

Table 2: Mean, SD, and T-test to differences between students' scores (Exempt- Nonexempt and Intermediate)

level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T-test	P-value
Exempt	118	4.3586	0.66174	0.06092		
Nonexempt and Intermediate	97	4.4492	0.31169	0.03165	-1.239	**0.217**

Result 2

Table 2 shows the average rates of students who were exempt from compulsory courses (4.3586) and students who were subject to courses at the intermediate level (4.4492). The result of the test indicated no differences in terms of P-value (0.217).

4.3.1.3 A comparison of the average rates of students who were exempt from the compulsory courses and the average rates of students who were subject to advanced level courses.

Table 3: Mean, SD, and T-test to differences between students' scores (Exempt- Nonexempt and advanced)

level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	T-test	P-value
Exempt	118	4.3586	0.66174	0.06092		
Nonexempt and advanced	33	4.6094	0.24183	0.04210	-2.133	**0.035***

Result 3

Table 3 shows the averages of the rates of students who were exempt from compulsory courses (4.3586) and students who undertook courses at the advanced level (4.6094). The result of the test showed differences in favor of students who undertook courses at the advanced level with a P-value (0.035).

Summary of the results of the first question

1. There are no statistically significant differences at the level of significance (0.05) between the average rates of students who were exempted from compulsory courses and the average rates of students who studied in the General English course at the beginner level.

2. There are no statistically significant differences at the level of significance (0.05) between the average rates of students who were exempted from compulsory courses and the average rates of students who studied in the General English course at the intermediate level.

3. The average rates of students who were subject to compulsory courses at the advanced level are higher than the average rates of students who are exempted from entering courses.

4.3.2 Presentation of the results of the second question: Are there statistically significant differences at (0.05) in the average student rates due to the student level (beginner, intermediate, advanced)?

To answer this question, an ANOVA test was conducted to compare the three groups (beginner, intermediate, advanced). Table 4 shows the existence of differences in the average student rates in terms of (0.022) as follows:

Table 4: ANOVA for the level variable (Beginner, Intermediate, Advanced)

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0.710	2	0.355		
Within Groups	13.619	151	0.090	3.935	**0.022***
Total	14.328	153			

Table 4 shows that there are differences due to student levels. In order to explore the source of these differences, we conducted the LCD test as appears below in table 5:

Table 5: LSD Comparisons

(I) level	(J) level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Beginner	Intermediate	-0.021	0.068	0.757	-0.1565	0.1140
	Advanced	**-0.181***	0.080	0.026	-0.3407	-0.0223
Intermediate	Beginner	0.021	0.068	0.757	-0.1140	0.1565
	Advanced	**-0.160***	0.060	0.009	-0.2798	-0.0406

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

Summary of the results of the second question

1. There are no differences in the averages of beginner and intermediate levels.

2. There are differences in the averages of the beginner level (4.4279) and the advanced level (4.6094) in favor of the advanced level.

3. There are differences in the averages of the intermediate level (4.4492) and the advanced level (4.6094) in favor of the advanced level.

5. Discussion

The first research question enquired whether there are statistically significant differences between the average rates of students who were exempted from the preparatory year English course because they passed the IELTS test and those who took this course according to their levels (beginner, intermediate, advanced). The results of this study indicate that there are no statistically significant differences between the average rates of students who were exempted from compulsory courses and the average rates of students who studied in the preparatory year courses at the beginner level. The findings also show that there are no

statistically significant differences between the average rates of students who were exempted from compulsory courses and the average rates of students who studied in the General English course at the intermediate level. However, the results of this study indicate that the average rates of students who were subject to compulsory courses at the advanced level are higher than the average rates of students who are exempted from entering courses. According to these results, the net recommendation for stakeholders is to make the studies at the General English course compulsory for all the students including IELTS holders. The present results confirm the assumption of an array of studies that the   predictive validity of the IELTS tests has not been borne out (Atac, Özgan, Ericon & Bulut, 2018; Gagen, 2019; Mozaffarzadeh, Pourgasem & Gerami, 2019; Müller & Daller, 2019; Pearson (2020).

The current results indicate the need for students to take the compulsory English courses because of their importance in improving their language command and academic performance. This position is confirmed by Atac et al. (2018) who found that the level of academic performance of students who take the compulsory English language course is higher than their counterpart regardless of their proficiency in the language. On their part, Hansen et al. (2004) pointed out students' low proficiency in college and underlined the importance of providing them with supplementary writing instruction. In particular, they warn against exempting students from English courses because it affects not only their linguistic proficiency but also their academic performance as well during their study at the university. The findings of this research underline the need for a suitable proficiency level and corroborate those of others studies as emphasized by many researchers (Ghenghesh, 2015; Kaliyadan et al., 2015; Mallillin & Castillo, 2016; Mozaffarzadeh, Pourgasem & Gerami, 2019; Müller & Daller, 2019; McLean, Murdoch-Eaton, & Shaban, 2012; Ozowuba, 2018; Rogier, 2012).

The second research question asked if there are statistically significant differences in the average student rates due to the students' level (beginner, intermediate, advanced). As shown above, there were differences in the averages of the beginner level and the advanced level in favor of the advanced level. Besides, there were differences in the averages of the intermediate and advanced levels in favor of the advanced level too. So, the higher the English proficiency of students the better their academic performance will be.

These results confirm the prerequisite of an advanced English language level that qualifies students to follow their university studies. A high level of English proficiency will improve not only their learning of other English subjects but also their academic performance

as well. When students are endowed with an advanced language level, they will assimilate all the elements of the courses in question and heighten their individual learning autonomy (Dafei, 2007; Ghenghesh, 2015). As demonstrated in this research, beginner and intermediate students, contrary to advanced students, really struggle in coping with the intricacies of the language issue. That is the reason why many researchers require higher IELTS scores to warrant academic success (Schoepp & Garinger, 2016; Shakibaei and Memari, 2019; Yen & Kuzma, 2009).

The findings of this research also map with Mallillin et al. (2016) who proved a strong relationship between students' weakness in dealing with the English language and other academic courses. Indeed, they found that the weaknesses of students in the English language during their studies at university result in serious problems. Several students face a significant decrease in their performance. Some students are reported to abandon their studies, and some of them are said to suffer from despair and even depression. The level of students before entering university should be advanced in the English language to allow them raise their comprehension of the courses that are dispensed in English and fulfil their aspirations of achieving success in their educational career (Yen & Kuzma, 2009). Last but not least, it should not be overlooked that some students' efforts may be doomed to failure due to some affective and social factors that seriously prevent them from pursuing their studies (Dooey & Oliver, 2002; Lewthwaite, 2007; Mickan & Motteram, 2009; Rea-Dickins, Kiely, & Yu, 2007).

Conclusion

As a conclusion, the present study reveals a positive relationship between students' level in the English language and their academic performance. The study also demonstrates the high contribution of the preparatory year in raising students' level and allowing them to outperform IELTS holders. These findings indicated that the placement test conducted by the preparatory year reveals high validity in predicting that advanced students' level allowed them to achieve an appropriate threshold to ensure academic success. In addition, the university diagnostic test pinpoints the required level that permits students to surmount their linguistic hurdles and follow their studies successfully. Nevertheless, the weak performance of some students should not always be rendered to academic causes. Indeed, there are some affective and social factors that interfere in the learning process and affect students' success in a deleterious manner.

According to the collected quantitative data, the findings of this research confirm the validity of IELTS in predicting high academic performance of the students at Imam Abdulrahman University, Dammam, Saudi Arabia. Notwithstanding, the results indicate that the average rates of students who were subject to compulsory courses at the advanced level are higher than the average rates of students who are exempted from entering courses. Therefore, it is for the benefit of the IELTS holders to attend the courses of English that are provided by their institution. This research work allows us to draw some didactic implications that should be taken into consideration by all stakeholders. First and foremost, the study recommends that students should attend English courses in the preparatory year for improving their level in the English language proficiency. Equally important, the study endorses the idea that students should undergo compulsory English courses in the preparatory year for improving their academic level. Finally, and most importantly, the study recommends implementing different English language courses in the program of the academic years after the preparatory year in various departments such as Business Administration, Designs, Computer Science, Architecture and Planning, Engineering, Humanities, Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, Applied Medical Sciences, and Public Health. In sum, the findings of this research should, in no way, be alienated from any further pedagogical applications.

Limitations and future research

This study discloses some limitations. First, it was limited to the preparatory year students at IAU, and it is recommended to conduct other studies on different samples at other universities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia or other countries worldwide. Besides, other studies should be carried out to examine the aspects of language that the IELTS Test has enhanced. In other words, we should not look at the impact of the test only in a monolithic way in terms of students' GPA achievement; rather, we should go deep in the analysis to examine meticulously students' performance in the separate language skills in English 102 devoted to ESP and EAP in the second semester. In addition, further studies should also concentrate on those students who scored 6 and above in the ILETS, but they voluntarily studied English in the preparatory year to enhance their language proficiency. Likewise, we also need a special analysis of the effect of IELTS tests on their discrete skills relative to listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar as well as cognition and metacognition. Eventually, as IELTS tests weaken over time, other studies should also take into account the age of the Test Report Form

as the older the date of the test is the less probable its taker will manifest adequate language proficiency.

References

Alavi, S.M., Nemati, M., and Dorri K.J. (2020). Error gravity analysis of IELTS students' academic writing task 2. *International Journal of Language Studies. 14*(1), 141-154.

Allen, D. (2016). Investigating washback to the learner from the IELTS test in the Japanese tertiary context. *Language Testing in Asia*, *6*:7. doi 10.1186/s40468-016-0030-z

Atac, A. B., Özgan, S.H, Ericon, B., Bulut, M. (2018). The identification of difference between achievement levels of optional and compulsory English preparatory class students. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *14*(3), 269-280.

Cotton, F. and Conrow, F. (1998). An investigation of the predictive validity of IELTS amongst a group of international students studying at the University of Tasmania [online]. In: Wood, Sandra (Editor). *International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Research Reports* 1998: 1: 72-115. Canberra: IELTS Australia.

Craven, E. (2012). The quest for IELTS Band 7.0: Investigating English language proficiency development of international students at an Australian university [online]. In: Osborne, Jenny (Editor). *IELTS Research Reports,* 13*,* 1-61. Melbourne: IDP: IELTS Australia and British Council.

Dafei, D. (2007). An exploration of the relationship between learner autonomy and English proficiency. *Asian EFL Journal*, *24*(4), 24-34.

Dooey, P. and Oliver, R. (2002). An investigation into the predictive validity of the IELTS Test as an indicator of future academic success. *Prospect, 17*(1), 36-54.

Ellis, M, Chonga, S. and Choy, Z. (2013). IELTS as an indicator of written proficiency levels: A study of student teachers at the National Institute of Education, Singapore. *International Journal of Educational Research,* Volume 60, 11-18. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2013.03.003

Estaji, M. and Ghiasvand, F. (2019). The washback effect of IELTS examination on EFL teachers' perceived sense of professional identity: Does IELTS related experience make a difference? *Journal of Modern Research in English language Studies, 6*(3), 83-103.

Feast, V. (2002). The impact of IELTS scores on performance at university. *International Education Journal, 3*(4), 70-85. http://www.flinders.edu.au/education/iej 70.

Gagen, Tomlin. (2019). *The predictive validity of IELTS scores: A meta-analysis*. Electronic Thesis and Dissertation Repository. 6406. https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/6406

Ghenghesh, P. (2015). The relationship between English language proficiency and academic performance of university students: Should academic institutions really be concerned? *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, *4*(2), 91-97. http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.4n.2p.91.

Hall, G. (2017). *Exploring English language teaching: Language in action*. Routledge.

Hansen, K., Reeve, S., Sudweeks, R., Hatch, G. L., Gonzalez, J., Esplin, P., & Bradshaw, W. S. (2004). *An argument for changing institutional policy on granting AP credit in English: An empirical study of college sophomores' writing. WPA: Writing Program Administration*, *28*(1/2), 29-54.

Hashemi, A. and Daneshfar, S. (2018). A review of the IELTS test: Focus on validity, reliability, and washback. *IJELTAL (Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics), 3*(1), 39-52.

Hellekjær, G. O. (2009). Academic English reading proficiency at the university level: A Norwegian case study. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *21*(2), 198-222.

Hyatt, D. (2013). Stakeholders' perceptions of IELTS as an entry requirement for higher education in the UK. *Journal of Further and Higher Education,* 37(6), 844-863. https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2012.684043

Hyland, K. (2017). English in the discipline: Language provision in Hong Kong's new university curriculum. In *English Education at the Tertiary Level in Asia* (pp. 27-45). Routledge.

Kaliyadan, F., Thalamkandathil, N., Parupalli, R., Tarek, A., & Balaha, M. (2015). English language proficiency and academic performance: A study of a medical preparatory year program in Saudi Arabia. *Avicenna J Med*. 5. 10.4103/2231-0770.165126.

Kazakoff, E. R., Macaruso, P., & Hook, P. (2018). Efficacy of a blended learning approach to elementary school reading instruction for students who are English Learners. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *66*(2), 429-449.

Ingram, D. and Bayliss, A. (2007). IELTS as a predictor of academic language performance. *International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Research Reports, 7*, 1-68. [Canberra]: IELTS Australia and British Council.

Lewthwaite, M. (2007). Teacher and student attitudes to IELTS writing tasks: positive or negative washback? *UGRU Journal*, *5*, 1-16.

MacDonald, J. J. (2019). Sitting at 6.5: Problematizing IELTS and admissions to Canadian Universities. *TESL Canada Journal*, *36*(1), 160-171.

Mallillin, L.D. and Castillo, R. (2016). Level of language proficiency of Gulf college students. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science,* doi:10.9790/0837-2109044552

McLean, M., Murdoch-Eaton, D., & Shaban, S. (2012). Poor English language proficiency hinders generic skills development: a qualitative study of the perspectives of first-year medical students, *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, doi:10.1080/0309877X.2011.645461

Mickan, P. and Motteram, J. (2009). The preparation practices of IELTS candidates: Case studies [online]. In: Osborne, Jenny (Editor). *International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Research Reports*: Volume 10. [Canberra]: IELTS Australia and British Council, 1-39

Moorea, T. and Mortonb, J. (2005). Dimensions of difference: a comparison of university writing and IELTS writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 4*(1), 43-66. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.02.001

Mozaffarzadeh. S., Pourgasem, A. and Gerami, E. (2019). The predictive validity of IELTS and Iranian Testees' performance in real context. *IELTS FOR TEACHERS.*

Müllera, A., & Dallerb, M. (2019). Predicting international students' clinical and academic grades using two language tests (IELTS and C-test): A correlational research study. *Nurse Education Today*, *72*, 6-11.

O'Loughlin, K.J. (2000). The impact of gender in the IELTS oral interview [online]. In: Tulloh, Robyn (Editor). *International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Research Reports, 3*, 1-28.

O'Loughlin, K.J. and Arkoudis. S. (2009). Investigating IELTS exit score gains in higher education. *IELTS Research Reports*, *10*, 1-86.

Ozowuba, G. U. (2018). *Relationship between English proficiency and academic achievement of Nigerian Secondary School Students*. Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies. https://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations/5243

Pearson, W. S. (2019). 'Remark or retake'? A study of candidate performance in IELTS and perceptions towards test failure. *Language Testing in Asia 9*(17), 1-20. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-019-0093-8.

Pearson, W. (2020). The predictive validity of the academic IELTS test: A methodological synthesis. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics,* doi: https://doi.org/10.1075/itl.19021.pea

Quaid, E. D. (2018). Reviewing the IELTS speaking test in East Asia: theoretical and practice-based insights. *Language Testing in Asia*, 8:2. Doi: 10.1186/s40468-018-0056-5.

Razavipour, K., Hoseini, F. and Validi, M. (2020). Washback to classroom climate: The case of an IELTS speaking preparation course. *Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics, 11*(1), 21-43.

Rea-Dickins, P., Kiely, R. and Yu, G. (2007). Student identity, learning and progression: The affective and academic impact of IELTS on 'successful' candidates [online]. *International English Language Testing System (IELTS)* Research Reports: 7: 1-78. [Canberra]: IELTS Australia and British Council.

Rogier, D. (2012). *The effects of English-medium instruction on language proficiency of students enrolled in higher education in the UAE*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Exeter, Exeter.

Schoepp, K. (2018). Predictive validity of the IELTS in an English as a medium of instruction environment. *Higher Education Quarterly*, *72*(4), 271-285. https://doi.org/10.1111/hequ.

Schoepp, K. and Garinger, D. (2016). IELTS and academic success in higher education: A UAE perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature, 5* (3): 145-151. doi: 10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.5n.3p.145.

Shakibaei, G. and Memari, M. (2019). On the predictive validity (Generalizability) of IELTS academic tests. *Teaching English Language, 13*(2), 299-317.

Sonnenschein, S., Metzger, S. R., Dowling, R., & Baker, L. (2017). The relative importance of English versus Spanish language skills for low-income Latino English language learners' early language and literacy development. *Early Child Development and Care*, *187* (3-4), 727-743.

Suryaningsih, H. (2014). *Students' Perceptions of International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) Tests*. Theses and Dissertations (All). 1235. http://knowledge.library.iup.edu/etd/1235.

Vargas, E. (2017). *Closing the achievement gap: An investigative study of factors leading to increased academic achievement for Latino English language learners in urban California High School.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Southern California.

Villegas, A. M., SaizdeLaMora, K., Martin, A. D., & Mills, T. (2018). Preparing future mainstream teachers to teach English language learners: A review of the empirical literature. *The Educational Forum, 82*(2), 138-155. Routledge.

Uysal, H. H. (2010). A critical review of the IELTS writing test. *ELT Journal*, *64*(3), 314-320.Routledge.

Yen, D., & Kuzma, J. (2009). Higher IELTS score, higher academic performance? The validity of IELTS in predicting the academic performance of Chinese students. *Worcester Journal of Learning and Teaching*, (3). ISSN 2024-8032.

Enhancing Writing Skills through Online Publishing Sofia Ligawen Bahrain Training Institute Rhoda Videz, Bahrain Training Institute

Sofia Ligawen

Bahrain Training Institute

Rhoda Batul Videz

Bahrain Training Institute

Bio-profiles:

Sofia Ligawen is the acting Head of Languages and Communication at the Bahrain Training Institute. She also leads BTI's training committee and takes on active roles in other institutional programs like research and strategic planning.

Rhoda Batul Videz is an English trainer at Bahrain Training Institute. She handles mostly corporate classes, consisting of company-sponsored leaners, and is also a member of Training Committee which facilitates professional development for staff.

Abstract

Writing plays a key role in academic success and in individual's professional and social development (Fidalgo, Harris, Braaksma, 2018). Writing matters; hence, the roles of the teachers and the educational institution in teaching writing and supporting literacy are important. With connectivity and access to various range of content, learners still need the guide of the teachers in dealing with digital writing (De Voss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks, 2010). Further, the changing communication media also has an implication in learning and teaching (Hamer, 2012). In the foundation course in English offered to working professionals, language teachers are often challenged to teach the writing skill to learners due to learners' lack of motivation to write, difficulty in vocabulary use, spelling and grammar mistakes and sometimes the intentional or unintentional plagiarism found in their writing piece. In an attempt to address the learners' difficulties, the teachers investigated on how the use of diverse digital tools and project-based learning enhance the writing skills of the learners. Result shows how learners become independent with the support of translation, vocabulary, citation tools, and artificial intelligence powered writing assistant as well as collaborative with the publication of

their writing output online through their project, a website developed by the group. The integration of project-based learning (PBL) consequently resulted in a learner-centered environment. Tavares and Potter (2018) explained that in PBL, the teachers need to develop the learners' social skills to collaborate, set deadlines, and give feedback on learners' tasks for them to be on track on their progress. On the other hand, learners have to be agents of the learning process. Evaluation of the project-based learning approach in class resulted in learners' satisfaction and enhancement of writing skills through the digital tools.

Introduction

The intricacies of writing pose a challenge to many L2 learners who do not have the mastery of the language. Beyond content and style, learners also deal with various linguistic elements including lexemes, syntax, and semantics; hence, they struggle to produce a meaningful writing craft. Nevertheless, the importance of the written language cannot be neglected. Fidalgo, Harris, and Braaksma, (2018) consider writing as essential for academic success including one's professional and social development. Writing upholds literacy, in this sense, the teacher and the institution's role is important for learners to be guided and have access on various contents (De Voss, Eidman-Aadahl, & Hicks, 2010). However, the changing communication media impacted learning and teaching (Harmer, 2012). Digital learning platforms also grow with the introduction of blended learning and flipped classroom, giving the learners an access to various online resources (Rosell, 2020). At present, the conventional classroom transition to e-learning with a range of digital tools to offer providing more opportunities for learners to practice their writing skills. Teachers, on the other hand, have to embrace these new digital tools and revolutionize the way they engage the learners with the writing process. As explained by Andrews and Smith (2011), if the teaching of writing is aligned with the real world practices, learners will find the mode of writing more relevant to their communication needs.

Writing skill is pivotal for learners to survive the learning environment at post-secondary level. At Bahrain Training Institute, teachers are confronted with the adversity of teaching writing among adult learners who can understand the English language and can communicate verbally; however, are not as well-versed in the written form. In an attempt to address the learners' difficulties, the teachers adopted the use of diverse digital tools to enhance the writing skills of the learners through the customized bridging course. Thus, this paper sought to answer the following questions: What are the writing difficulties of learners? How are the writing

difficulties addressed using various digital tools and project-based learning through online publishing? The findings of this study will provide a better understanding of how technological tools can enhance the writing skills of the learners. Further, the study can be a reference for language teachers, curriculum designers, and administrators to reinvent the teaching of digital writing, approach instructional design with the infusion of digital technology, explore digital writing apps, and upskill and reskill teachers with the changing technologies.

Literature Review

The use of digital tools is one of the most of studied topics. Even before the coronavirus pandemic compelled teachers to explore and use digital teaching-learning tools, the benefits of using technology in language teaching has been proven in several studies. Tusino, et. al (2021) says that writing is significant in language learning but calls it a "complex matter" when it comes to teaching student writers. While their study revealed that there is no significant difference in the writing performance of those who learned in face-to-face teaching and those who learned thorough online, using Google Classrooms in task-based learning can enhance EFL learners' writing. The study further proposes that online Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) can be an alternative to teaching writing because it promotes better writing and draft revisions on the part of the learners. Vicentini and de Oliveira (2018) also the mention importance of technology in communication and collaborative work, and that the use of multimodal tools can improve teaching, as well as the production of students' artifacts. The use of e-portfolios was also mentioned in the said study, which similarly played in this research where a project-based approach in teaching emphasizes the importance of improving writing before online publication of learners' outputs.

The attitude of learners is also key to gaining the benefits of using digital tools. The last time the learners in this study were in the classroom was at least ten years before they returned to pursue further studies. Although there was hesitation at the start to use the computers and online learning tools, with intervention and assistance, the learners eventually became accustomed to them. Similarly, Cunningham, Le, and Rashid (2019) when interviewing the subjects of their study, the learners expressed how they liked and were interested in using Translate and Grammar Check features of MS Word. One of the students mentioned in particular that the tools assisted in checking the literal meanings before penning the writing.

Research Design

This study used mixed method design where data were collected from an online survey, interview, and documents of 33 learners who were enrolled in the bridging course in English. The goal is to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the learners' difficulties in writing?
2. How does the use of digital tools and project-based learning enhance the writing skills of the learners?

Data from the survey were treated using frequency count while documents, which were randomly selected were analyzed based on specific variables related to writing difficulties.

Results

Writing Difficulties of Learners

It is apparent that all four macro skills of communication are intertwined; thus, cannot be treated separately. According to Sharma (2018), these macro skills are utilized in all languages and the best way to learn is to engage a balance of each skill; however, the more one practices each skill, the more that he or she improves and becomes proficient in it. The learners involved in this study were asked to reflect and rank their language difficulties, and results show that they considered reading as the most difficult, followed by speaking, writing, listening, grammar, vocabulary, while spelling as the least difficult. Breiseth (2020) agreed that reading is the most difficult skill to master specifically among L2 learners.

But one who reads well is expected to write well. As stated by Burgess (2020), reading and writing depend on the same skills that practice in one should support the development of the other. The connection between reading and writing is proven in the case study of Li (2015) where the participants have integrated reading and writing through their reflective journal and analysis shows the observed advantage of writing journals after reading.

The learners' claim of having a difficulty in reading is reflected in the way they write. Document analysis revealed that learners commit mistakes along the areas of grammar, mechanics, vocabulary, content and organization. The table below shows the frequency of mistakes found in the writing tasks of the learners from pre-test, use of digital tools in writing, to the publication of writing tasks.

Domains of Writing	Pre-test	Implementation of Digital Tools	Online Publication
	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
Grammar			
Run on sentences	0	4	14
Fragments	76	53	10
Incorrect verb form	31	19	19
Missing article	17	5	7
Missing pronoun	7	4	8
Incorrect plural form/possessives	17	16	12
Incorrect or missing preposition	7	4	10
Mechanics			
Capitalization mistake	53	20	10
Spelling mistake	30	11	2
Punctuation mistake	15	3	2
Vocabulary use			
Incorrect word choice	6	9	14
Content and Organization			
Incomprehensible content	8	0	0

It can be gleaned from the table that as the learners progress in their course, less mistakes are committed except on run-on sentences, incorrect or missing preposition, and incorrect word choice. Other aspects of their writing improved as they continue to learn with the assistance of digital tools.

Several studies have shown the common errors found in the students' writing such as morphology and syntax, usage errors, mechanical mistakes, spelling, capitalization, punctuation, cognitive, and graphomotor (Alfaki, 2015) comprehension and conception of ideas; language accuracy and appropriacy, composition, and vocabulary (Hashim, 2013) linguistic/cognitive deficiencies and sociocultural aspects (Lin, 2015) insufficient linguistic proficiency, writing anxiety, lack of ideas, reliance on L1 and weak structure organization (Fareed & Ashraf, 2016).

Difficulties in the written language can be associated with many factors. Learning the basics of word choice, spelling, sentence structure, and punctuation does take time. The more time is spent, the more the writing is improved (Glazier, 2003). Moreover, issues on genre, writing process, and even the writing habit are to be considered; hence, it is when learners have acquired the writing habit when they are able to deal with genres and the writing process (Harmer, 2014). Difficulties in learning the written language can also be associated with other broader issues with including oral language, language diversity, motor skill, knowledge of transcription, and idea generation (Coker Jr. & Ritchey, 2015).

On seeing the varied writing difficulties of the learners in grammar, mechanics, vocabulary and content and organization, it was critical that learning tools be used to address these prior to online publication of their output. Grammar mistakes like fragments and wrong verb forms were the most common but these, along with other writing difficulties, were addressed with the aid of digital tools. Although the mistakes were not completely removed, they were markedly reduced.

Use of Digital Tools to Enhance Writing Skills

The vast array of technological tools available online changed the way learners consume and share information. Learners involved in the study were generally ready in using digital tools as shown in the result of the survey where 87% affirmed they have exposure to various technological tools while 13% articulated none at all.

With the writing difficulties of the learners manifested in the common errors committed, digital tools were integrated in the classroom activities. One Note served as the space for writing tasks and was also used for translation along with Google Translate; Word Hippo became their vocabulary resources; Reverso and Grammarly assisted the learners in the grammatical structure of their sentences and in editing their writing pieces; the citation generators Cite This For Me and My Bib were utilized in their citation; and Plagiarism Checker and Grammarly were used for plagiarism check. All tools utilized were accessible online. Moran (2013) claims that through digital software, students can have a clear view of a text structure, from outline to the text. In the survey conducted by Purcell, Buchanan, Freidrich (2013) among teachers, they found that digital technologies benefit student writing where these tools allow them to share

their work to a wider audience, collaborate, and unleash their creativity. Just as Dahlstrom (2018) learned that with digital access and practice opportunities, affordances of digital writing can increase student agency. With digital technology, learning experience is enriched, teaching is enhanced when used appropriately (Scottish Government, 2016). Thus, as technology continues to advance, writing practices and pedagogies must change too (Daniel, 2019).

The learners expressed in the survey that among the various technological tools utilized in class, translation tool is commonly used by 87%, grammar tool, website publishing, and citation tool by 77% respectively, You Tube, 73%, Moodle, 70%, Vocabulary tool, 60%, and online games 23%. Online translation tools convert text at sentence or document level from one language to another. For the learners in this study whose L1 is not English and who have difficulty in expressing their ideas in the target language sometimes depend on translation tools specifically when allowed. Learners find the translation machine as beneficial in comprehending texts and producing a writing output. It was also observed in their output that with translation tool, there are more ideas expressed and sentences written as compared to the completion of a writing task without translation tool. O'Neill (2015) did a comparative study on the effects of online translator usage on student writing. Results show that students who use an online translator did not perform significantly worse those not using the translator. Those who had a prior training in online translation even scored higher than the control group overall in the second writing task; they also scored higher in the areas of spelling, content, and grammar. Other studies revealed that that students have a positive attitude towards the use of online translation (Farzi, 2016). Google Translate is a useful tool for students provided that they have the capacity to critically evaluate and revise and improve their output (Kol, Schcolnik, and Spector-Cohen,2018). These online translation tools led to productivity and quality in translation and have solved the problem of language barrier yet there are also challenges that need to be addressed (Doherty, 2016).

Technology-mediated writing classes resulted in improvement in the composition process, writing skills, and application of new literacies among students (Williams & Beam, 2019). It is an alternative approach to English language writing instruction (Choo & Li, 2017). Through digital writing, space, platform, and opportunity for social, cultural, and communicative support are provided (Alrubail, 2017). Therefore, with the integration of technology in classes, teachers and students change the way they access, gather, and communicate information

(Waddell, 2015). In fact, technology transforms how learners learn and how they interpret learning (Saljo, 2010). But despite all these advantages that digital tools have to offer, learners surveyed revealed the challenges they encountered on the use of technology where 26% have a problem with time management and technical issues respectively, 20% on network overload and adaptability struggle, and 8% on distraction. It is important for both teachers and learners to be aware of these possible obstacles to learning to realize the outcome. But, Richmond and Troisi (2018) suggest to focus on the strengths of technology. Leadingham (2018) further stresses that with the right tools and right attitude, technology can engage students to a life-long learning.

Implementation of Project-based Learning through Online Publishing

An authentic project in a language class that will enable the learners to go beyond the classroom is through the publication of their work online. Project allows the learners to be actively engaged and at the same time enhance their sense of responsibility as an independent learner or collaborator of a project, skills in critical thinking and creativity, communication, and use of technology. Boss and Larmer (2018) point out that project-based learning is a proven framework to help students deal with challenges as it promotes self-management and self-directed learning and leads towards the mastery of the 21st century skill. Project-based improves the language skills, develops values (Castaneda, 2014) advances personal, social responsibility, communication, and independent study skills (Essien, 2018). Tavares and Potter (2018) emphasize that in PjBL, the teachers' responsibility is to develop the learners' social skills to collaborate, set deadlines, and give feedback on learners' tasks for them to be on track on their progress.

The learners involved in this study published their work online using wix.com. Based on assessment, their project depicts authenticity, critical thinking, creativity, collaboration, communication, independent learning, and reflection.

The online publication is a manifestation of authentic learning where the learners' experience involved solving a real-world problem. Concepts formulated from the given tasks are based on problems encountered at the learners' workplace or at home, or in the community. Problems identified in the learners' projects include the following samples:

'Pollution and improper disposal of waste in the ocean and its

effect to marine life, humans, and the nation's economy'

'Improvement of heat exchange system efficiency by cooling

the water while in transit at the pipes'

'Mobile charging system using solar energy'

'Affordable water filtering system in the fish tanks'

Creativity is demonstrated in the leaners' online portfolio considering that all of them have no prior background on either digitized content or website. The only applications they are familiar with are Microsoft Word, PowerPoint, Excel, and email. But as Hall (2013) explains industry employees, like the learners, need to adapt, experiment, apply creativity to publishing solutions, respond to trends and change. The learners were compelled to adapt the use of digital tools and navigate the website through practice and publication of work which is an indication of their independence, yet they also communicate and collaborate through the online survey administered to the target respondents. Excerpts from their surveys are shown below:

"What do you think are the types of accidents involving moving vehicles?"
"What are the common types of crane accidents"

The learners' website was redefined with the blend of images, text, and self-made videos. Creativity is a process where the same task is performed in different ways that suit the choice of the learners Bao (2018) and it is a way of translating ideas into text and visuals (Mesquita, 2011). Their concept and its details are presented using different paragraph structure as exemplified in the samples:

"I love sports in general but mostly I'm in love with football and yes I

have a favorite team, they are the Kings of Europe, Real Madrif CF"

"Out of 21 persons 66.7 correctly choose that falling materials and objects

are the most common types of crane accidents. 19 % chose that metal

crucible overfill is the most common type of crane accident. 14% chose

that wireless remote communication fault is the common type of crane

accident."

"Various kinds of pollution affect human health in the long term that can

influence the quality of life."

"The place is not suitable for waste disposal."

"Vehicles accident occurs when vehicles collide with another vehicle,

pedestrian, animal, road debris, or other stationary obstruction……."

"Beach pollution is the spread of harmful substance, such as oil,

plastic, industrial and agricultural waste and chemical particles

into the ocean (National Geographic, 2020)"

Overall, the learners' project has an impact on the critical thinking skills as exhibited in their project concept, and the written outputs reflecting interpretation, inference, and explanation. Vega (2012) claims that numerous studies have proven that project-based learning if well implemented resulted in increase in content retention and improved learners' attitude towards learning. On the other hand, Dimmitt (2017) affirms that project-based learning develops independence and critical thinking abilities needed by students to be academically successful. The interview result conducted after the project completion revealed positive responses on English language learning, use of digital tools and project-based learning. Responses include "Develop in language, useful in work and life," "skills development," "I want to speak good language, I learned grammar," "Talk with people very well," "Strengthening the English language, learned something new."

The learners' online publication embodies authentic learning. Authentic learning transpires when there is a connection between the learners and the real world, when it allows learners to make judgements and uses real language, not controlled (Benjamin, 2013); when the work has a direct impact on or use in the real world (Soper, 2017); and when the created output is for real-world purpose and audiences (Perkins, 2016).

Conclusions

Today's classroom is equipped with digital components which are accessible to learners. Hence, project-based learning through the use of digital tools generates new learning opportunities for the learners, enhances multiple skills, increases engagement, and promotes differentiation. Project-based allows English teaching and learning to move beyond the classroom. Larmer, et al. (2015) refers to project-based learning as a means to help students develop their understanding of content, learn, and practice the skills needed in their studies, career, and life.

References

Alfaki, I. M. (2015). University students' English writing problems: Diagnosis and
      remedy. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, *Volume 3*(No. 3), 40–
      52. http://www.eajournals.org/wp-content/uploads/University-Students----English-
      Writing-Problems-Diagnosis-and-Remedy.pdf.

Andrews, R. & Smith, A. (2011). *Developing writers: Teaching and learning in the digital age*.
      Open University Press.

Alrubail, R. (2017). *Digital writing for English language learners*. Rowman & Littlfield.

Bao, D. (Ed.). (2018). *Creativity and innovations in ELT materials development: Looking
      beyond the current design*.

Benjamin, A. (2013). *An English teachers' guide to performance, task, and rubric:
Highschool.
      Routledge. (Original work published 2000)

Breiseth, L. (2020). Reading comprehension strategies for English language learners. ASCD
      Express. http://www.ascd.org/ascd-express/vol5/511-breiseth.aspx.

Boss, S., & Larmer, J. (2018). *Project-based teaching*. ASCD.

Coker Jr, D., & Ritchey, K. (2015). *Teaching beginning writers* (S. Walpole & M. McKenna,
      Eds.). The Guilford Press.

Burgess, K. (2020). *The Reading and Writing Connection*. LD Online.
      http://www.ldonline.org/article/65647/.

Castaneda, R. (2014). English teaching through project-based learning method in rural
      area. *Cuadernos de Linguistica Hispanica*. https://doi.org/10.19053/0121053X.2344.

Choo, Y. B., & Li, K. L. (2017). *Digital writing in English language writing instruction*.
      https://www.researchgate.net/publication/328493053_Digital_Writing_in_English_La
      nguage_Writing_Instruction.

Cunningham, U., Rashid, S. & Le, T. (2019). The Effect of Learner Training on the Use of
      Digital Tools to Support English Writing Skills. Asian EFL Journal. 21. 27 - 49.
      https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332010521_The_Effect_of_Learner_Training
      on_the_Use_of_Digital_Tools_to_Support_English_Writing_Skills

Dahlstrom, H. (2018). Digital writing tools from the student perspective: Access, affordances,
      agency. *Education and Information Technologies*.
      https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-018-9844-x.

Daniel, M. (2019). *Digital reading and writing in composition studies* (M. Lamb & J. Parrott,

Eds.). Routledge.

De Voss,D., Eidman-Aadahl, E., & Hicks, T. (2010). *Because digital writing matters: Improving student writing in online and multimedia environment.* Jossey-Bass.

Dimmit, N. (2017, September 23). The power of project-based learning: Experiential education

to develop critical thinking skills of university students. *CBU International Conference Proceedings.* https://doi.org/10.12955/cbup.v5.988

Doherty, S. (2016). The impact of translation technologies on the process and product of translation. *International Journal of Communication*, 947–969. https://doi.org/1932–8036/20160005

Essien, A. (2018). The effects of project-based learning on students' English language ability. *ICBTS*. International Academic Research Conference, Vienna.

Fareed, M., & Ashraf, A. (2016). ESL learners' writing skills: Problems, factors and suggestions. *Journal of Education and Social Sciences*, 81–92. https://doi.org/10.20547/jess0421604201

Farzi, R. (2016). *Translation technology for L2 writing: Documenting the use of free online translation tools by ESL students in a writing course*. https://ruor.uottawa.ca

Ferster Glazier, T. (2003). *Writing Essentials*. Heinle, Cengage Learning.

Fidalgo, R., Harris, K., Braaksma, & M. (2018). *Design principles for teaching effective writing: Theoretical and empirical grounded principles*. Brill.

Hall, F. (2013). *The business of digital publishing; An introduction to the digital book and online industries*. Routledge.

Harmer, J. (2012). *How to teach writing*. Pearson Education Limited.

Harmer, J. (2014). *How to teach English?* (New Edition). Pearson Education Limited. (Original work published 2007)

Hashim, Y. (2013, November). Difficulties and ways to improve English writing skills among post-graduate ESL students. *Dated Digital Library*.

Kol, S., Schcolnik, M., & Spector-Cohen, E. (n.d.). *Google translate in academic writing courses*. *Volume 26*(No. 2). https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.4995/eurocall.2018.10140

Larmer, J., Mergendoller, J., & Boss, S. (2015). *Setting the standard for project-based learning: A proven approach to rigorous classroom instruction*. ASCD.

Leadingham, K. (2018, January 31). Breaking down digital classroom barriers: 5 challenges

every school faces when going digital, how to overcome them. *Ed Talk*.

    http://blog.edvergent.com/2018/01/31/breaking-down-digital-classroom-barriers-5-

    challenges-every-school-faces-when-going-digital-and-how-to-overcome-them/.

Li, Z. (2015). Connecting Reading and Writing: A Case Study. *English Language*

    Teaching, *Volume 3*(No. 6), 150–158.

    https://doi.org/https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1075456.pdf

Lin, S. M. (2015). A study of ELL students' writing difficulties: A call for culturally,

    linguistically, and psychologically responsive teaching. *Eric*, *49*(2), 237–250.

    https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1095693.

Mesquita, A. (2011). *Technology for creativity and innovation: Tools, techniques, and*

    applications. Information Science Reference.

Moran, K. (2013, December). Digital technology and writing instruction: Why bother? *The*

    Word.

O'neill, E. (2016a). Measuring the impact of online translation on FL writing scores. *IALLT*

    Journal of Language Learning Technologies, *Volume 46*(No. 2).

    https://doi.org/10.17161/iallt.v46i2.8560.

Rosell, C. (2020). *Introducing blended learning into a traditional classroom*.

    https://www.cae.net/how-to-introduce-blended-learning-to-a-traditional-classroom/

Perkins, D. (2016, January 19). *5 characteristics of project-based learning that works*.

    https://www.teachthought.com/project-based-learning/5-characteristics-of-project-

    based-learning-that-works/.

Purcell, K., Buchanan, J., & Freidrich, L. (2013). *The impact of digital tools on student*

    writing and how writing is taught in schools. National Writing Project.

    https://www.pewinternet.org/wp-

    content/uploads/sites/9/media/Files/Reports/2013/PIP_NWP-Writing-and-Tech.pdf

Richmond, A., & Troisi, J. (2018, December 12). Technology in the classroom: What the

    research tells us. *Inside Higher Ed*. https://www.insidehighered.com/digital-

    learning/views/2018/12/12/what-research-tells-us-about-using-technology-classroom-

    opinion.

Saljo, R. (2010). Digital tools and challenges to institutional traditions of learning:

    Technologies, social memory, and the performative nature of learning. *Journal of*

    Computer Assisted Learning, *Volume 26*. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-

    2729.2009.00341.x.

Scottish Government. (2016). *Enhancing learning and teaching through the use of digital technology: A digital learning and teaching strategy for Scotland*. 1–44. https://www.gov.scot/binaries/content/documents/govscot/publications/strategy-plan/2016/09/enhancing-learning-teaching-through-use-digital-technology/documents/00505855-pdf/00505855-pdf/govscot%3Adocument/00505855.pdf

Sharma, R. (2018). *Four macro skills of communication*. https://www.theclassroom.com/four-macro-skills-communication-8313176.html

Soper, S. (2017, October 13). *Making project-based learning authentic*. https://www.gettingsmart.com/2017/10/making-project-based-learning-authentic/

Tavares, J. & Potter, L. (2018). *Project-based learning applied to the language classroom*. Tech-in Education.

Tusino, A., et.al. (2021). *Online Task-Based Language Teaching Using Google Classroom in Writing Class: How does It Affect EFL Learners' Writing Performance and Attitude?* The Journal of Asia TEFL Vol. 18, No. 1, Spring 2021, 262-270. http://journal.asiatefl.org

Vega, V. (2012, December 3). *Project-based learning review*. Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/pbl-research-learning-outcomes

Vicentini, C. & de Oliveira, L. (2018) *Using Technology Tools in Writing Instruction*. NYS TESOL JOURNAL Vol. 5, No. 2, July 2018. http://journal.nystesol.org/july2018/6VicentinideOliveira%28CGFP%29.pdf

Waddell, J. (2015, March 27). *The role of technology in the educational process*. https://education.msu.edu/green-and-write/2015/the-role-of-technology-in-the-educational-process/.

Williams, C., & Beam, S. (2019). *Technology and writing: Review of research*. *Volume 128*, 227–242. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2018.09.024.

Contemporary Practices of Code-Switching in EFL Indonesian University Classrooms

Muh Kholiq

Gunadarma University, Depok, Indonesia

Taufiq Effendi

Gunadarma University, Depok, Indonesia

Bio–profiles:

Dr. Muh Kholiq is a senior lecturer in English linguistics at the Faculty of Letters, Gunadarma University-Indonesia. He has been teaching the various branches of linguistics for undergraduate and postgraduate students. He is in charge of the Head of Language Laboratory. Her research interests are Linguistics and Sociolinguistics.

Taufiq Effendi is a lecturer at Gunadarma University. He earned two Australian Masters of education in TESOL and in Assessment and Evaluation, two American English teacher training certificates and pursued a British Master of Arts in Cultural studies. He has published several books and research articles and has been invited to deliver a range of talks and trainings to audiences of various communities and organisations.

Abstract

This study was conducted to investigate the contemporary practices of Indonesian-English code-switching in EFL Indonesian higher education classrooms. It explored the linguistic features, examined the validity of the universality of Poplack's two grammatical constraints *and finally* provides a critical overview of the linguistic constraints of Indonesian-English code-switching practices in university classrooms. Observing 20 lecturer participants in three different Indonesian universities, the study revealed eighteen constraints and switched points contain in the classrooms: VP and NP, VP and HL suffix, VP and Pronoun, VP and VP, NP and VP, NP and NP, NP and HL suffix, Pronoun and HL suffix, Pronoun and NP, Pronoun and VP, Adverb and VP, Adverb and HL suffix, Adverb and HL confix, HL prefix and Pronoun, HL prefix and Adverb, Conjunction and NP, Conjunction and HL suffix, Preposition and NP. A large number of counter examples of Indonesian-English code-switching occurred which

falsifies the Universality of Poplack's Two Grammatical Constraints of Code- Switching Theory *(the free morpheme constraint and equivalent constraint).*

Keywords: *Code switching, morpheme constraint, syntactic rule*

Introduction

An early but influential contribution to the linguistic aspects of code-switching is Poplack's (1980, 1981) study. She argued for the word-order equivalence between the languages involved. She proposed what she calls *the free morpheme constraint* and *the equivalence constraint* as being operative at the point of the switch in Spanish/English bilingual utterances. Poplack's (1980) study was the first attempt to suggest explanatory principles. These constraints bear mentioning here because they form much of the later discussions:

> *(1)   The Free Morpheme Constraint*
>
> "No switch can occur between a lexical form and a bound morpheme unless that lexical form is phonologically integrated into the language of the bound morpheme".
>
> *(2)   The Equivalence Constraint*
>
>   The occurrence of code-switching points where elements of both languages are equivalent.

The first constraint predicts that a switch is disallowed between a lexeme and a bound morpheme unless the item is phonologically integrated into the base language. It limits the potential switch sites to word boundaries only. For example, in the case of Spanish/English code-switching, *EAT-iendo is not permissible unless the verb stem is phonologically adapted into Spanish. The second constraint, on the other hand, predicts that code-switching will occur at points where the surface structures of the two languages map onto each other. Again, in Spanish/English code-switching, switches may not occur between nouns and adjectives in the noun phrase because attributive adjectives in English typically precede the head noun, whereas in Spanish they follow it.

Poplack (1980) said that there are three types of code-switching. The first type of code-switching is intersentential switching. It takes place between sentences, i.e. the switch occurs at a clause or sentence boundary where each clause or sentence is in a different language (Romaine 1995). Furthermore, intersentential switching may take place between turns. This type of switching requires the least integration as code-switching happens between sentences. An example of intersentential switching is from Poplack (1980): *Sometimes I'll*

start a sentence in Spanish y terminó en espanol. (Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish and finish it in Spanish.)

The second type of code-switching is tag-switching, which requires only little integration of the two languages. Poplack (1980) uses the term tag-switching. In contrast, Milroy and Muysken (1995) employ the term extrasentential switching or emblematic switching to refer to tag-switching. Poplack (1980) also uses the term extrasentential switching, however, when using this term, she refers to both tag-switching and intersentential switching. This is her way of separating them from intrasentential switching. This study will follow Poplack and employ the term tag-switching instead of extrasentential switching when talking about switches that are neither inter nor intra sentential switches. Tag-switching involves inserting a tag in one language to an utterance which is otherwise in another language (Romaine 1995). According to Poplack (1980), the insertion of a tag to an utterance has virtually no ramifications for the rest of the sentence. This is because tags have no syntactic constraints, they can be moved freely, and they can be inserted almost anywhere in a discourse without violating any grammatical rules (Poplack, 1980). To take some English examples of tags: *you know, you mean* are tags, for instance, *se sininen talo, you know* (that blue house, you know).

The third type of code switching is intrasentential code-switching which requires a lot of integration and is usually associated with the most fluent bilinguals (Poplack 1980). Intrasentential switching occurs within a sentence. As this is so, it also involves the greatest syntactic risk as words or phrases from another language are inserted into the first language within one sentence or utterance. As two languages are mixed within a sentence, there are also two different grammars in play which means that the speaker has to know both grammars in order to produce a grammatically correct utterance. Poplack (1980) refers to this type of code-switching as a more intimate type than intersentential switching since both the code-switched segment and those around it must adapt to the underlying syntactic rules of the two languages. This is to say that the speaker needs to know the two grammars to avoid ungrammatical utterances. An example of intrasentential switching between English and Spanish is from Poplack (1980): *Why make Carol SENTARSE ATRAS PA'QUE everybody has to move PA'QUE SE SALGA?* (Why make Carol sit in the back so everybody has to move for her to get out?). Apart from mixing within clause or sentence boundary, intra-sentential switching can include mixing within word boundaries (Romaine 1995). For example, an English word may get a Finnish inflection as in *simplekin* where *–kin* is a

Finnish inflection meaning 'also'.

There have been some investigations relating to code-switching done by many people; Erman Boztepe (2002) provided a critical overview of theoretical, analytical, and practical questions most prevalent in the study of the structural and the sociolinguistic dimensions of code-switching (CS). In doing so, it reviews a range of empirical studies from around the world. The paper first looks at the linguistic research on the structural features of CS focusing in particular on the *code-switching* versus *borrowing* distinction, and the syntactic constraints governing its operation. It then critically reviews sociological, anthropological, and linguistic perspectives dominating the sociolinguistic research on CS over the past three decades. Major empirical studies on the discourse functions of CS are discussed, noting the similarities and differences between socially motivated CS and style shifting. Finally, directions for future research on CS are discussed, giving particular emphasis to the methodological issue of its applicability to the analysis of bilingual classroom interaction.

Rabia Redouane (2005) attempted to test the validity and universality of the three linguistic constraints 'the equivalence of structure', 'the free morpheme, and 'the size-of-constituent' by examining some instances of code-switching between the syntactically divergent languages Moroccan Arabic and French. Our data revealed that restrictions predicted by these constraints and which have previously been claimed to hold for code-switching were ruled out by these Arabic Moroccan-French code-switching. Instances of switching such as between verb and object and between noun and adjective occurred despite the syntactic difference between the two languages result in ungrammatical sentences in either Arabic or French. The data also revealed that the size of constituent constraint has been violated. Contrary to the claim that major constituents such as sentences and clauses tend to be switched more frequently than smaller ones such as nouns, determiners, verbs, etc., these Arabic Moroccan-French bilinguals favor smaller constituents. Moreover, it was found that switches occurred across word internal morpheme boundaries consisting of inflectional morphemes from Arabic and a stem morpheme from French.

Meanwhile, Horasan (2014) investigated the amount of code-switching in terms of sentential levels and initiation patterns, the discourse functions of code-switching, and the perceptions of the switchers. Accordingly, 43 students at the elementary level and four of their instructors in two EFL classrooms took part in the study. These participants were chosen through random sampling. Data were collected through observations, questionnaires

to students and teachers, and interviews with a selected sample. The results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the triangulated data showed that students' use of code-switching was rather high. Teachers' code-switching was even higher than expected. In terms of initiation patterns, student-initiated code-switching was quite high whereas in terms of sentential levels, inter sentential level was observed a little more than intra sentential level. The analysis of discourse functions revealed that both the students and the teachers employed code-switching mostly for meta language, which is a function used to talk about grammar or language tasks. The perceptions of all participants on code-switching overlapped in that they believed that it was a tool that fostered learning in beginner levels and could be used to attract attention or for jokes, yet should be abolished as the proficiency level increases.

Code-switching (CS) event is not a random linguistic phenomenon. Code-switching is motivated by several communication functions. Code-switching can be used as a negotiation strategy in acting of communication (Goyvaerts and Zembele, 1992) and it serves as a communication strategy that can be used to control the sustainability of speech acts (Cook, 1991). David (2002) adds that code-switching is able to be used as a communication strategy to overcome the limitations of language which caused the stagnation of communication carried out by the parties involved in speech acts with a wide range of differences in language skills.

Code-switching can be defined as "the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation" (Grosjean, 1982). Myers-Scotton (1988) describes code-switching as the use of two or more languages in the same conversation without a noticeable phonological assimilation from one variety to the other. In general, one can say that a prerequisite for code-switching is a juxtaposition of elements from two codes (Winford, 2003). Apart from two or more alternating languages, the term code-switching has also been used about different styles within the same language, for example formal and informal speech between monolinguals, but in the field of bilingualism and multilingualism it is used to refer to the alternate uses of two languages (Romaine, 1995).

Alternation between languages in the form of code-switching is a widely observed phenomenon in foreign language classrooms. Numan and Carter (2001) briefly define the term as "a phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse". Following this definition, *"discourse"* will be   handled   at the   students'   and

teachers' *naturally occurring language use* in classroom settings throughout this paper. Additionally, the languages between which alternation is performed are *the native language* of the students, and the foreign language that students are expected to gain competence in. In EFL classrooms in a university, the teacher's aim is to teach the students English while the students aim is to learn English by listening, reading and doing written and oral activities. Code-switching in a school classroom usually refers to bilingual or multilingual setting, and at its most general, entails switching by the teacher and/or learners between the Language of Learning and Teaching (LOLT) and the learners" main language. Code-switching is a practice that enables learners to harness their main language as a learning resource. Mamokgethi Setati and Jill Adler (2001). In classrooms, code-switching as a learning resource occurs at different levels. If on one hand there is a switch of grammatical items i.e. verbs, adjectives and linkers etc., then on the other hand this switch involves registers and technical language. However, there are data where the language changes from Indonesian to English or vice versa. The following are the data of code-switching;

1. Dia tidak bergerak ke tengah atau ke kanan, it began and ended at particular time.
2. In English, affix is divided into two; prefix and suffix, imbuhan dalam bahasa inggris itu cuma ada dua awalan dan akhiran.
3. This is the ... the time of research. Is it ok? Dari tadi saya ngomong bahasa inggris terus, mudah dipahami gak?
4. Dari *wrist* sampai *elbow* itu *arm*, lengan.
5. Adjektiva dalam hidupnya itu memiliki satu fungsi, yaitu *describing noun*.
6. *Why Linking verb* ini penting untuk kemudian anda ketahui?
7. Jadi saya mengambil simbol itu, simbolnya eagle, *sign nya* itu karakter pak.
8. Jika anda angkat tangan dan ternyata salah berarti anda bayar, berapa kemarin *deal nya*?

The data above can be studied from two approaches namely the structural approach and sociolinguistic approach. If it is seen from the structural approach, these data are able to be described that data (1), (4), (5), (7) and (8) showed that a code-switching from Indonesian to English. In these data, the Indonesian language is as inserted language (base language), while English is as the language that has insertion (embedded language). Data (2), (3) and (6) are code-switching from English to Indonesian. In these data, the English language is as a base while Indonesian language is the language that is exchanged. Data (1), (2), and (3) are examples of code inter sentential code-switching. The switching involves a switch at a clause or sentence boundary, where each clause or sentence is in one language or another, while

data (4), (5), (6), (7), and (8) are examples of intra sentential code-switching, the switch within a clause or sentence boundary. Data (7) and (8) are impossible to occur in interaction from Indonesian to English. The fact, they occur in the English classrooms. This is the matter that makes the author is interested in conducting this problem based on universality of Poplack's two grammatical constraints.

Research Questions

It is seen from the data above; it shows that code-switching is often used by the lecturer in the English classrooms. The form of code-switching done by the lecturer in the classroom is very various. There is a form of inter sentential code-switching and intra sentential code-switching from English to Indonesian and vice versa.

Concerning with problem statement above, the author would like to formulate problem as follows;

1. What are the constraints and switch points of Indonesian-English code-switching in the classrooms?
2. How does the Poplack's Two Grammatical Constraints (the free morpheme constraint and equivalent constraint) map onto Indonesian-English code-switching in the classrooms?

Research Design

In this research, the author used descriptive qualitative approach. Both of them were employed to analyze linguistic configuration found in Indonesian-English code-switching as well as kinds and functions for respondents to code-switching that are available in the classrooms.

The method used in this research was the survey method. Data drawn from this research is in the form of speech events that occurred at the Gunadarma University, National University of Jakarta, and State Polytechnic of Jakarta to be independent variable whereas social dimension such as the function of Indonesian-English code-switching to be dependent variable. Informants involved in providing information about the speech relating to the codes used by the respondents. Speeches used by the respondents at Gunadarma University, National University of Jakarta, and State Polytechnic of Jakarta, are written and recorded. Interview was conducted to the respondents to complete the research data. Once the data was recorded

and accounted for, the next step was to classify the various utterances found and analyzed.

Source of the Data

Concerning the data, there are two sources of data used in this present study. The first is primary data. The data are taken from forty-two recordings. It consists of all the code-switching uttered which is available in learning classrooms at Gunadarma University, National University of Jakarta, and State Polytechnic of Jakarta. These recordings contain 120 corpuses of code-switching instances (80 corpuses of Indonesian code-switching and 40 English code-switching). Besides that, the research also used journals, references, and books as secondary data.

Population and Sample

There are 20 respondents of the present study. They are all the lecturers of Faculty of Letters of Gunadarma University, National University of Jakarta, and State Polytechnic of Jakarta. They teach English literature, English language or Linguistics. They have good competence in mastering English language and can speak English well, of course, this case enables them to switch from Indonesia to English or vice versa in their daily conversation. The respondents often use English in their interaction when they meet with their colleague in the office. In the other place, they speak either Indonesian language or local language.

The sample of the data consists of forty-two recordings of natural speech taken from events in learning classrooms at Gunadarma University, National University of Jakarta, and State Polytechnic of Jakarta. This recorded comprises corpus of Indonesian-English code-switching instances and corpus of English Indonesian code-switching instances. Besides that, there are small of data taken from direct observation method produced in some of their daily social encounters.

Data Collection

The research data were obtained through three different methods, namely Recording Techniques, Direct Observation Techniques and Questionnaires. The collected data were analyzed using Poplack's two grammatical constraints of code-switching (free morpheme constraint and equivalent constraint).

1. Recording Techniques

    The natural speeches of the respondents were collected through recording. To get natural data, the respondents are made unknown that they have been recorded. There are many ways to do it, for example by putting recorder tool in the bag or in the pocket.

2. Direct Observation Techniques

    Direct observation method is also used to collect the data by the author. In this method, it is done by several ways namely;

    a. Choosing the sentences that contains code-switching utterance studied in research.

    b. Writing down the code-switching produced by respondent systematically.

Technique of Data Analysis

The data analysis used descriptive qualitative and quantitative approaches. Qualitative approach is used to find out the content of functions of code-switching and essentially described in the analysis of research in learning classrooms at Gunadarma University, National University of Jakarta, and State Polytechnic of Jakarta. Quantitative approach is carried out by applying statistical analysis purposing to find out the features of linguistic categories of Indonesian-English code-switching and functions of code-switching context grammatical perspective.

The procedures of data analysis technique are as follows:

1. Transcribe and sort out the code-switching discourse from recorded speech.

2. Put tabulated table contains linguistic configuration of code-switching such as switched segment, constraints and switch point, and type of code-switching and functions of code-switching.

3. Count the frequency of occurrences of linguistic features (in percentage) and functions of code-switching and then analyzed statistically.

The following is the tabulation to data to illustrate the analysis of data.

	Linguistic Features	
Discourse	**Switched Segments**	**Constraints and Switch Points**
Jadi dia itu mendapat *benefit* juga dari yang mesan.	Object (Single Noun)	Between Verb Phrase (VP) and Noun Phrase (NP)
Ada yang pernah denger *conjunction*?	Object	
Bisa nggak kalo lebih dari *one person*?	Noun Phrase	
Jadi ini *pattern*-nya.	Object (Single Noun)	Between Pronoun and Host Language HL Suffix
Ok, *number one*, siapa yang mau nyoba jawab?	Noun Phrase	Between Verb Phrase (VP)and Noun Phrase (NP)
Saya benar-benar *mention* minta tolong sama kalian j jangan sampai ada yang cek di sini.	Verb	Between Adverb and Verb Phrase (VP)
Jadi tolong ya untung *download*-nya jangan di sini.	Verb	Between Adverb and Host Language (HL) Suffix
Now, buat yang udah diliat dulu.	Adverb	
Kasih *applause* buat Kernel disitu.	Noun	Between Verb Phrase (VP)and Noun Phrase (NP)

Figure 1. Tabulation of Data

Findings and Discussion

Linguistic Dimension of Indonesian- English Code-Switching Found in the Classrooms

The Constraints and the Switched Points in the Classrooms

 gure 2. The Constraints and the Switched Points in the Classrooms

The data collected is about 120 switches. Switches occur in two directions from either Indonesian to English or English to Indonesian, but the former was most frequent. Code-switching does among these Indonesian speakers vary from the use of either Indonesian or English single words to larger sequences of words in single utterances. Data yield various instances of switches within interactions. Within this boundary, switches occurred between VP and adverb, NP and adverb. Also, the data include examples of switches between pronoun and HL suffix, VP and pronoun etc. in Indonesian simple sentences.

Based on the data collected in the classroom interactions, it is found that there are eighteen the constraints and the switched points occurred in the classrooms interactions. The details of this feature are described in the table below

 Verb Phrase (VP) and Noun Phrase (NP)

1. Jadi dia itu mendapat *benefit* juga dari yang mesan.

   Based on the sentence above, it can be denoted that the switched points of the word "*benefit*"occurred after the word "mendapat "(VP).

2. Bella dapat *additional score* gara-gara ngelap papan tulis.

   Related to the statement, the switched points of the phrase "*additional score*" is placed after the word "dapat" (VP).

Verb Phrase (VP) and Host Language (HL) Suffix

3. Jadi bikin *summary*-nya itu kayak gini loh guys.

   Related to the statement, the switched points of the word "summary-nya" is placed following the word "bikin"(VP).

4. Teksnya dalam bahasa inggris cuman dia lebih mementingkan *discussion*-nya.

   It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of the word "discussion-nya" occurred after the word "mementingkan "(VP).

5. Soalnya dari situ anda tinggal sebutkan *reason*-nya. Regarding to the position of the word "reason-nya" above, it is able to be recognized that the switched points of the word "reason-nya" is located after the word "sebutkan "(VP).

Verb Phrase (VP) and Verb Phrase (VP)

7. Saya coba *push* konsepnya dulu semua.

It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of word "*push*" is located after the word "coba"(VP).

Noun Phrase (NP) and Pronoun

8. *Number one*, *siapa yang mau nyoba jawab?*

related to the statement above, the switched points of the word "*number one*" is placed before the word "siapa" identified as pronoun.

Noun Phrase (NP) and Verb Phrase (VP)

9. Dia *enjoy* juga

Based on the sentence above, it can be denoted that the switched points of the word "*enjoy*" occurred after the word "dia" is categorized as VP.

10. Kamu *paraphrase* jadi apa?

It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of word "*paraphrase*" is located after

Noun Phrase (NP) and Noun Phrase (NP)

12. Nah sekarang yang definisi *something obvious* itu dimasukkan ke teks.

Related to the statement above, the switched points of the phrase "*something obvious*" is placed after the word "definisi" is identified as NP.

Noun Phrase (NP) and Host Language (HL) Suffix

13. Kemudian anak generasi muda mendukung soeharto itu kan ada namanya pemaksaan *setting-an.*

Related to the statement, the switched points of the word "*setting-an*" is placed after the word "pemaksaan" is as NP.

14. Pak *essay-nya* minimal berapa lembar?

It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of the word "*essay*" occurred after the word "Pak " is as NP.

Pronoun and Host Language (HL) Suffix

15. Jadi ini *pattern-nya.*

Regarding to the position of the word "*pattern-nya***"** above, it is able to be recognized that the switched points of the word "*pattern-nya***"** located after the word "ini " is as pronoun**.**

16. Kalo misalkan kata-kata yang kalian pilih tidak make sense sama si *reader-nya*, jadi kacau.

Related to the statement, the switched points of the word "**reader-*nya***" is placed after the word "si" is as **pronoun.**

Pronoun and Noun Phrase (NP)

18. Yang pertama itu *skill* dalam menguasai bahasa

Related to the statement, the switched points of the word "*skill***"** is placed after the word "itu " is categorized as pronoun**.**

19. Ini *script* dikasihnya dalam bentuk apa?

Regarding to the position of the word "*script***"** above, it is able to be recognized that the switched points of the word "*script***"** is located after the word "Ini "is categorized as pronoun**.**

Pronoun and Verb Phrase (VP)

20. Kalo kalimat itu *stop* di situ, If the sentence stops there, the word beautiful is meaningless*.*

It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of the word "*stop***"** occurred after the word "itu " is categorized as pronoun.

Adverb and Verb Phrase (VP)

21. Saya benar-benar *mention* minta tolong sama kalian jangan sampai ada yang cek di sini.

Based on the sentence above, it can be denoted that the switched points of the word "*mention***"** occurred after the word "benar-benar "is categorized as adverb.

22. Jadi kalau macam tiba-tiba ngomong bahasa inggris tiba-tiba *stop* gimana ya pak?

Related to the statement above, the switched points of the word "*stop*" is placed after the word "tiba-tiba" is categorized as adverb.

23. Tapi kalian harusnya *print* sendiri.

It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of the word "*print*" occurred after the word "harusnya " is categorized as adverb.

Adverb and Host Language (HL) Suffix

24. Kamu ketawa, lupa semua *script-nya.*

Regarding to the position of the word "*script***"** above, it is able to be recognized that the switched points of the word "*script***"** is located after the word "semua"is categorized as adverb**.**

25. Jika anda angkat tangan dan ternyata salah berarti anda bayar, berapa kemarin *deal-nya.*

Based on the sentence above, it can be denoted that the switched points of the word "*deal***"** occurred after the word "kemarin"is categorized as adverb**.**

Adverb and HL Confix

27. Kapan tenses ini dipakai, kapan ini harus *di- pattern-kan* Based on the sentence above, it can be denoted that the switched points of the word "*di- pattern-kan***"** occurred after the word "harus "is categorized as adverb.

HL Prefix and Pronoun

28. *Di- conversation* kalian ketemu sama siapa?

Regarding to the position of the word "*conversation***"** above, it is able to be recognized that the switched points of the word "*di-conversation***"** is located before the word "kalian "is categorized as pronoun.

29. Saya sudah line ke Jason**,** *di-share ga?*

It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of the word "*share*" occurred between and prefix "di-" in Indonesian language and the word "share "is as adverb.

Host Language (HL) Prefix and Adverb

31. Saya sudah line ke Jason**,** *di-share ga?*

It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of the word "*di-share*" occurred before the word "ga "is categorized as adverb.

Conjunction and Noun Phrase (NP)

32. Karena kalo *Legal Documents* penafsiran orang udah penafsiran hukum.

Based on the sentence above, it can be denoted that the switched points of the phrase "*legal documents***"** occurred after the word "kalo" is categorized as conjunction.

Conjunction and Host Language (HL) Suffix

33. Dan *skill-nya* apa-apa saja

It is seen from the position of the sentence above, the switched points of the word "*skill-*

*nya***"** occurred after the word "dan" is as categorized conjunction.

Preposition and Noun Phrase (NP)

34. Kamu bilang tentang *causing effect* itu juga bias.

Related to the statement above, the switched points of the phrase "*causing effect***"** is placed after the word "tentang " is categorized as NP**.**

Findings

There are some evidences in the data of instances of lexical items that consist of morphemes from English and Indonesian language. Switches occurred mainly across word internal morpheme boundaries involving bound morpheme from Indonesian and a root morpheme from English. It can be concluded that Free Morpheme Constraint Theory is *violated***.**

Free Morpheme Constraint

"No switch can occur between a lexical form and a bound morpheme unless that lexical form is phonologically integrated into the language of the bound morpheme".

Suffix

1. Jadi ini *pattern-nya*.

Based on the sentence above, it can be depicted that the word form "*pattern-nya***"** is combination of two languages. The word "*pattern***"** is a lexical form of English language and the form "*nya*" is a bound morpheme of Indonesian affix. They attached to each other. Whereas the the word "*pattern***"** is not integrated yet to the host language. It signed that this Indonesian-English code-switching experiences *deviation*.

The matter showed that the linguistic features namely free morpheme (*pattern*) in English-language and bound morpheme (**-***nya*) in Indonesian-language that attached each other that are found in the intrasentential code-switching contributed on a new pattern forming grammatical constraint (free morpheme constraint) of code-switching theory.

2. Jadi tolong ya untung *download-nya* jangan di sini.

Relating to the sentence above, it is able to be described that the word form "*download-nya***"** is combination of two languages. The word "*download***"** is a lexical form of English language and the form "*nya*" is a bound morpheme of Indonesian affix. They attached to each other. Whereas the the word "*download***"** is not integrated yet to the host language. It showed that this Indonesian- English code-switching experiences *irregularities*.

The issue indicated that the linguistic features namely free morpheme (*download*) in English-language and bound morpheme (**-***nya*) in Indonesian-language that put each other that are found in the intrasentential code-switching contributed on a new formula creating grammatical constraint (free morpheme constraint) of code-switching theory.

Prefix

1. Iya *di-conversation* adalah kalian ketemu sama yang namanya?

Based on the sentence above, it can be depicted that the word form "*di-conversation*" is combination of two languages. The word "*conversation*" is a lexical form of English language and the form "*di*" is a bound morpheme of Indonesian prefix. They attached to each other. Whereas the the word "*conversation*" is not integrated yet to the host language. It signed that this Indonesian-English code-switching experiences *deviation*.

The issue indicated that the linguistic features namely free morpheme (*conversation*) in English-language and bound morpheme (*di***-**) in Indonesian language that put each other that are found in the intrasentential code-switching contributed on a new formula creating grammatical constraint (free morpheme constraint) of code-switching theory.

2. Dia menulis ulang, *me-rewrite*.

Connecting to the sentence above, it is able to be drawn that the word form "*me-rewrite*" is combination of two languages. The word "*rewrite*" is a lexical form of English language and the form "*me***-**" is a bound morpheme of Indonesian prefix. They attached to each other. Whereas the the word "*rewrite*" is not integrated yet to the host language. It showed that this Indonesian-English code-switching experiences *irregularities*.

The item referred that the linguistic features namely free morpheme (*rewrite*) in English-language and bound morpheme (*me***-**) in Indonesian-language that strapped each other that are found in the intrasentential code-switching contributed on a new formula making grammatical constraint (free morpheme constraint) of code-switching theory.

The Equivalence Constraints

"The occurrence of code-switching points where elements of both languages are equivalent".

5. *Ini script* dikasihnya dalam bentuk apa?

Connecting to the sentence above, it is able to be described that the the syntactic rules

and structures form "*Ini*

script" are combination of two languages where elements of both languages are not equivalent. It should be not occurred in this code-switching. Actually, it happened in this utterance. It showed that this Indonesian-English code-switching experiences *irregularities*.

The concern exhibited that the linguistic features of syntactic rule of noun phrase in English-language is adjective + noun. The fact, this utterance is in Indonesian-language pattern (noun+adjective). It was found in the intrasentential code-switching. Hence, it contributed on a new formula producing grammatical constraint (Equivalence Constraints) of code-switching theory.

The findings of this study have showed that the speech of these Indonesian-English contained variant switches that a considerable number of cases of switching occurred even though the surface structure of the two languages is not equivalent. This violation of the syntactic rules and structures of either language can be used as evidence *to refute* the validity and universality of the two linguistic constraints.

Conclusion

This study analyzed the issues about linguistic dimensions of code-switching in the classrooms. In the linguistic framework of Indonesian-English code-switching, the author investigated that there are eighteen the constraints and switch points of code-switching consisting of VP and NP (16%), VP and HL suffix (7%), VP and pronoun (2%), VP and VP (2%), NP and VP (14%), NP and NP (2%), NP and HL suffix (5%), pronoun and HL suffix (9%), pronoun and NP (2%), pronoun and VP (2%), adverb and VP (7%), adverb and HL suffix (11%), adverb and HL confix (2%), HL prefix and pronoun (7%), HL prefix and adverb (2%), conjunction and NP (2%), conjunction and HL suffix (2%), preposition and NP (2%). Second, to test the validity and the universality of Poplack's two grammatical constraints *(the free morpheme constraint and equivalent constraint)* in code-switching by examining some instances of code-switching between the syntactically divergent languages, Indonesian and English language. The data revealed that restrictions predicted by these constraints and which have previously been claimed to hold for code-switching were ruled out by these Indonesian and English language code-switching.

In the linguistic framework of English-Indonesian code-switching, the author analyzed, that there are ten of the constraints and switch points of English-Indonesian code-switching consisting of prepositional phrase and VP (17%), prepositional phrase and conjunction (9%),

pronoun and conjunction (9%), pronoun and VP (8%), NP and GL suffix (8%), NP and VP (8%), VP and VP (8%), VP and adverb (8%), adjective and VP (17%), adjective and verb (8%), between NP and pronoun (8%), GL suffix and pronoun (8%).

References

Alwi, Hasan dkk. (2014). Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia. Balai Pustaka. Jakarta.

Ariffin, K. and Husin, M. S. 2011. Code-switching and Code-mixing of English and Bahasa Malaysia in Content-Based Classrooms: Frequency and Attitudes. *The Linguistics Journal, Vol. 5 Issue 1*

Banatao, M. A. B., & Malenab-Temporal, C. (2018). Code- Switching in Television Advertisements.pdf. *TESOL International Journal, Vol. 13(4). pp. 121-136.*

Blom, J., and Gumperz, J.J. (1972). Social meaning in linguistic Structures: Code-switching in Norway. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.), *Directions in sociolinguistics* (pp.407-434). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Blom, J. P. & Gumperz, J. J. (1986). Social meaning in linguistic structures:Code-switching in Norway. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (eds.). *Directions in Sociolinguistics* (pp. 407-434). New Yok: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Cambridge Learner's Dictionary 2nd Edition. (2013). Cambridge. University Press.

Cook, V. (1991). *Second language learning and language teaching.* Melbourne: Edward Arnold/ Hodder Headline Group.

Cook, V. (2002). Portraits of the L2 User. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Crystal, D. 2001. *Language and the Internet*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Crystal, David. (2008). *A dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Clyne, Michael. (2000). *Constraints on code-switching: how universal are they? In Li WEI. The Bilingualism Reader*. UK: Routledge.

Eldridge, J. (1996). Code-switching in a Turkish secondary school. *ELT Journal, 50,4: 303-311.*

Fishman, J. (2000). *Who speaks what language to whom and when? In Li WEI. The Bilingualism Reader.* UK: Routledge.

Flyman-Mattsson, A & Burenhult, N. (1999). Code-switching in second language teaching of French. *Working Papers, 47,* 59-72.

Goyvaerts, L.G. and Z. T. Zembele. (1992). "Code switching in Bukavu". *Multilingual and Multicultural Development. l3:* N.1-2.

Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with two languages*. Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.

Gumperz, J.J. (1982). *Discourse Strategies.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gumperz, J. (1982). *Language and social identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Holmes, J. (1992). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. London:Longman.

Horasan. (2014). Code switching in EFL classrooms and the perceptions of the students and teachers, *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, Vol 10, No 1 (2014).*

Huddleston, R. (1984). *Introduction to the grammar of English*. Cambridge University Press.

Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia, Edisi Ketiga. (2010). Balai Pustaka: Jakarta.

Korawan. (2016). English-Thai Code-Switching of Teachers in ESP Classes, *PASAA Volume 51 January- June 2016.*

Mahmood, R., Shah A.H., Alam I. (2021). Effectiveness of Code-Switching and Code- Mixing while Teaching Literature in Second Language. *The Asian EFL Journal. Vol. 28(1.4), pp. 9-23.*

Matras, Y. (2009). *Language Contact*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mattsson, A & Burenhult-Mattsson, N. (1999). *Code-switching in second language teaching of French*. Working Papers 47: 59-72.

Merritt, Marilyn, Ailie Cleghorn, Jared O. Abagi and Grace Bunyi. (1992). Socialising Multilingualism: Determinants of Code-switching in Kenyan Primary Classrooms. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development. Vol. 13, Nos 1&2, 103-121.*

Mujiono. (2013). Code-Switching in English as Foreign Language Instruction Practiced by the English Lecturers at Universities. *International Journal of Linguistics ISSN 1948-5425 2013, Vol. 5, No. 2.*

Muysken, P.(1995). Code-switching and grammatical theory. In L. Milroy & P. Muysken (Eds.), *One speaker two languages: Cross-disciplinary perspectives on code-switching* (pp. 177-198). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Myers-Scotton, C. (1998). *A theoretical introduction to the markedness mode*l. In C.

Myers-Scotton (Ed.) (1998). *Codes and consequences: Choosing linguistic varieties* (pp. 18-38). New York: Oxford University Press.

Ng Wui Chi. (2018). Code-Mixing of Cantonese-English Bilingual Children with Different language Dominance Patterns. *EILJ Vol. 13 Issue 2.1 December 2018.*

Poplack, Shana. Poplack, S. (1981).Syntactic Structure and Social Function of Code-Switching. In R.P Duran. (Ed.). *Latino Discourse and Communicative Behavior*. New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Poplack, S.(1980). Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en Espanol: Toward a typology of code-switching. *Linguistics, 18, 581-618.*

Redouane, Rabia. (2005). *Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism*, ed. James Cohen, Kara T. McAlister, Kellie Rolstad, and Jeff MacSwan, 1921-1933.

Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Press.

Rimi, N.R., (2019). Code-Switching in Ads in Bangladesh and its Effects in Culture. *The Asian ESP Journal. Vol. 15 (1.1), pp. 168-213.*

Romaine, S. (1995). *Bilingualism.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Rosario,O. and Maguddayao, R.N. (2019). Code Switching of English Language Teachers and Students in an ESL Classroom. *The Asian EFL Journal. Vol. 21(2.3) pp. 102-122.*

Thomason, S. (2001). *Language Contact*. Edinburgh: University of Edinburgh.

Trudgill, P. (2000). *Sociolinguistics*. London: Penguin.

Wardaugh, R.1998. *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers Ltd. 3rd Edition.

Yassi, Abdul Hakim. (2011). *Elites and Code-Switching*. Pustaka Pena press: Makassar

Yassi, Abdul Hakim. (2016). *Code-switching as a Communication Strategy*, Trust Media, Maguwo-Bangun Tapan: Yogyakarta.

Integrating Employability Skills in EFL Speaking and Writing Curricula through Digital Platforms

Hajar Mahfoodh

English Language Lecturer

English Language Centre, University of Bahrain

hakadhem@uob.edu.bh

Sofia Hashim

English Language Lecturer

English Language Centre, University of Bahrain

shashim@uob.edu.bh

Bio-profiles:

Ms. Mahfoodh currently teaches English as a second language (ESL) courses at the University of Bahrain. At the same time, she is a Ph.D. candidate at the University of Surrey, UK, pursuing her doctorate degree in Literature. Her MA degree in Literature was obtained from Bowling Green State University, USA. In terms of research interests, spreading awareness of the importance of heritage in shaping culture, identity, and language policy is what matters.

Mrs. Sofia Hashim obtained an Upper Second-Class Honours Reward in 2004 from The National University of Ireland, University College of Dublin in the Republic of Ireland. She joined the English Language Centre at the University of Bahrain in 2014 and is now teaching English as a second language (ESL) courses there. Mrs. Hashim has currently finished her Doctorate of Education (EdD) in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) from the University of Exeter in the United Kingdom. She is interested in teaching ESL from an early age and teaching special needs students.

Integrating Employability Skills in EFL Speaking and Writing Curricula through Digital Platforms

Abstract

Current pedagogical trends in reforming undergraduate curricula focus on integrating employability skills to implement the 21st Century Skills. This trend has also been adopted by the EFL practitioners and institutions, striving to be in the lead since the English Language is also regarded as a significant skill for employment in many vocations worldwide. EFL teachers and academic bodies tend to increase the integration of employability skills in their classrooms, which have resulted in many practices, such as involving ICT in presentations and problem solution prompts. This paper explores further potential opportunities for integrating employability skills in the EFL classroom, focusing on writing and speaking courses through digital and social media platforms, abiding by the 21st Century rubrics and skills. Precisely, the paper considers teamwork, self-regulation, and skilled communication as essential assessment criteria that contribute significantly to developing and integrating employability skills. This paper further explores the possibilities that enable English writing and speaking courses to involve job communication language, or business language, as part of the EFL curriculum and assessment to prepare students according to the needs of the marketplace. These skills are analysed through the SWOT model, which explores the strengths, threats, weaknesses, and opportunities to avoid pitfalls and turn them into opportunities and strengths. Previous academic publications, literature, and case studies comprise the primary and secondary data used in this paper. Based on the analysis, the paper concludes with the opportunities and suggestions for integrating employability skills in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classroom through digital and social media platforms.

Keywords: *EFL; TEFL; Employability Skills; Pedagogy; Communicative Competence; Language Competence*

1. Introduction

This paper explores integrating employability skills into EFL writing and speaking courses in tertiary education and pedagogy to address their weaknesses and introduce solutions with the high demand for the English Language as a significant employability skill in the marketplace. In some Asian countries, governmental bodies deliberately promote English language education through various training and educational bodies (Kirkpatrick & Sussex, 2012; Williams, 2017). English has become the lingua franca that is "located at the very centre of the global language system [and] the main language of international communication as well as the dominant language of global advertising and popular culture" (Lin, 2020, p. 105). The English

Language is considered the number one qualification for most jobs, especially in developing and underdeveloped countries (Singh, 2019; Lin, 2020). However, English comprises only one of the many different qualifications that are required in the job market, which usually criticizes academic bodies for producing graduates without these requirements. David et al. (2021) explore the gap between human resources and what is required in the marketplace, focusing on tertiary education and employability skills. To bridge this gap, most educational bodies have opted for enhancing English Language curricula by integrating employability skills, such as problem-solving, teamwork, planning and organizing, and ICT skills.

Yorke (2006) defines employability as a collection of accomplishments, abilities, understandings, and personal characteristics that make graduates more likely to find work and succeed in their chosen fields. It is "a multi-faceted characteristic of a person, a set of skills, knowledge and personal attributes that make an individual more likely to secure and be successful in their chosen occupation(s) to the benefit of themselves, the workforce, the community [,] and the economy" (Yorke, 2006, p. 8). Employability skills are mostly transferable abilities that are necessary for professional success since they are lifetime skills that allow people to find a career (Deloitte, 2014). These skills mostly fall under two categories: hard skills and soft skills. The soft skills include "communication skills and other generic, attitudinal and transferable, self-management skills and personal attributes such as self-confidence, self-control, inter and intrapersonal skills, honesty, integrity, reliability, adaptability, flexibility, willingness to learn, stress tolerance, managing time, efficiency, [i]nterpersonal skills, and many other skills like team building, [l]eadership, management, problem-solving skills, initiative and enterprise" (Pooja, 2013, p. 351). In comparison, job or discipline-specific skills understanding, associated qualifications and competencies, and career management skills for a specific job or position exemplify hard skills (Down, 2003).

Employability skills are of high diversity, and they change according to the change of the marketplace demands. According to Catherine Down (2003), the Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry and the Business Council of Australia (ACCI/BCA) stresses eight employability skills: collaboration, problem-solving, self-management, communication, initiative/enterprise, planning, learning, and technology skills. Some companies and firms like Nokia, Siemens, and Cogent prioritize these skills, with communication and interpersonal skills at the top (Singh, 2021). Employability skills also include personal and interpersonal skills found in problem-solving, management planning, and collaboration (Lankard, 1990). Indeed, these skills are linked to language skills since they involve communication in one way or

another. Therefore, the English Language pedagogy, especially in tertiary education, can play a leading role in integrating some employability skills into the English Language Curricula.

1.1 Different Perspectives

From the perspective of employers, employability is described as a graduate's proclivity to exhibit characteristics that employers believe will be required for the future successful functioning of their organizations, allowing the graduate to find work quickly (Harvey, 1999; Mtawa et al., 2019). Griesel and Parker (2009) argue that graduates, especially in developing and underdeveloped countries such as African countries, are largely out of step with the evolving workplace's immediate needs from employers' perspective. In addition, the disconnection between what universities generate and what employers want is problematic, according to Archer and Chetty (2013), who argue that universities are under pressure to close the gap of skills. This discussion is in line with the results of the Labour Market Intelligence Partnership report in South Africa, which shows various levels of skills shortages and mismatches in the economy (Reddy et al., 2016). According to Petersen et al. (2016), such major problems for economic and social growth can be solved through adopting a national policy that creates different collaborative programs between the different private and governmental sectors.

The current global developments in the economy, technology, culture, and politics have resulted in English being acquired as an additional language by more individuals and organizations than any other language since the second half of the twentieth century (Lin, 2020). According to Taghizadeh (2020), language learners must develop adequate and efficient communicative skills to become successful communicators by developing what he explores as communicative competence. Despite the increasing demand for English language proficiency, the emphasis on sharpening critical thought, imagination, and versatility is sometimes missing from the entire teaching process (Bharathi, 2016). According to Al-Mahrooqi and Tuzlukova (2014), graduates of higher education in the Arab Gulf struggle with English, leaving them with insufficient communication skills for the job market. According to preliminary research results, they claim that communication skills are undervalued in both school and higher education English programs. Moody (2012) argues that such programs fail to understand the sociolinguistic background of the Arab Gulf countries and the people with whom English communication is supposed to take place. Hence, "low English proficiency manifests itself not only in poor oral skills but also in all other skills" (Al-Mahrooqi and Tuzlukova, 2014, p. 474).

Comparatively, presuming that gaining experience, whether by higher education or otherwise, is necessary for increasing employment is controversial. Having work experience, for example, does not guarantee that the student can further acquire the numerous criteria (practical, cognitive, and social) for job success (Yorke, 2006). The same can be applied to developing the English language curricula, especially the writing and listening courses, regarding employability skills. The curricular process can help create job-related prerequisites, but it does not ensure getting the job in the marketplace. As a result, assuming that students are highly employable solely based on the curricular provision is incorrect since employability is determined by how they learn from their experiences (Yorke, 2006).

Further, Harvey et al. (1997) state that most employers look for proactive graduates who can apply higher-level skills such as research, synthesis, and multi-layered communication to promote creative teamwork in catalysing the transformation of their companies. They also argue that employers are looking for graduates who can adapt to the corporate culture, use their abilities and talents to help the company develop, and work in creative teams. Critical thinking, or reflection, is often valued by employers because it is necessary for creativity, anticipating and leading change, and connecting the graduates to the marketplace. Graduates' employability is influenced by the larger economic background as well as their personal circumstances. According to Yorke (2006), each employability factor's value and balance can vary for different groups of people based on their relationship to the labour market. Research by Archer and Davison (2008), which looked at employers' perspectives on graduate employability, found a disparity between what some universities promote and what the industry requires. Employers were unanimous in their assessment of the most essential and desirable skills that graduates could possess.

Regardless of the organization's size, Archer and Davison (2008) discovered that "soft skills," such as communication and teamwork, were considered to carry more weight than technological, or "hard skills," such as a strong degree or IT skills. According to Glass et al. (2008), a small percentage of employers hire university graduates specifically for the technological skills they can bring to the business. Instead, most firms regard a degree as a substitute for attaining a minimum level of competence in a fresh new hire. Lowden et al. (2011) claim that some educators may be cautious of integrating employability skills with their curriculum and teaching because they perceive it as an infringement on their content freedom. While those in charge of Higher Education accept that universities could consider graduates' job needs, including universal skills and abilities required in the workplace, and represent this in the program and instructional strategy, disputes persist due to educators' fears that

integrating with the employability strategy would result in a lowering of academic standards and obfuscation of education excellence and aims (Gun et al., 2010). Rather than weakening academic content, this can be resolved by presenting the problem in terms of how educators can teach their content to improve employability skills (Harvey, 2000).

1.2 Past Experiments

Communication comprises one of the essential employability skills in today's marketplace. All job activities include speaking, listening, reading, and/or writing, and there are scarcely any jobs that do not include at least some forms of communication (Cleary et al., 2006; Hameed, 2020). Pooja (2013) argues that nonverbal and verbal communication skills such as listening, writing, effective speaking, reading, and body language are basic employability communication skills. She claims that oral skills for public presentations, conversations, negotiations, dispute resolution, information exchange, discussions, and debates are examples of higher-order communication skills. In addition to specialized soft skill training, Pooja (2013) believes that integrating these employability skills into subject modules would provide skilled graduates with several opportunities to develop and be connected directly to the marketplace. Indeed, the English Language modules and courses have a high potential of integrating such skills by making them an essential part of their curriculum.

Employability skills have become an essential part of the English Language curricula by adopting different pedagogical initiatives. Some academic bodies have integrated social media applications in order to improve students' academic as well as employability skills, with a specific focus on collaboration and communication skills. Social media provides the students with digital literacy and skills, which comprise a decisive qualification to the highly globalized marketplace (Mtawa et al., 2019). Precisely, social media is frequently adopted because it provides the students with a vast and diverse platform to develop communication skills. Park and Wu (2020) argue that social media platforms comprise "communicative potential due to their intrinsic social and interactive nature" (p. 67). Aloraini (2018) supports using Instagram, for instance, due to its interactive and communicative nature. Othman et al. (2014) explore integrating English grammar and writing skills with online blogging to improve the students' language skills as well as their communication skills, which are both in high demand in the marketplace. Such digital platforms offer the students the opportunity to collaborate and plan by involving more interaction amongst students (Alghammas, 2020). Therefore, many English Language curricula have adopted various digital platforms because they support and develop

employability skills, especially when it comes to collaboration, teamwork, self-regulation, and digital literacy (Hinchliffe and Jolly 2011).

Other academic bodies embed digital literacy within their traditional ways of integrating employability skills. Most higher education sectors resort to traditional employability skills by adopting Community Service Learning (CSL), such as practice based-learning, internships, and graduate placement (Mtawa et al., 2019). Because CSL puts the students in direct contact with the society and job environment, the students become equipped with efficient, or at least minimum, the experience that qualifies them to the job market. If such practices are implemented sufficiently, higher education will significantly contribute to providing the marketplace with the required workforce, contributing to a decreased unemployment rate and the need to outsource labour (Tumuti et al., 2013).

On the pedagogical level, integrating education with the marketplace is highly controversial despite its efficiency in producing tailor-made and ready-made graduates that meet the marketplace's requirements. In this case, preparing graduates with employability skills is the universities' responsibility and higher education sectors (Pheko and Molefhe 2017). According to McCowan (2015), over-emphasizing employability skills might lead to less knowledge in the core field, resulting in students with high employability skills but lack the essential information and knowledge that enables them to be productive in their work environments. However, Powell and McGrath (2014) consider integrating employability skills into the higher education curricula is highly productive and constructive because it contributes to creating an employability culture and plays a vital role on the broader social and national levels.

1.3 The Rationale for the Current Study

Although numerous studies explore the digitalization of teaching the English Language to adopt employability skills in the fields of TEFL, TESOL, and Education, much work is still to be done in customizing and tailoring which skills can be developed overtly. This study explores integrating the various employability skills in the courses of English writing and speaking. Precisely, the paper focuses on integrating job communication language, or business language, and speaking by exploring prompts that are integrated into digital literacy in the English Language curricula. Therefore, the questions that the paper attempts to answer are as follows:

1) Which employability skills are convenient to be integrated with English Writing courses?
2) Which employability skills are convenient to be integrated into English Listening courses?

3) Which digital platform can directly connect students to the marketplace?

2. Methodology

This research-based paper explores the different opportunities for integrating employability skills into the English Language Curricula, focusing on EFL (English as a Foreign Language) writing and speaking courses. These skills are explored within the sphere of digital literacy and the 21st Century rubrics, opting for a sustainable education that supports the 2030 SDG vision of education. The paper is analytical in nature, and it relies on critiquing integrating these four employability skills into the English Language curricula through a SWOT analysis that is based on the paper's literature review. The SWOT analysis explores the threats, weaknesses, opportunities, and strengths of integrating these skills in the curricula. Each skill has a separate SWOT analysis, and the four skills are further analysed through a comparative approach. Based on the analysis and findings, the paper suggests some recommendations that assert integrating these skills within a digital literacy environment in order to achieve a sustainable Higher Education.

3. Findings and Analysis

The main challenges to improve employability skills are curricula and teachers, which demands a reform of the English Language curricula. Chao-ching Lin (2002) criticizes the teacher-centred curriculum because it creates a passive role for the English language learners. Clement and Murugavel (2015) highlight the need to develop both curricula and teaching methods by integrating English Language pedagogy for specific purposes with work-life experience, namely, the need to equip students with the basics of the business language used in the daily e-mails and reports. This shortage of such significant skills might stem from the limitations of the classroom reality rather than from the EFL teachers, who are mostly aware of the high significance of communicative competence (Jihyeon, 2009). According to Mahfoodh and Al-Hashmi (2019), English language teachers, scholars, and lecturers have proved to support developing and reforming curricula by adopting different methods, namely integrating research and ICT skills. However, more is to be done to reform English Language curricula.

English Language writing and speaking courses offer a convenient space to integrate employability skills. Clement and Murugavel (2015) suggest that students lack the basic employability skills in technical writing and oral skills, including e-mails, presentations, and reports. In the age of technology, such skills need to be implemented through digitalized mediums and platforms, as indicated by the 21st Century Skills and Rubrics. In the following

section, the paper explores each of the four skills separately analysed through a SWOT analysis, where the paper explores ways to maintain the strengths and opportunities while overcoming the threats and weaknesses.

3.1 Integrating Employability Skills in EFL Speaking Courses

Speaking is a form of communication that requires high language and communication competencies, which is referred to as communicative competence. Language competence is the key to communicative competence, a term that was first coined in the early 1970s. Hymes (1972), one of the pioneering critics and theorists of communicative competence, articulates that the pedagogy and learning of a language are much more than the grammar, syntax, and other language systems used in teaching language. Instead, communicative competence is a combination of grammatical competency in addition to using grammatical competency in different situations of communication. In other words, Hymes (1972) stresses that speaking competence involves an awareness of obtaining grammatical competency and what and how to express something regardless of the situation. Hymes' theories of Language resonate with what is known as Pragmatic Competence, which is defined as "the ability to use language appropriately in a social context," involving inborn and acquired abilities that develop through socialization with others (Taguchi, 2009, p. 1). Because English Language courses and modules play a vital role in developing the students' speaking and writing skills, these courses have a substantial potential to equip them with the necessary communication skills in the workplace. Precisely, much work can be done to develop students' communicative skills in intercultural and social contexts, which can significantly involve students in direct contact with their social and cultural surroundings. Such a step is challenging for students because intercultural communication is often prone to misunderstandings among L2 speakers, as Mey (2006) says, due to the various social, educational, and cultural backgrounds. Still, such a challenge is perhaps a fertile soil for training students by making them learn from both academic education and work experience.

Communicative competence can be developed by integrating employability skills with the EFL speaking courses. Clement and Murugavel (2015) found that the students need to develop specific oral skills that enable them to be prepared to efficient communicators in the workplace, including telephone etiquette, interview skills, formal presentations, and oral introduction. These skills can be integrated as part of the Program Intended Learning Outcomes (PILOs), and the Course Intended Learning Outcomes (CILOs), but still focus on language

accuracy in terms of grammar competency and pragmatic competence as defined by Hymes (1972) and Taguchi (2009).

Table 1 displays a SWOT analysis of integrating employability skills with the EFL speaking course. The strengths include the awareness of this integration among both students and teachers alike. EFL courses have also developed and modernized their curricula to suit both the emerging digital world and students' employability skills by involving students work more closely in digital platforms such as blogging, Instagram, and podcasts (Al-Mahrooqi et., 2014; Lee, 2014; Aloraini, 2018). Such initiatives could be developed further by making them part of the curricula assessment prompts, especially those related to creating job-like settings, such as interviews and small presentations. Although many teachers seek to implement such changes, some teachers and systems support integrating employability skills. This resistance is mainly due to the fear that the core linguistic skills are at risk. To solve this issue, EFL teachers and curricula experts need to communicate with their peers and administrative bodies to negotiate what suits the students best according to the marketplace needs, with a specific focus on oral EFL skills and communicative competence. Another solution is to assess the prompt according to the CILOs and PILOs of the EFL speaking course while the introduced employability skills remain a condition, or a framework, of submitting the assignment.

Integrating employability skills has significant opportunities, especially when training students for interview and presentation skills as part of the EFL curriculum. However, adopting employability skills has some crucial threats. The threat that could obliterate integrating employability skills with the speaking course curricula is the cultural and administrative nature of the EFL teachers. Most developing and underdeveloped countries, where EFL courses are popular and abundant, do not have a clear English Language Policy that requires integrating curricula with the marketplace (Abou-El-Kheir and MacLeod (2017). Moreover, teachers are often not part of designing curricula or creating English Language policy, resulting in changes that do not substantially improve the curriculum to suit the marketplace's needs. Thus, EFL managerial bodies need to involve teachers, students, and representatives of the marketplace when designing curriculum to avoid such pitfalls and create a curriculum in harmony with language competence and communicative competence.

Table 1 SWOT of Integrating Employability Skills into EFL Speaking Courses

Strengths	• Teachers and students are aware of the need to develop EFL curricula in a way that suits the marketplace (Clement and Murugavel, 2015; Dawn, 2013; Bharathi, 2016). • EFL courses have adopted English language teachers and implemented some substantial experiments to develop speaking skills curricula through social media, digital platforms, and English-speaking environments (Al-Mahrooqi et., 2014; Lee, 2014). • EFL courses and curricula seek ongoing reforms to suit the marketplace (Aloraini, 2018; Al-Mahrooqi et., 2014; Mahfoodh and Al-Hashmi, 2019).
Weaknesses	• EFL courses might lose focus on the core language skills to favour employability skills (Lowden et al., 2011; Gun et al., 2010). • Employability skills do not ensure obtaining a job in the marketplace due to personal and interpersonal reasons and skills (Yorke, 2006).
Opportunities	• EFL can integrate more courses by adopting social media and other digital media platforms to improve employability skills through speaking prompts (Al-Mahrooqi et., 2014; Lee, 2014; Othman et al., 2014). • EFL can introduce employability skills as part of the speaking course curricula (Clement and Murugavel 2015).
Threats	• English Language Policy is not always clearly addressed on the national level (Abou-El-Kheir and MacLeod, 2017). • EFL teachers explain that the significant challenge is to change curricula due to both a lack of "change culture" and the administrative procedures (Öztürk and Aydın; 2019).

3.2 Integrating Employability Skills in EFL Writing Courses

Writing courses comprise a significant, though critical, portion of EFL courses. Crystal (2006) states that "writing is a way of communicating which uses a system of visual marks made on some kind of surface. It is one kind of graphic expression" (p. 56). In other words, writing is a difficult task that necessitates mastery of many levels and skills of language, including syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, discourse, and morphological levels (Rao, 2017). Many literary critics consider writing as an indicator of one's language ability. Richards and Renandya (2002) argue that writing is one of the most challenging skills for second language learners (L2) because they are required to produce concepts, process them, and finally translate these concepts into comprehensible texts. A significant strategy that language teachers could use in their classes to help their ESL/EFL students improve is implementing some soft employability

skills like teamwork and time-management. Students do their best to contribute to their written tasks and acquire the best results from these tasks when they collaborate in pairs or groups (Rao,2017). This approach also allows teachers to support students when they require assistance. When students work in teams, they aim to complete the assignment in a limited period of time while maintaining a high degree of quality. Hence, they develop their employability skills of teamwork, self-regulation, and delivery.

Table 2 applies a SWOT analysis to integrating employability skills to EFL writing courses and modules. The strengths of integrating employability skills into the EFL Language include the official support from the governments and the awareness of its significance among EFL teachers, especially where English is the official language of communication in the marketplace (Al-Mahrooqi, 2014; Thomas et al., 2016). The most significant strength is that EFL writing courses develop students' communicative competence through business language, making them ready to communicate through the written forms mediums, such as e-mails, reports, and official letters (Bhatia and Bremnerm, 2012). If students are competent in communicative written forms, they can avoid the long hours of revising and editing their reports, and therefore, their potential to receive higher wages increase, according to Durga (2018).

On the other hand, some issues weaken and threaten integrating employability skills into EFL writing courses. The difference between the course practice and the real-world situations is at stake because EFL writing courses are already pre-designed and time-controlled. Even if employability skills are integrated into the EFL writing course, the workplace's pressure and conditions are not applicable. In line with D'Andrea (2018), the in-class writing prompts are still far from real-world settings. Another issue is the teaching culture of writing courses, namely the traditional ways of teaching writing. EFL writing courses focus on the usual paragraph writing style, while today's world resorts to short e-mails, texting, and chatting. The most significant threat, however, is the teaching culture which limits itself to the academic world. In other words, the students' writing does not involve communication with the marketplace or even involve the marketplace demands when designing a prompt (Bhatia and Bremnerm, 2012). Therefore, even if employability skills are integrated, there is a lack of communication between academic bodies and the marketplace.

Such issues can be resolved by exploring the possible opportunities to develop employability skills in the EFL writing course. Singh and Singh (2008) suggest that the academic bodies need to conduct more research in the marketplace needs in terms of employability skills that involve writing. Namely, they suggest that most careers require

employees who can communicate in oral and written English, conduct reports, create, and comment on graphs, and write business letters (Singh and Singh, 2008). A further solution suggests that the curriculum designer of English writing courses needs to create more partnerships with the business firms by involving students in direct communication with these firms (Bhatia and Bremnerm, 2012). Such solutions create potential opportunities to develop integrating employability skills into EFL writing courses.

Table 2 SWOT of Integrating Employability Skills into EFL Writing Courses

Strengths	• The government's national offices have supported integrating employability skills into the curriculum, including EFL courses (Al-Mahrooqi, 2014; Thomas et al., 2016). • EFL teachers are aware that business writing skills are crucial employability skills (Singh and Singh, 2008). • Integrating employability skills into English writing courses helps students facilitate their communicative competence in the workplace (Bhatia and Bremnerm, 2012).
Weaknesses	• Integrating employability skills into EFL writing courses is more academic, and hence it differs from real-life circumstances (D'Andrea, 2020). • The ESL/EFL teachers use class methods of teaching to help students improve their writing skills. (Rao, 2017; Durga, 2018).
Opportunities	• EFL writing courses can be reformed according to the employability skills required in the marketplace (Singh and Singh, 2008). • Writing courses can integrate report writing skills as an essential part of the EFL writing curriculum (Sing and Sing, 2008). • Language learners can use writing to interact with the marketplace Bhatia and Bremnerm, 2012).
Threats	• The lack of real-world discourse produces students with business language on the academic level, but not according to the marketplace's demands (Bhatia and Bremnerm, 2012). • The lack of teacher's training and commitment to execute the course as designed threatens the curriculum's success (Bhatia and Bremnerm, 2012).

To sum up, the inadequacy of English language skills especially writing, has long been seen as an obstacle to jobs and workforce success. Communication skills in English are a must for a professional life at the national or international level. After all, employers are still searching for workers who can communicate smoothly in spoken and written English. Employees are required to read, write, speak, and understand English for written endorsement in workshops, meetings, education programs, seminars, letters, papers, and reports, according

to Durga (2018). Hence, communicating efficiently and competently in English through the written mediums is a critical component of job satisfaction and progression.

3.3 Further Integration through Social Media and the Digital World

While substantial studies advocate integrating employability skills into EFL curricula, other EFL scholarship promotes a further step by embracing the digital and social media platforms. For this paper's limitations, only three platforms are examined in this section, namely, Instagram, Blogging, and Wikis. Kassem (2017) argues that technical writing, or business writing, prompts such as e-mails, reports, and formal letters can be shifted from the traditional paper-based to the digital engines such as Wikis since it provides a convenient platform for teamwork, reflection, and peer review. Such skills resonate with the 21st Century Skills of collaboration, problem-solving, and self-regulation since such prompts require the students to manage time, meet certain criteria, reflect and implement feedback, and work within a team. Like Wikis, blogs can also play a vital role as a digital platform since bloggers receive direct feedback from their peers and work in teams to create a blog. Dirntl (2010) suggests that blogging can encourage and facilitate collaborative work and enable students to deal with receiving feedback and comment, which gives them more reflection on their work.

Similarly, Aloraini (2018) supports integrating digital platforms, especially social media applications, because of their popularity among students. While Aloraini (2018) focuses more on publishing everyday prompts by students and then work within a team for addressing feedback and teamwork, this paper suggests that Instagram could play a similar role in publishing short presentations and recording about a work-related business, such as job interviews and business etiquette and Language. By adopting this combination in one prompt, students can improve their communicative competence in terms of both grammar and speaking.

Table 3 presents a SWOT analysis of integrating digital but interactive platforms into EFL speaking and writing courses. The digital platforms only include blogs, Wikis, and Instagram and their adoption as educational and assessment tools. These digital platforms are popular and with no financial cost from the side of both students and teachers. They also form a medium that connects students with the marketplace and employers through digital communication and microblogging. Therefore, they can serve as a convenient hub that introduces students to potential jobs in the future.

These mediums have considerable strengths that change the educational process and the student's attitude towards learning. In other words, they boost confidence and create self-motivation, which encourages students to produce creative and original writing because the

students use their feedback from various resources compared with the traditional way of the teacher exclusively providing feedback (Xiao and Lucking, 2008). They also soften the formal environment of the traditional classroom as they involve casual and social interaction. While some teachers resist using social media because they insist on maintaining a strict and highly formal classroom, the students prefer the informal atmosphere since their anxiety decreases, and they can become more productive, and hence, learn more quickly and thoroughly. These skills (learning quickly, self-esteem, and intercultural interactions) belong to the employability skills that are discussed by Down (2003), Lankarrd (1990), and York (2006).

Table 3 SWOT Analysis of Integrating Digital Platforms: Blogs, Wikis, and Instagram

Strengths	- It substantially develops formal and academic writing in terms of coherence and competence compared to traditionally taught courses (Xiao and Lucking, 2008). - It positively impacts students' attitude and self-motivation in EFL courses (Wichadee, 2010). - It makes the classroom environment more friendly because social media involves funny and casual interactions (Alorainin, 2018). - It allows students to work in teams, independently, and according to a time limit (Aloraini, 2018).
Weaknesses	- Some students and teachers are still not ready to change their traditional teaching methods (Mahfoodh and Al-Hashmi, 2019). - The teacher plays a minimal role in controlling such prompts' content and social interaction (Aloraini, 2018). - The students' acceptance of endorsing social media as a learning tool is highly sceptical (Wang & Vasquez, 2012).
Opportunities	- It encourages producing authentic writing (Coniam and Mak, 2008). - It contributes to increasing the networking of the students (Derntl, 2009). - It improves self-reflection and critical thinking among students (Krishnapatria, 2020).
Threats	- Privacy is at stake (Aloraini, 2018) - Curricula and administrative regulations are reluctant to change their established policies (Öztürk and Aydın, 2019).

In comparison, adopting digital platforms is not invulnerable to serious threats, and it is not free from weaknesses. One concern is that some higher education bodies and administrations still refuse to adopt social media and blogging as constructive tools. Therefore, students' digital activities become optional instead of being an integral part of curricula and

assessment. However, the most significant concern is that students can communicate and interact with unknown resources in the virtual world, and the teacher is helpless in controlling the type of feedback the students might receive. Besides, students' work is available for all virtual world users, and technically, to all the world, which might lead to a backfire on the level of self-esteem, especially when students receive reckless notes or comments. Consequently, students might lack self-esteem and react by refusing to accept feedback and comments on their work. Such results could have negative impacts on the sustainability of employability skills in the long run.

However, such drawbacks can be avoided when there is a genuine will to reform EFL curricula by adopting some measures. Aloraini (2018) suggests that controlling students' and commentators' numbers is highly recommended when integrating digital platforms into EFL courses. Building on Aloraini (2018), we argue that the EFL teacher should select commentators to include employers, English native speakers, and other EFL teachers to ensure that the feedback addresses language competency problems and weak employability skills. Another solution is to introduce digital seminars and workshops that accommodate both EFL teachers, employers from the marketplace, and students. Such gatherings are constructive to both students and EFL teachers alike. First, they develop EFL curricula according to the feedback and comments of the employers. Second, they make students familiar with the demands of the marketplace and the environment of their future jobs by interacting and communicating with the employers. In short, the threat and weaknesses of adopting digital platforms can be solved by controlling the virtual space and directly involving employers and the marketplace.

4. Conclusion

This paper has explored integrating employability skills into EFL courses with a specific focus on EFL writing and speaking courses. The SWOT analysis of such integration reveals significant strengths and opportunities to integrate employability skills with EFL curricula because such skills are detrimental to bridge the gap between tertiary education and the marketplace. The awareness of the employability skills significance is encouraging, and it foreshadows the further potentials to be an intrinsic part of EFL curricula. After all, EFL courses have proved highly dynamic and flexible by supporting the other departments in higher education according to their needs and changes. Hence, integrating employability skills is only one of many ongoing and continuous steps that potentially shapes and reshapes EFL curricula in the long run.

On the other hand, integrating employability skills do have some pitfalls, including creating unbalanced curricula. Still, once addressed and analysed, such pitfalls could become strengths because they provide the EFL teachers with challenging questions about reforming curricula and assessment. Training teachers and encouraging further EFL research could also solve such drawbacks and threats by reflecting on their own courses and curricula. Further, EFL centres and management can create more constructive relationships and partnerships with the marketplace: this could be done on a long-term basis through long-term programs and internships and on a short-term basis through workshops and seminars. Such partnerships could help decrease the unemployment rate and increase fresh graduates' and students' headhunting, leading the EFL educational bodies to play an active role in supporting the marketplace and the national economy.

In line with the paper's literature review, the SWOT analysis has highlighted some specific prompts that can be integrated into the EFL courses. Social media applications, especially Instagram and Snapchat, can be part of the speaking courses, while blogging and other digital interaction platforms offer students a substantial opportunity to write, reflect, and peer-review through teamwork. In the end, EFL courses foster curricula that are more oriented towards the marketplace, the virtual age, and communicative competence by a hybrid integration that produces students with high grammatical and communicative competencies.

5. References

Abou-El-Kheir, A., & MacLeod, P. (2017). English Education Policy in Bahrain – A Review of K-12 and Higher Education Language Policy in Bahrain. In R. Kirkpatrick (Eds.), *English Language Education Policy in the Middle East and North Africa*. (pp. 9-32). Cham: Springer.

Alghammas, A. (2020). Advancing Grammatical Accuracy of EFL Students in Web-based Writing. *TESOL International Journal*, 15 (3), 83-110.

Al-Mahrooqi, R. & Tuzlukova, V. (2014). English Communication Skills and Employability in the Arabian Gulf: The Case of Oman. *Pertanika Journal of Social Science and Humanities*, 22 (2), 473-488.

Aloraini, N. (2018). Investigating Instagram as an EFL learning tool [Special issue]. *Arab World English Journal*, 4, 174-184.

Archer, E., and Y. Chetty. (2013). Graduate Employability: Conceptualisation and Findings from the University of South Africa. *Progression,* 35 (1), 134-165.

Archer, W., & Davison, J. (2008). Graduate employability. *The council for industry and Higher Education*, 1-20. Available at:
www.cihe-uk.com/docs/PUBS/0802Grademployability.pdf.

Bhatia, V. K., & Bremner, S. (2012). English for business communication. Language Teaching, 45(4), 410-445.

Bharathi, A., 2016. Communication skills-core of employability skills: Issues and concerns. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, 6 (4). Available at:

https://doi.org/10.18870/hlrc.v6i4.359.

Coniam, D., & Mak, B. (2008). Using wikis to enhance and develop writing skills among secondary school students in Hong Kong. *System*, 36(3), 437-455.

Clement, A., & Murugavel, T. (2015). English for Employability: A Case Study of the English Language Training Need Analysis for Engineering Students in India. *English Language Teaching*, 8(2), 116-125.

Crystal, D. (2006). How Language works. London: Penguin Books.

D'Andrea, L. P. (2020). Using writing to develop communication competence in the foreign language classroom. Brazilian English Language Teaching Journal, 1 (2), 139-146.

David, M. E., David, F. R., & David, F. R. (2021). Closing the Gap between Graduates' Skills and Employers' Requirements: A Focus on the Strategic Management Capstone Business Course. *Administrative Sciences*, 11(1), 10.

Deloitte Foundation. (2019). *Employability skills*, www.deloitte.co.uk/employability (Accessed on 5 March 2021).

Derntl, M. (2009, August). Understanding and facilitating student bloggers: Towards a blogging activity model. In *International Conference on Web-Based Learning* (pp. 140-149). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

Down, C. M. (2003, December). Employability Skills: Revisiting the Key Competencies or a new way forward. *In Proceedings of the 11th Annual International Conference on Post-Compulsory Education and Training, Queensland, Australia, Centre for Learning Research, Griffith University* (pp. 171-178).

Down, M. (2003). *Employability Skills: Revisiting the Key competencies or a New Way Forward?* https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Employability-Skills%3A-Revisitingthe-Key-or-a-new-Down/ac1588be6c748196a55a9d4eed72979be77c23d0 (Accessed on 5 March 2021).

Durga, V. S. S. (2018). The Need of English Language Skills for Employment Opportunities. *Journal for Research Scholars and Professionals of English Language Teaching,* 2 (7), 1-5.

Dalmer Fisher. 1999.Communication in Organisations. *Business Communication*: West Publishing Co. Mumbai: Jaico Publishing Hse.

Hinchliffe, G., and A. Jolly. 2011. "Graduate Identity and Employability." *British Educational Research Journal,* 37 (4), 563–584

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride and J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (269-93), Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Glass, A., Landsburgh, H., Quashie, A., & McGregor, A. (2008). The work readiness of recruits from colleges and universities in Scotland.

Griesel, H., & Parker, B. (2009). *Graduate attributes: A baseline study on South African graduates from the perspective of employers.* Pretoria: Higher Education South Africa.

Gunn, V. Bell, S and Kafmann. K. (2010). Thinking strategically about employability and graduate attributes: Universities and enhancing learning for beyond university. *Enhancement themes.* QAA. Available at http://www.enhancementthemes.ac.uk/documents/G21C/Employability_230210.pdf

Hameed, P. F. M., (2020). Saudi EFL Students' Beliefs on Communicative Language Teaching. *TESOL International Journal*, 15 (3), 6-20.

Harvey, L. (1999). Employability: Developing the relationship between higher education and employment. *Quality in higher education*, 1-14.

Harvey, L. (2000). New Realities: The Relationship between Higher Education and Employment. *Tertiary Education and Management* 6, 3–17 https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1009685205201

Harvey, L., Moon, S., & Geall, V. (1997). Graduates' Work: Organisational Change and Students' Attributes. *Centre for Research into Quality*. http://www.ce.acu.uk/crq/publications/gw/gwcon.htm

Jihyeon, J. (2009). Key issues in applying the communicative approach in Korea: Follow up after 12 years of implementation. *English Teaching*, 64(4), 123-150.

Kassem, M. A. M. (2017). Developing business writing skills and reducing writing anxiety of EFL learners through wikis. *English Language Teaching*, 10(3), 151-163.

Kirkpatrick, A., & Sussex, R. (2012). English as an international language in Asia: implications for language education.

Krishnapatria, K. (2020). From 'Lockdown' to Letdown: Students' Perception of E-learning amid the COVID-19 Outbreak. *ELT in Focus*, 3(1), 1-8.

Krizan, A.C., Merrier, P., & Jones, C.L. (2002). *Business communication*. Cincinnati: South-Western.

Lankard, B. A. (1990). Employability--The Fifth Basic Skill. ERIC Digest No. 104.

Lee, L. (2014). Digital news stories: Building language learners' content knowledge and speaking skills. *Foreign Language Annals*, 47(2), 338-356.

Lin H.Y., (2020). The Impact of Global English: Perceptions of English Promotion, English Education and the ELT Industry in Taiwan. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 24 (1), 102-140.

Lowden, K., Hall, S., Elliot, D., & Lewin, J. (2011). Employers' perceptions of the employability skills of new graduates. *London: Edge Foundation.*

Mahfoodh, H. and al-Hashmi, S. (2019). Connecting Research to Teaching in the English Language Classroom. *International Journal of Innovation, Creativity, and Change*, 5(1), 94-105.

McCowan, T. 2015. Should Universities Promote Employability? *Theory and Research in Education* 13 (3): 267–285.

Mey, J. (2006). Pragmatic Acts. In Brown & Keith (Eds.), Encyclopaedia of Language and Linguistics (2nd ed.). *Elsevier, Oxford.*

Mtawa, N., Fongwa, S., & Wilson-Strydom, M. (2019). Enhancing graduate employability attributes and capabilities formation: a service-learning approach. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 1-17. https://doi.org/10.1080/13562517.2019.1672150

Ober, S. (2001). *Contemporary business communication*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin

Othman, H., Wahidin, I. S., Arshad, S. R., & Abd Rahman, K. (2014). Enriching English language skills via blogging activities for employability skills: A preliminary study. In *Proceedings of the Global Conference on Language Practice & Information Technology, Kota Kinabalu, Sabah, Malaysia.*

Öztürk, G., & Aydın, B. (2019). English language teacher education in Turkey: Why do we fail and what policy reforms are needed? *Anadolu Journal of Educational Sciences International AJESI*, 9(1), 181-213.

Park, S. & Wu, M. (2020). Instagram as a Learning and Motivational Tool for Freshmen English Classes at a Private Japanese University. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 24(5), 65-107.

Pheko, M. M., and K. Molefhe. 2017. Addressing Employability Challenges: A Framework for Improving the Employability of Graduates in Botswana. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth,* 22(4), 455–469.

Powell, L., & McGrath, S. (2014). 7 Exploring the Value of the Capability Approach for Vocational Education and Training Evaluation: Reflections from South Africa. In *Education, Learning, Training* (pp. 126-148). Brill Nijhoff.

Petersen, I. H., Kruss, G., McGrath, S., & Gastrow, M. (2016). Bridging skills demand and supply in South Africa: The role of public and private intermediaries. *Development Southern Africa*, 33 (3), 407-423.

RAO, P. S. (2017). Developing Writing Skills among the EFL/ESL Learners. *Research Journal of English*, 2(3), 52-63.

Reddy, V., Bhorat, H., Powell, M., Visser, M. M., & Arends, F. (2016). Skills supply and demand in South Africa.

Richard, J. C. and Renandya. W. A (2002). *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*. Cambridge University.

Salih, S. A. (2020). Integrating Soft Skills in EFL Teacher Education. *International Journal of Multidisciplinary Sciences and Advanced Technology*, Vol 1 (2). p. (1-2).

Singh, S. (2019). Building employability skills in English as a second language (ESL) classroom in India. *THE ENGLISH TEACHER*, Vol. 48 (2), p.12.

Singh, G. K. G., & Singh, S. K. G. (2008). Malaysian graduates' employability skills. *UNITAR e-Journal*, 4(1), 15-45.

Taghizadeh, R. (2020). Pragmatic Competence in the Target Language: A Study of Iranian Learners of English. *The Asian EFL Journal*, Vol. 24 (1), 1-28.

Thomas, A., Piquette, C., & McMaster, D. (2016). English communication skills for employability: the perspectives of employers in Bahrain. *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Gulf Perspectives*, 13(1).

Tumuti, D., Mule, L. W., Gecaga, M., & Manguriu, D. G. (2013). Enhancing graduate employability through community engagement: A case study of students' community service at Kenyatta University. *Journal of Administrative Sciences and Policy Studies*, 1(1), 1-14.

Wang, S., & Vasquez, C. (2012). Web 2.0 and second language learning: What does the research tell us? *CALICO Journal*, 29, 412-430.

Williams, C. (2017). Teaching English in East Asia: A teacher guide to Chinese, Japanese, and Korean Learners. Cham, Switzerland: Springer Nature.

Xiao, Y., & Lucking, R. (2008). The impact of two types of peer assessment on students' performance and satisfaction within a wiki environment. *Internet and Higher Education*, 11, 186-193.

Yorke, M., & Knight, P. T. (2006). Embedding employability into the curriculum (Vol. 3). York: Higher Education Academy.

Constructivist Training Pedagogies for Employability in The Post - COVID19 World of Business

Dr. Harris Saseendran

Program Manager (HR), Commercial Studies Division,

Bahrain Training Institute,

Kingdom of Bahrain, Email: harris.saseendran@bti.moe.bh

Bio-profile:

Dr. Harris Saseendran is a Program Manager for CIPD and NQF Human Resource Management Business Diploma Programs with the Commercial Studies Division at Bahrain Training Institute (Ministry of Education). With over 15 years of work experience in the field of education as well as the HR services industry, Dr. Harris has published various research papers and articles in professional journals and popular magazines including SAGE, 'Bahrain Confidential' and 'Business in Gulf'. He has presented as resource person at international conferences within the areas of Organisational Behaviour, Organisational Culture, HR Management, and Blended-learning pedagogies.

Abstract

The year 2020 faced a global pandemic unlike any witnessed in recent history, sweeping across the world and affecting businesses, families and students alike. While the long-term effects of the epidemic remain to be seen, organizations and educational institutions have realized the need to bring about revolutionary changes in the way we support the learning and development of work skills. This study is conducted to evaluate the effectiveness of blending constructivist approaches with digital tools to support developing the 21st century skills that will be most beneficial for employees to succeed in the organizational environment of the next decade. The research seeks to support educators in refining their approaches to apply suitable pragmatic and digital pedagogies while reflecting on their own training practices. Using the hermeneutic phenomenological method, a conceptual framework was designed with four sub-themes and two major themes that showcased the effectiveness of training sessions through core constructivist active pedagogies such as problem-based learning (PBL). The study concludes with recommendations on linking educational systems to evolve and match the modern digital learning environment, to develop creativity, critical thinking, collaboration and

digital communication skills in the employees of tomorrow.

Keywords: *21st century skills, creativity, critical thinking, collaboration, communication, constructivist active pedagogy, Problem-based Learning (PBL)*

1. Introduction and Statement of the Problem

Living in the 21st century, our lives have drastically changed for the better. As science and technology develops at an accelerating rate, organizations today need employees who have the right skills to thrive in a highly competitive market. Businesses that can adapt to the immense changes happening within their industries survive and flourish while others die out. Educational institutions have been slow to embrace change in keeping up with the fast pace of the industry, until recently. According to a recent survey, almost 97 percent students believe that technology is very important to their success in life, both outside and inside the classroom (Ellucian-Wakefield, 2019). The Covid-19 global pandemic of 2020 has thrust businesses and learning institutions into an unprecedented chaos, unlike any the modern world has seen, forcing us to rethink our traditional teaching and learning strategies (Dhawan, 2020). The development of new skills and the application of new age-technologies is the need of the hour. It is time to retire the centuries' old lecture method of one-way classroom communication and focus on facilitating active learning by inspiring creative solutions and higher order thinking skills for resolving authentic industrial problems. Employees who have only learnt the theoretical concepts to enter the industry find they lack the practical outlook required to function in their jobs. This research seeks to understand vocational learning through the application of technology in the classroom. This study is focused on a hermeneutic phenomenological approach to appreciate the application of problem-based learning (PBL) to develop the 4Cs of 21st Century skills, including creativity, critical thinking, collaboration and communication skills to motivate learning among students while blending technology in the educational sector within the Middle East region.

2. Research Objectives

The researcher set out on this study to achieve the following objectives:
1. To evaluate qualitative data based on practices in teaching and learning using hermeneutic phenomenology.
2. To analyze the results of observable differences in learning between students who

have been subjected to blending core constructivist active pedagogies and regular lecturing.

3. To suggest the application of constructivist training pedagogies to evolve and match the modern digital learning environment, for educators to successfully apply in the classroom.

3. Literature Review

Savery and Duffy (1995) explained constructivist theory in terms of three principles. According to them understanding lies in the way people interact with their environment, learning is stimulated by cognitive conflict, and knowledge evolves through social negotiation and the evaluation of people's understanding. Studies have shown that application of constructivist approaches in education can support teachers to effectively focus on real-life challenges and issues faced by professionals, businesses and the economies of today (Chickering & Ehrmann, 1996). It is time for teachers to explore new and improved ways of conducting teaching sessions in the classroom. Increased interaction and questioning would go a long way in turning the classroom from one that is passive and one-way in communication to a more interactive and effective session. Chickering and Ehrmann (1996) recognized key principles of good teaching practices including encouraging interaction between students and staff, co-operation between trainees, active learning, prompt feedback, focusing on time taken to complete tasks, having high expectations for students as well as showing respect for varied aptitudes. The previous view of teachers being dispensers of knowledge needs to be changed to accept the new-age role of teachers being facilitators (Simelane-Mnisi, 2010). Savery (2006) states that Problem-based learning (PBL) is an instructional approach successfully applied in many disciplines as an instructional learner-centered approach to enable learners to research, assimilate theoretical concepts and practice, and to apply the relevant knowledge and skills to cultivate sustainable solutions to business problem.

Traditionally it was assumed that successful people are those who gain specific skills in particular fields that are in demand. Today we realize that success comes from a more holistic perspective. Bruner (1960) demonstrated that the real purpose of education was not only to transmit knowledge but mainly to enable the process of active cognition and the development of problem-solving skills in the student. He argued that the student would then be able to apply this skill in similar or new scenarios to gain new knowledge, through active learning.

21st-century learning can be understood to be a process of education reform that has the goal to support students develop essential skills to face new-age challenges (Beetham & Sharpe 2013). It was originally developed in 1990 by the US Secretary of Labor which established the Commission on Achieving Necessary Skills to build a national coalition called the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) to combine leading educational research and policy groups and public and private institutions. 21st-century learning was introduced in Bahrain by the Bahrain Education & Training Quality Authority (BQA) as part of the Schools Review Framework to enhance the key skills of the next generation of Bahraini citizens. P21 emphasized four key elements, which include communication, collaboration, creativity, and critical thinking, also known as the 4C's (Aminuddin, 2017). As the importance and application of these skills is still not generally well-known among trainers in the education field, this research seeks to understand the effective development of these skills in trainees.

With the recent pandemic, we realize that education using technology is here to stay. Technology-enhanced teaching and learning is a philosophy which incorporate information communication technologies in the learning environment. It is an important element of modern education (Twigg, 2003). As the students of the new generation have a higher affinity to interact using the digital medium, it is important for teachers to accept technology tools to train students through problem solving techniques (Dervan, 2014). In today's educational sector, schools, colleges, universities and training centres across the world have already accepted the increasingly to support students in effective learning of concepts and theories (Simelane-Mnisi, 2010). New classroom technology tools including the 'Socrative' app and use of smartphones to facilitate active learning in classrooms and improve student performance (Coca and Slisko, 2013; Pata, 2016).

4. Methodology

The research is a qualitative study conducted within the educational sector in the Kingdom of Bahrain. The researcher collected qualitative data within an ethnographic framework to gather an in-depth insight into the ability of students to learn concepts through problem-based learning (PBL) and use of technology in the classrooms. As an educationalist, the researcher's focus of study is to bring out valuable linkages between the application of blending core constructivist active pedagogies using technology and improved results in the classroom. The underlying methodology was that of hermeneutic phenomenology to investigate the experiences of teachers and students with supplementary clarification based

on the researcher's knowledge and theoretical understanding (Ajjawi & Higgs, 2007). Through hermeneutic phenomenology, the effectiveness of students' learning and teachers' ability to communicate the lesson content while handling business subjects were outlined.

In this qualitative research, as shown in table 1, a close scrutiny of the experiences of a number of teachers and students in the educational sector is taken into account. Typical case sampling method was selected as the purposive sampling technique to capture the views and feedback of teachers and students within a selected educational institute. They gathered qualitative data

from research participants through personal interviews which were flexible and based on open- ended inquiry. The researcher aimed to understand the experience (phenomenology) of teachers and students, make sense of it (interpretation) and evaluate the learning that has taken place. Based on personal interviews with students and staff, the recorded transcripts were analyzed for themes and sub-themes so as to throw light on the research objectives.

As the researcher is an educationalist himself, it supported in collecting in-depth data as both the researcher and the participants were comfortable in the work-environment that they were very familiar with. It also allowed him access to observe class sessions and to freely discuss and collect data that was analyzed for the study. Care was taken to avoid own biases in interpreting the findings, based on previous experience as a trainer. The class-sessions that were observed were purposefully chosen to be theory subjects. The observations were done on two occasions, one where the teacher used regular lecture method for teaching and other where problem-based learning was used. The interviews were conducted with teachers who were familiar with activity-based practical training and problem-based learning and who had sufficiently applied the same in their classrooms regularly for at least one semester to develop the 4C skills. Studies have shown that in phenomenology, five to twenty-five samples are sufficient (Creswell, 1998), According to Morse (1994) the sample size should be at least six. Considering these suggestions, it was decided initially to study seven teachers who have good experience in teaching. The researcher then decided to get a varied understanding of the success of problem-based learning, not just from the teachers' own perception and experiences, but also from seven selected students who were attending those sessions. In the case of the interviews, the responses became similar after the 04th participant interviews in the case of teachers and 06th participant student, when respondents kept repeating the same themes. Saturation is the point where little new information is generated by research and the

data is seen to repeat itself (Morse, 1991). In the case of observations, saturation was reached during the third unit, when the results were seen to be similar to the previous unit sessions.

5. Analysis of data

The researcher started by analyzing each interview separately. Significant ideas were tabulated with key words created in the corresponding column linked to the concepts derived in the next column. The analysis progressed from describing the lived experience to evaluating it by pooling all the early keywords and concepts, going from the parts to the whole. The

transcripts of the seven staff participants and seven student participants were collected and analysed individually as well as together in search of explicit and implicit themes. This process followed Van Manen (1990) in segregating thematic statements, Gadamer (1997) in moving from the parts to the whole, the blending of horizons and the hermeneutic circle. Thus, the group thoughts of the participants helped in developing concepts, sub-themes and finally themes relating to the success of problem-based learning through the use of technology.

Open-ended questions were employed to encourage the teachers and students the chance to freely express themselves. This helped them not to limit their answers and pour out what they feel openly so as to elaborate the full picture of their experience. Additional questions were framed depending on the answers of the respondents. The respondents were allowed to choose the venue in which they could be interviewed. Majority of the interviews and all of the observations were completed within the educational institution. Two teachers were interviewed outside their workplaces, inside their house, and in a coffee-shop. Following the process above, the sub-themes and themes underwent further review. It took around one month to ensure that the words, phrases and themes were as close to the data as possible.

Table 1: Participants interviewed for the study

#	Subject / Unit	No. of Staff	No. of Student
1	Subject A	01	03
2	Subject B	01	02
3	Subject C	01	02
4	Subject D	01	0
5	Subject E	03	0
	Total	07	07
	Number of participants interviewed	**14**	

5.1. Development of the Major and Sub-Ordinate themes for the Super-Ordinate Theme 'Trainer-trainee partnership'

In order to provide a richer context of the research, below are samples of interview transcripts that reveal sub-themes and major theme that supported in understanding the key teaching and learning strategies. The identities of the participants have been hidden and replaced with numbers to protect their privacy. Based on the responses of participants, as shown in the following tables, keywords were chosen that were developed into concepts based on which sub-themes and major themes were established corresponding to two super-ordinate themes.

Table 2: Development of the Major Theme # 1

Trainer 3: "Our vocational training programs are based on Problem-based learning systems where we continuously use scenarios and issues to make students to evaluate the possible outcomes and solutions. This approach is used not only in our class-sessions but also in almost all our assessments, whether in quizzes, tests or assignments."

Trainer 4: "The best way to make students understand the topic is to discuss business problems. Our system of conducting regular formative activities and assessments really makes a big impact on the performance of students."

Student 6: "As I have not worked in a company before, I find it easier to relate with the industry when case-studies are conducted by the teacher in class. The cases show business problems and force us to analyze possible solutions."

Concept: Focus on 'problem-based learning' approaches where the class sessions, syllabus and assessments are based on issues faced by the industry so as to allow trainees to explore and evaluate possible solutions based on concepts learnt.

Resulting sub-theme 1: **Snags and Solutions approach**

Trainer 2: "The use of 'Socrative' to assess trainees in their ability to relate concepts learnt and to quiz them on latest market trends is very useful. The app provides a very simple to use interface that is engaging and challenging."

Trainer 3: "As we take online classes, I have tried to use Microsoft Forms in a more engaging and practical way to conduct quizzes. I've noticed very positive results.

Trainer 5: "The institutional account to use Microsoft Teams learning management system during the current pandemic, is very useful to support in training, to upload all unit related material, PPT slides, hand-outs and revision notes. I feel sometimes that online sessions can sometimes become even more effective than the earlier regular classes, as I'm able to give trainees activities to search for information online, which allows the trainee to be involved and more engaged.

Student 1: "Classes with Kahoot is really a lot of fun. I see everyone becoming energetic when the teacher uses it. I also feel the short- online quizzes using Microsoft Teams is better than the quizzes we used to have earlier using paper and pen. It's quicker and we get to know the correct answers immediately after the end of the quiz."

Student 5: "I really enjoy the morning ice-breaker at the beginning of classes where the teacher updates us about the latest news in business by sharing her screen with a news-article presented. It wakes up even the laziest trainee in class.

Concept: Teachers who take efforts to apply new-age technology tools support more effective student development.
Resulting sub-theme 2: **Techno class**

As both the sub-themes are focused on motivating the student to interact and communicate, the ensuing major theme is about student -centered sessions.
Resultant Major Theme of sub-themes 1 and 2 titled as: **Learner bullseye**

Table 3: Development of the Major Theme # 2

Trainer 1: "There is a natural difference in giving created scenarios and real-business problems for students to reflect on. I've found students more engaged when we discuss actual business challenges and news from the current market. I often take news-articles that showcase business failures and challenges to share student opinions, in order to make them evaluate the concepts discussed earlier."

Student 4: "The company Blackberry was one of the biggest in mobile phones until all companies moved to touch-screen phones. I learnt that they lost because they were slow to change. It's interesting to learn such things and I understand the concept of 'Change Management' better now."

Student 6: "When the teacher makes us answer questions based on realistic scenarios, it helps us understand how to handle real issues which would give us be better employees."

Concept: Analysis of real-life business problems and scenarios supports trainees in understanding the concepts learnt.

Resulting sub-theme 3: **Real-life reflection**

Trainer 1: "It's good to have real-life cases. But I feel more important is to provide students a lot of practice in engaging with the concept and to make them think on recommendations to solve related issues. A lot of practice cannot be done with real-life problems often as the trainers may face difficulty searching for business cases that match every topic being discussed. Therefore, trainers can use their creativity to come up with suitable artificial scenarios and problems."

Trainer 7: "Learning through problem-solving requires a structure to be following during lesson-planning. A 'starter' activity at the beginning or anytime during the session which ignites to think about the topic is always very effective. Activities can be done repeatedly in different parts of the class, in order to practice what is being learnt."

Student 3: "Our marketing teacher begins every class by asking questions on the topics from the previous day. So, we are forced to study, to answer her questions.

Student 5: "Since all our online class-sessions are recorded and we can download from Microsoft Teams, it helps me to listen to the lecture many times to learn some difficult subjects. Listening many times to the lecture is also useful to study and revise for Tests and for writing the Assignments."

Concept: By properly structuring the lessons to practice problem-based learning, the teachers can repeatedly provide students opportunities to communicate and practically learn the topic.
Resulting sub-theme 4: **Practice perfection**

As both the sub-themes are focused on structured-lesson design, the ensuing major theme is fixed to be about pedagogical planning.
Resultant Major Theme of sub-themes 3 and 4 titled as: **Lesson architecture**

According to Ajjawi and Higgs (2011), the process of interpretation includes immersion, understanding, abstraction, synthesis and theme development, illumination and illustration of phenomena, and integration and critique. The major themes were taken from the responses of the respondents to make sense of how the class sessions were impacted by a

constructivist training pedagogy. Implications and recommendations were pointed out by the researcher for each theme. Based on the participants' inputs the researcher was able to finalize a set of teaching and learning factors that played the key role in the ability of trainers to successfully transfer the required knowledge and skills to students.

Out of the four sub-themes in the super-ordinate theme of 'Trainer-trainee partnership', it was found that two of the sub-themes 'snags and solutions approach' and 'techno class' were both related to the major theme 'learner bulls-eye' as they targeted solutions to engage effective learning in students. The other major theme, 'lesson architecture' focused on structured-lesson design. It was based on the sub-themes 'real-life reflection' and 'practice perfection'.

5.2. Observations of training sessions

The researcher then proceeded to observe some of the class sessions. The classes were observed twice, one session during a regular lecture of a selected topic in the unit and one session during a constructivist pedagogy, based on problem-based learning delivery. A total of three units were observed with 43 participants. The constructivist pedagogy sessions were found to be more effective.

Table 4: Participants observed during the study

#	Subject / Unit	No. of Staff	No. of Student
1	Subject B	02	25
2	Subject D	01	04
3	Subject E	01	10
	Total	*04*	*39*
	Number of participants observed		**43**

6.   Discussion of findings, recommendations and conclusion

The data was analyzed based on interviewing teachers and students and observations of class- sessions to find the effective classroom methods of facilitating learning. The interviews yielded four sub-themes in the super-ordinate theme of 'Trainer-trainee partnership'. Based on the responses the first sub-theme was 'Snags and Solutions approach' which highlighted that class sessions were effective when focus was on designing the classroom pedagogy to support students in analyzing the concepts as problems to be solved and scenarios that supports trainees in learning through decision-making for specific issues. The next sub-theme was 'Techno class', which revealed that teachers who take efforts to apply new-age technology tools in effective ways would be able to support more positive student

development. Both these sub-themes were found to be related to the major theme 'Learner bulls-eye' as they targeted solutions to engage effective learning. It was a result of findings that showed that a

clear focus on student-centered sessions produced better results. The other major theme, 'Lesson architecture' focused on structured-lesson design. This was a result of the sub-themes 'Real- life reflection' where the class sessions, syllabus and assessments are designed based on problems faced by the industry so that trainees can evaluate possible solutions; as well as the sub-theme 'Practice perfection' which revealed that when teachers had properly structured their lessons to focus on pragmatic pedagogy that allowed students to visit the concept and practice solutions repeatedly, they can not only grab the attention of the students, but also ensure effective learning.

Based on the responses from the participants of the hermeneutic phenomenological study, a model was developed to showcase the key themes that were brought out as shown below. Each of the respondents' responses were tabulated to corresponding themes and these were analyzed to map the elements that evidenced effective development of knowledge and skills in students. The major themes that were developed as a result were seen to be supporting improving the relationship between trainers and trainees. This supported in trainees' effective engagement thereby resulting in trainers being able to transfer specialized knowledge and skills while trainees develop themselves professionally to match the needs of the modern industry of tomorrow.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of effective session delivery using problem-based learning solution
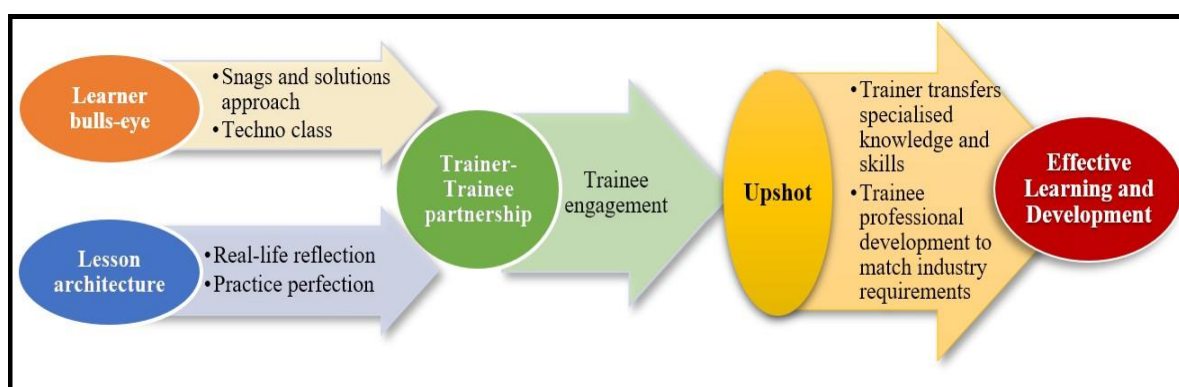
During the observation of the class sessions, three units were observed twice. One of the sessions observed for each unit was during a regular lecture of a selected topic in the unit and the other session was when problem-based practical sessions were being conducted

using formative activities and assessments. There was a major difference in responses between class sessions where lecture method was used as well as sessions where a constructivist pedagogy like problem-based learning was applied. Similar to the interviews and themes that were identified, the researcher was able to conclude from the observations that formative assessments and activities that challenged students with business problems engaged them and made them apply concepts to find suitable solutions. In order to assess the difference in effectiveness, quizzes were deployed after each observation. There was a significant improvement of 76% pass results in the constructivist learning sessions compared to 59% results during the lecture-based session. The teachers found improved learning when they were conscious to increase student opportunities to better develop the core 21st century skills including communication to motivate students to participate, collaboration through team-activities, critical thinking by solving problem-based activities and creativity by encouraging out-of-the-box solutions to make decisions.

During the observations, it was also noted that the use of technology including apps such as 'Socrative' and 'Kahoot' was seen to be a boon to develop trainees' understanding and skills. For 'Socrative', the 'Space Race' feature was found to support student collaboration, thereby promoting team-work, analytical skills to solve real-life and simulated organisational problems and challenges using their mobile phones. In order to motivate constructivist active learning, another feature of the app is the 'voting feature' which can be used to brain-storm for ideas when dealing with complex business problems that can have multiple solutions. This feature lists on the screen all solutions and ideas proposed by students on their mobile phones. Finally, the whole class can vote for the top ideas and solutions in order to reach a valid conclusion for the given problem. Another feature of the app was the 'Exit Ticket' which allowed the trainer to collect student feedback for a plenary session, in order to ascertain the effectiveness of the problem-based learning session.

During the pandemic since many of the top institutions in the Kingdom of Bahrain shifted to online sessions using Microsoft Teams, some of the features of this application too were found to be very effective in improving collaboration and creative thinking. In some cases, the 'One Note' Class Notebook feature was found to be useful for trainees and the trainer to freely express themselves and respond to each other. Also, the ability to create 'channels' and 'break-out rooms' within the class-group and to divide trainees into each

room for conducting class-activities and discussions was found to be very engaging for the trainees as well. Effective application of more traditional technology tools such as the use of PowerPoint slides were also seen to show an increased response rate. The Microsoft 365 application brought many new features to PPTs which greatly improved their ability to cater to students' learning. One of the unique elements that was found during observations which was not revealed during the interviews was that the rate of transfer of knowledge and skills was faster during activities that were conducted in the form of games. The creative application of web-based tools supports teachers to use Game-based learning (Alaswad,& Nadolny, 2015), thereby allowing students to have fun while developing their collaboration and critical thinking skills. As more and more trainers use these tools in their sessions, those who do not apply such tools will be left in a competitive training environment with students who are less engaged in their sessions in comparison to others. Games can also include use of props such as dices, charts, and even toys that were used in a competitive spirit with students divided into teams to create probability and chance scenarios where students can participate to solve given business issues and problems. In one of the cases, a teacher was found to motivate under-graduate students compete in teams while playing with remote-controlled cars. Each team got a chance to move their cars forward, every time they analyzed a business problem and gave reasonable solutions.

The study revealed the effectiveness of applying scenarios, technology, formative activities, and continuous assessments in the classroom as part of a constructivist pedagogy. The researcher found that traditional lecture-based methods of transferring knowledge and skills has a limited scope compared to the vastly improved methods available to motivate students to evaluate business problems and find solutions. Although many teachers may be comfortable in following directive and authoritative approaches, this study showed that students generally respond well to sessions designed to encourage non-directive approaches through discovery and critical thinking and to the possibility of gaining a higher level of agency and responsibility (Eleftheriou, 2019).

Based on the study, the researcher discussed the findings with the divisional trainers involved in teaching various subjects. The use of FILA table in the constructivist learning process (Hmelo-Silver, 2004) was explored. The researcher devised potential solutions for the key problems and challenges faced as summarized below. Based on the actions suggested, the concerned training division within a institution was suggested to begin a

Program Review process to incorporate updates to the programs, lesson plans and training pedagogies. Also workshops and training sessions for teachers have been suggested to share and highlight positive problem-based training practices.

Table 5: FILA table listing problems in education and actions to be taken

Facts (problems in situations)	Ideas (issues of problems)	Learning Outcomes (Ways to overcome problems)	Actions (steps taken to solve the problems)
ICT has become an important part of teaching and learning	Teachers have not updated skills to effectively apply technology in teaching and learning	How to update the teacher's skills in ICT?	Workshops and training programs related to ICT in teaching and learning.
Lack of focus and boredom among students to learn	Class sessions focus on passive lecture method which is more apt for teaching theoretical concepts.	How to keep the students engaged and develop their core skills?	Radical change in the programs, unit syllabus and assessment methods being used. More focus on constructivist and pragmatic problem-based unit content and assessment methods.
Students require practical knowledge and skills to solve real-life organizational problems		How to transfer problem-solving practical skills to students?	
Grades of students does not reflect their ability to succeed in the industry	Current assessments provide more focus on testing student's ability to memorize concepts and theory.	How to ensure that students are assessed on their ability to solve organizational issues?	More focus on continuous formative-assessments and practical activities that develop 4C 21st century skills and problem-solving skills of students.

Based on the findings, teachers are recommended to find creative new ways to connect their subject topics and theories to relate them with what is happening in the industry. Since application of constructivist learning techniques is a bigger challenge for theoretical programs and subjects, news articles, business sales trends, marketing promotions and organizational case-studies can be applied through structured lesson planning pedagogies. Teachers also need to ensure that their session focus is not only on the subject or topic itself, but also on the holistic growth of the student, to allow development of his/her communication, collaboration, critical thinking and creativity. This approach can include an ice-breaker or starter, formative assessments and activities during the session and an end of class plenary to review the understanding of trainees. Since mobile phone technology has become an indispensable part of our lives, various apps and online websites can also be considered in supporting education through involvement and interaction of students in solving business problems.

As studies done in other parts of the world by researchers found perceived improvement

in the technology skills and study skills of students using Project-Based Learning (Nanni & Pusey, 2020), similar studies can be conducted within Bahrain and the Middle East environment too. Based on the findings of Gangalakshmi & Naganathan (2019), teaching effectiveness can be maintained using self-analysis of previous experience and developing one's own pedagogy while matching with the learning outcome requirements of the subject. The research shows that reflective teaching will support development of students' skills.

Kivunja (2015) had adapted examples on how Bruner's (1960) 5E lenses of Engagement, Exploration, Explanation, Elaboration and Evaluation could be applied to successfully develop each of the 4Cs of 21st Century Skills. To conclude this research, these lenses have been adapted into the below tables below to highlight their use in designing practical activity-based sessions relating digital tools to cater to today's technology-based learning environment while supporting a constructivist training pedagogy. It is expected that the following five tables can be effective in supporting trainers to cater to their subject learning outcomes using technology in creative new ways while achieving the 21st century skills required for students in the new age.

Table 5. Teaching the 4C's super skills through Bruner's *E*1: *Engagement Lens*

4C super skill	Examples of *Engagement* student activities
Critical thinking & problem-solving	
	Creating & innovating
Communicating	
Collaborating	

- Tell how and why previous learning is relevant to the present topic.
- Connect your thoughts to new learning
- Agree or disagree over an issue and give reasons for own position.
- Debate to defend your position about an issue in society
- Use Internet resources to illustrate and communicate original ideas and stories

- Online discussion why previous knowledge is essential for current learning

- Trainees & trainers actively/attentively listen to each other's points of view
- Ask questions on the topic
- Illustrate and communicate your original ideas using digital technologies.
- Trainees communicate information which helps fellow students to troubleshoot a
  business challenge to increase their efficiency

- Trainees are given a problem to plan and work as a team using 'K-W-H-L chart'
  - ○ K: what each one *Knows*
  - ○ W: *What* each team member wants to know
  - ○ H: *How* each member will find relevant data
  - ○ L: what each team member will have *Learnt*
- Working in teams of 3-5, search the Web for data on the day's topic and discuss
  how they relate
- Engage in learning activities with employees or students from other institutes/ countries

- Students engage in inquisitive activities (ex. how can a restaurant manage
  negative publicity?)
- Respond to "what if" type of questions *(ex. what if the Covid19 pandemic lasts for
  up to 4 years?)*
- Come up with an answer different to the one given
- Students are asked to redesign a business product or service
- Using digital video tools, students will compose a digital story about how business
  grew and took over a market due to a creative practice/ technology

Table 6. Teaching the 4C's super skills through Bruner's *E2: Exploration Lens*

4C super skill	Examples of Exploration student activities
Critical thinking and problem solving	
Creating and innovating	
Communicating	
Collaborating	

- Students critique a topic discussed to come up with other interpretations and findings
- Attempt new research to discover new reactions results
- Conduct Internet searches and use the data to explore a product life cycle
- Go on a virtual excursion on YouTube (ex. watch the functions within a business-setup or a field-study of a factory/ mall/ service-centre)

- Talk about relationships among ideas, concepts and themes
- Discuss misperceptions and correct misconceptions
- Probe for deeper understanding of a new trend
- Conduct a whole-class discussion or debate on a controversial topic (men/ women have different roles in the development of society?)
- Students watch a video clip of a leader and discuss the message it conveys
- Discuss the effective use of online resources in training

- Work in teams to study a new topic
- Use given opportunity as a team to monitor and scaffold each other
- Use the Internet to form peer learning networks and virtual learning communities with classmates (using WhatsApp/ SnapChat/ Instagram).
- Work as a team to complete a given project/ assignment.

- Take time to reflect and come up with a new idea.
- Come up with a different opinion about what has been covered previously.
- Download useful resources from YouTube and use them to design something new
- Create a curriculum-specific simulation that will encourage peers to practise critical thinking

Table 7. Teaching the 4C's super skills through Bruner's *E3: Explanation Lens*

4C super skill	Examples of *Explanation* student activities
Critical thinking and problem solving	• Demonstrate how something works (role-play how to improve employee satisfaction) • Present a concept/ theory and explain to the class how it works • Discuss how past learning links to new knowledge • Look for trends, differences in data from online articles • Apply previous knowledge to resolve a current software problem
Communicating	• Explain to the teacher personal understanding of an idea, concept, or issue • Reinforce, support or challenge a view, fact or news collected from news-sites • Conduct an online interview and report the outcome to the class or topic • Describe the results of an online survey (do people buy products displayed on the top shelf of supermarkets less?) • Explain the meaning of a plot in a recent movie. Relate it to the topic being discussed (leadership/ profit/ ethics) • Describe and illustrate a concept using a model
Collaborating	• Conduct a Round-Robin of Four-Ways-Interviews and then discuss among your team the ideas generated by the interviews • In pairs, students chat with each other and probe each other's contribution to develop a deeper and fuller explanation and understanding of the given topic/ case-study • Students challenge each other's contribution to the team (in an activity or assignment) by asking the other members to explain further • Use the Think-Pair-Share Collaborative Strategy (or Think-Pair-Square cooperative learning structure) to solve a given problem or explain a topic to your team-members
Creating and innovating	• Link past events to new learning occurrences • Develop a hypothesis to be tested • Come up with a new theory about current business practices/ human psychology (ex. Moore's Law) • Create a glossary of terms from the topic learnt and explain them to the class • Compose a narrative and explain it • Share a new app/ website/ logo design that can have applications in Bahrain context.

Table 8. Teaching the 4C's super skills through Bruner's *E4: Elaboration Lens*

4C super skill	Examples of *Elaboration* student activities
Critical thinking and problem solving	• Look for deeper meaning of concepts that students are introduced to • Search online for further points connected to or are relevant to what is being learnt • Challenge current understanding by reading the complex concepts from text book • Question students and correct misperceptions • Apply what is taught to solve new problems • Apply theory to real-life experiences in life (how has VAT affected daily life?)
Communicating	• Talk more about a topic that has been discussed previously • Practise using formal language correctly • Discuss extension of a concept • Describe and demonstrate a process • Share own understanding of how a Xbox/ PlayStation game helps in learning • Create a presentation and share it with other students • Trainees record themselves presenting/ planning in a team and the video is played in class for a group analysis.
Collaborating	• Challenge peers in a team to share their views • Work in a team to broaden what is being learnt • Share understandings of what has been learnt • Work together to solve a problem. • Publish to all members of your virtual community a problem you have encountered when learning and seek their assistance • Raise new issues for discussion
Creating and innovating	• Apply skills learned within new contexts • Extend current learning to new areas • Apply knowledge learnt in one Key Learning Area (KLA) to several other KLAs • Design and complete a rich learning task • Trainees share a topic learnt in another unit with the trainer and discuss creative applications/solutions to cater to both topics. • Plan contingency scenarios for businesses assuming various disasters and challenges. • Create a video documenting a community event in which the team participated and supported a group (improving knowledge of school kids, supporting elderly etc.)

Table 9. Teaching the 4C's super skills through Bruner's *E5*: *Evaluation Lens*

4C super skill	Examples of *Evaluation* student activities
Critical thinking & problem-solving	• Reflect on what they have learnt and discuss its value in real life • Complete a Plus, Minus, Interesting (PMI) model of a topic they have learnt • Debate a current controversial issue in the news online and try to solve it while considering the arguments of both sides. • Link or show connections between current class work and solving problems in the industry. • Complete a Cost-Benefit Analysis of a business issue. • Complete a self-assessment exercise following the completion of a major task or project • Recognize bias in resources available on the internet. • Debate between trainees to highlight alternative views of thinking. • Conduct a team-presentation to criticize the business decisions made by top companies and suggest how those problems could have been avoided.
Communicating	• Demonstrate mastery of certain learning in an oral discussion. • Discuss the evaluation of a particular task • Evaluate digital resources for use in a named topic and discuss your findings with the class • Select a set of digital tools and justify their value in completing a task
Collaborating	• Complete peer assessment for members in your team • Mentor each other in a team and provide feedback • Use the Kagan's (1994) Jig-Saw structure to evaluate a story • Use collaborative electronic tools to evaluate the topic or unit completed
Creating & innovating	• Prepare an online report about trainees' goals, challenges and plans to become an entrepreneur. • Complete a SWOT Analysis to reflect on how trainees' see themselves • Prepare a new proposal for changes to a unit they are studying / completed. • Create a personal portfolio and assess each other's' portfolio • Complete open-ended assessment tasks with possible multiple answers. • Use digital tools to analyse data and to evaluate a theory learnt • Design a model of legal and ethical behaviours when producing/marketing/transacting online.

References

21st Century Skills. (n.d.). Education & Training Quality Authority, Bahrain. Retrieved from http://www.bqa.gov.bh/En/AboutQaaet/Pages/4thGeneration.aspx

Alaswad Z, Nadolny L. (2015). Designing for Game-Based Learning: The Effective Integration of Technology to Support Learning. Journal of Educational Technology Systems. 2015;43(4):389-402. doi:10.1177/0047239515588164

Aminuddin Baki Institution. (2017). Handbook of 21st Century Learning Implementation. Negeri Sembilan: Aminuddin Baki Institution.

Ajjawi, R., & Higgs, J., (2011). Core components of communication of clinical reasoning: a qualitative study with experienced Australian physiotherapists. *Advances in Health Sciences Education*, 17(1), 107-119. doi:10.1007/s10459-011-9302-7

Beetham, H., & Sharpe, R. (2013). *Rethinking Pedagogy for a Digital Age: Designing for 21st Century Learning.* New York: Routledge.

Bruner, J. (1960). The Process of Education. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Clarke, V. B. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 77-101.

Carol A. Twigg (2003). Improving Quality and Reducing Cost: Designs for Effective Learning, Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 35:4, 22-29, DOI: 10.1080/00091380309604107

Creswell, J.W., (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions* (London, U.K.: Sage).

Coca, D. M., & Slisko, J. (2013). Software Socrative and smartphones as tools for implementation of basic processes of active physics learning in classroom: An initial feasibility study with prospective teachers. *European Journal of Physics Education*, 4(2), 17- 24.

Dhawan S. (2020). Online Learning: A Panacea in the Time of COVID-19 Crisis. *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*. 2020;49(1):5-22. doi:10.1177/0047239520934018

Eleftheriou, M. (2019). Multilingual, Middle-Eastern Students' Varied Responses to Directive and Non-directive Strategies in Peer Tutoring [Abstract]. *TESOL International Journal, 14*(1), 62-76. Retrieved August 28, 2020, from https://www.elejournals.com/tesol-journal/tij-2019/tesol-international-journal-volume-14-issue-1-2019/.

Ellucian-Wakefield. (2019). *Credential clout: How higher ed can prepare for an evolving job*

market. Retrieved from Ellucian: https://www.ellucian.com/assets/en/white-paper/credential-clout-survey.pdf

Chickering A, & Ehrmann S.C. (1996). Implementing the seven principles: Technology as lever. *AAHE Bulletin,* October, 3-6.

Dervan, P. (2014). Increasing in-class student engagement using Socrative (an online Student Response System). *AISHE-J: The All Ireland Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education,* 6(3), 1801-1813.

Gadamer, H., Heinemann, R., & Krajewski, B., (1997). *Gadamer on Celan: "Who am I and who are you?" and other essays.* (Albany, NY: State University of New York Press).

Gangalakshmi, C., & Naganathan, R. (2019). Reflective Teaching – A Source for Reconstituting Teaching Pedagogy [Abstract]. *The Asian EFL Journal, 23*(3.2), 16-17. Retrieved August 19, 2020, from https://www.elejournals.com/asian-efl-journal/asian-efl-journal-volume-23-issue-3-2-may-2019/.

Hmelo-Silver, C. E. (2004). Problem-based learning: What and how do students learn? *Educational Psychology Review,* 16(3): 235-266.

Kivunja, C. (2015). Teaching, Learning and Assessment: Steps towards Creative Practice. Melbourne: Oxford University Press. (In Press)

Kivunja, C. (2015). Exploring the Pedagogical Meaning and Implications of the 4Cs "Super Skills" for the 21st Century through Bruner's 5E Lenses of Knowledge Construction to Improve Pedagogies of the New Learning Paradigm. Creative Education, 6, 224-239. http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/ce.2015.62021

Morse, J. M., (1991). Strategies for sampling. In J. Morse (Ed.), *Qualitative nursing research: A contemporary dialogue (Rev. Ed.)* (Newbury Park, CA: Sage), pp. 117-131

Nanni, A., & Pusey, K. (2020). Leveraging Students' Digital Literacy through Project-Based Learning [Abstract]. *The Asian EFL Journal, 24*(1), 141-164. Retrieved September 21, 2020, from https://www.elejournals.com/asian-efl-journal/volume-24-issue-1-january-2020/.

Partnership for 21st Century Learning. (2019) "Framework for 21st Century Learning," Retrieved October 29, 2020 from http://static.battelleforkids.org/documents/p21/P21_Framework_Brief.pdf

Pata, K. (2016). Problem-based learning in task-based and inquiry scenarios. Retrieved June 15, 2019, from https://creativeclassroomproject.wordpress.com/creative- classroom-collection/problem-based-learning/

Rucker, M. (2016). *3 Straightforward Methods for Analyzing Qualitative Interview Data.* Retrieved June 27, 2019, from unstick.me: https://unstick.me/3- straightforward-methods-for-analyzing-qualitative-interview-data/

Reeves, Scott & Kuper, Ayelet & David Hodges, Brian. (2008). Qualitative research: Qualitative research methodologies: Ethnography. BMJ (Clinical research ed.). 337. a1020. 10.1136/bmj.a1020.

Savery, J. R. (2006). Overview of Problem-based Learning: Definitions and Distinctions. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning*, 1(1). Available at: https://doi.org/10.7771/1541-5015.1002

Savery J.R., & Duffy T.M. (1995). Problem-based learning: An instructional model and its constructivist Framework. http://crlt.indiana.edu/publications/duffy_publ6.pdf pp 35-38.

Simelane-Mnisi, S. (2010). Technology-Enhanced Problem-Based Learning Methodology in Geographically Dispersed Learners of Tshwane University of Technology. *Knowledge Management & E-Learning: An International Journal, Vol.2, No.1.*, 68-82.

Van Manen, M., (1990). Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy. (London, ON, Canada: Althouse Press).

Incorporating Creativity and Communication Skills among the Students of Media Department

Rizwana Wahid

King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Shanjida Halim

King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Tanzina Halim

King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Bio-profiles:

Rizwana Wahid is currently working as an Assistant Professor at the English Language Centre, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia. She has been teaching English to undergraduate students since 2008. She has earned her Ph.D. in English from Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. Her areas of interest are Pragmatics, Syntax, Morphology, and Language Teaching. She has more than ten publications on different topics such as Morphology, Syntax, Pragmatics, Writing Skill, and Cohesion.

Shanjida Halim is working as a Lecturer at the Dept. of English, Faculty of Languages & Translation, King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia. She has an M.A. in English Literature and an M.A. in English Language Teaching (ELT). She is TEFL certified, has a Diploma in TESOL, and a Diploma in Teacher Training from the U.K. She is interested in language teaching and learning and has publications in some International Journals.

Tanzina Halim is working as a Lecturer at the Dept. of English, Faculty of Languages & Translation, King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia. She has an M.A. in English Literature & Language. She is TEFL certified, has a Diploma in TESOL, and a Diploma in Teacher Training from the U.K. She is interested in language teaching and learning and has publications in some International Journals.

Abstract

This paper evaluates a curriculum followed by the Media department at King Khalid University of Saudi Arabia. It critically looks at the learning objectives of the Media curriculum offered to the undergraduate Saudi students and investigates whether the curriculum meets the goals of the students. The researchers have found in the curriculum of the Media department that the focus on life and employability skills should be more. Hence, this research paper aims to focus on the teaching of life and employability skills to these students by incorporating communication and creativity in the curriculum. The significance of this study lies to point out the gaps which already exist in the Media curriculum, and proposes a curriculum to prepare the Saudi students for life and employability skills in the 21st century. It is known that there is no fixed list of life and employability skills to be taught to the learners to thrive in the future, therefore, the researchers have chosen the two most crucial life and employability skills which are communication skills and creativity to be included in the curriculum of the Media department. This study was conducted on 15 teachers who teach or who have taught English to the Media students. These teachers were administered a Likert Scale questionnaire about the importance and necessity of employability skills especially creativity and communication for the Media department students, then it was analyzed by using SPSS (version 26.0). Based on the findings, the study concludes with some recommendations for the curriculum designers to incorporate these two essential skills. Because of a fast-changing world, every education system needs to apply more life skills and employability skills in the learning process.

Keywords: *Communication skill, Creativity, Curriculum, Life and Employability skills, Media students*

Introduction

We are living in a rapidly changing world, therefore, as educators, in formulating learning objectives we need to consider some core skills in our learners that employers expect to have once they graduate. According to Gupta (1999), Selvi (2010), and Gonzales and Bautista (2019), the key for attaining success in a job is the utilization of competencies that includes knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, motivation and beliefs of people. Maclean and Pavlova (2011) claim that education systems do not exist in social and economic isolation and concerning teaching and learning, there is a need to develop new education paradigms and harmony of educational institutions with market. They also believe that the education system must pay special weightage to life and employability skills development for learners so that

they can achieve and perform better in their professional life. They are worried that the current educational systems followed by teachers do not meet the demands of the changing societies sufficiently. As a result, if educators and educational system fail to equip learners with the necessary life and employability skills, it would have far-reaching consequences. It is believed that life and employability skills are learned in the best way once they are integrated in instructional goals, therefore, the attention of instructors needs to be focused on activities to build these skills in the learners. Berryman (1990) notes that too often knowledge and skills are taught in settings that do not reproduce the settings in which the work must be performed. This teaching out of context impedes the transfer of training to settings outside the training context.

Mendoza (2019) stresses that for an educational institution to achieve educational goals and objectives it must change with the changing environment and new methods and techniques necessary to bring results which satisfy the demands of education. It must respond to the increasing pace of innovations and man's constantly changing needs.

UNESCO (2018) and WHO (1999) list the ten core life skill strategies and techniques as: problem- solving, critical thinking, effective communication skills, decision-making, creative thinking, interpersonal relationship skills, self-awareness building skills, empathy, and coping with stress and emotions.

According to Jordan (2019), the seven essential employability skills are positive attitude, communication, teamwork, self-management, willingness to learn, resilience and thinking skills. The list does not end there because Jan Owen (2017) points out other employability skills which are empathy, social responsibility, creativity, problem-solving, presentation skills, digital literacy, financial literacy, bilingual skills and cross-cultural awareness to adapt new cultural environments.

Rationale of the Study

In the Media department at King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia, the curriculum shows that students study Intensive English (Course Code- ENG 011 & 012) for two semesters and English for Media (Course Code- MED 215) for one semester where all the skills such as Listening and Speaking, Reading and Writing are integrated, but the focus is not so much on the media-related fields including newspapers, television, radio and marketing. Besides, the media students are not assigned tasks such as writing headlines, reports, producing advertisements, and scheduling programs. The researchers' attention was drawn to the fact that

studying Intensive English just for two semesters is not enough for the students of Media, especially when the media- related fields are ignored. There should be more courses on communication, i.e. Speaking skill and Writing skill. It was also observed that the Media students were not taught any presentation skills. Moreover, the curriculum of the Media department does not encourage the Saudi students to know or practice the communication skills in English. As a result, there is a lack of core oral and written communication skills in L2. The L1 of the Saudi students is given priority, but in order to be successful as individuals, citizens and workers in the 21st century digital economy, it is essential that Saudi students need to be taught communication skills in the English medium.

Objective of the Study

The objective of the paper is to propose a curriculum for the Media department to prepare the learners for life and employability in the 21st century. Therefore, the researchers have evaluated the curriculum of the Media students which is followed by King Khalid university in Saudi Arabia, and they have critically looked at the objectives of that curriculum whether it meets the goals of the learners or not. It has already been mentioned that there are many life and employability skills which every learner needs to have in this era of change, therefore, this paper will focus on the two skills which the researchers believe to be the most important ones for the media students to cope with the rapidly changing world. The skills are communication/presentation skills and creativity.

Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Are the learning objectives of the Media department realistic?

2. Should the focus on life and employability skills be more in the Media curriculum?

3. Should the core skills courses be taught in Arabic to the Media students?

4. How can the Media students be competent communicatively to face the challenges of the 21st century?

5. Do the Media students need to undertake authentic work activities to interact with a real-work context?

6. Should teachers be given the flexibility for structuring their curriculum and instructional approaches for enhancing life and employability skills in the learners?

Significance of the Study: Although the curriculum of Media Department of King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia, has three courses (ENG 011, ENG 012 and MED 215) for the students, it needs to be updated and enriched. The researchers found that the curriculum could be revised by having some more courses related to life and work skills of the learners. In this regard, the researchers will discuss which employability skills and which courses can be included that would prepare the learners to be globally competent.

Literature Review

There is a lot of research which believe that some capabilities- particularly critical and creative thinking and affective traits such as a positive attitude and a cooperative manner are qualities that people either have or do not have. These studies do not see these qualities as teachable. However, Buck and Barrick state "the good news is that employability skills can be taught, both directly and indirectly" (1987, p.29). For imparting employability skills to students and workers, Gregson et al. (1991), distinguish between democratic instructional approaches and indoctrinational approaches. According to them, democratic instruction raises the consciousness of students about values, attitudes and worker responsibilities. On the other hand, in indoctrinational instruction, "students are given information in such a manner that they are discouraged or prevented from questioning its validity (and) includes pedagogical strategies that minimize student input" (Gregson, 1992, p.63).

Some researchers think that in school settings, employability skills are best learned when classrooms replicate key features of real work settings and student tasks approximate those performed by workers in those settings. These researchers also believe that in classes that effectively teach employability skills, teachers are the facilitators and coaches rather than lecturers and order givers, requiring students to take much of their own responsibility of learning. In all the studies on developing employability skills, the researchers opine that the instructor needs to function as a guide and expert practitioner, and students have to understand that employability skills are important and need to be learned. "All students," writes Stasz, et al., "need to acquire not only knowledge and skills but also a positive perspective on learning that includes their own responsibility for it" (1993, p. 56).

Maclean and Ordonez (2007) argue that "the changes currently occurring in many societies regarding skill requirements for life and work are so profound that there is a need to develop new education paradigms concerning teaching and learning to accommodate the needs of rapidly changing societies" (p. 124).

Talking about enhancing communication skills among first year students at the university, Akindele (2012) says "it is desirable that students are acquainted with these skills (communication skills) while at the university so that they can practice effectively in the world of work." Further, Gonzales and Bautista (2019) find communication, competence and professionalism very essential for the teaching profession.

The relative importance of the studies mentioned above is all the researchers agree that there is no alternative to teaching the important life and employability skills to the learners to thrive in the 21st century. However, these researchers have generalized the skills to be acquired for all EFL learners, not focusing on a particular discipline like Media.

Methodology

Participants

For conducting this study, 15 teachers who teach at present, or who have taught English to the Media students at King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia were chosen. All participants were female teachers. The researchers chose only 15 participants because the research is restricted to Media Studies. Therefore, they took into consideration only this number of teachers from the Media department teaching English or who taught earlier in this department. These subjects ranged in their age from 30 to 50 and had 10 to 20 years of teaching experience. Also they had taught the students of the Media department for more than two years. Their educational qualification was either Master or Ph. D. Some faculties holding higher positions also participated in responding to the questionnaire.

Instruments

The research participants were administered a questionnaire consisting of 10 closed and ordinal items. All these ordinal variables in the questionnaire were prepared on a 5-point Likert Scale starting from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The questionnaire was mainly based on the Media department teachers' observations who felt the need to teach employability skills to the students. These items were discussed with the teachers who had the experience of teaching in the Media department.

Data Collection Procedures and Analysis

The questionnaire was constructed on Google Forms and its link was forwarded to teachers by email and WhatsApp. Within one week, the data were collected. After gathering the data, SPSS (Version 26) was employed to analyze the responses statistically. A tabulation of descriptive

statistics: minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation was prepared to find out Media department teachers' views and opinions about the importance of creativity and communication skills to incorporate into the curriculum as new subjects in the Media department. The responses presenting higher than 4 mean score were considered supporting the hypothesis to a greater extent.

Hypothesis of the Research

This hypothesis of this research paper lies in suggestions to add two important employment skills in the curriculum of Media Studies of King Khalid University. The graduates of this course come into contact with different nationalities and international platforms, therefore, to teach them writing for specific purposes and spoken communication would help them prepare for their profession. The researchers formulated the hypothesis after observing and experiencing the need for creativity and communication skills to be included to improve written and presentation competency to meet the standards of global competence though they study these skills in Arabic. That is perfectly fine to grow in their own country or gulf countries, but for the international platform, they must learn writing and presentation skills in English too because being bilingual or multilingual adds credit to the growth of this profession. Hence, this research tries to prove whether these skills should be added or not based on the collected responses from participant teachers. Further, this hypothesis does not support the hegemony of one language over another language. Whatever it claims, it says purposely for the benefit of students and their professional development.

Limitations of the Study

This study has some limitations. The participants were only limited to 15 female teachers who taught only female students. If male teachers had participated in the study, then that would have helped in throwing some light on the views and perspectives of the male teachers regarding the curriculum of the media department. Moreover, the study was conducted in only one of the universities in Saudi Arabia. If the other universities were included, the results might have been different.

Findings and Discussion

The Table below illustrates descriptive frequencies (minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation) for the opinions of Media department faculties about incorporating creativity and communication skills

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Do you agree that the learning objectives of the Media curriculum needs some modifications to be helpful to the learners?	1	5	3.53	1.125
2. Should the goals of the learners of the Media department be to meet the needs and standards of a professional course?	1	5	3.47	1.302
3. I always think that the focus on life and employability skills should be more in the Media curriculum.	1	5	4.00	1.464
4. I believe that the Media department needs to revise the curriculum for preparing the students to be globally competent.	2	5	4.53	.915
5. I agree that the students of the Media department have a lack of creativity and communication skills to cope up with the challenges of the 21st century.	1	5	3.20	1.897
6. I believe that creativity as an essential skill should be taught in English to the students of the Media department.	1	5	4.27	1.534
7. I suggest that creativity in writing should be incorporated into the curriculum of the Media department.	2	5	4.27	1.033
8. I think that communication skills taught in L1 (Arabic) are not enough for students of a professional course like Media.	1	5	4.07	1.335

9. In my opinion, communication skills should be taught in English to prepare the Media students for their careers.	1	5	4.40	1.298
10. I recommend communication (presentation skill) as a separate course must be introduced to the students of the Media at advanced levels.	2	5	4.60	.910

(1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree)

Table 1

The researchers felt the need to incorporate creativity in writing skills and communication skills to be taught in English to the Media department students to make them globally competent. The gathered data about this need showed most of the Media department teachers were in favor of incorporating these two skills in the curriculum of Media Studies. The participants supported this idea strongly as they scored 4 or more than 4 points on a 5-point Likert Scale in 7 out of 9 variables. They were as follows 3 (M=4, S.D.=1.464), 4. (M= 4.53, S.D= .915), 6. (M= 4.27, S.D= 1.534), 7. (M= 4.27, S.D= 1.033), 8. (M= 4.07, S.D= 1.335), 9. (M= 4.40, S.D= 1.298) and 10. (M= 4.60, S.D= .910). Only three items were less than 4 points. It means some participant teachers showed disagreement and some showed agreement for three items numbered 1. (M=3.53, SD=1.125), 2. (M= 3.47, SD= 1.302) and 5. (M=3.20, SD= 1.897). No variable scored less than 3 points which means the data did not present disagreement of the participants for the proposed idea of the researchers.

The findings of this study clearly proved that the Media department should focus more on presentation and employability skills to prepare its students for the global market (Jordan, 2019). In the curriculum of this department, creativity and communication skills are taught in Arabic, but the results of the study supported that creative writing and communication skills should be taught in English to enable the Media students for the global platform. Throughout the Media course, the students study Intensive English Program (Course Code- ENG 011 and ENG 012) in the first two semesters and English for Media (Course Code- MED 215) for one semester. In Intensive English, they learn the basic rules of Reading, Writing, Listening and Speaking in general context. For English for Media, teachers teach vocabulary and Media. These two courses are not enough to instill creativity and communication skills among students for being ready for their employment. The findings of the current research showed the

respondents favored strongly to incorporate creativity and communication skills in English as a new subject where the students can acquire several techniques of presenting news, hosting shows, taking interviews, reporting news for the development of employment skills (Buck and Barrick, 1987). In addition to this, creativity must also be included in the curriculum to boost communication, writing various news articles, reports, surveys, interview questions and doing research and delivering news competently. Although the Media students are creative enough, without disregarding their L1, they need to learn the presentation skills, life skills and creative writing in English to get better opportunities for their career and cope up with 21st-century challenges (Maclean and Ordonez, 2007). Therefore, the importance of these employment skills can never be denied to make the Media students competent to adopt new life skills. Not only that, Mendoza (2019) claims that students' knowledge of the English language is essential because they would value this global language "as an essential medium for communication in their future work-place in local or international contexts.'' Like Mendoza, the researchers can claim that the Media students need to know about the core skills courses in English, and English should be the medium of instruction-not Arabic. Apart from this, it needs to be mentioned that from time to time teachers should be given the flexibility for structuring their curriculum and instructional approaches for enhancing life and employability skills in the learners as well.

Recommendations

It needs to be remembered that every 21st century skills development will need the development of core academic subject knowledge and there must be an understanding of it in all students.

In order to prepare the media students for real working life, the focus should be more on authentic teaching materials such as newspaper articles, or adapted film scripts.

In the curriculum of the Media department, presentation skills and report writing must be incorporated.

Education policy in the Media department has to value communication skills.

More interpersonal skills such as verbal and nonverbal communication skills must be focused on.

Focus on effective communication skill should be implemented.

Students must be willing to learn and be open to improve their skills and knowledge.

In order to be efficient and effective, students must be ready to take initiative to learn new ideas, concepts, processes, and applications.

Learners need to be self-directed. That is, learners must explore and expand their own learning and opportunities to have expertise.

Learners need to know about social and cross-cultural skills, so that they can effectively interact with diverse teams.

In order to interact with a real-work context, as a part of their undergraduate experience, students need to undertake authentic work activities.

Students can be encouraged in activities regardless the course content being taught at the time and this will increase students' opportunity to learn and demonstrate usefulness in all aspects of life.

Jackson (2013) says that academic practitioners need to ensure work-integrated learning (WIL) by providing authentic learning activities to students.

Teachers need to be given the flexibility in structuring their curriculum and instructional approaches. They should not rigidly follow the texts or syllabus if they do not fulfill the goals of the learners.

Conclusion

The biggest challenge in education in the 21st century is to produce graduates having academic skills, ability in mastering technical skills and balanced employability skills. Educators and educational systems need to provide appropriate life and employability skills to students, so the students do not face unemployment problems and their career development is not hampered. All educators must encourage their students to participate in professional development activities and/or get enrolled in courses that focus on teaching employability skills. From time to time students need to be communicated the importance of work values through classroom instruction. They must remember that in order to communicate and learn effectively, global competence is necessary. As a result, the learners must have a positive attitude towards learning and their academic environments to get their learning outcomes. In this independent world, for preparing the students to live and thrive, the transformation of education is a must. Therefore, the curriculum designers of the Media department at King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia can bring changes in the course contents and revise the present curriculum specifying more focus on life and employability skills.

References

Akindele, D. O. (2012). Enhancing teamwork and communication skills among first year students   at the   university of Botswana. *TESOL Journal, 6,* 2-15. https://tesol-international- journal.com

Berryman, S. E. (1990). *Skills, schools and signals.* Institute on education and the Economy,Teachers College, Columbia University.

Buck, L. L. & Barrick, R. K. (1987). They're trained, but are they employable? *VocationalEducational Journal, 62*(5), 29-31. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ355193

Cotton, K. (1993). Developing employability skills. *School Improvement Research Series.* https://educationnorthwest.org/sites/default/files/DevelopingEmployabilitySkills.pdf

Fajaryati, N. (2020). The employability skills needed to face the demands of work in the future: Systematic literature reviews. *Open Engineering, 10*(1). https://doi.org/10.1515/eng-2020- 0072

Gonzales, R. D. & Bautista, A.S. (2019). Competence, methods, communication skills, techniques   and professionalism among graduate school teachers in a bilingual country. *Asian EFL   Journal, 22*(2), 118-135. https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/AEFL-   APRIL-2019-VOLUME-22-ISSUE-2.pdf

Gregson, J. A. (1992). Effective pedagogical strategies for work attitudes instruction. *Journal of Industrial Teacher Education, 29*(3) 60-79.

Gregson, J. A. & Bettis, P. J. (1991). Secondary trade and industrial education work values instruction: Emancipatory or indoctrinational? Paper presented at the American Vocational Association Convention, Los Angeles.

Gupta, K. (1999). *A practical guide for need assessment.* San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons. Inc.

Jackson, D. (2013). Employability skill development in work-integrated learning: *Barriers and best   practice.   Studies   in   Higher   Education,   40*(2). https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2013.842221

Jordan, K. (26 March 2019). *Employability skills are the heart of the future.* https://www.careers.govt.nz/articles/employability-skills-are-the-heart-of-the-future/

Maclean, R. & Pavlova, M. (2011). Skills development for employability (TVET) in higher education: issues and challenges. *Journal of Asian Public Policy, 4*(3), 321-330. https://doi.org/10.1080/17516234.2011.630226

Maclean, R. & Ordonez, V. (2007). Work, skills development for employability and education for sustainable development. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice,6,* 123-140. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10671-007-9017-y

Mendoza, R. D., Jr. (2019). The influence of English proficiency and academic preparation on career preference of fourth year students in select secondary and vocational schools in Sulu. Asian EFL Journal, 22(2), 157-179. https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/AEFL-APRIL-2019-VOLUME-22-ISSUE-2.pdf

Owen, J. (2017). The new work smarts: Thriving in the new world order. *Foundation for Young Australians.* www.fya.org.au

Selvi, K. (2010). Teachers' competencies. *Culture International Journal of Philosophy of Culture and Axiology, 7*(1), 167-175. https://doi.org/10.5840/cultura20107133

Stasz, C., Ramsey, K., Eden, R., DaVanzo, J., Farris, H., & Lewis, M. (1993). *Classrooms that work: Teaching generic skills in academic and vocational settings*. CA: RAND.

UNESCO (2018). *Pathways of progression: linking technical and vocational education and training with post-secondary education.* http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/FIELD/Beirut/images/Education/

WHO (1999). *Partners in life skills education: Conclusions from a United Nations inter agency meeting*. https://www.who.int/mental_health/media/en/30.pdf

Evaluating EFL Teachers' Self-efficacy and Attitude Towards Web-based Professional Development Practices: A Rasch Analysis

Anita Dewi Ekawati

University of Muhammadiyah Prof. DR. HAMKA

Email: anita.dewieka@uhamka.ac.id

Herri Mulyono

University of Muhammadiyah Prof. DR. HAMKA

https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0668-0268

Email: hmulyono@uhamka.ac.id

Vista Sulaim Arrummaiza

University of Muhammadiyah Prof. DR. HAMKA

Email: vistasulaim10@gmail.com

Siti Zulaiha

University of Muhammadiyah Prof. DR. HAMKA

Email: siti.zulaiha@uhamka.ac.id

Sri Kusuma Ningsih

University of Muhammadiyah Prof. DR. HAMKA

Email: sri_kusuma@uhamka.ac.id

Bio-profiles:

Anita Dewi Ekawati is a lecturer at English Education Department, University of Muhammadiyah Prof. DR. HAMKA (UHAMKA), Jakarta, Indonesia. Currently, Anita is a doctoral student at Universitas Negeri Jakarta, Indonesia.

Herri Mulyono is a senior lecturer at English Education Department, UHAMKA. Herri received his PhD in 2018 from University of York UK. Herri currently chairs the L8 Research Group in the university.

Vista Sulaim Arrummaiza graduated from the English Education Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Pedagogy, UHAMKA, Jakarta Indonesia. Currently, Vista is a teacher at a private school in West Java, Indonesia.

Siti Zulaiha is a senior lecturer at the Graduate School, UHAMKA. Siti obtained her Ph.D from the University of Queensland, Australia. Siti is currently a unit head of quality assurance at the Department of English Education at Graduate School, UHAMKA.

Sri Kusuma Ningsih is a lecturer at English Education Department, UHAMKA, Jakarta, Indonesia. Currently, Sri is a doctoral student at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia, Bandung, Indonesia.

Abstract

Teacher professional development (henceforth TPD) activities play a vital role in improving the quality of education, particularly the quality of instructional activities in the classroom. Although there is plenty of research on the use of online-based technology for teacher professional development, little has been done to measure teachers' self-efficacy and attitude towards online-based professional development in the Indonesian school contexts. The current study is aimed to address this gap by measuring self-efficacy and attitudes towards online-based professional development among EFL teachers at three different school levels, such as primary, lower-secondary and upper secondary school levels. A total of 101 EFL teachers from three levels of education (i.e. primary, lower-secondary, and upper-secondary schools) completed Kao, Tsai, and Shih's (2014) self-efficacy and attitude questionnaire. Statistical analyses using the Rasch model were performed to evaluate the collected data. Findings of the current study have showed that most Indonesian EFL teachers possessed a high level of self-efficacy and attitude towards web-based professional development. Findings of the study also revealed teachers were very positive about the usefulness and the ease of use of web-based technology for professional development, reflecting their acceptance towards web-based professional development. The findings emphasise that the high level of teachers' self-efficacy and positive attitude should be carefully considered in the design and application of web-based teacher training programs. Recommendations are offered based upon the findings.

1. Introduction

Teacher professional development (henceforth TPD) activities play a vital role in improving the quality of education, particularly the quality of instructional activities in the classroom. TPD activities enable teachers to obtain knowledge and encourage teacher learning (Qi, 2012). Teachers' efforts to obtain the required knowledge, instructional competence as well as practices are believed to help teachers themselves to address particular needs of their students (Yurtseven & Altun, 2017) and, in general, educational needs (Bredeson, 2000). Moreover, teachers' knowledge and experiences enable teachers to creating dynamic changes in educational activities at schools (Hermans et al., 2017). Research also suggests that by attending TPD activities, teachers are enabled to improve their quality of teaching and thus enhance students' learning attainment at schools. Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, and Shapley's (2007) review, for example, have showed that TPD activities provide a moderate effect on students' learning attainment at schools in nine studies.

The advancement of information and communication technology (ICT), particularly web technology, has provided teachers with wide access to learning and professional development without having time and space limitations (Kao et al., 2014). Web technology also offers more alternatives for teachers to obtain knowledge, shape their understanding about teaching and to interact with colleagues. Online TPD with the use of web technology is believed to facilitate the development of teachers instructional skills, strategies and improve their technological competence (Chen et al., 2009). Teachers' online groups at Facebook, for example, may also reflect teachers' online communities for professional development enabling teachers to learn together, share their experiences and best practices, and to find alternative solutions for classroom challenges outside their schools (Duncan-Howell, 2010; Macià & García, 2016). A study by Yang and Liu (2004) investigated the benefits and effectiveness of web-based online workshops for creating teacher learning communities. The study revealed that teachers were benefited emotionally and intellectually from attending the workshop. The workshop was observed to provide positive learning effects on the teachers suggesting the value of the web-based professional program in nurturing teachers professional growth.

Research on web-based professional development practices among teachers abounds in literature. Particularly in English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching contexts, Liu and Kleinsasser (2014) investigated the use of web-based asynchronous discussion board as a professional learning tool for seventeen preservice EFL teachers and six in-service EFL teachers. The findings revealed that teachers had a positive perception towards collaborative interaction, reflective practice, and emotional support. Most preservice teachers were observed

to have little opportunity to apply teaching ideas they obtained. In contrast, in-service teachers maintained to delay the report of their classroom application until they achieved success from the application. Kocoglu (2008) explored Turkish EFL student teachers' perception of using an electronic portfolio (e-portfolio) for their TPD tool. The study found that e-portfolio enabled student teachers to stay informed with current technological innovation, maintained their collection of instructional materials, and create a collaboration opportunity with other peers. Although, student teachers were shown to be reluctant to use e-portfolio to develop their reflective thinking ability. A study by Hermans et al. (2017) experimented TPD activities with the use of computer-assisted pronunciation teaching tool (CAPTT) in a dedicated website using Liferay Portal EE (http://www.liferay.com). Seventeen teachers from five schools in the Netherlands participated in the study. They found that teachers needed more time to adapt and use technology to address their classroom needs. Teachers were also shown to be motivated in using a web-based application. Teachers also were observed to develop a willingness to improve the quality of their teaching.

Although teachers' online professional development is practised worldwide (e.g. Bayrakcı, 2009; Khan, 2017; Quigley, 2011; Waheed et al., 2011), face-to-face (F2F) teacher training programs and other conventional TPD activities are still common in many TPD practices across Indonesian schools. Limited budget for TPD and availability of technological infrastructure are still major constraints for Indonesian teachers to participate in online TPD (Sari, 2012). Besides, a study by Widodo and Riandi (2013) has evidenced that many Indonesian teachers prefer to participate in a F2F training program as it provides them with an opportunity to interact with other teachers from different schools directly. Teachers also felt that attending F2F training program allowed them to obtain real training experiences. Our personal experience in providing teachers with hybrid TPD program (combining both F2F and online sessions) in late 2019 also support this claim. Teachers were reported to participate in F2F training sessions, but none attended the online sessions. Such a teachers' preference to F2F professional development, unfortunately, has made them unable to address emerging challenges in the knowledge communities (Sari, 2012). Sari (2012) argues that the conventional method of TPD requires target schools to send a little number of teacher representatives to participate in training programs provided by the government, universities, teacher associations and other communities constraining teachers to develop and exchange knowledge with others.

Literature has identified several factors that constrain teachers from carrying out online professional development, two of which are concerned with teachers' online self-efficacy and their attitude towards online professional development. The term teacher self-efficacy in the

current study is used to reflect teachers' personal belief and expectations in his/her capability to accomplish particular tasks (Bandura et al., 1996). Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) perceive that teachers' self-efficacy is fundamentally their future-oriented justification of their competence on particular domains rather than their actual level of particular ability. Kao and Tsai (2009) believe that teachers' success in web-based related activities is particularly associated with their level of internet self-efficacy. Teachers who were frequent to incorporate the web in instructional activities were reported to have a higher level of self-efficacy (Lee & Tsai, 2010). Moreover, a study by Lin and Lu (2010) has shown that teachers' perceived self-efficacy has a strong correlation with their commitment and efforts to incorporate technology in classroom instruction. It is thus, as Kao et al. (2014) had argued, teachers with sufficient web self-efficacy would likely to enhance their willingness to participate or to engage in a web-based professional program. In addition to self-efficacy, teachers' attitude towards technology plays a critical role in determining their acceptance and use of technology for online professional development. A study by Chien, Kao, Yeh, & Lin (2012), for instance, examined the relationship between teachers' attitude and motivation towards online professional development. This study found that teachers' attitudes and motivation toward online professional development positively correlated with each other, and play<u>ed</u> an important role in using online professional development. Furthermore, findings from Teo's (2012) study shows that teachers' attitude in using computer show a positive attitude and affect their use of technology.

In the Indonesian context, the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture's (MoEC) has supported many public schools with computer laboratories and provided a number of ICT training for the teachers. More importantly, several pre-service and in-service teacher education programs have exercised hybrid learning activities for their students (see for example N. Solihati & Mulyono, 2018; Nani Solihati & Mulyono, 2017). In many schools located in big cities, teachers are believed to have sufficient computer skills and accordingly are expected to carry out teaching and learning activities with the assistance of computer technology. Teachers are also expected to participate in professional development activities that require computer skills. While some authors (e.g. Yuwono & Harbon, 2010) have argued that the foreign language teaching in many Indonesian schools have not yet been successful, there is a strong need for teachers' professional learning, particularly with the support from the advanced use of technology.

There is plenty of research on the use of online-based technology for teacher professional development (e.g. Almekhlafi & Almeqdadi, 2010; Kao, Wu, & Tsai, 2011);

however, little has been done to measure teachers' self-efficacy and attitude towards online-based professional development in Indonesian school contexts. The current study thus is aimed to address this gap by measuring self-efficacy and attitudes towards online-based professional development among EFL teachers at three different school levels, namely primary, lower-secondary and upper secondary school levels.. Particularly, the current study attempted to address the following research questions:

1) Do Indonesian EFL teachers possess sufficient self-efficacy and attitude for web-based professional development?
2) Does the Indonesian EFL teachers' self-efficacy and attitude differ across their gender, teaching level and teaching experiences?

2. Methods

2.1. Participants

To be eligible to participate in the current study, the participants must have been English as a foreign language (EFL) teacher at the primary school level, lower or upper secondary school levels. To collect the data, the researchers identified the potential teacher participants through social media (e.g., WhatsApp personal account and WhatsApp groups). Then, an invitation link to the Google Form was sent to the target participants. A total of 101 EFL teachers completed the questionnaire. They involved 32 (31.7%) primary school teachers, 33 (32.7%) lower secondary school teachers and 36 (35.6%) upper-secondary school teachers; and with 19 (18.8%) teachers were male and the remaining 82 (81.2%) were female.

2.2. Instrument

Kao et al.'s (2014) five-point Likert scale questionnaire was adopted to collect the data for the current study. The questionnaire involved 40 items and was classified into two scales: Web-based Professional Development Self-Efficacy (WPDSE) and Attitudes toward Web-Based Professional Development (AWPD). Table 1 below details each of the scale.

Table 1. Details of the subscales and the item numbers

Scale	Subscale	Operasionalised definition	Items
Web-based Professional Development	General self-efficacy	The general self-efficacy (GSE) scale measures teachers' perceived capability in using online-based tools to complete their web-based assignment	Item no Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7, Q8

Self-Efficacy (WPDSE)	Interaction self-efficacy	The interaction self-efficacy (ISE) scale assesses teachers' perceived ability to interact with instructors or other peers in web-based professional development activities	Item no Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q14, Q15
	Applying self-efficacy	The applying self-efficacy (ASE) scale evaluates teachers' level of confidence in applying what they have studied into the future teaching practices	Item no Q16, Q17, Q18, Q19, Q20, Q21, Q22
Attitudes toward Web-Based Professional Development (AWPD)	Perceived usefulness	The perceived usefulness (PU) scale examines the extent to which teachers perceive the positive impact of web-based personal development	Item no Q23, Q24, Q25, Q26
	Perceived ease of use	The perceived ease of use (PEU) scale measures the extent to which teachers perceive that web-based professional development is easy to use	Item no Q27, Q28, Q29, Q30
	Affection	The affection (AF) scale assess the extent to which teachers favour the web-based professional development	Item no 31, 32, 33
	Anxiety	The anxiety (AN) scale measures the extent to which teachers were anxious when participating in web-based professional development activities	Item no 34, 35, 36,
	Behaviour	The behaviour (BV) scale assesses the extent to which teachers express positive behaviour and willingness to use web-based professional development	Item no 37, 38, 39, 40

In addition to the above items, three demographic questions were added, including gender, teaching level and teaching experience. Prior to the survey, all participants were asked to fill out a consent form.

Kao et al.'s (2014) questionnaire was originally written in English. The questionnaire was translated into the native Bahasa Indonesia by two bilingual researchers to allow the teachers to comprehend the information from each of the questionnaire items. The Indonesian translation then was sent to another researcher to validate the questionnaire. As suggested by Zulaiha and Mulyono (2020), each of the translated items was read and re-read to ensure its readability and to maintain the intended meaning of the original questionnaire.

2.3. Analysis procedure

Several statistical analyses were performed using Rasch modelling method, including Rasch model fit analysis for screening analysis, reliability assessment, person-item mapping and differences. The objective, type of statistical analysis and the threshold value for each analysis are summarised in the following table.

Table 2. Statistical analyses and the measurement criteria

Types of analysis	Objective	Statistical analysis	Measurement criteria and the threshold value
Data screening	To evaluate whether the observed model fit the requirement of the Rasch Model (Ningrum et al., 2019)	Infit and outfit statistics	The acceptable range for Infit and Outfit statistics value between 0.60 and 1.40, and for Z-standardised (Zstd) value ranges between -2 and +2 (Huang et al., 2020; Ling Lee et al., 2020; Mulyono et al., 2020)
Reliability assessment	To assess the potential person reproducibility in a new sample when they are exposed to the same item (Chang et al., 2014).	Person separation reliability test	The person separation index should be higher than 2, and the Cronbach's α is greater than 0.8
Item mapping and bias	To assess potential item difficulty across the participants, and to evaluate potential bias emerged in reference to the participants' characteristics	• Item and person maps • Differential item functioning (DIF)	DIF value greater than 5, and significant

Prior to the analysis, the data were tabulated using Excel, and with the use of WINSTEP application version 4.5.1, the raw scores for each participant were transformed into log odd units (logit).

As discussed earlier, the number of initial teacher participants that completed the questionnaire was 101 EFL teacher participants. The data from 101 participants were screened using Infit and Outfit statistics to fit the Rasch model. It was found that 42 data samples did not meet the threshold for the Mean Square (MNSQ) and Z-Standard (ZSTD) in Infit-Outfit statistics (see Table 1) and accordingly were removed (Linacre, 2010; Mulyono et al., 2020). The remaining 59 samples included 20 primary school (PS) teachers, 20 lower secondary (LS) teachers, and 19 upper secondary school (US) teachers. Many of the participants were female (N=44, 74.6%) and male (N=15, 25.4%). The total of 59 samples still met the recommended threshold for the sample size of minimum 50 participants (Linacre, 1994; Ling Lee et al., 2020; Mulyono et al., 2020).

3. Findings of Rasch analysis

3.1. Reliability of the instrument

The reliability of the questionnaire was assessed using a person separation reliability calculation (Mulyono et al., 2020; Van Zile-Tamsen, 2017). The assessment criteria for the person separation index should be greater than 2 with reliability higher than 0.8 (Linacre,

2018; Van Zile-Tamsen, 2017). The result of person separation reliability for the global scale and subscales of Kao et al. (2014) questionnaires is detailed Table 3 below.

Table 3. Instrument reliability

Scale	G	GSE	ISE	ASE	PU	PEU	AF	AN	BV
Person mean logits	0.41	5.01	2.13	5.09	4.50	3.26	4.97	-0.75	4.81
Person reliability	0.91	0.47	0.75	0.78	0.73	0.82	0.67	0.81	0.85
Person separation index	3.11	.95	1.75	1.87	1.66	2.16	1.42	1.99	2.42

Note: G=Global scale, GSE=general self-efficacy subscale, ISE=interaction self-efficacy subscale, ASE=Applying self-efficacy subscale, PU=perceived usefulness subscale, PEU=perceived ease of use subscale, AF=affection scale, AN=anxiety scale, BV=behaviour subscale.

As shown in Table 3, the global scale was observed to have an excellent reliability level (α = 0.91). The reliability of 'Perceived ease of use', 'Anxiety' and 'Behavior subscales were considered good (α_{PEU} = 0.82, α_{AN} = 0.80, and α_{BV} = 0.85) (Gliner et al., 2017). According to Gliner et al. (2017), a reliability measure with above 0.60 reliability coefficient was still acceptable for use in social research in the educational fields Accordingly, the 'Interaction self-efficacy', 'Applying self-efficacy', 'Perceived usefulness' and 'Affection' subscales were still sufficient for use (α_{ISE} = 0.75, α_{ASE} = 0.78, α_{PU} = 0.73, α_{AF} = 0.67); while the 'General self-efficacy' subscale (α_{GSE} = 0.47) was removed from the analysis. It is critical to highlight that the lower of GSE subscale was likely due to the small number of the samples (N=59) that participated in the current study.

3.2. EFL teachers' level of self-efficacy and attitudes

The descriptive analysis of the person statistics showed the person mean (M_p) was 3.08 logit value (LV), and the person standard deviation (SD_p) was 2.02 LV. In addition, the analysis of the item statistics revealed the item mean (M_i) was 0.00 LV and the item standard deviation (SD_i) was 1.33 LV. Item and person map (also known as Wright Maps) was developed to depict the spread of EFL teachers' perceptions and the distribution item difficulty levels in the questionnaire (see Figure 1). The left side of the map shows the distribution of the measured ability of the respondents from the most able at the top to least able at the bottom. The distribution also describes the EFL teachers' level of self-efficacy and attitude towards the web-based professional development, ranging from the very low level of self-efficacy and attitude (LV < -4.04) to the very high level (LV > 2.02).

In addition, the right side of the map depicts the distribution of the most difficult items at the top (Q3, LV=4.06; Q6, LV= 3.90) to the least difficult item at the bottom (Q1, LV=-

2.30). Interestingly, the subscale 'Anxiety' had three difficulty items (i.e. Q35, Q36, Q34) with two standard deviations above the mean item difficulty (M_i). The three items in the subscale 'GSE' (i.e. Q1, Q2, Q6) were observed to be the easiest items with standard deviations below the mean item difficulty level (M_i). The findings indicate that the questionnaire can be used to measure general self-efficacy (GSE) of EFL teachers in using online professional development, but is difficult to identify the anxiety (AN) of EFL teachers' attitude toward online professional development.

Figure 1
Item-person Wright maps (N=59)
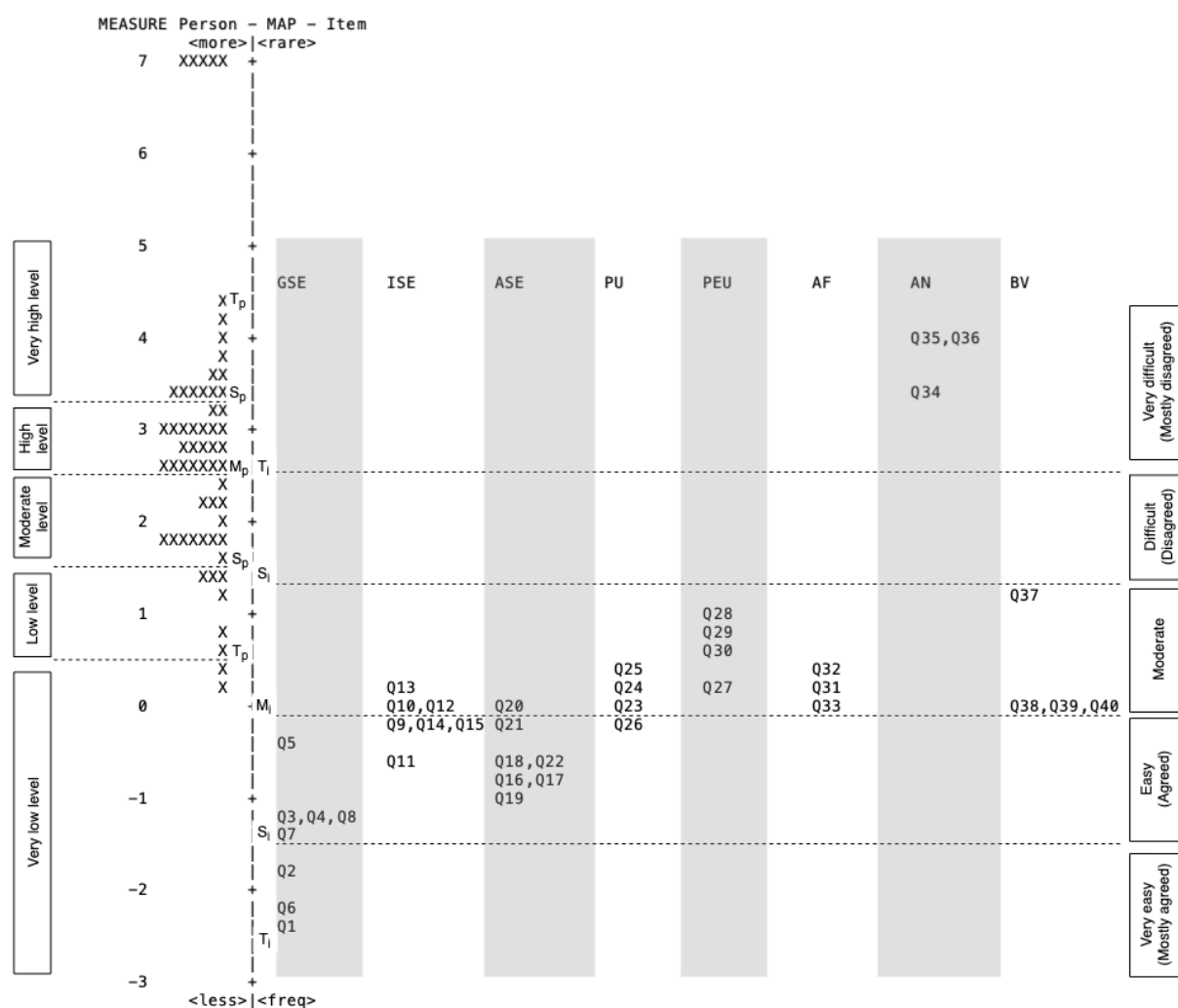
Note: X represents one person, M = mean, S = one standard-deviation, T = two standard deviation of mean

Based upon the person mean (M_p) as well as the person standard deviation (SD_p) shown in Figure 1 above, it was observed that many Indonesian EFL teachers possessed a high level of self-efficacy and attitude that promoted the practice of web-based professional

development. Specifically, teachers' level of self-efficacy remained moderate to a very high level and with positive affection and behaviour (i.e., moderate to high level). It is important to highlight from the findings that 53.7% of the teachers possessed a moderate to a high level of anxiety.

Table 4. EFL Teachers' self-efficacy and attitude level

Sub-scale	Very high level	High level	Moderate level	Low level	Very low level	Total
Interaction self-efficacy	26	10	15	8	0	59
Applying self-efficacy	26	15	11	6	1	59
Perceived usefulness	25	11	17	5	1	59
Perceived ease of use	21	21	10	5	2	59
Affection	23	9	22	3	2	59
Anxiety	7	11	11	12	13	54*
Behaviour	28	17	8	4	2	59

*five records were excluded by the system in the WINTSTEP report

3.3. *Differences of self-efficacy and attitude across the EFL teachers' demographic variables*

Table 5 classifies the EFL teachers' level of efficacy and attitude towards the web-based professional development in reference to their demographic variables, such as the teachers' gender, teaching level and teaching experience.

Table 5. EFL Teachers' self-efficacy and attitude level in reference to demographic variables

Demography	Very high level	High level	Moderate level	Low level	Very low level	Total
Gender						
Male	4	3	3	4	1	15
Female	13	18	10	2	1	44
Total	17	21	13	6	2	59
Teaching level						
Primary School	6	7	5	1	1	20
Lower Secondary School	6	8	5	1	0	20
Upper secondary school	5	6	3	4	1	19
Total	17	21	13	6	2	59
Teaching experience						
Less than 5 years	0	1	1	0	0	2
Between 5 and 10 years	7	9	8	4	1	29
Between 10 and 15 years	7	6	4	2	1	20
More than 15 years	3	5	0	0	0	8
Total	17	21	13	6	2	59

As shown in Table 5, female teachers have more self-efficacy and positive attitude than male, and teachers with more years of teaching experience were observed to possess a higher level of self-efficacy and attitude. The findings also showed that teachers teaching in primary schools and secondary schools had comparable levels.

In addition to the Wright map, the analysis of differential item functioning (DIF) using Rasch-Welch tests was performed to allow a deeper understanding related to the difference of teachers' self-efficacy and attitude across the demographic variables (Chan & Subramaniam, 2020). The threshold for the DIF value should be higher than 5 and is significant. The evaluation of DIF showed a significant difference on teachers' behaviour (i.e., Q37) between lower-secondary (LS) teachers and upper-secondary (US) school teachers (DIF contrast = 1.18, t = 2.40, $p < 0.05$). The LS teachers were shown to spend more time using web-based professional development than the US teachers.

4. Discussion

Findings of the current study have shown that most Indonesian EFL teachers possessed sufficient levels of self-efficacy and attitude towards web-based professional development. The statistical analyses using the Rasch model revealed that most of the teachers were able to interact with instructors or other colleagues in particular web-based professional activities. Teachers were also observed to have a high level of self-confidence in applying what they have learned to improve their future teaching performance. Furthermore, the findings of the study revealed teachers were very positive about the usefulness and the ease of use of web-based technology for professional development, reflecting their acceptance towards web-based professional development.

It is critical to highlight that teachers self-rated efficacy may not reflect the actual levels of their computer knowledge, competence and self-confidence for web-based professional development (Son et al., 2011). Although, the high level of EFL teachers' self-efficacy as revealed in the current study might be due to the Ministry of Education and Culture's (MoEC) regulation that have required teachers to participate in a web-based teacher training program in order to obtain a teaching qualification certificate. Another possible explanation for the high level of teachers' self-efficacy might be that teachers have been using social media for academic purposes. Teachers' frequent use of social media has been a strong indicator of their high self-efficacy towards web-based professional development. A study by Setiawan and Phillipson (2020) examining the relationships between social media use in an academic setting and self-efficacy have found that there is a high correlation between the frequency of social

media use and technological self-efficacy. Moreover, findings of the study suggest that teachers' use of social media for professional development is statistically correlated with their technological and pedagogical knowledge (TPK) and technological, pedagogical and content knowledge (TPACK).

Although EFL teachers' level of self-efficacy, attitude and their acceptance of web-based professional development remained high as revealed in the current study, teachers were observed to be anxious as well as uncomfortable in of using web-based technology for professional development. Such teachers' conditions reflect what is called as *technological anxiety* (see Loyd & Gressard, 1984). The fast advancement of technology may promote deep stress and uncomfortable situations for teachers (Sivakumaran & Lux, 2011). Some literature have suggested that deep stress and uncomfortable situations are two salient factors that contribute to their reluctance to carry out web-based professional development (see Sari, 2012; Widodo & Riandi, 2013). Preparing interesting and enjoyable online teacher training programs are required to reduce technological anxiety. Besides they could increase teachers' motivation as well as satisfaction towards web-based professional development.

The result of Rasch analyses also revealed that female teachers have more self-efficacy and positive attitude than males, and teachers with more years of teaching experience were observed to possess a higher level of self-efficacy and attitude. This may be because teachers with more years of teaching experience had obtained more technological training and have been benefited from the use of web-based professional development. The finding confirms an earlier study by Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2011) who found the significant correlation between teachers' self-efficacy, their teaching experience as well as their age. Although, it is important to note that teachers teaching in primary schools and secondary schools had comparable levels of self-efficacy. The level of web-based self-efficacy of teachers from the two school levels are observed to be above average.

5. Conclusion

The current study is aimed to examine the self-efficacy and attitudes towards online-based professional development among EFL teachers at three different school levels, such as primary, lower-secondary and upper secondary school levels. Teachers in the study are shown to possess a high level of interaction and application self-efficacy in addition to their positive attitude towards web-based professional development. The high level of teachers' self-efficacy and positive attitude should be carefully considered in the design and application of web-based teacher training programs. Whereas technological anxiety has been identified as an

issue, web-based professional development thus should also be designed to be enjoyable for teachers and with sufficient technological supports available. Such supports would enable teachers to address particular technical problems during their web-based professional development training.

6. Funding

The authors disclose no financial support that had been received for conducting the study and its publication

7. Conflicts of Interest:

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

8. References

Almekhlafi, A. G., & Almeqdadi, F. A. (2010). Teachers' perceptions of technology integration in the United Arab Emirates school classrooms. *Educational Technology and Society*, *13*(1), 165–175.

Bandura, A., Barbaranelli, C., Caprara, G. V., & Pastorelli, C. (1996). Multifaceted impact of self-efficacy beliefs on academic functioning. *Child Development*, *67*(3), 1206–1222.

Bayrakcı, M. (2009). In-service teacher training in Japan and Turkey: A comparative analysis of institutions and practices. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *34*(1), 2.

Bredeson, P. V. (2000). The school principal's role in teacher professional development. *Journal of In-Service Education*, *26*(2), 385–401.

Chan, M., & Subramaniam, R. (2020). Validation of a science concept inventory by Rasch analysis. In M. S. Khine (Ed.), *Rasch Measurement: Applications in Quantitative Educational Research* (pp. 159–178). Springer Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-1800-3_9

Chang, K.-C., Wang, J.-D., Tang, H.-P., Cheng, C.-M., & Lin, C.-Y. (2014). Psychometric evaluation, using Rasch analysis, of the WHOQOL-BREF in heroin-dependent people undergoing methadone maintenance treatment: further item validation. *Health and Quality of Life Outcomes*, *12*(1), 148.

Chen, Y., Chen, N.-S., & Tsai, C.-C. (2009). The use of online synchronous discussion for web-based professional development for teachers. *Computers & Education*, *53*(4), 1155–1166.

Chien, H. M., Kao, C. P., Yeh, I. J., & Lin, K. Y. (2012). Examining the relationship between teachers' attitudes and motivation toward web-based professional development: A structural equation modeling approach. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *11*(2), 120–127.

Duncan-Howell, J. (2010). Teachers making connections: Online communities as a source of professional learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *41*(2), 324–340.

Ghanizadeh, A., & Moafian, F. (2011). The relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' sense of self-efficacy and their pedagogical success in Language Institutes. *Asian EFL Journal*, *13*(2), 249–272.

Gliner, J. A., Morgan, G. A., & Leech, N. L. (2017). *Research methods in applied settings: An integrated approach to design and analysis*. Routledge.

Hermans, F., Sloep, P., & Kreijns, K. (2017). Teacher professional development in the contexts of teaching English pronunciation. *International Journal of Educational Technology in*

Higher Education, *14*(1), 23.

Huang, F., Huang, L., & Oon, P.-T. (2020). Constructs evaluation of student attitudes towards science - A Rasch analysis. In M. S. Khine (Ed.), *Rasch measurement: Applications in quantitative educational research* (pp. 139–158). Springer.

Kao, C. P., & Tsai, C. C. (2009). Teachers' attitudes toward web-based professional development, with relation to Internet self-efficacy and beliefs about web-based learning. *Computers and Education*, *53*(1), 66–73. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2008.12.019

Kao, C. P., Tsai, C. C., & Shih, M. (2014). Development of a survey to measure self-efficacy and attitudes toward web-based professional development among elementary school teachers. *Educational Technology and Society*, *17*(4), 302–315.

Kao, C. P., Wu, Y. T., & Tsai, C. C. (2011). Elementary school teachers' motivation toward web-based professional development, and the relationship with Internet self-efficacy and belief about web-based learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *27*(2), 406–415. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2010.09.010

Khan, A. (2017). Blog-based professional development of English teachers in Mumbai: The potential of innovative practice under scrutiny. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, *33*(4).

Kocoglu, Z. (2008). Turkish EFL student teachers' perceptions on the role of electronic portfolios in their professional development. *Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology-TOJET*, *7*(3), 71–79.

Lee, M.-H., & Tsai, C.-C. (2010). Exploring teachers' perceived self efficacy and technological pedagogical content knowledge with respect to educational use of the World Wide Web. *Instructional Science*, *38*(1), 1–21.

Lin, C. M., & Lu, M.-Y. (2010). The Study of Teachers' Task Values and Self-Efficacy on Their Commitment and Effectiveness for Technology-Instruction Integration. *US-China Education Review*, *7*(5), 1–11.

Linacre, J. M. (1994). Sample size and item calibration stability. *Rasch Measurement Transactions*, *7*(4), 328.

Linacre, J. M. (2010). When to stop removing items and persons in Rasch misfit analysis? *Rasch Measurement Transactions*, *23*(4), 1241.

Linacre, J. M. (2018). *A user's guide to Winsteps Ministep Rasch-model computer programs (version 4.3.1)*. Available at https://www.winsteps.com/a/Winsteps-Manual.pdf (accessed March 19, 2019).

Ling Lee, W., Chinna, K., & Sumintono, B. (2020). Psychometrics assessment of HeartQoL questionnaire: A Rasch analysis. *European Journal of Preventive Cardiology*. https://doi.org/10.1177/2047487320902322

Liu, M.-H., & Kleinsasser, R. C. (2014). Fostering Online Professional Development Between EFL Preservice and Inservice Teachers: Affordances and Challenges. *English Teaching & Learning*, *38*(2).

Loyd, B. H., & Gressard, C. (1984). Reliability and factorial validity of computer attitude scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *44*(2), 501–505. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0013164484442033

Macià, M., & García, I. (2016). Informal online communities and networks as a source of teacher professional development: A review. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *55*, 291–307.

Mulyono, H., Saskia, R., Arrummaiza, V. S., & Suryoputro, G. (2020). Psychometric assessment of an instrument evaluating the effects of affective variables on students' WTC in face-to-face and digital environment. *Cogent Psychology*, *7*(1), 1823617. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1080/23311908.2020.1823617

Ningrum, E., Evans, S., & Soh, S.-E. (2019). Validation of the Indonesian version of the Safety Attitudes Questionnaire: A Rasch analysis. *PloS One*, *14*(4), e0215128.

Qi, J. (2012). *The role of Chinese Normal Universities in the professional development of teacher*. Doctoral Thesis. University of Toronto.

Quigley, D. (2011). E-Learning as a strategy to teach English in Thailand: A professional development model to support teacher growth. *US-China Education Review A*, *5*, 624–631.

Sari, E. R. (2012). Online learning community: A case study of teacher professional development in Indonesia. *Intercultural Education*, *23*(1), 63–72.

Setiawan, H., & Phillipson, S. (2020). The Correlation between social media usage in academic context and self-efficacy towards TPACK of prospective science teachers in Indonesia. *Journal of Science Learning*, *3*(2), 106–116.

Sivakumaran, T., & Lux, A. C. (2011). Overcoming computer anxiety: A three-step process for adult learners. *US-China Education Review*, *8*(5), 155–161.

Solihati, N., & Mulyono, H. (2018). Designing and evaluating the use of smartphones to facilitate online testing in second-language teacher education (SLTE): An auto-ethnographic study. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning*, *13*(1). https://doi.org/10.3991/ijet.v13i01.7683

Solihati, Nani, & Mulyono, H. (2017). A Hybrid classroom instruction in second language teacher education (SLTE): A critical reflection of teacher educators. *International Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning.*, *12*(5), 169–180.

Son, J. B., Robb, T., & Charismiadji, I. (2011). Computer literacy and competency: A survey of Indonesian teachers of English as a foreign language. *CALL-EJ*, *12*(1), 26–42.

Teo, T. (2012). Examining the intention to use technology among pre-service teachers: An integration of the Technology Acceptance Model and Theory of Planned Behavior. *Interactive Learning Environments*, *20*(1), 3–18. https://doi.org/10.1080/10494821003714632

Van Zile-Tamsen, C. (2017). Using Rasch analysis to inform rating scale development. *Research in Higher Education*, *58*(8), 922–933. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-017-9448-0

Waheed, H., Salami, A. B., Ali, D. O., Dahlan, Ar. A., & Rahman, A. (2011). Collaborative web-based teacher professional development system: A new direction for teacher professional development in Malaysia. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, *1*(7), 208–216.

Widodo, A., & Riandi. (2013). Dual-mode teacher professional development: challenges and re-visioning future TPD in Indonesia. *Teacher Development*, *17*(3), 380–392.

Yang, S. C., & Liu, S. F. (2004). Case study of online workshop for the professional development of teachers. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *20*(6), 733–761.

Yoon, K. S., Duncan, T., Lee, S. W.-Y., Scarloss, B., & Shapley, K. (2007). *Reviewing the evidence on how teacher professional development affects student achievement (Issues & Answers Report, REL 2007–No. 033)*.

Yurtseven, N., & Altun, S. (2017). Understanding by Design (UbD) in EFL teaching: Teachers' professional development and students' achievement. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, *17*(2).

Yuwono, G. I., & Harbon, L. (2010). English teacher professionalism and professional development: Some common issues in Indonesia. *Asian EFL Journal*, *12*(3), 145–163.

Zulaiha, S., & Mulyono, H. (2020). Exploring junior high school EFL teachers' training needs of assessment literacy. *Cogent Education*, *7*(1), 1772943. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2020.1772943

Lecturers' Motivation of Using English Medium Instruction to Support Internationalization of Indonesian Universities

Amirullah Abduh

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Mayong Maman

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Ramly Ramly

Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia

Bio-profiles:

Amirullah Abduh is an Associate Professor at English Education and Head of the Centre for Publication and Intellectual Property Rights (Pusat Publikasi dan HAKI LP2M) Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. Email: *amirullah@unm.ac.id*. (Corresponding author)

Mayong Maman is an Associate Professor at the Indonesian Department, Faculty of Languages and Literature Faculty, Universitas Negeri Makassar.
Email: *mayongmaman@unm.ac.id*

Ramly is Professor at the Indonesian Department, Faculty of Languages and Literature Faculty, Universitas Negeri Makassar. Email: *ramly84@unm.ac.id*

Abstract

This study aims to explore lecturers' perceptions about the use of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in Indonesian universities. This qualitative case study employs semi-structured interviews of 15 participants who are teaching at EMI programs: five in science, five in social, and five in economics departments. This study identifies that using EMI provides opportunities for lecturers to raise their meta-linguistic awareness in English, improve their vocabulary, and boost their self-confidence. Also, lecturers' motivation to use EMI is to attract international students, promote universities globally and achieve an international standard of education. This finding reflects both cultural and instrumental forms of investment contributing

to the use of EMI in Indonesian higher education. Thus, cultural and instrumental forms of capital can enhance the individual and professional identities of lecturers.

Keywords: *Indonesia, English medium instruction, motivation, lecturers.*

Introduction

Recently, researchers have shown an increased interest in the use of EMI in much higher education particularly in the countries where English is not their first language. According to Oxford Research Group (2021) that English Medium Instruction (EMI) is the use of English instruction to teach subject contents other than English subject in nations, where English is not the dominant language of their citizen. This research adds to the debate of the social dimension of motivation in using EMI. Scholars have explored the importance of investment in English (Kanno & Norton, 2003; Norton, 2000; Norton Peirce, 1995; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004; Pavlenko & Norton, 2007). In particular, the use of EMI can become additive bilingualism (Baker, 2011; Lindholm-Leary, 2012; Lo Bianco, 2010; Mary, 2011; May, Hill, & Tiakiwai, 2004), which is the mastery of an additional language. Those authors indicate that the use of EMI can bring about an added value to native languages.

The spread of global English has been motivated by globalization (Block & Cameron, 2002; Coleman, 2006), internationalization of universities and privatization of higher education (Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf, 2013). Block and Cameron (2002) argue that "globalization changes the conditions under which language learning and teaching take place" (p. 5). As a result of the globalization change, it can create new forms of cultures and languages within local contexts (Graddol, 2004). Block, Cameron, and Graddol (2004) view that people learn languages not only for economic reasons but also for gaining new literacy and technological skills, particularly technology used for language teaching and learning.

Previous studies, however, reported that the spread of EMI has been linked to some challenges. Tarnopolsky and Goodman (2012) and Vu and Burns (2014) express concern about the language challenges of EMI, for example, low English abilities of students and lecturers; the others (Tange, 2014; Vu & Burns, 2014) are concerned about pedagogical constraints such as searching for appropriate methods for teaching via EMI and practical challenges such as limited resources. Also, no research has explored investment within the context of EMI in Indonesia.

This present article examines lecturers' investment in using EMI in Indonesian higher education. We will discuss the notion of investment, followed by current debates on English in Indonesian contexts, research methodology, discussion, and conclusion.

Literature Review

Concept of Motivation

The motivation here in this study relates to investment. Investment refers to "a meaningful connection between a learner's desire and commitment to learning a language, and their complex and changing identity" (Norton Peirce, 1995, Norton, 2013a, p. 6). Norton's definition is drawn from Bourdieu's (1977) notion of capital. Pittaway (2004) extends Norton's investment into "engaging investment as a process of leveraging learners' identities to help them achieve their goals and realize the potential for personal and professional growth" (p. 216). Those definitions can be applied to the context of lecturers because they keep learning English as a foreign language aiming for a medium of instruction.

Insights from Bourdieu's work (1977), the economics of linguistic exchanges, placed linguistic competence as part of "symbolic capital" (p. 646). Bourdieu (2008) described three fundamental forms of capital: "economic capital, cultural capital and social capital"(p. 281). He describes that economic capital is reflected in the form of ownership entitlement; cultural capital is indicated regarding professional skills and knowledge, and social capital is reflected in the kind of social engagement and networking return. Bourdieu (2008) asserts that the return of capital forms can be gained immediately, such as with services, or in relatively long periods such as social networking. These types of capital seem particularly relevant to the question of how lecturers in higher education contexts expend their considerable efforts, time, and strategies to ensure that lecturers gain their return of investment by achieving graduate attributes that are highly appreciated in particular national and global markets.

In return for learners' investment, Norton signals that:

> If learners invest in the target language, they do so with the understanding that they
> will acquire a wide range of symbolic resources (language, education, friendship)
> and materials resources (capital goods, real estate, money), which will, in turn,
> increase the value of their cultural capital and social power'(2013, p. 6).

We argue that if lecturers in this study invest in the use of EMI, in return for their investments they will likely gain cultural skills, which can increase their professionalism and their identity as lecturers.

In a more recent study, Lee (2014) concluded that the investment in language learning strategies influences an individual way of participation within the centre of academic communities. Applying the concept of investment in this study suggests that investment in the context of EMI may create space for lecturers to improve their language skills and knowledge. Investment within EMI provides opportunities for lecturers to learn, to use, to practice English, and to construct meanings of subject matters in teaching.

English Medium Instruction in Indonesia: Current Debates

There are two major debates on EMI in Indonesia. The first group argues that the introduction of English in the context of bilingual programs may disadvantage vernacular languages (Kirkpatrick, 2012) and has minimum benefit cognitively for learners (Ibrahim, 2004). On the other hand, the use of English in the context of bilingual education can bring benefits for learners educationally and psychologically (Dewi, 2012; Lamb & Coleman, 2008; Lauder, 2010; Lo Bianco, 2012; Santoso, 2006; Setyorini & Sofwan, 2011). Within this debate, this research draws on the latter argued that the use of English in a bilingual context can perpetuate the bilingual development of each learner socially and educationally

Since the implementation of the new educational act in Indonesia in 2003, English is introduced as a medium of instruction in many different levels of education. Dewi (2012) explored the impact of the use of English in bilingual programs in Indonesian universities. She identifies that the use of English in bilingual programs helps learners to grow as an intercultural minded person and learn the appropriate cultures of western that mediate the development of intercultural competence. Also, Abduh & Rosmaladewi (2008, 2019) add that bilingual programs in higher education can help learners to possess bilingual identities that are useful for future employment.

English in the context of bilingual instruction is considered the changing tool for individual transformation. Several studies conducted by Lamb (2004a, 2004b, 2009) and Lamb and Coleman (2008) identify that the acquisition of English literacy can prepare many Indonesians for better employment and a better future career. Lamb and Coleman claim that many Indonesian transform to be more open and can learn new literacy and things through English (2008). Further, Renandya (2004) argues that the mastery of the English language symbolizes modern citizens and identity.

Educationally, the use of English in the form of a bilingual context brings benefits for learners. The use of English in higher education provides learners opportunities to practice their English and learn new literacy and understand the current development of technology and knowledge globally (Santoso, 2006; Setyorini & Sofwan, 2011) and contribute to positive academic atmosphere in higher education (Floris, 2014). These studies indicate that the implementation of English in bilingual programs in universities proves to be beneficial for Indonesian educators and their identities

Internationalization of higher education

A study conducted by Morosini, Corte, and Guilherme (2017) that the motivation of internationalization relates to two important themes: mobility and global citizenship education. The mobility in this research deals with the movement of academics and students from the countries in the northern hemisphere to countries in the southern hemisphere. Also, global citizenship relates to the acquisition of knowledge and skills by young academics, students, and senior academics to be able to interact effectively and successfully in global partnership and engagement. This research suggests that motivation of internationalization of higher education promotes intercultural engagement as part of mobility and global citizenship motives. What we can learn from this study is that the motivation of the internationalization of higher education aims to increase the mobility of academia. The improvement of mobility can enhance the opportunities to acquire global citizenship education that results in acquiring multicultural competencies to support globalization.

Similarly, Abduh, Basri, Ramly, and Rosmaladewi (2021) investigated the importance of multicultural education in the context of the internationalization of higher education. The research indicates that multicultural education encompasses policy to promote equality and respect diversity, strategies to facilitate intercultural dialogue, curriculum, and community participation. The role of multicultural education in the internationalization of higher education implies the teaching of English as a medium of instruction (EMI). Consequently, EMI plays an important role to support multicultural education that enhances the acquisition of multicultural competencies in global interaction and partnership. What we can decipher from the information from this study is that multicultural education in the context of EMI can encourage the acquisition of intercultural global competencies that are needed for global interaction and engagement.

In addition, Rosmaladewi and Abduh (2017) have investigated the roles of collaborative culture in the internationalization of higher education. The research identified that

simultaneous and structural collaborative work contributes to the harmonization of curriculum, teaching, and learning and research to support the internationalization of higher education. The research also encountered that individual and balkanized cultures can slow down the internationalization of universities where partnership and collaboration are strongly recommended for academic and non-academic staff. The collaborative academic cultures enhance the acquisition of intercultural competence (Saud & Abduh, 2018). From this research, it can be learned that collaborative cultures are essential to support the internationalization of higher education.

Method

This research applies the qualitative case study. This case study is applicable because it uncovers the current phenomenon and change (Yin, 2009). The implementation of EMI policy is a complex phenomenon due to the many higher education institutions involved. Such a complex event is better explored through the interpretive case study (Walsham, 1995). Klein and Myers (1999, p. 69) assume that "knowledge of reality is gained only through social constructions such as shared meanings, documents, tools, and other artifacts" which suit the application of the interpretive case study. Therefore, the interpretive case study is appropriate for this study to uncover the case of EMI in Indonesian higher education.

The study context and participants

This study investigated lecturers' motivation and perception of using EMI in their teaching. This study took place in three Indonesian universities within three different departments: Science, Social Science, and Economics Departments. Fifteen lecturers (see Table 1) who teach in three Indonesian universities participated in this study. 90% of lecturers in this study graduated overseas and had experienced using English in native English-speaking countries. This study seeks lecturers' views on the implementation of EMI: What are lecturers' investments in using EMI in their teaching?

Table 1. Participants' profile

Participants	Age	Sex	Educational background
1	30s	M	Master
2	30s	M	Master
3	30s	M	Master
4	50s	M	PhD
5	50s	M	PhD
6	30s	F	Master

7	40s	F	PhD
8	40s	F	PhD
9	50s	M	PhD
10	40s	F	PhD
11	30s	F	Master
12	40s	F	Master
13	50s	M	PhD
14	40s	M	PhD
15	30s	M	Master

Instruments of data collection

Primary data gained through semi-structured interviews lasted approximately from 45 minutes to one hour. The interviews were mostly done in Indonesian because participants preferred to use Indonesian. The interview transcriptions were returned to participants so that they had the opportunity to read and verify transcriptions. The diverse variety of participants contributes to providing more convincing and accurate conclusions (Yin, 2009), and offers a comprehensive understanding of the case (Patton, 2002). The fieldwork was carried out recently, and several contacts such as emails and phone contacts were made to additional gain data. During field visits, documents were also collected to support the primary data.

Data analysis

Open coding was initially used to code data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) which was then thematically analyzed and arranged followed the method outlined by Attride-Stirling (2001). The first stage is to read the whole data, and then perform initial coding. The next is searching the themes and reviewing the emergent themes by making connections between them and making a comparison between categories and codes. The core categories are refined and articulated to achieve meaningful and theoretical types of participants.

Findings

The findings of the study can be categorized into two major themes: cultural investment and motivation, and instrumental motivation (Figure 1). The cultural investment covers a wide range of sub-themes: improve vocabulary, chance to practice speaking, raise metalinguistics awareness and promote self-confidence. Also, the sub-themes of the instrumental motivation include adopt the global academic culture, familiarize with EMI, attract international students, and achieve international standards
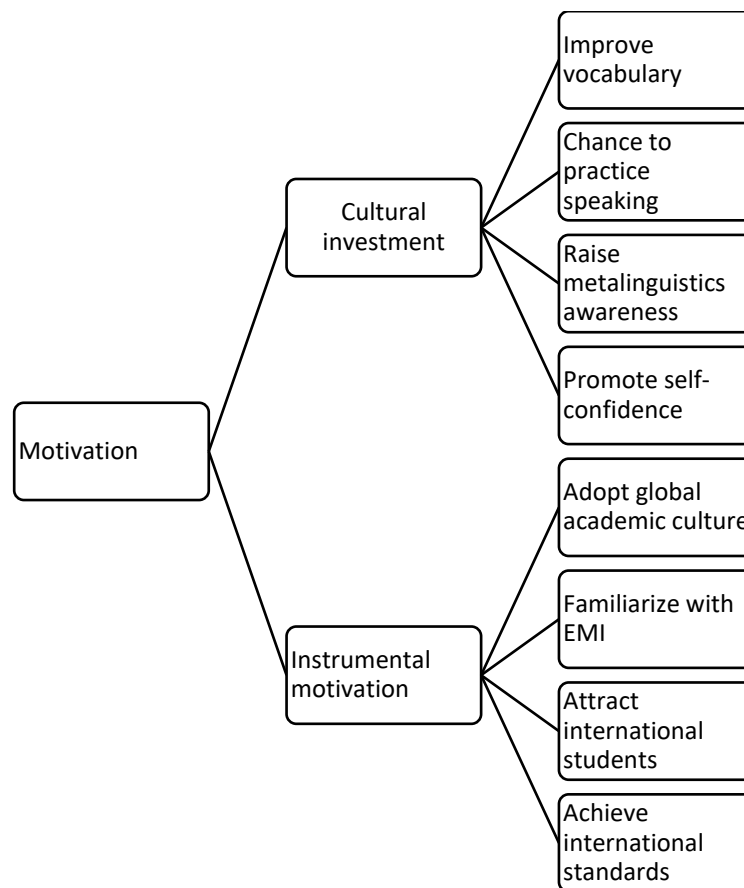
Figure 1: Cultural and instrumental investment of using EMI

Cultural investment

Cultural investment contributes to the teaching and learning in EMI programs in Indonesian contexts. Lecturers by and large share their ideas on the essential topics of cultural capital. The following section describes the four most crucial kinds of cultural capital related to teaching and learning in EMI contexts.

Opportunities to improve vocabulary

Lecturers discuss the contribution of cultural investment to enrich their lexical items. The lexis of English includes 1) generic (common) vocabulary that is used to describe objects in daily lives; 2) academic words that are used in academic reading and journals; and 3) specific terms or individual glossaries that are used to describe particular meanings of the unit content.

One of the participants has developed a greater basic vocabulary since the application of English as the medium of instruction in the bilingual education program. Gifran argues that 'this program is strongly beneficial for the further development of my English words…. for example, the words *understand* can be replaced by *grasp, get, catch…*' He says 'the visible

practical advantage of teaching in bilingual programs is a desire to improve vocabulary'. This reflects the opportunities for lecturers to keep improving their basic vocabulary in English.

Regarding academic words, lecturers frequently learn academic lexis from scholarly journals and textbooks. The enrichment of academic vocabulary will more likely impact improving reading fluency. Andre, for example, claims that 'because I know most of the academic words in the articles it truly assists me to read faster and grasp better'. Also, his educational background of Mathematics education inevitably aids him to be more familiar with academic Mathematics readings.

Not only in reading, but also understanding academic lexis contributes to lecturers' writing. Mariah articulates:

> *I think I get some new words whenever preparing and reading teaching materials. I read articles and underline unfamiliar words and sometimes try to guess the meaning based on the contexts of its use. Often, I check the thesaurus and bilingual dictionary for the definition. Then I try to put them in my paper.*

Finally, the opportunity to develop greater familiarity with technical or specialist glossaries does occur when the technical words or specific terms are used in particular contexts. Maria argues: 'The specific words can mean different things in different settings. So, it is important to know the types of readings and the contexts where the words are used. She provides the example of words in Accounting: '*interest* can mean *a charge for loan or bonus*, or can mean *curiosity about something*'.

Chances to practice speaking

The implementation of EMI programs opens up spaces to practice speaking. Lecturers have used these occasions to enhance their speaking skills. Lecturers use these opportunities to practice expressions they have learned so far. Ningrum comments in detail about these speaking opportunities. She says, "Words and expressions are quite formal, but are mostly influenced by our local accents and dialects". For instance, she provides some words that are influenced by her local accents. Aspirational markers influence many words 'h' likes: 'go' is pronounced, 'gʱou' and 'come (kʱʌm). Andre claims that 'it is hard to speak naturally like native speakers, but I at least try to imitate them as much as possible.

Similarly, Gifran states:

> *This program triggers me to speak English correctly. Even though I am not an English lecturer, I am trying very hard to talk as good as possible. Also, it is to train me to deliver teaching materials in an accurate grammatical sentence...that is always not difficult, but it is good to speak and be understood.*

Raising metalinguistic awareness

Lecturers in this study have become more aware of word stress and intonation and producing meaningful sentences. Since the implementation of the EMI program, participants have tended to rehearse some difficult words they find hard to pronounce. Lecturers tend to prepare specific notes relating to the pronunciation of some specific difficult vocabulary, as Bahrin suggests:

> *I repeat myself several times for certain words that I find hard to pronounce. It is sometimes funny, but it is the way to do it. I look to my e-dictionary which provides the sound of the correct pronunciation of the words…If I mispronounce the words, it means different things, or it could be meaningless. I say to my students that even though this class is not an English subject, but focusing on how certain words are pronounced is important….*

Even though it is challenging work, some participants are more conscious of producing meaningful sentences with understandable pronunciation when they are delivering the lecture. With the intensive EMI classes they teach, they try to improve their sentence production correctly to convey meaningful utterances, Akiro says: "I am more concerned on how to utter meaningful sentences. So every sentence I speak, it represents meaningful things...I believe I am more meaningful on it. That's the improvement for me".

Promoting self-confidence

The implementation of the EMI policy enhances the confidence of lecturers. Lecturers raised their self-esteem through their enthusiasm for taking part in academic events. Many lecturers who teach in this program are confident enough to deliver their papers in English outside the classroom in national and international seminars. Tasrif argues:

> *I am more confident in presenting a paper in English since I used it as the medium of instruction in my classroom. The class is just a practicing lab for my English. I am more prepared to face any English occasion rather than before. This also stimulates me to present a paper abroad.*

Instrumental motivation

Instrumental (motivational) investment becomes an essential aspect of the implementation of EMI programs. Lecturers in this study are strongly motivated to internationalize Indonesian universities. Fatiha best describes the context of the instrumental capital:

> *The internationalization of education such as policy, curriculum, programs, teaching staff and facilities is …you know that… our motivation to respond to the fast-growing economy right now happening in our country and the world, we are the biggest market of education…We don't want just the object, but the subject that plays essential roles in the internationalizati*on of *higher education.*

The following section elucidates the instrumental capital that participants identify.

Desire to adopt the international academic culture

It is interesting to note that lecturers are motivated to import an academic culture that is relevant and appropriate within Indonesian higher education contexts. Two important academic cultures identified by participants were developing critical thinking and avoiding plagiarism.

Culturally, Indonesian students by definition tend to accept what their teachers say to them. They typically obey the whole message delivered by their teachers during the teaching and learning process. Due to such cultural conditions, lecturers are often inspired to break cultural barriers. Lecturers desire to encourage students to engage with theories and knowledge critically and appreciatively. Sutimin explores the ways of teaching students to think critically. He suggests "students should be taught ways to look at weakness and strengths of the theories they learn as is done by other international students overseas. Without this, they will fall behind regarding what other people do in the rest of the world". More importantly, he says that "students should be engaged in findings the gaps of the theories they learn. By doing so, it will raise their critical thinking awareness". This demonstrates the cultural situation among Indonesian students.

Familiarising students with English medium instruction

The desire of Indonesian higher education to implement EMI programs is to get students used to the English medium culture. The reason for this is that most students will take international exposure programs where students will stay for a certain period in English-speaking universities or partner universities abroad. These EMI programs help to expose students to English-speaking cultures.

Similarly, the lecturer of Basic Social Science, Sutimin argues that 'EMI gives them (students) chances to familiarize and discuss content in English. Thus the students are better prepared when they are taking classes in English speaking universities". Such circumstances also impact on students' preparation for taking international tests. He claims: "the constant use of English no doubt influences students' ability, particularly academic English required in the IELTS or TOEFL tests".

Motivation to attract international students

Attracting international students to study here can create an international and global atmosphere within local university contexts. Hadi claims that:

> *We need to create a real feeling of an international atmosphere where many overseas students are studying here. It's not impossible in the future to create such conditions since we have a lot of appealing factors internally that attract international students…let's say…teaching them local culture, dances, traditional music, and multicultural Indonesians.*

Similarly, Maria argues that "the use of EMI is an example of internationalization within Indonesian contexts." She asserts that "internationalization through the medium of instruction will attract overseas students." Maria says that "our programs here offer not only the use of EMI but they also offer increased engagement with local culture and the local community that makes our programs unique."

The desire to achieve international standards

Lecturers expecting to teach and learning through the English medium instruction is equal to the international standard used in developed countries. The quality of education and international curriculum, the capacity to engage in research and publication, the strengthening of highly qualified lecturers, and international accreditation, are essential features of a global higher education system. Regarding international curriculum, Sudiron claims:

> *The harmonized curriculum of EMI programs is to facilitate the internationalization of education. I believe that English is a powerful means, regarding global trends, to the internationalization of universities around the world. So it's important to be part of it, and our students really can catch up with the global updates.*

Most participating lecturers share a common understanding that those Indonesian universities' contributions to the academic and the development of science are slightly less detectable in the

world today. Therefore, Gifran argues that "the use of English in teaching inspires me to improve my research and publication in English too….so that what happens here can also be heard by others in other parts of the world". However, Maria feels less optimistic about publications in English. She suggests that "it is hard to work that way since English is not our second language". Also, Fatiha relates to the university rankings. She says, "It is not an easy job to upgrade our university ranking, but the use of EMI and the increasing research publications using English, hope that it lifts our university status." This implies that EMI stimulates lecturers to apply the international standard of education in their teaching.

DISCUSSION

The cultural investment in this research deals with the acquisition of language skills and knowledge. This concept of cultural investment is in association with earlier studies (Bourdieu, 1977, Bourdieu, 2008, Norton, 2013). Concerning the acquisition of language skills and knowledge, participants in this study not only gain both receptive and productive language skills (Baker, 2011) but also what Canale and Swain (1981) categorize as grammatical competence. For this competency, participants in this study are concerned with mastering academic lexis, syntax, and metalinguistic awareness. The mastery of grammatical skills enhances participants' self-efficacy to write and to present their works in academic and non-academic settings, particularly in English medium events. As a consequence, participants in this study wish to fully engage and grasp the content of the literature and texts available in English, which enables them to participate in English global communities.

Also, participants' commitment in this study through the use of English-medium instruction is a means of promoting Indonesian higher education to the global world on the one hand, and to bring in essential features of world educational practices on the other. This idea reflects the concept of instrumental investment (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Norton, 2000, 2013). We argue that this instrumental aim may impact the conflicting roles of higher education institutions, because many Indonesian institutions may not be ready to adopt world academic practices due to the limited quality of their human resources and cultural constraints. Despite their limitations, the desire of participants to institutionalize adaptable educational practices is an instrumental investment. In return for their instrumental investment, participants will gain greater access to global engagement through partnerships and mutual collaborations.

The findings in this research further extend the earlier investigations in Indonesian contexts. The findings in this study identify the acquisition and the use of English literacy not only

preparing Indonesians for a better future (Lamb, 2004a, 2004b, 2009; Lamb & Coleman, 2008), but also facilitating the internationalization of higher education, promoting Indonesian culture and identities globally, and enabling them to become part of global communities.

Further, the roles of bilingual instruction in higher education can perpetuate the establishment of internationalization of higher education. Internationalization via the use of English alongside the use of the national language as a medium of instruction can provide opportunities for students to acquire multicultural competencies (Abduh, et.al, 2021). More importantly, the findings have positive implication of the use of EMI in Indonesian higher education (Floris, 2014) and the acquisition of intercultural competences (Saud & Abduh, 2018). Thus, multicultural competencies can assist the success of global partnership and engagement of higher education institutions. Internationalization can promote a positive global environment for universities in teaching and learning, curriculum, extra-curricular activities, and research programs.

Conclusion

Lecturers' motivation to use EMI for their teaching not only benefits lecturers personally but also institutionally. Personally, and professionally, lecturers create opportunities for themselves to improve language competence including raising meta-linguistic awareness, improving their vocabulary, and boosting their confidence. This reflects the concept of cultural capital (Norton, 2013). Also, lecturers' motivation to use EMI is to attract international students, promote universities globally and achieve international standards of education. The finding reflects the instrumental investment (Norton, 2013) of Indonesian lecturers in applying EMI in their teaching. Our in-depth exploration of the phenomenon and the results can contribute to understanding educators' perception of and motivation for engaging in EMI. Future studies are recommended into uncovering learners' investment within the context of EMI implementation. Future research also needs to be carried out within the broader population and how learners' investment in language learning contributes to their future identities.

References

Abduh, A., Basri, M., Ramly, and Rosmaladewi (2021). Multicultural Education to Support Internationalization of Universities: Implication for English Medium Instruction. *TESOL International Journal*, *16*(4.2), 66-77

Abduh, A., & Rosmaladewi, R. (2018). Promoting Intercultural Competence in Bilingual Programs in Indonesia. *SAGE Open*, *8*(3), 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018788616

Abduh, A., & Rosmaladewi, R. (2019). Language Policy, Identity, and Bilingual Education in Indonesia: A Historical Overview. *XLinguae*, *12*(1), 219–227. Retrieved from http://xlinguae.eu/2019_12_01_17.html

Andrew, M. (2012). Authentic Cultural and Linguistic Learning through Practicum in a Nursing Home. *TESL-EJ, 16*(1), 1-19.

Andrew, M., & Kearney, C. (2011). Reshaping Educational Experience by Investing in Community. *Southern Institute of Technology Journal of Applied Research*, 1-15.

Attride-Stirling, J. (2001). Thematic networks: an analytic tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative research, 1*(3), 385-405.

Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (Vol. 79): Multilingual Matters.

Bearse, C., & de Jong, E. J. (2008). Cultural and linguistic investment: Adolescents in a secondary two-way immersion program. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 41*(3), 325-340.

Block, D., & Cameron, D. (2002). *Globalization and language teaching*. London and New York: Psychology Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1977). The economics of linguistic exchanges. *Social science information, 16*(6), 645-668.

Bourdieu, P. (2008). The Forms of Capital. *Readings in economic sociology, 4*, 280-297.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1981). A Theoretical Framework for Communicative Competence.

Coleman, J. A. (2006). English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language Teaching, 39*(01), 1-14.

Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, A. L. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications, Inc.

Cummins, J., Bismilla, V., Chow, P., Cohen, S., Giampapa, F., Leoni, L., . . . Sastri, P. (2005). ELL students speak for themselves: Identity texts and literacy engagement in multilingual classrooms. *Curriculum. org*, 1-14.

Dewi, A. (2012). Is English A Form of Imperialism? A Study of Academic Community's Perceptions at Yogyakarta Universities in Indonesia. *Asian Englishes, 15*(1), 4-27.

Floris, F. D. (2014). Learning subject matter through English as the medium of instruction: Students' and teachers' perspectives. *Asian Englishes*, *16*(1), 47-59.

Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An instrumental motivation in language study. *Studies in second language acquisition, 13*(01), 57-72.

Hamid, M. O., Nguyen, H. T. M., & Baldauf, R. B. (2013). Medium of instruction in Asia: context, processes and outcomes. *Current Issues in Language Planning, 14*(1), 1-15. doi: 10.1080/14664208.2013.792130

Haneda, M. (2005). Investing in foreign-language writing: A study of two multicultural learners. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 4*(4), 269-290.

Ibrahim, J. (2004). The Implementation of EMI (English Medium Instruction) in Indonesian Universities: Its Opportunities, its Threats, its Problems, and its Possible Solutions. *k@ ta, 3*(2), 121-138.

Kanno, Y., & Norton, B. (2003). Imagined communities and educational possibilities: Introduction. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 2*(4), 241-249.

Khabarova, L., & Molotkova, N. (2011). Bilingual Education in Russian Technical Universities: Teaching Quality Management in Foreign Language. *International Journal of the Humanities, 9*(8), 1-12.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). English in ASEAN: implications for regional multilingualism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 33*(4), 331-344.

Klein, H. K., & Myers, M. D. (1999). A set of principles for conducting and evaluating interpretive field studies in information systems. *MIS quarterly*, 67-93.

Lamb, M. (2004a). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. *System, 32*(1), 3-19.

Lamb, M. (2004b). 'It Depends on the Students Themselves': Independent Language Learning at an Indonesian State School.

Lamb, M. (2009). Situating the L2 self: Two Indonesian school learners of English. *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*, 229-247.

Lamb, M., & Coleman, H. (2008). Literacy in English and the transformation of self and society in post-Soeharto Indonesia. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 11*(2), 189-205.

Lauder, A. (2010). The status and function of English in Indonesia: a review of key factors. *MAKARA of Social Sciences and Humanities Series, 12*(1).

Lee, E. J. (2014). Motivation, investment, and identity in English language development: A longitudinal case study. *System, 42*(0), 440-450. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.01.013

Lindholm-Leary, K. (2012). Success And Challenges In Dual Language Education. *Theory into practice, 51*(4), 256-262.

Liu, P.-H. E., & Tannacito, D. J. (2013). Resistance by L2 writers: The role of racial and language ideology in imagined community and identity investment. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 22*(4), 355-373.

Lo Bianco, J. (2010). Some ideas about multilingualism and national identity. *TESOL in Context, 20*(1), 22.

Lo Bianco, J. (2012). National Language Revival Movements: Reflections from India, Isreal, Indonesia and Ireland. In B. Spolsky (Ed.), *Cambridge Handbook of Language Policy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

May, S. (2011). The disciplinary constraints of SLA and TESOL: Additive bilingualism and second language acquisition, teaching and learning. *Linguistics and Education, 22*(3), 233-247.

May, S., Hill, R., & Tiakiwai, S. (2004). Bilingual/immersion education: Indicators of good practice. *Final Report to the Ministry of Education, New*.

Morosini, M. C., Corte, M. G. D., & Guilherme, A. (2017). Internationalization of Higher Education: A Perspective from the Great South. *Creative Education*, *08*(01), 95–113. https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2017.81008

Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity and educational change*: Editorial Dunken.

Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation*: Multilingual matters.

Norton Peirce, B. (1995). Social Identity, Investment, and Language Learning*. *TESOL quarterly, 29*(1), 9-31.

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.

Pavlenko, A., & Blackledge, A. (2004). *Negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts*: Multilingual Matters.

Pavlenko, A., & Norton, B. (2007). Imagined communities, identity, and English language learning *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 669-680): Springer.

Potowski, K. (2004). Student Spanish use and investment in a dual immersion classroom: Implications for second language acquisition and heritage language maintenance. *The Modern Language Journal, 88*(1), 75-101.

Oxford Research Group (2021). *English as A Medium of Instruction.* Accessed, 4 June 2021: http://www.education.ox.ac.uk/our-research/research-groups/language-cognition-development/emi/

Reeves, J. (2009). Teacher investment in learner identity. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 25*(1), 34-41.

Renandya, W. A. (2004). Indonesia. In H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.), *Language policies and language education, the impact in the east Asian Countries in the next decade* (pp. 115-138). London: Eastern Universities Press.

Rosmaladewi, R., & Abduh, A. (2017). Collaborative Teaching Cultures of English Lecturers in Indonesian Polytechnics. *International Journal of Language Education*, *01*(01), 20–28. Retrieved from http://ojs.unm.ac.id/index.php/ijole/article/view/2868

Santoso, T. (2006). The benefits of bilingual education and its applications in Indonesia. *Jurnal Pendidikan Penabur, 5*(6), 42-45.

Saud, S., & Abduh, A. (2018). Intercultural Understanding in Foreign Language Learning in an Indonesian Higher Education. *Journal of English as an International Language*, *13*(2.2), 203-210.

Setyorini, A., & Sofwan, A. (2011). Teaching Mathematics and Sciences in English in Pilot International Standard High Schools in Indonesia. *Language Circle, 5*(2).

Skilton-Sylvester, E. (2002). Should I stay or should I go? Investigating Cambodian women's participation and investment in adult ESL programs. *Adult Education Quarterly, 53*(1), 9-26.

Tange, H. (2014). English-medium instruction at universities: global challenges. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, 17*(3), 371-374.

Tarnopolsky, O., & Goodman, B. (2012). Language practices and attitudes in EFL and English medium classes at a university in Eastern Ukraine. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 27*, 1-18.

Vu, N. T. T., & Burns, A. (2014). English as a medium of instruction: Challenges for Vietnamese tertiary lecturers. *Journal of Asia TEFL, 11*(3), 1-31.

Walsham, G. (1995). Interpretive case studies in IS research: nature and method. *European Journal of information systems, 4*(2), 74-81.

Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (Vol. 5). California: Sage Publication.

The Professional Standards for Teachers in Saudi Arabia as A framework for EFL Teachers' Professional Development Needs Assessment

Hussein Assalahi

King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Email: hassalahi@kau.edu.sa

Bio-profile:

Dr. Hussein Assalahi is an Assistant Professor of TESOL at the English Language Institute at King Abdulaziz University. He was awarded a Doctor of Education in TESOL from the University of Exeter, the UK, in 2016. Dr. Assalahi's particular interests include language teacher professional development, second language teacher education, professionalism, second language acquisition, and critical pedagogy.

Abstract

This study sought to investigate EFL teachers' perceptions about their professional development needs assessment in light of the professional standards for English Language teachers in Saudi Arabia. The quality of teaching and teachers' work have received increasing attention driven by the standards-based reforms. While previous research has investigated the impact of the standards on the quality of teachers' professional development and teaching practice, research on teachers' professional development needs assessment in light of these standards is under-researched. The descriptive research design was used in this study, and the convenience sampling approach was adopted. The participants consisted of 65 teachers of English as a foreign language in public education schools in Saudi Arabia. An online self-administered questionnaire was employed to explore the perceptions of the English language teachers of professional development, their awareness of the standards and their professional development needs in light of the standards. The questionnaire consisted of 4 main sections with 14 questions and 88 items. Descriptive analysis was performed, and the results showed that teachers were very interested in formal and informal professional development activities (Mean=3.79), strongly agree that professional development improves teaching and students' learning (Mean=4.45), and identified lack of time, among others, as deterrents of engaging in professional development (Mean=4.23). Teachers also strongly agree that the professional standards for teachers provide a framework to plan their own professional development to improve their competencies (Mean=4.28). Finally, they ranked curriculum design (Mean=4.36), followed by language proficiency (Mean=4.25), theoretical knowledge

(Mean=4.21), language pedagogy (Mean=4.19), and theoretical application (Mean=4.14) as needed competencies for their professional development agendas. The implications for teachers and professional development providers are discussed, and directions for future professional development research are highlighted.

Keywords: *EFL, Needs Assessment, Professional Development, Professional Standards*

1. Introduction

Increasing research evidence suggests that teachers' professional development (PD) is a crucial factor in shaping the quality of education, enhancing teaching and improving students' achievement (Avalos, 2011; Desimone. 2009). In the name of improving teacher quality, PD has also been a critical component of several standards-based reforms around the world which makes it obligatory for teachers to seek both in- and out-of-school PD (Alrwele, 2017; Bowe & Gore, 2017; Bourke, Ryan, Ould, 2018; Ford, McMahon, Hamilton, Murray, 2016; Gore, Lloyd, Smith, Bowe, Ellis, Lubans, 2017; Mayer, Mitchell, Macdonald, Bell, 2005). In Saudi Arabia, the discourse of professional standards for teachers has gained momentum, also driven by the ongoing quest to improve the quality of teaching in public or general education schools. The standards are also used for various purposes, including being a reference for professional development programs, and as a self-assessment tool for teachers' professional development (Bourke et al., 2018). While the tensions posed by the standards' dual purposes (Ford et al., 2016) of sponsored and independent professionalism (Leung, 2009) have resulted in predominant teacher compliance (Bourke et al., 2018), it has yet to address the controversies about "the exact meaning of PD and what constitutes development" (Cirocki & Farrell, 2019, p.2). Moreover, teachers who are the main stakeholders of reforms often find PD irrelevant (OECD, 2018) and 'lacks clear and direct links with classroom practice" (Bowe & Gore, 2017, p.112). In addition, the PD support needs that teacher require are not fully understood and as Wall (2008) suggests the congruence between what is expected of teachers and what they actually need is paramount to achieving educational reforms (p.74). To address the controversies around how PD can thrive within standards-based education reforms, this study set out to investigates EFL teachers' perceptions of their PD needs assessment in light of the professional standards for English language teachers in Saudi Arabia (PSTELT).

1.1. Professional development

Professional development means all activities that teachers engage in to enhance their knowledge, skills, and attitudes about teaching and learning. These activities could be "natural learning experiences" and/or "conscious and planned" PD (Day, 1997, p.4). The epistemological distinction between professional development, continuous professional development (CPD), and professional learning is one dimension that sheds light on the conceptualization and operationalization of PD within standards-based reforms (Bolam & McMahon, 2004; Evans & Esch, 2013; Leung, 2009). While PD also denotes other connotations such as teachers' professional development (TPD), and these are sometimes used interchangeably with CPD, the literature highlights some distinguishing features (Evans & Esch, 2013; Mann, 2005). CPD is usually associated with workplace PD activities initiated by employers as an institutional requirement. PD within this approach is composed of discrete activities (Desimone, 2009) introduced and enacted by others, not the teachers themselves, as a 'one-size-fits-all solution' and is usually "labeled as in-service training" (Cirocki & Farrell, 2019, p.2). CPD thus views teachers' knowledge as an 'objective' entity (Kubanyiova, & Feryok, 2015) that can be codified, as is the case with the standards, and transmitted to teachers through PD who are also expected to teach accordingly (Singh & Richards, 2006; Cross, 2010). Hence there is a tendency to discount the social world, which influences how teachers' PD is shaped and overlooks teachers' PD needs (Evans & Esch, 2013; Tsui, 2007). In contrast, the term professional learning is generally understood to denote teachers' cognition shaped through participation in social activities (Johnson & Golombek, 2011, p.1) and entails "critical reflection on and in locally defined practice" (Evans & Esch, 2013, p. 137). It denotes the self-initiated 'teacher-centered' forms of professional development that teachers undertake based on their needs to improve their practice through informal learning opportunities (Alshumaimeri, & Almohaisen, 2017; Cirocki & Farrell, 2019; Evans & Esch, 2013). This view reflects current research focus on PD which, as Avolas (2010, p.10) suggests, "is about teachers' learning, learning how to learn, and transforming their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students' growth." As adult learners (Knowles, 1988; Knowles, Holton, Swanson, 2014), teachers engage in self-directed professional learning activities, draw on their past experiences, and participate in the planning, implementation, and assessment of their learning. These activities include action research (Burns & Richards, 2009; Ulla, Barrera & Acompanado, 2017), lesson study (Arslan, 2019), and utilizing social media for peer support (Arfiandhani, 2020). Other features of effective PD include being job-embedded and integrated into the workday (Alshaikhi, 2018; Avolas, 2011; Cirocki & Farrell, 2019), it promotes

reflective practice (Farrell, 2018), and is based on professional learning among critical friends (Vo & Mai Nguyen, 2010) in the school setting or virtual professional learning communities (Alshaikhi, 2018; Alzahrani & Althaqafi, 2020; Cirocaki & Farrell, 2019, Vo & Mai Nguyen, 2010). Desimone (2009) identified four characteristics of effective PD represented by 1) content focus on subject matter knowledge and students' learning, 2) active learning, 3) coherence of PD to teachers' knowledge and beliefs, and 4) duration, which includes sufficient time for learning and implementation and 5) collective participation. Finally, research on effective PD emphasizes the importance of analyzing teachers' perceived needs in any PD program (Noom-Ura, 2013; Oudah & Altalhab, 2018; Luong; 2019; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Wall, 2008). As Wall (2008) points out, providing successful support deployment depends largely on adequate teacher needs analysis.

1.2. PD within Standards-based reform in Saudi Arabia

The Development of PD policies in Saudi Arabia has undergone dramatic shifts since its inception in 1945. It can be characterized by two epochs: pre-and post-2006 eras (Alghamdi & Lili, 2011). The former aimed at 'rehabilitation of teachers through long-term and short-term training programs. PD within the latter is "characterized by continuity," "facilitating continuous professional growth" for teachers, has been annexed to effective performance and "linked with the [school] curricula" (p.7). Despite these reforms, PD is still characterized by short-term and episodic development opportunities that seem to undermine the envisaged 'continuous learning' (Alghamdi & Lili, 2011; Alshaikhi, 2018; Alshumaimeri, & Almohaisen, 2017; Oudah & Altalhab, 2018).

A recent development in PD policy has embodied the post-2006 PD era and signaled a third wave of the *post-2016 professionalization era* populated by the discourse of effective teachers and quality teaching. First, the Ministry of education established the National Centre for the Professional and Educational development (NCTED) in 2019 to "build teachers' and administrators' professional capacity through recognized professional development employment." Second, the Education and Training Evaluation Commission (ETEC), which is an independent body entirely responsible for evaluating, assessing, and accrediting qualifications in training and education in public and private sectors, introduced the 'Professional Standards for Teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia' (hereafter PSTKSA) in (2016). In line with the PSTKSA, each subject has a set of specialized standards such as the 'English Language Teacher Professional Standards' (Qiyas, 2016), hereafter (PSTELT). The PSTELT aimed to improve the quality of teaching English in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. An

updated version of the PSTKSA was released in (2020) entitled 'The Standards and Professional Pathways for Teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia' (SPPTS). The SPPTS is also a generic framework and applies to all teachers irrespective of their major, and there is also a subject-specific set of professional standards for teachers. The PSTELT was updated in 2020 to conform to the SPPTS, but they were released at the time of conducting this study. The ETEC (2017) points out that the SPPTS covers three main areas: professional values and responsibilities, subject knowledge, and professional practice. It also indicates that the SPPTS can be used for teachers' licensure, teachers' professional performance assessment, and planning professional development. This study investigated ELT teachers' perceptions of using the PSTELT as a framework for assessing their own PD needs and promoting their professional learning. The PSTELT consists of five main knowledge domains covering language pedagogy, curriculum design, theoretical knowledge, theoretical application, and language proficiency. These five domains include (16) standards and (56) indicators and in part reflect the three main components of the SPPTS.

1.3. PD Needs assessment

Teachers' needs assessment (also referred to as needs analysis) denotes the procedures taken to identify the gaps in and priorities of knowledge and skills identified as needing (Wall, 2008). The literature highlights nuanced differences between needs and needs assessment. As Altschuld and Kumar (2010) point out, a need is a gap resulting from a discrepancy between a present and desired performance. Needs assessment, on the other hand, is the process of identifying the gap itself. The needs assessment process entails undertaking three stages (Stefaniak, 2021, p.4). These are gaining deeper understanding of the context, identifying the desired performance, and then identifying the gaps in performance. Borich's (1980) needs assessment model identifies five stages of needs analysis: listing competencies, surveying competencies, ranking competencies, comparing high priority competencies to the content of the training program, and revisiting the program or competency. Bradshaw's needs model has also been used to identify Thai EFL teachers' expressed and felt needs in light of normative or 'observed' needs identified by the Teaching Knowledge Test (Wall, 2008). Using qualitative research design, she found that Thai teachers required more training, but they were generally unaware of their needs. She therefore recommended an objective exploration of EFL teachers' PD needs assessment. The PSTELT is thus considered a 'normative need' (Wall, 2008) required by ETCT, and according to Borich's model, it was adopted in this study to list, survey, rank, and compare high priority competencies or knowledge domains. However, research also

suggested that PD needs assessment should acknowledge teachers' preferences of PD activities and also the reasons that enable or discourage their engagement in PD (Korkmazgil, 2015; Luong, 2019). Noom-ura (2013) found out that Indonesian EFL teachers showed higher levels of PD needs in content knowledge areas and moderate levels in PD types. Deeper insights into the context around which PD operates also entails probing into teachers' perceptions about what shapes their PD (Tsui, 2007), including their awareness of the professional standards and how it influences their professional learning (Mayer et al., 2005). Informed by this understanding of PD needs assessment and also the view that the standards can serve as a tool of teachers' professional learning, this study addresses critical issues related to the challenges of EFL teachers' PD within standards-based reforms.

While is there is an emerging research interest on the impact of standards on mainstream teachers' professional development (Mayer et al., 2005; Fort et al., 2016; Bourke et al., 2018; Gore et al., 2017), there is generally a lack of research that investigated EFL teachers' perceptions of how the standards address their PD needs. Mayer et al., (2005) evaluated teachers' perceptions of Education Queensland's Professional Standards uses for professional learning. Teachers generally agreed that the professional standards can be used for planning their professional learning and as a source of reflection on their work. Despite the valuable contribution of Mayer's study, it relied heavily on the standards which apply to all subjects, rather than investigating major-specific standards, such as the PSTELT, and its impact on teachers' professional learning. There is also a shortage of research that explored EFL teachers' perceptions of PD needs in light of the professional standards in Saudi Arabia in the past five years. This timeframe was used to identify empirical research conducted within the post-2016 era explained above. The only somewhat relevant study on the PSTELT was conducted by Alrwele (2017). She utilized the PSTELT to measure preservice Saudi female EFL teachers' perceptions of their competency levels (n=126). She found out that student teachers had higher competency levels in language proficiency but were uncertain of their competency level in language pedagogy, curriculum design, and theoretical application. Alrwele attributed the disparity of competencies to the focus of EFL language teacher education programs on language proficiency at the expense of other domains of knowledge. Unlike Mayer et al., (2005), Alrwele's study was unique in measuring subject-specific competencies. However, the focus on competencies on its own may not provide a holistic view of the teachers' assessment of PD. To bridge this gap, this research adopted the PSTELT as a framework for "an ongoing engagement in the process of professional learning" (Ford et al., 2016, p.31).

2. Research questions

In order to measure teachers' perceptions of PD and the use of the PSTELT for their PD needs assessment, this study aimed to answer the following research questions:

- What are the EFL Saudi teachers' perceptions of PD?
- To what extent are the EFL Saudi teachers aware of the PSTELT?
- To what extent do the EFL Saudi teachers rate their PD needs in terms of the knowledge domains set in the PSTELT?

3. Methodology

The positivist paradigm informed the descriptive research design of this study which aimed to describe EFL teachers' PD needs assessment in light of the PSTELT. Researchers working within this tradition focus on the "meaning in the general" strategy by 'finding meanings in numbers' to avoid bias (Dörnyei, 2007, p.28). The researcher developed a self-administered questionnaire based on the SPPTS, the PSTELT, and the available literature. The adapted version of the PSTELT resulted in minor changes to the wording of sentences to fit the purpose of needs analysis and also omitting two items from the theoretical application domain of the PSTELT. The survey was administered online via Google Forms on tenured male and female teachers employed at different public education schools in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The convenience sampling approach was used in this study as it relied on known contacts as an accessible and available cohort for the study (Frey, 2018). One English language supervisor and another teacher volunteered to forward the survey link to teachers in two directorates of education. The consent form was embedded in the online survey, and the participants were required to provide their informed consent before they start the survey. They were not required to provide their names or any other identifying information. The participants' demographic information (table 1) indicates a total number of 65 EFL teachers who completed the survey (36 male and 29 female teachers), representing 55.4% and 44.6% of the sample, respectively. While this number is relatively small compared to the population of English language teachers in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, it can still be considered a convenience sample (Scho nlau & Fricker& Elliott, 2002).

Table 1. Demographic information

Category	Number	Percentage
Gender		
Male	36	55.4
Female	29	44.6
Age		
20-29	8	12.3
30-39	32	49.2
40-49	24	36.9
50+	1	1.5
Years of experience		
less than five years	7	10.8
5-10 years	19	29.2
11-15 years	18	27.7
16+ years	21	32.3
Qualification		
Bachelor	56	86.2
Masters	5	7.7
Ph.D.	1	1.5
Certificate/diploma	3	4.6

3.1. Instrument

The self-administered questionnaire consisted of 4 main sections with 14 questions and 89 items used to explore teachers' perceptions of using the PSTELT as a tool for assessing their PD needs and as a tool for professional learning. Section (1) obtained demographic information about the participants, while section (2) measured teachers' preferences for PD activities and the reasons for engaging and disengaging in PD. Section (3) measured teachers' level of awareness of the PSTELT. Finally, section (4) measured teachers' level of agreement with the extent to which the PSTELT can be used to assess their PD needs in terms of the five knowledge domains (language pedagogy, curriculum design, theoretical knowledge, theoretical application, and language proficiency) identified in the PSTELT. The responses were measured by a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 =Neutral, 4= agree, and 5= strongly agree) for sections 2,3, and 4. Section 1, however, was measured by the following criteria (1=highly interested, 2 = very interested, 3 =Neutral, 4= not very interested, and 5= not interested at all). Table (2) illustrates that the questionnaire had a high reliability coefficient (Cronbach Alpha=0.97).

Table 2. Reliability coefficient

Variables	Cronbach Alpha
Preference of PD	0.91
Awareness of standards	0.81
Perceived PD needs knowledge Domains Pedagogy	0.96
Curriculum design	0.96
Theoretical Knowledge	0.93
Theoretical Application	0.90
Language Proficiency	0.96
Overall Cronbach Alpha	0.97

4. Data analysis

Quantitative data analysis was employed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to assess the mean and standard deviation that feature the data in this study. As Harpe (2015) suggests, the arithmetic mean is an acceptable measure in descriptive research. A two-step transformation approach to correct normality was performed (Templeton, 2011) and Kruskal–Wallis test indicated a normal distribution of 0.2 (p>.05). Kurtosis was also within the acceptable ±3 range (Kline, 2010). Simple frequency tables were used to assess the participants' attitudes and perceived PD needs in light of the PSTELT. The mean score for each variable was calculated, and these were ranked based on the following criteria: Highly Interested/Strongly agree= 4.21–5.00, Very Interested/Agree= 3.41– 4.20, Neutral= 2.61–3.40, Not very Interested/ Disagree= 1.81–2.60, and Not interested at all/Strongly Disagree= 1–1.80.

5. Findings of the study

5.1. Teachers' perceptions of PD

This section addresses question (1) of the study, which aimed to assess teachers' perceptions of PD needs assessment in general represented by three factors: their interest in PD activities, the reasons for joining PD, and the perceived hindrances to participating PD.

5.1.1. Level of interest in PD activities

Teachers' interest in PD activities was represented by items (1-13) as displayed in table (3). The overall mean of teachers' agreement to the statements about their interest in PD is (3.79), which is equivalent to (very interested) in the response ranking criteria. This means that teachers were very interested in PD activities ranging from formal to informal PD represented by items (1-13). Item (1) had the highest mean, which is equivalent to highly interested, while item (10) had the lowest mean, which is equivalent to very interested. Teachers rated items (2,

3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13) as 'agree'. They also rated their interest in item (4) as 'Neutral' with a mean score of (3.25).

Table 3. Level of interest in PD activities

No.	Interest in PD activities	Mean	St. Deviation
1	Attending conferences.	4.23	1.13
2	Presenting a poster/ research paper at conferences.	3.63	1.25
3	Peer observation.	3.82	1.09
4	Keeping journals.	3.25	1.28
5	Reading in your area of interest.	4.17	0.97
6	Researching your own practice.	3.85	1.14
7	Lesson study	3.92	1.22
8	Enrolling on a professional diploma or certificate.	3.74	1.28
9	Participating in formal training	3.78	1.125
10	Participating in online forums/blogs about English language teaching.	3.46	1.29
11	Being a member of informal teachers' community to discuss educational issues	4.12	1.15
12	Actively participating in educational hashtags in social media	3.71	1.22
13	Being a member of professional bodies	3.92	1.22

5.1.2. Reasons for engaging in PD activities

Teachers' perceptions of the reasons for engaging in PD were measured by items (14-21) as displayed in table (4). The mean score for the reasons for engaging in PD is (4.13), which is equivalent to agree in the response ranking criteria. Teachers rated items (14, 18, 20, and 21) as 'strongly agree,' and items (15, 16, 17, and 19) were rated as 'agree.' Item (20) had the highest mean of (4.45), which is equivalent to 'strongly agree,' while the lowest mean score of (3.82) was observed in item (16) which is equivalent to agree.

Table 4. Reasons for engaging in PD activities

No.	Reasons for engaging in PD activities	Mean	St. Deviation
14	Your participation in professional development activities is part of your own professional development agenda.	4.32	0.773
15	You are required by your institution to get involved in formal professional development activities.	4.03	1.045
16	Participating in professional development activities increases promotion prospects at your current workplace.	3.82	1.117

17	Participating in professional development holds promise for future job prospect	4.02	1.008
18	Participating in professional development activities motivates and maintains enthusiasm in teaching	4.22	0.927
19	You attend/ participate in professional development events/activities because it provides social networking opportunities.	3.92	1.136
20	Attending/ participating in professional development activities would improve your teaching and student's learning.	4.45	0.791
21	Attending/ participating in professional development activities would keep you informed of up-to-date learning/teaching theories	4.26	0.906

5.1.3. Reasons for disengaging in PD activities

Teachers were asked to rate their agreement to the reasons why they disengage in PD. As shown in table (5), this question has (10) items (22-30), and the overall mean was (3.88), which is equivalent to agree in the response ranking criteria. This means that teachers agree that items (22-30) represent the reasons that hinder their pursuit to engage in PD activities. Item (22) was rated as the top reason for teachers' disengagement in PD with a mean score of (4.23) which is equivalent to 'strongly agree'. Items (23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30 and 31) fell under the 'agree' category. Teachers were neutral though about item (28) which had a mean score of (3.35).

Table 5. Reasons for disengagement in PD activities

No	Reasons of Disengagement in PD activities	Mean	St. Deviation
22	Lack of time.	4.23	0.95
23	Workload.	4.18	0.88
24	lack of enthusiasm due to exhaustion	3.80	1.06
25	Lack of motivation.	3.68	1.31
26	Lack of facilities	3.91	1.01
27	Lack of collaborative teacher groups	3.92	0.90
28	Isolation due Lack of trust among teachers' community.	3.35	1.28
29	Lack of awareness of informal professional development in the school culture.	3.72	1.27
30	Lack of release time	3.89	1.05
31	Lack of financial support.	4.11	1.15

5.2. Awareness of the PSTELT

This section aimed to assess teachers' awareness of the PSTELT. As table (6) illustrates, it was represented by four items (32-35) and had a mean score of (4.19) which is equivalent to agree in the response ranking criteria. This means that teachers agree that they are aware of the

PSTELT and its impact on their professional development, teaching, and students' learning. Teachers rated items (33, 34, 35) as 'strongly agree' whereas item (32) had a mean score of (4.02) which is equivalent to agree. The highest mean score of (4.28), which is equivalent to 'strongly agree' belong to item (34), and the lowest mean score of (4.02) was observed in item (32) which is equivalent to 'agree'.

Table 6. Awareness of the PSTELT

No.	Awareness of the PSTELT	Mean	St. Deviation
32	I have a good understanding of all professional standards for teachers	4.02	0.99
33	The professional standards for teachers provide a framework for planning teaching to improve students learning.	4.26	0.78
34	The professional standards for teachers provide a framework to plan my own professional development to improve my competencies.	4.28	0.65
35	The professional standards for teachers provide a framework for reflecting critically on teaching/students learning.	4.22	0.88

5.3. Assessment of teachers' competency needs

This section summarizes the results about extent to which teachers measure their competency needs in light of the PSTELT. These competencies include language pedagogy (items 36-46), curriculum design (items 47-62), theoretical knowledge (items 63-76), theoretical application (Items 78-81) and language proficiency (items 82-88). The total mean score for the five competencies is (4.23) which is equivalent to 'strongly agree' in the response ranking criteria. This means that teachers strongly agree that all competencies are needed in future professional development agendas. Table (7) illustrates the ranks of each knowledge domain. 'Curriculum design' had the highest mean of (4.36) which is equivalent to 'strongly agree' and was therefore ranked the top priority for teachers' competency needs. This was followed by 'Language Proficiency' (mean=4.23) which was ranked the second priority for teachers' competency needs. The third priority was the 'Theoretical knowledge' domain with a mean score of (4.21) which is also equivalent to strongly agree. The 'Language Pedagogy' domain was ranked the fourth priority of teachers' competency needs with a mean score of (4.21), followed by 'Theoretical application' which had a mean score of (4.15) and was ranked priority number 5 of teachers' competency needs.

Table 7. Ranking of teachers' competency needs

Competencies	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Language Pedagogy	4.19	0.68	4
Curriculum Design	4.36	0.62	1
Theoretical Knowledge	4.21	0.58	3
Theorectial Application	4.15	0.69	5
Language Proficiency	4.23	0.81	2
Total	4.23	0.58	

5.3.1. Language pedagogy

As table (8) shows, the language pedagogy competency is represented by 11 items (36- 46). It had a mean score of (4.19) which is equivalent to 'agree' in the response ranking criteria. This means that teachers generally agree that 'language pedagogy' competency is considered one of the main knowledge domains needed for their PD agendas. The highest mean belongs to items (36,37, 40, 43, and 46) which were rated as 'strongly agree' in the response ranking criteria. The mean scores for all the remaining six items (38, 39, 41, 42, and 45) were equivalent to 'agree' in the response rating criteria.

Table 8. Language pedagogy

No	Language Pedagogy	Mean	St. Deviation
36	To understand current trends in research on language teaching pedagogy relative to L2 speaking and listening.	4.22	0.76
37	To know effective teaching strategies relative to L2 speaking and listening.	4.34	0.668
38	To Know current trends in research on reading pedagogy relative to L2 reading.	4.08	0.924
39	To know current trends in research on writing pedagogy relative to L2 English composition.	4.09	0.843
40	To understand writing as a process.	4.25	0.791
41	To use Web 2.0 tools and stand- alone computer applications to support instruction in EFL writing.	4.12	0.82
42	To know effective teaching strategies relative to L2 writing.	4.17	0.84
43	To know how to plan varied, flexible and coherent learning activities and lessons.	4.29	0.744
44	To know how to sequence instruction to achieve module, lesson, and course level learning outcomes.	4.17	0.821
45	To know how to design assignments that are linked to learning goals and content.	4.11	0.954

| 46 | To know how to select assessment criteria that measure the achievement of learning outcomes. | 4.25 | .811 |

5.3.2. Curriculum design

The curriculum design domain was represented by 16 items (48-63) as illustrated in table (9). It had the highest mean score of (4.36) which is equivalent to 'strongly agree' in the response ranking criteria. This means that teachers rated curriculum design as the most needed knowledge domain. 15 items (47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 69, 60 and 62) of the curriculum design competency fell under the 'strongly agree' category of response ranking criteria. Items (51 and 56) had the highest mean score of (4.46) which is equivalent to 'strongly agree' while the lowest mean score of (4.18) belongs to item (60) which is equivalent to 'agree' in the response rating criteria.

Table 9. Curriculum design

No.	Curriculum Design	Mean	St. Deviation
47	To be familiar with the principles of curriculum design	4.39	0.72
48	To be familiar with a wide variety of print and electronic learning resources related to the curriculum you teach.	4.23	0.78
49	To know how to access, select and adapt learning resources based on learning goals and outcomes.	4.38	0.76
50	To know how to integrate electronic/digital learning resources in your teaching.	4.40	0.84
51	To know how to motivate and train students to use a variety of learning resources and become independent learners.	4.46	0.75
52	To know how to develop clearly defined, achievable, and measurable learning outcomes at course, module, and lesson level.	4.38	0.70
53	To know how to communicate learning goals to students clearly, both verbally and in writing.	4.38	0.65
54	To recognize students' unique academic and intellectual abilities.	4.32	0.79
55	To know how to design language lessons that take into consideration unique academic and intellectual abilities of all students.	4.23	0.88
56	To know how to adapt language lessons to accommodate students' personal interests and abilities.	4.46	0.71
57	To know how to design language lessons that are appropriate to students' cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds.	4.35	0.80
58	To know how to use innovative teaching strategies that enhance student language learning motivation.	4.34	0.78
59	To know how to create a positive classroom environment that encourages creativity and autonomous learning.	4.34	0.87

60	To know how to use teaching methods that develop critical thinking and problem-solving skills.	4.18	0.93
61	To know how to use teaching techniques that link student personal experiences and contemporary issues to language learning.	4.40	0.70
62	To know how to use teaching strategies and media that help students appreciate and enjoy language learning.	4.49	0.69

5.3.3. Theoretical knowledge

The theoretical knowledge domain identifies 14 standards represented by items (63-76) as shown in table (10). The mean score for this domain is (4.21) which is equivalent to 'strongly agree' in the response ranking criteria. This means that teachers strongly agree that the theoretical knowledge domain of the PSTELT is perceived to be one of their PD competency needs. Teachers rated 6 items (63, 64, 65, 67,68, 69 and 72) as 'strongly agree' while the remaining 8 items (66, 70, 71, 73, 74, 75,76) were rated as 'agree'. The highest mean score of (4.43) was observed in item (68) as 'strongly agree' while item (67) had the lowest mean score of (3.95) which is equivalent to 'agree'.

Table 10. Theoretical knowledge

No	Theoretical Knowledge	Mean	Std. Deviation
63	To understand theories of cognitive development and how they relate to language learning and literacy.	4.22	0.78
64	To understand theories of second language acquisition.	4.22	0.70
65	To understand the stages and obstacles of second language acquisition	4.37	0.70
66	To know the major conceptions and definitions of language.	4.15	0.83
67	To be familiar with the origin and history of English and its relation to other languages.	3.95	0.93
68	To know the parts of speech including word categories, nouns, verbs and their tenses, adjectives, adverbs, function words, pronouns, articles, auxiliary verbs, prepositions, intensifiers, conjunctions, and the characteristics and usages of each.	4.43	0.64
69	To know phrases and phrase types including prepositional phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, noun phrase, and verb phrase.	4.40	0.66
70	To know clauses, clause types and patterns including finite and nonfinite clauses, main and subordinate clauses, and coordination between clauses.	4.23	0.81
71	To be able to use basic knowledge of English syntax to support instruction in L2 reading and writing.	4.17	0.84
72	To be able to use basic knowledge of compositional and lexical semantics (semantic rules, theories of word meaning, lexical	4.12	1.01

No		Mean	Std. Deviation
	relations, and semantic features) to support instruction in L2 reading and writing		
73	To be able to use articulatory phonetics (the production of sounds, consonants and vowels) to support instruction in L2 English speaking and listening.	4.28	0.72
74	To be able to describe the major varieties of English with special attention to grammatical and orthographic differences between British and North American English.	4.14	0.85
75	To be able to use basic knowledge of inflectional morphology and word formation processes (derivations and compounding) to support instruction in L2 English reading and writing.	4.12	0.82
76	To be able to use basic knowledge of discourse analysis to support instruction in L2 English reading and writing	4.18	0.95

5.3.4. Theoretical application

Table (11) illustrates the 'Theoretical Application' domain, which identifies 5 standards represented by items (77-81). The mean score for this domain is (4.16), which is equivalent to 'agree' in the response ranking criteria. This means that teachers agree that the theoretical application is considered one of the main PD needs. Items (77, 79, 81) were rated as 'strongly agree', while items (78 and 80), were rated as 'agree' in response ranking criteria. The highest mean score belongs to item (77) with a mean score of (4.26) which is equivalent to strongly agree, while item (80) had the lowest mean score of (3.91) which is equivalent to agree.

Table 11. Theoretical application

No	Theoretical Application	Mean	Std. Deviation
77	To demonstrate familiarity with current theories of second language acquisition relevant to ESL instruction.	4.26	0.796
78	To know the interrelatedness of first and second language acquisition and ways in which L1 affects the development of L2.	4.12	0.875
79	To be familiar with the common challenges experienced by EFL students learning English and also the strategies for overcoming these challenges, particularly those challenges faced by Arabic L1 learners.	4.22	0.739
80	To be familiar with the historical developments of TESOL.	3.91	0.98
81	To be familiar with the major theories and recent trends of TESOL and their applications.	4.22	0.893

5.3.5. Linguistic proficiency

The linguistic proficiency competency was represented by 7 items (82-88). The mean score for this domain is (4.25) which is equivalent to strongly agree in the response ranking criteria. This

means that teachers strongly agree that the linguistic proficiency is deemed a needed PD constituent. The highest mean belongs to items (82, 83, 86 and 87, 88) which were rated as 'strongly agree'. Items (84 and 85) were rated as 'agree'. Item (88) had the highest mean score of (4.35) which is equivalent to strongly agree, while item (85) had the lowest mean score of (4.14) and was rated as 'agree'.

Table 12. Linguistic proficiency

No	Linguistic Proficiency	Mean	Std. Deviation
82	To know how to read non- specialized reading passages with varying levels of length and difficulty, comprehend, analyze and evaluate them.	4.28	0.89
83	To know how to find explicit and implicit information in reading texts	4.29	0.91
84	To know how to establish logical relations between sentences and paragraphs.	4.18	0.86
85	To know how to discriminate facts from points of view.	4.14	0.93
86	To know how to distinguish main and minor ideas.	4.34	0.92
87	To know how to interpret referentials.	4.28	0.89
88	To know how to summarize texts.	4.35	0.82

Discussion

This study sought to investigate Saudi EFL teachers' perceptions of PD, and their PD needs assessment in light of PSTELT. The questionnaire yielded excellent reliability, and the descriptive analysis revealed higher levels of teachers' awareness of the PSELT and the implications for their PD agendas, teaching, and students' learning. Higher preferences for both informal and formal PD types were also reported. Additionally, the data demonstrated higher levels of agreement to personal, professional, and workplace-related reasons for engagement/disengagement in PD. Furthermore, the data also showed that teachers had higher needs for the knowledge domains or competencies promulgated in the PSTELT.

Perceptions of PD

The perceptions of Saudi EFL teachers about PD revealed in this study provide useful insights into the controversies about "the exact meaning of PD and what constitutes development" (Cirocki & Farrell, 2019, p.2). While the literature review revealed polar views of PD represented by the training model and self-directed learning models (Cirocki & Farrell, 2019;

Oudah & Altalhab, 2018; Ulla, Barrera & Acompanado, 2017, Arslan, 2019; Arfiandhani, 2020; Farrell, 2018; Vo & Mai Nguyen, 2010), the findings of this study suggest that Saudi EFL teachers favored a collective conceptualization of PD that encompass both formal and informal approaches to PD. They are highly interested in attending conferences, reading in areas of interest, and joining informal teachers' communities. They are very interested in lesson study, seeking membership in professional bodies, action research, peer observation, formal training, enrolling on professional diploma or certificate, presenting posters/ research papers at conferences and journaling. This finding confirmed previous research which indicates that EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia are willing to engage in both informal and formal PD activities (Alshaikhi, 2018; Alshumaimeri, & Almohaisen, 2017; OECD 2018). Similar findings were reported in Australia (Mayer et al., 2005) and Vietnam (Luong, 2019). While the OECD (2018) found out that Saudi teachers took part in formal PD more than informal PD, respondents of this study generally showed higher preferences for both forms of PD, except keeping journals which was rated as neutral. This study also differs slightly from the findings reported by Cirocki and Farrell (2019) who revealed that self-directed learning, peer observation and collaborative PD were less common among Indonesian teachers due to low teachers' autonomy. Drawing on a qualitative study with 41 participants, Korkmazgil (2015) also reported different findings as Turkish teachers were reluctant to engage in formal PD such as training provided by the Ministry of National Education. He also reported a discrepancy between teachers' beliefs of ideal and actual PD and suggested that PD might not be part their daily agendas. The research reported in this study, however, suggests that formal and informal PD activities should not be viewed as binary as long as they enhance teachers' professional learning and have positive implications for teachers' practice (Mayer et al., 2005). It also suggests that both consciously planned and incidental PD activities (Day, 1998) should be encouraged, and teachers should be supported to undertake both types of PD. Finally, it suggests that when teachers are given objective tools such as the one adopted in this study based on normative needs of the PSTELT and experts in the field (Wall, 2008), their expressed needs tend to be genuine and address the challenges posed by the sponsored professionalism (Leung, 2009). It also indicates that the context within which PD is enacted influences and shapes teachers' PD (Evans & Esch, 2013). Hence, the PSTELT was perceived as a powerful tool that can be used for teachers' professional needs assessment and also for planning their PD. It seems that, unlike the Thai teachers' lack of knowledge on their PD needs (Wall, 2008), Saudi teachers took full advantage of the standards to inform their professional learning process.

Reasons for engagement in PD:

This research demonstrated that the respondents of the questionnaire pursue PD because they strongly believe it improves practice, updates their knowledge and skills, and addresses personal, professional and institutional demands. It also revealed that PD motivates teachers and maintains their enthusiasm, holds promise for future job prospects and increases their chances of getting promotions. These findings are consistent with previous research (Alshaikhi, 2018; Alshumaimeri, & Almohaisen, 2017; Cirocki & Farrell, 2019; Mayer et al., 2005). However, unlike teachers in Philippines who do research as a PD activity for job promotion purposes (Ulla, Barrera and Acompanado, 2017), it seems that Saudi teachers in this study grounded their perceptions of PD in professional gains. The highest mean scores in teachers' perceived reasons for undertaking PD belong to items (20 and 21) which suggest that teachers pursue PD as long as it enhances their professional learning and improves teaching and students' learning. This finding substantiates previous research which posits that teacher engage in PD to extend their knowledge and improve their classroom practice (Alshumaimeri and Almohaisen, 2017; Cirocki & Farrell, 2019; Mayer et al., 2005; Oudah & Altalhab, 2018).

Reasons for disengagement in PD

The findings of this study revealed the main factors that constrain teachers' engagement in PD which include lack of time, workload, lack of financial support, lack of collaborative teacher groups, lack of facilities, lack of release time, lack of enthusiasm due to exhaustion, and lack of motivation. These findings are in agreement with the previous literature (Alshaikhi, 2018; Korkmazgil; 2015; Luong, 2019; Wall, 2008). Lack of time and workload were perceived as the highest challenges for engaging in PD and this finding is also corroborated by previous research (Alshaikhi, 2018; Korkmazgil 2015; Luong, 2019; Wall, 2008). These findings suggest that engaging or disengaging in PD has underlying reasons and that teachers who participated in the study acknowledged these reasons as impediments for pursuing PD. These factors contradict Desimone's (2009) five constituents of effective PD. Lack of time combined with workload may jeopardize the 'duration constituent' of effective PD which includes "the span of time over which the activity is spread, and hours spent in the activity" (p.184). Lack of time may also influence the type of PD teachers engage in, and the concern is they may be more inclined to engage in short and episodic PD rather than PD that enhances professional learning (Avolas, 2010; Gore et al., 2017). The data also demonstrated that lack of collaboration among teachers is another factor that inhibits engagement in effective PD. This finding has also been reported in the Saudi context (Alshaikhi, 2018) and internationally

(Korkmazgil; 2015; Luong, 2019). Moreover, while the NCTED provides free of charge PD to all teachers, the findings of this study suggest that 'lack of financial support' may impede teachers' participation in PD. This finding suggests that teachers are looking for ways of support to their PD initiatives outside of the school context. Similar findings were reported in previous research (Korkmazgil 2015; Luong, 2019; Wall, 2008). Leaders in Vietnamese schools for example suggested financial support for teachers' PD include reimbursement for workshops and conferences (Luong, 2019). Lack of enthusiasm due to exhaustion as well as lack of motivation were also perceived to impede teachers' engagement in PD. As exhaustion is usually characterized by 'low energy and chronic stress", and lack of motivation is prompted by incongruence of teachers' beliefs with what and how they teach (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; p.1030), PD support centers such as NCET should take these issues into consideration and provide emotional support about how to cope with these issues. Future research is also needed to investigate the impact of exhaustion and lack of motivation on teachers' enthusiasm to engage in PD. The findings highlight the need to pay attention to the institutional, personal and professional contexts (Evans & Esch, 2013; Johnson & Golombek, 2011; Leung, 2009) and make sure these factors enhance teachers' professional learning both individually and collaboratively.

Awareness of the PSELT standards

This study suggests that teachers' level of awareness of the professional standards indicates the extent to which it informs their professional learning and enhances their practice. It demonstrated that teachers generally agree that they are aware of the PSTELT and that it has direct implications for their PD, teaching and students' learning. The study thus revealed that the PSTELT provide a framework for planning teachers' professional development to improve their competencies. It also indicated that the standards can be used to plan their teaching to improve students' learning and reflect on their teaching. These findings confirm past research conducted in Australia for example which revealed that the standards also provide a useful framework for planning teachers' PD, improving their competencies and enhancing students' learning (Mayer et al., 2005). Contrary to this finding, research conducted in Thailand posited that teachers' lack of awareness of the standards or 'normative needs' may disempower teachers and make them unaware of their 'expressed' needs (Wall, 2008).

Competency Needs assessment

Teachers generally strongly agree that the knowledge domains promulgated in the standards provide a useful framework for identifying their 'felt' or expressed competency needs as a source for their ongoing PD. This finding substantiates teachers' beliefs about the use of the standards to inform their PD, and also in planning and improving their teaching practice. Teachers strongly agree that curriculum design, theoretical knowledge, and language proficiency competencies are their first priority for planning PD to improve their knowledge and practice. They perceived language pedagogy and theoretical application as their second priority for their future PD agendas. This finding partially contradicts findings from the previous literature. Alrwele (2017) found out that student teachers rated their competencies in language proficiency and theoretical knowledge as highly competent, but they were uncertain about their competencies in curriculum design, theoretical application and language pedagogy. She attributed teachers' uncertainty "to the nature of their preparation program, which gives a great emphasis to language competency" (p. 207). Teachers' ranking of their competencies as highly needed for their PD in this study does not necessarily suggest lack of knowledge in these domains. It may suggest that teachers' use of the standards can enable teachers to prioritize their needs and update their knowledge and skills in their future PD. This finding is substantiated by Alharbi (2020) who posit that Saudi EFL teachers' degree of teaching knowledge in light of the technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge framework was high. The findings also suggest that when assessing their PD needs, teachers should pay more attention to the factors of effective PD mentioned by Desimone (2009). These factors include PD's focus on subject knowledge and the extent to which it informs their professional learning. The uniqueness of the findings of this study suggests that when the standards, in this case the PSELT, are used by teachers to identify their PD needs, it enables them to identify the discrepancies between what is expected of them and what they actually need (Mayer et al., 2005).

Despite the insightful contributions of this study, it clearly has some limitations. The first limitation pertains to the use of the now 'old' PSTELT. In addition, given the small sample size, caution about generalizability of the findings must be exercised. The study nonetheless has several implications for PD researchers and providers. The framework used in this study to explore teachers' perspectives of their PD needs has the potential to improve the quality of PD support provided to teachers to further enhance their professional learning and students achievements in congruence with standards-based reforms.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study highlights that the standards, such as the PSTELT, provide a useful framework for teachers' PD needs assessment. The PSTELT combined with dimensions that shapes teachers' PD adopted in this study proved as a reliable tool for PD needs assessment. It enabled teachers in identifying their priorities in terms of their competencies, the preferred PD types, constraints and enablers of PD and based on this they can choose the suitable PD type (formal or informal) to address these needs. In addition, the study suggests that asking teachers to engage in any form of PD without acknowledging the challenges to engagement might jeopardizes teachers' professional learning. It also suggests that assessing teachers' PD needs entails not only exploring teachers' perceptions of their cognitive competency needs, but also the factors that enable or discourage teachers to pursue their own PD agendas. Finally, future PD needs assessment researchers might be needed to investigate the overarching conceptualization of PD suggested by the participants in this study. PD support providers such as the NCTED should also provide support in identifying the competency needs as well as the dimensions that influence effective engagement in PD revealed in this study.

References

Alrwele, N. S. S. (2018). Assessment of English language student teachers' perceptions of their competency in light of teacher professional standards (ELTPSs) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *The Arab Journal for Quality Assurance in Higher Education*, *11*(35), 187-218.

Alshaikhi, H. (2018). English Language Teacher Professional Development in Saudi Arabia: Teachers' Perceptions. Doctoral dissertation, University of Exeter, UK.

Alshumaimeri, Y. A., & Almohaisen, F. M. (2017). Saudi EFL teachers' perceptions of professional development activities. *Journal of Education & Social Policy*, *7*(1), 185-193.

Altschuld, J. W., & Kumar, D. D. (2010). *Needs assessment: An overview.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Alzahrani, F. Y., & Althaqafi, A. S. (2020). EFL Teachers' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Online Professional Development in Higher Education in Saudi Arabia. *Higher Education Studies*, *10*(1), 121-131.

Arfiandhani, P. (2020). Utilizing Facebook Groups in Teaching English as Foreign Language: Indonesian EFL Teachers' Voices. *International Journal of Language Teaching and Education*, *4*(1), 53-60.

Arslan, Y. F. (2019). The role of lesson study in teacher learning and professional development of EFL teachers in Turkey: A case study. *TESOL Journal*, *10*(2), e00409.

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

Bolam, R. & McMahon, A. (2004). Literature, definitions and models: Towards a conceptual map. In C. Day & J. Sachs (eds), *International handbook on the continuing professional development of teachers.* Berkshire: Open University Press.

Borich, G. D. (1980). A needs assessment model for conducting follow-up studies. *Journal of teacher education*, *31*(3), 39-42.

Bourke, T., Ryan, M., & Ould, P. (2018). How do teacher educators use professional standards in their practice?. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *75*, 83-92.

Bowe, J., & Gore, J. (2017). Reassembling teacher professional development: The case for quality teaching rounds. *Teachers and teaching*, *23*(3), 352-366.

Burns, A., & Richards, J. C. (2009). *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Cirocki, A., & Farrell, T. S. (2019). Professional development of secondary school EFL teachers: Voices from Indonesia. *System*, *85*, 1-14.

Cross, R. (2010). Language teaching as sociocultural activity: Rethinking language teacher practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, *94*(3), 434-452.

Day, C. (1997). Teachers in the twenty-first century: time to renew the vision. In A. Hargreaves & R. Evans (Eds), Beyond Educational Reform: Bring Teachers Back In (pp. 44-61). Buckingham: Open University Press

Day, R. (1993). Models and the knowledge base of second language teacher education. University of Hawaii's Working Papers in ESL, 11(2), 1–13.

Desimone, L. M. (2009). Improving impact studies of teachers' professional development: Toward better conceptualizations and measures. *Educational researcher*, *38*(3), 181-199.

Dörnyei, Z. (2019). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Education and Training Evaluation Commission (2020). Standards for English Language Teachers -2. KSA. Riyadh. Retrieved Mar., 11, 2021 from https://etec.gov.sa/ar/productsandservices/Qiyas/profession/TeachersLicensure/Documents/2-الإنجليزية20%اللغة20%معايير.pdf.

Evans, M. & Esch, E., (2013). The elusive boundaries of second language teacher professional development. *The Language Learning Journal*, 41(2), pp.137-141.

Farrell, T. S. (2018). Second language teacher education and future directions. The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching, 1-7.

Forde, C., McMahon, M. A., Hamilton, G., & Murray, R. (2016). Rethinking professional standards to promote professional learning. *Professional Development in Education*, *42*(1), 19-35.

Frey, B. B. (Ed.). (2018). *The SAGE encyclopedia of educational research, measurement, and evaluation*. Sage Publications.

Gore, J., Lloyd, A., Smith, M., Bowe, J., Ellis, H., & Lubans, D. (2017). Effects of professional development on the quality of teaching: Results from a randomised controlled trial of Quality Teaching Rounds. *Teaching and teacher education*, *68*, 99-113.

Harpe, S. E. (2015). How to analyze Likert and other rating scale data. *Currents in pharmacy teaching and learning*, *7*(6), 836-850.

Johnson, K. E., & Golombek, P. R. (Eds.). (2011). Research on second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective on professional development. New York: Routledge

Kelchtermans, G. (2004). CPD for professional renewal: Moving beyond knowledge for practice. In Day & Sachs (Eds), International handbook on the continuing professional development of teachers, 217-237.

Kline, R. B. (2010). *Principles and practice of structural equation Modelling* (3rd ed.). NY: Guilford Press.

Knowles M. 1988. The adult learner: A neglected species. Houston, TX: Gul

Knowles, M. S., Holton III, E. F., & Swanson, R. A. (2014). The adult learner: The definitive classic in adult education and human resource development. New York, NY: Routledge.

Korkmazgil, S. (2015). *An Investigation into Turkish English Language Teachers' Perceived Professional Development Needs, Practices and Challenges* (Doctoral Dissertation, METU, Ankara, Turkey).

Kubanyiova, M., & Feryok, A. (2015). Language teacher cognition in applied linguistics research: Revisiting the territory, redrawing the boundaries, reclaiming the relevance. *The Modern Language Journal*, *99*(3), 435-449.

Leung, C. (2009). Second language teacher professionalism. In, Burns, A., & Richards, J. C.(eds). *The Cambridge guide to second language teacher education*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 49-58

Luong, P. N. H. (2019). *A case study of the support needs of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers at Foreign Language Centres in Vietnam* (Ph.D.). The University of New South Wales, Australia.

Mann, S. (2005). The language teacher's development. *Language Teaching*, 38(03), 103-118.

Mayer, D., Mitchell, J., Macdonald, D., & Bell, R. (2005). Professional standards for teachers: A case study of professional learning. *Asia Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*,33(2), 159–179.

National Center for Assessment in the Higher Education (Qiyas). 2016. *English Language Teachers Professional Standards*. Riyadh, KSA.

Noom-Ura, S. (2013). English-Teaching Problems in Indonesianland and Indonesian Teachers' Professional Development Needs. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(11), 139-147.

OECD (2019), TALIS 2018 Results (Volume I): Teachers and School Leaders as Lifelong Learners, TALIS, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://doi.org/10.1787/1d0bc92a-en.

Oudah, F., & Altalhab, S. (2018). Saudi EFL Teaching Training Programmes: Teachers' Perceptions and Needs. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *8*(11), 1407-1414.

Schonlau, M., Ronald Jr, D., & Elliott, M. N. (2002). *Conducting research surveys via e-mail and the web*. Rand Corporation.

Singh, G., & Richards, J. C. (2006). Teaching and learning in the language teacher education course room: A critical sociocultural perspective. *RELC journal*, *37*(2), 149-175.

Skaalvik, E. M., & Skaalvik, S. (2011). Teacher job satisfaction and motivation to leave the teaching profession: Relations with school context, feeling of belonging, and emotional exhaustion. *Teaching and teacher education*, *27*(6), 1029-1038.

Stefaniak, J. (2021). Needs assessment for learning and performance: Theory, process, and practice. Routledge.

Tang, S. Y. F., Cheng, M. M. H., & So, W. W. M. (2006). Supporting student teachers' professional learning with standards-referenced assessment. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *34*(2), 223-244.

Templeton, G. F. (2011). A two-step approach for transforming continuous variables to normal: implications and recommendations for IS research. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, *28*(1), 4.

Tsui, Amy B. M. (2007), What Shapes Teachers' Professional Development? In: Cummins, J. & Davison, C. (eds.), *International Handbook of English Language Teaching*. Boston, MA: Springer, 1053-1066.

Ulla, M. B., Barrera, K. I. B., & Acompanado, M. M. (2017). Philippine classroom teachers as researchers: teachers' perceptions, motivations, and challenges. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, *42*(11), 4.

Vo, L. T., & Mai Nguyen, H. T. (2010). Critical friends' group for EFL teacher professional development. *ELT journal*, *64*(2), 205-213.

Wall, U. (2008). A needs assessment interview: The professional development needs of non-native speaking EFL teachers in Thailand. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 2(1), 47- 64.

White, E. (2013). Exploring the professional development needs of new teacher educators situated solely in school: pedagogical knowledge and professional identity. *Professional development in education*, *39*(1), 82-98.