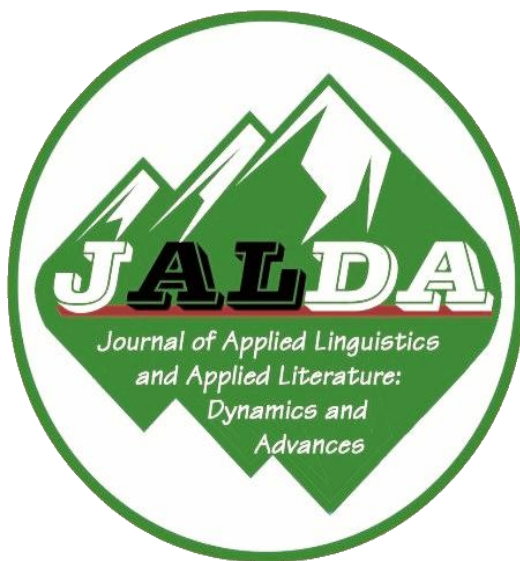


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Dynamics and Advances*



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JALDA's Aims and Scope

The Journal of Applied Linguistics and Applied Literature: Dynamics and Advances (JALDA) is an ambitious academic publication which aims to encourage and disseminate cross-disciplinary research targeting real-world problems and real-life concerns where language and/or literature are at the center. Bringing together the now-well-established discipline of *Applied Linguistics* and the thriving subject of *Applied Literature*, *JALDA* stimulates and promotes innovative work within applied studies on language and literature. In the first place, it publishes articles on the two inter-related subjects of *Applied Linguistics* and *Applied Literature*. However, as an essential component of *JALDA*'s long-term goals, a new focus has been added, namely the dynamic relationship between language teaching and literature, a fast-growing and dynamic field that requires special attention. In fact, the long-term prospective ambition is to bring this inter-subject dynamic from background to the foreground in the journal. *JALDA*'s precise outlook on each of the three intended areas is outlined below in the hope of further illumination on its publication policies and planned purview.

1. Applied Linguistics

The most prevailing definition of *Applied Linguistics* so far, with a consensus on, conceives the field as "the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue" (Brumfit, 1997, p. 93). Although real-world problems concerning language may involve each of the three questions regarding the nature of language, its use and its learning, historically, the question of efficient learning and teaching of languages has been a predominant concern among real word problems attended to in *Applied Linguistics*. Accordingly, the following subjects are well-seated areas of investigation within mainstream *Applied Linguistics* which are included in *JALDA*'s scope of focus. *JALDA* considers English as a foreign language as the subject of learning:

- Second language vocabulary acquisition
- Grammatical development in L2
- Teaching and learning L2 skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening)
- Technology in language learning and teaching
- Second language curriculum and materials
- Individual differences in second language learning
- Social issues in language learning
- Language teaching methodology
- English for specific purposes
- English as a Lingua Franca
- Language assessment and testing
- English as an international language
- Research methods in applied linguistics
- Language teacher education
- Bilingual education

Although the subject of *Language Learning and Teaching* seems to have already established itself as the mainstream concern in *Applied Linguistics*, the sheer fact that language learning and teaching take place in various ecological conditions, brings forth the warning that ignoring the questions concerning the nature of language and language use might carry with it the risk of blocking our views of the true nature of language learning and teaching as well. *Applied Linguistics* studies need to preserve the flexibility to be inspired by and note the insights from the studies concerning the nature of language and language use, an area which has been labeled as the “*Linguistics Applied*” or “*Applications of Linguistics*” by Davis and Elder (2007). In other words, language pedagogy needs to be examined in its social background in order to be able to reap benefits from the *blessings of the unknown*.

It must be reminded as a word of caution that linguistics is not alone in inspiring *Applied Linguistics Studies*. In fact, attention to the contextual aspects of language learning and teaching highlights the cross-disciplinary nature of *Applied Linguistics*. In this perspective, any research that associates a language-related problem to the core knowledge in psychology, sociology, anthropology, education, neuroscience, economic and political sciences, law, business, etc. counts as *Applied Linguistics*. In this view, *Applied Linguistics* can equally be based in psychology, education, sociology, computer sciences and any other relevant area as it is in linguistics. The intention in these interdisciplinary inquires is to offer reformative, corrective and ameliorative views and suggestions for a language-related real-world problem. In this sense, the discipline of *Applied Linguistics* will be open to the attempts to account for the issues of language learning and teaching alongside its various dimensions as outlined above by giving way to the studies inspired by other language-related studies including the following:

- Corpus Studies
- Discourse Studies
- Economy and language
- Forensic linguistics
- Language and culture
- Language and environment
- Multilingualism
- Neurolinguistics
- Other related areas
- Politics and language
- Translation

According to *JALDA*’s policy formulated here, a few canonical considerations make *Applied Linguistics* distinctive from *Linguistics Studies*. Also, these key features define the nature of work on *Applied Linguistics* that is expected to be submitted for publication in *JALDA*.

- 1) Problem-orientedness
- 2) Language in its ecology
- 3) Cross-disciplinary nature
- 4) Reformative goals
- 5) Real-life data

2. *Applied Literature*

Applied Literature has emerged recently as an effort to draw literary studies more akin to human beings' everyday needs. A problem-oriented view of literature might be alien to most of the scholars in English Literature, one way or another, since the established tradition in literary studies does not concern itself primarily with real-life problems. However, there is an urgent call upon the experts and academicians of English Literature to further concern themselves with the real world, an appeal that needs to be responded effectively. Literary studies seem to be in an urgency to be taken out from the academic world into the real world. Literature needs to be treated as a real-world art concerning itself with people's lives and not simply an academic art that is analyzed and criticized within academic forums.

Inspired by this urgency, *Applied Literature* is defined here as any systematic research where literature can solve or ameliorate a real-world problem. In this sense, literature acts as a stimulus to reform. *Applied Literature* examines the effect of literature on human beings whereby the literary text is in service of dealing with real-life problems. To be able to account for the various aspects of human life in all its contexts, *Applied Literature* must be interdisciplinary in its nature. Furthermore, to meet the essential requirements of scientific research, it has to give allegiance to a satisfactory level of methodological rigor. By definition, *Applied Literature* is thus:

- 1) Problem-oriented in terms of objectives
- 2) Effect-driven in its rationale
- 3) Multi- disciplinary in its scope
- 4) Method-conscious in its procedure
- 5) Data-based in terms of its subject
- 6) Reform-oriented in its applications

What Is Not *Applied Literature*?

Articles in *Applied Literature* that are based on the following research orientations, generally classified under *Pure Literature*, do not comply with the policies of *JALDA*:

1. The starting point of the research is based on a piece of literary work rather than a problem in the outside world.
2. The rationale and justification of the study is theory-driven rather than effect-driven.
3. The study commits itself exclusively to the tradition of literary studies without any attempt to invoke insights from other disciplines.
4. The study acts upon literary texts as the only data available for analysis and does not attend to the data from the real-world human life.
5. The study does not imply any reform, amelioration or solution to a real-world problem in its conclusion.

Areas of Research in Applied Literature

Following are some subjects that can be included in *Applied Literature*. The list is not exhaustive; *JALDA* encourages initiatives and innovations in this regard:

- Therapeutic value of literature
- Trauma studies in literature
- Literature and ethical development
- Literature and science
- Literature and environment
- Literature for professional training
- Literary literacy education
- Other innovative areas

3. Dynamics between Applied Linguistics and Applied Literature

The most ambitious and prospective goal of *JALDA* is to propagate research on real-life problems where both language and literature are at the core. Here, the intention is to deal with language-related problems where literature acts as a source of solution or amelioration to the problem. *JALDA* considers this interdisciplinary preoccupation as a highly promising area of research concern for the specialist in both *Applied Linguistics* and *Literary Studies*. As part of its long-term policy, *JALDA* team fervently encourages researchers to step in this innovative forum of inquiry. Novel as it is, the concept of the research on the *Dynamics* between *Applied Linguistics* and *Literature* can be illustrated with the few following areas of inquiry. The list is inevitably tentative and open for further promotion. *JALDA* is opening a special forum for discussing the options and potentials available regarding the feasibility of this new research area. We ardently invite scholars and experts of the related fields to share their initiatives with us by submitting their prospects in the form of Review Articles or reporting their interdisciplinary research findings.

- The role of literature in language teaching
- The role of Literature in language teacher education
- The role of Literature in language assessment
- The role of Literature in Language teaching curriculum
- Other innovative areas

Basic Criteria for Publishing with JALDA

A research article published in *JALDA*:

- 1) starts and deals with a real-life problem, where language and/or literature is at the center.
- 2) introduces clear suggestions for tackling problems.
- 3) upholds an iterative relationship between theory and practice.
- 4) involves symptomatic and documented evidence in the form of real-world data.
- 5) may rely on the research data of quantitative, qualitative or combined nature.
- 6) involves a wide spectrum of research designs ranging from highly qualitative ethnographies or case studies to statistics-based experiments

SUBMIT MANUSCRIPTS

General Guidelines

The articles submitted to *JALDA* should follow the APA 7th style with some adaptations specific to *JALDA*. Contributing authors are advised to download and read *JALDA's Concise Guide for APA's 7th Edition Manual*. Please consult the *Paper Submission Template to JALDA* for submission instructions, guidelines, and contact information of the journal's editors.

Online submission

Manuscripts should be written in English and must be submitted online through our online submission website. **Submit Manuscript** is an online submission and review system where authors can submit manuscripts and track their progress. Registration and login are required to submit items online and to check the status of current submissions.

PUBLICATION ETHICS

As a member of the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), JALDA is committed to maintaining the highest standards of publication ethics and supporting ethical research practices.

Ethics Statement

Authorship

The authors' central obligation is to present a concise, accurate account of the research performed as well as an objective discussion of its significance. A paper should contain sufficient detail and references to public sources of information. The results of research should be recorded and maintained in a form that allows analysis and review, both by collaborators before publication and by other scholars for a reasonable period after publication.

Fabrication of data is an egregious departure from the expected norms of scholarly conduct, as is the selective reporting of data with the intent to mislead or deceive, as well as the theft of data or research results from others.

Proper acknowledgment of the work of others used in a research project must always be given. Authors should cite publications that have been influential in determining the nature of the reported work. Information obtained privately, as in conversation, correspondence, or discussion with third parties, should not be used or reported without explicit permission from the investigator with whom the information originated. Information obtained in the course of confidential services, such as refereeing manuscripts or grant applications, cannot be used without permission of the author of the work being used.

Authors must obtain permission for the use of any previously-published materials from the original publisher. Proof of permission must be provided before manuscripts containing previously-published material can be published. Proper credit lines for all previously published material must be included in the manuscript.

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It is unethical for an author to publish manuscripts describing essentially the same research in more than one journal of primary publication. Submitting the same manuscript to more than one journal concurrently is unethical and unacceptable. When an error is discovered in a published work, it is the obligation of all authors to promptly retract the paper or correct the results.

JALDA's Commitment Form

JALDA's Commitment Form for Publication Ethics Observance, Assignment of the Financial Rights, Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest and Introduction of Authors can be downloaded in *MS Word Format* or *PDF Format* on JALDA's website. The form includes the following 4 sections:

1. Commitment to scholarly publication ethics and introduction of the corresponding author
2. Assignment of the financial rights to publish an article
3. Disclosure of potential conflicts of interest
4. Introducing the authors, their order of appearance, and their contribution

Please read the terms of this agreement, use the Word file or PDF file of the Commitment Form, fill in and sign it, and send the document as one of the required files upon submission.

Author Guidelines

Articles submitted to the *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Applied Literature: Dynamics and Advances (JALDA)* should represent outstanding scholarship and make original contributions to the field. The Editors will assume that an article submitted for their consideration has not previously been published and is not being considered for publication elsewhere, either in the submitted form or in a modified version. The articles must be written in English and not include libelous or defamatory materials. The articles should be between 4,000 and 8,000 words (including the abstract and references). JALDA operates a double-blind peer-review process. To facilitate this process, authors are requested to ensure that all submissions, whether first or revised versions, are anonymous. Authors' names and institutional affiliations should appear only on the web-fillable sheet. All authors are asked to submit five files including the Main File of the article (anonymous), Title Page (containing authors' names, affiliations, email and ORCID), Authorship Form (containing all authors' short biographies and Photo), Authorship and Conflict of Interest Form and Supplementary Persian Abstract.

JALDA (previously *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Discourse Analysis*) has been published since 2016 as the *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Applied Literature: Dynamics and Advances*. As part of the Open Access policy, publishing articles in JALDA is *free of charge* for authors. The similarity rate of all submissions to JALDA is checked through *plagiarism-detecting software* before being processed for peer review.

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An Investigation of the Relationships and Order of the Recall/Recognition Knowledge of Word Acquisition Components in an Iranian EFL Context

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Abstract

Vocabulary is a powerful carrier of meaning in a language, and developing vocabulary knowledge is an essential task in the process of enhancing a foreign language. The current study explores vocabulary knowledge as a multi-component construct by analyzing various vocabulary components' relationships and acquisition order in an Iranian EFL context. Moreover, this study aims to provide a better conceptualization of EFL vocabulary knowledge. A total of 170 Iranian EFL learners were evaluated using eight vocabulary tests that assessed recall and recognition knowledge of derivatives, form-meaning link, multiple meanings, and collocations, following Nation's (2022) framework. First, correlational analyses indicated that all measured word knowledge components were interrelated. Moreover, the Implicational Scaling analysis uncovered a uniform trend in vocabulary acquisition for these components, suggesting that recognition knowledge is obtained before recalling knowledge across all aspects. Therefore, the hierarchy pattern indicated that the participants with knowledge of higher aspects are highly likely to know the lower aspects. Furthermore, Confirmatory Factor Analysis indicated that word knowledge in this context can be conceptualized as a unidimensional construct. A comprehensive understanding of the nature of vocabulary knowledge and the interrelationships among its components can provide critical insights into the role of vocabulary acquisition in EFL contexts.

Keywords: vocabulary knowledge components, vocabulary recall, vocabulary recognition, implicational scaling

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Introduction

Wang & Zhang (2025) describe word knowledge as a “web” of words, emphasizing the interconnected and multifaceted nature of vocabulary knowledge (p.2). This metaphor suggests that vocabulary is not a linear acquisition but a network of interwoven aspects. The multicomponent description of word knowledge acknowledges a shared agreement among linguistic scholars that the knowledge of vocabulary is not an all-or-nothing construct; instead, the construct encompasses various independent components for each word (Nation, 2020; Schmitt, 2014). Research on vocabulary acquisition has indicated that word knowledge components are acquired at different speeds (González-Fernández, 2025; González-Fernández & Schmitt, 2020; Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Nation, 2013). Furthermore, the acquisition of one aspect of a word is also associated with other vocabulary knowledge aspects (Nation, 2013; Nontasee & Sukying, 2020).

To date, most of the studies have only focused on single aspects of lexical knowledge components, for instance, collocations (Jeensuk & Suckyang, 2021; Peters, 2016), and the form-meaning link (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004). Moreover, such studies have not investigated the relationship between these interrelated word components. In addition, to the best of our knowledge, the exploration of multicomponent vocabulary knowledge among Iranian (EFL) learners has not been considered in previous studies. Studies investigating the developmental pattern of vocabulary through a multicomponent lens can give valuable insights into the nature of the vocabulary construct. Investigating the relationships, order, and multicomponent nature of the word acquisition components can lead to a more holistic and practical language learning. Therefore, using the framework of vocabulary knowledge proposed by Nation (2022), including form-meaning link, derivatives, multiple meanings, and collocation, the current study examined the overall vocabulary construct’s nature across various proficiency levels of Iranian EFL learners in both recall and recognition aspects by investigating their relationships and order of difficulty and offering the best conceptualization for vocabulary knowledge construct. The following research questions are framed for this study:

RQ1: Are vocabulary knowledge components of Iranian EFL learners interrelated in an Iranian EFL context?

RQ2: Is there a systematic order of difficulty in the acquisition of vocabulary knowledge recall, and recognition of English by Iranian EFL learners?

RQ3: How can the relationship between vocabulary knowledge components be best conceptualized among Iranian EFL learners?

Literature Review

Several theoretical conceptualizations have been developed to elucidate the elusive and intricate nature of word knowledge, outlining the multiple components of vocabulary knowledge. One of the distinctions exists between breadth and depth (Milton, 2009; Read, 2004). The breadth of vocabulary knowledge pertains to the

quantity of words the individual knows or has partial meaning knowledge at a specific time (Nation, 2001). The depth of vocabulary, instead, signifies the quality of a learner's knowledge of a lexical item. Another widespread perspective on conceptualizing depth is connected to how productive and receptive knowledge of a lexical item is distinct (Nation, 2013; Schmitt, 2010).

Researchers typically represent vocabulary as consisting of components, dimensions, aspects, and constructs. Nation's (2022) framework of word-knowledge components, which underpins the present study, categorizes vocabulary knowledge into several key components, often summarized into three main categories: form, meaning, and use. There are three knowledge components in each category, and these can be divided into receptive and productive aspects. Therefore, there are 18 distinct sub-aspects of vocabulary knowledge derived from this list. Being familiar with the word is the initial step in the receptive and productive process of learning, which ends with the word being used correctly in context. Thus, this process, which begins with word comprehension and progresses to word production, reflects a vocabulary learning process that is receptive and productive. The vocabulary knowledge framework proposed by Nation (2022) is indicated in Table 1.

Table 1

Vocabulary Knowledge Aspects (Nation, 2022, p. 54)

Form	Spoken	[R]	What does a word sound like?
	Written	[P]	How is the word pronounced?
		[R]	What does a word look like?
Meaning	Word parts	[P]	How is the word written and spelled?
		[R]	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		[P]	What word parts are needed to express the meaning?
	Form and meaning	[R]	What meaning does this word form signal?
		[P]	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concepts and referents	[R]	What is included in the concept?
Use	Associations	[P]	What items can the concept refer to?
		[R]	What other words does this make us think of?
		[P]	What other words could we use instead of this one?
	Grammatical functions	[R]	In what patterns does the word occur?
	Collocations	[P]	In what patterns must we use this word?
		[R]	What words or types of words occur with this one?
	Constraints on use	[P]	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
		[R]	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		[P]	Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Note: [R] = receptive; [P] = productive

Differentiating between recall and recognition aspects in learning a language can significantly affect word mastery. Recall knowledge is the ability of a learner to independently produce or retrieve the target word form from memory when presented with a relevant stimulus. This means the learner can actively recall the L2 word form without being provided the word itself. Recognition knowledge involves the ability of a learner to recognize and understand the word's meaning or meanings when they are presented with the word form. In this case, the learner is not required to produce the word actively, but rather to identify and comprehend its meaning (Read, 2000). Recall requires deeper encoding and stronger memory associations, while recognition may rely more on familiarity and passive understanding. Developing recall and recognition knowledge can lead to more comprehensive and durable word mastery for language learners.

In this study, four components of vocabulary knowledge based on Nation's (2022) framework are going to be explored: form-meaning link, derivatives, multiple meanings, and collocation. The form-meaning link is a fundamental aspect of vocabulary knowledge that involves connecting the written or spoken form of a word to its meaning (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004). Derivational knowledge entails recognizing and recalling morphological processes by which new words are created from existing base words through affixation (Nation, 2013). Multiple meanings knowledge refers to a learner's understanding that many words have more than one meaning or sense, a phenomenon known as polysemy (Schmitt, 2010). Finally, collocation knowledge concerns word pairs that frequently co-occur in a language and convey specific meanings not directly deducible from the individual words (Cao & Badger, 2023).

Nation's (2022) framework has been invaluable in delineating the multifaceted nature of knowledge of vocabulary. This framework is the accepted and most widely preferred conceptualization among scholars exploring second language vocabulary knowledge (Li & Kirby, 2015; Cheng & Matthews, 2018). However, it does not fully explain how the different components are interrelated and how several aspects are learned before others, leaving gaps in our theoretical understanding of this construct.

Relationships Among Word Knowledge Components

Several researchers have conducted studies designed to reveal the relationships between components of vocabulary knowledge. They have proposed the notion of a growth process in word knowledge, which claims that various components are intrinsically interrelated and interact with each other, and no component is mastered in a completely detached manner from the other components (Schmitt, 2014; Zhong, 2014, 2018). For example, high correlations have been found between vocabulary size (i.e., form-meaning link) and associations ($r = .70-.81$; Qian, 2002), as well as collocations ($r = 0.70$; Nguyen & Webb, 2017). They followed Nation's (2013) framework for the conceptualization of word knowledge.

In Iranian EFL learners, Janebi Enayat and Amiran (2020) investigated the association between vocabulary size and depth. The study indicated a significant

correlation between vocabulary size and depth. Likewise, Karafkan (2021) investigated the acquisition of word knowledge and indicated a strong correlation between vocabulary size and depth.

Difficulty Order among Components of Word Knowledge

Previous studies concentrating on only components of single-word knowledge have revealed that the recall aspect of vocabulary knowledge appears to be more challenging than recognition for a single component. For instance, Laufer and Goldestein (2004) suggested a difficulty hierarchy among four word-knowledge aspects. The accuracy levels for these aspects demonstrated an order of difficulty from easiest to the most challenging: passive recognition, active recognition, passive recall, and active recall.

Indeed, earlier research has examined the process of acquiring and developing vocabulary knowledge as a multifaceted construct, revealing that various vocabulary aspects are learned in different orders. Surer (2021) explored the performance of 283 ESL learners across five different word knowledge aspects. The findings of the study demonstrated that certain aspects of word knowledge have a form of relationship. Furthermore, receptive learning takes place before productive learning. The difficulty of the aspects of vocabulary knowledge, ranging from most accessible to most challenging, has the following order: recognizing the written form from the spoken form > recognition of the spoken form from the written form > recognizing the written form by its meaning > identifying the spoken form by its meaning > spelling words correctly from their spoken form.

Nontasee and Sukying (2020, 2021) researched how the knowledge of vocabulary is acquired, revealing that productive knowledge is typically acquired after receptive knowledge. Moreover, their research highlighted noticeable correlations between various components of vocabulary knowledge.

Sukying and Nontasee (2022) studied the relationships and order of difficulty between vocabulary knowledge aspects in an EFL context. The researchers administered a series of tests regarding productive and receptive vocabulary aspects, following Nation's (2013) model, with 156 Thai EFL students. The results indicated strong relationships among knowledge of vocabulary aspects, suggesting that vocabulary acquisition is an interconnected and progressive learning experience. Furthermore, they showed that learners performed more effectively on receptive tests compared to productive ones.

Hartshorn and Surer (2023) explored the acquisition of eight dimensions of vocabulary knowledge among 110 ESL learners. They demonstrated that passive recognition was more manageable than active recall. Indeed, the study findings revealed that, on average, the pronunciation component was more challenging than the collocation and spelling components.

More recently, González-Fernández (2025) examined eight aspects of word knowledge across EFL learners from two distinct L1 backgrounds. The results revealed that recognition knowledge preceded recall knowledge across all

components. Recognition of the form–meaning link was the aspect mastered earliest by the learners in the implicational scale. Collocation knowledge was mastered before knowledge of multiple meanings and derivatives.

Based on these studies, it can be inferred that the different components of word knowledge are known to various extents by EFL learners, and recognition mastery is better known than the recall dimension across these components. Nevertheless, the present research does not provide evidence regarding a definitive sequence in which EFL learners acquire these vocabulary components.

The Nature of Word Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge has been widely conceptualized in the literature, with ongoing debate regarding whether it is best understood as a unidimensional or multidimensional construct. Several empirical studies have explored this issue, focusing on the relationship between different components of vocabulary knowledge. For example, Spencer et al. (2015) investigated the role of the derivational morphology component of vocabulary knowledge through two separate studies. These studies focused on the relationship between morphological awareness and word knowledge among 90 English-speaking eighth graders. The results of these two studies provided a uni-dimensional conceptualization, where all tasks converged into a single construct, which was a better fit with the data than a multidimensional model.

González-Fernández and Schmitt (2020) further investigated the nature of vocabulary knowledge construct. They saw significant correlations between the different vocabulary knowledge aspects, ranging from .70 to .94. Out of eight aspects of word knowledge in their study, derivative was more challenging than collocation, multiple-meanings as well as form-meaning links. Furthermore, they discovered that receptive and productive dimensions are distinct constructs, and the differentiation between receptive and productive knowledge is essential for understanding the development of vocabulary knowledge. Consequently, the findings indicated that vocabulary knowledge functioned as a single-dimensional construct.

Koizumi and In'nami (2020) explored the factor structure of vocabulary knowledge among Japanese ESL learners. The vocabulary knowledge was defined by two key aspects: the breadth (the link between word form and meaning) and the depth (including collocations, polysemy, and word associations). The study utilized pre-existing printed tests, initially made for various scientific aims, which assessed specific target words throughout each word knowledge component. The authors discovered that a model with two factors, where breadth and depth were thought of as separate yet correlated dimensions, was more suitable for the data than a model with one factor for these L2 students. Notably, the study revealed a high correlation between the breadth and depth factors.

More recently, González-Fernández (2022) aimed to investigate the vocabulary knowledge conceptualized as having multiple dimensions. The research involved EFL learners from two different native language backgrounds, Chinese and

Spanish. These learners were evaluated using eight different vocabulary assessments that focused on recognition and recall aspects of various components of vocabulary knowledge, including the knowledge of collocations, form-meaning, polysemy, and derivatives. First, although the concept of vocabulary knowledge is often described as multidimensional, these different aspects do not operate as separate entities. Instead, they are highly interconnected, indicating that vocabulary knowledge functions more in the form of a unified construct than a collection of independent dimensions, regardless of whether it is in the context of L1 or L2 English. Furthermore, the results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis demonstrated that vocabulary knowledge functions in the form of a unique construct with one dimension for each group of learners separately. These results offer empirical evidence that vocabulary knowledge in an L2 is unidimensional, suggesting the necessity to improve the theoretical understanding of this concept.

Overall, the above review shows that there is no consensus about or enough evidence to establish the nature of vocabulary knowledge as either uni- or multidimensional. Therefore, the current study examines the relationships among vocabulary knowledge components, the sequence of vocabulary acquisition, and the dimensionality of vocabulary knowledge among Iranian EFL learners. By incorporating both recall and recognition aspects of word knowledge, the study aims to contribute a more comprehensive and theoretically grounded understanding of vocabulary knowledge in Iranian EFL learners.

Method

Participants

A total of 170 undergraduate (BA) students participated in the study from the University of Tabriz, East Azerbaijan province, Iran. The criteria for selecting participants were centered on convenience sampling. The average age ranged from 18 to 30 ($M = 20.79$, $SD = 4.35$), and all the students had previously passed their mandatory English course in the first year of university. Since implicational scaling (IS) requires the participants to have different proficiency levels, we aimed for a population of learners with a range of proficiency in English, from beginners to advanced.

Design

This research study is non-experimental and follows correlational, ex post facto, and exploratory designs. First, it seeks to identify possible existing correlations among the aspects of vocabulary knowledge. No predicting or predicted variables are established for this research design, and all aspects involved are treated as equal parts of the correlation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Next, an implicational scaling is used to rank the aspects of vocabulary knowledge based on their difficulty (Ary et al., 2019). This part of the research uses an ex-post facto design. However, here, unlike most ex post facto studies, the comparison is not made among participants but rather among the groups of vocabulary knowledge aspects. Finally, an exploratory design is used to determine the best model that describes the vocabulary knowledge among EFL learners (Stebbins, 2001).

Materials and Instruments

Selected Target Words

The researchers selected twenty English words, which offered the best opportunity to evaluate the four components of vocabulary knowledge, namely, form-meaning links, derivatives, multiple-meanings, and collocations. The selection was guided by the following criteria:

1. Frequency Range (1k-9k): The selection of words was guided by the frequency lists derived from the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), as compiled by Nation (2012). Specifically, words were drawn from frequency bands spanning the 1,000th to the 9,000th most frequently occurring English words. This range was chosen to align with the varying proficiency levels of the study participants and to fulfill the requirements of the IS analysis.
2. Representative list of parts of speech.
3. Multiple meanings, with at least three distinct senses for each word.
4. Presence of derivatives, requiring a minimum of three derivative forms linked to one meaning per word.

These words included: close, hard, mean, season, development, charm, fulfill, bank, grate, terminal, employ, distance, challenge, broad, redeem, character, bright, fresh, draught, and indent.

Test Battery

The test battery included eight different sections. Each section was numbered and separated from each other. The estimates of internal consistency reliability for the formats were accepted, according to a reliability test (all formats had Cronbach's Alpha values ≥ 0.73). To establish the content validity of the tests, a larger panel of TEFL experts conducted an evaluation, and their opinions and comments were received and considered.

Remember the Form (Recall Aspect)

Form-Meaning Link was operationalized as the learner's ability to associate a word's written form with its meaning. The test utilized a format of fill-in-the-blank, in which the learners needed to recall the L2 form based on the meaning provided in their first language (L1) (e.g., Webb, 2005; Laufer & Goldstein, 2004). The learners were given a context in Persian, describing the situation as well as the meaning of the word, as illustrated in the example below for the word "fresh":

همسایه ام مرا برای صرف قهوه به خانه اش دعوت کرد. او برایم قهوه تازه درست کرد.

My neighbour made a f----- coffee for me.

Remember the Meaning (Recognition Aspect)

The current test utilized a multiple-choice test format for meaning recognition, which most previous researchers employed in their studies to assess this knowledge (e.g., Webb, 2005; Laufer & Goldstein, 2004). The target words were placed in a short sentence, and the students were asked to choose the correct meaning from four options with three distracters. Example:

We need some <u>fresh</u> evidence.
(a) Familiar
(b) Origin
(c) Careful
(d) Popular
(e) I don't know

Word Class Formation

Derivatives (word class knowledge) were operationalized as a learners' knowledge of different grammatical forms of a word (e.g., noun, verb, adjective, adverb). This section aims to measure the recall aspect of derivations. The test followed the format previously employed in studies on the productive aspect of derivatives (e.g., Saigh, 2015). Here, subjects were instructed to type the derivative forms of the target word that were suitable in four sentences intended to restrict the word's part of speech. Researchers informed participants that the form of a word does not always change for different word classes and that several words may not belong to all word classes. Example:

Fresh		
1	Noun	I enjoy the _____ of the early morning in summer days.
	Verb	The wind will always _____ in the early morning in summer days.
	Adjective	The wind is very _____ in the early morning in summer days.
	Adverb	The wind blows _____ in the early morning in summer days.

Word Class Recognition

This part attempted to measure the recognition aspect of derivatives and involved a multiple-choice format with several possible answers. For each target word, learners were given eight different derivative options. Typically, these options included one correct derivative and one distractor for each word class. In designing distractors, a list of the most commonly used suffixes for each word class was planned and applied to the root of the target words to develop invalid forms of each word class. Since some target words do not have derivatives for all four word classes, option X was provided in all items. Example:

Fresh

a. Freshen

b. Fresh

c. Freshable

d. Freshness

e. Freshment

f. Freshate

g. Freshly

h. X

Noun	I enjoy the _____ of the early morning in summer days.
Verb	The wind will always _____ in the early morning in summer days.
Adjective	The wind is very _____ in the early morning in summer days.
Adverb	The wind blows _____ in the early morning in summer days.

Polysemy Recall Test

Multiple meanings (polysemy) were operationalized as learners' capacity to understand and distinguish among various senses of polysemous or homonymous words. To test this component of Nation's (2013) framework, the selected target words encompassed both polysemes and homonyms. The word polysemy was utilized rather than multiple meanings. The design of the test is an open question in a written format. Learners were tested on three meanings of each target word. The learners were given the target words, their word class, and a clue for each of the three senses being assessed. Following each hint, they had a blank to type, in Persian or English, a synonym, a translation, a definition, a description, or a sentence where the particular sense being assessed is demonstrated. Example:

Fresh

(Adjective= ideas) _____

(Adjective=weather) _____

(Adjective= water) _____

Polysemy Recognition Test

In this measure, each word was employed in five various sentences, each with a distinct meaning. Of these five sentences, two served as distractors, using the word with an invented meaning. The other three sentences demonstrated the three senses assessed in the recall test. To minimize the memory effect, the clue words from the recall test were not included in these sentences. The subjects were told there was a maximum of three correct sentences and a minimum of one in each item. Example:

Fresh

- a) After I had finished the work, my boss gave me fresh instructions.
 - b) He bought a fresh car.
 - c) The window glass was very fresh that morning.
 - d) These plants only survive in fresh water.
 - e) The mornings are always very fresh in the mountains.
 - f) I don't know.
-

Collocation Recall Test

In this study, collocations represented knowledge of commonly co-occurring word combinations. Participants were given a short context in Persian (the following example means ‘to breathe fresh air, please open the window’), and were required to complete the English sentences by filling in the suitable collocate, providing the initial letter of the word. The sentences were typed in such a way that they did not allow for direct translations, ensuring that the subjects had to be familiar with the collocates to provide the correct answers, e.g., ‘هوای کلاس عوض شود’ from the example sentence below literally translates as ‘to change the classroom’s air’ rather than the English collocate ‘fresh air’. All the collocations tested were lexical. Example:

پنجره را باز کنید تا هوای کلاس عوض شود.

It was too warm in the classroom, so I asked the teacher to let some *fresh* a
.....into the classroom.

Collocation Recognition Test

Based on the works of earlier studies (e.g., Chui, 2016), this test used a multiple-choice format. Participants were given a sentence containing an underlined target word and were required to choose the correct collocate from five available choices. The researcher informed the students that, although all the words in the sentence were credible, they had to select the option that seemed the most natural in English. Example:

After a day in the office, I need to go outside for some *fresh* _____.

- a) Wind
- b) Sun
- c) Weather
- d) Air
- e) I don't know

Procedure

Eight different vocabulary tests were provided through the website <https://survey.porsline.ir/s/hw7zuzx>, and students were asked to log in using their laptops. To ensure the integrity of the testing process, students were actively monitored throughout the assessment. Monitoring was done through a combination of physical supervision by proctors who circulated in the classroom, random seat checks, and close observation of participants' screens. Additionally, students were explicitly instructed not to use dictionaries, mobile phones, or any AI-based tools, and any suspicious behavior was promptly addressed by the research team. Because the administration of the whole data collection procedure required more than 3 hours, the researchers divided the eight parts of the test into two parts. These two distinct tests were presented to the students in the counterbalanced order. Furthermore, to avoid test fatigue, the entire process of data collection was divided into two sessions, each lasting 90 minutes. Specifically, tests on form, meaning,

word class formation, and word class recognition were conducted first, followed by polysemy recall, polysemy recognition, collocation recall, and collocation recognition tests in the second session. Using the framework of vocabulary knowledge proposed by Nation (2022), which encompasses the form-meaning link, derivatives, multiple meanings, and collocation, the present study aims to examine the nature of the overall vocabulary construct among Iranian EFL learners. This investigation considers both recall and recognition aspects by exploring the relationships among these components, their relative order of difficulty, and ultimately providing an optimal conceptualization of the vocabulary knowledge construct.

Data Analysis

Answering the first research question required running a series of correlational analyses. The second research question was explored by running implicational scaling (IS), also known as Guttman scaling. This analysis was followed by Mokken scaling for confirmation. Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using IBM SPSS AMOS (version 26) was employed to provide the best conceptualization of the relationship between vocabulary knowledge components. The two hypothesized unidimensional and multidimensional models followed the dimensional approach, specifically Nation's (2022) framework.

Figure 1

Hypothesized Unidimensional Model of Word Knowledge

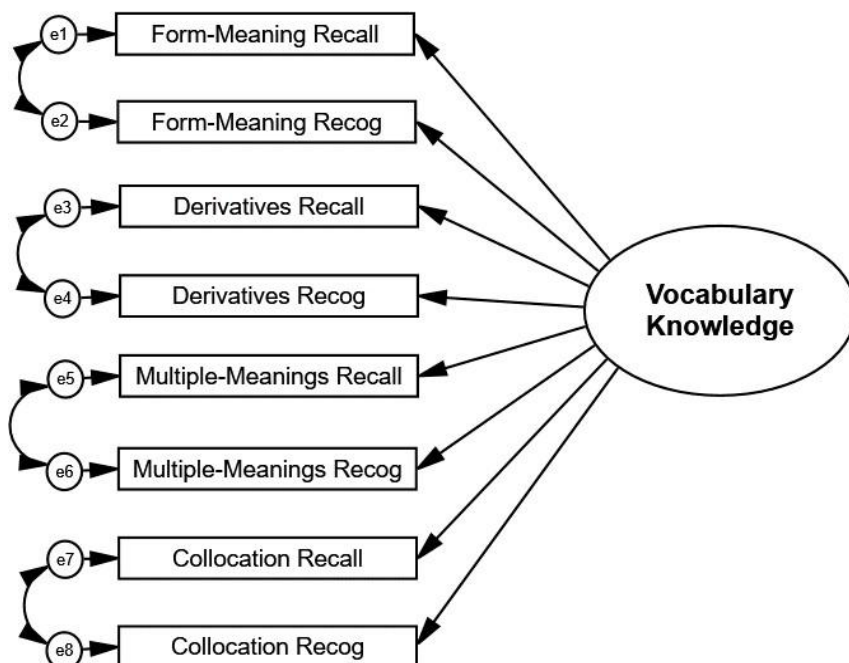
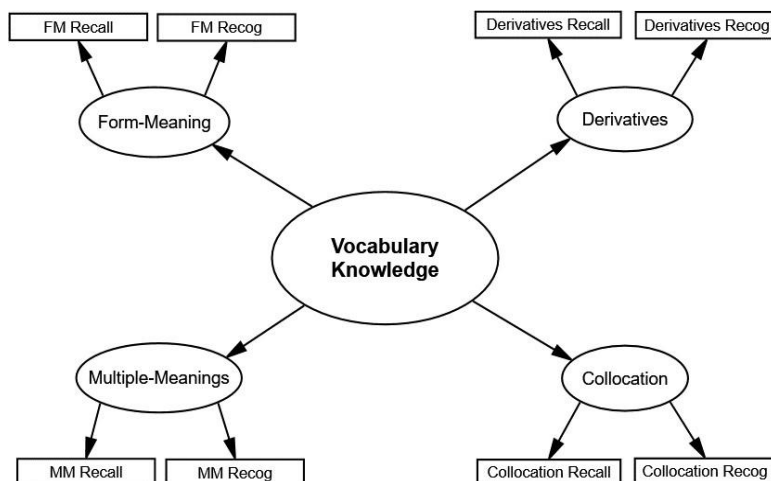


Figure 2*Hypothesized Multidimensional Model of Word Knowledge*

Results

The results of the data analysis are provided in the following section.

RQ1: Are vocabulary knowledge components of Iranian EFL learners interrelated in an Iranian EFL context?

First, the descriptive statistics of the data were obtained. Then, to systematically examine the normality of the distributions, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run, the results of which are presented in Table 3.

Table 2*Descriptive Statistics of the Scores*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
R. Form	166	1.00	20.00	9.4940	3.96767
R. Meaning	166	4.00	20.00	13.1807	4.22157
WC. Formation	166	.00	61.00	25.8072	15.81174
WC. Recognition	166	.00	72.00	32.8675	18.09589
P. Recall	166	.00	50.00	23.9940	11.66476
P. Recognition	166	.00	58.00	28.5241	12.71063
C.Recall	166	1.00	20.00	10.0361	4.15880
C.Recognition	166	3.00	20.00	12.4639	4.56421

Table 2 indicated that recognition mastery of an aspect reflected higher scores than its recall knowledge.

Table 3

The Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
R. Form	.075	166	.024	.986	166	.086
R. Meaning	.083	166	.007	.968	166	.001
WC. Formation	.095	166	.001	.952	166	.000
WC. Recognition	.094	166	.001	.965	166	.000
P. Recall	.068	166	.061	.978	166	.009
P. Recognition	.056	166	.200*	.985	166	.078
C.Recall	.088	166	.003	.984	166	.056
C.Recognition	.087	166	.004	.965	166	.000

* This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As presented in Table 3, the Sig. values for most of the variables were not above the critical value (.05) in both Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilk tests. Since most of the main variables in this study were non-normally distributed, non-parametric tests can be used for data analysis. Therefore, a series of Spearman’s correlation tests were run (Table 4) to answer the first research question.

Table 4

Spearman’s Correlation Among the Variables

		R.F.	R.M.	W.C.F.	W.C.R.	P.Rl	P.Rn	C.Rl	C.Rn
R. F.	Rho	1.000							
	Sig.	.							
	N	166							
R.M.	Rho	.767**	1.000						
	Sig.	.000	.						
	N	166	166						
W.C.F.	Rho	.672**	.682**	1.000					
	Sig.	.000	.000	.					
	N	166	166	166					
W.C.R.	Rho	.634**	.655**	.909**	1.000				
	Sig.								
	N								

	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.			
	N	166	166	166	166			
P. Rl	Rho	.645**	.667**	.743**	.744**	1.000		
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.		
	N	166	166	166	166	166		
P. Rn	Rho	.637**	.650**	.747**	.749**	.926**	1.000	
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	
	N	166	166	166	166	166	166	
C.Rl	Rho	.722**	.666**	.638**	.622**	.654**	.656**	1.000
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	166	166	166	166	166	166	166
C.Rn	Rho	.673**	.715**	.687**	.698**	.703**	.692**	.876**
	Sig.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	166	166	166	166	166	166	166

** Correlation is significant at $p < .01$

Notes: R.F. = Remember form; R.M = Remember Meaning; W.C.F. = Word Class Formation; W.C.R. = Word Class Recognition; P.Rl = Polysemy Recall; P.Rn = Polysemy Recognition; C.Rl = Collocation Recall; C.Rn = Collocation Recognition.

According to the results, the correlation among all variables was significant at $p < .01$. The highest observed correlation coefficients (rho) were observed between polysemy recall and polysemy recognition ($\rho = .926$), word class formation and word class recognition ($\rho = .909$), collocation recall and collocation recognition ($\rho = .876$) and remember the form and remember the meaning ($\rho = .767$). All other correlations were significant and robust. The lowest observed rho was the correlation between remembering the word and word class recognition ($\rho = 0.634$). Based on the results obtained above, it was concluded that there was a positive and significant correlation among all vocabulary knowledge components.

RQ2: Is there a systematic order of difficulty in the acquisition of vocabulary knowledge components recall and recognition of English by Iranian EFL learners?

Here, Guttman scaling was used. To do so, the scores were first transformed into 20-point scales. Then, the Guttman matrix was created by horizontally ordering the components from easiest to most difficult and vertically ranking the participants based on their performances. By doing so, an implicational scale was developed to examine each participant's distribution of known and unknown aspects and arrange the different vocabulary knowledge components according to their difficulty. If the vocabulary aspects are found to form an

implicational scale, we can assume that they are strongly, hierarchically interrelated. Using a 75% correct answers criterion (following Gonzalez-Fernandez & Schmitt, 2020), the following pattern was noticed (from easier to more difficult):

Form-meaning link meaning recognition > Collocation recognition > Multiple-meaning recognition > Derivative recognition > Form-meaning link form recall > Collocation recall > Multiple-meaning recall > Derivative Recall.

All aspects of vocabulary knowledge showed a pattern of hierarchy. The above hierarchy indicates that the participants with the knowledge of higher aspects are highly likely to know the lower aspects. For example, the participants with collocation recall knowledge are expected to know both collocation recognition and remember the meaning.

The above hierarchy was tested for goodness of fit. The two measures used by Guttman (1944) are the coefficient of reproducibility (Crep) and the coefficient of scalability (Cscal). The former represents the predictability power of the matrix, while the latter shows the implicational strength of the aspects. The observed Crep was .92, which is above the cut-off point of .9, suggested by Guttman. To calculate the value, the ratio of the number of errors in the pattern was deducted from 1. In other words, there were only about 8% of errors in the pattern suggested above. The coefficient of reproducibility is calculated as shown below:

$$C_{rep} = 1 - \frac{\text{Number of errors}}{(\text{number of participants})(\text{number of items})}$$

As for the Cscal, the observed value was .69, which is safely above the cut-off value of 0.6. This value was obtained using the following formula:

$$C_{scal} = 1 - \frac{\text{Sum of observed errors}}{\text{Sum of expected errors}}$$

As the observed value was above the critical value, it can be concluded that the aspects of the suggested implicational scale could be considered unidimensional and, hence, scalable.

Finally, to ensure the validity of the results, a Mokken scale analysis was performed. The formula for this analysis is $H_{jk} = 1 - \frac{F_{jk}}{E_{jk}}$; Where F_{jk} is the observed number of Guttman error for item pairs (j and k) and E_{jk} is the expected number of errors. The obtained value was .72. This is considered acceptable and implies homogeneity of the results. Moreover, the overall reliability for the scale was estimated at .853, which is regarded as a strong index.

Based on the values obtained from the implicational scaling, it can be concluded that there is a systematic order of difficulty in the acquisition of vocabulary knowledge component of English by Iranian EFL learners.

RQ3: How can the relationship between vocabulary knowledge components be best conceptualized among Iranian EFL learners?

To answer the third research question, the researcher ran a confirmatory factor analysis. Two structural models could be hypothesized: one with components in the first order and one with them in the second order. Both models were tested to reach the model that best describes the structure. The analyses were run using IBM SPSS AMOS (version 29).

The First-Order Model

The first CFA model was created with all components in the first order. First, the standardized and unstandardized loadings of the items were inspected (Table 5).

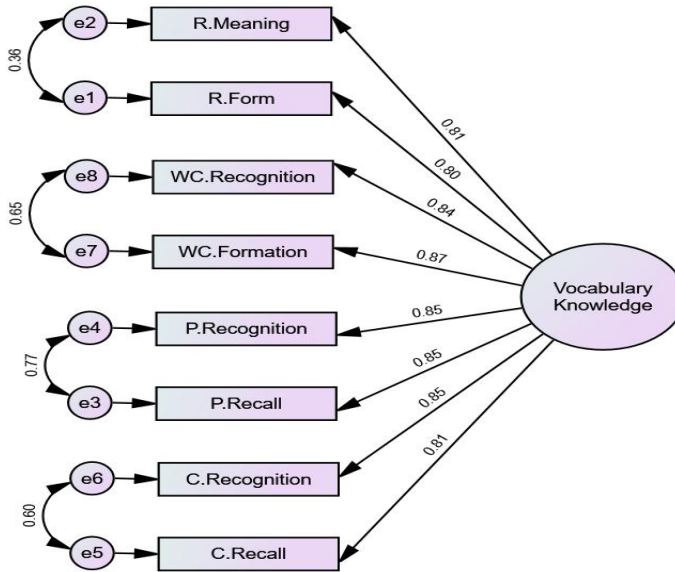
Table 5

Standardized and Unstandardized Estimates in the CFA Model 1 (First-Order)

			Unstandardized				Standardized
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Estimate
R. Meaning	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	1.000				.797
WC. Recognition	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	4.683	.355	13.193	.000	.870
P. Recall	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	3.078	.227	13.572	.000	.887
C.Recall	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	1.000	.084	11.902	.000	.809
C.Recognition	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	1.152	.091	12.723	.000	.848
R. Form	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	.937	.081	11.616	.000	.794
P. Recognition	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	3.356	.247	13.586	.000	.888
WC. Formation	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	4.170	.307	13.563	.000	.887

As presented in Table 5, the measured aspects had significant unstandardized loadings, and none of the items showed standardized loadings below 0.5, indicating convergent validity.

Furthermore, the researchers reviewed the modification indices recommended by the software and considered those that resulted in parameter shifts greater than 10 and were consistent with the literature. This involved identifying errors that could be regarded as shared determined by the content of the questions and the constructs to which they belonged. Figure 1 shows the final model.

Figure 3*Final Modified CFA Model 1 (First-Order) with Standardized Estimates*

This unidimensional model of vocabulary knowledge removes the unnecessary latent dimensions and depicts vocabulary knowledge as a single construct, encompassing both the recall and recognition aspects of each word knowledge component.

The Second-Order Model

As evident from Figure 3, the errors of the aspects were highly correlated. Therefore, the researcher decided to create a second-order model and compare it to the first one. Table 6 below shows the standardized and unstandardized loadings for this model. Figure 4 also depicts the model with standardized loadings.

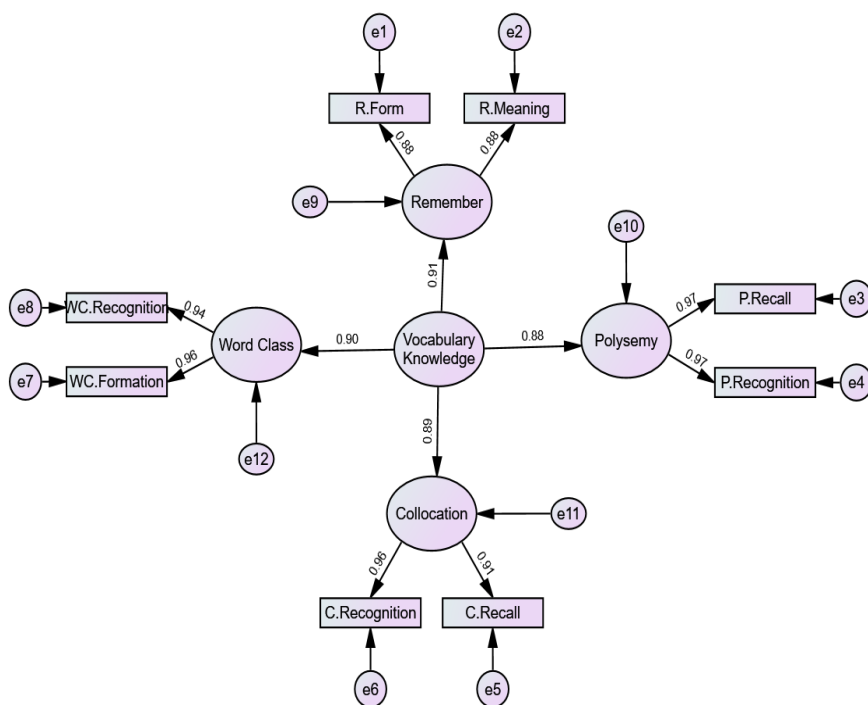
Table 6*Standardized and Unstandardized Estimates in the CFA Model 2 (Second-Order)*

			Unstandardized				Standardized
			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Estimate
Remember	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	1.000				.915
Form/Meaning							
Word Class	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	4.301	.339	12.705	.000	.898
Polysemy	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge	3.103	.251	12.337	.000	.877

				Unstandardized				Standardized
				Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Estimate
Collocation	<---	Vocabulary.Knowledge		1.054	.091	11.529	.000	.887
WC. Formation	<---	Word Class		1.000				.965
WC.Recognition	<---	Word Class		1.113	.047	23.769	.000	.938
R. Form	<---	Remember		1.000				.878
R. Meaning	<---	Remember		1.071	.073	14.643	.000	.883
P. Recall	<---	Polysemy		1.000				.967
P. Recognition	<---	Polysemy		1.091	.038	28.743	.000	.968
C.Recall	<---	Collocation		1.000				.910
C.Recognition	<---	Collocation		1.156	.058	19.874	.000	.959

Figure 4

Final Modified CFA Model 2 (Second-Order) with Standardized Estimates; Hierarchical Model of Vocabulary Knowledge



As the second model (the multidimensional model) had more than one component, unlike the first model, the discriminant validity and reliability of these components had to be checked. Table 7 presents the result.

Table 7

Reliability and Validity of CFA Model 2 (Second-Order)

	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR (H)	Collocation	Remember	Polysemy	Word Class
Collocation	0.933	0.874	0.733	0.939	0.935			
Remember	0.873	0.774	0.733	0.873	0.856	0.880		
Polysemy	0.967	0.936	0.674	0.967	0.765	0.776	0.968	
Word Class	0.950	0.905	0.674	0.953	0.777	0.808	0.821	0.952

As shown in Table 7, all the values of CR (composite reliability) for the components were above the cut-off value of 0.7 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Another measure that acknowledges the internal consistency is Maximum Reliability (MaxR(H)). The values for all eight components of the study were high, confirming the high reliability of the obtained data from this instrument. The average variance explained (AVE) by each component was also desirably high. This metric indicates the proportion of the variance that can be explained by the component, and values above 0.5 are generally considered desirable (Kline, 2016). Maximum shared variance (MSV), another validity measure, reveals that the variance shared by different components is safely below the AVE. This is an indication of discriminant validity. Finally, the Fornell – Larcker criterion was employed to examine the discriminant validity of the model. As evident from the table, for all five components, the square root of AVE is safely more than the correlation between that given component and the others. This affirms the discriminant validity of the model.

Comparing the Two Models

The two models' goodness of fit was investigated through different indices to see which one has more generalizability. Table 8 reports the results of the observed values and the thresholds of various model fit indices.

Table 8*Comparing the Goodness of Fit of the Two Models*

Model	Criteria	Observed Values	Thresholds			Evaluation
			Poor	Acceptable	Excellent	
First-Order	CMIN	38.024				
	DF	16				
	CMIN/DF	2.377		> 5	> 3	<i>Excellent</i>
	RMSEA	0.081	> 0.10	> 0.08	< 0.08	<i>Acceptable</i>
	CFI	.985	< 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.95	<i>Excellent</i>
	TLI	.974	< 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.95	<i>Excellent</i>
	GFI	0.945	< 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.95	<i>Acceptable</i>
	SRMR	0.068	> 0.10	> 0.08	< 0.08	<i>Excellent</i>
Second-Order	CMIN	49.521				
	DF	16				
	CMIN/DF	3.095		> 5	> 3	<i>Acceptable</i>
	RMSEA	0.091	> 0.10	> 0.08	< 0.08	<i>Acceptable</i>
	CFI	.945	< 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.95	<i>Acceptable</i>
	TLI	.914	< 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.95	<i>Acceptable</i>
	GFI	0.895	< 0.9	> 0.9	> 0.95	<i>Poor</i>
	SRMR	0.098	> 0.10	> 0.08	< 0.08	<i>Acceptable</i>

The first index in Table 8 is CMIN/DF, which is the result of the chi-square test divided by the degree of freedom of the model. Values below 3 are considered excellent, while values between 3 and 5 are acceptable. The observed value for the first model was 2.377, regarded as excellent, and for the second model was 3.091, which was regarded as acceptable. The second index is the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), which is an absolute index that measures how different the observed model is from the perfect model. It does this by comparing the observed covariance matrix and the model-implied covariance matrix. Lower values indicate a lower difference. The observed values for the first and second models, .081 and .091, respectively, are considered acceptable. The following two indices, the comparative fit index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis's index (TLI) analyze the model fit by exploring the difference between the hypothesized model and the data. They are employed to make a comparison between the fit of the fitted model and a model

predicated on the assumption of uncorrelated variables. The observed values for the first model were excellent, while the second model had acceptable values for both indices. Finally, the goodness of fit index (GFI) also showed an acceptable value of .945 for the first model and the below acceptable value of .895 for the second model. The SRMR index was also within the excellent range for the first model and the acceptable range in the second model. Overall, the conclusion is that the first-order model (unidimensional model) had the best fit.

Discussion

The findings of this study reaffirm the high interconnectivity among various written vocabulary knowledge components within an Iranian EFL context. Correlation analyses revealed significant, positive relationships across different facets particularly between recognition and recall of form-meaning connections, derivatives, multiple meanings, and collocations, aligning with prior research. Specifically, these results support González-Fernández and Schmitt's (2020) findings of strong correlations among vocabulary components. Furthermore, the current study's findings are in line with those of Janebi Enayat and Amirian (2020) and Karafkan (2021), who demonstrated a close relationship between the breadth and depth of lexical mastery in an Iranian EFL context. Overall, the results are consistent with existing literature emphasizing the interconnected nature of vocabulary knowledge components (González-Fernández, 2022; Sukying & Nontasee, 2022; Zhong, 2014, 2018). This high degree of interrelationships may be best interpreted through Nation's (2022) theory of the word knowledge framework, which views word knowledge as comprising three core dimensions and all aspects are deeply interconnected. Furthermore, there has been a great deal of debate concerning the relationship between depth and breadth of word knowledge. This study indicated that a strong relationship exists between vocabulary size and the different components of word knowledge.

Regarding the second research question, the IS analysis revealed that Iranian EFL learners performed better on recognition tasks than on recall tasks across vocabulary components, indicating that active recall poses greater challenges. This finding is consistent with those of Nontasee and Sukying (2020, 2021) and Hartshorn and Surer (2023). The data also suggested a developmental hierarchy, with learners acquiring form-meaning links first, followed by collocations, multiple meanings, and derivatives, aligning with prior research that highlights the early development of form-meaning connections (González-Fernández, 2025; González-Fernández & Schmitt, 2020; Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Sukying & Nontasee, 2022). The findings further indicate that collocation knowledge is comparatively easier to acquire than derivatives and multiple meanings, partly due to assessment design. Additionally, recalling derivatives was more challenging than other aspects, aligning with Surer (2021). These results challenge Chen and Truscott's (2010) assertion that the form-meaning link is the most difficult component of post-spelling acquisition.

For the third research question, CFA supported a unidimensional, single-factor model of vocabulary knowledge, suggesting that different components

function as facets of a unified construct in the Iranian EFL context. Nation's (2022) framework of word knowledge posits that lexical knowledge necessitates mastery of several types of knowledge for each word. The unidimensional model in this study validates this theorization by showing that the four knowledge components tested in their recall and recognition masteries contribute highly to the general word knowledge construct. This empirical study indicated that each aspect of word knowledge plays a crucial and complementary role in representing learners' overall lexical competence in a foreign language. When recall and recognition aspects were modeled as independent factors in a unidimensional model, it was indicated that the key distinction lay in recognition and recall knowledge. The result aligns with González-Fernández's (2022) position that vocabulary knowledge should be conceptualized as a single, interconnected construct rather than separate dimensions, emphasizing the high interdependence among different vocabulary components. The present findings support a unidimensional conceptualization of vocabulary knowledge, aligning with Spencer et al. (2015), who found no evidence for multidimensionality and advocated viewing vocabulary as a single construct encompassing recognition and recall, where overall lexical understanding influences individual word knowledge. In contrast, our results do not corroborate Kieffer and Lesaux's (2012b) three-dimensional model, which characterizes vocabulary through morphological derivation, semantic associations, and contextual use, suggesting a more complex, multidimensional framework. Although their model with three (and even four or five) factors provided a good fit, González-Fernández (2022) noted that their use of unfamiliar words and lack of control over word set characteristics across tasks may have contributed to the emergence of additional dimensions, reflecting task-specific factors rather than true separate constructs. These findings diverge from Koizumi and In'nami's (2020), who identified a two-factor model comprising size and depth as the most accurate, with SEM analyses indicating that these constructs are related yet distinct, offering a better fit than a unidimensional model. Overall, the results highlight the complexity of modeling vocabulary knowledge and suggest that its dimensionality may vary depending on task design and conceptualization.

Conclusion

The current study investigated whether vocabulary knowledge in an unstudied group of Iranian university students operates in a manner consistent with multidimensional descriptions of the construct, as hypothesized, and found that the different aspects of word knowledge are interconnected rather than independent, offering empirical support for the interrelatedness of these components. Additionally, the study examined the hierarchical order of difficulty among eight aspects of word knowledge, revealing that learners acquire meaning (form-meaning link) and word use (collocation) knowledge first, followed by knowledge of multiple meanings and form-related knowledge (derivatives), thus establishing the scalability of these aspects and identifying the order of difficulty from easiest to most difficult as follows: form-meaning link recognition > collocation recognition > multiple-meaning recognition > derivative recognition > form-meaning link recall > collocation recall > multiple-meaning recall > derivative recall. Furthermore, the

study explored the validity of two opposing vocabulary conceptualizations in the Iranian EFL context and found support for a unidimensional model, which conceptualizes vocabulary knowledge as a unique construct encompassing both recognition and recall aspects.

Based on these outcomes, several pedagogical implications emerge, emphasizing the importance of sequential learning approaches that prioritize recognition before fostering recall abilities, as well as acknowledging the unified nature of vocabulary knowledge in instructional strategies to optimize language acquisition among EFL learners.

The findings of this study offer valuable insights for those responsible for assessing learners' vocabulary knowledge. It is imperative to recognize that each aspect of vocabulary, such as recognition, recall, form-meaning links, and derivatives constitutes an integral component of comprehensive word knowledge. Relying solely on a single dimension provides a limited perspective, risking an incomplete understanding of the construct. Consequently, scholars and educators should employ multifaceted assessment tools, similar to the comprehensive battery utilized in this study, to evaluate multiple aspects of vocabulary. Such an approach allows for a more thorough and nuanced understanding of learners' overall lexical knowledge and its developmental trajectory. Given that vocabulary encompasses both breadth and depth, integrating measures of both dimensions is essential for accurately capturing and representing the full scope of vocabulary knowledge (Koizumi & In'nami, 2020).

Practitioners and students alike must acknowledge the importance of vocabulary acquisition. As Barclay and Schmitt (2019) highlight, vocabulary growth is a gradual, cumulative process, with learners eventually attaining a comprehensive understanding that includes spelling, morphological structure, pronunciation, grammatical variations, meanings, word formation processes, common collocations, and contextual appropriateness. The current research offers valuable insights into the various facets of vocabulary knowledge and their roles within language education. However, limitations must be considered: although data were collected from a substantial sample of 170 participants, the findings may not fully generalize to the entire learner population. Additionally, since the study only involved university students, future research should include learners across different educational levels, such as high school and primary students to better understand how vocabulary components function in diverse contexts. To deepen understanding of vocabulary development, longitudinal and experimental studies are recommended. Given the impracticality of assessing all aspects simultaneously, future work should aim to develop comprehensive measurement tools that encompass all 18 identified facets, enabling a more holistic assessment of vocabulary knowledge over time.

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Knowledge, Attitudes, and Reasons for Plagiarism Among Graduate English Language Students in Iran

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Abstract

Plagiarism is a significant concern in academic settings worldwide, with implications for educational integrity and student development. In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) educational contexts, understanding plagiarism can be particularly challenging due to linguistic and cultural differences. This study sought to probe Iranian EFL students' perceptions of plagiarism, their knowledge of and attitudes toward it, as well as the reasons for the acts of plagiarism. In so doing, 200 graduate EFL students answered a questionnaire. Descriptive statistics were employed to present the results. The findings demonstrated that the participants lacked awareness and understanding of what constitutes plagiarism. Many students were found to have a low level of knowledge about plagiarism, and they did not recognize certain acts as plagiarism. The results also provided insights into the reasons for plagiarism. Specifically, most of them believed that they might commit plagiarism as a result of the difficulty of some assignments and a poor understanding of plagiarism. The findings suggest a need for comprehensive education and awareness programs to harness students' understanding of academic integrity. This study adds to the literature on academic integrity in diverse educational contexts and highlights the importance of culturally sensitive approaches to teaching ethical academic practices.

Keywords: plagiarism, academic writing, EFL students, academic dishonesty, students' perceptions.

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Introduction

Academic dishonesty has been a significant preoccupation in higher education during the last few decades. Plagiarism, as an example of academic dishonesty, has been characterized as deceitful conduct that recompenses plagiarists and lessens the author's intellectual property (Gullifer & Tyson, 2010). Previous studies indicate that plagiarism proliferates and has become a significant concern for educational centers worldwide (Amiri & Razmjoo, 2016; Mohseni et al., 2024; Navidinia et al., 2024; Navidinia & Zarei, 2023; Salehi & Gholampour, 2021). Although it is viewed as an academic crime frequently associated with negative terms and concepts such as deception, cheating, and moral failure (Hu & Lei, 2014), it is nevertheless adopted by university students in carrying out homework, tasks, and research documents. In this regard, Selemeni et al. (2018) stated that plagiarism occurs in students' works in both English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries.

Plagiarism is a complicated subject and is closely tied to various complex literacy abilities, including proper referencing and academic reading and writing skills (Mbutho & Hutchings, 2021). According to Yusof (2009), the definition of plagiarism cannot be quickly established. It has been defined differently in diverse cultures and over time (Fakharzadeh & Mokhtari, 2022). However, the majority of definitions share the basic assumption that it is the intentional or unintentional act of writing and copying others' work without appropriately referring to the source of the idea (Pallela & Talari, 2016; Palmquist, 2003; Smith et al., 2007; Yeo, 2007).

Yet, the performance of the academic community has to be based on appropriate, precise, and reliable information since having such information is a prerequisite to conducting research, writing reports, as well as doing studies and examinations (Anaman & Agyei, 2021). Furthermore, strong academic writing necessitates understanding appropriate sources, possessing paraphrasing skills, taking meticulous notes, building robust skills, judiciously utilizing quotes, and properly attributing authors for their concepts and writing (Burton, 2007).

Despite its prevalence, the causes of plagiarism are not still clearly known. It may result from an incapacity to adapt to academic writing patterns or from ignorance of the laws and policies governing plagiarism (Dawson, 2004). Furthermore, students now find it simpler to commit plagiarism as a result of the availability of electronic resources, which may also be a factor contributing to the rise of plagiarism. In some cases, students may commit plagiarism as they are not aware of its importance in academic writing.

Different personal and contextual factors can contribute to students' perceptions of plagiarism (Amida et al., 2022; Atikuzzaman & Ahmed, 2025; Khalaf, 2025). For example, Amida et al. (2022) found that "students who do not understand university plagiarism policy and use eBooks are more likely to plagiarize" (p. 85). Furthermore, Atikuzzaman and Ahmed (2025) studied 720 university students in Bangladesh and found that some demographic variables, including "gender, academic discipline, and English language proficiency significantly influenced students' attitudes toward plagiarism" (p. 1).

Examining the causes and knowledge of plagiarism in EFL settings, especially in the Iranian context, can be informative. An investigation of such kind helps us to implement some principles to improve deeper understanding and develop relevant strategies that are more likely to be effective (Gullifer & Tyson, 2010). Knowing students' views on plagiarism can assist educators in establishing clear guidelines for students (Ashworth et al., 1997). As noted by Gullifer and Tyson (2010), the value of examining students' attitudes toward plagiarism lies in implementing effective techniques that encourage academic integrity on the part of students and impede plagiarism.

Therefore, educational institutions would benefit from a better understanding of the factors causing plagiarism to curb its growth. Additionally, it paves the grounds for catering for academic integrity and more valid and reliable academic degrees (Ehrich et al., 2016). Despite this need, little research has explored Iranian students' perceptions, knowledge, and reasons for plagiarism. Therefore, this study seeks to address the existing gap by answering the following research questions:

1. What is Iranian graduate EFL students' knowledge of plagiarism?
2. What are Iranian graduate EFL students' attitudes toward plagiarism?
3. What are Iranian graduate EFL students' reasons for plagiarism?

Review of Literature

Students' Knowledge of Plagiarism

One of the primary objectives of educational institutions is to make sure that individuals are aware of plagiarism and cultivate informed individuals who can make academic and research progress (Hussein, 2022). Nonetheless, empirical studies indicate that students lack sufficient understanding of plagiarism and academic dishonesty (Anaman & Agyei, 2021; Ramzan et al., 2012; Shen & Hu, 2020). In particular, they seem to

consider plagiarism as the verbatim copying of a text from a source (Gullifer & Tyson, 2010) or as copying, pasting, and rewording a phrase (Childers & Bruton, 2015). However, they seem to lack knowledge of the various acts characterized as plagiarism.

For instance, results from postgraduate students in Saudi Arabia revealed that students had a medium-level perception of various forms of plagiarism, while their perceptions of its causes were higher (Hussein, 2022). Similarly, Rodhiya et al. (2020), in a study of graduate students' awareness of and perspectives on plagiarism, found that while plagiarism as a concept was clear and recognizable to students, understanding its various forms was beyond their perception, which could lead to unintended plagiarism. Likewise, Rets and Ilya (2018) as well as Adam (2016) reported that students fell short of identifying plagiarism in their own work as well as that of others. Similar results have been reported by Appiah (2016) where 64.7% of students mistakenly believed that "patchworking", rewriting a text with minor changes in words and grammar, should not be seen as plagiarism.

Evidence from Bašić et al. (2019) also suggested that students were conscious of paraphrasing, quoting, referencing figures and tables, and using the Internet sources (Bašić et al., 2019). Nevertheless, they were not knowledgeable about self-plagiarism, appropriate methods for summarizing information, or the need to cite personal communications and common knowledge. Finally, data from Iranian post-graduate students suggested that passing the course was viewed as more important than learning the material and while plagiarism was regarded as something wrong, it was persistent and common among students (Yarmohammadi & Yasami, 2014).

Students' Attitudes Towards Plagiarism

According to Anaman and Agyei (2021), one would expect that stronger intentions would make it more likely for individuals to carry out actions. However, regarding plagiarism, evidence has been mixed on whether plagiarism intention leads to actual plagiarism, as some students plagiarize intentionally while others do so unintentionally (Anaman & Agyei, 2021). Concerning students' attitudes toward plagiarism, however, the literature provides accounts of students' being more open to and permissive toward plagiarism than what the policies of their institutions allow (Ehrich et al., 2016; Rathore et al., 2015). Along this line, Badea (2017) reported that medical students in Romania generally held positive attitudes toward plagiarism. Positive attitudes justify practices such as self-plagiarism, short deadlines, and paraphrasing (Farooq & Sultana, 2021). Phyo et al. (2023) also documented that students' perceptions included a moderate level of disapproval of plagiarism. The practice of plagiarism is

specially reported when the workload is high (Ehrich et al., 2016). Other reasons that give rise to positive perceptions on the part of students include the challenges they face with effective academic writing and insufficient knowledge of the research and publication ethics (Farooq & Sultana, 2021). Although few studies also report students' negative attitudes toward plagiarism (e.g., Selemani et al., 2018; Tran et al., 2022), there seems to be a tolerant attitude toward plagiarism in some academic contexts.

Reasons for Students' Acts of Plagiarism

Prior research documents a multitude of reasons for students' engagement with the act of plagiarism. However, it has been predominantly demonstrated in the literature that insufficient familiarity with academic writing conventions, inadequate skills in academic writing, a lack of knowledge about what constitutes plagiarism and how to avoid it, insufficient English proficiency, laziness and lack of motivation, a lack of effective time management skills, pressure for remarkable achievement scores, poor referencing skills, limited training, poor understanding of rules associated with plagiarism, and the abundance of online information can be considered as the main antecedents of plagiarism among students (Anaman & Agyei, 2021; Ayton et al., 2022; Chien, 2016; Idiegbeyan-Ose et al., 2018; Lilian & Chukwuere, 2020; Pallela & Talari, 2016; Phyo et al., 2023; Selemani et al., 2018; Tran et al., 2022; Wilkinson, 2009).

Evidence from the Iranian context reveals similar findings, too. Time constraints, limited understanding of the requirements of the assigned tasks, disinterest in the topics, lack of ideas to write about, an inclination to achieve higher grades, and not respecting the course or the instructor were highlighted as the main reasons for plagiarism (Yarmohammadi & Yasami, 2014). Also, the ease of plagiarism was reported as the most prominent motive for participants' acts of plagiarism in Rezanejad and Rezaei's (2013) study. Additionally, Riasati and Rahimi (2013) referred to inadequate knowledge of plagiarism, weak research / writing skills, insufficient language competence, lack of topic knowledge, task type, convenience, pressures, and the high cost of studying as the reasons for plagiarism among Iranian students.

In another study, Salehi and Gholampour (2021) examined Iranian students' perception of cheating. The participants enrolled in General English courses at three different Iranian universities. The findings indicated that cheating was common among students, and the majority of them did not have a negative attitude toward it. The most common reasons for cheating were "not being ready for the exams", "uselessness of the materials", "getting a better score", "bulkiness of the materials", "difficulty of the exams", and "not

having time for studying” (p. 5). In another study with Iranian Medical students, Bahrami et al. (2015) found that a considerable percentage of participants (45%) experienced cheating, and therefore, they called for more attention to be paid to cheating in academia.

In the Iranian context, while students’ perception of plagiarism has been investigated in other disciplines such as Medical Sciences and Civil and Mechanical Engineering (Bahrami et al., 2015; Salehi & Gholampour, 2021), studies examining Iranian EFL students’ perceptions of plagiarism are lacking. Therefore, the current study sets out to investigate students’ knowledge of, attitudes toward, and reasons for plagiarism in the Iranian EFL context. Considering the cross-cultural differences in students’ perceptions of plagiarism (Navidinia et al., 2024) the results would thus check into if and how students’ perceptions of plagiarism are different in various contexts and also across disciplines.

Methodology

Research Design

The current study adopted a descriptive quantitative approach to survey Iranian EFL graduate students’ knowledge of, attitudes towards, and reasons for committing plagiarism.

Participants

The participants of the present study included 200 graduate Iranian EFL students who were selected using the convenience sampling method as the most widespread type of sampling in EFL studies (Cheng & Dornyei, 2007). The choice of participants was based on two factors, including educational level (M. A. degree) and consent and availability to take part in the study. Forty-two percent of the participants were males, and 58% were females. The age range of the participants was 22 to 49 years old, with a mean of 33.

Instrumentation

This study used a questionnaire to address the research questions. The questionnaire has been developed and validated by Anaman and Agyei (2021). Since the participants of this study possessed adequate proficiency in English, the original English version of the questionnaire was employed to collect information from the participants. The questionnaire tapped students’ knowledge of plagiarism, their attitudes towards plagiarism, and the reasons for this act, which directly addressed our research questions.

The questionnaire consisted of 4 sections. The first section required participants to provide demographic information, including age, gender, and

field of study, without the necessity of providing their names to ensure the confidentiality of the data. The second part included twelve items that probed respondents' knowledge of the acts constituting plagiarism. This part probed students' awareness of the instances of plagiarism and the different ways that students may commit plagiarism. The third part comprised sixteen items concerning participants' attitudes toward plagiarism. Finally, section four consisted of fourteen items to determine the reasons why students plagiarized. Items were rated on a five-point Likert scale including Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree (1 = Strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = neutral, 4 = disagree, 5 = strongly disagree). The internal consistency of the scale was computed by applying Cronbach's alpha formula, which was at an acceptable level ($\alpha = .90$) in this study.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection procedure was carried out during the fall and spring semesters of the academic year 2022–2023. Before administering the survey, the participants' consent for participation in the study was granted. They were assured of the anonymity and confidentiality of their data. In addition, they were assured that their data would be solely used for research purposes.

The data were collected in two ways: some students were approached face to face in their classes and were asked to complete the questionnaire. Also, the Internet link to the questionnaire, which was designed in Google Forms, was sent to some other students through social media platforms such as Telegram and WhatsApp. The obtained data was subjected to descriptive statistics using SPSS.

Results

Students' Knowledge of Plagiarism

To answer the first research question examining students' knowledge of plagiarism, questionnaire responses were analysed using descriptive statistics. In this part, students were asked to identify whether various behaviours constituted plagiarism or not. The results in this part are shown in Table 1.

As indicated in the table, the participants lacked sufficient knowledge about what constitutes plagiarism. The majority (67% including those who disagree and strongly disagree) did not recognize that copying verbatim from books or journals without acknowledgment and copying word-for-word from others' research works without quotation marks (59.5%) are acts of plagiarism. Also, few students (28.5%) considered fabricating or altering data or statistics as plagiarism. Furthermore, a

considerable proportion of the respondents (49%) were unaware that paying someone to write assignments or papers was considered as plagiarism. Additionally, nearly half of the participants did not recognize that summarizing texts without acknowledging the original source is an example of plagiarism. Finally, only a small percentage (18.5%) realized that copying the content from the Internet without referencing the original provider constitutes an example of plagiarism.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Knowledge of Plagiarism

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. Copying verbatim from other people's research works without using quotation marks	17.00	6.5	17.00	27.00	32.5
2. Copying word for word from a book or journal without acknowledgment	14.5	6.5	12.00	40.5	26.5
3. Submitting a work as a group while it is written by an individual	12.5	8.5	32.00	22.00	25.00
4. Not including references in one's work	14.00	9.5	19.5	29.5	27.5
5. Paying other people to write assignments or term papers	10.0	18.5	22.5	18.5	30.5
6. Inventing or altering data or statistics in one's work	11.50	17.00	16.00	35.00	20.50
7. Writing an assignment for a colleague	4.5	26.5	26.00	22.00	21.00
8. Inventing references or bibliography	15	13	23	13	36
9. Submitting an assignment written by someone in part or whole	7	20	12	34	27
10. Summarizing a text without acknowledging the source	6	24	21.5	22.5	26
11. Paraphrasing a text without acknowledging the source	5.5	16	25.5	14	39
12. Copying and pasting from the Internet without citing the original source	11.5	7	26.5	18	37

Students' Attitudes Toward Plagiarism

The second research question concerned Iranian EFL students' attitudes toward plagiarism. To answer this question, students' responses to the questionnaire were subject to descriptive statistics. Table 2 depicts the results.

As shown in the Table, only 32.26 % of the participants agreed and strongly agreed with acts of plagiarism. This percentage was calculated by adding the percentage of responses for strongly agree and agree from all 17 items and dividing the result by 17. This indicates that 67.74 % of them did not hold negative attitudes toward plagiarism.

Furthermore, as Table 2 illustrates, more than half of the students

(54.5%) believed that the parts of a paper containing plagiarism can be dismissed if the paper itself holds remarkable scientific value. In addition, the majority of them (84.5%) believed that papers including plagiarized content have a detrimental effect on science. However, a small percentage of the participants (32.5%) believed that self-plagiarism should be subject to punishment as it poses little threat, and some of the participants (21.5%) mentioned that they were unable to write a paper without plagiarizing.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Attitude Toward Plagiarism

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. Sometimes one cannot avoid using other people's words without citing the source, because there are only so many ways to describe something.	--	20.00	47.50	29.00	3.50
2. It is justified to use previous descriptions of a method, because the method itself remains the same.	--	28.00	43.00	26.00	3.00
3. Self-plagiarism is not punishable because it is not harmful.	7.00	25.5	32.5	19.5	15.5
4. Plagiarized parts of a paper may be ignored if the paper is of great scientific value.	--	12.5	33.00	31.5	23.00
5. Self-plagiarism should not be punishable in the same way as plagiarism is.	9.5	42.5	16.5	16.5	15.0
6. Young researchers who are just learning the ropes should receive milder punishment for plagiarism.	3.5	30.0	10.5	34.0	22.0
7. If one cannot write well in a foreign language (e.g., English), it is justified to copy parts of a similar paper already published in that language.	3.5	17.5	24.5	30.5	24
8. I could not write a scientific paper without plagiarizing.	--	21.5	7.5	36.5	34.5
9. Short deadlines give me the right to plagiarize a bit.	6.00	37.5	14.5	14.00	28.00
10. When I do not know what to write, I translate a part of a paper from a foreign language.	4.00	24.00	40.5	20	11.5
11. It is justified to use one's own previously published work without providing citation in order to complete the current work.	8.00	12.00	35.00	29.50	15.50
12. If a colleague of mine allows me to copy from her/his paper, I'm NOT doing anything bad, because I have his/her permission.	.5	23	28	33	15.5
13. Plagiarists do not belong to the scientific community.	22	16	31.5	26.5	4.00
14. The names of the authors who plagiarize should be disclosed to the scientific community.	17.0	26.0	26.0	31.0	--
15. In times of moral and ethical decline, it is important to discuss issues like plagiarism and self-plagiarism.	31.00	37.5	25.0	3.0	3.5
16. Plagiarism impoverishes the investigative spirit.	22	34	32.5	6.0	5.5
17. A plagiarized paper does not harm science.	--	7.0	8.5	41.0	43.5

Reasons for Acts of Plagiarism

To address Iranian graduate students' reasons for plagiarism which

was the concern of the third research question, the participants' agreement or disagreement with each statement was analyzed. Table 3 presents the results.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Reasons for Acts of Plagiarism

Items	SA	A	N	D	SD
1. Difficulty in paraphrasing or summarizing	2.5	53.00	20.00	24.50	--
2. Nobody checks cheating and those who do it never get caught.	6.00	11.5	28.50	33.5	20.5
3. It appears most lecturers I know ignore cheating.	4.00	7.5	34.5	38.00	16.00
4. Laziness and lack of time management	24.5	44.00	8.5	14.0	9.00
5. Some of the assignments are difficult.	9.00	55.00	20.50	12.0	3.50
6. It is easy to download assignment from the Internet free of charge.	9.0	31.5	33.5	16.5	10.0
7. It is easy to plagiarize a paper without my lecturer knowing about it.	4.0	34.0	26.5	26.5	9.0
8. Do not know how to cite the sources.	3.5	14.5	15.5	48	18.5
9. Pressure to succeed	12.5	39.00	25.00	13.50	10.00
10. Most lecturers never complain about it.	5.00	27.00	26.00	28.50	13.50
11. Those who cheat get better grades.	7.00	19.50	37.00	23.50	13.00
12. Everybody is doing it.	--	22.50	22.50	26.00	29.00
13. Poor understanding of plagiarism	21.00	37.00	21.50	16.00	4.50
14. Plagiarism is not a big deal.	3.50	3.50	16.50	22.50	54.00

As indicated in Table 3, the most common reasons cited include laziness and lack of time management (68%), difficulty of assignments (64%), poor understanding of plagiarism (58 %), problems in paraphrasing or summarizing (55.5%), and pressure to succeed (51.5 %).

Discussion

This study aimed to identify the knowledge of, attitudes toward, and reasons for the act of plagiarism among EFL students in Iran. The findings indicated that EFL graduate students in Iran had limited knowledge about plagiarism, with only a small percentage recognizing acts such as copying verbatim without quotation marks or copying from a book or journal without acknowledgment as plagiarism. Additionally, a low percentage of students identified behaviours like submitting group work as an individual's work and not including references as forms of plagiarism. Congruent with the findings of this study, Clarke et al. (2023) reported that a significant percentage of students in Rwanda were unaware that hiring someone to write parts of their papers constituted plagiarism. Anaman and Agyei (2021) also noted that only a small percentage of graduate students in the context of Ghana considered paraphrasing and summarizing without

proper acknowledgment as plagiarism. This corroborates what we found in this study showing that 48% of the students were unaware that making summaries of a text without acknowledging the original source is considered plagiarism.

Overall, prior research by Gullifer and Tyson (2010), Chien (2016), and Childers and Bruton (2015) indicates that students have a basic grasp of plagiarism. However, these studies show that this general understanding does not always translate into a nuanced comprehension of plagiarism. As a result, students fail to recognize the full scope and complexity of plagiarism.

The findings from the second research question in this study showed that 32.5% of students believed that since self-plagiarism does not cause serious harm, it should not be penalized. This aligns with previous work by Clarke et al. (2023), maintaining that according to approximately half of the respondents in their study, self-plagiarism was not unethical and should not be subject to the same punishments as plagiarizing others. Furthermore, these attitudes mirror earlier results from Mavrinac et al. (2010), where 62% of Croatian students condoned self-plagiarism.

Several studies have found that there are many reasons for students' plagiarism. They may not understand what plagiarism is or how to cite the sources. They may also be motivated to plagiarize to improve their academic standing or because they do not possess the necessary skills for academic writing (Anderson & Steneck, 2011; Dawson & Overfield, 2006; Warn, 2007). Similar insights into the causes of student plagiarism were revealed in the findings of this study. More specifically, over 64% of the participant students believed they may plagiarize because of the challenging nature of the tasks.

Furthermore, more than half of the respondents pointed out that the causes of plagiarism were lack of knowledge and pressure to succeed. These findings are consistent with those of Anaman and Agyei (2021), who found that weak academic writing skills including the inability to acknowledge sources and the difficulty for certain students to summarize or paraphrase were the primary causes of plagiarism for the majority of respondents. Others committed plagiarism as a result of their own indolence and poor time management. The inability to understand plagiarism, the ease with which one might download the works of others, and the pressure to succeed came next.

In the present study, 18% of the participants were not aware of how to cite the sources they used which is in line with Wilkinson (2009) indicating that plagiarism can stem from poor reading comprehension, weak academic writing skills, and unfamiliarity with citation protocols.

Moreover, the results of this study revealed “lack of time management” and “pressure to succeed” as reasons for committing plagiarism, which support the findings of Memon and Mavrinac (2020). Their work demonstrated that insufficient time and peer pressure are common motivations for plagiarizing.

Conclusion

The findings of the present study point to the limited understanding of plagiarism among graduate EFL students in Iran. This points to the inadequacy of current efforts to deter plagiarism and emphasizes the demand for early and comprehensive instruction in academic literacy and ethics. The results underscore the importance of providing precise definitions of plagiarism, clear guidelines, and consistent penalties within academic institutions. Both educators and students require training on these policies and their consequences.

Plagiarism poses a serious threat to higher education, prompting extensive research and mitigation attempts. However, this study and the literature reveal that students have misconceptions about plagiarism that lead to unintentional dishonest behaviors. Therefore, students need to be equipped with a thorough knowledge of what comprises plagiarism and how not to fall into it. To prevent misconceptions about plagiarism in graduate studies, greater emphasis should be placed on addressing this issue at the undergraduate level, too.

The study has some implications for different stakeholders in education. Policy makers and higher education institutions need to establish and enforce strict plagiarism policies with appropriate penalties and clearly inform students of the guidelines. Furthermore, as many students have misconceptions about what constitutes plagiarism, educational training courses should be held for students to familiarize them more with this concept. In addition, considering the importance of citation patterns in academic writing (Esfandiari & Saleh, 2024), higher education institutions should integrate instruction on academic writing to instill the significance of integrity in research, improve plagiarism prevention, and expand quality publication opportunities. Equipping students with the required knowledge and skills of plagiarism avoidance is imperative to uphold academic integrity and scholarly standards. Moreover, as having high expectations that are beyond students’ ability can result in the violation of academic integrity, it is important that educational institutions and instructors have reasonable expectations from the students.

This study has some limitations. One is self-selection bias from the voluntary participation recruitment. Students who opted to participate may

have greater academic motivation than those who declined, especially among the cohort invited for the online questionnaire. Furthermore, the inability to access all potential participants constrains the study. The self-selected sample could limit generalizability of the findings to the broader student population.

Despite the limitations, the study provides new perspectives on Iranian EFL students' plagiarism knowledge, attitudes, and motivations. However, this represents just an initial step, and further in-depth research is needed. For instance, the study did not explore gender differences, an under-examined area regarding plagiarism inclinations. Future studies can address the potential gender influence on plagiarism. Additionally, this study utilized a survey questionnaire to collect data from a relatively large-sized sample. While advantageous for breadth, qualitative methods like focus groups could provide richer analysis of students' perceptions and reasons for plagiarism. Therefore, future research should use qualitative techniques to delve deeper into the issue and to obtain a more vivid picture of students' plagiarism acts.

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Written Text-Based and Audio-Visual Feedback Practices in EFL Writing: Investigating University Students' Responses, Challenges, and Strategies

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Abstract

Previous studies have examined students' engagement with various forms of teacher-written feedback, particularly in relation to improving writing performance. However, little attention has been paid to how students respond emotionally, cognitively, and behaviorally to the use of a combination of written text-based and audio-visual feedback in an EFL writing class. To fill this gap, this classroom case study investigates Indonesian undergraduate students' responses to various types of multimodal feedback, aiming to promote substantive revision and improvement in their writing. This multimodal feedback provides a more comprehensive and engaging approach to guiding and supporting student learning in writing development compared to using written text-based feedback alone. Data were collected through students' written drafts, instructor feedback, student-instructor conferences, and follow-up interviews with students enrolled in an essay writing course. The findings revealed that while many students initially experienced confusion, frustration, or discouragement, particularly with indirect written corrective feedback, continued instructor support and the use of audio-visual feedback enhanced clarity, engagement, and understanding through its conversational tone and visual cues. Students became more reflective and utilized diverse resources, although they struggled with higher-level revisions due to limited feedback literacy and writing proficiency, or a lack of language proficiency. To overcome challenges, they relied on peer collaboration, instructor guidance, and digital tools. Face-to-face conferences also helped them clarify issues and improve the quality of their drafts.

Keywords: audio-visual feedback, students' responses, university students, written text-based feedback

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Introduction

Feedback plays an important role in the development of students' writing skills, and not just for error correction, but also to enable improvements in critical and reflective thinking and deep learning. While conventional written feedback in the form of marginal comments and rubrics is appreciated for its permanence and detail (Karim & Nassaji, 2020a, b), however, it can be generic, cursory, and impersonal, especially for L2 students who are often perplexed by academic/L2 subtleties (Weaver, 2006; Hyland & Hyland, 2006, 2019). To address these issues, audiovisual feedback (i.e., voice comments, video comments, and screen-capture) has provided a more interactive alternative that enables instructors to communicate tone, affect, and abstraction in real time (Tyrer, 2021). This modality also increases teacher and emotional presence, as well as student engagement (Din Eak & Annamalai, 2024; Grigoryan, 2017), and supports deeper learning and effective review (Ajjawi et al., 2021; West & Turner, 2016; Yiğit & Seferoğlu, 2021).

Despite increasing knowledge in each modality, little is known about the joint combination of written and audiovisual feedback. In the literature, some studies investigate the efficacy of one method compared to the other (Grigoryan, 2017; Ebadi & Dadgar, 2024; Rassaei, 2019; Saeed et al., 2024), but there remain a few that explore the combined approach of the two methods. Combining the two may have added benefits for stronger emotional, cognitive, and behavioral engagement, all of which are viewed as important for effective revision. Nevertheless, relatively little is known about how students respond to, make sense of, and use multimodal feedback. Another unexplored area is the student perspective, such as how learners cognitively, affectively, and behaviourally underpin combined feedback. Some studies have focused on the emotional and motivational advantages of audiovisual feedback (Ajjawi et al., 2021; Yiğit & Seferoğlu, 2021), but very little is known about how students navigate both forms simultaneously. This problem becomes even more serious in EFL contexts, as students may find it difficult to understand feedback due to language and cultural barriers. Little evidence has been presented to date on how EFL students respond to and make use of multimodal feedback to develop their writing. Hence, additional studies are required to identify what students find difficult when revising with multimodal feedback and how they address these difficulties. Understanding how students interpret and use feedback from multiple sources is critical to improving teaching practices. Such challenges could involve confusion from inconsistent information across different media or problems in synthesizing descriptions from different textual sources. Research on these roadblocks can offer us insights about how feedback can be more effective and attainable.

To fill in the gaps, the current research examines EFL learners' reactions to an amalgamated feedback type that combines written text and screen-captured audiovisual formats used in writing. It describes how learners react to multimodal feedback, both affectively and cognitively, and how they respond to it, as well as the difficulties they may experience and the devices they use to overcome them. The focus is on providing the pedagogical implications of how technology-supported,

multimodal feedback can support student learning and writing development. The study is guided by four research questions:

1. What types of feedback did the instructor provide through written text-based and audio-visual modes?
2. How did the students respond emotionally, cognitively, and behaviourally to the multimodal feedback?
3. What challenges did the students face when revising their writing based on this multimodal feedback?
4. How did they address the challenges?

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework of the Study

Teacher feedback is a cornerstone of L2 writing instruction, with extensive research confirming its positive impact on learners' writing accuracy in both revised and new texts (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Zhang & Cheng, 2021; Karim & Nassaji, 2020a,b; Kim & Emeliyanova, 2019). However, traditional feedback often emphasizes grammar and surface-level concerns, neglecting deeper issues such as content, structure, and genre (Cheng & Zhang, 2024). Teachers also face constraints such as large class sizes and time pressures, making effective written feedback both labour-intensive and delayed (Carless, 2007). These limitations have prompted a search for alternative feedback strategies that enhance learning while easing teacher workload. One such strategy is the use of automated writing evaluation (AWE) tools, which provide timely, scalable, and consistent feedback, allowing teachers to prioritize higher-order aspects of writing (Fu et al., 2022).

Drawing on Bakhtin's dialogical theory (1981), feedback should be understood not as mere transmission but as a dynamic, responsive exchange between teacher and student. Bakhtin emphasized that meaning emerges from interaction, where every utterance is directed to a listener and anticipates a response (Bakhtin, 1986). Multimodal feedback—delivered through text, audio, video, or visual annotations—exemplifies this dialogic nature. Such feedback communicates not only content but also tone, emotion, and pedagogical intent, enriching the interaction between teacher and student (Campbell & Feldmann, 2017; Park, 2024; Hung, 2016). Multimodal feedback supports Bakhtin's notion of *polyphony*—the coexistence of multiple voices in dialogue. Through screencasts, audio notes, and integrated peer feedback, students are exposed to diverse perspectives, fostering a richer understanding of their work (Tyrer, 2021; Jiang et al., 2024). Unlike written feedback that may appear final and evaluative, multimodal formats encourage reflection, questioning, and revision, reinforcing the student's role as an active meaning-maker (Saeed & Abdullah Alharbi, 2024; Penn & Brown, 2022). Bakhtin's *chronotope*—the link between time and space in discourse—is also relevant. Multimodal feedback creates a simulated shared space where the teacher, though physically distant, is perceived as present and engaged, strengthening relational and emotional connections (Boudin et al., 2024). Through tone of voice, pauses, and expression, teachers can communicate empathy, care, and encouragement—

elements often lost in written comments (Mahoney et al., 2019). Thus, seen through a Bakhtinian lens, multimodal feedback becomes a dialogic, relational, and ethical pedagogical practice that honors student voice and fosters deeper engagement in writing development (Hung, 2016).

Writing Instruction in the Indonesian Higher Education Context

Writing instruction in Indonesian higher education, particularly in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, has undergone a significant transformation. Historically, its teaching has emphasized a product-oriented approach, focusing on grammatically correct, structurally appropriate texts, often produced within rigid formats (Widiati & Cahyono, 2016; Widodo, 2023). Instruction prioritized accuracy over content and organization, aligning with teacher-centered, exam-driven practices. Consequently, students viewed writing as a one-time task, became dependent on teacher corrections, and lacked autonomy and creative expression (Tangkiengsirisin, 2006).

In response, a process-based approach gained prominence, shifting focus to iterative stages of writing—planning, drafting, revising, and editing (Graham & Sandmel, 2011). This model, now common in Indonesian higher education, encourages students to see writing as a developmental activity supported by feedback and critical reflection. Research shows the process approach enhances students' writing abilities, confidence, motivation, critical thinking, and learner autonomy (Khosravi et al., 2023; Lam, 2015; Puengpipattrakul, 2014; Acar Başeğmez & Kurnaz, 2025). However, challenges remain: large classes, limited time, and varied teacher expertise often reduce feedback to surface-level corrections. Moreover, language barriers and a lack of scaffolding limit students' ability to interpret and apply feedback effectively (Supiani et al., 2023a, b). These issues highlight the need for formative assessment strategies, including peer review and conferencing. Despite its strengths, the process approach often falls short in addressing students' awareness of rhetorical structures and linguistic features across disciplines. This gap led to the adoption of the genre-based approach, aligned with the Indonesian national curriculum's emphasis on functional literacy. Rooted in Systemic Functional Linguistics (Martin, 1999; Nagao, 2019), this approach equips students to identify and produce texts across academic genres—analytical expositions, reports, or reflective essays—based on audience, purpose, and structure. Studies have shown that genre-based instruction empowers students by clarifying academic writing norms (Emilia & Hamied, 2015; Widodo, 2006). Increasingly, educators integrate both process and genre approaches with digital technologies. Tools like Grammarly, Google Docs, ChatGPT, and feedback platforms support collaboration, formative feedback, and the development of feedback literacy (Gozali et al., 2024; Suci et al., 2021; Supiani et al., 2023a, b). Audio-visual feedback methods—e.g., screencasts or video comments—improve clarity, personalization, and emotional support, especially for students struggling with written feedback. This multimodal feedback reduces anxiety, boosts motivation, and promotes comprehension (Biju & Vijayakumar, 2023). Technology thus enhances writing instruction by bridging feedback gaps and fostering student engagement in Indonesian EFL classrooms.

Method

Research Design

This study, grounded in the interpretative paradigm, employed a classroom case study design to explore how Indonesian undergraduate students responded to multimodal feedback—combining written text-based and audio-visual forms—during an essay writing course. Conducted collaboratively with the course instructor, the researcher, as an insider, had access to rich, contextual data from a specific cohort of students. In this study, the researcher played a dual role as both collaborator and instructor, functioning as an insider within the classroom context. It means that the researcher and the instructor worked closely together to design, implement, and evaluate the learning activities, particularly those involving written text-based and audio-visual feedback. As the instructor, the researcher directly facilitated classroom instruction, guided students through writing tasks, provided multimodal feedback, and conducted student–instructor conferences to discuss revisions and improvement strategies.

This insider position allowed the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of the students’ learning processes, responses, and engagement throughout the feedback and revision stages. Being actively involved in teaching made it possible to observe authentic classroom interactions and gather nuanced qualitative data that might not have been accessible to an external observer. However, it also raised concerns about power dynamics and participant honesty. To address this, students were assured that participation was voluntary and confidential, and collaboration with the course instructor helped maintain objectivity, ensuring ethical transparency and reflexivity throughout the research process. The focus was on students’ responses to feedback addressing errors in content, organization, word choice, language use, and mechanics (Ferris, 2006). These responses were examined across three dimensions: cognitive (strategic revisions and self-regulation), affective (emotional reactions such as anxiety or motivation), and behavioral (effort, engagement, and participation in revision) (Zhang & Hyland, 2018; Zheng & Yu, 2018).

Research Context and Participants

This study was conducted in a second-semester essay writing class at a private university in Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan, Indonesia. The class was part of the English Language Education program within the faculty of education and focused on teaching opinion essays through a process-oriented approach—prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. Over 14 sessions (90 minutes each), students learned to construct thesis statements, organize body paragraphs, and apply appropriate language and mechanics. Each student wrote 300–500-word essays on various

topics, receiving both written text-based and audio-visual feedback from the instructor. Participants included 20 first-year undergraduate students (15 females, 5 males), aged 18–19, all native Indonesian and Banjarese speakers. These students all came from one private university in Banjarmasin, Indonesia, which means the participants represented a particular and limited group. Because of that, the study limited the extent to which the findings could be applied beyond this particular group. Moreover, the students had studied English for at least seven years and were classified as intermediate based on a university English proficiency test. However, their writing diagnostic scores ($M=63.5$) indicated below-average performance. While all were motivated to improve their writing, none had prior experience with multimodal feedback.

Because the researcher also served as the students' instructor, there was a possibility that students might feel hesitant to express negative responses or critical feedback about the instructional process or the feedback they received, fearing it might influence their grades or their relationship with the instructor. To minimize this concern, several reflexivity and ethical measures were taken. First, the students were explicitly informed that their participation in the study was voluntary and that their responses would not affect their academic standing or assessment results. Second, confidentiality and anonymity were assured, allowing students to provide honest and reflective feedback without fear of repercussion. Third, the collaborator (course instructor) served as an additional observer to help maintain objectivity and balance during classroom implementation and data interpretation.

Data Collection and Procedure

Data were collected from students' written drafts, instructor feedback, conferences, and semi-structured interviews. Students submitted their essays via Google Docs, allowing for accessible written feedback. The instructor used the "Comment" feature to provide targeted feedback addressing both macro (e.g., thesis clarity, topic sentence strength, organization) and micro issues (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, mechanics). Comments were framed as questions, suggestions, or brief explanations to promote critical thinking and self-correction. The feedback followed two main types: metalinguistic explanations and indirect corrective feedback. Metalinguistic explanations addressed micro-level concerns — such as word choice, grammar, and punctuation — while indirect feedback focused on content development and essay organization. This combination helped students identify and revise their writing errors independently, fostering deeper engagement with the writing process. The multimodal data collection strategy provided a comprehensive view of how students responded to different types of feedback across various writing stages. Figure 1 shows the implementation of written text-based feedback strategies.

Figure 1*The Instructor's Written Text-Based Feedback Strategies*

Macro Writing Issues: Content and Organization	Samples in Indirect Corrective Feedback
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The main ideas or reasons stated are unclear or inaccurate ▪ Unclear or weak opinion/thesis statement ▪ Irrelevant ideas ▪ Lacking/ineffective topic sentence ▪ Idea elaboration ▪ Idea disconnected ▪ Lacking coherence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ What does it mean? Please make the reason logical and clear ▪ Please change the opinion/thesis statement ▪ Please change the example because it is irrelevant or disconnected from the previous sentence ▪ The topic sentence should be your main idea and not attached to the supporting sentence ▪ You should elaborate on this idea by adding a/some example(s) or evidence to strengthen your ideas ▪ Please organize the ideas to be coherent ▪ You need to connect or link these sentences using "Moreover, In addition, Furthermore, etc.
Micro Writing Issues: Grammar, Vocabulary, and Mechanics	Samples in Metalinguistic Explanations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Erroneous tense use ▪ Fragment use ▪ Incorrect plural/singular use ▪ Inaccurate sentence structure ▪ Article <u>use</u> ▪ Repetitive words ▪ Inappropriate vocabulary choice ▪ Capital-small letter use 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Please use the simple present tense correctly in this sentence. If the subject is plural (you, we, they), the verb is plural too. Otherwise, if a subject (he, she, it), the verb is also singular. Please fix it. ▪ Please add a subject before the verb. Every sentence contains a subject and a verb/predicate. ▪ It should be singular "to be" here. It means the noun is the only one. I see the subject is "living, not big cities". ▪ Please use a compound sentence here. When you use a compound sentence, you have to use a comma followed by a coordinating conjunction. Coordinating conjunctions as the FANBOYS: for, and, nor, but, or, yet, and so. ▪ This word is definite, so it should be preceded by the not a. ▪ Please paraphrase the sentence or change the word into a synonym or another word ▪ Please change the word "children" to another word. Because the context is "teenagers," you may use it or its synonym. ▪ Please use capitalization in this sentence after the full stop or the end of the sentence.

Figure 1 presents the instructor's written text-based feedback strategies, focusing on both macro and micro writing aspects. The instructor provided indirect written corrective feedback through underlining to address issues of content and organizational clarity, prompting students to refine their ideas, enhance coherence, and develop a more logical paragraph flow. Meanwhile, metalinguistic explanations

were used to highlight grammatical, lexical, and mechanical errors. This written feedback strategy combined directive and facilitative approaches, aiming to promote learner autonomy, critical thinking, and awareness of the revision process as essential components of effective academic writing. After providing written feedback via Google Docs, the instructor supplemented it with personalized audio-visual feedback to deepen students' understanding, engagement, and clarity. Using Zoom's screen recording feature, the instructor created videos that explained and clarified key written comments. In each video, the instructor displayed the student's draft, elaborated on feedback with verbal explanations, and used visual cues (e.g., highlighting, underlining, cursor movement) to clarify suggestions. This multimodal format helped the students grasp not only *what* needed revision but also *why* it was necessary. The videos were uploaded to Google Drive, and individual links were shared with each student. The students were encouraged to watch the videos multiple times, especially for complex points, before revising their drafts. They then submitted a second draft, which the instructor reviewed and compared with the first to assess the extent of revisions and the effectiveness of the combined feedback approach. Figure 2 shows the implementation of the audio-visual feedback.

Figure 2

The Audio-Visual Feedback Implementation

Audio-Visual Feedback Types	Samples
Explanation	<p>Audio: "You mentioned '<i>social media harms teenagers</i>,' but didn't explain how. As far as we know, social media has negative effects for teenagers, so you have to try adding specific examples, like its effects on mental health or self-esteem."</p> <p>Visual: The instructor pointed to the phrase "<i>harms teenagers</i>" to indicate the vague point that needs further elaboration and supporting evidence.</p>
Suggestion	<p>Audio: You should add one sentence and an example here. I would suggest adding one more sentence and giving an example to elaborate and strengthen this idea</p> <p>Visual: The instructor highlighted the sentence that needed to be elaborated.</p>
Clarification	<p>Audio: "Here, you wrote '<i>They was happy</i>,' but 'was' is used with singular subjects. Since 'they' is plural, you have to change another 'to be' in the simple past tense. This keeps subject-verb agreement accurate."</p> <p>Visual: The instructor underlined the phrase "<i>They was</i>" to clearly show the subject-verb agreement issue that needs clarification and correction.</p>

Figure 2 illustrates the implementation of the instructor's audio-visual feedback strategies, which integrated spoken explanations, screen annotations, and visual cues to guide students in revising their essays. Through recorded video feedback, the instructor provided verbal comments to explain, clarify, and elaborate on complex written feedback, emphasize important points, and convey tone and emotion—creating a more personal and supportive learning experience. The screen-recording annotations highlighted specific sentences or sections that required

revision, helping students visually connect feedback to their texts. To offer more personalized support, the instructor held writing conferences after the students received written text-based and audio-visual feedback. These sessions provided students with opportunities to ask questions, clarify feedback, and discuss their challenges. One researcher compared students' second drafts with their first to examine how they responded to feedback on micro and macro aspects. The conferences also allowed students to express their emotional and cognitive reactions, such as motivation, confusion, and overwhelm, offering deeper insight into their engagement with the multimodal feedback. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a purposive sample of nine students, identified by their initials (RHN, MDU, TSK, RFA, HLM, TRD, MHY, DKS, and TRM), selected to represent diverse emotional, cognitive, and behavioral responses. These interviews, conducted in person or via Zoom, explored students' perceptions of the clarity, usefulness, and challenges of multimodal feedback, as well as the strategies they employed to address these issues. Lasting 20–30 minutes each, the interviews were audio-recorded with the participants' consent and transcribed to gather rich, qualitative data. Table 1 outlines the scheduling of sessions, the iteration of written text-based and audiovisual feedback, and the time lag between receiving feedback and conducting interviews.

Table 1

Timeline and Procedures for the Implementation of Written Text-Based and Audio-Visual Feedback

Phase	Activities	Feedback Type	Frequency of Feedback	Revision Time	Duration
Week 1	Students wrote and submitted their first essay draft on an opinion essay	N/A	N/A	N/A	1 week
Week 2	The instructor provided written text-based feedback (metalinguistic explanations and indirect corrective feedback and audiovisual feedback (screen-recorded commentary))	Metalinguistic Explanation + Indirect corrective feedback (questions, imperative sentences, and suggestions), and audiovisual feedback (explanation, suggestion, and clarification through voice comments, video comments, and screen-capture)	Once (per student draft)	N/A	1 week
Week 3	Students reviewed feedback and revised their drafts	Students engaged in self-revision	N/A	3–5 days	1 week
Week 4	Students consulted their writing errors	Students received valuable input or	Once (per student draft)	N/A	1 week

Phase	Activities	Feedback Type	Frequency of Feedback	Revision Time	Duration
	with their instructors during student-instructor conferences and out of class. They navigated online learning resources to improve the accuracy and quality of their revisions.	suggestions from the instructors on their revisions before submitting the final revision.			
Week 5	Students resubmitted revised drafts	N/A	N/A	N/A	1 week
Week 6	Reflections and semi-structured interviews with students to explore the students' responses, challenges, and strategies regarding the feedback they received	Reflection on the feedback experience	N/A	N/A	1 week

Data Analysis

The analysis focused on how the students revised their drafts in response to written text-based and audio-visual feedback. The students first submitted drafts via Google Docs, where the instructor provided written text-based feedback addressing macro-level issues (e.g., organization and content) and micro-level issues (e.g., vocabulary, grammar/language use, and mechanics). This was followed by personalized audio-visual feedback using Zoom recordings to elaborate on key written comments. The researchers collected and compared students' first and revised drafts, coding revisions as correct, incorrect, or no revision (Ferris, 2006). These were categorized into content-level (e.g., clearer thesis or improved structure) and language-level (e.g., grammar, word choice, or mechanics) revisions. Beyond language accuracy, the researchers also examined changes in content development, idea organization, logical flow, coherence, and argument clarity, providing a deeper understanding of students' writing progress and revision behavior. The analysis examined whether students' changes aligned with the feedback, revealing the effectiveness and clarity of each modality. Patterns of revision were further analyzed to determine whether students responded more thoroughly to written or audiovisual input, offering insights into the impact of multimodal feedback on revision quality and academic writing development.

The analysis began with transcribing audio-recorded conferences and interviews, followed by repeated readings to familiarize with the data. Using open coding, meaningful segments were labeled to capture students' emotional reactions (e.g., motivation, frustration), cognitive processing (e.g., understanding feedback, applying suggestions), and behavioral responses (e.g., revision strategies, clarification-seeking). These codes were then grouped into broader themes such as

“clarity of feedback,” “modality preference,” “revision challenges,” and “affective responses.” Recurring patterns and contrasts across participants highlighted both commonalities and individual differences in how this multimodal feedback was perceived and utilized. To ensure trustworthiness, data triangulation was performed by comparing student responses in interviews and conferences, while selected quotes grounded the analysis in participants’ voices. The analysis followed Widodo’s (2014) thematic steps —reviewing, coding, categorizing, and defining themes— to address the research questions. Member checking was also conducted, with each participant receiving their interview transcript to confirm accuracy and enhance the study’s credibility and interpretive depth.

Results

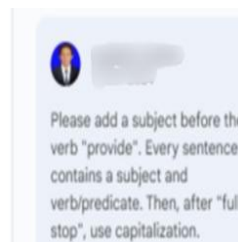
The Nature of Written Text-Based and Audio-Visual Feedback Provided by the Instructor on Students’ Writing Drafts

Instructor feedback significantly shapes students’ academic writing development. This section examines empirical data on written and audio-visual feedback, showcasing their distinct functions. As digital tools reshape pedagogy, understanding how these feedback modes influence revision is vital. In this regard, written feedback offers clarity and permanence, while audio-visual feedback enhances engagement through tone and visuals. For example, Figures 3 and 4 illustrate an instructor’s metalinguistic feedback addressing language use, mechanics, specifically focusing on sentence structure and capitalization, and vocabulary.

Figure 3

An Example of Metalinguistic Explanations Focusing on Grammatical and Mechanical Issues

In conclusion, living in a big city has many benefits. provides many job opportunities in various fields to support a better career. As well as better schools for quality education needs. The city also offers many fun places to get entertained. This is what makes city life more fun and exciting.

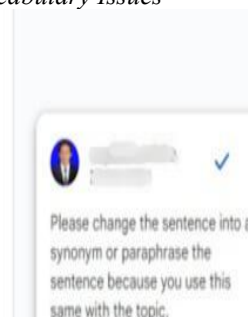


According to Figure 3, the instructor explained that every sentence must contain both a subject and a predicate, as written in the comment feature. The instructor also addressed mechanical accuracy, reminding the student to capitalize after full stops. This metalinguistic explanation promotes students’ understanding of sentence structure and writing conventions, fostering awareness and self-editing skills. By linking grammatical rules to practical revisions, such feedback supports long-term writing development and empowers learners to construct clearer, grammatically sound academic texts. Additionally, the instructor commented on the misuse of capitalization, asking the student to capitalize the first word following a full stop.

Figure 4

An Example of Metalinguistic Explanations Focusing on Vocabulary Issues

Up to now, television has been a means of obtaining entertainment, information, and education for the general public. In several programs, there are many broadcasts such as comedy that can entertain, relevant updated news, and talk shows that often invite informative and educational speakers. So, some people think watching TV has a powerful influence on youth. Although, others think that television has lost its appeal due to tight competition with other more influential digital platforms. In my opinion television programs can influence youth for three reasons.



As presented in Figure 4, another issue was related to vocabulary: the instructor commented on the highlighted sentence, advising the student, MHY, to use a synonym or paraphrase, as the student repeated the same sentence as the essay topic. The instructor also noted that the phrase “*some people think watching TV has a powerful influence on youth*” echoed the prompt, suggesting that it should be paraphrased to improve lexical variety.

Furthermore, Figures 5 and 6 below illustrate unclear arguments, weak topic sentences, and paragraph structure that affected coherence (content and organization). These figures show similar feedback for the students, MDU and TSK, where the instructors highlighted problematic areas and used questions and visual cues to prompt revision, encouraging critical thinking and improved organization in academic writing.

Figure 5

An Example of Indirect Written Feedback Focusing on Content Quality and Rhetorical Organization Issues

Second, it is very useful as an instant and fast means of searching for job opportunities. Because, most recruiters on Facebook target fresh graduate candidates or people without experience. This makes it easier for prospective job applicants to meet the requirements or qualifications for people who have just started work.

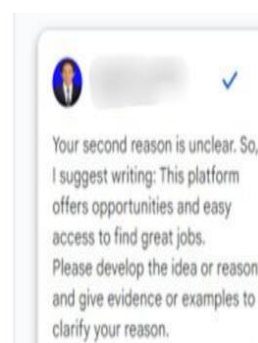


Figure 5 shows indirect corrective feedback on MDU's draft, where the instructor addressed a vague topic sentence misaligned with the thesis statement. Rather than correcting it directly, the instructor suggested a clearer version and urged the addition of supporting details.

Figure 6

An Example of Indirect Written Feedback Focusing on Content Quality and Rhetorical Organization Issues

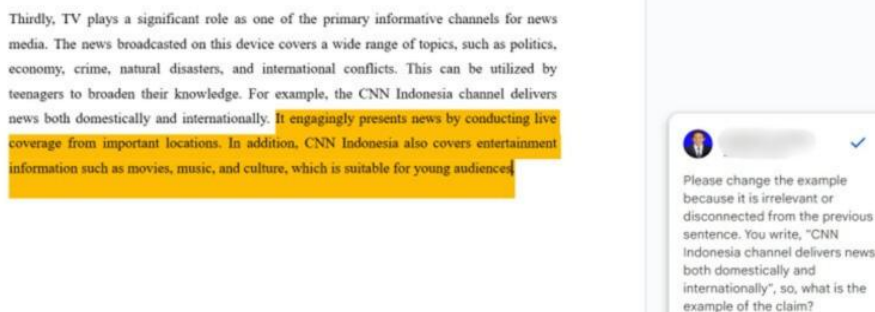


Figure 6 highlights a coherence issue in TSK's writing, where an unrelated entertainment example was used to support a claim about CNN Indonesia. The instructor provided a guiding question to prompt revision. To enhance clarity and engagement, the instructor supplemented written feedback with Zoom-recorded audiovisual explanations, which were shared via Google. As shown in Figure 7 below, the instructor used audiovisual feedback to explain and clarify organizational issues, thereby fostering deeper student reflection and learning.

Figure 7

Supplementing Written Text-Based Feedback with Personalized Audio-Visual Feedback to Address Content, Organization, and Vocabulary Issues

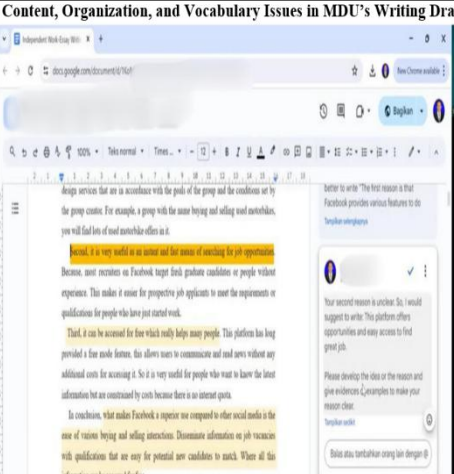
Example	Audio-Visual Feedback Types
<p>Content, Organization, and Vocabulary Issues in MDU's Writing Draft</p> 	<p>Explanation and Suggestion</p> <p>Audio: Hey, I noticed your second point says, 'it is very useful as an instant and fast means of searching for job opportunities'. While the idea is relevant, the sentence is quite general and lacks clarity. It would be stronger if you specified what is useful, for example, 'This platform' or 'Facebook'. Also, the phrase 'instant and fast' is repetitive-- you could simplify that. Here's a clearer version you might consider: 'This platform provides quick access to job opportunities for users. I also recommend expanding this idea with an example or evidence, maybe mentioning how Facebook describes a feature that helps users find employment easily.'</p> <p>Visual: The instructor highlighted the personal section in yellow, but importantly, she pointed out the sentence "Second, it is very useful as an instant and fast means of searching for job opportunities," which could be problematic. The sentence visually indicates the key point of the claim, which you should explain clearly and give strong supporting sentences along with an example or evidence.</p>

Figure 7 presents the instructor using audio-visual feedback via Google Docs to address a vague sentence—*“Second, it is very useful as an instant and fast means of searching for job opportunities.”* Through a recorded video comment, the instructor built on prior written feedback, explaining why the sentence lacked clarity and offering a revision: *“This platform provides quick access to job opportunities for users.”* The instructor also encouraged elaboration through the use of examples. Moreover, Figure 8 highlights feedback on RHN’s writing, in which the instructor used audiovisual comments to clarify a grammatical issue, reinforcing earlier written input and enhancing comprehension through a multimodal approach.

Figure 8

Supplementing Written Text-Based Feedback with Personalized Audio-Visual Feedback to Address Language Issues

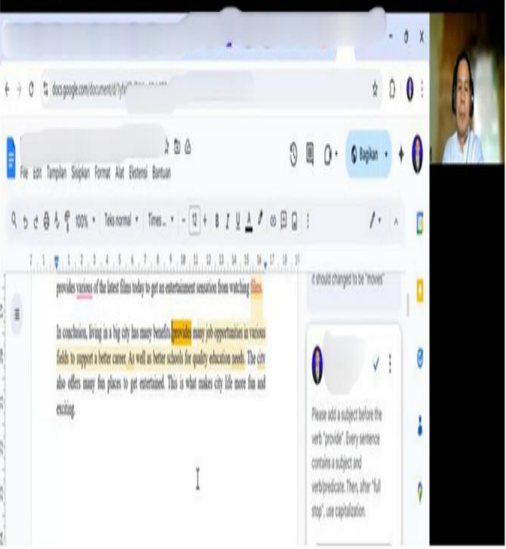
Example	Audio-Visual Feedback Types
<p>Language/Grammatical Issue in RHN’s Writing Drafts</p> 	<p>Clarification and Suggestion</p> <p>Audio: Well, the instructor located the sentence error in yellow. He said that the error is in the second sentence: <i>“provides many jobs...”</i> That is an incomplete thought. It doesn’t have a subject. You have to fix this idea by making it a complete sentence.” Thus, in writing a sentence, you should include a subject and a verb.</p> <p>Visual: Here is the issue. The instructor underlined the key point <i>“provides”</i> to clearly show the incomplete sentence that needs clarification and correction.</p>

Figure 8 focused on the sentence *“provides many job opportunities in various fields to support a better career,”* which the instructor flagged for lacking a subject, rendering it incomplete. In a written comment, the instructor reminded the student that a complete sentence requires both a subject and a verb. Through audio-visual feedback, the instructor likely expanded on this rule, demonstrating how to revise the sentence by adding a subject and explaining why the change was necessary. This multimodal approach clarified the student’s grammatical misunderstanding, reinforced principles of sentence structure, and encouraged reflective revision to enhance clarity and writing accuracy.

The Students' Responses to This Multimodal Feedback Emotionally, Cognitively, and Behaviorally

Students' Emotional Responses to This Multimodal Feedback

Most of the students felt encouraged and supported by the instructor's guidance. Although some initially experienced frustration and confusion from receiving indirect corrective feedback, they soon recognized the instructor's supportive tone, which motivated them to improve. The personalized nature of the feedback, particularly in the audio-visual format, made them feel seen and valued. The students stated during the interviews and face-to-face conferences in the class:

I initially felt frustrated due to limited support in addressing indirect feedback, despite audio-visual explanations. However, through practice and face-to-face consultations encouraged by instructors, I became more engaged, gained a deeper understanding, and significantly improved my writing (Face-to-face interview, TRD).

In the beginning, I felt happy identifying my writing errors through multimodal feedback, but the overwhelming amount discouraged me. However, repeated explanations through written, audiovisual, and in-class conferences helped me better understand and recognize its value for improving writing and independence (Zoom meeting, TRM).

I learned a great deal from multimodal feedback, becoming more aware of my writing strengths and weaknesses. Initially, I felt confused by numerous errors, particularly with indirect feedback, which required deeper research and rewriting to strengthen my arguments (Zoom meeting, TSK).

At the outset, my classmates and I felt discouraged by the feedback due to many mistakes. However, with instructor guidance, practice, and conferences, I gradually came to understand the types of feedback and significantly improved my writing (Zoom meeting interview, RFA).

The interview data revealed a developmental trajectory in students' engagement with multimodal feedback. Initially, most participants expressed frustration, confusion, or discouragement due to the complexity and volume of indirect feedback, even when supported by audiovisual explanations. For instance, TRD and TSK felt overwhelmed by the need to revise extensively, while RFA and TRM found the abundance of comments disheartening. However, over time, students' attitudes shifted positively. Repeated exposure to feedback across modes—written, audio-visual, and face-to-face consultations gradually enhanced their understanding and writing skills. Instructors' scaffolding, peer discussions, and reflective practices helped students develop autonomy and a deeper awareness of their writing strengths and weaknesses. Participants emphasized the importance of sustained support in transforming initial confusion into meaningful learning experiences. Ultimately, multimodal feedback proved effective not only in correcting errors but also in fostering student confidence, motivation, and a stronger grasp of academic writing conventions.

Students' Cognitive Responses to This Multimodal Feedback

Cognitively, many students actively engaged with written text-based and audio-visual feedback, reflecting on their writing weaknesses and identifying areas for improvement. Some students noted that the interview data seemed to encapsulate the experiences of most students.

I revised my writing by combining text-based and audio-visual feedback, repeatedly reviewing both, and actively seeking clarification during writing conferences to better understand and apply the instructor's explanations for correcting and improving my work (Zoom meeting interview, RHN).

To address writing errors in my draft, I clarified feedback with my instructor, discussed it with classmates for better understanding, especially when complex, used Google to find supporting sources, and ran a Plagiarism Checker to ensure originality before submission. (Face-to-face interview, MDU).

However, a few students demonstrated limited knowledge in revising both macro writing issues. While they attempted to address the feedback types, their revisions often focused on surface-level changes, such as grammar and word choice, leaving deeper concerns —such as organization, coherence, and idea development — unresolved. One of the students, HLM, reported it during the interview session and also expressed it in writing during the conference. He said that:

Despite receiving audio-visual feedback with clear verbal explanations and visual cues, I still struggled to revise indirect corrective feedback, particularly on content, coherence, and organization. When confused, I occasionally ignored parts of the feedback, resulting in limited improvement in my macro writing skills (Zoom meeting interview, HLM).

Students' Behavioural Responses to This Multimodal Feedback

We also observed the students' behavioral responses to written text-based and audio-visual feedback. In this respect, students' behavioral responses to this multimodal feedback varied throughout the revision process. The majority of the students responded actively by thoroughly revising their drafts based on the types of feedback formats, addressing issues related to language, organization, and content. One of them, MHY, stated that:

I repeatedly reviewed the commented drafts and the provided suggestions. I found it beneficial to identify crucial points and take notes on issues that need correction. For the audio-visual, I listened to and revisited the comments multiple times, which could be time-consuming. However, doing these ways helped me understand the feedback more clearly and apply it effectively (Zoom meeting interview, MHY).

On the other hand, a small number of students showed minimal changes in their revisions despite receiving both written text-based and audio-visual feedback. This indicated the students' difficulty in understanding or applying the feedback effectively. For example, behaviorally, a student, TSK, stated during the interview session and the writing conference. This variation in behavioural responses

highlights individual differences in motivation, feedback literacy, and writing or language proficiency. One of them narrated her experience in the interview data.

I know I didn't change much, especially in my content and organization, but I tried to revise my writing carefully based on the instructor's feedback. I read the feedback and thought about it, but I was not sure how to make significant changes and meet my instructor's expectations. So, I just adjusted some sentences and added a few ideas (Face-to-face interview, DKS)

Challenges the Students Faced When Revising Their Writing Based on This Multimodal Feedback

The present study also revealed a disparity between micro-level and macro-level changes. Most students faced challenges revising macro-level issues, such as developing a thesis statement, generating topic-sentence ideas, and organizing ideas to create coherence. This reflects limited feedback literacy, in which students could identify their writing errors but struggled to engage with the cognitive complexity of content-level revisions. Among Indonesian students, it was found that product-oriented educational backgrounds could shape their writing competency, especially in content and organization issues. Many of them came from previous learning environments that emphasized the correctness of final products—particularly grammar and vocabulary accuracy—rather than the process of meaning-making and revision. This product-oriented mindset limited their ability to engage in the recursive, dialogic nature of academic writing, in which ideas must be negotiated, refined, and restructured through feedback. Another finding was that some students experienced significant challenges not only in content and organization, but also in language use and vocabulary. As expressed by the students in the interview data, they mentioned that:

Content and idea organization were challenging for me due to limited knowledge and difficulty expressing thoughts in writing. After drafting, I realized my ideas were unclear and poorly structured, especially around the topic sentence (Zoom meeting interview, TSK).

The biggest challenges in revising my draft were content and organization due to limited knowledge. Though I understood the concepts, my ideas became disjointed in writing. I also struggled with verb tense, missing subjects, and article usage (Face-to-face meeting, DKS).

I struggled to revise content, organization, and language, which required deeper knowledge and greater cognitive effort. Despite the instructor's suggestions, I often failed to meet expectations, and repeated multimodal feedback indicated persistent errors in my drafts (Zoom meeting interview, HLM).

Some students encountered notable challenges in their writing, particularly in language use and vocabulary. These difficulties often hindered their ability to express ideas clearly and accurately. Struggles with grammar, sentence structure, and appropriate word choice led to confusion in meaning and reduced the overall quality of their writing. The students said in the interview session:

At the end of this writing course, despite improving my writing, I realized that grammar and vocabulary were my main difficulties. In every writing draft I wrote, the instructors consistently found errors, including misuse of singular and plural forms, articles, lack of subject or verb, incorrect present-tense usage, and a lack of varied vocabulary, which led to a monotonous flow (Zoom meeting interview, RFA).

I still struggled to craft well-structured sentences and select appropriate vocabulary based on context, although the instructor taught and explained these aspects in class and provided this multimodal feedback multiple times (Zoom meeting interview, MHY).

Ultimately, my writing demonstrated noticeable improvement. However, I continued to struggle with grammatical forms and sometimes lacked vocabulary, often making mistakes in verb tense, subject-verb agreement, and sentence structure, as well as using inappropriate words for the context (Face-to-face interview, TRM).

The rest of the students faced difficulty in language use or grammar. While they were able to develop ideas and organize their writing adequately, issues with grammar or sentence structure affected the clarity and accuracy of their work. Common problems included subject-verb agreement, verb tense consistency, and article usage, among others. Two students narrated in the interview session that:

My primary challenge was language use. For example, I was inconsistent in using the simple present tense and often forgot to add 's' or 'es' to the verb when the subject was singular. Sometimes a minor issue occurred in my sentences: I failed to begin with a capital letter or end with a full stop (Zoom meeting interview, RHN).

I think my main challenge in revising was grammatical accuracy. I often made errors in subject-verb agreement, tense consistency, singular and plural usage, and sentence structure. I experienced it because I lacked language proficiency, and my high school English teachers seldom exposed me to grammatical practice. So, it influenced my writing ability (Face-to-face interview, TRD).

Furthermore, other challenges were related to technical issues identified with the provision of audio-visual feedback. Some students found watching audio-visual feedback time-consuming and difficult to review. They also complained about the difficulty accessing certain places and the need for a private space to watch.

I received audio-visual feedback that was too long or difficult to review. I rewound and watched it multiple times (Zoom meeting interview, MHY).

I often experienced difficulty accessing audio-visual feedback due to a poor internet connection at my location (Face-to-face interview, TRM).

My place was inconvenient for watching audio-visual feedback due to the crowded situation, so I needed headphones and a private place to watch carefully in this mode (Face-to-face interview, MDU).

The Students' Strategies to Cope with the Challenges

The students employed various strategies to cope with the challenges they faced in writing content and organizing their ideas effectively. They reported in the interview session that:

I often consulted my instructor and classmates for feedback and used face-to-face meetings to clarify revisions. To improve content and grammar, I searched online for supporting ideas, paraphrased using Google Translate, and practiced with grammar books (Face-to-face meeting, DKS).

Face-to-face conferences helped me solve writing problems by allowing consultation and discussion. I used references to improve content, Google Translate to adjust language, and thesaurus and dictionary tools to paraphrase and avoid AI detection, enhancing clarity (Face-to-face interview, MDU).

To cope with challenges in language use and vocabulary, some students relied on dictionaries and online translation tools to find appropriate vocabulary, while others reviewed grammar materials or consulted a grammar-checking application to identify and correct errors.

When unsure about my revisions, I asked friends for feedback on sentence structure and grammar. I also used a thesaurus for synonyms, grammar practice resources, and the Cambridge Dictionary to translate and refine my sentences (Zoom meeting interview, MHY).

I reviewed my drafts independently and sought feedback from classmates and instructors. To improve language use, I studied grammar through books, online resources, and Grammarly, and used Thesaurus.com or online dictionaries to expand my vocabulary (Face-to-face interview, TRM).

To overcome students' challenges with language use, some students used grammar-checking tools and online resources to identify and correct errors. Some reviewed grammar notes from class or sought clarification from the instructor during writing conferences. The students narrated in the interview data:

I often sought clarification from instructors or classmates, used online grammar resources, including Grammarly and Google Translate, and paraphrased my ideas. I also carefully checked mechanics like capitalization and punctuation to improve writing accuracy and effectiveness (Zoom meeting interview, RHN).

I reviewed grammar lessons, focusing on sentence structure, articles, and singular/plural usage. I also sought feedback from classmates and instructors and used grammar books, online materials, and Grammarly to understand and apply grammatical rules (Face-to-face interview, TRD).

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings revealed key implications for the relationship between instructor feedback and student revision in writing essays. First, written text-based feedback was direct, detailed, and persistent, which was intended to address surface or higher-order writing problems in depth (Glover & Brown, 2006). In particular, metalinguistic explanations helped students revise their grammar and word choice, while indirect written corrective feedback supported them in thinking critically and independently about the development, organization, and coherence of their ideas.

Such feedback was beneficial in promoting learner autonomy, which encourages students to choose the content they want to develop and how they would organize their ideas (Karim & Nassaji, 2020a, b; Supiani et al., 2023a, b).

Second, the audio-visual feedback tone, created by video explanations recorded for individual students' essays, worked as a personalized and engaging form of interaction that enhanced students' understanding of instructor comments (Bahula & Kay, 2021). It means that the verbal explanation, facial expressions, and screen annotations automatically make complex comments feel more approachable and emotionally supportive. Through a Bakhtinian lens, this feedback mode constructs a chronotope—a simulated shared space and time—where teacher and student coexist dialogically. Although physically separated, the recorded video situates both in an interactive moment that transcends written communication, producing a sense of presence, immediacy, and relational support. This chronotopic encounter fosters affective engagement, making feedback not only a technical exchange but also a human dialogue infused with tone, empathy, and responsiveness (Grigoryan, 2017). Consequently, students felt motivated and connected, as if they were participating in a shared conversational moment rather than passively receiving correction. Regarding student reactions, the findings revealed emotional, cognitive, and behavioral responses. While the majority of the students initially felt overwhelmed or discouraged—especially by indirect written corrective feedback—the multimodal feedback and continuous instructor support gradually led to better understanding, enhanced engagement, and improved writing proficiency (Ebadi & Dadgar, 2024; Rassaei, 2019). Cognitively, students were more reflective about their weaknesses and strategic in revising their work after receiving feedback, often integrating this multimodal feedback to improve their performance. In terms of learning behavior, many students demonstrated recursive revisiting of their work through frequent iterations, based on reflection—reviewing instructor comments and returning to video feedback, as well as drawing on a variety of additional sources (dictionaries, grammar checkers, online tools).

However, this present study also revealed a disparity between micro-level and macro-level changes. Some students faced challenges in revising macro-level issues, such as developing a thesis statement, generating ideas for writing topic sentences, and organizing ideas to create coherence. This reflects limited feedback literacy. Although students could identify and correct local errors, they found it challenging to engage with the dialogic complexity of content-level revision (Jiang et al., 2024). In Bakhtinian terms, their struggle reflects an emerging but incomplete participation in the dialogue of ideas within academic writing, where one must not only respond to linguistic norms but also engage meaningfully with other voices, perspectives, and knowledge systems. Some students hesitated to embrace the instructor's suggestions fully or lacked sufficient background knowledge, resulting in partial or superficial revisions. Moreover, a few students were either not entirely convinced of the correctness of the suggestions or lacked the background to implement them fully; in such cases, the draft changes became minor. Additionally, some learners lacked the confidence or knowledge to fully utilize or follow the types of multimodal feedback, resulting in minimal changes to their drafts, or even no changes at all, or an ignorance of complexity issues.

The students' challenges stemmed from both language proficiency and rhetorical awareness. Many encountered persistent difficulties in grammar, sentence structure, and vocabulary, which hindered clarity. Others struggled to develop ideas logically and support claims effectively, a limitation compounded by minimal exposure to structured writing instruction (Wang & Newell, 2025). In response, students sought peer support, instructor guidance, and digital tools such as Grammarly to mediate their revisions. Particularly valuable were face-to-face conferences and opportunities for feedback clarification—moments that reactivated the dialogic space of interaction and deepened understanding through genuine conversational exchange. These results suggest that when provided with multimodal feedback and access to task-specific tools and resources, students can learn to adopt “strategic” behaviors (Campbell & Feldmann, 2017).

In the Indonesian higher education context, the challenges faced by the students were closely related to their product-oriented educational backgrounds and language-specific grammatical difficulties common among them. Coming from instructional settings that emphasized accuracy and correctness over process-oriented learning, many were more accustomed to viewing writing as a finished product rather than as a recursive, developmental activity (Widiati, 2002). This orientation restricted their understanding of how feedback could serve as a dialogic tool for revising meaning and structure. As a result, they often focused on surface-level corrections rather than engaging in deeper revision of ideas, argument flow, or coherence. Moreover, linguistic transfer from the Indonesian language created additional grammatical challenges, such as errors in tense, articles, and sentence structure—features not present in their first language. These patterns illustrate how educational tradition, product-oriented instruction, and linguistic background intersect to influence learners' responses to and engagement with multimodal feedback, thereby shaping their ability to internalize instructor guidance and transform it into substantive textual improvement (Supiani et al., 2023a, b).

Based on the students' gender and background, most female students demonstrated higher English proficiency, stronger writing competency, and more positive beliefs about learning than their male counterparts. Gender and language proficiency levels affected the students' responses and engagement with the feedback given (Cahyono & Rahayu, 2020). Consequently, they responded more positively to multimodal feedback—both written and audio-visual—across all dimensions. In fact, female students showed greater emotional engagement, appreciating the instructor's supportive tone and clear explanations in the video feedback. Cognitively, they demonstrated deeper reflection and critical thinking when revising their essays, while behaviorally, they showed greater consistency in applying feedback. In contrast, some male students showed lower engagement and confidence, focusing more narrowly on technical corrections than on overall content and organization. Hence, female students' stronger linguistic foundation and learning attitudes facilitated more constructive responses to multimodal feedback.

This study highlights the pedagogical value of multimodal feedback—specifically, the integration of written and audio-visual formats—in encouraging

students' writing development (Saeed et al., 2024). While text-based feedback offers precision and permanence, audio-visual feedback humanizes the process, enabling affective resonance and shared understanding within the chronotope of virtual interaction. Students' responses to feedback grew both cognitively and emotionally, though their success in implementing it varied by proficiency and feedback literacy. Although challenges remained at the macro level of revision, their willingness to use strategies such as digital tools, peer collaboration, and reflective revision suggests increasing participation in academic discourse. They showed willingness to employ various strategies to cope with these problems. These included seeking feedback, using digital tools, and engaging in collaborative learning practices (Gan et al., 2015). However, the findings also highlight the need for explicit instruction in macro-level revision strategies, interpreting feedback skills, and writing conventions. To further optimize the effectiveness of multimodal feedback, instructors must also gradually provide guidance and assistance on understanding and using various types of feedback, scaffold complex revision with examples and models, encourage ongoing dialogue through writing conferences, and provide follow-up consultations. Through this dialogic interplay and shared chronotopic presence, feedback becomes not merely corrective but transformative, enabling students to inhabit the discourse of academic writing as active, emotionally supported, and increasingly autonomous participants (Li et al., 2024).

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The Role of Individual Differences and AI Chatbots in EFL Learners' Metadiscourse Realization in Expository Writing

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Abstract

This study sought to explore how personality traits (extroverts and introverts) affect EFL learners' utilization of interactional metadiscourse markers (IMMs) in expository writing when they use two AI chatbots, Gemini and Microsoft Copilot. Additionally, the study analyzed learners' experiences and preferences when the learners interact with these chatbots to understand their perceptions and overall satisfaction. The participants consisted of 150 advanced language learners randomly assigned to four experimental groups: Gemini extroverted learners, Gemini introverted learners, Microsoft Copilot extroverted learners, Microsoft Copilot introverted learners, and a control group. Throughout eight sessions, the participants in the Gemini group utilized the Gemini AI platform on their computer monitors to investigate IMMs, while the Microsoft Copilot groups were exposed to IMMs through Microsoft Copilot AI companion. The control group was taught using traditional methods, which involved reading the designated instructional materials. The results of a one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) procedure revealed that the introverted advanced participants in the Gemini group surpassed the other groups in the posttest focused on recognizing and identifying IMMs, with statistically significant differences among the groups. In the posttest, there was also an improvement in both Microsoft Copilot advanced introverted and extroverted learners in realizing IMMs in expository writing. The Gemini advanced extroverted group and the control group performed poorly compared to the other groups. Semi-structured interview results analyzed through MAXQDA (version 2022) suggested that Microsoft Copilot adeptly supports both advanced extroverted and introverted learners in refining their expository writing skills by facilitating metadiscourse development.

Keywords: expository writing, Gemini, metadiscourse, microsoft Copilot

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Introduction

The adoption of artificial intelligence (AI) in language learning has paved the way for improved educational experiences, particularly in EFL. AI chatbots, in particular, have garnered significant attention for their potential to provide personalized learning experiences, offering immediate feedback and engaging learners in interactive dialogues (Pan, 2024). These chatbots leverage advanced natural language processing techniques to simulate human-like conversations, which can be especially beneficial for language learners seeking to improve their skills outside the traditional classroom environment. As education increasingly moves towards digital platforms, understanding how AI chatbots can influence language learning outcomes, especially in advanced EFL learners, has become a critical area of inquiry (Schütze, 2024). The potential of the two advanced AI tools, Gemini and Microsoft Copilot, was explored to transform educational practices and enhance learning experiences. Gemini, a cutting-edge AI communication assistant, has been designed to facilitate interactive and engaging learning environments by providing tailored support in language acquisition, collaborative tasks, and virtual teaching settings. With its ability to adapt to individual learners' needs, Gemini fosters personalized learning journeys, encouraging students to overcome challenges and achieve their academic goals. In parallel, Microsoft Copilot offers a versatile suite of capabilities aimed at streamlining academic processes, such as essay composition, data analysis, and project management (Bialkova, 2024).

AI-powered tools have increasingly demonstrated their capability to revolutionize language learning by enhancing key areas such as vocabulary learning, reading comprehension, and speaking skills (Lytras et al., 2025). However, their impact extends beyond these foundational aspects and goes into more complex dimensions of academic proficiency, such as effective academic writing. One critical area within academic writing is metadiscourse, which refers to the use of language to organize, comment on, and guide the interpretation of discourse (Hyland, 2019). Metadiscourse plays an essential role in ensuring clarity and engaging the audience, particularly in academic settings where precision and interaction are paramount. According to Hyland's interpersonal metadiscourse model, this concept can be divided into two dimensions: the interactive dimension, which focuses on addressing the reader's needs and awareness, and the interactional dimension, which emphasizes the writer's engagement with the audience through metadiscourse markers (see Table 1). By providing real-time feedback and tailored suggestions, AI tools can empower learners to master these dimensions, thereby improving their capability to create coherent, audience-aware academic texts.

Table 1*Hyland's Interactional Metadiscourse Framework (Hyland, 2019, p. 58)*

Interactive metadiscourse	Description	Examples
Transitions	the connections in clauses	moreover; however
Frame markers	discourse functions or arrangements	lastly; to sum up
Endophoric markers	details in other sections of the text	given below
Evidentials	data derived from other sources	based on x
Code glosses	develop propositional interpretations	like; including
Interactional metadiscourse	Description	Examples
Hedges	avoid making any commitments	maybe; about
Boosters	focus on assurance	absolutely; clearly
Attitude markers	a clear position on the matter at hand	sadly; I understand
Self-mentions	author mention	you; your
Engagement markers	establish a rapport with the audience	review; note

IMMs hold significant importance in academic writing, as they help create a dynamic interaction between authors and their readership (Izquierdo & Pérez Blanco, 2023). Writers employ various linguistic strategies to express their stance and argument while also establishing a rapport with their audience. With the use of IMMs, authors can enthrall readers, direct them effortlessly, and impact their grasp of the material (Hyland & Jiang, 2022). However, advanced EFL students who are non-native speakers sometimes exhibit a tendency to excessively employ IMMs in their writing (Paltridge & Prior, 2024). Advanced EFL learners, who are typically expected to possess a higher level of metadiscourse awareness and skill, can benefit significantly from interventions that target these aspects of writing.

Recent academic studies have emphasized the critical function of metadiscourse in achieving coherence and persuasiveness in argumentative texts, making it a key focus for educators aiming to improve writing proficiency. For instance, Wei (2024) emphasizes that the effective use of metadiscourse can enhance the clarity and persuasiveness of written arguments, thereby contributing to better academic performance in writing-intensive courses. Despite the potential benefits of AI chatbots, the effectiveness of these tools can vary widely among individual learners. Factors such as learners' cognitive styles, motivation, and prior knowledge can significantly impact how individuals engage with and derive benefits from AI interventions. Cognitive styles, which refer to the preferred ways in which individuals process information, can significantly impact how learners engage with AI chatbots (Fields, 2024). For instance, field-dependent learners may prefer more

structured and guided interactions, while field-independent learners might benefit from more exploratory and autonomous engagements. Understanding these individual differences is crucial for designing AI-powered educational resources designed to meet the needs of various learners.

Studies have highlighted both the benefits and areas for improvement of AI chatbots in language learning (Esfandiari & Allaf-Akbary, 2024b). Recently, chatbots have been increasingly used as virtual instructors to enhance language proficiency and communicative abilities (Zhang et al., 2023). Tai and Chen (2024), for example, found improvements in speaking fluency and pronunciation accuracy among beginner EFL learners. However, the impact on advanced learners' metadiscourse in argumentative writing is still underexplored, presenting an opportunity for further research. This study aims to understand how AI chatbots can support higher-order writing skills in advanced EFL learners. Ongoing advancements in AI technology and natural language processing make it essential to continuously evaluate these tools' efficacy in language education.

Despite the growing body of research, there remains a significant gap in understanding the specific ways in which individual learner differences affect the success of AI chatbot interventions in advanced EFL learners' metadiscourse realization in argumentative writing. This study seeks to bridge this gap by exploring how factors such as learners' cognitive styles influence the effectiveness of AI chatbot interventions. The central research questions guiding this inquiry are:

1. Is there any difference between the effects of Microsoft copilot and Gemini AI chatbots on advanced EFL learners' utilization of IMMs in expository writing across personality traits?
2. What are the perceptions of advanced extroverted and introverted EFL learners on the effectiveness of Gemini and Microsoft Copilot AI chatbots in enhancing their use of IMMs in expository writing?

Literature review

Generative AI in Language Education

Generative AI in language education transforms traditional teaching by offering innovative content creation, translation, and pedagogical strategies. Studies highlight its impact on curriculum design, engagement, and innovation (Bonner et al., 2023; McCallum, 2024). Generative AI models improve translation and localization, making education more accessible in multilingual classrooms (Lee et al., 2023). However, accuracy and cultural sensitivity issues persist. Its use in gamification and storytelling boosts engagement, but teacher training gaps remain (Jeon & Lee, 2023; Kasneci et al., 2023; Moorhouse & Kohnke, 2024). To overcome challenges like inadequate infrastructure and resistance to new technologies, comprehensive professional development and policy frameworks are needed. Generative AI creates personalized, adaptive learning environments, enhancing engagement and critical thinking (Pentina et al., 2023; Du & Daniel, 2024). Language learning theories support AI integration, with tools like Gemini AI and Microsoft Copilot demonstrating tailored, adaptive support for effective learning (Bielza & Larrañaga, 2020; Ding & Zou, 2024; Gibson & Ifenthaler, 2024; Mishra

& Kumar, 2020; Sherkuzyieva et al., 2023). Gemini AI, developed by Google, and Microsoft Copilot cater to different user needs and environments with their advanced features and integrations (Kristina, 2025).

Interactional Metadiscourse

Writers use IMMs to engage readers and convey their messages effectively. Investigations into metadiscourse have mainly focused on academic written performance, chiefly research articles (RAs). For example, studies by Ädel (2023) and Liu and Tseng (2021) have examined the nature and function of metadiscourse markers across various disciplines. The aims and findings of the two studies highlighted a focus on advancing understanding of academic discourse and communication. The first study proposed a *move* approach to metadiscourse, developing a functional taxonomy to analyze spoken student presentations, while the second explored paradigmatic variations in hedging and boosting strategies across narrative inquiry and grounded theory research. Together, their findings underscored the significance of functional discourse analysis and rhetorical strategies in improving the effectiveness of academic communication across spoken and written contexts.

Additionally, research has explored IM in other genres, such as advisory letters during the COVID-19 pandemic (Yang, 2021), focusing on analyzing how metadiscourse is used in letters of advice issued by governments and hospitals during the COVID-19 pandemic, centering on its role in engaging readers across different participant groups. The findings of Yang's study reveal variations in the use of *engagement markers*, *boosters*, and *attitude markers*, highlighting distinct communicative styles adopted by the two agencies to address diverse audience needs in a crisis context. Regarding stance markers in COVID-19-related articles, Shen and Tao (2021) compared the use of stance markers in English medical RAs and newspaper opinion columns, finding that stance markers were significantly more frequent in newspaper columns due to their conversational and persuasive nature. Despite this difference, both genres shared similarities in the most commonly used stance markers, influenced by the topic's content and the tentative nature of claims during the early COVID-19 pandemic. Bernad-Mechó & Valeiras-Jurado (2023) also emphasized the role of TED Talks and YouTube science videos in effectively engaging diverse audiences. The study examined how TED Talks and YouTube science videos employed multimodal engagement strategies to effectively disseminate scientific knowledge. It highlighted the use of visual aids, gestures, speech, and other semiotic resources to captivate diverse audiences and enhance the understanding of complex scientific concepts

Previous research has examined the use of metadiscourse in various genres such as reputable newspapers, instructional manuals, and advertisements, offering insights into its rhetorical function. Studies by Esfandiari and Allaf-Akbary's (2024a) study, for instance, delved into how learners with distinct personality factors utilize metadiscourse features to optimize course materials. Esfandiari and Allaf-Akbary investigated how learning-oriented language assessment (LOLA) influences the use of IMMs among ecenic and synoptic EFL learners. The findings revealed

that ectenic learners outperformed synoptic learners in employing IMMs, while both groups benefited from LOLA in enhancing their integrative writing tasks.

El-Dakhs et al. (2022) explored the effects of explicit versus implicit instruction on EFL learners' use of IMMs in writing and examined learners' perceptions of these instructional approaches. Involving 120 Arab female undergraduates, the research employed a mixed-methods design, with participants divided into explicit instruction, implicit instruction, and control groups. The findings revealed that while explicit and implicit teaching positively influenced certain markers (e.g., self-mentions and directives), the effects were limited. Learners considered both methods helpful but often found it challenging to apply what they learned due to task demands.

Triki (2024) examined how expert linguists use exemplification and reformulation as metadiscourse strategies, revealing a balance between disciplinary norms and individual style. The analysis of 90 works from six linguists highlighted notable stylistic individuality, with no consistent patterns tied to career stages. The findings underscored the nuanced interaction of discipline and personal expression in academic writing. Izquierdo and Pérez Blanco (2023) explored the role of IMMs in building rapport and solidarity within informational-persuasive discourse, focusing on English and Spanish languages. Using a contrastive analysis of online tea descriptions, the research highlighted how linguistic strategies like *direct address* and *directives* vary across languages. The English language tends to rely on *self-mentions*, while the Spanish language emphasizes *inclusive we*. The findings highlighted the cultural and rhetorical nuances in how metadiscourse fosters connection and persuasion.

Weisi and Zandi (2024) examined how L2 speakers at different proficiency levels (beginner, intermediate, and advanced) use metadiscourse markers during the IELTS speaking test. Using a mixed-method concurrent transformative design, the research analyzed 36 YouTube videos of test-takers' performances. Results showed that higher proficiency levels correlated with increased frequency and variety of metadiscourse markers, with advanced speakers using a broader range. Additionally, IMMs were more commonly employed than interactive ones across all levels. Ma and Jiang (2025) investigated how visual metadiscourse in PowerPoint slides enhanced audience engagement during Three Minute Thesis presentations. By analyzing multimodal elements, the research highlighted how presenters used visuals to guide understanding and foster interaction. The findings revealed that effective visual strategies, such as clear structure and complementary imagery, play a crucial role in turning passive listeners into active participants, emphasizing the importance of visual design in academic communication. Liu and Cheng (2025) examined the use of IMMs in Chinese live streaming commerce, focusing on how sellers engage and persuade their audience. The results highlighted linguistic strategies like *self-mentions*, *directives*, and *attitude markers* that foster a sense of connection and trust. The findings emphasized the cultural and pragmatic aspects of communication in live streaming, offering insights into effective discourse strategies in e-commerce.

Despite the extensive exploration of metadiscourse, it remains a complex concept without a definitive framework. The research brings to light the importance of metadiscourse markers in academic communication, assisting readers in structuring, analyzing and evaluating the provided information.

The current body of research extensively covers the function of AI chatbots in developing language learning and their impact on EFL learners. However, there is a noticeable gap in the exploration of how individual learner differences, such as extroverted and introverted EFL learners, influence the efficiency of AI chatbots in developing advanced EFL learners' metadiscourse realization in argumentative writing. While studies have demonstrated the positive aspects of AI chatbots in providing personalized feedback and facilitating interactive learning, they often overlook the nuanced ways in which individual learner characteristics can affect the uptake and utilization of metadiscourse markers. Addressing this gap is crucial for developing more tailored and effective AI-driven language learning interventions that serve the wide-ranging demands of advanced EFL learners, thereby enhancing their argumentative writing skills.

Method

Participants

Convenience sampling, as outlined by Dörnyei and Dewaele (2022), was used to initially select a group of 178 Iranian EFL learners aged between 34 and 39 for this study. These participants were chosen from the University of Mohaghegh Ardabili and Islamic Azad university, Ardabil branch, which are renowned for their advanced EFL programs. To assess their English proficiency, the researchers administered the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP). Based on the findings, the participant count was decreased to 152, all advanced Master of Arts (MA) students, with a mix of males and females. At the end of the treatment period, two participants who had missed more than two sessions were also excluded from the subsequent statistical analysis. Therefore, the final number of the participants was reduced to 150 learners, 30 in each group. Most of these students had Turkish as their first language. Due to the universities' policy against separating learners into different groups, the participants attended the English language institute at the Academic Center for Education, Culture and Research (ACECR), Ardabil Branch, and were divided into four experimental groups and one control group.

In alignment with ethical research practices, participants were fully informed about the purpose, procedures, and implications of the study before their involvement. Consent was obtained from all participants prior to their contribution through signing a form, ensuring that their participation was voluntary and based on an understanding of their rights and the study's objectives.

Instruments

Data were collected using the specified instruments, with additional information about these assessments provided.

MTELP

The MTELP is divided into three multiple-choice sections: 40 conversational grammar questions, 40 vocabulary questions (covering sentence completion or synonyms), and 20 reading comprehension questions. The test takes 100 minutes to complete, and learners who score above 70% are deemed advanced language learners (Phakiti, 2003). Research by Johnson and Lim (2009) has verified the test's reliability and validity. In this study, the KR-21 formula was utilized to assess reliability, producing a reliability value of 0.74.

Eysenck's Personality Inventory (EPI)

The EPI aims to evaluate learners' personality traits, specifically focusing on introversion and extroversion. This instrument includes 57 yes / no questions. Scoring is straightforward: More "Yes" responses indicate greater extroversion, while more "No" responses suggest higher introversion (Agarwal & Misra, 2025). The reliability of the personality inventory, measured by Cronbach's Alpha, is reported to be 0.79. Additionally, two experts in personality psychology have verified the content and face validity of the EPI.

Microsoft Copilot and Gemini AI

Microsoft Copilot, based on ChatGPT, enhances productivity and creativity by providing contextually appropriate assistance through an intuitive chat interface (Rahman, 2024). It processes user inputs with natural language processing to offer relevant responses and explanations for IMMIs (Minnick, 2025). Gemini AI, developed by Google, handles multiple input modes like text, audio, and video, offering creative and productive assistance through context-aware support and interactive feedback (ELSenbawy et al., 2025). Its versatility allows it to integrate and process different content types, beneficial for various applications from education to professional use.

Likert Scale Questionnaire on AI-powered Chatbots Preferences

The researcher-designed questionnaire consisted of 15 items (initially 22, but reduced to 15 after identifying problematic items). These were administered to all participants in the four experimental groups following the posttest to gauge their opinions on the treatment. The questionnaire aimed to gather participants' views on the instructions provided by Microsoft Copilot and Gemini. Due to its researcher-made nature, the items required piloting. During this phase, five items were modified as learners found them unclear. This phase involved 11 participants who were representative of the study's target population. An expert review was conducted to ensure the content validity of the questionnaire. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was found to be 0.72. To establish construct validity, an exploratory factor analysis was performed (see Table 2). The researchers carried out an Oblimin rotation analysis on the responses from the four experimental groups, comprising 120 participants. With a value of 0.52, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure indicated sufficient sampling adequacy, while Bartlett's test demonstrated significance ($p = 0.00, < 0.05$).

Table 2*Exploratory Factor Analysis for AI-powered Chabot's Questionnaire*

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.52
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	631.34
	df	10
	Sig.	.00

Table 3 shows that six components satisfied Kaiser's criterion with eigenvalues of one or greater. Collectively, these components accounted for 73.06% of the variance.

Table 3*Factor Extraction Total Variance Explained*

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a	
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	3.22	21.52	21.52	3.22	21.52	21.52	2.474
2	2.17	14.51	36.04	2.17	14.51	36.04	1.988
3	1.66	11.07	47.12	1.66	11.07	47.12	2.162
4	1.45	9.71	56.83	1.45	9.71	56.83	1.672
5	1.36	9.06	65.90	1.36	9.06	65.90	2.146
6	1.07	7.16	73.06	1.07	7.16	73.06	1.285
7	.88	5.88	78.95				
8	.78	5.22	84.17				
9	.62	4.19	88.37				
10	.55	3.69	92.06				
11	.32	2.16	94.23				
12	.29	1.93	96.17				
13	.24	1.60	97.77				
14	.17	1.18	98.96				
15	.15	1.03	100.00				

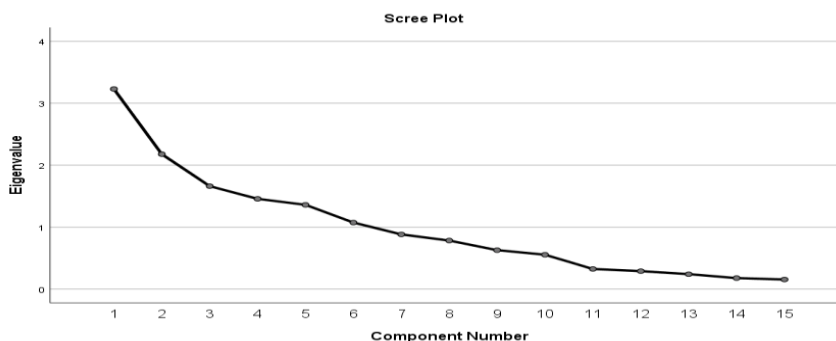
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. When components are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

The scree plot (Figure 1) indicated the exclusion of two components from the analysis output.

Figure 1

The Distribution of the Extracted Factors



The two extracted factors accounted for 36.04% of the total variance. Considering this contribution to be low, we aimed to optimize the effectiveness and quality of the questionnaire by removing specific items. Through an examination of the component matrix, we pinpointed factors contributing to variations in each component. After reviewing items with cross-loadings, we excluded seven items from the set.

Interview

Qualitative semi-structured interviews were utilized to investigate the perceptions of advanced extroverted and introverted EFL learners regarding the influence of Gemini AI and Microsoft Copilot AI chatbots on their use of IMM in expository writing. Five participants were chosen from each of the four experimental groups: extrovert Gemini AI, introvert Gemini AI, extrovert Microsoft Copilot, and introvert Microsoft Copilot. The interviews, consisting of five open-ended questions, sought in-depth insights into participants' experiences with the chatbots, including their perceived benefits, comparative effectiveness, personality-based interactions, satisfaction with feedback, and suggestions for improvement. The collected interview data were transcribed and subjected to a systematic coding process, assessing coherence, redundancy, and segment labeling.

Procedure

Upon completing the MTELP, we identified 150 advanced learners as the main participants for the research. These participants were then divided into five groups: an extroverted Gemini group, an introverted Gemini group, an extroverted Microsoft copilot group, an introverted Microsoft copilot group, and a control group, each consisting of 30 participants. Before commencing the main study, a pretest was conducted to assess their writing performance and evaluate their expository writing skills. They were assigned to write on two topics including *The Impact of Social Media on Mental Health* and *The Benefits of Renewable Energy Sources*, generating

at least two paragraphs (each containing 250 words) per topic to evaluate their understanding and utilization of IMMs. The pretest results showed that participants struggled with the correct use and realization of IMMs. Subsequently, participants in four experimental groups underwent eight treatment sessions, each lasting 70 minutes, twice a week. During the initial session, the researchers expanded IMMs by concentrating on the example sentences provided below.

Sentence 1: I *firmly believe* that our team can achieve the project goals on time, and I am *confident* in my ability to lead us to success. (Boosters)

Sentence 2: I *think* it *might be somewhat* beneficial to integrate more hands-on activities into our curriculum. (Hedges)

Following expository types of paragraphs, the researchers selected 16 instructional manuals (*iPhone User Guide*, *Samsung Galaxy User Manual*, *Sony Bravia TV Instruction Manual*, *Toyota Camry Owner's Manual*, *Microsoft Office User Guide*, *Adobe Photoshop Manual*, *LG Washing Machine User Manual*, *Bosch Dishwasher Instruction Manual*, *IKEA Furniture Assembly Guide*, *Canon EOS DSLR Camera Manual*, *Fitbit Fitness Tracker User Guide*, *Peloton Bike Instruction Manual*, *Amazon Echo User Manual*, *Nest Thermostat Installation Guide*, *Dyson Vacuum Cleaner Instruction Manual*, and *Nikon Digital Camera User Manual*). In every treatment session, learners studied two instructional manuals to learn how to identify IMMs. The Gemini groups and the Microsoft Copilot groups approached learning IMMs in their expository writing through differentiated methods tailored to their tools' capabilities. Since Gemini benefits from multimodal capabilities, Gemini group can significantly enhance metadiscourse learning by providing diverse and engaging content delivery methods. In treatment sessions, Gemini used audio and video to describe complicated metadiscourse concepts, simplifying their comprehension. Gemini AI analyzed spoken and written discourse, providing detailed feedback and examples. Learners interacted with IMMs through audio explanations, video demonstrations, and interactive text analysis exercises. Peer review sessions facilitated constructive feedback exchange. In contrast, Microsoft Copilot groups received an overview of IMMs with structured information and examples from Copilot. They participated in guided writing exercises with step-by-step instructions and real-time feedback. Practice sessions involved writing prompts focused on IMMs, followed by detailed feedback from Copilot. The two scenarios of the AI chatbots provided to the groups were as follows:

Gemini Scenario: Learning Engagement Markers

Text, Audio, and Video Content:

Introduction:

Written explanation of engagement markers, making writing interactive. Examples include “you see”, “consider”, “note that”.

Audio Explanation:

Audio clip explaining engagement markers' importance and use. Example: “You can use phrases like ‘you see’ to engage your audience.”

Video Demonstration:

Video showing a speaker using engagement markers, with visual annotations highlighting each marker. Example: “Consider this”.

Interactive Practice:

Text Analysis:

Learners used Gemini AI to add engagement markers to a text and received feedback. Example: “note that”, “let's consider”.

Role-Playing:

Students wrote paragraphs and received real-time feedback from Gemini AI on engagement markers. Example: “as you can see”.

Feedback and Assessment:

Written Feedback:

Detailed feedback from Gemini AI on the use of engagement markers. Example: “Try adding 'you can see that' to engage readers.”

Quiz:

Gemini AI generated a quiz for identifying and adding engagement markers to sentences.

Microsoft Copilot Scenario

Using Microsoft Copilot, the teacher created a lesson plan and Copilot helped students generate text-based explanations of engagement markers like “consider this” and “note that.” During the lesson, students wrote paragraphs on their laptops, receiving real-time feedback from Copilot within Word, which suggested engagement markers and highlighted their effective use. After class, students reviewed their work with detailed comments and alternative phrasing from Copilot, enhancing their understanding and application of engagement markers. The control group learned about IMMs through traditional methods and textbook reading. During the posttest, all participants wrote two paragraphs for each topic, similar to the pretest. The correlation coefficient indicated inter-rater reliability values for the pretest and the posttest were 0.81 and 0.76, respectively. The researchers administered a questionnaire to gather participants' feedback. The assessment of writing performance was subjective, given the existence of multiple valid methods for crafting each expository paragraph. An inter-rater scoring method was employed, with two raters focusing on learners' accurate use of IMMs to ensure consistency and minimize subjectivity.

To gain deeper insights into the participants' perceptions, five participants were purposively selected (Bui, 2024) from each experimental group (extrovert Gemini AI, introvert Gemini AI, extrovert Microsoft Copilot, introvert Microsoft Copilot) for the interview phase. The selection was based on their willingness to participate and their overall performance in the main study tasks, ensuring a diverse and representative sample within each group. This purposive sampling strategy aimed to capture a range of experiences and perspectives that aligned with the study's objectives.

Data Analysis

The answers to the research questions which are about the effects of Microsoft copilot and Gemini AI chatbots on advanced EFL extroverted and introverted learners' utilization of IMMs in expository writing were analyzed using an ANCOVA. An ANCOVA procedure was conducted on the posttest scores of both groups to assess the impact of the two separate educational technique. Subsequently, the responses from the survey questionnaire regarding extroverted

and introverted advanced EFL learners' perceptions of Gemini and Microsoft Copilot AI chatbots were analyzed using frequency values. The interview data underwent a systematic coding process to assess coherence, eliminate redundancy, and assign appropriate segment labels. Utilizing Creswell's (2012) inductive approach, the researchers distilled the information into a set of key themes or categories to gain a deeper understanding of the learners' perceptions. These themes were then carefully reviewed and refined, with only the relevant ones retained and the irrelevant ones excluded. The coding process involved several iterative steps. Initially, open coding was used to generate a wide range of potential themes from the data. These preliminary themes were then reviewed, refined, and grouped into broader categories, ensuring that they captured the essence of the participants' responses. The final set of themes was carefully integrated into the study's findings, providing a nuanced understanding of how learners perceived the role of Gemini AI and Microsoft Copilot in enhancing their use of IMMs in expository writing.

Results

Investigating the First Research Question

The first research inquiry investigated how two different AI chatbots influenced advanced EFL learners' understanding and use of IMMs across personality traits. Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics related to learners' utilization of IMMs across the five groups. It demonstrates that, in the pretest, all groups had nearly identical average scores for metadiscoursal use. Nevertheless, the posttest results demonstrated a notable increase in average scores for the Gemini introverted advanced learners, Microsoft Copilot extroverted advanced learners, and Microsoft Copilot introverted advanced learners compared to their pretest scores.

Table 4

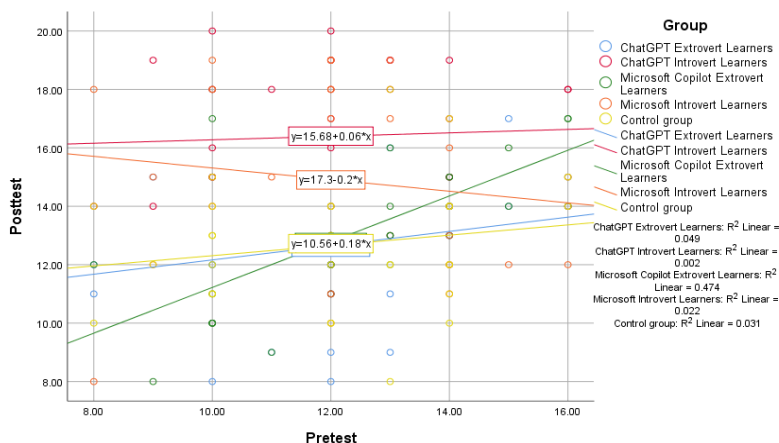
Descriptive Statistics of IMMs on Pretest and Posttest

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest (Gemini Extroverted Learners)	30	12.20	2.28
Posttest (Gemini Extroverted Learners)	30	12.70	2.52
Pretest (Gemini Introverted Learners)	30	12.10	1.98
Posttest (Gemini Introverted Learners)	30	16.40	2.58
Pretest (Microsoft Copilot Extroverted Learners)	30	12.06	2.27
Posttest (Microsoft Copilot Extroverted Learners)	30	14.90	3.05
Pretest (Microsoft Copilot Introverted Learners)	30	12.12	2.26
Posttest (Microsoft Copilot Introverted Learners)	30	14.87	3.15
Pretest (Control)	30	12.03	2.14
Posttest (Control)	30	12.83	2.33

Before conducting a one-way ANCOVA, all required assumptions were verified. A single covariate was included in each analysis, making the assumption of covariate correlation unnecessary. Cronbach's Alpha was conducted to assess the reliability of the covariates, yielding a reliable measurement with a coefficient of $r = 0.84$. Figure 2 demonstrates that the linear relationship upholds the linearity assumption.

Figure 2

Scatter Plots of IMMs and the Covariate for Each Group



The pretest and group did not exhibit a significant interaction, as $F_{(1,149)} = 2.96$ and $p > 0.05$. This corroborates the assumption of homogeneous regression slopes, as indicated in Table 5.

Table 5

Tests of Between-subjects Effects for Realization of IMMs to Check Homogeneity of Regression Slopes

Dependent Variable: Posttest					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	427.30 ^a	9	47.47	7.78	.00
Intercept	570.35	1	570.35	93.57	.00
Group	106.74	4	26.68	4.37	.00
Pretest	30.56	1	30.56	5.01	.02
Group * Pretest	72.30	4	18.07	2.96	.17
Error	853.37	140	6.09		
Total	30485.00	150			
Corrected Total	1280.67	149			

a. R Squared = .334 (Adjusted R Squared = .291)

Following the verification of assumptions, a one-way ANCOVA was conducted to investigate the impact of two different AI chatbots on extroverted advanced EFL learners' understanding and use of IMMs. Two levels of AI chatbots implementation served as the independent variable, with the utilization of IMMs in writing being the dependent variable. The participants' pretest scores functioned as a covariate. The one-way ANCOVA results are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6

Tests of Between-subjects Effects for Realization of IMMs in Expository Writing

Dependent Variable: Posttest						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	354.99 ^a	5	70.99	11.04	.00	.27
Intercept	583.88	1	583.88	90.83	.00	.38
Pretest	29.88	1	29.88	4.65	.03	.03
Group	329.16	4	82.29	12.80	.00	.26
Error	925.67	144	6.42			
Total	30485.00	150				
Corrected Total	1280.67	149				

a. R Squared = .277 (Adjusted R Squared = .252)

The main insights from the one-way ANCOVA, $F_{(4,149)} = 12.80$, $p < 0.05$, as shown in Table 6, reveal significant differences across the five groups in their utilization of IMMs on the posttest, after controlling for the pretest scores. This suggests that AI chatbots affect extroverted learners' use of IMMs differently. Furthermore, the strength of the relationship illustrates that 26% of the variance in realization of IMMs is caused by AI chatbots.

Statistically significant differences were observed between *Gemini extroverted learners* and *Gemini introverted learners*; *Gemini extroverted learners* and *Microsoft Copilot introverted learners*; *Gemini introverted learners* and *Microsoft Copilot introverted learners* (see Table 7).

Table 7*Test of Between-groups Differences for Realization IMMs in Expository Writing*

Dependent Variable: Posttest						
(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Gemini Extroverted Learners	Gemini Introverted Learners	-3.72*	.65	.00	-5.58	-1.85
	Microsoft Copilot Extroverted Learners	-.35	.65	1.00	-2.22	1.50
	Microsoft Copilot Introverted Learners	-2.22*	.65	.00	-4.09	-.36
	Control group	-.00	.65	1.00	-1.86	1.86
Gemini Introverted Learners	Gemini Extroverted Learners	3.72*	.65	.00	1.85	5.58
	Microsoft Copilot Extroverted Learners	3.36*	.65	.00	1.49	5.23
	Microsoft Copilot Introverted Learners	1.49	.65	.24	-.37	3.35
	Control group	3.71*	.65	.00	1.85	5.58
Microsoft Copilot Extroverted Learners	Gemini Extroverted Learners	.35	.65	1.00	-1.50	2.22
	Gemini Introverted Learners	-3.36*	.65	.00	-5.23	-1.49
	Microsoft Copilot Introverted Learners	-1.87*	.65	.06	-3.73	-.00
	Control group	.35	.65	1.00	-1.51	2.22
Microsoft Copilot Introverted Learners	Gemini Extroverted Learners	2.22*	.65	.00	.36	4.09
	Gemini Introverted Learners	-1.49	.65	.24	-3.35	.37
	Microsoft Copilot Extroverted Learners	1.87*	.65	.06	.00	3.73
	Control group	2.22*	.65	.00	.36	4.09
Control group	Gemini Extroverted Learners	.00	.65	1.00	-1.86	1.86
	Gemini Introverted Learners	-3.71*	.65	.00	-5.58	-1.85
	Microsoft Copilot Extroverted Learners	-.35	.65	1.00	-2.22	1.51
	Microsoft Copilot Introverted Learners	-2.22*	.65	.00	-4.09	-.36

Based on estimated marginal mean

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni

As presented in Table 7, the analysis revealed that with respect to the utilization of IMMs Gemini introverted advanced learners realized IMMs in expository paragraphs better than the other four groups. Both the Gemini extroverted group and the control group fell short of the performance levels achieved by the other groups. Additionally, in the posttest, there was an improvement in both

Microsoft Copilot introverted learners and Microsoft Copilot extroverted learners regarding the realization of IMMs in expository writing.

Investigating the Second Research Question

The second research question explored the perceptions of advanced extroverted and introverted EFL learners on the impact of Gemini and Microsoft Copilot AI chatbots on their use of IMMs in expository writing. Five participants among each experimental group were required to address the following five semi-structured interview questions:

1. How did Gemini AI and Microsoft Copilot help you improve your use of IMMs in expository writing?
2. Which chatbot (Gemini AI or Microsoft Copilot) was more effective for IMMs and why?
3. How did your personality (extrovert/introvert) influence your interaction with each AI and their interactive features?
4. How satisfied are you with the feedback and support from Gemini AI and Microsoft Copilot?
5. What improvements would you suggest for each AI chatbot to better assist with IMMs?

After obtaining the data transcriptions, the researchers divided them into four groups: extrovert Gemini AI, introvert Gemini AI, extrovert Microsoft Copilot, and introvert Microsoft Copilot text data. The data were then coded for coherence, redundancy, and segment labeling. Following Creswell's (2012) inductive process, the data were narrowed down to a few key themes/categories to deeply understand the writers' perceptions. After generating these themes, the researchers reviewed and refined them, keeping the relevant ones and discarding the irrelevant ones. A sample coding from, introvert Gemini AI, extrovert Microsoft Copilot, and introvert Microsoft Copilot interview transcripts is presented in Table 8.

Table 8

A Sample of Introvert/Extrovert Gemini and Microsoft Copilot Interviews

Codes	Introvert Gemini AI (text data)	Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enjoyment • Helpful feedback • Improvement in IMMs • Personalized feedback • Confidence • Clearer writing 	<p>I enjoyed using Gemini AI; the immediate, helpful feedback showed me how to improve my use of IMMs, like using phrases such as “you see”. As an introvert, I appreciated working at my own pace without the pressure of a live audience. The personalized feedback suggested alternative phrasings, boosting my confidence and helping me understand IMMs better with clear examples and explanations.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive experience • Enhanced writing skills • Personalized and immediate feedback • Introverted learning preference

Codes	Extrovert Gemini AI (text data)	Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of benefit • automated Feedback • Generic suggestions • Lack of Engagement • Need for dynamic interaction • Preference for human interaction 	<p>I didn't find Gemini AI very beneficial. As an extrovert, I thrive on real-time, dynamic interactions, which the AI lacked. The feedback felt too automated and generic, failing to help me understand how to use IMMs effectively. I missed the interactive discussions and brainstorming sessions.</p> <p>The main challenge was the lack of personalized feedback. Suggestions for using IMMs were often vague or repetitive. I didn't feel like I was learning new techniques</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Limited Benefit • Engagement Issues • Feedback Quality
Codes	Introvert Microsoft Copilot (text data)	Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Somewhat Beneficial • Useful feedback • Need for more detail • Independence • Reflective learning • Repetitive suggestions • Room for improvement 	<p>Working with Microsoft Copilot was somewhat beneficial. The AI provided useful feedback on incorporating IMMs, like suggesting phrases such as "consider this". While helpful, the feedback could have been more detailed and tailored to my writing style. As an introvert, I appreciated working independently and reflecting on feedback at my own pace.</p> <p>The automated suggestions for using IMMs were useful but sometimes repetitive. Instant feedback was great; yet more personalized guidance would have been beneficial.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate benefit • Feedback quality • learning Preferences
Codes	Extrovert Microsoft Copilot (text data)	Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Somewhat beneficial • Practical feedback • Lack of engagement • Repetitive suggestions • Instant feedback • Generic feedback 	<p>Using Microsoft Copilot was somewhat helpful, providing practical feedback on IMMs. However, as an extrovert, I missed the dynamic interaction. The AI's suggestions, while useful, felt repetitive and didn't fully engage me. Overall, it was a decent experience but didn't meet my engagement expectations.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Moderate benefit • Engagement issues • Feedback quality

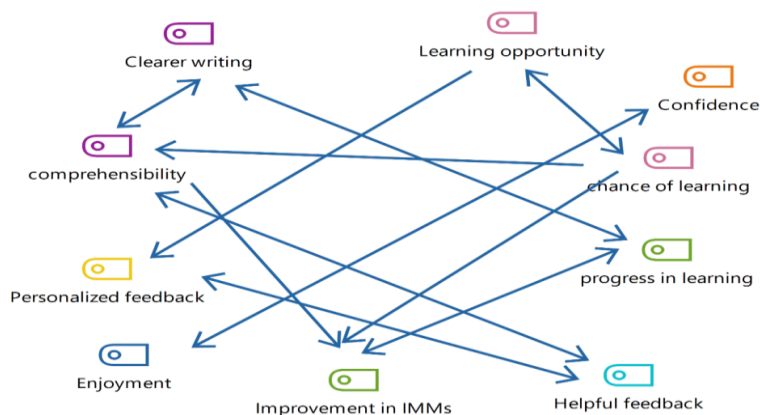
MAXQDA version 2022, an effective tool for qualitative research data, was utilized. After analyzing and summarizing the responses, codes and themes were developed.

In interviews with introverted participants using Gemini AI, they reported high enjoyment and appreciated the personalized feedback, which boosted their use

of IMMs and made their writing clearer. The AI also boosted their confidence in incorporating IMMs into expository writing. Overall, Gemini AI proved to be a valuable educational tool, enhancing both writing skills and the learning experience for introverted learners (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

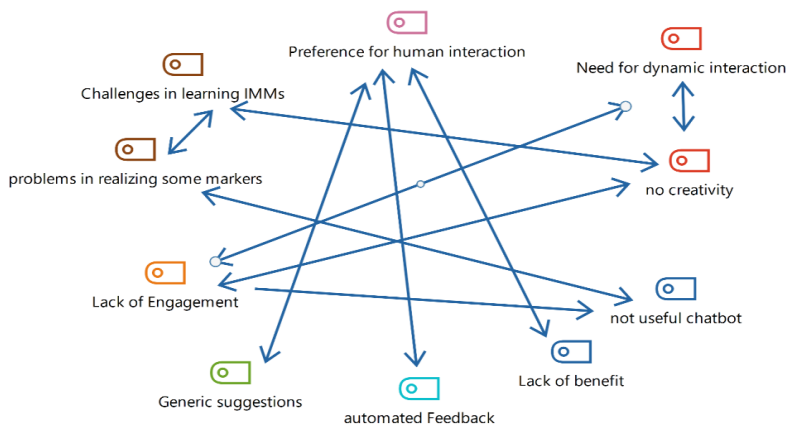
Themes and Codes from Introverted Participants Using Gemini AI through an Interview



In interviews with extroverted participants using Gemini AI, they generally found the tool lacking in benefit due to its automated feedback and generic suggestions. The AI's responses did not fulfill their need for dynamic interaction and engagement, crucial for their learning style. Many participants preferred human interaction, feeling the AI's feedback was impersonal and insufficient, making it challenging for them to learn IMMs effectively (see Figure 4).

Figure 4

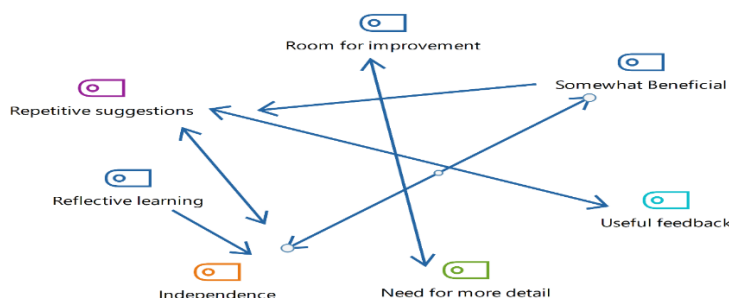
Themes and Codes from Extroverted Participants Using Gemini AI through an Interview



In our interviews with introverted participants using Microsoft Copilot, it was found that the tool was somewhat beneficial in enhancing their writing. Participants appreciated the AI's feedback, which enabled independent improvement and reflective learning. However, they agreed that more detailed and personalized feedback could better cater to their individual writing styles, as the suggestions often felt repetitive. Overall, while Microsoft Copilot supported introverted learners to some extent, increasing the detail and personalization of its feedback could make it a more effective tool (see Figure 5).

Figure 5

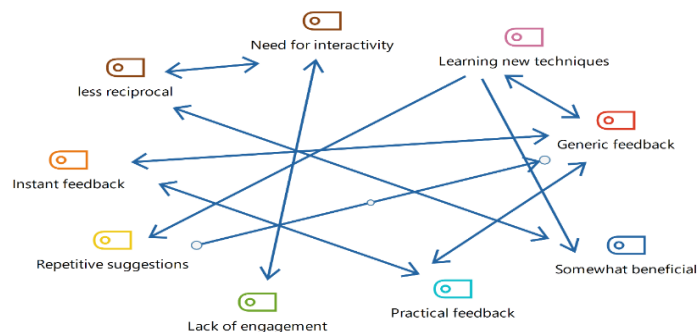
Themes and Codes from Introverted Participants Using Microsoft Copilot through an Interview



In our interviews with extroverted participants using Microsoft Copilot, the feedback indicated that while the tool was somewhat beneficial, providing practical feedback and allowing learners to pick up new techniques, it did not fully meet their needs. The participants appreciated the instant feedback, which helped them make immediate adjustments, but found the suggestions to be repetitive and generic. A significant lack of engagement was noted, with learners expressing a need for more interactivity to sustain their interest and enhance their learning experience. Overall, the extroverted learners felt that while Microsoft Copilot had some advantages, it could be improved by incorporating more dynamic and personalized interactions to better suit their learning preferences (see Figure 6).

Figure 6

Themes and Codes from Extroverted Participants Using Microsoft Copilot through an Interview



Discussion

The present study aimed to evaluate the effectiveness of AI-powered chatbots, Gemini and Microsoft Copilot, in facilitating advanced extroverted and introverted EFL learners' use of IMMs in expository writing. Statistical analysis revealed significant differences between extroverted and introverted advanced learner groups. Notably, Gemini introverted learners demonstrated superior ability in realizing IMMs in expository paragraphs compared to the other groups. These findings can be interpreted through several recent theories in language learning. According to the goal setting theory (Travers, 2022), learners' motivation and success are influenced by the goals they set for themselves. Introverted learners may have set more achievable and specific goals, which were effectively supported by the structured feedback from Gemini AI. On the other hand, extroverted learners, who thrive on social interaction and dynamic engagement, may have found AI feedback less motivating due to the lack of real-time interaction.

Eysenck's theory of personality posits that introverts have higher cortical arousal levels, which predispose them to deeper, more reflective thinking (Ryckman, 2020). This reflective nature allows introverts to engage more thoroughly with content and structure their writing more effectively. The Gemini AI platform, with its advanced adaptive learning algorithms, provides a conducive environment for introverts to leverage their reflective and detailed-oriented cognitive styles (Basu, 2025). This combination enables introverts to better employ IMMs, such as self-mentions and boosters, thereby enhancing their credibility and confidence in writing. In contrast, extroverts, characterized by a preference for external stimulation and social interaction, may find the detailed and introspective task of metadiscourse realization less intuitive. Extroverts often engage in more spontaneous and broad communication styles, which might limit their effectiveness in using hedges and attitude markers. The Gemini AI platform, while offering robust communicative tools, may not fully mitigate these inherent extrovert tendencies, leading to their comparatively lower performance in metadiscourse realization (Soni, 2024). Bandura's social cognitive theory emphasizes the role of observational learning, self-regulation, and self-efficacy in skill development. Gemini AI leverages these principles by providing personalized feedback and adaptive learning pathways tailored to individual learners' needs (Hagger, et al., 2020). Introverted advanced learners, who prefer structured and meaningful interactions, may benefit more from this personalized approach, as it aligns with their natural learning preferences (Nave & Carducci, 2021). The AI's ability to provide immediate, targeted feedback helps introverts refine their metadiscourse use and internalize effective writing strategies.

The findings that both introverted and extroverted advanced learners using Microsoft Copilot made similar progress in metadiscourse realization in expository writing is intriguing, especially when considering the varied ways these personality types typically process information (Du & Daniel, 2024; Fields, 2024). Microsoft Copilot AI's adaptive nature can meet diverse learning styles (Minnick, 2025; Stratton, 2024). Microsoft Copilot might be effectively balancing different teaching tactics that appeal to both introverted and extroverted preferences, hence leveling the playing field. Microsoft Copilot's deep integration with Microsoft tools allows it to provide more contextually relevant suggestions based on user data from various

applications, whereas Gemini might not achieve the same level of contextual accuracy (Kristina, 2025). Copilot tends to excel in generating factually accurate content, which is crucial for expository writing, whereas Gemini's outputs might require more careful verification (Tafazoli, 2024). Copilot's advanced collaboration features facilitate better team communication and project tracking, which can benefit both introverted and extroverted learners working on group projects (Gibson & Ifenthaler, 2024). Copilot continuously offers tips to enhance writing quality, helping all learners, regardless of their personality type, develop their expository writing skills (Moorhouse & Kohnke, 2024). This study's findings are reinforced by those of Esfandiari and Allaf-Akbary (2024b), claiming that learners who used Copilot in a hands-on data-driven learning approach performed better in identifying and applying IMMs compared to those who used written texts.

The study also found that participants had positive perceptions of Copilot-supported learning methods, highlighting its potential in enhancing writing performance. Barrot (2023) views Microsoft Copilot AI as a trustworthy writing assistant, offering instant feedback to users throughout various phases of their writing journey. Microsoft Copilot, as an AI-powered tool, may be seamlessly incorporated into language learning situations, helping learners improve their overall language skills and address specific sub-skills crucial for language proficiency (Panini, 2024).

The interview findings provided valuable insights into the participants' perceptions regarding the impact of Gemini AI and Microsoft Copilot chatbots on their use of IMMs in expository writing. Extroverted learners highlighted the interactive features of both chatbots as particularly useful in enhancing their ability to use IMMs effectively, citing real-time suggestions and adaptive feedback as key contributors to their improvement. Introverted learners, on the other hand, appreciated the individualized feedback and structured guidance provided by the chatbots, noting how these features helped them overcome challenges in maintaining coherence and engaging with their audience in writing. When comparing the two chatbots, the participants generally viewed Microsoft Copilot as more effective in providing detailed feedback on the use of IMMs, while Gemini AI was praised for its user-friendly interface and ability to foster creativity in their writing. Moreover, participants emphasized how their personality traits influenced their interaction with the chatbots; extroverted learners tended to prefer more interactive and dynamic features, whereas introverted learners valued clear instructions and targeted support. These findings underscore the importance of tailoring AI-driven educational tools to address the diverse needs and preferences of learners.

Gemini AI is particularly well suited for introverted learners as it provides a user-friendly and intuitive interface that enables solitary brainstorming, creative writing, and idea generation (Ding & Zou, 2024). Gemini's capabilities help introverts engage deeply with content independently, offering varied perspectives and creative suggestions that enrich their learning experience (Su & Yang, 2023). On the other hand, Microsoft Copilot excels in supporting both learners with different personality types due to its seamless integration within Microsoft 365 applications and its robust collaboration tools (Yim & Su, 2024). While introverts benefit from its personalized and contextually relevant feedback that enhances solo

study, extroverts thrive using Copilot's advanced collaboration features, which facilitate team projects and clear communication. This versatility allows Copilot to address the distinct learning styles and preferences of both personality types, making it a more universally effective tool in educational environments (Pentina et al., 2023).

Conclusion

The current research suggests that Microsoft Copilot can significantly aid both extroverted and introverted advanced learners in enhancing their understanding of IMM in EFL contexts. The findings showed that both groups of Copilot users performed well in the posttest because of factors including but not limited to the novelty effect. However, Gemini AI proved effective only for introverted learners in mastering IMM in expository writing.

Among the limitations of this research is the small number of participants, lack of delayed posttest to assess retained learning of IMM, and a focus solely on IMM instead of interactive metadiscourse. All participants were advanced language learners, and the research relied on semi-structured interviews to gather data on their attitudes toward the AI chatbots. Alternative methods like think-aloud protocols and questionnaires could be explored to capture learners' attitudes more comprehensively. Further research should investigate the particular mechanisms behind AI's effectiveness, the various AI tools employed, and their impact on metadiscourse use in multiple language skills.

Though the study has certain limitations, it shows that AI-powered language learning tools can greatly enhance EFL learners' language acquisition. These tools offer a more engaging experience, increasing incentive and enthusiasm for future exploration. AI platforms, such as Microsoft Copilot, enable learners to follow mastering the language at their own tempo and from anywhere, promoting independence and autonomy. The research highlights the positive effect of AI-powered resources in EFL classrooms, stressing their role in providing customized and flexible learning opportunities. Learners experience increased confidence in language use due to prompt feedback, helpful critiques, and diverse sentence formations.

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Critical Pedagogy in Iraqi Kurdistan: EFL Teachers' Awareness and the Role of Context and Individual Differences

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Abstract

Critical Pedagogy (CP) has gained increasing recognition as an educational approach that fosters critical thinking, social awareness, and transformative learning. However, its integration into English language teaching (ELT) in the Iraqi Kurdistan context remains underexplored, where traditional pedagogical methods dominate. This study examines the awareness of CP among EFL teachers in Iraqi Kurdistan, investigating whether academic degree, teaching setting, and gender influence CP awareness levels. Using a cross-sectional survey design, data were collected from 397 EFL teachers employed in high schools, secondary schools, and universities across the region. A newly developed Critical Pedagogy Questionnaire (CPQ) was administered, and the responses were analyzed using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). The results revealed significant differences in CP awareness across academic degrees and teaching settings, with BA holders and high school teachers exhibiting the highest awareness levels. Gender-based differences were also observed, with female teachers displaying greater awareness in co-construction of knowledge and adapted content, while male teachers showed higher awareness in agency and praxis. These findings underscore the need for practice-based teacher training programs and institutional support to facilitate CP's practical implementation in ELT.

Keywords: critical pedagogy, EFL teachers' awareness, educational context

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Introduction

There has been a substantial reorientation in educational philosophy, with a focus on humanistic principles that promote critical thinking, social awareness, and revolutionary change replacing more conventional paradigms (Au, 2017). A key educational framework and social movement within this dynamic field, CP draws on critical theory to question long-established cultural and educational power systems (Aksikas et al., 2019). CP sees education as a tool for emancipation and calls on both students and teachers to think critically, assess situations, and act when they see injustice (McLaren, 2023).

The foundations of CP are deeply rooted in postcolonial discourse, which critiques the hegemony of Western-centric narratives perpetuated through education (Said, 1978; Spivak, 1988). Scholars, like Freire (1970/1993), Giroux (1983), and McLaren (1995), have significantly shaped the field, proposing methods that challenge the *banking model* of education, based on which the learners are passive recipients of knowledge. Instead, CP promotes dialogic, participatory learning environments that enable learners to critically engage with socio-political realities. Freire's method of combining literacy education with the analysis of societal structures exemplifies this approach, advocating for a transformative practice that connects individual growth with collective social change.

Despite its widespread adoption globally, the practical application of CP often encounters significant challenges, particularly in contexts with unique socio-political dynamics, such as Iraqi Kurdistan. Shaped by its historical struggles and sociocultural complexities, the region's educational landscape offers fertile yet underexplored opportunities for implementing CP principles. Educational practices in Iraqi Kurdistan frequently reflect centralized, traditional models that emphasize rote learning over critical engagement, leaving limited room to explore the socio-political dimensions of education (Sofi-Karim, 2015). Within the realm of English language teaching (ELT), CP holds the potential to transcend its theoretical foundations by transforming language education into a process that fosters critical literacy and societal awareness (Pennycook, 2001). Norton and Toohey (2004) have underscored the transformative role of language in shaping identity and social consciousness. However, the practical integration of CP into ELT in Iraqi Kurdistan remains insufficiently examined, with a limited understanding of how socio-political issues intersect with and influence pedagogical practices in this unique environment.

This study aimed to address these gaps by examining the awareness of CP among EFL teachers in Iraqi Kurdistan. By investigating the educational and contextual dimensions of CP's applicability, this research sought to contribute valuable insights into the status of CP from the teachers' perspectives with respect to this region's educational system.

Literature Review

Theoretical Underpinnings of Critical Pedagogy

CP, as introduced by Freire (1970/1993) in his seminal work *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, is rooted in the belief that education is a political act with the potential to challenge oppression and foster social justice. Freire rejected the

traditional banking model of education, where knowledge is deposited into passive learners, and instead emphasized dialogue, collaboration, and critical reflection as tools for transforming oppressive systems. Central to this philosophy is the concept of *conscientization*, or critical consciousness, which encourages learners to recognize and challenge social, political, and economic inequities within their lived experiences.

Over time, Freirean pedagogy has evolved through integration with other frameworks, such as decolonial, feminist, and intersectional theories (Darder, 2017). Giroux (2021), McLaren and Jandric (2020), and Hooks (2003) have expanded its scope by addressing limitations in its Eurocentric foundations and incorporating indigenous and localized perspectives have expanded its scope by addressing limitations in its Eurocentric foundations and incorporating indigenous and localized perspectives. For example, decolonial approaches to CP emphasize the importance of situating education within local cultural and historical contexts, challenging the dominance of Western-centric ideologies in knowledge production. Similarly, intersectional theories enrich CP by examining how overlapping systems of oppression, such as race, gender, and class, influence educational experiences. These theoretical advancements highlight CP's enduring relevance in fostering transformative education and its adaptability to diverse sociocultural contexts.

The evolution of CP research spans decades, marking significant strides in educational theory and practice (Kincheloe, 2008). This area of study examines the influence of societal and institutional structures on educational environments, with initial investigations focusing on how these factors shape teachers' awareness and attitudes toward CP (Freire, 2000; Giroux, 2011). Such early research underscores the importance of CP in exploring and addressing the dynamics of education systems, setting the stage for a deeper investigation into specific empirical studies.

A substantial body of research has focused on how demographic variables such as gender, teaching experience, and academic qualifications influence teachers' awareness and attitudes toward CP. Abdelrahim (2007) investigated whether gender and teaching experience played a role in shaping CP awareness among Iranian ELT teachers. Through a mixed-methods approach combining semi-structured interviews with 20 teachers and a survey of 240 teachers in Tehran, the study found no significant differences in awareness based on gender or experience. This suggested that demographic factors alone do not necessarily determine CP awareness. Expanding on this inquiry, Azimi (2008) developed and validated the Critical Pedagogy Attitude Inventory to assess attitudes toward CP among Iranian ELT students and instructors. The study, which included 318 participants across undergraduate, graduate, and doctoral levels, similarly found that gender, teaching position, and experience did not have statistically significant effects on CP attitudes. These findings reinforced the idea that openness to CP is not necessarily influenced by demographic characteristics.

Further research has explored how academic qualifications and teaching experience contribute to CP awareness. Mahmoodarabi and Khodabakhsh (2015) conducted a large-scale study involving 403 Iranian EFL teachers to examine whether teachers' academic training impacted their CP awareness. The results

revealed that Ph.D. holders demonstrated significantly higher CP awareness than those with B.A. or M.A. degrees. Moreover, experienced teachers showed a deeper understanding of CP principles than those with fewer years of teaching experience. These findings emphasized the role of academic training and continued professional development in fostering greater CP awareness.

In addition to demographic factors, some studies have focused on teachers' perceptions of CP principles and how these perceptions shape educational practices. Aliakbari and Allahmoradi (2012) examined schoolteachers' perceptions using an adapted version of Yilmaz's (2009) Principles of Critical Pedagogy Scale. Their findings revealed no significant differences in perceptions based on age or teaching level, though a slight gender-related effect was noted. Similarly, Pishvaei and Kassaian (2013) developed another Critical Pedagogy Attitudes Questionnaire for Iranian university and institute teachers, identifying five key themes that shaped educators' attitudes: rejecting native-speaker biases in ELT, advocating for localized materials, and addressing ideological biases in teaching content. Together, these studies highlighted that while demographic factors might have minimal influence, beliefs about CP are shaped by teachers' educational philosophies and ideological orientations rather than personal characteristics.

A different line of research has examined the practical applications of CP in classroom settings. Davari et al. (2012) explored Iranian ELT professionals' views on integrating CP into language classrooms, utilizing a questionnaire developed based on interviews with applied linguists. The study, which surveyed 86 participants, revealed strong support for incorporating local culture and global issues into teaching materials—an approach consistent with CP's emphasis on contextualized, socially responsive education. However, traditional ELT practices, such as a preference for standard language norms and limited use of learners' first languages, persisted. These findings suggested that while educators recognize CP's value, its practical implementation remains uneven.

Building on the application of CP in skill development, Zokaeieh and Tahriri (2016) investigated how Critical Language Awareness (CLA) affects the writing skills of upper-intermediate Iranian EFL learners. Using a quasi-experimental design, participants were divided into control and experimental groups, with the latter receiving 12 sessions of CLA-based instruction aimed at raising awareness of the sociopolitical dimensions of language use. While there was no statistically significant improvement in overall writing ability, the experimental group showed considerable progress in the critical response component of their essays. These findings reinforced the potential of CP-based pedagogy to enhance learners' analytical and reflective skills.

Beyond language instruction, research has also explored the relationship between CP and broader cognitive skills, such as critical thinking and cultural awareness. Sahragard et al. (2014) investigated how cultural awareness influences critical thinking among Iranian EFL learners, collecting data from 150 high school students through a mixed-methods approach. Their findings revealed a strong correlation, showing that students with higher cultural awareness also exhibited greater critical thinking abilities. These results underscored the significance of

culturally responsive pedagogy in fostering critical engagement and suggested that integrating students' cultural backgrounds into teaching practices can enhance both analytical and reflective skills.

While most studies have examined CP within ELT and EFL contexts, some scholars have extended its application to other disciplines. Lodge (2021) explored how CP principles can be implemented in science education, demonstrating that dialogical teaching practices help challenge repressive ideologies while fostering inclusivity. The findings indicated that democratic learning environments significantly enhance students' critical thinking and problem-solving skills while addressing systemic inequities in science instruction. Similarly, Macalalag et al. (2024) applied CP principles to STEM education, integrating socio-scientific issues (SSI) into curricula. Their study revealed that embedding SSI into lesson plans not only increased student engagement with global challenges such as climate change and public health but also improved ethical reasoning and socially responsible problem-solving. Furthermore, Johnson and Mughal (2024) examined how CP can support trans-inclusive educational practices in UK secondary schools, emphasizing the importance of teacher training and institutional policies in creating affirming environments for transgender and nonbinary students. Despite these benefits, their findings also pointed to persistent barriers, including limited resources and entrenched cisnormativity, which hinder full adoption of CP principles in secondary education.

Beyond formal education settings, recent research has explored CP's application in nontraditional learning environments. Mendes (2024) investigated how artistic remediation fosters critical reflection and cultural awareness. By analyzing three art pieces that reframe colonial narratives, he found that engaging with such works encouraged participants to question dominant ideologies and gain a deeper understanding of historical injustices. Similarly, Morgan and Parker (2023) examined the impact of inclusive, co-created sport-for-development programs on marginalized youth in the UK, showing that these initiatives enhance personal growth, resilience, and community consciousness. Furthermore, Gutiérrez-Ujaque and Degen (2024) emphasized the role of sensory-embodied learning in deepening CP engagement in university settings. Their study demonstrated that physical and interactive learning experiences, such as campus walking tours, helped students better connect with their surroundings and develop a richer understanding of social dynamics. Jiang and Alizadeh (2025) also explored CP's role in post-crisis recovery, using community-based theatre to promote social cohesion after the COVID-19 pandemic. Their ethnographic study revealed that arts-based pedagogies foster dialogue, reflection, and collective action, reinforcing CP's potential to rebuild social relationships in post-crisis contexts. However, Skelton (2023) offered a more critical perspective, arguing that CP's Eurocentric foundations often fail to address the realities of marginalized communities. Advocating for decolonial and localized approaches, he stressed the need for CP to evolve to remain globally relevant.

Despite the recognized benefits of CP and the focus on its development, no attention has been given to it in the literature in the context of Iraqi Kurdistan. Furthermore, few reliable, valid, and comprehensive instruments have been developed to explore ELT teachers' beliefs about various aspects of CP. Existing

questionnaires in the field were deemed unsuitable for this study due to several issues, including ambiguous, overly general, overly specific, double-barreled, or overly technical items. Additionally, some of these instruments lacked clear factor structures, while others used complex or vague wording that teachers might struggle to understand. As a result, the findings of previous studies may not fully represent teachers' perspectives on CP. Consequently, there remains a gap in understanding EFL teachers' awareness of CP particularly among Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teachers. To address this gap, this study sought to develop a CP questionnaire to investigate the awareness of EFL teachers in Iraqi Kurdistan regarding the principles and components of CP. To this end, the following research question was raised:

Is there a significant difference in the awareness of CP among EFL teachers in Iraqi Kurdistan across gender, academic degrees, and instructional settings?

Method

The Design and the Context of the Study

The present study used a cross-sectional survey design with a quantitative orientation. It was conducted in public and private secondary, high school, and universities across the four provinces in Iraqi Kurdistan, namely Erbil, Sulaymaniyah, Duhok, and Halabja. The rationale behind using these contexts across varying geographical areas was to capture the essence of the research so that the sample mirrors the population.

Participants

The participants of this study were divided into two groups, each contributing to a different phase of the research. The pilot study included 33 participants including 15 male and 18 female non-native EFL teachers, selected through purposive sampling with a mean teaching experience of 16.84 years, and their academic degrees were consistent with those of the participants of the main phase. Specifically, the participants held Bachelor's (BA), Master's (MA), and Doctorate (PhD) degrees in disciplines related to English language. They were drawn from a variety of educational settings, including universities, high schools, and secondary schools. The second group, consisting of 397 male and female teachers, participated in the study. The participants were employed across a range of educational settings, including secondary schools, high schools, and universities, offering diverse perspectives from different teaching contexts. Their ages ranged from 20 to 54 years, with a mean teaching experience of 14.67 years. This diversity provided a broad spectrum of insights relevant to the study's objectives.

All participants were native Kurdish speakers and held academic degrees at various levels in English language-related fields. Their degrees included BA, MA, and PhD, with specializations spanning different areas of English language studies, such as teaching methodology, linguistics, literature, etc. This academic and professional diversity enhanced the richness and depth of the data collected. A detailed demographic profile of the participants, including their gender educational qualifications, and teaching contexts, is presented in Table 1.

Table 1*Demographic Information of the Participants*

Gender		Workplace			Academic Degree		
Male	Female	High school	Secondary school	University	BA	MA	PhD
172	225	132	162	103	264	81	52
Total							397

Instrument

A Critical Pedagogy Questionnaire (CPQ) (see Appendix) was designed and developed specifically for the Iraqi Kurdistan context to address the research question. The questionnaire consisted of 21 items condensed into five factors, namely *agency* (i.e., items 1, 5, 8, 11, 18, & 22), *praxis* (i.e., items 6, 23, 26, & 28), *co-construction of knowledge* (i.e., items 3, 7, & 9), *critical thinking* (i.e., items 2, 12, 17, 24, & 29), and *adapted contents* (i.e., items 10, 13, & 16). The five factors revolved around the EFL teachers' awareness of CP and its underlying components and principles, which were all geared toward responding to the research question. Participants were required to respond to the CPQ items using a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree (SD); 2 = Disagree (D); 3 = Neutral (N); 4 = Agree (A); 5 = Strongly Agree (SA)). The initial phase of questionnaire development began by selecting and adapting relevant items from the 17-item CP questionnaire developed by Mahmoodarabi and Khodabakhsh (2015). These items were reworded and modified to reflect the linguistic, cultural, and educational realities of Kurdish EFL teachers, ensuring relevance to their pedagogical experiences and challenges. However, since these items alone did not fully address the research question, additional CP questionnaires from previous studies (e.g., Adel et al., 2019; Roohani et al., 2016; Soodmand Afshar & Donyaie, 2019) were consulted. As a result, an expanded pool of 36 items was initially composed. These items were then revised and refined based on keywords derived from CP principles (Dörnyei & Dewaele, 2022). Upon further review, 13 redundant items were identified and subsequently removed, reducing the questionnaire to 23 items.

To further align the questionnaire with CP principles, seven additional items were incorporated based on the framework proposed by Crookes (2013, 2022). With these additions, the questionnaire expanded to 30 items.

To ensure content validity, the 30-item CPQ was reviewed by six university professors from the subject-specific field. They provided feedback on item clarity, redundancy, and relevance. Based on their recommendations, some items were omitted due to redundancy, some items were merged to improve coherence and for better coverage of CP principles. As a result of these modifications, the questionnaire was reduced from 30 to 20 items. Further refinements were made based on additional comments from the supervisors, whereby 9 items were added to

improve comprehensiveness. This resulted in the development of a 29-item CPQ, categorized into five key factors as can be seen from table 2.

Table 2

Components of the Questionnaire

Components	Items
1. Agency	1, 5, 8, 11, 18, 22
2. Praxis	6, 23, 26, 28
3. Co-construction of knowledge	3, 7, 9
4. Critical thinking	2, 12, 17, 24, 29
5. Adapted contents	10, 13, 16

The tentative 29-item CPQ was administered to 33 participants from the target population to test its reliability. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire, yielding an excellent reliability estimate ($r = .962$).

Before conducting factor analysis to determine construct validity, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's (1950) test of sphericity were performed to ensure that the data met the factorability assumption. Bartlett's test of sphericity (See table 3) rejected the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix was an identity matrix, yielding a Chi-square value of 17311.9 with $df = 406$. The KMO measure was acceptable overall, with a value of .78, and individual variables ranged between .50 and .94, except for one variable with a KMO value of .41. These results confirmed that the correlation matrix was appropriate for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Hair et al., 2019; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

Table 3

KMO and Bartlett's (1950) Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy	.780
	Approx. Chi-Square
	17311.929
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Df
	406
	Sig.
	.000

To extract factors, principal component analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation was conducted on the 29 items. This analysis yielded five factors with eigenvalues greater than one, accounting for 79.85% of the total variance. The eigenvalues for the five factors were 11.37, 4.51, 3.33, 2.30, and 1.66, respectively. A visual inspection of the scree plot further supported the retention of five factors.

However, as relying solely on the scree plot for determining the number of factors can be subjective and prone to underestimation or overestimation, additional statistical methods were employed. Following the recommendations of Velicer et al. (2000), a combination of parallel analysis (Horn, 1965) and the minimum average partial (MAP) method (Velicer, 1976) was used. Parallel analysis confirmed the retention of five factors, while the MAP method suggested six factors.

Table 4

Rotated Component Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
item1	.663	.115	.259	.389	.352
item2	.155	-.767	.009	.267	.185
item3	.261	.700	.084	.425	.300
item4	-.008	-.159	.528	.595	.173
item5	.303	-.055	.777	.254	-.027
item6	.121	.396	.191	.739	-.118
item7	-.024	.046	-.315	.105	.664
item8	.139	.408	.196	.774	-.041
item9	.425	.745	.176	.125	.045
item10	-.403	-.005	.136	-.639	.039
item11	-.102	-.035	-.175	.114	-.832
item12	.858	.144	.018	.263	.066
item13	.187	.850	.219	.200	.115
item14	.039	-.027	-.523	.306	.623
item15	.679	.620	.104	.035	.096
item16	.864	.263	.185	.162	-.086
item17	.807	-.145	.409	.004	.043
item18	.380	.223	.802	.165	-.177
item19	.499	.120	.721	.065	.066
item20	.703	.017	.503	.096	.033
item21	.657	.573	.276	.032	.156
item22	.256	.308	.775	.041	-.163
item23	.194	.856	.087	.217	.086
item24	-.120	-.238	.832	-.175	-.208
item25	.757	.447	.256	.034	.134
item26	.251	.268	.846	.013	.152
item27	.769	.470	.004	.057	-.196
item28	.037	-.139	-.114	.910	.187
item29	-.199	-.799	.312	.084	.123

To refine the model, a conservative threshold of 0.45 for minimum item loading was applied to the first factor, which had the highest eigenvalue of 11.37 (Raubenheimer, 2004). Initially, all 29 items were retained, as they met the 0.45 threshold. However, upon further inspection, items 4, 14, 15, 19, 20, 21, 25, and 27 (See table 5) were removed due to cross-loadings on multiple factors, which hindered interpretability, resulting in 21-items 5-point Likert scale questionnaire.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

The data were collected using online and face-to-face procedures. For the online one, the researchers prepared and distributed a Google Form containing the questionnaire items. The relevant link was shared through various digital social media platforms. Given that the sampling method was purposive, combined with a snowball technique, the respondents were encouraged not only to complete the form themselves but also to forward the link to other teachers who met the specified criteria. This approach aimed to expand the reach and include a broader range of participants.

For the in-person distribution, the researchers contacted school principals and heads of English departments at universities in the Halabja and Sulaymaniyah provinces. The purpose of the study was explained to them, and their consent to cooperate was obtained. Once permission was granted, the researchers left 50 copies of the questionnaire at each location they visited and set a 10-day deadline for their return. The data from the online Google Form and the completed questionnaires were subsequently entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 26, for further analysis.

The collected data were subjected to descriptive and inferential statistics. To answer the research question, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to determine the existence of any statistically significant difference in the awareness of CP among EFL teachers in Iraqi Kurdistan across gender, degrees, and settings. Inspection of both Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests of normality of data distribution showed that, although not perfectly bell-shaped, the data was normally distributed.

Results

Academic Degree

The descriptive statistics for the five CP components—agency, praxis, co-construction of knowledge, critical thinking, and adapted contents—by academic degree are summarized in Table 5. The results indicated that BA holders consistently exhibited the highest awareness across all CP components, followed by MA holders, while PhD holders displayed the lowest awareness.

In agency, BA teachers had the highest awareness ($M = 3.56$, $SD = .69$), while PhD teachers had the lowest ($M = 2.94$, $SD = .76$), with MA teachers in between ($M = 3.01$, $SD = .60$). Similarly, for praxis, BA holders scored highest ($M = 3.95$, $SD = .62$), followed by MA holders ($M = 3.83$, $SD = .47$), while PhD teachers scored the lowest ($M = 3.36$, $SD = .70$).

The co-construction of knowledge scores was relatively similar across groups, with MA teachers demonstrating slightly higher awareness ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .97$) than BA ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .85$) and PhD holders ($M = 3.64$, $SD = .77$). In critical thinking, BA teachers again reported the highest awareness ($M = 3.68$, $SD = .65$), while MA teachers had the lowest ($M = 3.05$, $SD = .72$), with PhD teachers in between ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .44$). A similar trend was observed in adapted contents, where BA teachers scored highest ($M = 3.49$, $SD = .64$) compared to MA ($M = 3.28$, $SD = .66$) and PhD holders ($M = 3.15$, $SD = .87$).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of CP Factors by Degree

	Academic Degree	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Agency	BA	3.5606	.69634	265
	MA	3.0123	.60744	81
	PhD	2.9496	.76603	51
Praxis	BA	3.9585	.62399	265
	MA	3.8364	.47461	81
	PhD	3.3676	.70419	51
Co-Construction of Knowledge	BA	3.9849	.85316	265
	MA	4.0288	.97068	81
	PhD	3.6471	.77578	51
Critical Thinking	BA	3.6815	.65041	265
	MA	3.0519	.72786	81
	PhD	3.5333	.44482	51
Adapted Contents	BA	3.4956	.64295	265
	MA	3.2840	.66062	81
	PhD	3.1503	.87766	51

Workplace

The descriptive statistics for CP components across workplace settings (university, high school, and secondary school) are presented in Table 6. High school teachers exhibited the highest awareness levels across most CP components, while university teachers demonstrated the lowest.

For agency, high school teachers had the highest awareness ($M = 3.66$, $SD = .71$), followed by university teachers ($M = 3.30$, $SD = .66$) and secondary school teachers ($M = 3.17$, $SD = .72$). A similar trend was observed in praxis, where high

school teachers scored the highest ($M = 4.01$, $SD = .60$), followed by secondary school teachers ($M = 3.80$, $SD = .63$) and university teachers ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .64$).

For co-construction of knowledge, the scores were closely aligned, with high school teachers scoring the highest ($M = 4.01$, $SD = .80$), followed by secondary school teachers ($M = 3.98$, $SD = .88$) and university teachers ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .93$). Critical thinking showed a more pronounced difference, with high school teachers scoring highest ($M = 3.74$, $SD = .61$), followed by secondary school teachers ($M = 3.43$, $SD = .73$) and university teachers ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .64$).

Regarding adapted contents, there was little variation among workplace settings, with high school teachers scoring ($M = 3.49$, $SD = .71$), university teachers scoring ($M = 3.43$, $SD = .59$), and secondary school teachers scoring ($M = 3.32$, $SD = .72$). These findings indicate that high school teachers, who frequently engage with diverse learners, may be more inclined toward CP principles.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics CP Factors by Workplace

	Workplace	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Agency	University	3.3065	.66899	103
	High School	3.6602	.71994	132
	Secondary School	3.1746	.72494	162
	Total	3.3703	.73834	397
Praxis	University	3.7451	.64737	103
	High School	4.0152	.60117	132
	Secondary School	3.8009	.63731	162
	Total	3.8577	.63680	397
Co-Construction of Knowledge	University	3.8155	.93203	103
	High School	4.0177	.80637	132
	Secondary School	3.9815	.88718	162
	Total	3.9505	.87493	397
Critical Thinking	University	3.4272	.64961	103
	High School	3.7424	.61509	132
	Secondary School	3.4321	.73659	162
	Total	3.5340	.69003	397
Adapted Contents	University	3.4304	.59524	103
	High School	3.4924	.71155	132
	Secondary School	3.3251	.72513	162
	Total	3.4081	.69127	397

Gender

The descriptive statistics based on gender differences are presented in Table 7. Female teachers showed higher awareness in co-construction of knowledge ($M = 4.02$, $SD = .86$) and adapted contents ($M = 3.42$, $SD = .75$), while male teachers had slightly higher scores in agency ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .71$) and critical thinking ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .59$). Praxis scores were nearly identical for both genders ($M = 3.87$, $SD = .63$ for males, $M = 3.84$, $SD = .63$ for females).

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of CP Factors by Gender

	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Agency	Male	3.4896	.71595	171
	Female	3.2800	.74375	226
Praxis	Male	3.8787	.63729	171
	Female	3.8418	.63738	226
Co-Construction of Knowledge	Male	3.8558	.87745	171
	Female	4.0221	.86809	226
Critical Thinking	Male	3.5895	.59893	171
	Female	3.4920	.75025	226
Adapted Contents	Male	3.3860	.60105	171
	Female	3.4248	.75326	226

To examine whether the observed differences in CP awareness were statistically significant, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed, with academic degree, workplace, and gender as independent variables.

The results of the MANOVA, as presented in Table 8, indicated that there were statistically significant differences in CP awareness across academic degree (Pillai's Trace = .323, $F(10, 774) = 14.932$, $p < .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .162$, representing a large effect size) and workplace (Pillai's Trace = .076, $F(10, 774) = 3.069$, $p < .05$, Partial $\eta^2 = .038$, representing a small effect size). However, no significant effect was found for gender (Pillai's Trace = .019, $F(5, 386) = 1.464$, $p = .201$, Partial $\eta^2 = .019$), indicating that male and female teachers had comparable CP awareness levels.

Table 8

Multivariate Tests

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Academic Degree	Pillai's Trace	.323	14.932	10	774	.000	.162
	Wilks' Lambda	.699	15.110	10	772	.000	.164
	Hotelling's Trace	.397	15.287	10	770	.000	.166
	Roy's Largest Root	.281	21.717	5	387	.000	.219
Workplace	Pillai's Trace	.076	3.069	10	774	.001	.038
	Wilks' Lambda	.925	3.090	10	772	.001	.038
	Hotelling's Trace	.081	3.111	10	770	.001	.039
	Roy's Largest Root	.068	5.289	5	387	.000	.064
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.019	1.464	5	386	.201	.019
	Wilks' Lambda	.981	1.464	5	386	.201	.019
	Hotelling's Trace	.019	1.464	5	386	.201	.019
	Roy's Largest Root	.019	1.464	5	386	.201	.019

To further investigate the significant differences found in academic degree and workplace settings, Scheffe's post-hoc tests were conducted, as shown in Table 9 and 10. The results revealed that significant differences existed between BA and PhD holders across all components of CP, with BA teachers consistently demonstrating higher awareness. The most pronounced difference was observed in critical thinking ($MD = .62$, $p < .001$), where BA holders showed significantly greater awareness than MA holders. These findings suggest that BA teachers, who are more actively engaged in direct classroom practice, may have a stronger connection with CP principles compared to their PhD counterparts, who often engage in more theoretical discourse.

In terms of workplace differences, high school teachers exhibited significantly higher scores than university teachers in agency ($MD = -.35$, $p < .001$)

and critical thinking ($MD = -.31, p = .001$). This suggests that high school teachers, who frequently engage with diverse student populations and real-world learning contexts, may integrate CP concepts more effectively into their teaching practices compared to university instructors, who often operate within more rigid curricular structures.

Table 9

Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe) by Degree

Dependent Variable	(I) Academic Degree	(J) Academic Degree	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Agency	BA	MA	.5483	.08427	.000	.3412	.7554
		PhD	.6111	.10149	.000	.3617	.8604
Praxis	BA	MA	.1221	.07409	.259	-.0600	.3041
		PhD	.5908	.08924	.000	.3716	.8101
Co-Construction	BA	MA	-.0439	.10889	.922	-.3115	.2237
		PhD	.3378	.13115	.037	.0156	.6601
Critical Thinking	BA	MA	.6297	.07733	.000	.4396	.8197
		PhD	.1482	.09314	.283	-.0807	.3770
Adapted Contents	BA	MA	.2116	.08528	.047	.0021	.4212
		PhD	.3453	.10270	.004	.0929	.5976

Table 10

Multiple Comparisons (Scheffe) by Workplace

Dependent Variable	(I) workplace	(J) workplace	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Agency	University	High School	-.3537	.08726	.000	-.5681	-.1392
		Secondary School	.1319	.08364	.289	-.0736	.3374
Praxis	University	High School	-.2700	.07672	.002	-.4585	-.0815
		Secondary School	-.0558	.07354	.750	-.2365	.1249
Co-Construction	University	High School	-.2021	.11276	.202	-.4792	.0749
		Secondary School	-.1659	.10809	.309	-.4315	.0996
Critical Thinking	University	High School	-.3152	.08008	.001	-.5120	-.1185
		Secondary School	-.0049	.07676	.998	-.1935	.1837
Adapted Contents	University	High School	-.0620	.08830	.782	-.2790	.1550
		Secondary School	.1053	.08465	.462	-.1027	.3133

Discussion

The present study aimed to examine the awareness of CP among EFL teachers in Iraqi Kurdistan, specifically investigating whether gender, academic degree, and teaching setting were associated with differences in teachers' awareness levels. The findings revealed statistically significant differences in CP awareness across academic degrees and workplace settings, while gender differences were less pronounced but still notable in some CP components, particularly co-construction of knowledge and adapted contents. These results provide valuable insights into how professional background, educational training, and institutional environments shape teachers' engagement with CP principles.

One of the most significant findings is that CP awareness varied significantly across academic degrees, with BA holders demonstrating the highest awareness levels, followed by MA and PhD holders. This result contrasts with previous research suggesting that higher academic qualifications correlate with greater CP awareness (Mahmoodarabi & Khodabakhsh, 2015). Instead, these findings align with Azimi (2008), who argued that academic standing does not necessarily predict an individual's openness to CP. A possible explanation for this trend is that BA holders are more engaged in practical classroom-based teaching, requiring them to navigate diverse pedagogical challenges, which may lead to a stronger, experience-driven connection to CP principles. In contrast, PhD holders, who often engage in theoretical discourse rather than daily teaching, may approach CP more abstractly, focusing on conceptual understandings rather than classroom applications.

This raises important questions about the role of advanced education in fostering CP awareness. While graduate programs emphasize critical theory and pedagogical frameworks, they may not sufficiently equip educators with practical tools for CP implementation (Kumashiro, 2002; Zeichner, 2010). This aligns with Skelton's (2023) critique, which argues that CP's traditional theoretical foundations often fail to address localized teaching realities. Moreover, teaching experience, often associated with workplace settings, was also significantly related to CP awareness. The results indicated that CP awareness differs significantly across teaching settings, with high school teachers reporting the highest awareness, followed by university and secondary school teachers. This suggests that high school educators, who often engage with more diverse student populations, may have greater exposure to pedagogical practices that align with CP principles. This supports Davari et al. (2012), who noted that while CP remains an emerging framework in ELT, its adoption is often more pronounced in environments where teachers actively address student diversity and real-world issues.

However, the lack of significant differences between university and secondary school teachers raises concerns about CP's institutional implementation in higher education. Lodge (2021) and Macalalag et al. (2024) emphasized that integrating CP into traditional subjects requires systemic support, including teacher training, curriculum reform, and institutional backing. Without these, teachers may struggle to fully integrate CP into their practice, despite having theoretical

awareness. The study also found some gender-based differences in CP components. Female teachers exhibited higher awareness of co-construction of knowledge and adapted contents, while male teachers showed slightly higher awareness in agency, praxis, and critical thinking. These findings are consistent with Aliakbari and Allahmoradi (2012), who observed minor gender-based differences in CP perceptions.

One possible interpretation of these differences is that female teachers may be more inclined toward collaborative, student-centered approaches (Gilligan, 1993; Sadker & Zittleman, 2009), which align with CP's emphasis on dialogical learning and adapted content. In contrast, male teachers' higher scores in agency and praxis suggest a more structured, teacher-led engagement with CP. This aligns with Morgan and Parker (2023), who found that gendered approaches to co-creation and participatory learning shape how CP is implemented in various educational settings. From a sociocultural perspective, these gendered differences may reflect broader societal structures that influence how male and female teachers engage with pedagogical reform. As Johnson and Mughal (2024) argued, gender-inclusive CP practices require institutional support, particularly in regions where traditional power hierarchies shape education.

This finding also highlights a paradox in CP implementation—while CP awareness is evident across demographic groups, its application remains inconsistent. One of the most critical implications of these findings is that while CP's theoretical dimensions are well understood, its practical application remains limited. For example, critical thinking emerged as one of the most recognized CP components, yet its implementation varied significantly across degree levels and workplace settings. BA holders demonstrated higher awareness of critical thinking than MA holders, which supports Pishvaei and Kassaian's (2013) conclusion that ideological biases in ELT content often go unchallenged by graduate students. Similarly, praxis—a core tenet of CP—exhibited significant differences across groups, suggesting that CP is often understood conceptually rather than actively applied in teaching. This resonates with Zokaeieh and Tahriri (2016), who found that while CP interventions enhanced students' critical response skills, they did not necessarily lead to improvements in overall academic performance.

This suggests that while teachers recognize the importance of CP, they may lack institutional support or methodological strategies to fully implement it in classrooms. Despite growing CP awareness, teachers face institutional constraints that hinder its full integration into ELT curricula. These include textbook constraints that prioritize standardized content over critical perspectives, exam-oriented instruction that limits the flexibility needed to incorporate critical discussions, and administrative expectations that often emphasize traditional ELT models over CP approaches. These findings align with Lodge (2021) and Macalalag et al. (2024), who argued that transforming education through CP requires more than teacher awareness—it requires systemic change. Additionally, the results supported Gutiérrez-Ujaque and Degen (2024), who emphasized that experiential, sensory, and place-based learning approaches are critical for CP's successful implementation.

Conclusion

Drawing upon the data gathered and analyzed using MANOVA, the findings revealed significant differences in CP awareness across academic degrees, workplace settings, and gender. BA holders demonstrated higher awareness levels than MA and PhD holders, suggesting that practical exposure may contribute more to CP awareness than academic training alone. Similarly, workplace-based differences indicated that high school teachers exhibited the highest awareness levels, while university and secondary school teachers demonstrated relatively lower awareness, reinforcing the argument that institutional settings may shape CP engagement. Additionally, female teachers showed higher awareness of co-construction of knowledge and adapted content, while male teachers exhibited greater awareness in agency and praxis, suggesting gendered approaches to CP application in ELT contexts.

These results contribute to existing CP research by providing empirical evidence that higher academic qualifications do not always result in greater CP awareness, contradicting prior assumptions (Mahmoodarabi & Khodabakhsh, 2015). Instead, the findings align with Azimi (2008) and Davari et al. (2012), who emphasized that demographic factors alone do not predict CP engagement. Furthermore, the study expands the discussion on the role of workplace settings in shaping CP awareness, highlighting how teachers in certain institutional environments may have more exposure to critical perspectives than others. This reinforces the argument that CP is not merely an outcome of theoretical education but also a function of teaching contexts and professional experiences.

Pedagogically, these findings suggest the need for transformative, practice-based teacher education programs that go beyond theoretical coursework and embed CP principles directly into real classroom scenarios. Institutions should implement sustained professional development programs focused on practical strategies for CP, such as collaborative lesson planning, critical reflection workshops, and peer mentoring—especially for teachers with less exposure to CP. Teachers are encouraged to co-design curriculum materials that reflect their students' sociocultural realities, use dialogical and problem-posing teaching methods, and regularly engage students in discussions that connect language learning to real-world issues. Moreover, it is recommended that educational leaders and policymakers revise teacher evaluation criteria and institutional policies to prioritize critical, student-centered teaching over traditional, exam-oriented methods. This may require providing resources, time, and institutional support for teachers to experiment with and reflect on CP-based practices. Additionally, partnerships between universities and schools could be established to facilitate ongoing training, action research, and classroom-based inquiry into effective CP adaptation. Creating a comprehensive support system that addresses practical challenges is essential for teachers to adapt to and implement CP in Iraqi Kurdistan's ELT classrooms.

Despite the study's valuable contributions, certain limitations need to be addressed, particularly in terms of data collection and generalizability. The study primarily relied on self-reported data from surveys, which may have introduced social desirability bias in participants' responses. Additionally, while the study

identified significant differences in CP awareness, it did not explore how these perspectives translate into actual classroom practices, limiting the ability to assess the practical implementation of CP principles. Moreover, the study was conducted within a specific sociocultural and educational context, which may affect generalizability to other EFL settings.

Future research should explore longitudinal studies to determine whether CP awareness leads to sustained pedagogical transformation over time. Additionally, qualitative investigations, such as classroom observations and in-depth interviews, would provide richer insights into how teachers apply CP principles in their teaching practices. Further studies should also investigate institutional and curriculum-related constraints that may hinder the implementation of CP, building on Lodge (2021) and Macalalag et al. (2024), who emphasized the importance of systemic change for CP integration.

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Appendix

The Critical Pedagogy Questionnaire

EFL Teachers' Beliefs about Critical Language Pedagogy

Dear Respondents:

The purpose of the present questionnaire is to gain knowledge about L2 teachers' beliefs about different aspects of teaching, such as classroom activities and materials. Your careful answers to the following questions will provide valuable information that will hopefully impact language teaching in Iraq. There are no right-or-wrong answers to these questions. Please try not to change the answers you give once you check a box. The first answer which comes to your mind is what is required. Your cooperation is highly appreciated. Needless to say, we ensure that your private information will be kept confidential and pseudonyms will be used during data analysis to maintain confidentiality.

Biographical information:

Contact Information:

Age:

Sex: Male () Female ()

The last academic degree: B.A. () M.A. () Ph.D. ()

Major:

Workplace: Secondary school () High school () University ()

Teaching years:

Please check the box that best expresses your belief about each item.

(1 = strongly disagree (SD); 2 = disagree (D); 3 = neutral (N); 4 = agree (A); 5 = strongly agree (SA))

No	Factors	Beliefs	1=SD	2=D	3=N	4=A	5=SA
1	F1	The main role of an Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher is to assist the EFL learners with moving toward autonomy (i.e., independent learning, thinking, and acting).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	F4	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher is expected to tailor their teaching methods and strategies to the EFL learners' individual differences and learning styles.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	F3	There needs to be a shared ground for the Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teachers and learners to have authority and responsibilities in the classroom.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	F1	The ELT education seems to pursue hidden agendas when designing coursebooks to westernize the Iraqi EFL learners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	F2	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher is expected to facilitate the classroom discussion by acting as a learner among the learners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	F3	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher is expected to provide grounds for everyone in class to impart knowledge.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	F1	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher is expected to encourage the EFL learners to create learning opportunities for themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	F3	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher needs to	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		promote knowledge sharing through dialogue and open communication in class.						
9	F5	The coursebook contents in Iraqi Kurdistan EFL classes have no relevance to the EFL learners' real lives, concerns, and problems.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	F1	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher has the major responsibility of assisting their EFL learners with developing an understanding of their identity (i.e., who and where they are in the world).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	F4	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher is expected to raise the EFL learners' awareness of inequalities in society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	F5	The teaching and learning context in Iraqi Kurdistan EFL classes should revolve around genuine and real-life dialogue.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	F5	ELT materials designed by English-speaking countries and taught in Iraqi Kurdistan promote western culture.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	F4	Iraqi Kurdistan EFL learners should be allowed to voice their concerns about society in their EFL classes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	F1	ELT materials designed for Iraqi Kurdistan EFL learners should not promote western ideologies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	F1	Iraqi Kurdistan EFL learners are not knowledgeable enough for program planning and needs-based material development.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	F2	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher is expected to find ways to relate their instruction to the real lives of their learners.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	F4	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL class can cover topics for discussion, such as environmental, social, and political issues.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	F2	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher can create problem-based situations that require critical thinking, reflection, and action to promote critical pedagogy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	F2	An Iraqi Kurdistan EFL teacher is expected to evaluate their EFL students by raising problem-based questions that would require them to use the critical skills they have acquired.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	F4	The EFL education in Iraqi Kurdistan is geared toward assisting EFL learners with understanding the dominant social norms and beliefs in society and educational system.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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Evaluating Overall Quality and Intercultural Communicative Competence in English Academic Writing Textbooks: A Comparative Study of Iranian and International Resources

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Abstract

Textbooks play a crucial role in language learning and the development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC). However, few studies have compared local and international English writing textbooks in terms of overall quality and ICC integration. In response, this study evaluates *Effective Academic Writing 2 (EAW2)*, an international textbook, and *Essay Writing (EW)*, an Iranian one, in terms of overall quality, ICC attributes, and potential areas for improvement. Using a convergent parallel mixed-methods design, data were collected from 27 purposively selected Iranian university teachers. Specifically, a 61-item Textbook Evaluation Checklist was administered, employing a five-point Likert scale (5 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Strongly Disagree), and analyzed by calculating means and standard deviations for both *EAW2* and *EW*. Additionally, responses to five open-ended questions were collected and examined through thematic content analysis to identify qualitative themes. Findings show *EAW2* excels in practicality (M = 4.0) and ICC attributes (M = 3.6), promoting global cultural exposure, but lacks local relevance (M = 3.1). Conversely, *EW* aligns with local contexts (M = 3.7) but neglects global perspectives (M = 2.9). Both textbooks exhibit weak multimedia integration and fail to provide interactive platforms to support writing instruction (M = 3.0). The small sample size limits generalizability, necessitating caution in broader application. In light of the findings, authors and designers of English writing textbooks should create materials that balance local cultural contexts with global perspectives to foster both linguistic proficiency and ICC in diverse English Language Teaching (ELT) settings. Furthermore, they should integrate innovative multimedia tools, interactive platforms, and AI-driven tools to enhance cultural exposure, engagement, and dynamic interaction.

Keywords: English academic writing textbook, textbook evaluation, intercultural communicative competence (ICC), overall quality

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Introduction

Textbooks play a critical role in language learning, serving not only as instructional tools but also as cultural conduits that shape pedagogy, language exposure, and intercultural understanding (Agustin & Wirza, 2020; Ariawan et al., 2022). Wang and Hemchua (2022) position textbooks as cultural vehicles, emphasizing their role in raising cultural awareness. Similarly, Sujiono et al. (2023) advocate for incorporating multicultural perspectives into learning materials.

The integration of ICC attributes in ELT materials has emerged as a critical focus, particularly given the global significance of English in education (Hicham et al., 2025; Tatzali et al., 2025). Studies emphasize that textbooks must transcend their traditional linguistic frameworks to address the cultural and communicative needs of learners in increasingly multilingual and multicultural contexts (Ayu, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2021). Despite this imperative, many ELT materials either inadequately represent cultural diversity or prioritize monolingual paradigms (Iswandari & Ardi, 2022; Mariyono, 2024).

In Iranian ELT contexts, textbooks must address the persistent challenge of aligning instructional materials with national curricula while fostering global communicative competence (Atai & Mazlum, 2013). Poorly designed textbooks can exacerbate issues like low student engagement, inadequate proficiency, and limited intercultural awareness (Banaruee et al., 2023; Masoumi Sooreh & Ahour, 2020). These shortcomings often stem from a lack of authentic and socio-cultural content, which hinders effective language instruction (Abdolhay et al., 2023; Sedaghatgoftar, 2022) and impacts students' academic outcomes and readiness for global interactions (Saidi, 2021), entailing that ELT textbooks be evaluated carefully (Basnet, 2024; Jafari et al., 2024).

Therefore, guided by the following research questions, the present study evaluates *Effective Academic Writing 2 (EAW2)* (Savage & Mayer, 2016) and *Essay Writing (EW)* (Khodabandeh & Hemmati, 2018) in terms of overall quality, ICC attributes, and potential areas for improvement:

1. How do *EAW2* and *EW* compare in terms of overall quality (practicality, objectives, teaching aids, content, and language skills)?
2. How do *EAW2* and *EW* compare in terms of ICC attributes (cultural representation, cultural perspectives, and integration, and ICC activities)?
3. How do *EAW2* and *EW* compare in terms of their strengths, weaknesses, and potential areas for improvement?

Literature Review

Theoretical Background

Among the various methods used in textbook evaluation, the criterion-based checklist approach is widely favored for its systematic and comprehensive nature (e.g., Al-Abdullah, 2022; Fatimah & Budiharso, 2025; López-Medina, 2021; Shieh et al., 2023; Syahid et al., 2024). One of its key strengths is its flexibility, as

noted by Mukundan and Ahour (2010), who emphasized that checklists can be adapted to suit different educational contexts and goals. Expanding on this, Mukundan et al. (2011) introduced a distinction between qualitative checklists, which include open-ended questions to provide in-depth insights, and quantitative checklists, which use Likert-scale items for more structured assessments. This classification enhances the method's versatility and makes it suitable for a wide range of evaluation purposes. Supporting this view, Demir and Ertaş (2014) argue that checklist-based evaluations are not only effective but also cost-efficient, enabling evaluators to gather meaningful data with minimal time and resources.

Recent advancements in the checklist method have increasingly focused on integrating contemporary educational priorities, particularly ICC. In line with this, Lei and Soontornwipast (2020) developed an evaluation checklist that assesses both the overall quality and ICC attributes of textbooks. Validated within ELT contexts, this tool aligns with global trends underscoring the importance of intercultural competence in language education (Kassymova et al., 2025; Shiryayeva et al., 2021). In addition, Brown (2023) highlights its effectiveness in promoting fair and empowering cultural depictions, positioning it as a robust and adaptable instrument for modern textbook evaluation. Therefore, the current study adopts the said checklist for its comprehensive framework, empirical validation in ELT settings, and recognition for supporting inclusive and culturally responsive pedagogy.

Review of Empirical Studies

The evaluation of ELT textbooks reveals persistent deficiencies in achieving comprehensive quality, particularly in skill integration and resource provision, which critically shape the current study's analysis of *EAW2* and *EW*. To begin with, Al-Makhmari (2024) scrutinized Omani writing textbook exercises using eight literature-derived criteria, identifying effective modals and genre approaches but condemning the glaring lack of integration with speaking, listening, and reading skills, thus undermining holistic language development. Similarly, Siregar et al. (2024) conducted a content analysis of three Indonesian high school textbooks, commending their coverage of academic and personal writing genres but criticizing incomplete sub-category representation and inconsistent task balance, which weaken pedagogical rigor. In contrast, Hanh (2022) surveyed ten Vietnamese teachers on *Solutions Pre-intermediate*, praising its organizational structure but faulting inadequate pronunciation support and glossary resources, limiting practical utility. Likewise, Sari (2022) qualitatively evaluated *Think Globally Act Locally* using a checklist, noting robust methodology and task quality (usefulness score: 3.8) but decrying partial syllabus alignment, which compromises curriculum coherence. Moreover, Efendi et al. (2023) applied Cunningsworth's rubric to *English for Change*, affirming curriculum relevance but highlighting overly advanced reading passages and inconsistent grammar instruction, exposing a lack of scaffolding. Finally, Yousif (2025) analyzed Iraqi textbook content, acknowledging strong skill coverage but criticizing the absence of digital tool integration, a significant flaw in modern ELT contexts.

Intercultural communicative competence (ICC), vital for global communication, remains poorly addressed in ELT textbooks, directly informing the current study's focus on *EAW2* and *EW*'s cultural inclusivity. For instance, Novianti and Wirza (2024) evaluated *English on Sky* in an Indonesian Islamic boarding school using a checklist, student questionnaires, and teacher interviews, identifying source, target, and international cultural elements supportive of ICC but faulting imbalances that distort cultural representation. Similarly, Nurwahidah (2023) conducted qualitative content analysis of *Symphony 3*, highlighting values of love and non-violence as ICC enhancers but neglecting broader cultural shortcomings. However, Derakhshan (2024) applied Peircean semiotic theory and thematic interview analysis to *Vision 1*, exposing text-image-task mismatches that severely restrict cultural awareness, a critical barrier to fostering ICC. Likewise, Gheitasi et al. (2020) used frequency counts to critique *Vision*'s Persian-centric aesthetic focus, which marginalizes sociolinguistic competence and limits global applicability. Additionally, Sedaghatgoftar (2022) surveyed 60 Iranian teachers using a checklist, condemning a local ELT series for its near-total absence of cultural elements and urgently advocating for communicative revisions.

Curriculum alignment and local relevance are crucial for ELT textbook effectiveness, yet studies reveal significant shortcomings, with direct implications for *EAW2* and *EW*'s suitability in Iranian ELT contexts. For example, Saragih (2024) interviewed Indonesian literature students, identifying narrative writing weaknesses in vocabulary and themes, and faulting the lack of local wisdom integration, which diminishes cultural relevance. In contrast, Sujiono et al. (2023) employed mixed methods, including statistical analysis and interviews with 101 Buddhist college students, confirming a multicultural textbook's effectiveness in scientific writing but overlooking potential gaps in broader skill integration. Similarly, Fadilla et al. (2024) conducted qualitative content analysis of *Bright* with teacher documentation, verifying alignment with Indonesia's 2013 curriculum but criticizing interdisciplinary gaps that hinder holistic learning. In Iran, Banaruee et al. (2023) surveyed 120 teachers using the 5 Cs checklist, deeming *Vision 3* preferable but faulting its deficiencies in cultural and technological components, which undermine its applicability. Likewise, Masoumi Sooreh and Ahour (2020) surveyed 45 teachers with an 82-item checklist, endorsing *Vision 2*'s suitability with authentic task additions but noting persistent resource constraints. Similarly, Saidi (2021) combined a 38-item checklist and interviews with 130 teachers, praising *Vision 3*'s speaking strengths but highlighting inadequate resource provision, a recurring obstacle to effective implementation.

Despite these efforts, the literature exposes a critical gap in evaluating university-level writing textbooks, particularly in integrating overall quality, ICC, and local relevance, underscoring the urgent necessity of the current study. To the best of the authors' knowledge, few studies have systematically examined university-level ELT textbooks like *EAW2* and *EW*, leaving a substantial void in understanding their effectiveness in fostering academic writing and intercultural

competence. Previous research, while informative, predominantly focuses on secondary education (e.g., Siregar et al., 2024; Hanh, 2022) or specific cultural contexts (e.g., Novianti & Wirza, 2024; Gheitasi et al., 2020), neglecting the distinct demands of tertiary education, where academic writing and global competence are paramount. Furthermore, existing studies often rely on singular methodologies, such as content analysis or surveys, failing to integrate quantitative and qualitative approaches for a comprehensive evaluation. This study addresses these shortcomings by evaluating *EAW2* and *EW* through a mixed-methods framework, combining teacher perceptions with checklist-based assessments to examine overall quality, ICC integration, and alignment with Iranian ELT needs. This focus is particularly critical, as Iranian universities increasingly prioritize balancing global competence with local relevance, a challenge exacerbated by resource constraints and centralized curricula (Banaruee et al., 2023; Sedaghatgoftar, 2022).

Method

The following subsections detail the research design and approach, the participants, materials, and instruments, as well as the procedures used for data collection and analysis.

Research Design and Approach

This study adopted a descriptive comparative design with a convergent parallel mixed-methods approach to evaluate *EAW2* and *EW*. In this design, quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed concurrently, then integrated to compare the textbooks' overall qualities, ICC attributes, and potential areas for improvement. This approach, as supported by Creswell (2021) and Adhikari and Timsina (2024), combined objective measures with subjective perspectives to ensure a balanced assessment.

Participants

The study involved 27 university teachers, all holding PhDs in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). They were selected through purposive sampling to ensure expertise in academic writing instruction and familiarity with *EAW2* and *EW*, aligning with the study's focus on informed evaluations (Creswell, 2021). Invitations were sent to 40 eligible teachers, with 27 responding (67.5% response rate). Non-response bias may exist, as non-respondents could differ in their perceptions, potentially skewing findings toward more engaged educators. The sample comprised 15 male and 12 female instructors, aged 32–55 years ($M = 42.3$, $SD = 6.7$), with an average of 12.4 years of teaching experience ($SD = 4.2$) in undergraduate and postgraduate academic writing courses. For quantitative analysis, a post-hoc power analysis indicated moderate power (0.65 for medium effect size, $\alpha = 0.05$), suggesting caution in interpreting statistical findings due to limited statistical power. The sample size of 27 was deemed sufficient for qualitative thematic saturation, as recurring themes emerged consistently (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Materials and Instruments

Materials

The study evaluated two English language textbooks: *Effective Academic Writing 2 (EAW2)* (Savage & Mayer, 2016), an international publication, and *Essay Writing (EW)* (Khodabandeh & Hemmati, 2018), an Iranian publication. *EAW2* was selected over other books in the *Effective Academic Writing* series due to its similarity in topics covered in the Iranian book *EW*. Additionally, *EAW2*'s global perspective and structured approach to essay development made it an ideal candidate for comparing ICC attributes with a locally developed textbook. *EW* was chosen for its widespread use in Iranian universities, enabling a direct comparison between international and local materials in addressing overall quality and ICC attributes.

Instruments

The primary instrument was a Textbook Evaluation Checklist (Lei & Soontornwipast, 2020), selected for its precision, simplicity, and established validity in ELT evaluations (Brown, 2023; Kassymova et al., 2025; Shiryayeva et al., 2021). It comprised 61 five-point Likert scale items across two dimensions: Overall Quality (24 items) and ICC Attributes (37 items), spanning eight categories: practicality, objectives, teaching aids, content, language skills, cultural representation, cultural perspectives and integration, and ICC activities. The checklist was translated into Persian to ensure accurate responses, given that the participants' primary language was Persian, to mitigate potential misinterpretations of nuanced criteria. Linguistic validation was conducted through a multi-step process. Two researchers independently translated the checklist into Persian and then reached a consensus on a unified Persian version. A third linguist subsequently performed a back-translation into English to ensure accuracy. Any discrepancies that arose during the translation process were resolved to achieve semantic equivalence. In addition, two ELT experts validated the content relevance, and a pilot study ($n = 5$) confirmed the instrument's reliability, yielding a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.87.

Five open-ended questions, derived from literature (Mukundan & Ahour, 2010; Mukundan et al., 2011) and validated by the two ELT experts, explored the textbooks' strengths, weaknesses, and potential areas for improvement, complementing quantitative data with qualitative insights. The five open-ended questions, administered in Persian, were designed to elicit detailed insights into teachers' perceptions of the textbooks' strengths, weaknesses, and potential improvements, aligning with the research questions (Mukundan et al., 2011). The open-ended questions are presented in Table 1 with their alignment to the research objectives.

Table 1*Open-ended Questions and Their Alignment with the Research Questions*

Open-Ended Question	Research Question Alignment
What are the overall strengths and weaknesses of this textbook as a resource for teaching academic writing?	Assesses overall quality, strengths, and weaknesses (RQ1, RQ3)
What are the overall strengths and weaknesses of this textbook as a resource for teaching ICC?	Evaluates ICC attributes, strengths, and weaknesses (RQ2, RQ3)
What emerging trends or technologies do you consider effective for developing textbooks to enhance academic writing and intercultural communication skills?	Explores technological improvements (RQ3)
What suggestions do you have for making the textbook more relevant to the Iranian context?	Identifies improvements for local relevance (RQ3)
What suggestions do you have for improving the overall effectiveness of the textbook in enhancing ICC?	Identifies improvements for ICC (RQ2, RQ3)

Data Collection Procedure

The adapted checklist and open-ended questions were administered online via *Porsall*, where the participants received unique links to access electronic copies of *EAW2* and *EW* alongside the evaluation tools. They first rated the 61 checklist items and then provided detailed responses to the open-ended questions. The participants gave informed consent after receiving the study details, and anonymity was ensured using unique identifiers for each participant's responses.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data from the checklist were processed in SPSS (Version 26), using descriptive statistics (means, frequencies, percentages, and standard deviations) to evaluate each item and category for the textbooks' overall quality and ICC attributes. Qualitative data from open-ended responses underwent content analysis using a thematic coding method, as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006). A detailed codebook was developed to guide the process, with initial codes generated inductively from the participants' responses to capture recurring patterns and concepts. Two independent coders analyzed the responses, resolving discrepancies through collaborative discussion to ensure reliability. Codes were grouped into categories and synthesized into overarching themes, with direct quotes used to contextualize findings. Inter-rater reliability was established with Cohen's kappa ($\kappa = 0.82$), indicating strong agreement between coders. Quantitative and qualitative findings were integrated through triangulation, comparing Likert scale ratings with qualitative themes to identify convergences and divergences.

Results

This section presents findings from two phases: quantitative, addressing overall quality dimensions and ICC attributes of *EAW2* and *EW*, and qualitative, exploring the participants' perceptions of each textbook's strengths, weaknesses, and areas for improvement.

First Research Question: Comparison of Overall Quality Dimensions

The first research question asked, "How do *EAW2* and *EW* compare in terms of overall quality?" Using a five-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree), we calculated means and standard deviations (SD) for both *EAW2* and *EW* to compare their overall quality dimensions. Table 2 presents the results for RQ1, assessing the overall quality of *EAW2* and *EW* through items 1–24. These items cover practicality (items 1–6), objectives (items 7–10), teaching aids (items 11–14), content (items 15–22), and language skills (items 23–24).

Table 2

Comparison of EAW2 and EW's Overall Quality Dimensions

Item Description	<i>EAW2</i> Mean (SD)	<i>EW</i> Mean (SD)
1 Navigability through the table of contents	4.22 (0.698)	3.67 (1.109)
2 Currency of content	3.93 (0.917)	3.41 (1.083)
3 Publisher credibility	3.93 (0.730)	3.19 (1.272)
4 Editorial board expertise	3.37 (1.043)	3.48 (1.051)
5 ICC expertise	3.33 (1.109)	3.00 (1.240)
6 Accessibility	4.33 (0.480)	4.37 (0.492)
7 Alignment with teaching aims	3.78 (0.974)	3.78 (1.086)
8 Responsiveness to learner needs	3.63 (1.043)	3.52 (1.221)
9 Clarity of objectives	3.78 (1.086)	3.67 (0.877)
10 ICC development	3.52 (1.014)	2.85 (1.262)
11 ICC information for teachers	3.00 (0.000)	3.00 (0.000)
12 Availability of complementary materials	3.00 (0.000)	3.00 (0.000)
13 Updating platforms for teachers	3.00 (0.000)	3.00 (0.000)
14 Updating platforms for students	3.00 (0.000)	3.00 (0.000)
15 Content authenticity	4.22 (0.698)	3.85 (0.864)
16 Content organization	4.15 (0.770)	3.74 (1.130)
17 Content currency	3.70 (1.137)	3.81 (1.075)
18 Grammar contextualization	3.85 (1.027)	3.67 (0.832)
19 Lexicon contextualization	3.85 (0.818)	3.81 (0.834)
20 Learner engagement	3.81 (0.962)	3.48 (1.087)
21 Content relevance	3.70 (1.031)	3.74 (0.984)
22 Language authenticity	3.93 (0.917)	3.44 (1.188)
23 Interactive skill presentation	3.56 (1.050)	3.70 (0.953)
24 Skill appropriateness to academic writing	4.00 (0.620)	3.52 (1.122)

In terms of practicality (items 1–6), *EAW2* scores higher in navigability (item 1: 4.22 vs. 3.67), content currency (item 2: 3.93 vs. 3.41), publisher credibility (item 3: 3.93 vs. 3.19), and ICC expertise (item 5: 3.33 vs. 3.00), with lower SDs (e.g., 0.698 vs. 1.109 for item 1), indicating more consistent teacher approval of its structured, credible, and culturally informed design, facilitating lesson planning. Conversely, *EW* slightly outperforms in editorial expertise (item 4: 3.48 vs. 3.37) and accessibility (item 6: 4.37 vs. 4.33), with similar SDs, suggesting comparable usability but stronger editorial oversight, supporting reliable content delivery. These findings imply *EAW2*'s advantage in practical design, while *EW* offers minor strengths in accessibility, setting the stage for pedagogical alignment.

For objectives (items 7–10), both textbooks score identically in teaching aims alignment (item 7: 3.78 vs. 3.78), with high SDs (0.974 vs. 1.086), suggesting varied perceptions, possibly due to diverse classroom goals. *EAW2* scores higher in learner needs (item 8: 3.63 vs. 3.52), objectives clarity (item 9: 3.78 vs. 3.67), and ICC development (item 10: 3.52 vs. 2.85), with lower SDs (e.g., 1.014 vs. 1.262 for item 10), indicating stronger alignment with academic and cultural goals, enhancing curriculum fit. *EW*'s lower ICC development score suggests limited cultural focus, impacting global readiness. These results highlight *EAW2*'s pedagogical clarity, leading to an analysis of teaching aids.

In teaching aids (items 11–14), both textbooks receive neutral ratings (3.00 vs. 3.00, SD 0.000) across all items, indicating uniform perceptions of limited ICC information, complementary materials, and updating platforms. This suggests both lack dynamic resources, potentially restricting classroom adaptability and ICC integration, a critical consideration for content quality.

For content (items 15–22), *EAW2* excels in authenticity (item 15: 4.22 vs. 3.85), organization (item 16: 4.15 vs. 3.74), grammar (item 18: 3.85 vs. 3.67), engagement (item 20: 3.81 vs. 3.48), and language authenticity (item 22: 3.93 vs. 3.44), with lower SDs, suggesting consistent teacher approval of its structured, engaging material, ideal for academic writing. *EW* scores slightly higher in currency (item 17: 3.81 vs. 3.70) and relevance (item 21: 3.74 vs. 3.70), indicating stronger alignment with current, locally relevant topics. Lexicon contextualization (item 19: 3.85 vs. 3.81) shows similar performance, supporting vocabulary instruction. These findings highlight *EAW2*'s content strengths, with *EW*'s relevance as a strength, prompting a skills evaluation.

In language skills (items 23–24), *EW* scores higher in interactive presentation (item 23: 3.70 vs. 3.56), indicating more engaging tasks, which are beneficial for skill practice. *EAW2* outperforms in academic writing appropriateness (item 24: 4.00 vs. 3.52), with a lower SD (0.620 vs. 1.122), indicating stronger alignment with university-level goals.

Second Research Question: Comparison of ICC Attributes

The second research question asked, "How do *EAW2* and *EW* compare in terms of ICC attributes? Using a five-point Likert scale (5 = Strongly Agree, 1 = Strongly Disagree), we calculated means and standard deviations (SD) for both *EAW2* and *EW* to compare their ICC attributes. Table 3 shows the results for RQ2, evaluating ICC attributes of *EAW2* and *EW* through items 25–61. These items assess

cultural representation (items 25–32), cultural perspectives and integration (items 33–43), and ICC activities (items 44–61).

Table 3

Comparison of EAW2 and EW's ICC Attributes

Item Description	EAW2 Mean (SD)	EW Mean (SD)
25 Cultural appropriateness	3.52 (1.156)	3.70 (0.953)
26 Variety of cultural topics	3.59 (1.010)	2.89 (1.311)
27 Critical thinking	3.41 (0.971)	3.07 (1.269)
28 Cultural norm identification	3.52 (1.014)	3.11 (1.251)
29 Articulation of cultural positions	3.56 (1.086)	2.89 (1.013)
30 Motivational value	3.85 (1.027)	3.74 (1.095)
31 Real-life relevance	3.56 (1.219)	2.96 (1.192)
32 Explicit presentation of cultural topics	3.37 (1.214)	3.30 (1.235)
33 Cultural bias	3.44 (0.974)	3.26 (1.289)
34 Multiple cultural perspectives	3.37 (1.079)	2.85 (1.231)
35 Learner environment relevance	3.59 (1.118)	3.44 (1.340)
36 Little “c” culture	3.52 (1.221)	3.07 (1.107)
37 Global cultures	3.59 (1.152)	3.00 (1.359)
38 Iranian culture	3.11 (1.219)	3.30 (1.068)
39 Tolerance	3.74 (1.023)	3.74 (1.059)
40 Real-life issues	3.81 (1.111)	3.44 (1.155)
41 Course integration of cultural information	3.59 (1.047)	3.30 (1.137)
42 Appropriate images	3.48 (1.189)	2.81 (1.388)
43 Non-verbal communication	3.26 (1.163)	3.22 (1.050)
44 Activity meaningfulness	3.78 (1.013)	4.04 (0.854)
45 Variety of activities	4.00 (0.734)	3.96 (0.808)
46 Task differentiation	3.81 (0.962)	3.44 (1.251)
47 Task familiarity	3.78 (1.155)	3.81 (1.039)
48 Task authenticity	3.74 (1.023)	3.78 (0.934)
49 Cooperation	3.89 (1.013)	3.70 (1.103)
50 Independent learning	3.96 (0.808)	3.81 (0.786)
51 Assessment tools	3.30 (0.953)	3.30 (1.068)
52 Exercise flexibility	3.93 (1.174)	3.63 (1.006)
53 Cultural understanding	3.70 (0.724)	3.48 (1.156)
54 Iranian event linkage	3.22 (1.396)	3.33 (1.177)
55 Cross-cultural comparison	3.22 (1.121)	3.33 (1.144)
56 Cultural problem-solving	3.74 (1.163)	3.07 (1.299)
57 Stereotype challenging	3.19 (1.210)	3.11 (1.086)
58 Intercultural communication	3.81 (0.921)	3.30 (1.203)
59 Opinion expression on cultural topics	3.56 (1.086)	2.85 (1.231)
60 Cultural observation	3.63 (1.043)	3.22 (1.188)
61 Additional Iranian event linkage	3.63 (1.182)	3.30 (1.203)

In terms of cultural representation (items 25–32), *EAW2* scores higher in cultural appropriateness (item 25: 3.70 vs. 3.52), suggesting stronger alignment with local cultural expectations, enhancing learner relatability. *EAW2* outperforms in variety (item 26: 3.59 vs. 2.89), critical thinking (item 27: 3.41 vs. 3.07), norm identification (item 28: 3.52 vs. 3.11), articulation (item 29: 3.56 vs. 2.89), and relevance (item 31: 3.56 vs. 2.96), with lower SDs (e.g., 1.010 vs. 1.311 for item 26), indicating consistent teacher approval of its diverse, cognitively engaging content. Both score similarly in motivation (item 30: 3.85 vs. 3.74) and explicitness (item 32: 3.37 vs. 3.30), suggesting comparable cultural engagement. These findings imply *EAW2*'s strength in diverse cultural exposure, while *EW* supports local alignment, leading to cultural perspectives.

For cultural perspectives and integration (items 33–43), *EAW2* scores higher in bias mitigation (item 33: 3.44 vs. 3.26), multiple perspectives (item 34: 3.37 vs. 2.85), little “c” culture (item 36: 3.52 vs. 3.07), global cultures (item 37: 3.59 vs. 3.00), real-life issues (item 40: 3.81 vs. 3.44), course integration (item 41: 3.59 vs. 3.30), and images (item 42: 3.48 vs. 2.81), with lower SDs, suggesting stronger global cultural integration, vital for ICC. *EW* scores higher in Iranian culture (item 38: 3.30 vs. 3.11), aligning with local contexts. Both score similarly in learner relevance (item 35: 3.59 vs. 3.44), tolerance (item 39: 3.74 vs. 3.74), and non-verbal communication (item 43: 3.26 vs. 3.22), indicating shared strengths in cultural sensitivity. These results highlight *EAW2*'s global focus and *EW*'s local relevance, prompting an analysis of ICC activities.

For ICC activities (items 44–61), *EW* scores higher in meaningfulness (item 44: 4.04 vs. 3.78), familiarity (item 47: 3.81 vs. 3.78), authenticity (item 48: 3.78 vs. 3.74), Iranian events (item 54: 3.33 vs. 3.22), and cross-cultural comparison (item 55: 3.33 vs. 3.22), suggesting stronger local engagement. *EAW2* excels in variety (item 45: 4.00 vs. 3.96), differentiation (item 46: 3.81 vs. 3.44), cooperation (item 49: 3.89 vs. 3.70), independent learning (item 50: 3.96 vs. 3.81), flexibility (item 52: 3.93 vs. 3.63), cultural understanding (item 53: 3.70 vs. 3.48), problem-solving (item 56: 3.74 vs. 3.07), intercultural communication (item 58: 3.81 vs. 3.30), opinion expression (item 59: 3.56 vs. 2.85), observation (item 60: 3.63 vs. 3.22), and additional Iranian events (item 61: 3.63 vs. 3.30), with lower SDs, indicating robust ICC tasks. Both score similarly in assessment (item 51: 3.30 vs. 3.30) and stereotype challenging (item 57: 3.19 vs. 3.11), suggesting shared gaps.

Third Research Question: Comparison of Strengths, Weaknesses, and Potential Areas for Improvement

The third research question asked, “How do *EAW2* and *EW* compare in terms of their strengths, weaknesses, and potential areas for improvement?” Tables 4–6 present RQ3's qualitative findings, reporting codes and themes for strengths, weaknesses, and areas for improvement of *EAW2* and *EW*, with quotes integrated to illustrate dominant themes.

Table 4 presents the strengths of *EAW2* and *EW* from thematic analysis of open-ended responses, reporting codes, and themes. Codes reflect specific teacher feedback (e.g., “teaching academic writing”), and themes synthesize patterns (e.g.,

instructional robustness). Categories (e.g., academic writing focus) are omitted for conciseness, with themes capturing their essence.

Table 4

Strengths of EAW2 and EW

Textbook Codes		Theme
<i>EAW2</i>	Teaching academic writing, preparing students for university, promoting analytical skills, fostering critical reasoning, interactive quizzes, formative tasks, encouraging reflective practice, promoting self-assessment	Instructional robustness
<i>EAW2</i>	Clear language, easy-to-follow instructions, simplifying complex concepts, clarifying technical terms	Clear and accessible instructions
<i>EAW2</i>	Real-life scenarios, case studies, applying knowledge in real life, connecting theory to practice, using practical examples	Practical skill application
<i>EW</i>	Linking topics to Iranian traditions, reflecting Iranian daily life, fostering local engagement, incorporating community examples	Contextualized pedagogical design
<i>EW</i>	Teaching essay writing, preparing students for university-level writing, structuring arguments, guiding thesis development	Structured academic support
<i>EW</i>	Clear language, easy-to-follow instructions, simplifying abstract concepts, using relatable analogies	Inclusive content delivery

Table 5 shows the weaknesses of *EAW2* and *EW*, reporting codes, and themes. Codes reflect specific limitations (e.g., “failure to incorporate local examples”), and themes synthesize patterns (e.g., inadequate cultural contextualization). Categories are omitted for brevity.

Table 5

Weaknesses of EAW2 and EW

Textbook Codes		Theme
<i>EAW2</i>	Failure to incorporate local examples, insufficient local content, lack of culturally relevant tasks, neglect of Iranian contexts, overemphasis on Western perspectives, lack of local context, failure to balance global/local content, prioritizing Western examples	Inadequate cultural contextualization
<i>EAW2</i>	Failure to use sufficient images, lack of video/audio	Insufficient

	resources, insufficient interactive media, neglect of digital tools	engagement mechanisms
<i>EAW2</i>	Failure to address cultural differences, insufficient cultural navigation skills, lack of global exposure, neglect of intercultural dialogue	Limited intercultural competence
<i>EW</i>	Failure to integrate global perspectives, lack of cultural navigation skills, insufficient intercultural exercises, neglect of global contexts	Deficient intercultural integration
<i>EW</i>	Failure to incorporate visuals, lack of multimedia resources, insufficient digital content, neglect of interactive tools	Inadequate multimedia utilization
<i>EW</i>	Failure to include non-Western examples, lack of cultural diversity, insufficient stereotype challenges, neglect of diverse perspectives	Restricted cultural diversity

Table 6 mentions the areas for improvement for *EAW2* and *EW*, reporting codes, and themes. Codes reflect specific suggestions (e.g., “enhancing local examples”), and themes synthesize patterns (e.g., enhanced cultural integration). Categories are omitted for conciseness.

Table 6

Areas for Improvement of EAW2 and EW

Textbook	Codes	Theme
<i>EAW2</i>	Enhancing local examples, integrating Iranian traditions, promoting culturally relevant tasks, embedding community contexts	Enhanced cultural integration
<i>EAW2</i>	Incorporating more images, integrating video/audio resources, promoting interactive media, using digital tools	Multimedia and technology enrichment
<i>EAW2</i>	Designing interactive platforms, promoting multimedia tasks, integrating digital learning tools, enhancing e-learning resources	Multimedia and technology enrichment
<i>EAW2</i>	Promoting cultural difference understanding, enhancing cultural navigation skills, fostering global exposure, encouraging intercultural dialogue	Intercultural competence development
<i>EAW2</i>	Integrating cultural comparisons, promoting cultural analysis, highlighting cultural similarities, analyzing diverse contexts	Intercultural competence development
<i>EAW2</i>	Integrating AI for learning, promoting social media engagement, enhancing digital platforms, using adaptive learning tools	Technology-enhanced learning
<i>EAW2</i>	Incorporating virtual reality, promoting augmented reality, enhancing immersive experiences, integrating simulation tools	Multimedia and technology enrichment

<i>EAW2</i>	Promoting descriptive questions, enhancing essay-based tasks, integrating open-ended assessments, fostering critical responses	Advanced assessment strategies
<i>EAW2</i>	Integrating practical writing tasks, promoting real-world scenarios, enhancing task-based learning, fostering applied skills	Practical learning optimization
<i>EAW2</i>	Embedding real-life scenarios, promoting case studies, enhancing applied knowledge, integrating practical contexts	Practical learning optimization
<i>EAW2</i>	Promoting collaborative activities, enhancing peer discussions, integrating group tasks, fostering team projects	Collaborative learning optimization
<i>EAW2</i>	Encouraging peer learning, promoting cultural perspective sharing, enhancing peer mentoring, fostering collaborative feedback	Collaborative learning optimization
<i>EAW2</i>	Promoting stereotype challenges, enhancing cultural diversity, integrating bias-free content, fostering inclusive perspectives	Cultural sensitivity and inclusion
<i>EAW2</i>	Enhancing cultural complexity understanding, promoting nuanced cultural analysis, integrating diverse cultural insights, avoiding oversimplification	Cultural sensitivity and inclusion
<i>EW</i>	Promoting cultural difference understanding, enhancing cultural navigation skills, fostering global awareness, encouraging intercultural exercises	Intercultural competence development
<i>EW</i>	Incorporating more visuals, integrating multimedia resources, promoting digital content, enhancing interactive tools	Multimedia and technology enrichment
<i>EW</i>	Integrating AI for learning, promoting social media engagement, enhancing digital platforms, using collaborative tools	Technology-enhanced learning
<i>EW</i>	Embedding real-life scenarios, promoting case studies, enhancing contextual examples, integrating applied tasks	Practical learning optimization
<i>EW</i>	Promoting collaborative activities, enhancing peer learning, integrating group projects, fostering team-based learning	Collaborative learning optimization
<i>EW</i>	Promoting stereotype challenges, enhancing cultural diversity, integrating inclusive content, fostering diverse perspectives	Cultural sensitivity and inclusion
<i>EW</i>	Promoting descriptive questions, enhancing essay-based assessments, integrating open-ended tasks, fostering critical responses	Advanced assessment strategies

As regards the strengths (Table 4), *EAW2*'s instructional robustness (e.g., teaching academic writing, fostering critical reasoning) and practical skill application (e.g., real-life scenarios) align with RQ1's high content authenticity and engagement, as a teacher noted: "*EAW2*'s structured approach with case studies helps students apply writing skills practically, preparing them for university." Its clear and accessible instructions (e.g., clear language) complement RQ1's navigability, enhancing student accessibility. Conversely, *EW*'s contextualized pedagogical design (e.g., linking to Iranian traditions) aligns with RQ2's cultural appropriateness and RQ1's content relevance, as a teacher stated: "*EW* engages students by connecting writing tasks to Iranian traditions." Its structured academic support (e.g., guiding thesis development) and inclusive content delivery (e.g., clear instructions) support RQ1's accessibility. These strengths suggest *EAW2* excels in global academic preparation, while *EW* enhances local curriculum alignment and relatability.

For the weaknesses (Table 5), *EAW2*'s inadequate cultural contextualization (e.g., failure to incorporate local examples, overemphasis on Western perspectives) aligns with RQ2's lower Iranian culture score, limiting local engagement, as a teacher remarked: "*EAW2*'s Western focus and lack of Iranian examples reduce student relatability." Its insufficient engagement mechanisms (e.g., lack of visuals) and limited intercultural competence (e.g., neglect of intercultural dialogue) correspond to RQ1's neutral teaching aids scores and RQ2's low stereotype challenging. Similarly, *EW*'s deficient intercultural integration (e.g., failure to integrate global perspectives) and restricted cultural diversity (e.g., lack of non-Western examples) align with RQ2's lower global culture and ICC scores, as a teacher noted: "*EW*'s focus on local content limits students' global cultural exposure." Its inadequate multimedia utilization (e.g., lack of visuals) mirrors *EAW2*'s resource gaps, reinforcing RQ1's teaching aids limitations. These weaknesses highlight the need for cultural balance and modern resources in both textbooks.

Concerning the areas for improvement (Table 6), *EAW2*'s enhanced cultural integration (e.g., integrating Iranian traditions) and intercultural competence development (e.g., promoting cultural difference understanding) address RQ2's cultural gaps, as a teacher suggested: "Adding Iranian examples and cross-cultural tasks would make *EAW2* more relevant and globally oriented." Multimedia and technology enrichment (e.g., incorporating videos, virtual reality), technology-enhanced learning (e.g., AI integration), advanced assessment strategies (e.g., open-ended assessments), practical learning optimization (e.g., practical writing tasks), collaborative learning optimization (e.g., group projects), and cultural sensitivity (e.g., stereotype challenges) counter RQ1's resource limitations and RQ2's ICC gaps. For *EW*, intercultural competence development (e.g., fostering global awareness) and cultural sensitivity (e.g., promoting stereotype challenges) address RQ2's global culture gaps, with a teacher stating: "*EW* needs global cultural exercises and stereotype-challenging tasks to enhance ICC." Multimedia and technology enrichment, technology-enhanced learning, practical learning optimization, collaborative optimization, and advanced assessments tackle RQ1's

deficiencies. These suggestions align with quantitative gaps, offering a roadmap for culturally balanced, modernized ELT resources in Iran's context of national identity and global competence.

Discussion

This study evaluated *EAW2* and *EW* for their suitability in Iranian university-level ELT, examining overall quality (RQ1: practicality, objectives, teaching aids, content, and language skills), ICC attributes (RQ2: cultural representation, cultural perspectives and integration, and ICC activities), and strengths, weaknesses, and areas for improvement (RQ3).

RQ1: Overall Quality

The quantitative findings revealed *EAW2*'s superior performance in practicality, content, and language skills, excelling in navigability, content authenticity, and academic writing appropriateness, corroborated by qualitative themes of instructional robustness and clear instructions, as teachers praised its structured, academically focused design. In contrast, *EW* demonstrated strengths in language skills for interactive presentation and accessibility, supported by qualitative themes of contextualized pedagogical design and inclusive content delivery, with teachers noting its alignment with local traditions. However, both textbooks scored neutrally in teaching aids, with qualitative data highlighting limited digital resources, and *EW* lagged in objectives, particularly in ICC development.

These findings align with Al-Makhmari (2024), who lauded Omani textbooks' genre approaches but criticized poor skill integration, mirroring *EAW2*'s content strengths and *EW*'s interactive advantage. Similarly, Siregar et al. (2024) praised Indonesian textbooks' writing genres but noted incomplete coverage, paralleling *EAW2*'s robust content while diverging from *EW*'s weaker objectives. Furthermore, Hanh's (2022) critique of *Solutions Pre-intermediate*'s resource deficiencies aligns with both textbooks' teaching aids limitations, whereas *EAW2*'s academic strengths diverge due to its university-level design. Likewise, Sari's (2022) emphasis on strong methodology in *Think Globally Act Locally* supports *EAW2*'s practicality but contrasts with *EW*'s resource constraints. Moreover, Efendi et al.'s (2023) note of inconsistent grammar in *English for Change* parallels *EW*'s content weaknesses, while *EAW2*'s robust design counters this flaw. Finally, Yousif's (2025) critique of absent digital integration directly mirrors both textbooks' teaching aids' deficiencies, reinforcing their shared limitation.

RQ2: Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

The quantitative data established *EAW2*'s dominance in cultural representation, cultural perspectives and integration, and ICC activities, with strengths in cultural variety, global perspectives, and intercultural tasks, reinforced by qualitative themes of practical skill application, as teachers highlighted its globally oriented content. Conversely, *EW* excelled in cultural appropriateness, aligning with local contexts, with qualitative themes of contextualized pedagogical

design emphasizing its focus on Iranian traditions, yet it lagged in global perspectives and diverse ICC activities.

These results resonate with Novianti and Wirza (2024), who identified cultural elements in *English on Sky* but criticized imbalances, mirroring *EAW2*'s global strengths and *EW*'s local bias, as qualitative data noted *EW*'s over-reliance on local content. Similarly, Nurwahidah's (2023) focus on *Symphony 3*'s ICC-enhancing values aligns with *EAW2*'s motivational cultural content but diverges from *EW*'s limited global focus. Additionally, Derakhshan's (2024) critique of text-image-task mismatches in *Vision 1* parallels *EW*'s weaker visual integration, while *EAW2*'s robust ICC activities stand out due to their academic orientation. Furthermore, Gheitasi et al.'s (2020) Persian-centric critique of *Vision* aligns with *EW*'s local emphasis, whereas *EAW2*'s global focus counters this limitation, as confirmed by both quantitative data and qualitative themes. Likewise, Sedaghatgoftar's (2022) condemnation of minimal cultural elements in a local ELT series directly mirrors *EW*'s ICC deficiencies, while *EAW2*'s diverse content addresses this gap.

RQ3: Strengths, Weaknesses, and Areas for Improvement

The integrated findings underscored *EAW2*'s strengths in instructional robustness, clear instructions, and practical skill application, supported by quantitative data showing high practicality, content, and language skills scores, but weaknesses in cultural contextualization and engagement mechanisms, as qualitative themes highlighted inadequate local examples and limited digital tools. In contrast, *EW*'s strengths included contextualized pedagogical design, structured academic support, and inclusive delivery, bolstered by quantitative strengths in accessibility and interactive skills, yet weaknesses in intercultural integration and multimedia utilization, as teachers criticized its lack of global perspectives. Recommended improvements for both encompass multimedia enrichment, intercultural competence development, and collaborative learning optimization.

These findings align with Yousif's (2025) critique of absent digital integration, mirroring both textbooks' weaknesses. Similarly, Banaruee et al.'s (2023) noting of technological deficiencies in *Vision 3* parallels these multimedia gaps, while *EW*'s local strengths align with its cultural appropriateness. Furthermore, Masoumi Sooreh and Ahour's (2020) emphasis on authentic tasks in *Vision 2* supports *EAW2*'s practical skill application, yet both textbooks' digital weaknesses diverge from their findings. Similarly, Saragih's (2024) narrative weaknesses contrast with *EAW2*'s academic strengths but align with both textbooks' limited cultural diversity, per qualitative data. In contrast, Sujiono et al.'s (2023) scientific writing effectiveness diverges from both textbooks' interdisciplinary gaps, while Fadilla et al.'s (2024) interdisciplinary gaps in *Bright* align with these weaknesses. Finally, Efendi et al.'s (2023) inconsistent grammar parallels *EW*'s content weaknesses, whereas *EAW2*'s improvement areas address its gaps.

Conclusion

This study establishes that *EAW2* excels in academic quality and intercultural communicative competence, while *EW* prioritizes local engagement but lacks global integration and robust resources. These findings highlight an urgent need for modernized, culturally balanced ELT textbooks in Iranian contexts. Thus, developers must enhance *EAW2* with locally relevant content and *EW* with global perspectives, integrating AI-assisted writing tools and AI-driven feedback systems for personalized writing assessments. Furthermore, embedding interactive digital platforms and collaborative AI-supported exercises will address resource gaps, ensuring both textbooks empower students with the academic rigor and intercultural proficiency required for success in a globalized world.

The findings provide critical practical and theoretical guidance for Iranian ELT. Practically, integrating local cultural elements into *EAW2* and global perspectives into *EW* can create balanced materials, essential for Iran's dual educational goals of academic rigor and intercultural competence. Furthermore, adopting AI-assisted writing tools alongside collaborative digital platforms can significantly enhance engagement. These tools address limited material access in universities constrained by rigid curriculum policies, fostering interactive and adaptive learning environments. Theoretically, these insights refine textbook evaluation frameworks by prioritizing cultural balance and digital integration, particularly through AI-supported pedagogies. Enhanced teacher training in intercultural competence and AI-driven instructional strategies will strengthen classroom delivery, ensuring effective textbook implementation within Iran's policy-driven educational system.

Limitations narrow the findings' scope. The sample of 27 teachers restricts statistical reliability and applicability across Iran's diverse ELT settings, with small textbook differences lacking clear significance. Excluding student perspectives limits insights into engagement, while reliance on teacher perceptions without performance data weakens evidence of learning outcomes. One-time data collection overlooks teacher adaptations, and centralized curriculum policies with limited teacher training hinder implementation, reducing broader applicability.

Consequently, future research should incorporate student feedback to capture engagement, employ larger and more diverse samples for broader applicability, and conduct longitudinal studies to explore teacher adaptations over time. Measuring student performance will clarify whether revised materials improve learning, ensuring ELT textbooks align with Iran's academic and intercultural needs while addressing institutional and training barriers.

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To SPARK While Suffering: An Existential Positive Psychology Approach to L2 Teachers' Resilient Mindset

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Abstract

Psycho-emotional studies in second language (L2) contexts often focus on a bivariate view of well-being, separating positivity and negativity. However, Existential Positive Psychology (EPP) posits that well-being inherently involves navigating suffering and hardships. Addressing a gap in applied linguistics regarding EPP-informed perspectives on teacher well-being, this study explores the resilient mindset of Iranian L2 teachers using a sequential explanatory mixed-methods design. Quantitatively, 157 English teachers completed an EPP-driven resilience scale measuring existential facets of the concept, including toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and belief. Qualitatively, interviews with 17 teachers were analyzed using the SPARK model, which renders one's resilience in disturbing moments through processing situations, perceptions, affects, reactions, and knowledge. Findings from multivariate analysis of variance and thematic analysis revealed that the teachers involved in the study exhibited moderate levels of existential resilience, with qualitative themes highlighting salient factors that contribute to shaping teachers' resilience. These insights reflected the importance of an EPP framework in understanding teacher resilience and offered insights for subsequent practical endeavors for L2 teacher education focused on resilience promotion.

Keywords: Existential positive psychology, L2 teacher resilience, positive psychology, resilient mindset, SPARK resilience

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Introduction

Second language (L2) teachers rely on resilience, the capacity to manage stress and hardships, to overcome the occupational challenges and maintain well-being (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Philippe et al., 2018). Evidence suggests that resilience manifests through multiple sources, including personal characteristics such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, social support networks, and environmental resources and conditions (Arslan, 2016, 2022; Masten, 2015; Wong & Wong, 2012). However, it can also be threatened by external factors that fluctuate over time and lead to diverse consequences. Such factors include students' misbehaviors, time constraints for L2 content instruction, assessment issues, responding to various learning styles, and conforming to authoritative policies (Debreli & Ishanova, 2019; Sadoughi et al., 2024; Sun & Shek, 2012). Thus, teacher resilience has flourished as a research trend focusing on cultivating the mindset and skills that help teachers in disturbing situations (Mafukata & Mudau, 2016; Mansfield, 2020; Thompson & Dobbins, 2018). Studies have mainly relied on positive psychology (PP) tenets that tend to individuals' well-being by focusing on positive psycho-emotional strengths, including resilience (Snyder & Lopez, 2001; Thorsteinsen & Vittersø, 2019).

Recently, scholars have discussed that PP-driven studies might offer an unrealistic view of well-being because, based on PP, one's mental health resonates with the absence of negativity. However, in reality, mental wellness is the byproduct of transforming negativity into positivity. This premise, which PP has ignored, paved the way for the second wave of PP, also known as existential positive psychology (EPP) (van Zyl et al., 2023; Zhao & Tay, 2022). According to EPP, resilience, well-being, meaning, and virtue are the four main pillars of the individual's psyche. In other words, EPP explains psycho-emotional factors by considering the idea that hardships and negative thoughts and feelings are inevitable and sometimes unavoidable aspects of everyone's lives, and our growth starts when we learn to confront our tensions, reflect on them, learn from them, build upon them, and transcend through them (Wong, 2023a, b).

As an updated and denser conceptualization, *resilient mindset* helps individuals approach life tensions appropriately and effectively through conscious and deliberate construction and alignment of physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual resources (Arslan, 2016; Arslan & Wong, 2023). As discussed through Wong's (2020) TRAMMB model of resilience, individuals with resilient mindsets enjoy a *tough* mentality, which helps them face a competitive and challenging world by reflecting confidence, control, and commitment (Gucciardi, 2020). Such individuals see themselves as *responsible* for flexible adaptation to each challenging situation of life (Arslan & Wong, 2021). They also *appreciate* the goodness in the world and the blessing of being alive (Jans-Beken & Wong, 2019); are grateful of life through *mindfulness* and embrace it through the open and clear mind (Moore, 2024). They also practice the *meaning* mindset by reflecting on beautiful, good, and meaningful aspects of experiences (Wong, 2012); and *believe* in a bright future through hope, faith, and love (Wong, 2023a, b). The other relevant framework for discussing the resilient mindset is Boniwell et al.'s (2023) SPARK model, which renders resilience by suggesting that "Everyday *situations*, as a function of individual *perceptions*, tend to trigger an emotion or *affect* (i.e., automatic emotional

responses). This leads to subsequent behavioral *reactions* and learning, or *knowledge* gained from the experience” (Boniwell et al., 2023, p. 4). Since both models have been overlooked in L2 studies, we considered them concurrently to understand L2 teachers’ resilient mindset comprehensively. TRAMMB offers a framework for identifying existential sub-components, and SPARK provides a cyclical lens to analyze how teachers process and respond to stressful situations. Rather than prioritizing one model as stronger, this study treats them as complementary strengths. Thus, TRAMMB captures the internal attributes of resilience, while SPARK processes the situational and process-oriented dynamics, offering a sound basis for studying resilience in L2 teaching contexts.

Studies focusing on teachers' resilience mainly categorize risk-provoking situations by discussing the issues involved in classroom management, organizational and working conditions, and lack of social support (Belknap & Taymans, 2015; Buchanan et al., 2013). Researchers have concluded that forgiveness, humor, optimism, hope, coping strategies, mentorship support, supportive relationships, and a favorable school climate can foster teacher resilience and temperance (Chen, 2024; Ghafouri, 2024; Mansfield et al., 2016). However, the studies in this field have mainly focused on recognizing the motives that trigger teacher resilience in the general population, leading to misconceptions (Chen, 2024). Further, most studies have focused on teacher resilience through the PP perspective, leading to a meta-theoretical under-representation of resilience by ignoring its existential aspects, including toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and belief (Moore, 2024; Wong, 2020).

Therefore, this shortage of inquiries becomes the source from which the present study obtains its significance. Firstly, the study sheds light on the existential aspects of L2 teachers' resilient mindset, which the field knows less about. Secondly, based on the SPARK framework, it provides a more context-dependent explanation of the factors that shape L2 teachers' responses in disturbing situations. The findings would provide insights into the facets of teachers' resilient mindset, which call for more investment and enlightenment. Also, the study would be fruitful to the field by helping educators and future researchers design proper resilience-promoting strategies, identifying the most salient situations, perceptions, affects, reactions, and knowledge base through the SPARK model. The endeavor is essential yet overlooked in L2 teaching contexts (Daniilidou, 2023; Mansfield, 2020; Mercer, 2021; Ungar, 2012).

Literature Review

Existential Positive Psychology

Around two decades ago, PP was introduced as a branch of general psychology and found its way into various disciplines such as sociology, philosophy, anthropology, politics, and language education (Snyder & Lopez, 2001; Wang et al., 2021). PP indicates that well-being can be studied, described, and discussed from two viewpoints. The hedonic view emphasizes life satisfaction, while the eudaimonic view highlights self-actualization (Snyder & Lopez, 2001; Thorsteinsen & Vittersø, 2019). While these views are often complementary in theory, their

implications might raise tensions in practice, as the hedonic focus on immediate happiness can conflict with the eudaimonic pursuit of long-term fulfillment, which may involve challenges or discomfort that do not align with short-term pleasure (Diener et al., 1999; Thorsteinsen & Vittersø, 2019).

Existential Positive Psychology (EPP), as a more realistic version of PP, emphasizes self-transcendence, which involves facing hardships in pursuit of a balanced, dialectical pathway between suffering and growth (Reischer et al., 2020). EPP promotes sustainable well-being and mature happiness, enabling individuals to endure life tensions (Reischer et al., 2020). Unlike PP, which often treats well-being and ill-being as distinct (Iasiello et al., 2020), EPP recognizes their interconnectedness, co-valence, and dialectical interplay (Wong et al., 2023; Zhao & Tay, 2022). Further, PP neglects how negative experiences can drive motivation, effort, and awareness (Strack et al., 2017), processes well-being as the absence of negativity (Engber, 2017), and overly prioritizes satisfaction (Klein et al., 2018; van Zyl et al., 2023). In contrast, EPP acknowledges that happiness and mental health fluctuate based on situational interpretations and individual attitudes (Iasiello et al., 2020; Zhao & Tay, 2022).

In this vein, EPP challenges PP by questioning its limited interpretations of well-being for the sake of a more nuanced, reality-based, and dynamic conceptualization of the concept by considering that well-being-driven factors such as grit, resilience, recovery co-exist next to ill-being indicators like anxiety, and depression (Oxford, 2016; Seligman, 2011). In doing so, EPP advocates that individuals truly live a happy life when they learn to embrace unpleasant feelings and thoughts, maintain their engagement despite failures, forgive for improved relationships, self-decentralize and transcend from egotism, and accomplish through sacrifice and overcoming turmoil (Kaufman, 2021; Reisher et al., 2021; van Zyl et al., 2023). EPP highlights that merely labeling the notions as 'positive or negative' does not mean that the outcomes will always be positive or negative. For instance, optimism as a positively-branded notion might not always function as a positive factor (Lomas et al., 2021; Wong, 2012; Wong & Wong, 2012). Also, EPP asserts that negative factors can contribute to well-being by triggering people to choose meaning and growth over hatred and bitterness and managing unwanted consequences of hatred and anxiety to achieve a happier and healthier life (Strack et al., 2017).

Resilient Mindset

Resilience is the capacity to handle stress and overcome challenging circumstances (Connor & Davidson, 2003). It involves not just enduring tough times but also thriving after facing hardships, including traumatic experiences (Philippe et al., 2018). Research highlights resilience as a key psychological strength which contributes to persistence and determination in difficult situations (Kyriacou & Sutcliffe, 1978; MacIntyre et al., 2019). Resilience theory suggests that the concept acts more as a shield against stress than a remedy, closely tied to protective traits that help counter workplace pressures and tensions (Thompson & Dobbins, 2018).

Recently, scholars have operationalized a more flexible, dynamic, and reality-based version of resilience and have called it *resilient mindset*. As noted earlier, based on Wong's (2020) TRAMMB model, a resilient mindset enables the individuals to persevere the challenges through toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and believe. Specifically, a person with a resilient mindset approaches life tensions deliberately and consciously by relying on physio-psychological, spiritual, and social resources (Arslan & Wong, 2023). Resilience promotes well-being (Pretsch et al., 2012), and understanding its role in reducing symptoms like anxiety, distress, and burnout has been an inspiring research trend, especially in language teaching contexts (Benesch, 2018; MacIntyre et al., 2019).

In a cross-cultural study, Wang et al. (2022) interviewed 18 Chinese and 15 Iranian EFL teachers, finding that personal factors significantly shape teachers' resilience. This finding was also reported by Brassington and Lomas (2020), who reviewed 33 studies involving 10,741 participants and concluded that resilience training boosts well-being in high-stress jobs. Examining 450 Iranian EFL teachers, Derakhshan et al. (2022) showed that resilience, grit, and well-being strongly influence teaching enjoyment, suggesting that tending to resilience empowers L2 teachers with preventive mechanisms beneficial for their occupational stress and challenging situations. Moreover, the growing body of literature on L2 teacher resilience indicates that highly resilient teachers are more inclined to the flourishing of well-being-related factors like grit, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy (Mansfield, 2020). They also have higher potentiality to detach from ill-being symptoms such as burnout and despair (Mansfield, 2020; Peters & Pearce, 2011). Recent studies on L2 teachers' resilience consistently reflect Mansfield et al.'s (2016) claims noting that resilient teachers benefit more from well-being and work engagement.

As for resilient mindset, Arewasikporn et al. (2019) studied the impact of positive affect on resilient thinking and shared enjoyment of 191 middle-aged adults and found that feeling good and having a positive outlook is part of a resilient mindset. Similarly, Hansen et al. (2021) found that people with less resilience were more likely to experience physical and mental health issues during the COVID-19 pandemic. Also, Arslan and Coşkun (2023) noted that a resilient mindset helps individuals reduce the connection between COVID-related stress and depression. Since resilient mindset has been an overlooked concept in resilience-based studies, Arslan and Wong's (2023) study led to the development of resilience mindset scale, the reliability and validity of which have been verified in a population of 327 adolescents and youths.

Within educational contexts, especially in the L2 domain, resilient mindset has yet to be considered. The main reason for this drawback is that principles of EPP have been entirely ignored in psycho-emotional studies conducted in L2 contexts, and the majority of the studies in this field have tried to profile the links between teachers' or learners' resilience to other cognitive or emotional factors like grit, and enjoyment (Brassington & Lomas, 2020; Derakhshan et al., 2022).

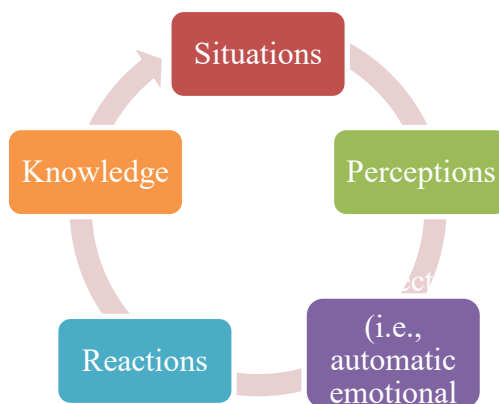
Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded in two complementary frameworks: Wong's (2020) TRAMMB model and Boniwell et al.'s (2023) SPARK model, which together provide a robust lens for examining L2 teachers' resilient mindset. As noted earlier, the TRAMMB model conceptualizes resilient mindset through six existential sub-components, including toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and belief. These factors are believed to help individuals properly manage their physio-psychological, spiritual, and social resources (Arslan & Wong, 2023; Wong, 2020). In the present study, the TRAMMB model helped us envision and measure resilient mindset quantitatively.

We also drew upon the SPARK model, which stems from cognitive-behavioral therapy and discusses resilience as a dynamic process where "everyday situations, as a function of individual perceptions, trigger emotions or affect, leading to behavioral reactions and learned knowledge" (Boniwell et al., 2023, p. 4; Boniwell & Ryan, 2009). The SPARK components offer a cyclical approach to understanding how individuals process and respond to stress, with studies confirming its effectiveness in designing resilience interventions (Boniwell et al., 2023; Figure 1). The SPARK model helped us design and implement the interview and analyze the qualitative findings. The rationale for using SPARK includes (a) its foundation in extensive resilience literature, ensuring credibility and validity (Boniwell et al., 2023), (b) its ability to provide concrete insights into L2 teaching dynamics, (c) its multidimensional approach to resilience, and (d) its flexibility in analyzing resilience factors individually or collectively. To best of our knowledge, despite its utility, the SPARK model has not been considered in L2 teaching research.

Figure 1

Schematic of SPARK model of resilience



Collectively, we sought two overlapping yet parallel goals: (a) to compare existential aspects of L2 teachers' resilience and (b) to identify and elaborate on the most salient factors that contribute to shaping L2 teachers' resilience-based responses to occupational challenges. The first objective helps the field, or at least Iranian language education context, in favor of a better understanding of L2 teachers' strengths regarding resilient mindset and plan on educating pre-service and in-service teachers and promote their resilience. In doing so, the second objective of the study would be fruitful since it offers the means through which researchers and educators can be more explicit and vocal while reflecting on resilience, resilience-triggering situations, and resilience-promotion strategies. Thus, we focused on finding the answers for the following questions:

1. To what extent do L2 teachers exhibit existential sub-components of resilient mindset?
2. How do L2 teachers shape a response to stressful situation?

Method

Design

In this study, we followed a sequential explanatory mixed-methods design, which intends to "have the qualitative data help explain in more detail the initial quantitative results" (Creswell & Creswell, 2017, p. 355). The quantitative phase comprised having the participants fill out the resilient mindset scale (Arslan & Wong, 2023). This phase helped us obtain the required data to profile the existential aspects of L2 teachers' resilient mindset and see how their existential resilience subcomponents differ. Qualitatively, we used semi-structured interviews until reaching a satisfactory saturation point (O'Reilly & Parker, 2013)—the trial that enabled us to obtain a more subjective view of teachers' responses to stressful situations. Since the study obtained data from human subjects, all teachers involved were fully briefed about the study objectives and researchers' expectations and were informed about ethical issues, including anonymity and confidentiality.

Context and Participants

A total of 157 Iranian EFL teachers (67=male, 90=female) with age ranging from 21 to 46 years ($M=30$) and mean teaching experience of 5 years participated in the study and answered the questionnaire. Of these, 113 teachers worked in state schools, 44 in private, and 120 in both state and private schools. The respondents were contacted through convenient sampling method which permits the inclusion of the individuals based on availability and ease of access. In the qualitative phase, 17 of them participated in the interview. The inclusion criteria for the qualitative phase were (a) having the least means on the resilience scale, (b) willingness to participate in a focus group structured interview while knowing about being categorized as low-resilience teacher, (c) having the experience of teaching in public schools, since they host challenges which might not be perceived in private sectors (e.g., overpopulated classes, insufficient materials, possible inter-personal conflicts with colleagues, heterogeneous learners).

Materials and Instruments

Resilient Mindset Scale (RMS)

RMS is a 5-point, 6-item Likert scale ranging from 0 (*almost never true*) to 4 (*almost always true*) designed and validated by Arslan and Wong (2023) and is based on EPP perspectives and addresses six existential aspects of individuals' resilient mindset by dedicating one item to their personal competence, control, trust in instincts, stress management, tolerance of negative affect, acceptance of change, secure relationships, and spiritual growth. The scale developers also reported on the factor analysis process and convergent-divergent validation of the scale by establishing links between resilient mindset and thriving, subjective academic well-being, and internalized behavior inventory (Arslan & Wong, 2023). The scale also aligns with Wong's (2020) TRAMMB model of existential resilience, which included toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and belief. The results of the multi-trait multi-method matrices reported by Arslan and Wong (2023) verified that the scale strongly and positively links to well-being and positive functioning while negatively predicting psychological distress. Prior to the study, the reliability of the scale was tested in the pilot phase and its content validity was checked by two experts in general psychology and applied linguistics.

Structured interview

The qualitative component of this study consisted of five focus group interview questions (see Appendix) designed to explore L2 teachers' resilient mindset through the lens of the SPARK model (Boniwell et al., 2023). Each question aligned with a specific component of the framework, including situation, perception, affect, reaction, and knowledge to systematically investigate how teachers process occupational stressors. Accordingly, the first question focused on accounts of stressful classroom situations. The second and third questions shed light on teachers' perceptions and emotional responses, to capture the cognitive and affective dimensions of resilience. The fourth question examined teachers' behavioral reactions, while the fifth question explored the knowledge gained by teachers after dealing with the challenges.

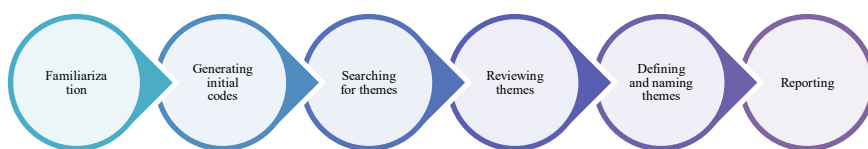
Procedure

We collected the data in two phases. In the quantitative phase, 157 EFL teachers recruited through convenient sampling answered to six questions of the RMS. Answering the first research question, we initially checked the assumptions of normality and reliability through estimating skewness and normality along with Cronbach's alpha. Further, we checked the mean average across the six components of the RMS (i.e., toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and believe) to evidence the extent to which L2 teachers reflect the existential components of resilient mindset. To test the significance of the means between six components of the RMS, we ran Multivariate Analysis of Variances (MONOVA).

The qualitative phase of the study helped us to elicit the required data for the second research question. In this phase, we interviewed 17 teachers up until satisfactory saturation point, where no new themes or sub-themes emerged in the answers. The respondents were interviewed in Google Meet platform, and they answered to five questions in one-on-one online sessions. For ease of answering, they were also permitted to submit their responses via recording through Telegram or WhatsApp platforms. In either case, we transcribed the answers and followed the six-step process of thematic analysis outlined by Braun and Clark (2006) (Figure 2).

Figure 2

Thematic analysis process (Braun & Clark, 2006)



In the initial stage, we reviewed the transcribed data multiple times, noting down early observations that informed the emergence of the initial codes. We also systematically identified and coded notable aspects of the data across the entire dataset. In the third step, we grouped codes into potential themes, and in the fourth step, we refined these themes to develop a thematic map for the analysis. We continued refining until the themes were clearly defined and categorized. Finally, we compared the themes with existing literature and compiled the report. Since the study relied on SPARK model of resilience for analyzing the factors that shape the teachers' responses to stressful situations, we followed the afore-mentioned process for each sub-category of the SPARK model, including situations, perceptions, affect, reaction, and knowledge.

Data Analysis

The quantitative data analysis was conducted to assess the extent to which L2 teachers exhibit existential sub-components of resilient mindset. Normality of the data was confirmed through skewness and kurtosis indices. The reliability was established with a Cronbach's alpha of .709, indicating acceptable internal consistency. We also used Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to examine differences in mean scores across the six RMS components (toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and belief). Bonferroni post-hoc tests were also conducted to identify specific differences and significance testing (Gray & Kinnear, 2012; Pallant, 2016).

Qualitatively, two external coders familiar with the Braun and Clark's (2006) six-step framework of the thematic analysis and EPP were recruited to ensure the rigor of the thematic analysis. The analysis was deductive, guided by the SPARK components to identify themes shaping L2 teachers' responses to stressful

situations. Coding was performed manually to ensure detailed interpretation, along with MAXQDA 2020 software for data organization and visualization. Notably, coding was conducted independently, and discrepancies were resolved through negotiation. Inter-rater agreement showed that the findings enjoy .83 Cohen's Kappa, which is a perfect agreement based on Landis and Koch (1977). The credibility of the findings was also checked through the member-checking process in which respondents reflected on the generated categories and themes (Cloutier & Ravasi, 2021). Regular debriefing sessions were held to ensure alignment with the research objectives and to minimize subjective bias. To further address potential bias, we maintained a reflexive journal throughout the coding process, which helped us to track the coding process through documenting decisions, reflections, and possible biased influences on the coding process. The procedures aligned with Nassaji's (2020) outlines for qualitative research features.

Results

Quantitative Results

Results of normality indices (i.e., skewness and kurtosis) fell between ± 2 ; thus, the assumption of normality was fulfilled. Checking the reliability of RMS, we used Cronbach's alpha method, which showed acceptable reliability index ($\alpha = .709$, $N = 6$). Table 1 shows the Iranian EFL teachers' means on six variables. They had the highest mean on meaning ($M = 2.85$). This was followed by responsibility ($M = 2.77$), toughness ($M = 2.73$), belief ($M = 2.63$), mindfulness ($M = 2.56$), and appreciation ($M = 2.54$).

Table 1
Descriptive statistics for six tests

	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Prepared				
Toughness	2.73	.074	2.58	2.87
Responsibility	2.77	.082	2.60	2.93
Appreciation	2.54	.098	2.34	2.73
Mindfulness	2.56	.078	2.41	2.72
Meaning	2.85	.068	2.72	2.98
Belief	2.63	.079	2.47	2.78

A Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted to assess differences in the mean scores of Iranian EFL teachers across six subscales of the Resilient Mindset Scale (RMS; toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and belief). The MANOVA results, shown in Table 2 ($F(5, 152) = 4.15$, $p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .120$, indicating a moderate effect size), revealed significant variations in the teachers' mean scores on these subscales. The moderate effect size suggests that while the differences are not substantial, they are significant enough to merit consideration, indicating that the existential aspects of resilience, as measured by the RMS, may differ in their significance or emphasis among EFL teachers. Notably, the partial eta squared effect size should be interpreted using the thresholds: .01 = weak, .06 = moderate, and .17 = large (Gray & Kinnear, 2012; Pallant, 2016).

Table 2

Multivariate tests for six components of resilient mindset

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's Trace	.120	4.159	5	152	.001	.120
Wilks' Lambda	.880	4.159	5	152	.001	.120
Hotelling's Trace	.137	4.159	5	152	.001	.120
Roy's Largest Root	.137	4.159	5	152	.001	.120

Bonferroni post-hoc comparison tests were conducted to provide a detailed analysis of significant differences among the Resilient Mindset Scale (RMS) subscales (Table 3). Accordingly, the EFL teachers' mean score on toughness ($M = 2.73$) showed no significant differences with (a) appreciation ($M = 2.54$, $MD = .191$, $p > .05$), (b) mindfulness ($M = 2.56$, $MD = .166$, $p > .05$), or (c) belief ($M = 2.63$, $MD = .102$, $p > .05$). These results were consistent across other subscales; however, the EFL teachers' mean score on meaning ($M = 2.85$) was significantly higher than on mindfulness ($M = 2.56$, $MD = .284$, $p < .05$).

Table 3

Pairwise comparisons tests for resilient mindset sub-components

(I) Tests	(J) Tests	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Toughness	Appreciation	.191	.120	1.000	-.166	.549
	Mindfulness	.166	.094	1.000	-.114	.445
	Belief	.102	.094	1.000	-.178	.382
Responsibility	Toughness	.038	.098	1.000	-.254	.331
	Appreciation	.229	.105	.456	-.084	.542
	Mindfulness	.204	.080	.172	-.034	.441
Mindfulness	Belief	.140	.087	1.000	-.120	.401
	Appreciation	.025	.112	1.000	-.309	.360
	Toughness	.121	.094	1.000	-.161	.403
Meaning	Responsibility	.083	.080	1.000	-.155	.321
	Appreciation	.312	.110	.074	-.014	.639
	Mindfulness	.287*	.077	.004	.058	.515
Belief	Belief	.223	.080	.086	-.014	.460
	Appreciation	.089	.112	1.000	-.243	.422
	Mindfulness	.064	.083	1.000	-.183	.310

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

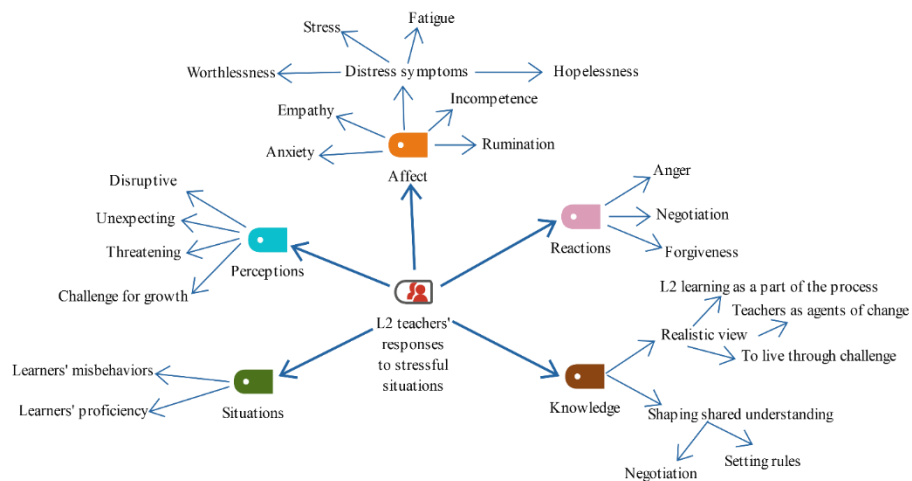
Qualitative Findings

Figure 3 illustrates the main themes obtained through qualitative analysis, which aimed to provide a better view of factors that shape the language teachers'

response to stressful situations by relying on the SPARK model of resilience, which permits the identification of stress-provoking situations, individuals' perceptions of the situations, their immediate feelings and affect, reactions, and the knowledge they obtained from their tense experiences. Notably, a summary of excerpts for each theme has been included in Appendix B. The description of each aspect is as follows:

Figure 3

Thematic map of SPARK model among L2 teachers



Situations

Learners' misbehaviors and proficiency issues emerged as the two most frequent factors in the situation category. Specifically, two main situations seemed challenging for teachers. Regarding learners' misbehaviors, teachers asserted that this factor takes two forms: misbehaviors toward teachers and interpersonal conflicts with classmates, as reflected in the following extracts:

I was teaching an advanced English class for adult learners in an evening program. The class comprised diverse students, including professionals, immigrants, and international students. One evening, a heated debate arose during a discussion on cultural stereotypes. Two students, from different cultural backgrounds, began arguing intensely, with the conversation escalating into personal attacks. Other students became visibly uncomfortable, and the class atmosphere grew tense. (T15)

Teachers also believed that learners' low performance is challenging and exposes them to a mixture of bad feelings and thoughts, including a sense of incompetence and inefficacy, especially in classes with heterogeneous students. As the following teacher asserts:

In the third month of the term, Amir, a new student and immigrant from a Middle Eastern country, joined my advanced English class. Unlike the other students who were already proficient in English, Amir struggled with basic sentence structures and vocabulary. The school administration placed him in my class due to a scheduling conflict, despite his lower proficiency. The other students were preparing for English proficiency exams like IELTS and TOEFL. This situation created a significant imbalance in the class dynamics, as Amir required more foundational instruction, while the others needed advanced practice. (T4)

Perceptions

Analysis showed that teachers' initial perceptions of the situations ranged from negative to positive attitudes. For most teachers, tense situations were unexpected, disruptive to the teaching and learning process, and a threat to their agency. Meanwhile, two of the respondents noted that they saw those situations as a means for reflection and personal growth; thus, they tried to see the bright side of the issues:

I found it out by the tone of laugh. Actually, I got nervous and deeply sorry. It was huge threat for me, because teaching was my best chance at that time, so the more mismanagement of the class, the more probability of losing my job. (T13)

Affect

The only positive theme that emerged under this category was teachers' empathy, which was mainly the byproduct of their immediate forgiveness, mindful thinking, and reflection on the situation. However, feelings like anxiety, doubt, stress, fatigue, hopelessness, worthlessness, and incompetence emerged as frequent affective factors. Additionally, teachers noted that they continued to ruminate the harsh and irreversible thoughts even after their class was finished. For instance, a teacher noted that "On my way home, I thought about whether what I said to my students was right or wrong" (T5). Likewise, another teacher said,

I thought I was like a worthless thing in the classroom and wanted to leave the class immediately. But I told myself, please be patient and try to get along with your learners, they are like your children, they really need your help. (T13)

Reactions

Negotiating classroom issues with students, although overwhelming for the teachers, was the most frequent answer in this category. Teachers believed that the number of solutions they had was limited, and they only had a few choices in tense situations. Five of them noted that challenging situations make them angry, seemingly the outcome of feeling an array of negative emotions mentioned earlier. Further, we noticed that teachers rely on their forgiveness as a solution; however, clarifying the classroom rules, trying to reconcile bonds through discussion seemed to be more effective reactions for them:

I explained kindly to him that others have the right to express their ideas and I asked him to raise his hand whenever he wanted to talk. It was a bit hard but I controlled him. Whenever I gave him a chance to talk, he talked a lot about the subject from different aspects leaving nothing for others to say. That was why I asked him to talk about a question briefly in a way to leave something for others to say. He took my advice. (T12)

Knowledge

Reflecting on the lessons that teachers learned from the tense situations, the respondents emphasized the importance of processing life and occupational event through a realistic view, which prioritizes the ideas that (1) language learning is only a part of the learning process, (2) teachers are the agents of change, and (3) to live through challenges is inevitable of everyone's life. Additionally, they asserted that determining clear classroom rules and negotiation in advance would function as resources that can help them in subsequent tense incidents:

Education is multifaceted and limiting one's mindset on teaching the subject content would lead to several issues. Our learners reflect the interplay of several personal, sociocultural, and varied backgrounds, and what we observe in one session or two, can't be considered as a proper measure for our judgments as teacher. (T14)

We cross-validated the quantitative and qualitative findings to ensure alignment and synergy of the results. The quantitative analysis showed that 'meaning' had the highest mean score among the RMS components ($M = 2.85$). This result aligns with the qualitative theme of 'reflective growth,' where teachers elaborated on their ability and preferences to obtain meaningful insights from challenging teaching experiences. Similarly, the emergence of 'empathy' and 'negotiation and forgiveness' in the interviews aligned with the quantitative findings of moderate scores on 'responsibility' ($M = 2.77$) and 'toughness' ($M = 2.73$). Teachers expressed their ability to empathize with students, which frequently resulted from a mindful and reflective approach to managing stress. Quantitatively, the scores on 'mindfulness' ($M = 2.56$) support this observation, suggesting a moderate but significant presence of this trait. The quantitative scores also highlighted 'responsibility' as a key component, with a mean score of 2.77, second only to 'meaning.' This was mirrored in the qualitative data through themes such as 'negotiation and reconciliation,' where teachers demonstrated a proactive approach to managing classroom conflicts. The participants frequently mentioned the importance of setting clear expectations and maintaining open communication, which aligns with the quantitative finding that responsibility plays a central role in not only managing stressful situations but also setting the stage for shared understanding. In contrast, the lower quantitative scores for 'appreciation' ($M = 2.54$) and 'belief' ($M = 2.63$) were reflected in qualitative themes such as 'feelings of incompetence' and 'hopelessness.' Teachers described moments of self-doubt and fatigue, particularly when faced with persistent classroom challenges or disruptive behaviors. The findings in this case suggest that while existential resilience is present among

teachers, certain components, including teachers' beliefs and appreciation mindset require more consideration.

Discussion

Informed by EPP principles, we investigated L2 teachers' resilient mindset through a mixed-methods approach and profiled the existential sub-components of teachers' resilient mindset along with several underlying themes which contribute to teachers' response in stressful situations.

Based on the SPARK model of resilience, our analysis revealed that L2 teachers mainly suffer from learners' misbehaviors and low proficiency as the two influential stress-triggering situations in L2 classes. Thus, the findings verified the results of previous studies, which reported students' dishonesty, disrespect, disobedience, rudeness, asking irrelevant questions, excessive talking out of turn, and verbal aggression as main challenges in classroom management (Debreli & Ishanova, 2019; Seli et al., 2021; Sun & Shek, 2012). Adding to the literature, our findings also revealed that learners' poor L2 performance can add to teachers' concerns. Specifically, findings showed that learners' poor performance and achievements undermine the teachers' competence and efficacy and expose them to unwanted perceptions like incompetence and stress. In line with Arewasikporn et al. (2019), we argue that tense situations, as emerged in the findings, impede L2 teachers' perceptions of feeling good and positive outlook on themselves in the classroom context. Furthermore, the findings comply with Belknap and Taymans (2015) and Buchanan et al. (2013), who discussed classroom management issues and working conditions as the main categories of risk-provoking situations.

Regarding the perceptions and affect components of the SPARK model, our findings revealed that L2 teachers often perceive stressful classroom situations, such as students' irrelevant questions, excessive use of mother tongue, unwillingness to communicate, and low motivation, as disruptive, unexpected, and threatening to their agency and the learning process (Debreli & Ishanova, 2019). Most teachers described these situations as harmful, while a few saw them as opportunities for growth and development, as reflected in EPP principles (Iasiello et al., 2020; van Zyl et al., 2023; Zhao & Tay, 2022). Processing the stressful situations in the L2 class through the SPARK model, we found that teachers feel anxious and incompetent while suffering from rumination of unwanted thoughts. Moreover, a range of distress-related symptoms, such as worthlessness, fatigue, hopelessness, and stress, was also identified. As noted by Masten (2015) and Wong and Wong (2012), resilience positively links to self-efficacy, self-esteem, social support, and environmental conditions and resources; however, sense of incompetence and insufficiency, as emerged in the findings, signal the idea that stressful situations would possibly adversely impact the self-confidence and self-esteem of the teachers, especially, by reflecting on the affect portion of the SPARK model, based on which L2 teachers indicated that tense situations make them feel hopeless and incapable.

The reactions component of the SPARK model indicated that most L2 teachers employ constructive strategies, such as negotiation and forgiveness for managing tense situations and welcome reconciliation (Mansfield et al., 2016; Chen,

2024). Although a few teachers admitted to occasionally losing their temper, none viewed anger or punishment as effective solutions. Teachers' empathy toward students' misbehaviors and poor performance, as noted in the 'affect' component, provided more evidence for Ghafouri (2024), who noted that forgiveness potentially leads to less fatigue, anxiety, and rumination while persevering teachers' authority. Reflecting on the findings, we see that disturbing situations can make the teachers anxious, drain their energy (i.e., fatigue), and trigger their rumination while being a threat to their authority. Thus, as a reaction emerged in the findings, teachers' reliance on forgiveness can help them detach from some of the unwanted and disturbing classroom experiences.

Finally, in the knowledge portion of the SPARK model, teachers' exposure to tense situations shaped an insight that reflected the properties of a resilient mindset. On the one hand, teachers noted that they have learned that L2 learning is just a part of the process, implying that what occurs in real-time teaching includes a series of unwanted incidents, unplanned hassles, and sometimes tense experiences. Arguably, these situations enlighten them to set rules and negotiate a shared understanding with learners. In this vein, the results reflected a reorientation in teachers' mindset, where the disturbing situations taught them to see themselves as agents of change rather than stress-ridden, incompetent individuals, irrespective of experience, gender, or other demographic backgrounds (Oxford, 2016; Reischer et al., 2020; Wong et al., 2023). Arguably, a resilient mindset functioned as a catalyst through which teachers' ill-being-related thoughts, like anxiety and distress, were recognized, analyzed, and processed into insightful, constructive, and promising thoughts, which not only helped teachers reshape their stressful thoughts but also clarified the why and how of what they do in their classroom. In the process, resilient mindset facilitates reframing, shifting the maladaptive cognitions into growth-oriented perspectives, such as viewing a classroom setback as "*valuable feedback for refining my instructional strategies*" rather than an overwhelming barrier.

The results showed that teachers do not traverse the resilience-buildup process similarly, implying that each existential sub-component of teachers' resilient mindset contribute uniquely to their ability to respond to classroom challenges. Drawing on resilient mindset literature (Arslan & Wong, 2021; Gucciardi, 2020; Jans-Beken & Wong, 2019; Moore, 2024; Wong, 2020; Wong, 2023a, b), we argue that these findings indicated that L2 teachers find purpose in teaching experiences, adapt responsibly to stressors, endure challenges through toughness, maintain optimism and empathy through belief, approach difficulties mindfully, and appreciate positive classroom dynamics despite student-related issues. However, the moderate difference between these aspects suggested that future teacher education programs could focus more on developing underemphasized sub-components such as appreciation, mindfulness, and belief through targeted resilience promotion protocols, especially by reflecting on the SPARK model results, which provided more tangible factors contributing to teachers' resilience development.

As captured by the RMS, teachers' highest rates on the meaning indicated that L2 teachers are prone to find silver linings in hardship. The claim is backed by

the SPARK analysis, where many teachers viewed their occupational challenges, like learners' misbehaviors or low proficiency, as opportunities for growth and development and reflective processing of tense situations that help them to shape a better mindset about their role as a teacher in not only their own development but also their students' future. Specifically, our findings showed that in disruptive and unexpected situations, teachers would try to maintain a sense of purpose and meaning; as mentioned by a teacher, "I have realized that my students' issues are also my problems and tending to those issues, and adding to what they should value as human beings is my responsibility" (T1).

Responsibility and toughness were ranked second and third in the quantitative results, highlighting teachers' resilience as a means of thriving classroom dynamics. Based on the SPARK findings, we argue that many L2 teachers respond to learner-related stressors by being more accountable or setting robust rules, negotiating, and a trial for shared understanding. As a result of enduring emotional tensions, teachers are likely to become more resilient since their toughness helps them endure anxiety or perceived incompetence. The close interplay between teachers' toughness and responsibility aligns with the theoretical underpinnings of a resilient mindset (Arslan & Wong, 2021, 2023; Daniilidou, 2023). Ranked lower than meaning and toughness, teachers' belief was the other sub-component of resilient mindset. Teachers mentioned that their belief in a bright future and the so-called better upcoming days honed their mindset for dealing with classroom realities in tense situations. This further justifies the emergence of empathy under the perceived affect. Likewise, many teachers demonstrated that even in peak anger or distress, forgiveness and the trial for reconciliation helped them deal with the problems—the association that undermines the dual nature of a resilient mindset, as conceptualized through the scope of EPP. Specifically, based on the findings, we argue that resilience is both a struggle and a resource for not giving up. Finally, low scores on mindfulness and appreciation suggest that these resilience dimensions may develop over time as teachers become more experienced. As emerged in the qualitative findings, teachers' exposure to stressful situations might overwhelm them with anxiety, distress, and rumination, which would, in turn, hinder their capability to practice mindfulness or gratitude.

Conclusion

Responding to the drawbacks of PP, we focused on L2 teachers' resilient mindset, an EPP-driven concept encompassing toughness, responsibility, appreciation, mindfulness, meaning, and belief. The trial theoretically justified the need for reconsidering resilience-promotion programs in L2 teaching contexts and offers a more detailed profile of L2 teachers' resilient mindset. While the quantitative results highlighted trends of existential aspects of teachers' resilience, the qualitative data provided depth and context, offering a more subjective understanding of resilience among L2 teachers, especially in Iranian context.

Some implications can be induced from the present study. Moving backward from the knowledge portion of the SPARK model to the situations wedge, scholars and teacher educators can inform L2 teachers by raising their awareness

about the lessons they can learn from tense situations. In this vein, workshops and consciousness-raising sessions can help teachers share their experiences and negotiate the protective means beneficial in L2 classes. In this regard, reverse reflection on SPARK (i.e., KRAPS) can help teachers. In other words, teachers can rely on the present findings or share similar narratives based on what they have learned from their tough experiences and gain a deeper insight into factors that can be controlled, alleviated, neutralized, and ignored during L2 teaching. Also, teacher educators can focus on subcomponents of resilient mindset to cultivate this protective mechanism among the L2 teachers, especially by considering the premise that focusing on this notion helps teachers in several aspects, including increased enjoyment, grit, well-being, and decreased ill-being symptoms (Arslan & Coşkun, 2023; Derakhshan et al., 2022; Mansfield, 2020; Peters & Pearce, 2011; Pretsch et al., 2012; Thompson & Dobbins, 2018). Our findings also implied that prioritizing the value of meaning and responsibility in teacher education programs, workshops, and reflective practices can help teachers connect their daily challenges to broader professional goals. The prevalence of anxiety, distress, and anger and low scores on mindfulness in teachers' responses imply that teacher education programs, especially in Iran, are in urgent need of including mindfulness-based practices and emotion-regulation strategies within the teacher preparation courses.

Future studies can build upon the limitations of the present study. First, the generalizability of the present findings can be improved with a larger and more diverse sample size. Highly resilient teachers could receive more attention in subsequent qualitative studies, especially considering that the participants involved in our interview had the lowest resilient scores compared to others. More robust research designs and data collection procedures can be considered while conducting future trials. Like other psycho-emotional factors, a resilient mindset is prone to change; thus, repeated measures designs can provide a better insight into how teachers' perceptions of resilience fluctuate over time.

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Appendix A

Interview questions

1. Please describe the specific stressful situation you encountered in your class. Be as detailed as possible, including the context, what happened, and who was involved.
2. How did you initially perceive this situation? What thoughts and feelings did it trigger in you? Did you see it as an obstacle, a threat, or an opportunity?
3. How did you feel? (e.g., anxious, frustrated, angry, overwhelmed, etc.).
4. How did you react to the situation? What did you do or say? Did your actions align with your own values, emotions, and thoughts?
5. What did you learn from that experience? Did it change your understanding of yourself or your teaching? How did it shape your future approach to similar situations?

Appendix B

Interview excerpts

A. Situation

One of the students walked to the window and started yelling at people in the street and calling them, while I was teaching. (T8)

I was writing something on the board in a class filled with 40 students, and one of the students said: 'headshot' and the whole class started laughing. (T10)

A student of mine saw herself as the authority of the class due to her higher age compared to mine. She used to write the translation of every word she didn't know. One time, I tried to make her aware of the benefits and drawbacks of translation in language learning. Meanwhile, another student, who was more proficient, tried to inform her about this point, but she started to quarrel. (T16)

B. Perception

I initially perceived the situation as both an obstacle and a potential threat to the classroom's safe environment. My primary concern was maintaining a respectful and inclusive atmosphere for all students. I was concerned about the immediate need to de-escalate the situation and the longer-term implications for classroom dynamics and trust. (T15)

Initially, I tried to ignore their disruptive behavior and maintain a calm demeanor. However, as time went on, I realized that this approach wasn't effective. I felt embarrassed and unable to follow my lesson plan. (T17)

C. Affect

In the heat of the moment, I felt a surge of anxiety and frustration. I was anxious about the conflict escalating further and frustrated that my carefully planned lesson was derailed. At the same time, I felt a deep sense of empathy for both Amir and Maria. Amir was clearly struggling with more than just language barriers, while Maria's frustration, though expressed inappropriately, stemmed from a genuine desire to complete the task effectively. Balancing these emotions, I took a deep breath and prepared to intervene constructively. (T4)

D. Reaction

I asked the class to review the rules and I was sure that she was listening even if not looking at us. I told them if you follow the rules in fact, you are respecting yourself and encouraged them to be on time. (T2)

Now that I think about that moment, I see that I should have gone easier on them. (T5)

E. Knowledge

I learned that nobody, even my students, is perfect and we have to appreciate the realities of life. Instead of my learners' scores, I try to reflect on their trial for growth and progress. (T3)

I learned the importance of setting clear guidelines for discussions on sensitive topics and being prepared to mediate conflicts. It reinforced the need for cultural sensitivity and proactive conflict resolution skills in the classroom. I realized the value of staying calm and composed in the face of challenges, which helped me handle the situation more effectively. This experience shaped my future approach by prompting me to incorporate regular discussions on cultural understanding and respect into my curriculum. I also developed a more robust set of classroom management strategies to handle similar situations in the future. (T4)

Education is multifaceted and limiting one's mindset on teaching the subject content would lead to several issues. Our learners reflect the interplay of several personal, sociocultural, and varied backgrounds, and what we observe in one session or two, can't be considered as a proper measure for our judgments as teacher. (T14)

The experience also deepened my understanding of the emotional dynamics in a multicultural classroom and the importance of empathy and active listening. Moving forward, I became more proactive in setting the tone for discussions, ensuring that potentially sensitive topics were handled with care and that all students felt heard and respected. I also incorporated more activities that fostered mutual understanding and empathy among students from different backgrounds. (T15)

Authors' Biographies



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Developing L2 Speaking Fluency in Online Learning Through Two Motivation-Based Instructional Frameworks

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Abstract

While second/foreign language (L2) speaking fluency is essential for effective communication, fostering it in distance online education settings continues to pose substantial challenges. This study sought to examine the effectiveness of two motivation-based instructional frameworks/models, namely the ARCS-based and L2MSS vision-inspired models, in promoting L2 speaking fluency in an online learning context. In doing so, 61 upper-intermediate L2 (English) learners in three intact classes, chosen based on convenience sampling, were divided into two experimental groups and one control group. The experimental groups received instruction based on the ARCS (Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction) and L2MSS (Second Language Motivational Self System) frameworks, while the control group received conventional teaching. The three groups were pretested and posttested through structured interviews, with the resulting data imported into PRAAT software. The non-parametric test results revealed significant differences, with the ARCS and L2MSS groups outperforming the control group on speaking fluency measures such as the number of silent pauses and articulation rate. The findings underscore the importance of motivation-oriented interventions in the development of speaking fluency in distance learning.

Keywords: ARCS, L2MSS, Motivational Programs, Online Learning, Speaking Fluency

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Introduction

Motivation is widely regarded as a key determinant in second/foreign language (L2) learning. It is essential for student engagement, whose intensity can influence L2 fulfilment rate (Nguyen et al., 2020). Therefore, researchers (e.g., Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008; Li & Huang, 2024; Zhou et al., 2024) have resorted to more practice-oriented approaches regarding motivation. Keller (1979, 1999, 2010) identified four components of the construct of motivation and put forward the ARCS (attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction) model, highlighting personal needs and positive expectancy for success. Moreover, drawing on *self* psychology, Dörnyei (2005) introduced the L2 motivational self system (L2MSS), which aims to help individuals get away from the existing self and approach the imagined self (Dörnyei, 2009) through visionary images of the future.

For many L2 learners, speaking fluency represents L2 proficiency (Tavakoli & Hunter, 2018) and they seek to achieve it (Naghavian, 2024). Generally, fluency is characterized by those dimensions of linguistic performance that are related to the smoothness of language use or fluidity (Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). Fluency, in its broad sense, corresponds with language proficiency, whereas, in a narrow sense, it deals with time-related features of speech (Yan et al., 2020). Since unfragmented speech marks proficient L2 users, speaking fluency should be prioritized in L2 programs.

Although speaking fluency has been explored in various contexts in the past decades, little research has targeted it in distance education, particularly with an eye on motivation-based instructional frameworks. Additionally, the use of technology has expedited online learning (Arifin et al., 2025), which can provide opportunities for the development of L2 oral skills (Timpe-Laughlin et al., 2024). This study scrutinized speaking fluency development in synchronous online learning through two motivation-based instructions/interventions, namely ARCS-based motivational and L2MSS vision-inspired instructions.

Literature Review

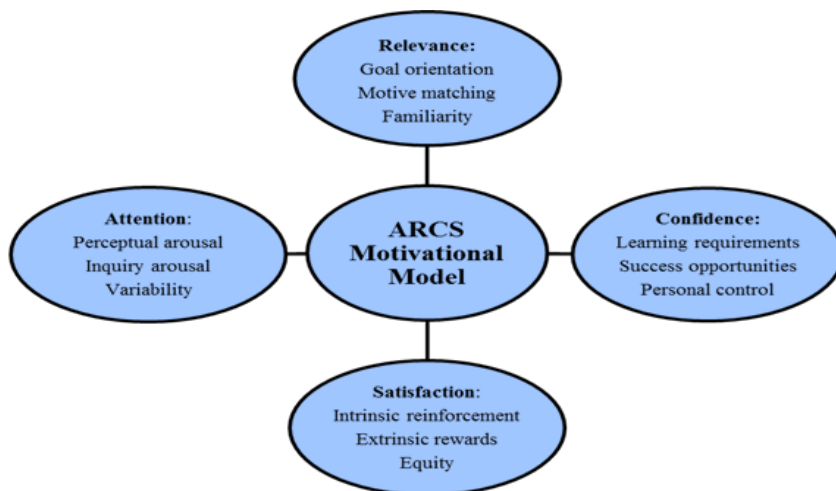
Initial motivation conceptualizations, which date back to the early 20th century, rest on instincts and drives (Johnson, 2022). In behavioristic psychology, motivation is defined as an attribute that arises if conditioning occurs (Schunk, 2012). Such a position leaves limited space for volitional decision-making. On the other hand, cognitive psychologists have maintained that motivation is proportional to cognitive engagement, and that high levels of motivation are directly associated with cognitive strategy use (Lee & Koszalka, 2016). Similarly, humanistic approaches do not probe motivation in a vacuum and distinguish between intrinsic motivation and external reinforcements (Deci & Ryan, 2011). Both cognitive and humanistic approaches agree with the process-oriented delineation of motivation, which assumes variations in motivation over time in changing contexts (Bower, 2017).

Developed as a synthesis of motivation-related concepts and features (Keller, 1987, 2010), the ARCS model considers the components of attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction to build a self-contained motivation model in educational contexts. It is rooted in expectancy-value theory. Expectancy for success can be viewed as an individual's perception of his/her ability and how well he/she can do in a given task whereas task values can be regarded as the subjective significance or task motivational appeal, which influences the likelihood of participation in a task (Nagle, 2021).

The ARCS model features three important qualities. These qualities include characterizing the key components of human motivation, devising practical strategies to motivate learners, and having a systematic design process which can be executed with typical instructional design models. This model is identified with four distinctive components/elements (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

Components and Subcomponents of the ARCS Model



The attention element of the ARCS model, as displayed in Figure 1, is related to attracting learners to the stimuli and sustaining it. The relevance element deals with the consistency between the learning requirements and future needs. The likelihood of success in learning and its experience in learning settings lead learners to a level of confidence, as the third element. The satisfaction element postulates that learning is reinforced if internal and external rewards are defined and offered in a timely fashion.

Researchers (e.g., Kurt & Keçik, 2017; Ucar & Kumtepe, 2019; Wu, 2018), using the ARCS framework to investigate language-related variables, have demonstrated its effectiveness, especially in technology-enhanced settings (Ma & Lee, 2021). Wu (2018) exhibited the efficiency of using the ARCS model for constructing a game-based English vocabulary practice system and fostering lexical

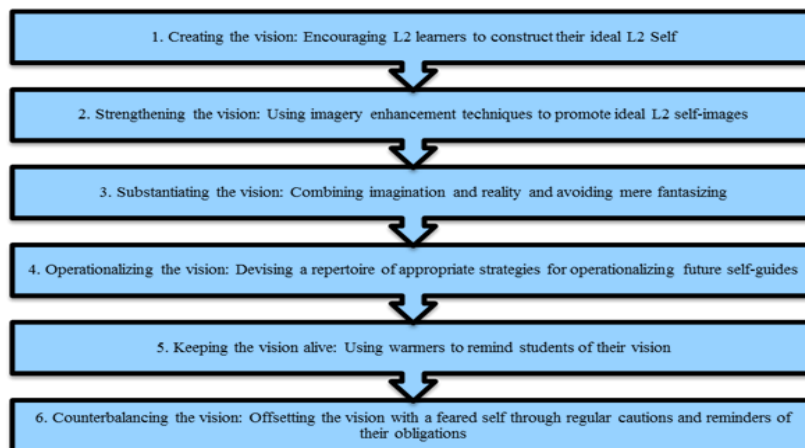
retention of English vocabulary at a Taiwanese university. Also, Ucar and Kumtepe (2019) applied the model in an English course for undergraduate online learners, yielding significantly higher gains in the course interest and academic performance. Furthermore, the ARCS model has been used to improve learner engagement and motivation in virtual settings in other fields (e.g., Huett et al., 2008; Jeong et al., 2023).

The growing dissatisfaction with the early Gardnerian perspective of motivation led researchers (e.g., Dörnyei, 2005) to look for more comprehensive alternatives. Dörnyei (2005), resorting to Markus and Nurius's (1986) Possible Selves theory, Higgins's (1987) theory of self-discrepancy, and his own large-scale study in Hungary, proposed the L2MSS model, which has been used or validated in research studies. It is based on three main components. As Dörnyei (2005) describes, the ideal L2 self refers to the L2-specific dimension of an individual's ideal self. It depicts an ideal picture of the L2 user's future regarding their wishes and aspirations. It concerns how a person views the L2 qualities they wish to develop (Henry & Liu, 2024). Ought-to L2 self deals with the requisite L2-related qualities one must obtain. It is a projected self which is governed by the expectations of significant others, such as parents and teachers (Xu & Wang, 2022). L2 learning experience refers to the environmental conditions of L2 learning, including teachers, peers, and the curriculum.

Additionally, imagery has been identified as an important aspect of the L2MSS model, enabling L2 learners to envision a desirable vision. According to Dörnyei (2005), this mental self-image can motivate L2 learners to take action in accomplishing their visionary future selves. Thus, he proposed a vision enhancement program, relying on L2MSS, to reinforce the possible selves. A brief outline of the key steps in the vision enhancement program (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) is displayed in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Key Steps in the Vision Enhancement Program



Empirical studies utilizing the L2MSS model fall into two major groups. The first group concentrates on correlational studies (e.g., Kim & Kim, 2011; Lamb, 2012), aiming to determine the predictive power of the model. The second group comprises experimental studies (e.g., Chan, 2014; Ye & Hu, 2025), aiming to exploit the L2MSS's practical potential for developing learners' motivational and L2 learning performance. Sato and Lara (2019) employed vision intervention strategies such as imagery techniques and visual stimuli, which led to the substantiation of the L2 learners' ideal L2 self. In another study, Ghasemi (2022) launched a vision-based motivational program. The results indicated meaningful improvements in terms of mitigated helplessness symptoms and academic achievement. However, there exists limited empirical research that has invested in the effectiveness of the L2MSS vision enhancement framework in the L2 context in relation to oral L2 skills.

Speaking fluency is among the foremost measures of L2 competence (Tavakoli et al., 2020). It "refers to the learner's smoothness and speed oral productions (Handley & Wang 2024). However, there are various definitions and assessment strategies for L2 speaking fluency. Segalowitz (2010) proposed a triadic framework, which comprises three aspects: cognitive, utterance, and perceived fluency. Cognitive fluency deals with the L2 speaker's mental capacity or linguistic knowledge to deliver L2 speech, which is the coordination of various interacting cognitive processes. Utterance fluency deals with the actual act of performance by the L2 speaker. Perceived fluency pertains to the L2 listener's assessment of the interlocutor's cognitive fluency. Most often, speaking fluency is viewed from the utterance perspective (Handley & Wang 2024; Kormos & Dénes, 2004), which involves the examination of temporal aspects of fluency such as articulation rate, mean length of run, speech rate, and number of silent pauses. These aspects can be measured objectively while perceived fluency focuses on listeners' subjective evaluation of a speaker's cognitive fluency. According to Segalowitz (2010), perceived fluency is based on a holistic impression perceived by the listeners about the fluidity of the speaker's speech samples. Also, based on the cognitive perspective, fluent L2 speech features execution of some mechanisms and involves cognitive processes which are difficult to measure objectively and simultaneously.

On the empirical side, speaking fluency has been probed with regard to various factors including anxiety (e.g., Kormos & Préfontaine, 2017), willingness to communicate or WTC (Ebn-Abbasi et al., 2022), and self-image (Alimorad & Yazdani, 2020). Blake (2009) attempted to improve the utterance fluency by utilizing a text-based online chat and conventional face-to-face instruction. The results revealed significantly greater gains in phonation time ratio and mean length of run in favor of the synchronous mode. Also, Razagifard (2013) employed asynchronous and synchronous text-based computer-mediated communication (CMC) to develop the utterance fluency of intermediate learners of English completing communicative tasks. The findings showed that the learners in the synchronous mode surpassed those of the control group in the fluency measures. Likewise, Hamouda (2020), who investigated the impacts of virtual classes on Saudi L2 learners' oral skills, reported significant gains in utterance fluency, compared to traditional offline classes.

Prior research (e.g., Nguyen et al., 2020; Timpe-Laughlin et al., 2024) has highlighted the importance of motivation in L2 learning as well as the positive effects of instruction in online L2 learning contexts. In line with this issue, a handful of research (e.g., Ucar & Kumtepe, 2019; Ye & Hu, 2025) have investigated the ARCS and L2MSS instructional frameworks in relation to some learner or language-related variables. However, empirical studies examining the impact of motivation-based programs like ARCS and L2MSS-oriented instruction on L2 speaking fluency are scanty. Little empirical research has also paid attention to the temporal aspects of L2 speaking fluency, which can be measured objectively. This gap is also evident in online L2 learning studies, which suggests doing research in this domain. Moreover, as some researchers (e.g., Jiang, 2023) have emphasized, some challenges like learners' lack of motivation in L2 learning within the EFL context during the COVID-19 era continue to persist even after the pandemic. Accordingly, research on motivation-based programs to enhance L2 oral skills such as speaking fluency can be promising.

Research Questions

The present study looked into the effects of ARCS-based and L2MSS vision enhancement instructions in two groups of L2 (English) learners in improving their speaking fluency in an online environment and compared their effects on L2 speaking fluency in the two groups which implemented the ARCS and L2MSS vision-inspired frameworks with the group which did not receive these specific motivational interventions. Accordingly, the following research questions were addressed:

1. Is there a significant difference in the L2 learners' speaking fluency outcomes between the ARCS-based online classroom group and the online control group after implementing the instruction?
2. Is there a significant difference in the L2 learners' speaking fluency outcomes between the L2MSS vision-inspired online classroom group and the online control group after implementing the instruction?
3. Is there a significant difference in the L2 learners' speaking fluency outcomes between the ARCS-based online classroom group and the L2MSS vision-inspired online classroom group after implementing the instruction?

Method

Participants

The participants were 61 upper-intermediate EFL learners with an age range of 16-20 and 5 years of English learning experience. They registered for an advanced course intended for adults at a state-owned language institute to improve their English. The course syllabus required learners to speak about a variety of topics through discussion activities and vocabulary-development tasks aiming to enhance language skills. The participants were chosen from intact classes in the language institute based on a convenience sampling method. After ensuring there were no significant differences among the three classes through administering the Outcomes Placement Test (2016), each class was randomly assigned to one of the conditions to reduce possible class-level variability. Accordingly, this study

included three groups: an ARCS-based group, an L2MSS vision-inspired group, and a control group. Table 1 presents the demographic characteristics of the groups.

Table 1

The Groups' Demographic Characteristics

Group	Gender	N	Mean Age
ARCS	Male	11	19.1
	Female	10	18.7
L2MSS	Male	10	19.3
	Female	10	18.8
Control	Male	11	18.5
	Female	9	18.6

Materials and Instruments

Prior to the main study, the Outcomes Placement Test (2016) was used to check the initial level of the participants' English proficiency. The test was composed of two sections: lexicogrammar and speaking. Also, one-way (non-interactive) structured oral interviews were used as the speaking pretest and posttest to measure the temporal aspects of the participants' speaking fluency: articulation rate, speech rate, mean length of run, and the number of silent pauses. The structured oral interviews consisted of 4 questions (both in the pretest and posttest stage) selected from the TOEFL iBT speaking test section (the Independent Speaking Task section), both at the pretest and posttest stage. The questions/prompts were in line with the participants' textbook content.

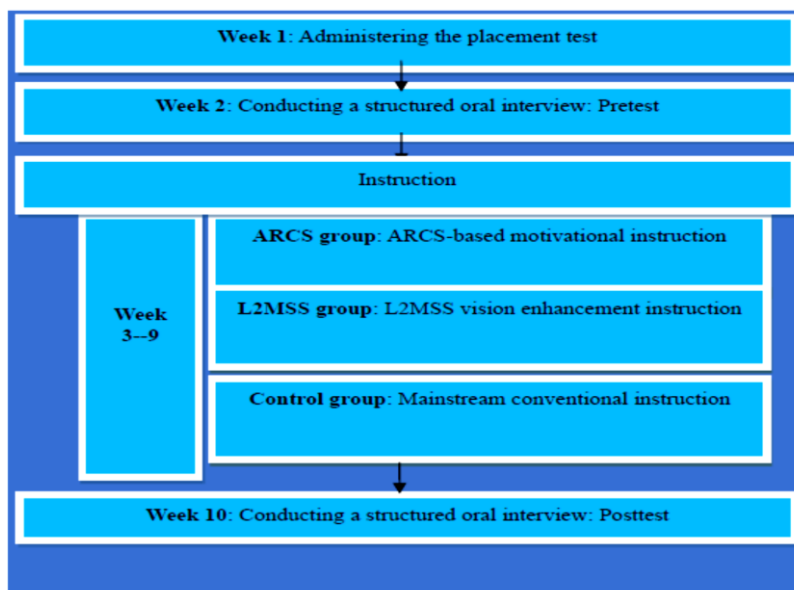
The interview was conducted in several steps/phases (opening, conducting, and closing) in English based on a protocol. In the conducting phase of the structured interview, the interviewer (one of the current researchers) read the questions (e.g., Should students be assigned daily homework at school? Why or why not? Explain) twice to the interviewees separately, and then they were asked to talk about each question for a maximum of 90 seconds. They had 1 minute time for preparation. Their responses were then recorded using Adobe Connect software. The content validity of the interview questions was checked through expert judgment by two associate professors of applied linguistics as well as an English teacher, who offered feedback on the appropriateness, relevance, and clarity of the questions to the level and course.

Procedure

The whole study underwent four phases: (1) administering the Outcomes Placement Test, (2) conducting a pretest interview, (3) giving instructions, and (4) having a posttest interview (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

Schematic Presentation of the Procedures



Phase 1: After obtaining consent, as displayed in Figure 3, the participants took the placement test to assess their English language level. To establish homogeneity, tests of significance were conducted on the scores obtained from the lexicogrammar and speaking sections of the placement test. The Kruskal-Wallis tests revealed no significant differences in the scores for both lexicogrammar, $H(2) = 1.479$, $p = .477$, and speaking parts, $H(2) = 1.537$, $p = .464$, respectively. In consequence, the next phase commenced a week later.

Phase 2: In the pretest phase, prior to instruction, the participants were interviewed in English through a structured (one-way) oral interview, taking four questions adopted from the TOEFL iBT speaking section. The interviews were conducted online in the language lab using the Adobe Connect platform's recording tool, with each interview lasting about 10-15 minutes. First, the interviewees were asked to briefly introduce themselves, which was not recorded. In the main part of the speaking interview, each speaking item was read twice for the interviewees. They were given 1 minute to think and take notes. When ready, they began speaking while being recorded.

Phase 3: After the pretest, instruction was provided to each group, lasting over 14 sessions, two 90-minute sessions per week. Two of the online classrooms received instructions based on the premises of the ARCS motivational and the L2MSS vision enhancement interventions.

In the ARCS group, motivational strategies and techniques were derived from the four elemental components (attention, relevance, confidence, satisfaction),

adapted to the online environment. Audio-visual aids such as video files and concept maps were used to draw the learners' attention. To maintain interest and attract attention, humor in the form of jokes and enigmas was employed. Brainstorming activities were frequently employed to connect course content to the participants' prior knowledge. At times, the instructor made statements that contradicted the learners' past experiences to capture their attention. To establish relevance, the teacher clarified the course objectives and its usefulness, created a non-competitive context by encouraging collaborative conversations, and asked for the learners' personal accounts related to the topics of the class session.

To boost the learners' confidence, the instructor vividly presented the course outline and requirements at the beginning. He asked them to do self-assessments and peer-assessments by providing them with some charts at the end of each session. To reduce anxiety, the instructor formed pairs in the Break Out (Virtual) Room to do pair groups. To ensure satisfaction, the instructor provided positive feedback including verbal praise and approval stickers in the comments section of the software. Additionally, some bonus marks were awarded for their success in completing assignments. Moreover, role plays and problem-solving activities such as puzzles were frequently utilized. Also, to reinforce positive feelings, cooperative group work was also incorporated.

In the L2MSS group, the focus was on creating and strengthening the learners' vision. Throughout the course, the same instructor invited the learners to talk about their expectations, wishes, and concerns. To strengthen the vision through the imagery workout technique, the learners were asked to imagine and elaborate on an imaginary L2-related situation in the future. Moreover, in online groups of 3 or 4, they were tasked to prepare a motivational speech and express their group's collective vision. Image streaming activity, which is selecting a prompt from the textbook and asking the learners to orally complete the narrative via imagination in a detailed account, was used. Also, the instructor asked the learners to reflect on their L2-related future image and write down their goals, dreams, and intentions on a vision board.

To substantiate the vision, they discussed their strengths and weaknesses through pair groups. While working in groups, they were asked to share their learning experiences and offer L2 learning tips to develop a roadmap. To keep their visions alive, he assigned conversations in pairs focused on their dreams and aspirations. On occasion, the learners described their failures and potential modifications in the future. One frequent assignment was orally narrating how success or failure in their English learning would be important for others. The instructor invited them to discuss the future consequences of failing to improve their English proficiency.

In contrast, the control group did not focus on promoting motivation. This group received the conventional teacher-centered method commonly used in most language institutes in the country. The class was characterized by less motivational feedback and less peer discussion during task completion. For instance, when the learners were asked to explain some famous quotes in the textbook, they did it

individually, lacking much peer evaluation or peer feedback. As another example, when they were presented with different lifestyles from different cultures, they simply described them without referring to their lifestyles or sharing their views with peers.

Phase 4: One week after instruction, all participants from the groups were interviewed again. Similar to the pretest phase, structured interviews were conducted online to collect data on the speaking fluency measures using 4 parallel questions (e.g., Should parents be allowed to educate their children at home? Why or why not? Explain). A minimum of 60 seconds was set as the baseline for the audio files to be imported into the PRAAT software, a speech analysis program. Each participant's final audio file thus measured 240 seconds for both the pretest and posttest. The four temporal aspects of speaking fluency, as described by Suzuki and Kormos (2022), were measured utilizing an analysis script. These four variables with their definitions are provided in Table 2.

Table 2

Temporal Variables of Speaking Fluency Construct

Measure	Definition
Articulation rate	Number of syllables per phonation time
Speech rate	Number of syllables per second
Silent pause rate	Number of silent pauses per second
Mean length of run	Mean number of syllables between two silent pauses

Then, each participant's raw data on articulation, speech, and silent pause rates as well as mean length of run, which are associated with utterance fluency aspect of Segalowitz's (2010) framework, in the pretest and posttest were analyzed using SPSS (version 26). These four temporal variables were chosen because of their operationalizability via objective measurement in the PRAAT software and availability of a pre-existing analysis script to ensure replicability. Also, many scholars (e.g., Suzuki & Kormos, 2025) have recently emphasised the importance of objective fluency measures as reflections of the underlying L2 proficiency. Additionally, they are widely recognized in the literature.

Results

Descriptive Statistics and Pretest and Posttest Speaking Fluency Differences

Initially, descriptive statistics for the data on four fluency measures were obtained for both the pretest and posttest phases. These statistics are summarized for the three groups in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Speaking Fluency Measures in the Pretest and Posttest Phases for the Three Groups

Variables	Group	M		SD		Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Speech Rate	ARCS (n = 21)	3.02	3.23	.637	.634	-.61	-.67	-.63	-.53
	L2MSS (n = 20)	3.18	3.44	.487	.454	-1.57	-.42	3.79	4.45
	Control (n = 20)	3.07	3.11	.522	.410	-.51	-1.21	-.25	3.89
Articulation Rate	ARCS (n = 21)	3.75	3.82	.538	.700	-1.44	-1.39	1.72	2.00
	L2MSS (n = 20)	3.86	3.93	.439	.475	-.66	-1.26	3.54	4.52
	Control (n = 20)	3.77	3.66	.261	.357	-1.79	1.29	4.40	1.22
Mean Length of Run	ARCS (n = 21)	10.13	12.32	2.209	2.750	-.99	-.56	.25	-.67
	L2MSS (n = 20)	10.93	11.87	1.537	1.457	-.93	-1.10	-.43	.23
	Control (n = 20)	10.51	10.53	1.082	1.172	-2.05	-.12	9.42	3.42
Silent Pause Rate	ARCS (n = 21)	.30	.26	.117	.089	-.10	.32	-1.73	-.34
	L2MSS (n = 20)	.28	.24	.053	.068	-1.74	-.25	3.32	2.12
	Control (n = 20)	.32	.32	.048	.060	-.75	-.51	3.81	1.79

The highest mean scores on speech rate and mean length of run in the posttest were observed in the L2MSS ($M = 3.448$) and ARCS ($M = 12.320$) groups, respectively. For articulation rate, the highest mean score in the posttest was observed in the L2MSS group ($M = 3.934$). As for the silent pause rate, a decrease from the pretest ($M = .301$ and $M = .284$) to the posttest ($M = .264$ and $M = .244$) was observed in the ARCS and the L2MSS groups, respectively, indicating improved speaking fluency performance in the experimental groups.

Since values of kurtosis and skewness on the pretest and posttest fluency measures were not small, Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests were run on the four fluency measures to assess data normality. Based on the results, the distribution of data for all four variables across the three groups was not normal ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, to probe any meaningful differences among the groups regarding each speaking fluency measure, the nonparametric analysis, Kruskal-Wallis tests, was run for further statistical analyses.

The results of the nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis tests showed that there was no statistically significant difference among the groups' performance in the

pretest phase on speech rate, $H(2) = .439$, $p = 0.803$; articulation rate, $H(2) = .830$, $p = .660$; mean length of run, $H(2) = 2.325$, $p = .313$; and silent pause rate, $H(2) = 4.932$, $p = .085$, indicating that all groups were homogeneous prior to instruction. In contrast, there was a statistically significant difference between the performance of the three groups in the posttest phase on speech rate, $H(2) = 6.478$, $p = 0.039$; articulation rate, $H(2) = 8.942$, $p = .011$; mean length of run, $H(2) = 9.179$, $p = .010$; and silent pause rate, $H(2) = 13.387$, $p = .001$, indicating that, after instruction, the mean scores underwent significant changes across all speaking fluency measures.

Results of Within- and Between-Group Comparison Tests

To look into the developmental effects, namely improvement from the pretest phase to the posttest phase for each of the four fluency aspects, the nonparametric Wilcoxon test was run in each group. The results are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

Results of Within-Group Wilcoxon Tests on Speaking Fluency Measures from Pretest to Posttest

Variables	ARCS		L2MSS		Control	
	Z	Sig.	Z	Sig.	Z	Sig.
Speech Rate	2.464	.014*	3.923	.000*	.037	.970
Articulation Rate	.939	.348	2.201	.028*	1.241	.215
Mean Length of Run	2.903	.004*	2.912	.004*	.709	.478
Silent Pause Rate	2.103	.035*	3.249	.001*	.075	.940

The results, as displayed in Table 4, illustrate that the speaking fluency aspects improved from the pretest to the posttest in the experimental groups. In the ARCS group, speech rate ($p = .014$); mean length of run ($p = .004$), and silent pause rate ($p = .035$) improved significantly. The development was noticeable in the L2MSS group, which demonstrated improvement in all four fluency aspects. In contrast, none of the speaking fluency aspects in the control group changed significantly over time. Lastly, to compare the effectiveness of instruction in the fluency improvement between the groups and address the research questions, Mann-Whitney post hoc tests were run (Table 5).

Table 5*Results of Post Hoc (Between-Group) Test on Speaking Fluency Measures*

Variable	ARCS/Control		L2MSS/Control		ARCS/L2MSS	
	Chi-Square	Sig.	Chi-Square	Sig.	Chi-Square	Sig.
Speech Rate	8.74	.344	14.15	.035*	-5.40	.989
Articulation Rate	13.31	.049*	15.45	.018*	-2.13	.999
Mean Length of Run	16.14	.010*	12.20	.089	3.99	.999
Silent Pause Rate	-15.89	.012*	-19.15	.002*	3.25	.999

The first research question was intended to examine the potential significant differences in the L2 learners' speaking fluency outcomes between the ARCS and control groups following instruction. Based on the analytic results in Table 5, there were noticeable differences between the two groups, favoring the ARCS group regarding articulation rate ($p = .049$), mean length of run ($p = .010$), and silent pause rate ($p = .012$).

The second research question was intended to examine the potential significant differences in the L2 learners' speaking fluency outcomes between the L2MSS and control groups following instruction. Based on the analytic results in Table 5, there were noticeable differences between the two groups, favoring the L2MSS group regarding speech rate ($p = .035$), articulation rate ($p = .018$), and silent pause rate ($p = .002$).

The third research question was intended to examine the potential significant differences in the L2 learners' speaking fluency outcomes between the ARCS and L2MSS groups following instruction. Based on the analytic results in Table 5, there were no statistically noticeable differences between the two groups regarding speech rate ($p = .989$), articulation rate ($p = .999$), mean length of run ($p = .999$), and silent pause rate ($p = .999$).

Discussion

This research provides insights into the potential effectiveness of motivation-oriented instruction in EFL learners' speaking fluency development in online contexts. The first research question targeted the difference in speaking fluency development between the ARCS-based and control groups. The results showed that articulation rate, silent pause rate, and mean length of run aspects developed greater in the ARCS-based group, and the results reached statistical

significance. It is deduced that the strategies employed in the ARCS group assisted the learners more greatly in producing more syllables per phonation time, more syllables between two silent pauses in their talk, and fewer pauses. Attention-focused and relevancy-oriented activities such as giving a personal account and fun activities in the online environment like telling jokes probably motivated the learners in the ARCS group to engage deeply in satisfactory collaborative conversations with their peers and instructor, and helped them to attach the new incoming verbal input to their background knowledge with ease. As De Jong et al. (2013) concluded, cognitive fluency is associated with L2 utterance fluency. In the current study, cognitively engaging activities such as brainstorming improved the learners' task engagement, which in turn contributed to improvement in utterance fluency. These activities might have helped them retrieve language-related components with more ease, be less distracted, and produce more syllables in their speech. Based on the expectancy-value theory, goal expectancy and motivation correlate in a positive direction, and the activities used in the ARCS group possibly helped them internalize a sense of goal approximation, increasing their effort invested in improving speaking fluency.

Moreover, as Chang and Lehman (2002) argue, the use of multimedia can facilitate language processing. The increased integration of visual aids in the ARCS group (e.g., concept maps or PowerPoint slides), which allowed the dual-mode representation of information (in both textual and visual modes), possibly facilitated L2 speaking processing and verbal information retrieval, contributing to the learners' speech fluency. The above point aligns with the finding of Timpe-Laughlin et al. (2024) who demonstrated that motivationally relevant and supportive learning environments contributed to learners' speaking fluency and learning outcomes. Moreover, most likely, the deliberate attempt to establish relevance by clarifying the objective and providing statements about the efficacy of motivational instruction made the instruction very responsive to their motives, contributing to higher articulation in the L2 learning process. It is reported that relevance-enhancement strategies corresponding with the ARCS model can improve L2 learning in foreign language learners with differing motivational levels (Chang & Lehman, 2002).

Presumably, confidence-building activities in the ARCS group fostered a stronger sense of fulfilment and made the L2 learners talk and generate more input. Consequently, speaking fluency aspects were gradually enhanced in the ARCS group. Fluency is achieved when accessing and producing syntactic and semantic linguistic resources reach the level of automaticity (Segalowitz, 2010). In this way, confidence-boosting activities might have reduced learner stress, enabling them to retrieve relevant information and speak more effortlessly, resulting in longer stretches of L2 production and less pause rate. Conceivably, the higher level of confidence neutralized the sense of helplessness and made the learners in the ARCS group attribute their success to their abilities, and this mindset might have increased the output in the form of articulation rate. This increased autonomy due to higher self-confidence could impact their speaking fluency (Mehrin, 2017). Additionally, the use of verbal praise and emphasis on content-evaluation consistency in this group created positive feelings and less speaking fear in online settings, leading to

more output production and fewer disconnected utterances. Generally, the satisfaction-oriented activities can balance the preconceived ideas about the course outcomes and provide a logical expectation of success (Keller, 2016).

Although the ARCS group showed noticeable improvement in articulation rate, silent pause rate and mean length of run through implementation of various activities (e.g., attention-focused, relevancy-oriented, confidence-building, and satisfaction-oriented activities), no significant differences were observed in speech rate. This issue suggests that the ARCS motivational interventions can enhance some dimensions of speaking fluency, but other aspects of utterance fluency such as speech rate may depend on more extended L2 (English) exposure, targeted fluency training, and practice.

The second research question concentrated on the development of speaking fluency measures between the L2MSS and the control group. Meaningful differences were spotted between them regarding articulation rate, speech rate, and silent pause rate. This result shows the participants in the L2MSS group produced more syllables and reduced the number of their silent pauses in the talk. It can be argued that the imagery techniques such as image streaming depicted a promising future guide that could stimulate the learners to invest more time and energy to materialize it. Most likely, they learned to concentrate on their self-images in group work and consequently participated in collaborative conversations more than the learners in the teacher-centered control group, which improved their L2 speaking fluency more effectively. As Safdari (2021) points out, the advantage of imagery techniques is that they inject the joy of momentarily experiencing the endpoint. Through vision substantiation, they became cognizant of their weaknesses and strengths in speaking, and they possibly learned to redress their weaknesses in speaking, such as redundant pauses. Also, such activities as collective vision activity, sharing the learning experiences, and outlining a roadmap for future success in English possibly created a positive and encouraging environment for more communication and interaction in the online environment, resulting in a higher articulation rate. This justification is supported by the study of Ebn-Abbasi et al. (2022), whose findings showed that higher levels of ideal L2 self would lead to less communication apprehension, more WTC, and better oral performance. The positive effect of L2MSS vision-inspired strategies on speaking fluency in the present study has also been corroborated by the findings of Alimorad and Yazdani's (2020) study. They examined the impact of self-image improvement on EFL learners' oral performances (complexity, accuracy, & fluency) in the offline mode of learning. They reported that self-image enhancement techniques improved speech rate and mean length of run.

The results demonstrated lack of significant differences between the L2MSS and control groups in terms of mean length of run. Motivation-based interventions alone may not be sufficient to drive changes in all aspects of utterance fluency. Mean length of run indicates chunking ability and syntactic planning, whereas articulation rate and speech rate indicate speed-related fluency, and silent pause rate indicates the frequency of hesitation. The L2MSS vision-inspired instruction may have contributed to the reduced hesitation and speed-related aspects

of fluency by increasing the learners' motivation to participate in the activities and promoting a supportive speaking environment, but might not have had great influences on the ways the learners organized speech into longer syntactic units in learning.

The last research question dealt with the differential effect of the ARCS-based and L2MSS vision-inspired instructions on speaking fluency development in the two motivation-based groups. The results did not indicate any great differences; that is to say, neither group outperformed the other regarding fluency development. This issue indicates that both methods of instruction can be effective for L2 fluency development in an online setting. In line with the above-mentioned argument, attention-, relevance-, confidence-, and satisfaction-oriented motivational activities as well as L2 self-image enhancement activities most likely fostered the learners' cognitive involvement during class instruction, aroused interest, reduced stress, and enhanced WTC, all leading to higher articulation and speech rates, as well as mean length of run and lower silent pause rate in the online environment. The results of the prior studies such as Razagifard (2013) partially support the above results in that L2 speaking fluency can be developed via instruction in online environment development.

Conclusion

This study attempted to examine the effectiveness of ARCS-based and L2MSS vision-inspired instruction on enhancing the speaking fluency of EFL learners in online courses. The results revealed that both motivation-based instructional methods were more effective in developing speaking fluency, in general, as compared to the conventional approach. Applying the techniques aligned with the ARCS motivational model resulted in more improvement in such fluency aspects as articulation rate, silent pause rate, and mean length of run. Also, applying the techniques aligned with the L2MSS vision-inspired framework led to the greater development of silent pause rate, articulation rate, and, to some extent, speech rate, accentuating the role of motivation-oriented instruction in speaking fluency development.

The findings of the current research imply that motivation-based activities can provide collaborative conversation opportunities in online classes, and contribute to more fluent speech production. Based on the results, L2 teachers can develop learners' speaking fluency by helping them develop a clear L2-related image in their L2 conversation classes, for example, through such activities as image streaming. They can also help them by creating a roadmap through an analysis of their own desirable future, obligations, strengths and weaknesses. The findings highlight the importance of vision-based motivational activities in online L2 classes. L2 teachers can help their learners engage with vision-based motivational activities and form a sense of personal purpose to develop their speaking fluency. According to the findings, the ARCS and L2MSS motivation-based activities in their online classes can keep L2 learners' motivation level high in online classes, contributing to their utterance fluency development. It is recommended that L2 material developers incorporate the four components of motivation (attention, relevance, confidence, &

satisfaction) into the design of speaking activities or tasks and integrate visual aids to support L2 learners' future self-image construction and ensure that speaking activities are collaborative and rewarding.

Several limitations should be acknowledged. Although 14 sessions seem to be a suitable timeline for an empirical study, a longer period would be better to investigate the long-lasting effects of motivation-based instruction. Additionally, the sample size was small and a delayed posttest interview was not included in the design, which limits insight into long-lasting effects. Future researchers can include a delayed posttest interview to examine the effects of the ARCS-based and L2MSS vision-inspired instruction over time. Also, a qualitative follow-up phase was not included in the design. A qualitative follow-up investigation is recommended to see why some speaking fluency features develop more than others.

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Unbalanced Priorities: The Representation of 21st Century Learning Skills in English Language Textbooks

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Abstract

As 21st-century learning skills become increasingly essential in preparing students for global challenges, it is crucial to assess how these competencies are manifested in English language teaching materials. However, existing research on the representation of these skills in widely used textbooks remains limited, highlighting the need for a systematic evaluation. This study investigates the representation of 21st-century learning skills in English language teaching materials through a content analysis of Cutting Edge – Pre-Intermediate by Pearson. Findings reveal an uneven emphasis on these skills—Communication emerges as the most prominent, underscoring its role in fostering interaction and expression. Collaboration follows, highlighting its significance in teamwork and problem-solving. However, Critical Thinking and Creativity receive moderate representation, while Citizenship and Character Education are significantly underrepresented. The disparities suggest the need for a more balanced integration of 21st-century skills to foster holistic student development.

Keywords: English language teaching, communication, collaboration, critical thinking, character education

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Introduction

The 21st century has ushered in a paradigm shift in education, necessitating a move beyond traditional knowledge transmission toward the development of holistic student competence. While the term 21st-century learning skills—encompassing critical thinking, communication, collaboration, creativity, citizenship, and character education (Halverson, 2018; Prastyaningrum et al., 2023; Prihandoko et al., 2024; Rutkowski et al., 2011; Toar et al., 2024; Wulandari, 2021)—is widely invoked, its operationalization in educational materials tend to remain vague. To address and provide a coherent analytical framework, this study is grounded in the Partnership for 21st-Century Learning (P21) Framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019). This framework explicitly models the integration of essential competencies by positioning the 4Cs (Critical Thinking, Communication, Collaboration, and Creativity) as the central skills, which have become a cornerstone of modern education (Prastyaningrum et al., 2023; Wulandari, 2021). Together, they bridge core academic knowledge to the competencies required for success in the modern work and civic life (Battelle for Kids, 2019). Additionally, character education and citizenship are vital for nurturing well-rounded individuals capable of contributing positively to society (Saleh et al., 2022). As such, the integration of 21st-century learning skills into education is crucial for preparing students to thrive in a dynamic and interconnected world.

Books have historically played a significant role in student development and learning, imparting knowledge, fostering critical thinking, and shaping character. Well-written historical novels and educational books have been utilized to connect students with various events, enhancing their understanding of different subjects and historical contexts (Gunawan et al., 2018). They offer a unique platform for developing empathy, imagination, critical thinking, and language skills. Books, as repositories of knowledge and frameworks for thought, continue to influence the way students acquire and apply the competencies necessary for the modern workforce and society. Research studies related to enhancing 21st-century learning skills through content analysis of educational materials have aimed to investigate the role of books, particularly e-books, in developing critical skills essential for modern learning (Cahyono et al., 2024; Rosmawati, 2023; Sari et al., 2022). Through a thorough content analysis, the study aims to pinpoint specific elements within educational materials that significantly enhance skills like critical thinking, collaboration, creativity, and communication (Adeoye, 2023). However, the question arises as to what extent contemporary books equip readers with the specific skills required for success in the 21st century.

The presentation of 21st-century learning skills in educational content is crucial for fostering the competencies that students need to succeed in a rapidly changing world. Innovative book formats such as pop-up books and big books have been shown to boost student motivation, engagement, and learning outcomes. These interactive and visually appealing resources not only capture students' attention but also aid in comprehension and knowledge retention (Nurani & Mahendra, 2019; Rahayu et al., 2021; Risna et al., 2023). By incorporating elements of local culture and thematic content, books can enrich students' learning experiences and broaden

their perspectives (Cibro, 2023; Damayanti & Putra, 2021). Despite the recognized importance of these skills, there remains a gap in understanding how effectively current educational texts address and promote them.

The widely accepted importance of 21st-century skills is echoed across diverse educational systems worldwide. In Finland, a country renowned for its top-ranking education system, emphasis is placed on critical thinking, problem-solving, and creativity, equipping students to adapt to a rapidly changing world (Sahlberg, 2011). Similarly, together, core values and competencies such as collaboration, communication, and critical thinking will help students realize the expected educational outcomes so that they have the character, skills, and knowledge to face future opportunities and challenges (Ministry of Education Singapore, 2024). In South Korea, the focus is on fostering creativity and innovation, recognizing their crucial role in driving economic growth and social progress (Kim & Yoon, 2015; Kwon et al., 2015; Shin, 2015). The United Kingdom's education reforms emphasize the importance of character education, citizenship, and global awareness, aiming to produce well-rounded individuals who are active and responsible citizens (Peterson & Civil, 2022). These examples demonstrate the global consensus on the need to cultivate 21st-century skills, highlighting their relevance across diverse cultural and socioeconomic contexts. In addition, there seems to be only one study conducted in the same book as the present study, but it took the upper level and investigated language development skills. Despite this recognized importance, a significant gap remains in understanding how effective contemporary educational texts are structured to promote this integrated competence. While some studies have analyzed textbooks for language development or general skill promotion (e.g., Nazim, 2021), there is a lack of research that systematically evaluates their content through the comprehensive lens of the P21 Framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019). This study addresses this gap by conducting a content analysis of an English language textbook. It investigates the representation and integration of the P21's core competencies and 2 additional skills, citizenship, and character education. The findings aim to provide a nuanced understanding of whether and how these materials are designed to build the holistic, applied competence that students need to thrive in a dynamic and interconnected world.

Literature Review

In the 21st century, UNESCO has emphasized the need for individuals to develop essential skills to thrive in a rapidly changing world, advocating a holistic educational approach based on four pillars: learning to know, learning to do, learning to be, and learning to live together (Zorlu & Zorlu, 2021). These competencies, collectively referred to as 21st-century skills, extend beyond academic knowledge to include personal development, social interaction, and adaptability (Saputra & Abdulkarim, 2022). Organizations like the Partnership for 21st Century Learning (P21) and the OECD have collaborated with educators, businesses, and governments to integrate these skills into curricula at all levels, targeting youth and instructors. The P21 framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019) highlights three key categories of 21st-century skills: life and career skills; learning and innovation skills

(critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity); and information, media, and technology skills, emphasizing their role in assessments, teaching practices, and professional development as depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1.

The Partnership for 21st Century Learning Framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019)



Life and career skills focus on intrapersonal abilities such as flexibility, initiative, productivity, leadership, and responsibility, while the 4Cs—critical thinking, creative thinking, collaboration, and communication—prepare students to meet the demands of the evolving 4.0 technology-driven society (Pardede, 2020). Information and communication technology (ICT) skills emphasize locating, evaluating, and utilizing data effectively across various media formats (Voogt et al., 2013; Valtonen et al., 2021), with informational, media, and technology literacy forming their foundation. Frameworks like those from the OECD categorize 21st-century skills into cognitive (critical thinking, systems thinking), intrapersonal (self-regulation, adaptation), interpersonal (teamwork, cultural sensitivity), and technical (financial literacy, entrepreneurship) abilities (Ananiadou & Claro, 2009). Similarly, the National Research Council (NRC) (2012) clusters these skills into intrapersonal (work ethic, self-evaluation), interpersonal (leadership, collaboration), and cognitive (creativity, strategies), highlighting challenges in standardizing definitions and ensuring transferable application (NRC, 2012). Similarly, Zhao (2012) highlights the significance of cognitive abilities, autonomy, cooperation, flexibility, innovation, and the "4Cs"—communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creativity—as key skills for thriving in the 21st century.

In "Promoting 21st Century Skills," Norris (2019) identifies six key elements of 21st-century pedagogy for improving English language teaching (ELT): collaboration and communication, creativity and imagination, critical thinking and problem-solving, digital literacy, citizenship, and student leadership and personal development. Collaborative work involves proactive group participation, while

language serves as a tool for creative expression and problem-solving through critical thinking. Digital literacy encompasses cognitive and technical skills like creating a professional online identity and using diverse tools. Citizenship emphasizes values like respect, tolerance, and democracy, fostering informed local and global participation. Norris highlights the need for teachers and learners to develop qualities for sound decision-making. The "4Cs"—communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creativity—are integral to ELT, supported by models of English competence (Erdogan, 2019; Halverson, 2018; Priyana, 2019) and endorsed by studies such as the Mountains (2017) and the American Management Association (AMA) (2019) which stress the growing importance of these skills for workforce readiness. Language instructors can integrate the 4Cs effectively by setting clear goals and planning activities (Mountains, 2017), as evidenced by successful applications in informal education settings (Tohani & Aulia, 2022).

Creativity, collaboration, communication, and critical thinking are widely recognized as essential 21st-century skills, often referred to as meta-knowledge (Fitria et al., 2023; Malaban et al., 2022; Mishra & Mehta, 2017; Natuna et al., 2021; Prastyaningrum et al., 2023). Additional "Cs" such as citizenship and character education (Fullan & Scott, 2014) have also been proposed, highlighting the broader scope of 21st-century competencies. Together, these "6Cs"—communication, collaboration, critical thinking, creativity, citizenship, and character education—prepare students to address the challenges of the modern world and foster collaboration for societal improvement, particularly in English language learning (Anugerahwati, 2019).

Communication

In non-formal education, learning English supports life skills by enhancing students' ability to communicate, aligning with Halliday and Mathiesen's (2014) view that speech and writing produce texts for listeners and readers to interpret. The P21 framework emphasizes communication through effective articulation in diverse contexts, active listening, purposeful use of media, and collaboration with respect for team dynamics (Battelle for Kids, 2019). In the digital age, Zhao (2012) highlights the growing importance of communication skills due to readily available information, evolving technologies, and unprecedented collaboration opportunities. Research underscores the need for quality communication in both traditional and digital environments (Davis et al., 2013; Lei & Zhao, 2008; Roman et al., 2018), especially for today's digitally immersed students, described as Millennials, Neo-Millennials, and Digital Natives (Nakrani, 2013). These learners, adept with technology, use digital media to inform, instruct, motivate, and persuade (Fullan & Scott, 2014), applying diverse intelligences and learning styles within an ethical framework to create, evaluate, and manage their education effectively.

Collaboration

Teaching English enhances collaboration and communication, building higher-order skills and improving learning outcomes (Chu et al., 2017; Heller, 2022; Norris, 2019). Effective collaboration requires respectful interaction, active

listening, and sharing skills, which instructional activities should promote through interactive, language-focused exercises (Watkins, 2016). According to Battelle for Kids (2019), the P21 framework emphasizes working effectively in diverse teams by respecting cultural differences, leveraging diversity for innovation, and communicating professionally. Zhao (2012) supports collaborative learning reforms like project-based and cooperative learning, technology integration, and global partnerships, where students work together toward shared goals and build intercultural competencies. Modern technology facilitates virtual collaboration across boundaries, requiring ICT literacy, adaptability, and the ability to use appropriate media and expressions in multicultural settings, highlighting collaboration as a vital 21st-century skill.

Critical Thinking

Critical thinking and problem-solving are closely linked and emphasized by the P21 as essential 21st-century skills, involving effective reasoning, systems thinking, evidence evaluation, and the ability to synthesize information and draw sound conclusions. Critical thinking enables students to analyze opposing viewpoints, reflect on learning processes, and address challenges using both traditional and creative approaches (Battelle for Kids, 2019). Grounded in Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001), critical thinking spans high-order skills such as creating, analyzing, and evaluating, as well as low-order skills like recalling and applying (Pohl, 2000). Analysis involves breaking down complex information, identifying patterns, and interpreting data systematically, while evaluation focuses on assessing credibility and making decisions based on evidence. Problem-solving complements these abilities by fostering open-mindedness, logical inference, and creative solutions, enabling learners to identify issues, weigh options, and choose effective courses of action (Lai, 2011).

Creativity

Creativity, as defined by Boden (2001), involves generating novel, valuable, and comprehensible ideas, while Csikszentmihalyi (1997) describes it as an act or creation that transforms or establishes a new domain. Creativity entails originality, learning from failure, and embracing diverse perspectives, recognizing it as a cyclical process of progress and setbacks (Torrance, 1993). The P21 highlights creativity as the ability to generate, develop, and implement innovative ideas, using methods like brainstorming and iterative evaluation to optimize results (Battelle for Kids, 2019). Ma (2009) notes that creativity is influenced by personal traits such as cognitive ability, motivation, and experiences. Educational systems must adapt to celebrate cultural diversity and recognize creativity as a driver of social and economic progress, fostering individual talents rather than enforcing uniform standards of creativity.

Citizenship

Citizenship, as outlined by the Partnership for 21st-Century Learning (Battelle for Kids, 2019), is a key component of the 21st-century skills framework, emphasizing the ability to be an informed and engaged participant in society

(Dhakal, 2023). It includes understanding democracy, human rights, and global issues, as well as respecting cultural diversity and fostering intercultural understanding (Fullan & Scott, 2014). Global Citizenship Education (GCE) aims to equip students with the skills needed to succeed in an interconnected world, promoting values such as human rights, gender equality, and global awareness (UNESCO, 2015; Reimers, 2020). GCE emphasizes empathy, critical thinking, communication, and respect for diversity, aiming to develop a sense of global responsibility (Reimers, 2020). In the context of English language education, integrating citizenship skills fosters digital citizenship and media literacy, preparing students to actively contribute to society and navigate a rapidly changing global landscape (Saleh et al., 2022; Stehle & Peters-Burton, 2019). This approach helps students not only excel academically but also become responsible, engaged global citizens.

Character Education

Character education focuses on developing students' emotional intelligence, empathy, and moral values, which are essential for personal effectiveness and building healthy relationships. Emotional intelligence, ranked as one of the top skills sought by employers (Jose, 2021), supports mental well-being and leadership. Fullan's "Six Cs" approach emphasizes character education as a core competency for success in a changing society, encouraging qualities like bravery, persistence, and resilience (Fullan et al., 2018). This education nurtures social responsibility and integrity, helping students become responsible citizens and empathetic individuals (Idawati et al., 2022; Agustini, 2021). It is vital for students' overall development, enhancing social and emotional skills while fostering positive behaviors such as honesty, respect, and resilience (Herman et al., 2022; Fauziah et al., 2019). Even in the digital age, character education remains crucial, promoting ethical values and interpersonal skills through various learning models, including online platforms (Wua et al., 2021). Educators play a key role in encouraging students to develop into responsible, compassionate adults, fostering both academic and personal growth (Anugerahwati, 2019; Sigalingging & Budiningsih, 2022).

Method

We utilized checklists to conduct document analysis, gathering data on the representation of 21st-century learning skills in a textbook, which is a focused, in-depth case study of a critical and representative case. In this study, our ontological perspective guided the identification and interpretation of relevant content in the textbooks and shaped the understanding of 21st-century learning skills. This study employs a purposive sampling technique, selecting the pre-intermediate textbook as a critical case. This level was chosen because it represents a pivotal transition where learners move from concrete language use to more abstract thinking, making it an information-rich context for observing how higher-order skills are scaffolded. Critically, pre-intermediate learners are often on the cusp of entering the job market (Zainuddin & Rijal, 2022), where employers increasingly demand work-ready graduates (Nurjanah et al., 2022). Additionally, this study is designed as a first step to a bigger study. The primary textbook analyzed was *Cutting Edge – Pre-*

Intermediate by Pearson, designated by the institution as the core learning resource. This textbook, aligned with the CEFR and supported by the Global Scale of English (GSE), underwent rigorous scientific and statistical validation by the Council of Europe. Comprising 14 units, it serves as the exclusive learning source for Pre-Intermediate General English for Adults classes.

The study followed three primary processes that were taken from Cohen et al. (2011): preliminary analysis, material evaluation, and result processing. Reading the textbooks to have a broad overview of them was the first step in the preliminary analysis. We have developed a consensus, or a shared understanding, among the academics about how to use a particular framework for assessing the textbooks. An organized collection of standards or principles used to evaluate and examine textbook content is called a codebook. It might contain predetermined topics, classifications, or standards that researchers would apply while classifying and assessing data. To prevent prejudice and guarantee uniformity in the assessment of the textbooks, a consensus on the application of the framework was also formed during this phase. The researchers had to undertake discussions to reach an agreement in order to ensure that all participants in the study shared a common understanding of how to apply the framework and to address any ambiguities. Reaching a consensus is particularly important when multiple scholars are involved in the review process. Early agreement made by different raters ensures that different researchers use the codebook consistently, which increases inter-rater reliability. The nuts and bolts of the analysis are presented in a code book, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Code Book

No	Skills	Operational Definition	Coding Indicators	Textbook Example
1.	Communication	Tasks that require learners to articulate thoughts and ideas effectively using oral, written, and nonverbal communication skills in a variety of forms and contexts. The focus is on the <i>production</i> and <i>exchange</i> of meaning, not just correctness	Prompts for presenting information to an audience (e.g., "give a short presentation on..."), tasks involving structured discussion or debate (e.g., "discuss in a group and reach a consensus"), activities requiring the creation of a sustained written or spoken text (e.g., "write an email," "create a podcast script"), exercises that explicitly target fluency, pragmatic competence, or audience awareness (e.g., "role-play a complaint in a restaurant").	"Write an email to a friend"

2.	Collaboration	Tasks that explicitly require pair or group work to produce a joint outcome.	Instructions such as "work with a partner," "in your group, discuss," "role-play with a classmate."	"Work in pair"
3.	Critical Thinking	Tasks that require analysis, evaluation, inference, or synthesis of information beyond simple factual recall. Must involve justification or reasoning.	Prompts containing "why," "how," "justify your opinion," "compare and contrast," "what if."	"Which programme and TV channels do you prefer? Why?"
4.	Creativity	Tasks that require learners to generate, elaborate on, and evaluate original and innovative ideas; to be open and responsive to new perspectives; and to create tangible or conceptual solutions that are of personal or social value.	Prompts using words like "create," "design," "invent," "imagine," "what if...", tasks with open-ended outcomes where there is no single correct answer, activities that combine ideas or concepts in new ways (e.g., "write a new ending to the story"), exercises that encourage divergent thinking or brainstorming.	"Think about five more questions to add to the survey."
5.	Citizenship	Tasks that develop an understanding of civic rights and responsibilities, encourage engagement with community and governmental structures, or promote an awareness of global issues and intercultural understanding.	Content or questions related to community roles, laws, voting, or social responsibility, discussions of global challenges (e.g., climate change, poverty, digital citizenship), texts or tasks that explore different cultures, traditions, or perspectives, prompts that ask students to consider their role in a local or global community.	Texts about "Teachers' Day", "World Book Day", and "Respect for the Aged Day"
6.	Character Education	Tasks that encourage the development of ethical reasoning, resilience, personal responsibility, integrity, empathy, and respect for others.	Scenarios or questions about ethical dilemmas and making difficult choices, texts or tasks focusing on perseverance, learning from failure, or setting personal goals, activities that require students to reflect on their own feelings, motivations, or behavior, content that explicitly teaches or asks students to demonstrate respect, empathy, or fairness.	"Practice telling your story until you are confident."

The second phase was material reviews, where the authors read each book thoroughly to find 21st-century skills representation in the textbooks. This phase employed both quantitative and qualitative methods. To provide measurable evidence (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2018), the study employed quantitative analysis focused on numerical counts and frequencies of the prominence of specific skills, thereby enhancing validity. On the other hand, qualitative analysis delved into uncovering themes, patterns, and meanings within the text. This approach involved segmenting the text into analyzable units and presenting statistical evaluations concisely. Lastly, in the resulting process, the number of occurrences of each skill was calculated for the purpose of reporting. A modified version of Yuen's (2011) analytical model was used to organize findings in a table format, categorizing data by grade, unit, pages, component/domain, and examples. Additionally, Nunan's (2004) framework on task components provided a lens for identifying 21st-century learning skills in the materials. Nunan's model highlights six task elements: context, learner role, instructor role, aim, input, and procedure. While task goals, input, process, and context are explicitly outlined, learner and instructor roles are often inferred. This comprehensive approach revealed various ways 21st-century skills are embedded in the learning materials.

Results and Discussions

This research analyzed the representation of 21st-century learning skills in the *Cutting Edge – Pre-Intermediate – Students' Book* by Pearson using frameworks from The P21's (Battelle for Kids, 2019) four skills (communication, collaboration, critical thinking, and creativity), Fullan & Scott's (2014) citizenship, and Fullan et al.'s (2018) character education. The quantitative findings, summarized in Table 2, evaluated context, learners' role, instructors' role, aim, input, and procedure across textbook units. Communication emerged as the most represented skill, accounting for over half of the total instances, while character education was minimally featured. Collaboration ranked second, appearing in just over a quarter of the total, with critical thinking at less than 10%. Creativity and citizenship had equal frequencies (39 instances each). Unit 13 demonstrated the highest frequency of 21st-century skills (77 instances), whereas Unit 1 showed the lowest (50 instances).

Table 2

Results of Book Analysis

21 st Cent. Learning Skills		U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	TOTAL	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13		14
Communic- ation	F	21	29	17	28	30	31	34	31	39	40	45	36	44	43	468
	P	4.49	6.20	3.63	4.27	6.41	6.62	7.26	6.62	8.33	8.55	9.61	7.69	9.40	9.19	
Collaborat- ion	F	13	10	18	14	15	15	20	12	22	21	19	12	19	14	224
	P	5.80	4.46	8.04	6.25	6.70	6.70	8.93	5.36	9.82	9.38	8.48	5.36	8.48	6.25	

Critical Thinking	F	3	9	11	9	7	5	7	5	9	6	7	1	11	5	95
	P	3.12	1.05	11.6	9.47	7.37	5.26	7.37	5.26	9.47	6.32	7.37	1.05	11.6	5.32	
Creativity	F	5	4	2	2	5	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	3	39
	P	12.8	10.3	5.13	5.13	12.82	5.13	7.69	5.13	5.13	5.13	7.69	5.13	5.13	7.69	
Citizenship	F	6	3	6	4	3	1	2	4	1	0	0	7	1	1	39
	P	15.4	7.69	15.4	10.3	7.69	2.56	5.13	10.3	2.56	0	0	17.9	2.56	2.56	
Character Education	F	2	0	0	1	3	0	3	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	12
	P	16.7	0	0	8.33	25	0	25	8.33	0	8.33	8.33	0	0	0	
TOTAL	F	50	55	54	58	63	54	69	55	73	70	75	58	77	66	877
	P	5.70	6.27	6.16	6.61	7.18	6.16	7.87	6.27	8.32	7.98	8.55	6.61	8.78	7.53	

Note:

U: Unit

F: Frequency (the number of occurrences in each unit)

P: Percentage (the calculation based on the frequency)

P = F per unit: F in total x 100%

Communication

Communication emerged as the most emphasized skill, with a total frequency of 468, significantly higher than any other category. The frequency of this skill showed a steady increase over the intervals, starting at 21 and reaching a peak of 77 in interval 13. Similarly, the percentage ranged from 4.49% to 9.61%, reflecting its growing importance. This consistent upward trend indicates a strong and increasing focus on developing effective communication skills. This emphasis aligns with the P21 framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019), which underscores the critical role of communication in diverse contexts. Halliday and Mathiesen's (2014) perspective on the functional roles of speech and writing in producing interpretable texts reinforces communication as a foundation for interaction in education and beyond.

It is true that in EFL instruction, communication skills are increasingly essential for language acquisition and broader success. Elshahawy (2020) highlights the role of out-of-class activities in enhancing proficiency, while Kawa and Nidham (2023) emphasizes the effectiveness of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) in simulating real-world tasks, aligning with the P21 framework's (Battelle for Kids, 2019) focus on purposeful articulation and active listening. Tools like TED Talks reinforce listening and comprehension (Tilwani et al., 2022), and academic language skills are critical for navigating complex texts (Uccelli et al., 2014). Additionally, communication skills are key to employability (Ting et al., 2017), reflecting their relevance beyond the classroom.

The integration of technology has transformed communication skills training for digitally immersed learners, described as Millennials, Neo-Millennials, or Digital Natives (Nakrani, 2013). Zhao (2012) highlights the importance of

communication in an era of abundant information and collaboration opportunities, while Fullan & Scott (2014) notes the use of digital media to inform, instruct, and persuade. These developments blend traditional and digital communication, emphasizing ethical information management and diverse learning styles.

Innovative methods and tools further enhance communication development. Ghafar and Raheem (2023) identify technological tools as improving speaking proficiency, aligning with Dixon et al.'s (2012) findings on communication's central role in second language acquisition. Research by Roman et al. (2018) and Davis et al. (2013) underscores the importance of quality communication in digital spaces. As education evolves, the dual focus on traditional and digital communication prepares learners to navigate complex interactions, fostering active listening, effective articulation, and digital fluency. Leveraging technology and innovative pedagogy is essential for equipping students to communicate effectively in local and global contexts.

Collaboration

Collaboration plays a crucial role in English language teaching, ranking second in importance with 224 occurrences, reflecting its moderate emphasis in fostering teamwork and communication among learners. While the data shows variations in its application, ranging from 4.46% to 9.82% across intervals, these fluctuations highlight contextual factors like instructional strategies and student engagement. Studies, such as those by Gougou et al. (2023), underline the importance of social interaction in enhancing higher-order thinking and language fluency. Technology has further expanded collaborative opportunities, connecting students with peers and native speakers, as demonstrated by Sasi et al. (2017). Collaborative learning has been linked to improvements in vocabulary acquisition and overall competence (Drumhiller & Schwanenflugel, 2013), reinforcing its role as a complementary skill to communication.

The integration of technology has significantly amplified collaboration in English education, enabling dynamic interactions and global partnerships. Digital tools, such as social media platforms, foster collaborative communities where learners can enhance their writing and communication skills (Klímová & Pikhart, 2020). This aligns with Zhao's (2012) advocacy for cooperative models emphasizing shared goals and intercultural competence. Collaborative models also boost motivation and critical thinking, as noted by Jie (2023), engaging learners in tasks that promote teamwork and problem-solving. Furthermore, the P21 framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019) highlights collaboration's role in fostering adaptability, cultural respect, and innovative thinking. By leveraging technology, educators can enhance collaboration, enabling students to work effectively in diverse teams and adapt to multicultural environments, preparing them for personal and professional success.

Critical Thinking

The data on critical thinking in English language education, with a total frequency of 95 occurrences, reveals irregular integration into teaching practices,

with peaks in intervals 3 and 13 and percentage variations ranging from 1.05% to 11.58%. These inconsistencies suggest challenges such as limited teacher training, insufficient resources, and varying curricular priorities. Critical thinking, essential for addressing complex social and intellectual challenges, involves higher-order cognitive skills like analyzing, evaluating, and creating, as outlined by the P21 framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019) and Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001; Pohl, 2000). It fosters curiosity, open-mindedness, and creative problem-solving, empowering students to navigate diverse perspectives and challenges (Lai, 2011). However, gaps in teacher preparation, highlighted by Laabidi (2021) and Yuan and Stapleton (2019), hinder its consistent implementation, raising concerns about its integration into educational contexts.

Innovative strategies are vital to strengthen critical thinking instruction. The integration of Higher-Order Thinking Skills (HOTS), as noted by Hasbullah et al. (2022), and collaborative tasks, emphasized by Tram and Quyen (2019), align with the P21 framework's (Battelle for Kids, 2019) focus on reflective learning and creative problem-solving. Digital tools like mind mapping and online platforms further enhance critical thinking, as demonstrated by Moustaghfir and Brigui (2023) and Yunqing (2023). Problem-solving complements critical thinking by encouraging logical inference, evidence-based decision-making, and creativity, which are particularly relevant in language education for enhancing linguistic proficiency and cultural navigation. To maximize critical thinking's potential, systematic reforms are needed, including aligning strategies with Bloom's taxonomy and investing in professional development. This approach can bridge the gap between its theoretical importance and practical application, equipping students with cognitive tools for academic and real-world success.

Creativity

The findings on creativity in English language education, with only 39 occurrences, reveal their limited emphasis compared to other skills. Creativity showed consistent but low representation, with occurrences ranging from 2 to 5. The skill rarely exceeded 15% in frequency, indicating that this is not a central focus in English curricula despite its recognized importance. Creativity, as defined by Boden (2001) and Csikszentmihalyi (1997), fosters engagement, critical thinking, and originality, encouraging students to embrace diverse perspectives and learn from failure (Torrance, 1993). Studies by Aldujayn and Alsubhi (2020) and Chow et al. (2017) affirm creativity's role in enhancing student outcomes, aligning with the P21 framework's (Battelle for Kids, 2019) emphasis on innovative thinking. However, the data highlights a gap between its value and prioritization, as educational systems often favor uniform standards over celebrating individual talents and cultural diversity (Ma, 2009).

Creativity plays a crucial role in language acquisition, fostering engagement, problem-solving, and self-expression. Language learning requires students to think divergently, experiment with linguistic structures, and adapt language to different contexts. Creative language use enhances motivation and deepens understanding, as students engage in storytelling, role-playing, and creative

writing activities. Studies by Aldujayn and Alsubhi (2020) and Chow et al. (2017) affirm that creative literacy activities contribute to improved learning outcomes by encouraging imagination and fostering deeper connections with language content. Moreover, creativity promotes autonomy, allowing learners to take ownership of their learning process (Núñez-Regueiro et al., 2025) and explore language in ways that align with their interests and experiences.

Citizenship

The findings show minimal representation of citizenship (39 occurrences). Citizenship education emphasizes intercultural understanding, societal participation, and global awareness, aligning with the P21 framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019) and fostering empathy and communication (Dhakal, 2023; Fullan & Scott, 2014). Scholars like Fang and Baker (2017) and Yücel (2019) underline their potential to bridge cultural gaps and inspire societal engagement. Despite its importance, Citizenship showed sporadic representation in the data, reflecting inconsistent integration into curricula. Addressing these gaps requires innovative and interactive teaching approaches. Huh and Lee (2019) advocate for creative pedagogies that encourage dynamic learning, while Global Citizenship Education (GCE) equips learners to tackle global issues like human rights and sustainability (Reimers, 2020; UNESCO, 2015). Focusing on these skills can better prepare students for the challenges of a rapidly evolving world.

Integrating creativity and citizenship into English language instruction aligns with broader educational goals of fostering critical thinking, communication, and global responsibility. For creativity, this involves designing lessons that encourage originality, collaboration, and iterative learning, as highlighted by the P21 framework (Battelle for Kids, 2019). Citizenship, requires embedding democratic principles, intercultural understanding, and digital literacy into curricula, preparing students to contribute meaningfully to their communities and the global landscape (Saleh et al., 2022; Stehle & Peters-Burton, 2019). As Ma (2009) and Reimers (2020) suggest, educational systems must adapt to celebrate diverse talents and perspectives, recognizing that both creativity and citizenship drive social and economic progress. Language education offers a unique platform for fostering these skills, given its emphasis on communication and cultural exchange. By prioritizing creativity and citizenship, educators can help students excel academically while developing the skills needed to thrive as responsible, engaged global citizens. This dual focus not only enhances language learning outcomes but also ensures students are equipped for the demands of an interconnected and diverse world. By leveraging creative and civic-oriented pedagogies, educators can nurture learners who are both innovative thinkers and active participants in society.

Character Education

The data revealing that Character Education has the lowest total frequency, with only 12 occurrences, underscores a concerning neglect of this essential skill in English language teaching. Although its importance is recognized—evidenced by a peak of 25% in interval 5—the overall lack of consistent integration highlights missed opportunities for fostering emotional intelligence, empathy, and moral

development alongside language skills. This discrepancy contrasts sharply with the more significant emphasis on Communication and Collaboration, reflecting a broader trend of prioritizing interpersonal and cognitive skills over values-based education. Pohan and Malik (2018) emphasize that embedding character values into language teaching is critical for promoting students' personal growth and social responsibility. The low frequency of Character Education in the data suggests a gap in achieving this balance, leaving a vital aspect of student development underserved.

Character education, as defined by Fullan et al.'s (2018) "Six Cs" framework, is a core competency for navigating the complexities of a rapidly changing world. It nurtures qualities like bravery, persistence, and resilience, fostering integrity and social responsibility (Agustini, 2021; Idawati et al., 2022). It also enhances students' abilities to form healthy relationships and build empathetic, responsible communities. Despite these benefits, the lack of emphasis in current curricula reflects a need for systemic changes to position Character Education as an integral part of language learning. Integrating Character Education into English teaching requires deliberate strategies that balance academic and personal development. Literature offers a powerful medium for fostering moral and ethical understanding, as noted by Eko et al. (2019). Stories, poetry, and dramatic texts can prompt discussions on empathy, honesty, and resilience, helping students reflect on values in relatable contexts. However, as Nguyen et al., (2023) highlight, modern approaches such as communicative and task-based teaching often overshadow character-building efforts. To address this gap, educators could incorporate project-based learning, ethical discussions, and collaborative professional development, as suggested by Anto and Coenders (2019) and Adriyanti (2021). These methods create opportunities to blend character development seamlessly into language instruction. The emphasis on Character Education is particularly relevant in fostering the holistic development of students. By nurturing emotional intelligence and positive behaviors such as respect and resilience, educators prepare students to excel not only in academics but also in interpersonal and societal roles (Fauziah et al., 2019; Herman et al., 2022). Furthermore, in the digital age, character education plays a critical role in addressing challenges like cyberbullying and misinformation and fostering ethical values and interpersonal skills through online and hybrid learning models (Wua et al., 2021).

Conclusion

The findings of this study highlight the critical need to recalibrate pedagogical and curricular approaches in English language teaching. While communication and collaboration have received significant emphasis as represented in the textbook, the underrepresentation of critical thinking, creativity, citizenship, and character education suggests an imbalance that limits holistic student development. Addressing these disparities requires a comprehensive strategy that incorporates innovative teaching practices, enhanced resource development, and a commitment to curricular reform. By fostering an integrated approach, educators can prepare learners not only for academic success but also for navigating the complexities of a globalized and rapidly evolving world.

Future research needs to focus on the longitudinal impact of balanced skill integration, examining how equitably represented 21st-century skills contribute to students' personal growth, career readiness, and societal engagement. By embedding these competencies holistically, English language teaching can transform into a more inclusive and impactful platform, equipping learners with the diverse skills they need to thrive in the modern era.

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Exploring the Relationship Between Iranian EFL learners' L2 Writing Self (Ideal and Ought-to L2 Writing Selves), Growth Mindset and Their Feedback-Seeking Behavior

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Abstract

In the existing literature, feedback is often viewed as a one-way transfer of information from teachers to learners, thereby treating the learners as passive recipients. Nevertheless, the introduction of the concept of feedback-seeking behavior (FSB) into L2 writing has changed the learners' role to proactive feedback seekers who solicit personally relevant information to improve their writing performance. Accordingly, the present study explored the status of feedback-seeking behavior, growth mindset and L2 writing selves among 40 BA Iranian students of TEFL. The necessary data were collected through a series of questionnaires related to the main variables and by conducting focus-group interviews. The collected data were analyzed using statistical procedures such as correlation, multiple regression and t-test and the qualitative data were analyzed through thematic analysis. The results indicated statistically significant correlations between the learners' FSB and their growth mindset and L2 writing selves. The results of multiple regression also pointed to the superiority of the ought-to L2 writing self in predicting the FSB of the participants. In addition, the independent samples t-test showed statistically significant differences between more- and less-experienced student writers in their tendency towards seeking feedback from their instructors. Furthermore, the focus-group interview data analysis revealed the significant role of the nature and complexity of writing tasks, learners' personal characteristics such as their stress and confusion during the writing process and the nature of teacher-student relationship in influencing their feedback-seeking behavior. Therefore, it was suggested that by addressing task complexity, alleviating stress, nurturing positive relationships, and offering targeted feedback, instructors can enhance students' learning experiences from feedback and promote a more proactive approach to writing development.

Keywords: feedback-seeking behavior; growth mindset; ideal self, ought-to self, L2 writing self

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Introduction

The provision of feedback on the students' linguistic performance is a significant concern for educators teaching second or foreign languages. Feedback plays a key role in learning by promoting self-regulation and reflection (Carless & Boud, 2018). From the students' perspectives, feedback identifies their strengths and weaknesses and offers guidance on how to revise their works and move forward in the learning process (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Recent years have seen an increase in empirical investigations focusing on Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) within the domain of second language acquisition (see Chandler, 2003; Ferris et al., 2013; Shao, 2015; Winstone et al., 2021). In a comprehensive review, Nassaji (2016) examined the theoretical foundations of feedback, including its delivery, timing, and training. Some research emphasizes the perceptions of specific feedback and its effects on linguistic accuracy (Bitchener, 2008; Ferris, 2010). Hyland and Hyland (2006) observe that while feedback is considered a central element of the writing process in many educational contexts, the existing research highlights a lack of clarity and consensus about its role in L2 development and instructors often believe that its full potentials are not fully utilized.

While some scholars, such as Truscott and Hsu (2008), argue that WCF may not enhance L2 learners' writing capabilities and could potentially hinder their learning progress, recent findings indicate that WCF can positively influence L2 writing accuracy and content quality, and can help learners develop their cognitive abilities during the writing process (e.g., Hyland & Hyland, 2019; Van Beuningen et al., 2012; Winstone et al., 2021). In fact, WCF is believed to offer various educational advantages within L2 writing classrooms, facilitating students' understanding of features of good writing and enabling them to produce accurate and refined passages (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Lee, 2017; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010). The main reason for such inconsistencies in corrective feedback effects is a lack of attention to the contextual variations and individual differences among the learners which necessitates adopting appropriate feedback provision mechanisms and strategies (Ferris, 2010; Kormos, 2012).

From a socio-constructivist perspective, feedback research focuses on process-oriented learning, framing feedback as a collaborative meaning-making activity. This approach assumes that effective feedback fosters student self-assessment and teacher-student dialogue, prioritizing reciprocal interaction (Winstone & Carless, 2020; Zhang, 2024). Much of the current research on WCF has predominantly concentrated on feedback as a pedagogical tool, perceiving learners as passive recipients of information (Zhang & Jiang, 2025). This perspective neglects the agency of L2 learners, who actively regulate their own learning process and are capable of managing their feedback-seeking behavior (FSB) (Xu & Wang, 2023). By shifting focus from teacher-delivered WCF to learner-initiated FSB, we recognize students as autonomous agents who deliberately navigate feedback opportunities to advance their writing development.

Ashford and Cummings (1983) were the first to introduce the idea of FSB in organizational psychology, characterizing it as the deliberate allocation of effort

to assess the accuracy and sufficiency of actions in achieving desired outcomes. Recently, FSB has emerged as a significant construct in the realm of L2 writing. In fact, despite the various benefits teachers' corrective feedback might have for L2 writing, its effectiveness largely depends on how students actively seek, interpret, respond to and use such information for subsequent revision (Nassaji, 2021). Papi et al. (2020) characterized FSB as the adaptive, intentional, and strategic process through which L2 learners seek feedback regarding their writing performance. To emphasize the agency of L2 learners, it is essential to conceptualize feedback as a learning resource that facilitates their engagement to attain specific educational objectives (Papi et al., 2020). Moreover, Papi et al. (2019) identified two categories of strategies within L2 writing contexts: (1) feedback monitoring which refers to the extent of attention L2 learners devote to the WCF received on their writing and (2) feedback inquiry which involves the proactive efforts of learners to solicit WCF through communication with their instructors. Given the significant role of FSB in L2 writing performance, L2 researchers have attempted to identify the motivational antecedents of this construct (Gu, 2025; Lou & Noels, 2017).

Dörnyei (2009) noted that individuals may cease to engage in certain activities upon realizing that their efforts will not yield success. In the same vein, recent research has indicated that learners' individual differences and their beliefs, goals and motivation can influence their perceptions, preferences, engagement and responses regarding corrective feedback (Han & Xu, 2019; Sato & Csizér, 2021). Consequently, many L2 researchers have highlighted the importance of students' motivation in determining the effectiveness of WCF (e.g., Ferris et al., 2013; Hyland, 2013). Anseel et al. (2015) posited that understanding the motivational dynamics is essential for elucidating how learners' individual differences affect the utilization of various feedback-seeking strategies. Accordingly, the present study focuses on the significance of L2 writing selves and mindsets in accounting for the feedback-seeking behavior of a group of Iranian EFL learners.

The concept of writing selves forms part of the motivational self-system, which relates to an individual's envisioned future identity. This framework consists of two key components: the ideal self and the ought-to self. In L2 learning, the ideal L2 self refers to a learner's internal desires and goals to achieve high proficiency in the language, driven by personal ambition. In contrast, the ought-to L2 self stems from external pressures, reflecting the expectations of influential figures—such as parents or teachers—who push the learner to succeed in order to avoid failure or unfavorable outcomes (Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021). However, little research has examined how these ideal and ought-to L2 writing selves influence learning behaviors, particularly FSB. This oversight suggests that current understandings of L2 writing motivation have not fully incorporated these self-concepts to explain or predict FSB. As a result, there is a need for more focused studies to explore how these motivational dimensions shape learners' approaches to feedback in L2 writing.

Mindsets, which shape learners' attitudes, efforts, and strategies, are fundamental personal beliefs that play a key role in influencing learning behaviors (Molden & Dweck, 2006). At their core, mindsets revolve around the belief in the

malleability of intelligence—the idea that learners can enhance their abilities through sustained effort and persistence. Scholars have distinguished two types of mindsets—growth and fixed—both of which significantly affect students' learning approaches (Dweck, 2006). The research has indicated a positive association between growth mindset and language learning achievement supporting learners' resilience and effort in the learning process (Elahi Shirvan et al., 2024; Fathi et al., 2024; Sadoughi & Hejazi, 2023). This dynamic construct is under the influence of interactions among learning environments, instructional strategies and feedback mechanisms (Lou et al., 2022). Within the context of L2 writing feedback studies, researchers have explored how these mindset constructs relate to learners' engagement with feedback. For instance, Waller and Papi (2017) examined the role of L2 writing motivation in shaping feedback-seeking tendencies. Similarly, Papi et al. (2020) identified a strong link between a growth mindset—the belief that writing skills can improve through effort—and active feedback behaviors such as monitoring and seeking clarification. Further supporting this, Xu (2022) and Xu and Wang (2023) found that learners with a growth mindset tend to exhibit a more proactive orientation toward seeking feedback.

Although FSB can be beneficial in L2 writing, research on this topic is limited because it is still a relatively new area of study (Zhang & Jiang, 2025). Examining FSB within second language writing contexts offers valuable insights into how learners interact with feedback - a critical factor that can either facilitate or hinder their development of writing proficiency (Papi et al., 2020). For EFL learners, the dynamic relationship between learners' beliefs about their capabilities (mindset) and their self-conceptions (particularly their Ideal L2 Self and Ought-to L2 Self) likely serves as a powerful motivational force driving their participation in language learning activities (Xu & Wang, 2023). Nevertheless, there remains a notable gap in the literature concerning how these constructs specifically interact and their collective impact on feedback-seeking behavior in writing tasks among Iranian EFL learners. The Iranian EFL context presents a distinctive case for study due to its teacher-dominated classrooms and restricted English immersion opportunities. Within this environment, feedback takes on heightened importance as a key, but frequently underused, learning tool. The prevalent teacher-centered approach typically results in a one-way transmission of WCF from teachers to learners rather than engagement in interactive dialogues, potentially influencing how students perceive and seek feedback in their writing process.

Thus, the present study aims to bridge this gap by exploring the nuanced relationships between Iranian EFL learners' L2 writing mindset, their Ideal and Ought-to L2 writing selves, and their propensity to seek feedback and engage deeply in writing activities. The selection of these variables in the present study is justified on the ground that a positive writing self and a growth mindset can reinforce each other, motivating learners to take active steps toward improving their writing. Both constructs can influence feedback-seeking behavior by shaping learners' attitudes toward feedback—viewing it as beneficial (growth mindset) and as a reflection of their writing identity (writing self). Specifically, the study addresses the following research questions:

1. Are there any statistically significant correlations among L2 writing selves, growth mindset, and feedback-seeking behavior of Iranian EFL learners?
2. Which variable (namely, growth mindset, ideal and ought-to L2 writing selves) can best predict the feedback-seeking behavior of Iranian EFL learners?
3. Are there any statistically significant differences between more- and less-experienced writers in their feedback-seeking behavior?
4. What circumstances and factors can influence Iranian EFL learners' willingness to seek feedback from their writing instructors?

Literature Review

Feedback Seeking Behavior

Ashford and Cummings (1983), in organizational psychology, supported a shift in focus from performance appraisal and the feedback provided by employers to an understanding of the diverse ways in which employees actively seek and use feedback in their work environments. The manner in which individuals process feedback depends on the strategies employed in feedback-seeking, such as monitoring or inquiry (Ashford et al., 2003). Monitoring involves observing the environment and the behaviors of others to receive and track feedback, while feedback inquiry entails a proactive approach in which individuals directly seek comments or evaluations of their actions from their employers. This tripartite framework of feedback-seeking behavior (motivation, cognitive processing, and action) operates on the fundamental premise that by seeking feedback individuals can develop their abilities and improve their performance (Sun & Huang, 2023).

Papi (2018) emphasized that feedback-seeking behavior (FSB) is a critical area requiring examination of its underlying motivations; without such investigation, research on FSB risks becoming merely descriptive and lacking significant implications. Sung (2022) maintains that learners' FSB is under the influence of their personal goals and societal norms. Papi et al. (2020) argue that while instructional methodologies remain important, feedback should be reconceptualized as a dynamic learning resource that students strategically seek in alignment with their personal learning objectives. They define FSB in writing as "learners' intentional, calculated, and strategic attempts to gather feedback information on their L2 writing performance" (Papi et al., 2020, p. 486).

This concept has two parts: feedback monitoring (FM), which means implicitly paying attention to the feedback offered on L2 writing and feedback inquiry (FI) which involves directly asking for feedback (Xu & Wang, 2023). Asking for feedback (FI) helps learners understand the requirements of writing tasks better and reduces their uncertainties. On the other hand, monitoring feedback (FM) makes learners more aware of the differences between their writing and grading standards or model texts, as well as how their thinking differs from their peers' which can lead to higher quality texts in terms of organization, structure and

mechanics and more effective revisions and higher writing quality and scores (Papi et al., 2024; Zhang & Jiang, 2025; Zhou et al., 2023).

Existing L2 writing research has primarily examined how feedback's perceived value and cost affect FSB (Papi et al., 2020), while recent findings demonstrate that both performance and self-regulatory efficacy positively correlate with feedback monitoring and inquiry behaviors (Xu & Wang, 2024). Research on the factors that influence FSB in L2 writing remains in its preliminary stages. Current studies primarily focus on examining individual psychological and motivational factors, such as learners' mindsets, grit, goal orientations and self-efficacy (Luan & Quan, 2025; Xu & Wang, 2024; Yao & Zhu, 2022). These investigations aim to understand how these personal traits and beliefs shape students' willingness to seek feedback on their writing. Papi, et al. (2024) further emphasize that WCF only yields benefits when learners actively engage in seeking, processing, and implementing feedback, advocating for a learner-centered approach that positions students as autonomous agents in the feedback process. Their work underscores the need to investigate how broader L2 writing perceptions- particularly growth mindset and L2 writing self-concepts (ideal and ought-to selves)- might influence feedback monitoring and inquiry behaviors.

Mindsets and Feedback-Seeking Behavior

The concept of mindset, often referred to as the implicit theory of intelligence (Dweck, 1999), primarily concerns the malleability of human intellect (Lou & Noels, 2019). This theory, taken from the educational and social psychology discipline, has proven essential for understanding students' motivation and achievement within academic contexts that are filled with various challenges and setbacks (Molden & Dweck, 2006). Overcoming these challenges necessitates adopting a sense of perseverance and believing in their capabilities to resolve them, which depend on their mindsets (Haimovitz & Dweck, 2017). Given the more pronounced predictive role of a growth mindset as an important motivational belief in L2 learning, some researchers have examined its effects on and associations with various cognitive, behavioral and emotional variables such as motivation, achievement goals, self-regulation and strategy use (e.g., Bai et al., 2020; Xu, 2022; Yao et al., 2021). Lou and Noels (2020) pointed to the domain-specific nature of mind and called for conducting studies on the mindsets related to specific language skills such as writing. In the same regard, research suggests that when encountering difficulties in writing tasks, learners possessing a growth mindset demonstrate behavioral adaptability to attain desired performance outcomes. This adaptive tendency is further reinforced by positive affective states and an intrinsic motivation to enhance writing skills, which collectively increase learners' receptiveness to corrective feedback as a developmental opportunity (Xu, 2022).

The theoretical framework proposed by VandeWalle (2003) posits that individuals with strong growth mindset orientations tend to interpret feedback as diagnostically valuable information for acquiring task-relevant competencies. This theoretical proposition has received empirical support through studies examining

mindset-feedback relationships confirming that “growth mindsets can lead to positive perceptions of and active orientation toward feedback from different sources” (Yao et al., 2024, p. 2). Notably, Waller and Papi's (2017) investigation established a significant positive correlation between growth mindset and feedback-seeking orientation, particularly regarding learners' engagement with WCF. However, feedback-seeking orientation, as described in their study, emphasized interests and inclinations rather than the actual behaviors encompassed by feedback-seeking behavior (FSB). Cutumisu and Lou (2020) also pointed to a positive correlation between critical feedback-seeking and learning achievement, particularly among students demonstrating a strong growth mindset.

Regarding mindsets and FSB in L2 writing, studies have shown that a growth mindset strongly predicts how learners monitor and seek feedback (Papi et al., 2019, 2020; Xu, 2022). Similarly, Yao and Zhu (2022) observed that students with learning- or performance-oriented growth mindsets tended to use feedback monitoring and inquiry strategies more frequently in L2 writing. Furthermore, Sun and Huang (2023) revealed that learners with a growth mindset place higher value on the advantages of feedback over its drawbacks. They also actively pursue feedback from various sources—such as teachers, peers, native speakers, and advanced English users—using methods like direct and indirect inquiry, as well as monitoring. Finally, Apridayani and Waluyo (2025) maintain that provision of regular structured feedback, combined with active learning strategies, can help students develop their growth mindset which in turn can facilitate resilience and persistence required for improving their writing.

Ideal and Ought-to L2 Selves and Feedback-Seeking Behavior

Recognizing the importance of learners' self-concept and sociocultural influences in L2 learning, Dörnyei (2009) proposed the L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS), which integrates three key components: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and actual learning experiences. The ideal L2 self reflects students' personal goals and aspirations in language learning, whereas the ought-to L2 self involves external pressures and expectations from parents, teachers, and peers regarding L2 proficiency (Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021). Investigating these self-concepts can enhance the application of psychological theories in L2 learning and contribute to a framework that links future self-images to learner behavior (Dörnyei, 2009). The research has indicated that the ideal L2 self has a higher potential to influence the effort and perseverance invested in the learning process (Takahashi & Im, 2020), while the influence of ought-to L2 self depends on the learners' levels of internalization and dynamics of specific sociocultural contexts (Gong & Pang, 2025).

The ideal L2 writing self refers to how students envision themselves as competent L2 writers in the future (Han & Hiver, 2018). The ought-to L2 writing self is about feeling obligated to meet writing expectations and avoid failure (Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021). Most studies applying the L2MSS to L2 writing have focused on how the ideal and ought-to L2 selves influence writing strategies (Jang & Lee, 2019; Wang et al., 2024), self-efficacy, and achievement (Csizér & Tankó,

2017; Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021; Yu & Jiang, 2021). However, limited research has examined the connection between L2 motivation and learners' attitudes toward WCF from the perspective of future L2 selves. For instance, Papi et al. (2019) found that learners with development-approach goals used both monitoring and inquiry strategies to seek feedback, while those with demonstration-goals relied solely on inquiry strategies, with feedback sources varying based on goal orientation (approach vs. avoidance). Recent findings also suggest that the ideal L2 writing self positively predicts feedback-seeking behavior among Chinese students (Xu & Wang, 2023; Zhan et al., 2023), supporting the notion that "higher motivation leads to greater FSB" (Xu & Wang, 2024, p. 3).

Overall, research on FSB—its underlying factors, mechanisms, and development—remains nascent and warrants further investigation (Papi, et al., 2024). Additionally, while prior studies have explored L2 writing mindsets, self-concept, and feedback behavior separately, few have analyzed them together, particularly in Iran's educational setting. In addition, the factors influencing Iranian EFL learners' FSB have not been well explored. In fact, educational factors such as the teacher-centered education system and hierarchical classroom dynamics in Iran, cultural issues such as respect for authority or personal factors such as self-efficacy beliefs and shyness might mediate the role of key psychological variables (e.g., mindset and self-concept) in Iranian EFL learners' FSB and even discourage them to proactively ask for feedback. Thus, this study aims to examine the interplay between these constructs, offering insights to improve feedback practices in L2 writing instruction for Iranian EFL learners.

Method

Setting and Participants

The study was conducted in the Department of TEFL at the University of Hormozgan in South of Iran. A convenient sample of 40 BA students (10 males and 30 females) served as the participants of the study. This small sample size, which influences the use of specific data analysis techniques and the generalizability of the findings, is because of the fact that half of the students in the department did not submit their responses to the online questionnaires. The imbalance in gender is also due to the higher tendency of female students in studying humanities in Iranian universities. All the participants were native speakers of Persian, albeit from various ethnic and educational backgrounds, and their ages range from 19 to 25. The results of Oxford Placement Test, conducted for a concurrent study in the department, indicated that the students were at an upper-intermediate language proficiency level though with variations in the quality of their language competence, which is natural in most EFL settings. At the time of conducting this study, the students had already passed English writing courses and had experienced written corrective feedback on their written texts. Based on the purpose of the study, freshmen and sophomore students who had only passed basic and advanced writing courses in the department were considered as less-experienced writers (N=18) and those who besides these courses have passed essay writing and writing technical passages in ELT courses (that is, Junior and senior students) were considered as the more experienced writers

(N=22). In fact, this classification has been done based on the quantity and quality of training these two groups of individuals have received in the department and the types of writing tasks they have accomplished. The less-experienced writers have received instruction on different techniques and methods of paragraph development and have written descriptive, process, narrative, comparison and contrast and cause and effect paragraphs. The more-experienced writers have completed essay writing course and are competent in writing expository, argumentative, problem-solution and summary-response essays. It is worth-mentioning that the purpose of study and the nature of tasks students were supposed to complete were expressed and they voluntarily participated in the study which was embedded in their required courses mandated by the BA level TEFL curriculum.

Instruments

Scale Measuring Growth Mindset in L2 Writing

The study utilized Waller and Papi's (2017) scale to assess learners' growth mindset in English writing. Adapted from Dweck's (2000) implicit theories of intelligence framework, the instrument included two items measuring the incremental theory of writing ability, rated on a 6-point Likert scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 6= *strongly agree*). It is worth-mentioning that the questionnaire has three more items about the entity theory of writing intelligence that were not included in the present study. The content validity of the instrument was inspected by two instructors in the department. The reliability of the growth mindset scale in this study demonstrated satisfactory levels ($\alpha = .79$).

Scale Measuring L2 Writing Selves

Learners' self-concepts in English writing were measured using Tahmouresi and Papi's (2021) scale, comprising two subscales: *ideal L2 writing self* (5 items) and *ought-to L2 writing self* (5 items). Responses were collected on a 6-point Likert scale, and content validity was confirmed by two instructors. The full scale demonstrated high reliability ($\alpha = .78$), with subscales showing satisfactory levels of reliability (*ideal self*: $\alpha = .87$; *ought-to self*: $\alpha = .80$).

Scale Measuring FSB Strategies in L2 Writing

Papi et al.'s (2020) instrument was adopted to evaluate FSB in L2 writing, assessing two dimensions: *feedback monitoring* (7 items) and *feedback inquiry* (6 items). The reliability and validity of this instrument had been further established by Papi et al., (2024). The students were required to self-rate each statement on a 6-point Likert scale. Validity of the scale was evaluated by two instructors in the department. The scale exhibited good reliability ($\alpha = .74$), which made it rather suitable for the purpose of the present study.

Focus-Group Interview

Ten students, among those who had already completed the questionnaires, volunteered to participate in a focus-group interview session and to present their personal feelings and experiences regarding their feedback-seeking preferences and behaviors. The interviews followed a semi-structured format, consisting of open-

ended questions that allowed participants to express their thoughts in depth. In fact, three main questions adapted from Xu and Wang's (2024) study were used as the guiding questions to elicit students' views on the circumstances and factors influencing their willingness to seek feedback from their writing instructors (e.g., Describe your general experience of receiving feedback in the writing courses. In which situations, did you ask for feedback from your instructors? What factors can influence your willingness to ask for feedback from your instructors?). These questions mainly asked the students to reflect upon their experience of receiving feedback during the semester and present their feelings, experiences, and behaviors while seeking and receiving feedback from their instructors. Some follow-up questions were also asked of the interviewees to get further insights about the comments raised. The interview session, which was conducted in Persian to facilitate the expression of ideas, lasted for one and a half hours, and the students' views were recorded, transcribed and subsequently translated into English for further analysis.

Procedures of Data Collection and Analysis

Prior to completing the questionnaire, participants were briefed on the research objectives and the confidentiality of the data collected. After obtaining oral informed consent, the researcher shared a Google Form link of the questionnaires with the students via WhatsApp. After this stage, a focus group interview session was scheduled with 10 volunteer students to solicit their views on the factors influencing their feedback-seeking behavior. The quantitative data were analyzed using statistical procedures such as correlation, multiple regression, and independent samples *t*-test; the students' transcribed views were scrutinized through thematic analyses. In fact, an inductive approach was adopted for analyzing the transcribed data. The researcher read the data several times and came up with the themes reflecting the factors and conditions influencing learners' FSB. In order to ensure the reliability of coding and validity of findings member checking technique with the participants was adopted. In addition, the identified themes were presented to a colleague in the department to pass a judgment on their quality.

Results

The first research question explored the possible relationships among the variables of the study. As it is indicated in Table 1, there is a medium-sized statistically significant and positive correlation between feedback-seeking behavior and L2 writing mindset ($r=.40$ at *0.05 level*) and a stronger relationship between feedback-seeking behavior and L2 writing selves ($r=.54$ at *0.01 level*) which signify that Iranian EFL learners' positive predispositions about writing make them have a positive attitude towards written corrective feedback despite its critical and judgmental flavor. In addition, there was a strong positive relationship between L2 writing mindset and L2 writing selves ($r=.58$ at *0.01 level*) among the learners, which confirms the positive association between learners' self-perception and their motivational aspirations. This rather strong relationship confirms that a learner's belief system about the nature of writing ability (mindset) is deeply interconnected with their capacity to consider themselves as a successful writer (self).

Table 1*Correlation Coefficients for the Variables of the Study*

Variables	Mean	SD	Feedback-seeking behavior	Writing mindset	Writing selves
Feedback-seeking behavior	52.02	6.27	1	.400*	.545**
Writing mindset	8.82	2.07	.400*	1	.584**
Writing selves	45.27	12.22	.545**	.584*	1

The second research question examined which subscales (namely, growth mindset, ideal and ought-to L2 writing selves) can best predict the feedback seeking behavior of Iranian EFL learners. According to Table 2, the ought-to L2 writing self ($B=.444$, $Beta=.308$, $t=2.111$, $p=.04<.05$) could significantly account for the feedback-seeking behavior of the students. Ought-to L2 writing self is related to the students' need to fulfill external obligations such as teachers' expectations and evaluation criteria. In fact, in Iranian EFL context where feedback is perceived as a form of judgment from an authority figure, the motivation to seek it aligns perfectly with the ought-to Self, which is fundamentally about fulfilling obligations and avoiding negative outcomes.

Table 2*Coefficients of Multiple Regressions*

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		<i>t</i>	<i>Sig</i>
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	28.0	6.11			4.58	.000
	76	8			9	
Ideal self	.472	.248	.323		1.90	.065
					4	
Out-to self	.444	.210	.308		2.11	.042
					1	
Growth mindset	.363	.535	.120		.680	.501

a. Dependent Variable: Feedback-seeking behavior

The third research question compared the less- and more-experienced student writers' willingness to seek feedback from their instructors in the writing courses. The mean differences indicated that less-experienced writers ($M=55.05$, $SD=5.06$) had a higher tendency for receiving feedback compared to their more-experienced counterparts ($M=49.54$, $SD=6.17$), which confirms that these learners are more dependent on their instructors for evaluative information on their writing performance. In addition, the difference between the mean scores of the two groups

reached a statistically significant difference ($F=.162$, Sig. 2-tailed=.004, $t=-3.039$). In fact, less-experienced writers are still mastering the basic aspects of writing and are less certain about the quality of their performance; therefore, they need more guidance and external validation from an expert.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Results of Independent Samples t-test

Group	N	Mean	SD	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t	df	Sig. (two-tailed)
				F	Sig.			
More-experienced	22	49.54	6.17	.162	.689	-3.039	38	.004
Less-experienced	18	55.05	5.06					

The final research question intended to qualitatively analyze the students' feedback-seeking propensities and the factors influencing their willingness to seek feedback from their writing instructors. As was stated the researcher followed thematic analysis to come up with the final themes. This procedure included steps such as reading the transcribed data for familiarization, generating initial codes, searching for the emerging themes, reviewing and refining them and producing the final report. According to the findings, almost all the learners participating in the focused group interview session believed that feedback provided in writing classes had been effective because they had become aware of their weaknesses and have attempted to resolve them:

Student A: I find the feedback useful, especially when it points out specific errors. It helps me understand my weaknesses.

Student E: I have always benefited from my instructors' feedback since they have helped us understand features of good writing.

As for the factors influencing the learners' willingness to seek feedback from their writing instructors, the analyses of their responses yield four main themes: (1) *nature and complexity of the task*, (2) *stress and confusion*, (3) *student-teacher relationship* and (4) *feedback focusing on specific needs*.

Since writing is a highly complex undertaking that the students must simultaneously pay attention to various aspects of writing, it is natural for them to encounter errors and demand feedback. When assignments are perceived as challenging or ambiguous, students may experience feelings of overwhelmed and uncertainty regarding how to proceed during the writing process.

Student C: When I was writing an argumentative text, I was overwhelmed and I couldn't even write the introduction, but my instructor's feedback and assistance helped me surpass this block.

These challenging tasks might create stress and confusion for the learners and they need a reliable source of assistance to resolve these issues, viewing feedback as a constructive resource for enhancing their writing skills:

Student B: Some writing tasks are highly confusing that teachers' guidance and support can put us in the right path and reduce our level of stress during writing.

Students may fear criticism or perceive their writing as inadequate, leading to feelings of inferiority. Additionally, confusion regarding the feedback process—such as how to formulate questions, apprehension about misinterpreting guidance, or concerns about the time and effort needed to incorporate feedback—can exacerbate these feelings. Creating a supportive environment where students feel safe to express their confusion and seek clarification can mitigate stress and promote more open engagement with instructors. In fact, the quality of teacher-student relationship is also an important factor in the students' willingness to seek feedback from their instructors. Regardless of their choices, students tend to view teachers as central figures, akin to authorities, who are attentive to their feelings. A supportive relationship encourages students to seek help:

Student A: My relationship with the teacher really matters. If I feel comfortable, I'm more likely to ask for help.

A relationship characterized by openness, respect, and support fosters trust, making students more inclined to approach their instructors for help. When students perceive their teachers as approachable and empathetic, they are more likely to request feedback without fear of negative consequences. In contrast, a distant or authoritarian relationship may deter students from seeking feedback, as they may feel intimidated or believe their concerns will not be taken seriously. Establishing rapport and demonstrating a genuine interest in students' development can facilitate more effective communication regarding feedback.

The students also highlighted that in order to be effective, the feedback needs to be specific and personalized. In fact, students are more likely to seek feedback and act upon it when they have specific questions or uncertainties:

Student B: I think feedback can be even more effective if it's more personalized. I mean instructors must provide examples of how to improve, otherwise it's hard to know what to do.

Student D: We need feedback that responds to our specific questions and problems.... General comments might not help that much.

The extent to which feedback is tailored to the individual needs of students can significantly affect their willingness to seek it. Students are more likely to pursue feedback that is perceived as relevant, timely, and specifically addressing their areas of difficulty. If feedback is overly generic or vague, it may be regarded as less useful, leading to disengagement from the process.

On the whole, the responses of TEFL students in Iran illustrate the multifaceted nature of feedback-seeking behavior, highlighting the importance of specific, constructive, and personalized feedback. These findings also indicate the significance of enhancing feedback practices to align with student needs and perceptions, fostering a more effective learning environment.

Discussion

The present study provided some insights into the feedback-seeking behavior of Iranian EFL learners, particularly concerning their self-conceptions and motivational dynamics as writers. The first finding revealed a significant moderate correlation between learners' feedback-seeking behavior and their L2 writing growth mindset. This observation is consistent with Dweck's (2006) research on growth mindsets, which posits that students who perceive their abilities as improvable through effort are more inclined to seek feedback to facilitate their development. Previous research has also indicated that growth mindset is positively correlated with feedback monitoring and inquiry (Papi et al., 2020; Xu, 2022; Yao & Zhu, 2022). Sun and Huang (2023) maintain that learners adopting a growth mindset attribute greater significance to the benefits of feedback compared to its costs. In fact, when learners face challenges while performing on writing tasks, those with a growth mindset either attempt to adapt their behavior by adopting effective strategies or refer to their instructors to provide them with feedback to resolve the problems and reach satisfactory outcomes.

The results also indicated a positive association between writing selves and feedback-seeking behavior of the learners. The ideal self represents aspirational goals, whereas the ought-to self embodies perceived responsibilities. This duality indicates that when learners view feedback as a means to achieve their writing aspirations (ideal self) or to fulfill their obligations (ought-to self), they are more proactive in seeking feedback (Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021). Previous research has also demonstrated that learners' motivational dynamics can influence their FSB (Kessler, 2023). To effectively benefit from WCF, students must establish learning goals, actively engage in environments where they receive feedback, allocate sufficient time and effort to study the feedback, and willingly apply their attentional and cognitive resources. Such strategic choices and commitments cannot be anticipated from learners who lack motivation to enhance their second language writing skills (Waller & Papi, 2017).

The study's second major finding reveals that the ought-to L2 writing self strongly predicts FSB. This construct, measured through items addressing writing competency for academic credentials, career advancement, and overcoming communication barriers, suggests learners are primarily driven by external obligations rather than intrinsic motivation (Tahmouresi & Papi, 2021). These obligations may include fulfilling teacher expectations or achieving assessment success, reflecting Turner and Patrick's (2004) observation that perceived

responsibility increases engagement with feedback—a pattern particularly evident in teacher-centered educational systems like Iran's, where students traditionally defer to instructor authority. Contrary to this finding, some scholars have indicated that ought-to L2 writing self did not predict learners' feedback monitoring and inquiry strategies (Bondarenko, 2020; Xu & Wang, 2023) which highlight the significance of contextual variations in FSB (Gong & Pang, 2025). In fact, teacher-centered nature of classrooms rendering the teachers as authority figures and source of knowledge, acceptance of hierarchical power relationships according to which students must respect and obey their teachers and the dominance of high-stake tests creating an environment where grades and external validation are important make the construct of ought-to L2 writing self a strong motivator in Iranian EFL classrooms. This finding corroborates earlier research demonstrating the positive influence of the ought-to L2 self on learning behaviors (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). Furthermore, it aligns with established connections between FSB and learner engagement (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006; Xu & Wang, 2023, 2024; Zhan et al., 2023), reinforcing writing selves as critical motivational factors that shape both writing performance and feedback-seeking strategies.

The third finding indicates that less-experienced learners exhibit higher feedback-seeking behavior. This may reflect the eagerness of novice learners to resolve the deficiencies in their performance and enhance their writing skills, as they are likely more aware of their limitations and thus more inclined to seek assistance. In other words, this uncertainty creates a heightened need for external validation and guidance from an expert (the instructor) to know if they are on the right track. This observation is supported by Papi et al. (2022) who noted that novice writers often demonstrate a stronger desire for constructive criticism while navigating the complexities of writing in a second language. In fact, they consider their instructors as the most efficient and authoritative resource that compensate for their uncertainties and enable them to accelerate their learning. It can also be hypothesized that more experienced learners may have developed confidence and metacognitive strategies that empower them to work independently and reduce their perceived need for feedback (Sherf & Morrison, 2020). This developed self-reliance or self-efficacy makes the learners trust their own judgement regarding the quality of various aspects of writing and reduces their immediate dependent need for an instructor's evaluation after every task.

The findings of focus group interview also confirmed Iranian EFL learners' positive attitude towards receiving feedback in order to resolve their specific problems. In fact, the circumstances that prompt feedback seeking often stem from a desire for improvement in performance contexts. In the same vein, Xu and Wang (2024) highlight that students' perceptions of feedback effectiveness hinge on clarity and relevance, aligning with the students' comments about needing specific guidance. According to Hattie and Timperley (2007), feedback is most effective when it is detailed and actionable so that the students can understand the areas of difficulties, can refine their written outputs and perform better in the subsequent

tasks. In order for the feedback to be effective, it must be accessible to the learners so that they can engaged with it. In the same regard, Xu and Wang (2024) maintain that the deeper the students' engagement with feedback, the more likely they are to achieve meaningful learning outcomes.

The findings of this study highlight that several key factors shape students' inclination to seek feedback from their instructors. These include the nature of the writing task, which can affect the complexity and clarity of the feedback needed; the quality of the student-teacher relationship, where a supportive and trusting rapport encourages students to ask for guidance; and the effectiveness of the feedback itself—specifically, its ability to address students' individual needs and help resolve their confusion, stress, and academic problems. When feedback is targeted and constructive, students are more motivated to seek it, perceiving it as a valuable resource for improving their skills and understanding. In parallel, Xu and Wang (2024) emphasized that students' feedback-seeking behaviors are not solely determined by personal characteristics but are also heavily shaped by the contextual environment. Personal traits such as self-efficacy—the confidence in one's ability to succeed—and shyness can either facilitate or hinder students' willingness to ask for feedback. For example, more confident students may be more proactive, while shy students might hesitate. Additionally, factors like the specific goals of assessments, whether students view tests as opportunities for growth or as mere evaluations, play a significant role in their feedback-seeking tendencies.

Xu and Wang (2024) further argue that a multitude of contextual influences—such as interactions with authority figures (teachers, administrators), institutional policies, and the broader sociocultural norms—create an environment that either encourages or discourages active engagement in the social process of seeking feedback. For instance, a classroom culture that values open communication and supports student voices can foster greater willingness among students to seek feedback. Conversely, environments that emphasize hierarchy or discourage questioning may suppress such behaviors. Overall, the social climate within the classroom, including peer interactions and institutional norms, significantly impacts students' readiness and comfort to request feedback (Luan & Quan, 2025). When the classroom environment is positive, inclusive, and supportive, students are more likely to view seeking feedback as a natural and beneficial part of their learning process. Conversely, a tense or rigid atmosphere can inhibit this engagement, potentially limiting opportunities for growth and improvement.

The importance of a positive teacher-student relationship in facilitating feedback is also supported by research from Crimmins et al. (2016), which stresses the motivational role of perceived support from educators. Xu and Wang (2023) also observed that students often aim to establish rapport with their instructors, prompting them to seek feedback and ask questions. Zhang (2024) also maintains that teachers' academic support can influence students' feedback monitoring and inquiry and can enhance their writing motivation and self-regulatory behavior. Similarly, when a teacher dedicates considerable mental effort to providing students

with meaningful and constructive writing feedback and guidance, students are likely to develop a sense of gratitude and motivation, which encourages them to improve their writing skills and to avoid disappointing the teacher. According to Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006), students benefit from engaging in a dialogue about feedback, which enhances understanding. Previous research has also found that positive learning atmospheres, quality of students' relationship and their trust in teachers (i.e., competence-based and affect-based trust) can shape their perceptions about the costs and benefits of FSB, thus influencing the quality of their engagement with feedback (Carless & Boud, 2018; Mahbodi et al., 2025).

On the whole, the quantitative and qualitative findings confirmed that FSB is a complex construct influenced by a multitude of personal, educational and sociocultural factors. Learners' cognitive and affective profiles like their mindset, self-concept and beliefs, instructors' personal and professional characteristics both as an authority and a supportive figure (that is, their credibility and approachability) in the dynamics of classroom environments and the nature and complexity of the tasks (as the potential value of guidance outweighs the perceived cost to their ego) might influence the learners' perception of WCF viewing it as a valuable tool for improvement versus a personal criticism and prompt them to request feedback or not. In fact, the findings of present study support a dynamic model of FSB that incorporates both stable motivational traits (e.g., mindset and future selves) and fluctuating situational factors (e.g., task complexity and dynamicity of classroom environments). Reaffirming the previous findings, the present study emphasized the central and proactive role of learners in the feedback process and their responsibility in seeking and learning from WCF (Papi & Hiver, 2025).

Conclusion

The present study, by integrating motivational constructs in FSB studies, confirmed the significance of students' self-perceptions about writing on their feedback-seeking behavior. Adoption of a growth mindset and a positive self concept can significantly impact learners' engagement in writing tasks, persistence in the face of challenges, and ultimately, their writing achievement. By understanding the significant role of learners' mindsets and motivational dynamics educators can create environments that promote effective feedback practices to make learners aware of their areas of difficulties and ultimately enhancing their writing abilities. Accordingly, EFL writing instructors are encouraged to integrate strategies to cultivate a growth mindset in the classroom. Emphasizing the role of feedback as a developmental tool rather than merely an evaluative measure can encourage students to actively seek guidance. They can also frame feedback sessions around students' ideal and ought-to selves to effectively motivate learners since customizing feedback to align with students' personal goals can enhance their engagement and responsiveness.

The study also contributed to the existing body of literature on feedback by indicating that developing proactive learners requires nurturing productive motivations, building positive teacher-student relationships that shape the ought-to

self positively and simultaneously creating supportive environments (e.g., by scaffolding complex tasks and mitigating cognitive and emotional barriers) that reduce the challenges of seeking feedback among EFL learners. In the same vein, teachers must be aware of the factors that influence the learners' feedback-seeking behavior and create a supportive atmosphere that can encourage students to seek feedback. They should explicitly emphasize the importance of feedback-seeking as an integral part of the writing process. Educators can increase students' willingness to seek feedback by providing targeted and constructive suggestions that directly address specific writing issues. Such tailored feedback helps students feel that their unique learning needs are recognized, encouraging them to view feedback as an essential component of their growth rather than merely a form of evaluation. Collaborative classroom activities can foster a culture where feedback is viewed positively and routinely. Encouraging peer feedback alongside instructor feedback offers additional opportunities for learners to engage with their writing process and reinforces the concept of continuous improvement.

Despite the insights provided, the present study has suffered from some limitations. The convenience sampling, small sample size and use of self-reported questionnaire data can limit the generalizability of the findings. The focus-group interview session also did not provide an opportunity to probe deeply into each individual's experiences which could have been compensated by conducting individualized and in-depth interview sessions. There is also a need for further explorations of the relationship between other variables related to learners' self-perceptions and their FSB in EFL contexts. The interplay between other personal factors (e.g., grit, emotion regulation, etc.) and broader contextual influences (e.g., teachers' support and classroom social climate) in L2 writing environments can also be explored. In fact, future research can expand by considering social, instructional, and cultural dimensions that may further explain FSB and engagement among L2 writers. Longitudinal studies can also examine changes in these constructs over time and their effects on feedback uptake and writing proficiency.

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Applying Sociodrama with Music and Poetry Therapy to Enhance the Vocabulary and Reading Skills of EFL Learners with Autism Spectrum Disorder

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Abstract

In the context of the 21st century's rapidly advancing global and technological landscape, the importance of inclusive universal education has perhaps never been greater. This is especially relevant for one of society's most disenfranchised groups – learners with special needs. The latter includes individuals with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) who often require alternative teaching methods, as traditional educational approaches typically fail to engage them effectively. Despite the relative abundance of studies on general education for learners with ASD, a review of the English as a foreign language (EFL) literature shows a noteworthy paucity in this regard. Accordingly, this study aimed to examine the vocabulary and reading skills of EFL learners with ASD by applying sociodrama techniques combined with music therapy and poetry therapy. For this purpose, 20 male adolescents from three ASD-specialized schools in Tehran (whom the researchers managed to have access to) were selected for the study through nonrandom convenience sampling. They were subsequently divided into two groups, each receiving a 10-session intervention: one group engaged in sociodrama with music therapy, while the other participated in sociodrama with poetry therapy. The results indicated promising improvements in both groups, suggesting that perhaps the combination of sociodrama with music and poetry therapy may be an effective approach to enhancing the vocabulary and reading skill of EFL learners with ASD. This study may serve as a small step towards expanding the existing dearth of knowledge concerning teaching EFL to individuals with ASD in line with the goal of inclusivity in education.

Keywords: Autism spectrum disorder (ASD), EFL, Music therapy, Poetry therapy, Reading comprehension, Sociodrama, Special needs education, Vocabulary learning

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Introduction

Vocabulary learning is a multifaceted process integral to language acquisition and proficiency as it encompasses the development of knowledge about word meanings, usage, and appropriate use (McIntyre et al, 2020; Nation, 2018). This process involves both the breadth (the number of words known) and depth (the quality of understanding of those words) of vocabulary knowledge (Qian, 2008; Webb et al., 2023). Wen and Rosli (2023) emphasized that effective vocabulary acquisition requires a combination of deliberate learning strategies and incidental exposure; the former involves focused activities while the latter occurs through exposure to language in context.

Studies consistently highlight the close relationship between vocabulary learning and reading comprehension in the field of English language teaching (ELT); indeed, it is widely accepted that effective reading comprehension cannot be achieved without adequate vocabulary knowledge (e.g., Baker & Santoro, 2023; Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Röthlisberger et al., 2023; Schmitt, 2010; Zeng et al., 2025). However, as noted by Baixauli et al. (2021), reading comprehension is a multi-component process that involves not only word recognition but also the ability to integrate context, syntactic structures, and world knowledge to make sense of a text.

While the aforesaid composite ability may raise challenges for the majority of EFL learners (if not all), learners with specific cognitive impairments such as ASD may face more severe obstacles in the process of reading (Carlsson et al., 2020). ASD is a complex neurodevelopmental condition marked by challenges in social communication, repetitive behaviors, and a range of restricted interests (Key & D'Ambrose Slaboch, 2021; Waizbard-Bartov et al., 2023). Individuals with ASD may exhibit difficulties with verbal and nonverbal communication, problems with establishing and maintaining relationships, and a preference for routines or highly specific activities (Gao et al., 2023). The severity of these symptoms which are typically present from early childhood and can persist throughout life varies significantly across individuals, from those requiring extensive support to those who are highly independent (Hodges et al., 2020; Lecheler et al., 2020). It is arguably an established given that individuals with ASD respond not to conventional but highly innovative pedagogies (Livingston et al., 2021; Reindal et al., 2023).

One considerably creative pedagogical approach is sociodrama: a reflective procedure that dramatizes individuals' feelings, emotions, and thoughts in relation to their external world (Ashiabi, 2007; Ius, 2020). According to Sternberg and Garcia (2000), "Sociodrama is a group action method that deals with roles we share with others" (as cited in Mambarasi et al., 2018, p. 44). These roles might be family roles, character roles adopted from movies, cartoons, and stories, and functional roles such as that of a firefighter or school manager. The teacher changes the role based on the dynamics of the session (Nolte, 2014). A number of studies have been reported globally on the effectiveness of sociodrama in teaching individuals with neurodevelopmental problems including ASD (e.g., Jang et al., 2022; Rahimi Pordanjani, 2021; Thorp et al., 1995; Trudel & Nadig, 2019).

In addition to sociodrama, there are two other creative pedagogies, namely poetry and music therapy. Poetry therapy can be defined as “the intentional use of poetry and related forms of literature and creative writing for personal growth and healing” (McCulliss, 2011, p. 94). Poetry can be embedded into therapy through different ways such as “the therapist’s attunement to language, clients’ own creative work, exploring published poetry and other literature with a client” (Hedges, 2013, p. 87). In the same vein, Mazza (2021) considers three major modes in poetry therapy: the receptive / prescriptive mode, the expressive / creative mode, and the symbolic / ceremonial mode. Ample studies have been reported on the promising results of implementing poetry therapy in educational settings (e.g., Bintz & Monobe, 2018; Bramberger, 2015; Cronin & Hawthorne, 2019; Ferez Mora et al., 2020; Shabani Minaabad, 2020).

As for Music therapy, this is an interdisciplinary modality that integrates psychology, medicine, musicology, physical biology, and special education (Wang et al., 2023). It further applies “evidence-based music interventions to address the mental, physical, or emotional needs of an individual” (Gooding & Langston, 2019, p. 317). These interventions incorporate a profound specificity of the client-therapist interaction (Gaebel et al., 2025). Recent research (e.g., Carr et al., 2023; He et al., 2024; Schäfer, 2023; Shi et al., 2024; Williams et al., 2024; Yum et al., 2024; Zhao, 2024) underscores the efficacy of active music therapy on general wellbeing and language communication across diverse populations including those with ASD.

Review of the Related Literature

ASD

As noted earlier, ASD is a neurodevelopmental condition characterized by persistent challenges in social communication and interaction, along with restricted, repetitive patterns of behavior, interests, or activities (Carter & Hartley, 2021; Frewer et al., 2021). As the word autism comes from the Greek word *autós* meaning *self*, individuals with this diagnosis tend to be withdrawn into their personal worlds and somewhat detached from their surrounding environment (Huang et al., 2018; Mazurek et al., 2018). Early signs of ASD often include delayed babbling, reduced verbal interaction, and persistent echolalia (Hodges et al., 2020).

Learners with ASD may confront challenges such as paying attention in class, grasping complicated issues, and completing tasks, thereby failing to achieve in educational settings and thus being marginalized (Frost et al., 2024). Research highlights the unique strengths of such individuals, particularly in visual intelligence (Bedford et al., 2016; Zhou et al., 2022). Accordingly, Grandin (2006, 2009) discusses how children with ASD may communicate through visual thinking, emphasizing that visual language might be their primary mode of understanding and interaction. She further describes her thought process as thinking in pictures. More specifically on language learning among individuals with ASD, ample research demonstrates the wide variability in verbal ability among such persons, from nonverbal to highly articulate (e.g., Alasmari et al., 2024; Digard et al., 2020; Hirota & King, 2023; Kissine et al., 2023).

Vocabulary Learning

There are many different methods for teaching vocabulary to young learners and children with special needs including ASD. For instance, Huang et al. (2018) found that using gestures to teach L2 vocabulary was effective while Bakhsh (2016) emphasized the importance of games in teaching L2 vocabulary to such young learners. Gao et al. (2020) highlighted the effectiveness of using stories to teach L2 vocabulary. Nunes et al. (2021) demonstrated the impact of the positive effect of two dialogic reading interventions, namely RECALL (Reading to Engage Children with Autism in Language and Learning) and Adapted Shared Reading (ASR) on vocabulary acquisition among preschool-aged children with ASD.

Kover et al. (2013) pointed out that cognitive difficulties in children with ASD can hinder their language use, despite knowing a wide variety of words, especially with speech articulation. Furthermore, children with ASD often struggle with processing auditory information, and using sight vocabulary may help overcome this challenge (Browder & Xin, 1998, as cited in Yahya et al., 2013). A study by Gonzalez-Barerro and Nadig (2018) stressed the importance of adequate exposure to both vocabulary and morphology for children with high-functioning ASD in bilingual settings. Altakhaineh et al. (2020) examined the impact of IQ and the use of colors in teaching L2 vocabulary to students with ASD; while IQ played a significant role in learning both first and second languages, no significant effect was found when using colored pictures compared to black and white images.

Reading Comprehension

For individuals diagnosed with ASD, reading comprehension can present unique challenges. Reading comprehension difficulties among children with ASD often stem from impairments in understanding connected speech and making sense of how words, phrases, and sentences work together (Henderson et al., 2014). O'Connor and Klein (2004) identified additional strategies for students with high-functioning ASD which could help them engage with the text and improve comprehension. Nation et al. (2006) examined components of reading skill in children with ASD, noting that while word recognition and non-word decoding are often impaired, some children with ASD demonstrate relatively strong word recognition skills despite difficulties with non-word decoding. Williamson et al. (2014) found that reciprocal questioning, peer support, and story mapping strategies were effective in improving comprehension in ASD adolescents.

Other effective strategies for improving reading comprehension in children with ASD include think-aloud protocols (Howorth et al., 2016). The choice text strategy has also been shown to increase engagement and productivity among adolescents with ASD by allowing them to select texts of interest (Solis et al., 2019). Additionally, the compare-contrast text structure strategy has been found to be particularly useful for understanding scientific genres (Carnahan & Williamson, 2013).

Sociodrama

Sociodrama is characterized as a form of social play in which individuals engage their imagination and creativity, adopting various roles to construct pretended scenarios that incorporate elements of fantasy and symbolism (Ius, 2020; Nilsson, 2009). Conceptualized by Moreno (1949, as cited in Maciel, 2021), sociodrama is a pedagogy founded upon creative act. Sociodrama's theoretical framework is anchored in role theory, spontaneity theory, and social bonding anthropology (Giacomucci, 2021). The themes explored in sociodrama are inherently group-centered, typically categorized into three main areas of family roles, character roles, and functional roles (Hughes, 1999, as cited in Ashiabi, 2007).

Sociodrama has found diverse applications across various fields. In education, it serves as a pedagogical strategy for enhancing learning by enabling students to tackle complex social issues and fostering critical thinking through experiential learning (Papaioannou & Kondoyianni, 2022). While the application of sociodrama in education has been reported quite extensively with positive results (e.g., Lima-Rodrigues, 2011; Lubis & Wahyuni, 2021; Mathis et al., 1980; Pecaski McLennan, 2008; Thorp et al., 1995), only few studies have been conducted on the effect of sociodrama in language learning settings, the majority of which demonstrated the promising impact of sociodrama on EFL learners' speaking (Mambarasi et al., 2018; Nehe et al., 2019; Nuraeni et al., 2019; Taufan, 2020).

Poetry Therapy

Poetry therapy that presumably dates back to the ancient Egyptians of 4000 BCE and was incarnated in modern times in mid-20th century (Chavis, 2011) is the process through which clients can reflect their feelings using poetry (Carroll, 2005). A number of studies have been documented in the literature on the outcome of using poetry therapy in the educational environment. Williams (2011) reported the positive results of applying a supportive/empathic phase, a response/examination phase, an action/application phase, and a creative phase where learners create their own response to a selected poem. Bintz and Monobe (2018) used poetry therapy to integrate reading and writing across the curriculum among graduate students from multiple content areas while Cronin and Hawthorne (2019) noted that poetry can be used to teach writing and improve students' reflective skills.

Poetry therapy has proven to be advantageous also for learners with ASD as it enhances communication skills among adults with ASD (Davis, 1996) and in fostering emotional expression and language development among such learners (Hieb, 1997). Guttke (2018) demonstrated the effectiveness of poetry therapy on the reading comprehension of EFL learners with ASD and Shabani Minaabad (2020) reported the positive impact of poetry therapy on the language skills of students with ASD.

Music Therapy

Music therapy is "an established healthcare profession that uses music to address physical, emotional, cognitive, and social needs of individuals of all ages"

(Yinger & Gooding, 2013, p. 535). The methods used in music therapy vary depending on how the client interacts with the music and the following clinical goal, such as providing procedural support, managing pain, or addressing emotional wellbeing (Yinger & Gooding, 2013). Different music genres are used in music therapy such as new age, orchestral classical compositions, post-rock, and synthwave (Jin, 2023; Toop, 2016).

Music therapy has been reported rather extensively in the literature as an approach with favorable educational gains among all learners and those with ASD too. One such study was conducted by Fan et al. (2024) who found that Orff music therapy significantly improved language expression, comprehension, social skills, and cognitive abilities in children with ASD. Similarly, Shabani Minaabad and Dorani Lomar (2020) explored the influence of music therapy on children with ASD and observed encouraging outcomes in language development, social behavior, and literacy skills. Shi et al. (2024) conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis thereby demonstrating the positive effects of music therapy on language communication and social skills in children with ASD. Archontopoulou and Vaiouli (2020) reported that most educators of children with ASD regarded music therapy as a useful tool for language development.

Purpose of the Study

In 2015, world leaders adopted the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) consisting of 17 macro goals to be achieved by 2030; the fourth goal in this agenda is “a commitment to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all” (UNESCO, 2020, p. 2). The above statement indisputably asserts that the any human being regardless of all features and factors including race and ethnicity, gender identity and expression, religious and ideological beliefs, and of course disability inter alia is entitled to the inalienable right to quality education. This universal commitment alone is adequate justification for exploring methods to enhance the English language learning – which is perhaps no longer a luxury but an educational must in the modern world – of learners with disabilities such as ASD.

Furthermore, as of the second half of the 20th century and the trend of the characterization of the concept of disease not solely as a medical phenomenon but more of a social problem, medical conditions such as ASD are known to have vivid effects on the individual’s socialization (Nelson, 1995; Saborido & Zamora-Bonilla, 2024). In other words, the epidemiological burden of disease is not only a personal problem for the affected individual but also together with societal repercussions. Ergo, the juxtaposition of the indispensable human right of an individual to education with the social consequence of marginalization – if they are denied this fundamental right – would directly translate into the continuous need for identifying more efficient ways to enhance learning among the ASD population. Accordingly, they would develop their potential and move towards autonomy, on the one side, while the community they live in would benefit from their socioeconomic participation.

As stated earlier, certain studies (albeit not plenty in number) have reported the merits of applying sociodrama, music therapy, and poetry therapy individually among learners with ASD. Excluding one study by Brandalise (2015) in Brazil that explored the integration of drama and music therapy for adults with ASD in a therapeutic and not educational facility, the researchers were not able to locate any studies on the convergence of these approaches in the ELT classroom. To address this gap, the researchers proposed a comparative study that examines the effects of sociodrama, music therapy, and poetry therapy in an ELT environment, with focus on the reading comprehension and vocabulary development of adolescents with ASD.

It is worth noting that the rationale for selecting reading comprehension and vocabulary as the study's dependent variables stems from the fact that while these two skills are typically interrelated in L2 learning (Richards & Renandya, 2008), it is unclear whether the same relationship exists for learners with ASD. These individuals may excel at understanding isolated words but struggle with synthesizing them into coherent meaning within sentences or passages (Andreola et al., 2021). The latter per se raises the possibility that the impact of the instructional methods applied in this study on reading and vocabulary acquisition may produce unpredictable results. In line with the argumentation above, the following two research questions were formulated:

- Q₁: Is there any significant difference between the impact of applying sociodrama and music therapy and sociodrama and poetry therapy on the vocabulary learning of EFL learners with ASD?
- Q₂: Is there any significant difference between the impact of applying sociodrama and music therapy and sociodrama and poetry therapy on the reading comprehension of EFL learners with ASD?

Method

Participants

To achieve the objectives of this study with its quasi-experimental posttest-only comparison group design, 20 male students aged between 12 and 18 all diagnosed with ASD were selected through nonrandom convenience sampling. Simply put, this small group consisted of the individuals whom the researchers could access after an extended series of negotiations as there were indeed two significant barriers in accessing a larger sample. Firstly, entrance to ASD-specialized schools required considerable administration arrangements and the researchers succeeded in engaging with three such schools only following around six months of follow-up. Secondly, obtaining the required permissions and informed consent from the participants' parents or caregivers involved a complex process, carried out with strict attention to protecting the anonymity and privacy of the learners. Ultimately, access was granted to three special education schools for students with ASD in Tehran (the names of which are not disclosed in the interest of confidentiality). The participants were then randomly divided into two experimental

groups. Group A received sociodrama techniques combined with music therapy while Group B experienced sociodrama techniques paired with poetry therapy.

Instrumentation and Materials

Reading Texts

As the interventions in this study were based on the application of prose and poetry and since the researchers were not able to locate any such materials in English which would be comprehensible for the specific group of learners with ASD at hand in terms of their English proficiency and their neuropsychological condition, the researchers had no resort but to develop the materials themselves. In doing so, they developed the materials for both experimental groups containing the same vocabulary items. The key difference lay in the presentation format: one group received the texts in prose form accompanied by music while the other group engaged with poetry texts without music (as further explained in the procedure section). Four narrative poems – *A Rose in Autumn*, *A Robot Becoming a Human*, *The King*, and *The Little Fish and the Seagull* – were written by one of the researchers, who also conducted the instruction in both groups. These poems were tailored to the learners' language proficiency level and included the poetic elements of rhyme and rhythm. Specifically, the rhythm followed a trochaic tetrameter (DUM-da) structure with four metrical feet per line.

The poems underwent a three-stage review process. First, three IELTS examiners with native-like English proficiency used the pertinent rubric for the IELTS writing paper in assessing the linguistic accuracy and authenticity of the poems. Second, an English literature professor checked the rhyme and rhythm in accordance with the DUM-da structure. Third, an ASD specialist assessed the thematic poems' appropriateness for this specific learner population by making sure the poetry would not include elements that often disrupt the routine of such individuals, thereby instigating their sudden despair in the classroom. These narrative poems were used exclusively in the experimental group receiving sociodrama and poetry therapy as materials for vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension.

In parallel, the same four titles were adapted into prose format with identical vocabulary for use in the music therapy group. These prose texts intentionally excluded poetic features to isolate the potential impact of the musical element. Like the poems, they were also reviewed by the IELTS examiners and the ASD specialist.

Initial Vocabulary Checklist

The researchers created the list of target vocabulary intended to be taught through both prose and poetry during instruction (as described above). This list was presented to both groups in the form of a checklist prior to the intervention. The aim was to identify unfamiliar vocabulary items which were later used to design a teacher-made vocabulary posttest. This posttest served to compare the vocabulary gains of both groups after the treatment.

Posttests

Two teacher-made posttests were developed, piloted, and administered after the treatment phase. The vocabulary posttest included 13 multiple-choice items, each with a written statement and three pictorial answer options. Learners were asked to select the image corresponding to the given word. This paper-based test was accompanied by an answer sheet and had a 13-minute time limit.

The reading posttest included two texts based on the instructional materials, each followed by four multiple-choice questions (with four options), totaling eight questions. Students were given 18 minutes to complete the reading section. Notably, the number of items in both assessments was intentionally limited, following existing research indicating that students with ASD often struggle with larger or more conventional testing formats (e.g., King & Palikara, 2018; Yang et al., 2022). Furthermore, using alternative assessment strategies was not an efficient procedure as the participants were familiar with the multiple-choice format only and the introduction of other modalities would not be advisable for learners with ASD as they happen to be significantly resistant and non-responsive to change of routines (Gibson et al., 2021; Guttke, 2018). As such, calculating reliability for a test which includes a deliberately limited number of items may not serve much purposeful (Larson-Hall, 2010).

Instrumental Music Tracks

Since there is no universally effective type of music for individuals with ASD and musical preferences and responsiveness can vary widely, the sociodrama and music therapy group experienced 24 instrumental music tracks across a diverse range of genres. These included new age, ambient, modern classical, orchestral, cinematic, neoclassical, ambient post-rock, ambient cinematic, and synthwave. The tracks featured a broad spectrum of frequencies from deep, low rumbles to high-pitched tones. They generally offered long, repetitive, slowly evolving soundscapes with soft melodies and rhythms designed to set a mood or atmosphere rather than to serve as a focal point. The selection and use of these tracks were reviewed and approved by a music therapist experienced in working with students with ASD.

Observation

The instructor adopted a semi-structured observation approach in the role of a participant-observer to document dominant behaviors exhibited by participants in both experimental groups during vocabulary learning and reading comprehension sessions. With parental consent, each session was audio-recorded for research purposes only and all participants were referred to using pseudonyms to protect their identities. After each session, the teacher-researcher transcribed the audio recordings to capture detailed classroom events and produced observation notes. This process enabled her to identify recurring behaviors among the learners and thus cautiously link these recurring themes to the quantitative findings of the study and corroborate them (as elaborated in the Discussion).

Procedure

The treatment in the two sociodrama groups was conducted by the same teacher (one of the researchers) and consisted of 10 sessions, each lasting 45 minutes over a period of 10 weeks. Prior to setting up the treatment for both groups, the teacher in collaboration with the other two researchers in this study developed a relatively comprehensive procedure for instruction (described below) with detailed lesson plans for each session. Throughout the treatment, the three researchers had regular consultation regarding the implementation of the two teaching modalities aimed at closely monitoring the process. In both groups, the learners adopted multiple sociodrama techniques (all of which are listed and described in Appendix A). They also went through common issues through techniques such as pressure circle, breaking in, behind the back, etc. and they sympathized with each other (comfort circle).

Sociodrama and Poetry Therapy

Firstly, the teacher started the class with greetings, introduction, and vocabulary assessment. Then, in the warm-up phase, she read the poem to the participants and asked them questions about it; she also asked them to speak about their own experiences.

Subsequently, the teacher conducted the process of reading each line and explaining it through pictures and other visual aids. The students attempted to repeat the words or the whole line. It was followed by asking questions both to comprehend the context and also to learn the vocabularies. At times, the learners attempted to know by asking questions such as What? Is it true? Can I say that? The teacher/researcher then showed them pictures. Certain learners could answer while others could not; those who could not tried to copy their friends. Next, the teacher repeated the line again as well as the new word.

In the transition from the warm-up phase to the active phase, the students were asked to don masks as part of the exercise. This transition facilitated a more immersive and engaging learning environment. Once the masks were in place, the teacher directed the students to respond to a series of questions. Each student, while wearing a mask, answered the questions in turn. When a student provided an incorrect answer, the teacher responded by offering clues to guide the student toward the correct response. This process of providing hints continued until the student arrived at the correct answer. Upon reaching the correct response, the teacher would repeat the question and the correct answer to reinforce learning and ensure comprehension (for an example of the teacher-learners interaction, see Scenarios I and II in Appendix B).

Sociodrama and Music Therapy

After the greeting, the teacher explained to the students what they were going to do during that session. Then, she asked the vocabulary to quickly assess the

students. As for the warm-up, the students listened to a music track which was selected in accordance with the topic of the story that was going to be taught that session. However, the researcher was ready to change the track whenever the students asked her to do so.

They talked about the theme and topic of the story followed by questions related to the story. The teacher asked the learners' taste and feelings about the music and if the music reminded them of something to share. She also asked each student for the word list she had prepared beforehand to ensure that all the words were new to each student before the teaching commenced. The method used regarding music therapy was imaginal listening as the participants listened to different instrumental tracks and the music was changed based on their tastes or when they experienced different moods during the process of reading. For instance, when the character needed hesitation and thinking, the teacher shifted to ambient music.

The story was used as the source of reading comprehension in this group while the music was being played in the background. The teacher read the story so that the students had this opportunity to match the sounds with the music soundscapes. Next, she read the story line by line so that she could explain the meaning of each line while emphasizing the new words that were going to be taught that session. This emphasis was done through the repetition of the new words while the word was underlined on the paper. In order to keep the students attentive in class while assessing them, the teacher asked the students to put the photos next to their corresponding written format.

In the active phase, the researcher/teacher used masks (as described in the poetry therapy group). Acting the roles, the teacher started digging up the meaning beneath the story; she asked them improvisatory questions which the students would answer (some samples are presented (for an example of the teacher-learners interaction, see Scenarios I and II in Appendix C).

In the two sociodrama groups, the learners adopted multiple sociodrama techniques such as assisting each other verbally or nonverbally or interacting to answer a question (multiple doubles), looking at each other's gesture and lip reading and then repeating (mirror), and assessing to what extent the mirrors have acted truly (focusing on differences / identification technique). They also went through common issues through techniques such as pressure circle, breaking in, behind the back, etc. and they sympathized with each other (comfort circle).

Results

The relevant descriptive and inferential statistics conducted in this study appear below chronologically. The descriptive statistics of the vocabulary and reading posttests are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of the Scores of Both Experimental Groups on the Vocabulary and Reading Posttests

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Skewness	
	Stat.	Stat.	Stat.	Stat.	Stat.	Stat.	Std. Error
Vocab – Poetry	10	2	6	4.30	1.059	-.743	.687
Vocab – Music	10	3	9	7.30	2.163	-1.306	.687
Reading - Poetry	10	2	8	5.30	2.003	-.515	.687
Reading – Music	10	2	11	7.70	2.830	-.979	.687
Valid N (listwise)	10						

Regarding the vocabulary posttest, the mean and standard deviation of the scores were 4.30 and 1.06 in the sociodrama poetry group and 7.30 and 2.16 in the sociodrama music group, respectively. Also, both sets of scores enjoyed normality ($-0.743 / 0.687 = -1.081$ and $-1.306 / 0.687 = -1.900$, both falling within ± 1.96). As for the reading posttest, the mean and standard deviation of the scores were 5.30 and 2.00 in the sociodrama poetry group and 7.70 and 2.83 in the sociodrama music group, respectively. In addition, both sets of scores met the assumption of normality ($-0.515 / 0.687 = -0.749$ and $-0.979 / 0.687 = -1.425$, both falling within ± 1.96). Furthermore, the reliabilities of the scores of both experimental groups on the vocabulary posttest were 0.81 and 0.79 while those on the reading posttest were 0.78 and 0.80.

Testing the Null Hypotheses

The two null hypotheses below were formulated in line with the quantitative questions.

H₀₁: There is no significant difference between the impact of sociodrama and music therapy and sociodrama and poetry therapy on the vocabulary of EFL learners with ASD.

H₀₂: There is no significant difference between the impact of sociodrama and music therapy and sociodrama and poetry therapy on the reading of EFL learners with ASD.

To test the veracity of the two null hypotheses of the study, the researchers conducted two independent samples *t*-tests. Going back to Table 1, the score distributions in both groups represented normality. Therefore, running a parametric *t*-test was legitimized.

As Table 2 indicates, with the F value of 0.796 at the significance level of 0.384 being larger than 0.05, the variances between the two groups were not significantly different. Therefore, the results of the t -test with the assumption of homogeneity of the variances were reported here. The results ($t = -0.355$, $p = 0.727 > 0.05$) indicate that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups' vocabulary posttest and that the null hypothesis was not rejected. In other words and in response to the first research question, there was no significant difference between the effect of sociodrama and music therapy and sociodrama and poetry therapy on the vocabulary of EFL learners with ASD.

Table 2

Independent Samples T-Test of the Mean Scores of Both Groups on the Vocabulary Posttest

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Dif.	Std. Error Dif.
Equal variances assumed	.796	.384	-.355	18	.727	-.400	1.126
Equal variances not assumed			-.355	16.8	.727	-.400	1.126

The same process was conducted for the second null hypothesis. Accordingly, Table 3 presents the statistical comparison of the mean scores of both experimental groups on the reading posttest.

Table 3

Independent Samples t-Test of the Mean Scores of Both Groups on the Reading Posttest

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means			
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	5.15	.036	-1.39	18	.180	-1.000	.716
Equal variances not assumed			-1.39	13.6	.185	-1.000	.716

As Table 3 indicates, with the F value of 5.152 at the significance level of 0.036 being smaller than 0.05, the variances between the two groups were significantly different. Therefore, the results of the t -test with the assumption of heterogeneity of the variances were reported here. The results ($t = -1.396$, $p = 0.185 > 0.05$) indicate that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups' reading posttest and that the null hypothesis was not rejected. That is to say that in response to the second research question, there was no significant difference between the effect of sociodrama and music therapy and sociodrama and poetry therapy on the reading comprehension of EFL learners with ASD.

Discussion

As noted above, the quantitative data analysis indicated no significant difference between the effect of sociodrama and music therapy and sociodrama and poetry therapy on the vocabulary and reading comprehension of EFL learners with ASD. This conclusion is discussed below in the context of some of the other pertinent studies reported. To begin with, Martínez-Vérez et al. (2024) conducted a systematic review, synthesizing 80 studies on art therapy and music therapy interventions on children with ASD and ADHD and found significant improvements in their communication, and social, cognitive, emotional, and behavioral skills. Similarly, Martí-Vilar et al. (2023) concluded that theatre-based interventions using role-play, improvisation, and movement could significantly improve communication and social interaction, nonverbal language such as pragmatics and narrative ability, and emotional comprehension in individuals with ASD. Likewise, the results of the present study indicating the usefulness of sociodrama align with those of the above studies.

The results of this study also resonate with that of Yizengaw (2021) who found social skills training effective on interpersonal interactions of children with ASD. In their scoping review, Gibson et al. (2021) proposed a conceptual framework, concluding that play-based interventions can support social and communication development in autistic children aged 2–8 years. In the same vein, the findings match with that reported by Chiang et al. (2024); the researchers used social-competence group intervention featuring didactic teaching and practice in play contexts for preschool children with ASD, concluding that the intervention was effective in improving these children's social competence and reducing caregivers' parental stress.

In addition, applying a role-play assessment tool and drama-based social skills intervention for adults with ASD, Ivers (2024) found dramatherapy a flexible approach for those with difficulties in verbal expression thus leading to improvements in communication. Similarly, Trudel and Nadig (2019) applied drama-based social skills intervention for adults with ASD and used a role-play assessment tool to measure the changes thereby finding improvements in communicant and self-regulation skills from pre- to post-intervention. Again, the present study demonstrated the effectiveness of sociodrama in line with the findings of the aforesaid study.

Regarding music, the result of this research is convergent with that presented by Williams et al. (2024), indicating that children with ASD possess exceptional musical ability; integrating music with language could increase their attention to spoken word. Lim and Draper (2010) found that language training embedded with music was more effective than the speech training among low functioning participants. Saedi et al. (2021) found rhythmic poetry training effective on the language skills of children with ASD including linking vocabulary understanding, grammatical understanding, and word differentiation. Accordingly, the outcome of the present study is in accordance with that of these three studies.

Regarding poetry, Shabani Minaabad (2020) found poetry therapy effective on language development and social skills of children with ASD while Soali and Krisbiantoro (2021) asserted that showing pictures and doing fun and engaging activities were effective in writing English descriptive texts among students with ASD in inclusive schools. They also found that during the process of writing, students followed specific learning strategies, like planning before writing, outlining and picture prompting, repetition, asking for help, and teacher's modeling. Again, the conclusion of the present study was congruent with that of the above studies.

The reason for this lack of significant difference between the impact of sociodrama and music therapy and sociodrama and poetry therapy on the vocabulary and reading skill of individuals with ASD may be the immediate corollary of the high level of classroom engagement and the alacrity manifested by the learners in both groups. This proposition was perhaps tangibly observable throughout the teacher-researcher's observation during the interventions. Indeed, she made note of several cases of the learners manifesting creativity in the process of vocabulary learning and reading comprehension and while responding to the improvisatory questions during the active phase.

Another dominant behavior that the researcher observed was the learners' relating to the sociodrama and the music or poetry they were exposed which encouraged them to use language to express their feelings and aspirations. Furthermore, the teacher/researcher observed increasing verbal interaction among the learners again in both groups. This growing interaction was of course in the modality of teacher-learner and learner-learner.

Additionally, if sociodrama with music therapy (i.e., A + B) and sociodrama with poetry therapy (i.e., A + C) bear no significantly different impact, then perhaps the immediate logical deduction is that sociodrama (A) outweighs the effect of music therapy (B) and poetry therapy (C). Hence, the not so different impact of the two modes of intervention in this study is to be probably interpreted through exploring further the mechanism of sociodrama in the EFL classroom. If so, one could arguably postulate that it was in effect engaging in sociodrama that helped the EFL learners with ASD develop empathy and understand diverse perspectives. This emotional engagement probably deepened their comprehension of narratives which enabled them to relate to characters and situations within texts.

Also, the dynamic and interactive nature of sociodrama may have substantially boosted motivation among EFL learners. As the learners in both

experimental groups were actively involved in the learning process, they were perhaps more likely to engage with new vocabulary and reading materials, leading to improved learning outcomes. Furthermore, sociodrama provided a low-pressure environment for practicing social language skills. By navigating dialogues and interactions in a structured setting, the learners had the opportunity to enhance their conversational abilities and vocabulary usage thus contributing to their overall language proficiency.

Sociodrama perhaps encouraged critical thinking and problem-solving as learners negotiated roles and scenarios in both groups. This active engagement could have facilitated deeper discussions about texts thereby enhancing reading comprehension by allowing the learners to analyze and interpret language and meaning more effectively. Moreover, the safe space created in sociodrama settings perhaps alleviated anxiety for these learners with ASD, empowering them to take risks in their language use. As they gained confidence through participation, they became more willing to engage with new vocabulary and reading materials.

The aforesaid safe and congenial space may well be what learners with ASD need to feel prior to any attempt at learning new materials since for such individuals, it appears that they wish to remain in their comfort zone at all times and in all places. As such, the result of this study has perhaps indicated that sociodrama can promote such a context for learners with ASD to expand their vocabulary and reading skill.

Conclusion

The findings of this study highlight the importance of employing sociodrama techniques in language teaching for EFL learners with ASD and may offer several pedagogical implications, particularly, concerning vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension. First, sociodrama emphasizes group participation and collaboration, fostering a supportive learning community. This social interaction can possibly create a comfortable environment for EFL learners with ASD thereby enhancing their vocabulary and reading through peer support and shared experiences. Secondly, sociodrama may allow learners to explore language in meaningful contexts. By acting out real-life scenarios, students may acquire vocabulary that is relevant and applicable to their daily lives which could significantly enhance retention and comprehension as the new words are perhaps more relatable and easier to remember.

In addition, sociodrama incorporates visual, auditory, and kinesthetic elements, catering to various learning styles. This multisensory approach arguably reinforces vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension thus making learning more accessible and enjoyable. Also, sociodrama allows learners to express their thoughts and feelings creatively. This self-expression could foster a personal connection to vocabulary and texts, leading to a deeper understanding and retention of language.

On another front, music provides rich contexts for vocabulary use, illustrating meanings through lyrics. This contextualization may help learners establish connections between words and their applications thus enhancing comprehension and the ability to use vocabulary appropriately. EFL learners with ASD may also benefit from the auditory stimulation that music offers thereby fostering better phonemic awareness and aiding in vocabulary recognition and pronunciation. Additionally, music often evokes emotions and forges a personal connection to language learning. This emotional engagement may deepen understanding and retention of vocabulary as learners relate words to the feelings and experiences conveyed in songs. This connection may further enhance reading comprehension as they engage with narratives.

Regarding poetry therapy, it is perhaps safe to assert that poetry encourages introspection and allows learners to reflect on their experiences and thoughts. This reflective practice may deepen their understanding of vocabulary in context and improve their ability to connect personally with reading materials. The therapeutic nature of poetry creates a calming atmosphere that can alleviate anxiety, especially for learners with ASD. A relaxed environment fosters openness to language exploration thereby making it easier for students to engage with vocabulary and comprehend texts.

As elaborated above, this study delineated that both methods may foster language learning. By recognizing their effectiveness, educators may be inclined to employ the potential of the two methods to establish a more inclusive and supportive classroom environment, especially for learners who have special needs – such as ASD. Teachers may put into effect certain strategies in accordance with the findings presented above. For instance, sociodrama can be utilized to create role-playing scenarios that encourage learners to look into various perspectives and nurture empathy.

Alongside the role that teachers can fulfill in this context, syllabus designers can also incorporate these therapeutic approaches into the curriculum and prepare courses, plans, and workshops which are centered around the application of sociodrama and music/poetry therapy. As an example, a unit that combines poetry and music may help learners express their feelings and experiences thus enriching their educational journey.

One must of course not overlook the pivotal stance of educational policymakers who could be encouraged to consider the necessity of setting up training programs which would, in turn, endow teachers with the practical techniques required in these therapeutic pedagogies. Investing in teacher empowerment through PD is viewed as a concrete driver behind promoting quality education; such investments and policies indisputably call for support on behalf of high-level decision-makers to guarantee effective and sustainable implementation. Yet, the commitment of these decision-makers albeit bearing a prominent impact would not suffice on its own as the durable and consistent progress of any system requires both top-down and bottom-up engagement away from any ‘oppressive’ one-way modality – to use the Freirian term. In simple terms, all stakeholders including policymakers, educational managers, curriculum designers, mental health

professionals, head-teachers, supervisors, teachers, and very importantly the learners and their parents/caretakers themselves must be on board throughout the process. In all actuality, only by working together systemically can these institutions adopt comprehensive programs aimed at employing these therapeutic methods effectively and thus promote inclusive quality education.

During the course of the study, the following points occurred to the researchers which were engendered by the limitations of this study; accordingly, the following suggestions are presented. The same study can be run with a larger sample size and wider range of learners such as those with varying levels of language proficiency, age, gender, and other sociodemographic factors or significantly diverse backgrounds. This can help determine the applicability of the findings across different cohorts, especially if the participants were selected randomly as opposed to the nonrandom convenience sampling adopted in this study. Future studies could explore the impact of these techniques on specific language skills beyond vocabulary and reading comprehension such as speaking, writing, or listening skills, to provide a more comprehensive understanding of their effectiveness. Further research could involve replicating the study with language learners across different levels of ASD to assess whether varying degrees of ASD impact the effectiveness of sociodrama, music therapy, and poetry therapy on vocabulary learning and reading comprehension.

In addition, other studies could include the collection and thematization of qualitative data through interviews or focus group discussions with learners, educators, and therapists. This can enrich the understanding of the subjective experiences and perceptions of individuals involved in these interventions. In the course of this study, the teacher was also the observer which may have caused bias. In future studies, two different individuals could be assigned these two roles to eliminate such probable bias. Last but not least, other studies could explore specific methodologies and outcomes related to sociodrama, music therapy, and poetry therapy in diverse educational settings.

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Appendix A: Sociodrama Techniques

Technique	Application
Multiple doubles	All members work together and provide extra assistance to the protagonist
The pressure circle	Encircling the protagonist by other members to show the pressure
Comfort circle	Encircling the protagonist by other members to show their sympathy
Circle of friends	Listening to the protagonist's dreams
Breaking in	Encircling the protagonist forming a wall between them and their significant other
Behind the back	Talking about the protagonist behind their back
Behind your back audience technique	Protagonist talking about the audience behind their back
Focusing on differences	Asking the protagonist to recognize the distinguishing features between the two auxiliary egos
The identification technique	Asking the protagonist to recognize the identical features between the two auxiliary egos

Appendix B: Sample Scenarios in the Sociodrama and Poetry Therapy Group

Scenario I

Abolfazl (all names are pseudonyms) sits on the chair and assumes the role of the robot. Matin (Sad) and the teacher (Joy) are circling him. Abolfazl is asked to put his hands on his face pretending to be sad. The technique used here is comfort circle.

Act I

Teacher: What happened to you little robot?

Matin: Why sad?

Teacher: Why are you sad? [mirroring]

Abolfazl: Because... I want home...! I lost. No friends.

Teacher: Oh, you are lost! [mirroring] What do you want little robot?

Abolfazl: I want friends.

Teacher: We are with you little robot; we are your friends!

Matin: I take back, heart! (giving the heart to Abolfazl)

Scenario II

Matin stands behind Abolfazl and gives his opinion about the robot: the technique being used here is *behind your back technique*.

Act II

Teacher: Matin, do you think our robot is sad or happy? (referring to the roles Sad and Joy)

Matin: Happy (showing Joy).

Teacher: Look at the face of the robot! (putting on the role of *look at*)

Matin: Sad ... sad (assuming the role of Sad).

Teacher: Why is he sad do you think?

Matin: Because, ... no friend, no home (referring to the pictures of friends and home).

Teacher: He has no friends and no home [mirroring].

Matin: Yes!

Matin: پول چی می‌شه؟ (asking for the word money).

Teacher: Money (she draws the picture of money with the spelling on top of it and repeats the word several times) [double].

Matin: No money!

Teacher: Aha, what else? (she translates the sentence into Persian) [double].

Matin: No art!

Teacher: That's right. So, what should we do for him?

Matin: Find friends. I want happy!

Teacher: You want him to be happy? [mirroring]

Matin: Yes.

Appendix C: Sample Scenarios in the Sociodrama and Music Therapy Group

Scenario I

The students circle Mahyar who plays the role of Fish. Mahyar is pretending to be Sad. The teacher and the other students are round him. The techniques being used are double, comfort circle, and circle of friends. The participants consist of Pooria, Shayan, Mahyar, and the teacher.

Act I

Teacher: Why are you sad little fish?

Mahyar: Because... because... sad.

Teacher: why are you sad?

Mahyar: Because School!

Teacher: You don't like school? [double]

Mahyar: No! [laughing] (The teacher asked Pooria to go behind Mahyar and double him).

Teacher: Why are you sad, little fish? (she repeats the question).

Pooria: Because fish want sea! [double]

Teacher: Yes, fish wants sea! [mirroring]

Teacher: What do you wish for? [circle of friends]

Mahyar: Wish?

Teacher: You can draw it. (Mahyar draws a picture of himself and he says wish is me)

Scenario II

The teacher takes the role of Seagull and pretends to be sad. She goes to Fish to start a conversation and attempts to show that she flies; the technique being used here is focusing on differences.

Act II

Teacher: Oh, God, I wanted to be a little fish.

Pooria: sea ... sea (he plays the role of the sea). I want fish here.

Mahyar: I want sea.

Teacher: Pooria [Sea], which of us do you welcome?

Pooria: Fish!

Teacher: Why?

Pooria: fish ... swim ... [focusing on differences].

Teacher: So, where should I go?

Shayan: Playing the role of sky (bird, ... sky...).

Authors' Biographies



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A Comparative Stylistic Study of Mark Twain's *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer* Through the Lens of Goldberg's Construction Grammar (CxG)

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Abstract

This study employs a mixed-method, corpus-based approach to investigate the distinct argument structure constructions in Mark Twain's *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* and *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* through the lens of Adele Goldberg's (1995) Construction Grammar (CxG). A 10,000-word corpus from each novel was systematically analyzed using quantitative methods—including frequency counts and log-likelihood ratio tests—and qualitative interpretive techniques to identify and contextualize key constructions such as negative concord, resultative, caused-motion, and ditransitive. The findings reveal that *Huckleberry Finn* is characterized by a higher prevalence of non-standard, innovative constructions that mirror Huck's vernacular speech and his experiential, marginal identity. In contrast, *Tom Sawyer* consistently employs more conventional, formulaic constructions, reflecting its structured, culturally mediated narrative style. These differences underscore the cognitive mechanisms of entrenchment, schema formation, and usage-based learning, which underlie the distinct narrative voices in Twain's work. By integrating cognitive linguistics with literary analysis, this study not only highlights how constructional choices shape character identity and thematic depth but also provides a replicable framework for future interdisciplinary research. Overall, the results advance our understanding of Twain's stylistic innovation and demonstrate the utility of CxG in elucidating the complex interplay between language form and literary meaning.

Keywords: Construction Grammar, Literary Style, Argument Structure, Mark Twain, Narrative Voice

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Introduction

Mark Twain is widely regarded as one of the most influential figures in American literature, renowned for his keen observations of human nature, sharp wit, and masterful storytelling. His two seminal works, *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (Twain, 1885) and *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* (Twain, 1876), are not only significant for their thematic and narrative richness but also for their distinct linguistic and stylistic innovations. Twain's use of dialect, regional vernacular, and syntactic variation has long been a subject of literary and linguistic inquiry. While much scholarly attention has been devoted to Twain's portrayal of 19th-century American speech patterns, few studies have systematically examined his works through the lens of cognitive linguistics—specifically, Construction Grammar (CxG). This study aims to fill that gap by applying Adele Goldberg's (1995) CxG framework to analyze Twain's syntactic and argument structure patterns, providing a novel approach to understanding his literary style.

Twain's writing is deeply rooted in the socio-cultural landscape of his time, reflecting the linguistic diversity of American English during the late 19th century. *Huckleberry Finn*, in particular, is notable for its extensive use of African American Vernacular English (AAVE) and other regional dialects, while *Tom Sawyer* exhibits a more conventional yet playful syntactic style. The differences in narrative style between the two novels provide a fertile ground for a comparative constructional analysis. This study investigates how Twain's use of specific constructions—such as negative concord (*I ain't got no money*), caused-motion constructions (*He ran me ragged*), and resultative constructions (*He painted the fence white*)—contributes to character differentiation, narrative voice, and reader perception.

CxG, as developed by Goldberg (1995, 2006), offers a theoretical framework that challenges traditional syntactic theories by positing that linguistic knowledge is composed of learned pairings of form and meaning. Unlike Chomskyan generative grammar, which treats syntax as an abstract set of rules, CxG emphasizes the role of usage-based learning, frequency effects, and cognitive entrenchment in shaping language. This perspective is particularly relevant for literary analysis, as it allows scholars to examine how authors exploit constructional patterns to achieve stylistic effects. Twain's innovative use of syntactic constructions can thus be understood as a form of linguistic creativity that enhances the narrative's authenticity (for the appropriate use of dialects and language varieties, syntactic structures, and narrative styles) and emotional depth (Aloshyna, 2020).

The research questions guiding this study are as follows:

RQ1. How do syntactic and argument structure constructions differ between *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer*?

RQ2. What cognitive-linguistic principles underlie Twain's stylistic choices?

RQ3. How do constructional patterns contribute to character differentiation and narrative voice?

To address these questions, a 10,000-word sample from each novel was analyzed using corpus tools and both statistical and contextual methods. Considering the questions, this study aims to contribute to the growing body of research at the intersection of cognitive linguistics and literary studies. The integration of CxG into literary analysis provides a systematic methodology for examining how linguistic structures shape narrative meaning and reader engagement. Furthermore, this research sheds light on Twain's stylistic legacy, demonstrating how his constructional choices reflect broader cognitive and cultural patterns in language use.

The interdisciplinary nature of this study underscores the potential of cognitive linguistic approaches to enrich literary criticism. Traditional literary analyses have often relied on qualitative interpretations of style, while linguistic studies have focused on structural and syntactic elements in isolation. By bridging these two perspectives, CxG enables a more holistic examination of literary texts, revealing the interplay between linguistic form, meaning, and literary function. This study's corpus-based approach further enhances the empirical rigor of the analysis, ensuring that observations are grounded in quantifiable linguistic data.

Ultimately, this research not only deepens our understanding of Twain's literary craftsmanship but also demonstrates the applicability of CxG as a powerful tool for literary analysis. By systematically analyzing Twain's constructional choices, this study provides new insights into the cognitive and linguistic mechanisms that underlie literary style, offering a replicable framework for future research in cognitive literary studies.

Review of Literature

The stylistic analysis of Mark Twain's *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* and *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* has been a rich field for scholars examining narrative techniques, sociopolitical commentary, and linguistic innovation. This article synthesizes key studies that illuminate Twain's stylistic contributions, emphasizing their relevance to a comparative analysis through the lens of Goldberg's Construction Grammar (CxG). CxG, as articulated by Goldberg (1995), posits that linguistic constructions—form-meaning pairings ranging from words to syntactic patterns—serve as fundamental units of language, offering a robust framework for analyzing Twain's use of dialect, narrative voice, and syntactic structures. The following works provide critical insights into Twain's stylistic strategies, highlighting their alignment with CxG's emphasis on constructional meaning and identifying a gap in applying this framework to compare *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer*.

Twain's linguistic innovation, particularly his use of vernacular dialects and syntactic simplicity, has been extensively studied for its role in evoking authenticity and cultural identity (Fishkin, 1994; Hill, 2010). Scholars have analyzed phonological dialect features (e.g., "ain't" vs. "isn't") and lexical choices (Budd, 2001), yet syntactic and argument structure patterns remain underexplored. For instance, Fishkin (1994) argues that Huck's vernacular in *Huckleberry Finn* draws on African-American voices, encoding social and racial identities, while Hill (2010)

highlights how Twain's simplified syntax enhances narrative immediacy in both novels. These studies suggest that Twain's linguistic choices function as constructions that carry pragmatic and semantic weight, aligning with CxG's theoretical premise (Goldberg, 1995).

Prior scholarship has also contrasted the narrative voices of Huck and Tom, noting their distinct stylistic profiles. Huck's colloquial, first-person narration in *Huckleberry Finn*, characterized by intransitive constructions (e.g., "I lit out"), reflects a pragmatic, unfiltered worldview (Blair, 1960). In contrast, Tom's performative, romance-inflected speech in *Tom Sawyer*, often marked by complex complement clauses (e.g., "We'll dig him out with the knives"), aligns with his imaginative, plot-driven persona (Messent, 2001). While these observations highlight stylistic differences, they often rely on anecdotal examples rather than systematic constructional analysis, limiting their empirical rigor (Blair, 1960; Messent, 2001). CxG offers a framework to address this limitation by quantifying constructional frequencies (e.g., caused-motion vs. resultative constructions) and their narrative functions, as suggested by recent corpus-based studies of 19th-century American literature (Smutterberg, 2021). However, no studies have yet applied CxG to compare Twain's characters or novels, underscoring the novelty of the current research.

Aloshyna (2020) provides a pivotal study on Twain's role as a progressive writer, emphasizing his innovative use of dialects and colloquialisms in *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer*. Aloshyna argues that Twain's regional vernaculars serve as constructions that encode social and cultural identities, such as Huck's non-standard speech patterns (e.g., "I ain't got no money"), which convey authenticity and challenge social hierarchies. This perspective aligns with CxG's premise that constructions carry pragmatic and semantic functions beyond their syntactic form (Goldberg, 1995), informing the current study's comparative approach to how dialectal constructions shape character and theme in Twain's novels.

Similarly, Lin (2024) examines sociopolitical and poetic dynamics in Twain's *Cannibalism in the Cars*, offering insights applicable to *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer*. Lin highlights Twain's use of satirical constructions, such as exaggerated politeness juxtaposed with grotesque scenarios, to critique political corruption and societal norms. These constructions, analyzed through CxG, reveal how specific syntactic patterns evoke broader sociopolitical meanings, providing a model for comparing how Twain's stylistic choices reflect differing moral and social landscapes in his two novels (Lin, 2024).

Cavitch (2023) contributes a significant perspective by exploring Twain's narrative techniques in *Huckleberry Finn* through the concept of the "talking cure," a psychological and literary framework. Cavitch argues that Huck's first-person narration and dialogic structures, such as his internal monologues and dialogues with Jim, function as constructions that blend psychological depth with social commentary. These form-meaning pairings, aligned with CxG's principles (Goldberg, 1995), contrast with the playful, omniscient narration in *Tom Sawyer*,

offering a basis for the current study's analysis of narrative constructions across the two novels.

Finally, Setiawan (2016) focuses on satire and irony in *Tom Sawyer*, analyzing how these elements operate as rhetorical constructions. Setiawan suggests that Twain's ironic tone and humorous exaggerations (e.g., Tom's romanticized view of adventure) create constructions that invite readers to question societal norms, resonating with CxG's emphasis on constructions as carriers of pragmatic intent (Goldberg, 1995). This approach informs the present study's comparison of how humor and irony shape the narrative styles of *Tom Sawyer* and *Huckleberry Finn*.

Collectively, these studies underscore Twain's stylistic innovation through narrative voice, sociopolitical critique, and syntactic creativity (Blair, 1960; Budd, 2001; Cavitch, 2023; Smitterberg, 2021; Fishkin, 1994; Hill, 2010; Lin, 2024; Messent, 2001; Alosyna, 2020; Setiawan, 2016). However, few have explicitly applied CxG to compare *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer*, a gap the present study addresses. By synthesizing insights from these works, this research explores how Twain's constructions—from dialectal forms to satirical and narrative structures—reflect distinct thematic and stylistic priorities in each novel, advancing the application of cognitive linguistics to literary analysis.

Theoretical Framework: Construction Grammar

Goldberg's (1995, 2006) CxG— posits that language is organized as a network of constructions—conventionalized pairings of form and meaning—that range from morphemes to complex syntactic patterns. This framework rejects the autonomy of syntax and instead emphasizes the inseparability of form, function, and usage (Goldberg, 2006; Langacker, 1987). Central to Goldberg's model is the concept of argument structure constructions (e.g., transitive, ditransitive), which encode event semantics independently of verbs, enabling novel verb-construction integrations (Goldberg, 1995; Tomasello, 2003). For example, the caused-motion construction [Subj V Obj Obl] (*She sneezed the napkin off the table*) imposes a semantic frame of directed motion even with verbs that typically lack such meaning (Goldberg, 1995, p. 152).

The usage-based approach asserts that frequency and entrenchment shape mental representations of constructions, with abstract schemas emerging from generalizations over attested instances (Bybee, 2010; Goldberg, 2006). This dynamic aligns with corpus linguistic methodologies, which quantify patterns in large textual datasets (Yoon & Gries, 2016), offering a bridge to literary analysis. Michaelis (2004) underscores that constructions are integral to cognitive processes involved in language use, extending beyond grammar to influence meaning-making in literature.

Cognitive Linguistics and Literary Stylistics

The application of cognitive linguistics to literature has gained momentum since Turner's (1996) *The Literary Mind*, which posits that narrative and metaphor are fundamental to human cognition. However, constructionist approaches remain

underexplored in literary studies. Exceptions include Dancygier and Sweetser's (2014) *Figurative Language*, which examines how constructions scaffold metaphorical meaning in poetry, and Harrison's (2017) analysis of Gothic syntax as a network of fear-evoking constructions.

Notably, narrative perspective and characterization can be reframed as constructional phenomena. For example, Palmer (2004) argues that fictional minds are constructed through linguistic patterns, including transitivity choices (e.g., high transitive clauses signaling agency). Similarly, Toolan (2001) links syntactic repetition (e.g., parallelism) to narrative rhythm and reader engagement. These insights align with Goldberg's (2006) emphasis on the functional motivation of constructions, where patterns like passive voice or ditransitive structures reflect authorial choices to foreground specific participants or actions (Hoover, 2013). Unlike Formalism, which emphasizes defamiliarization and foregrounding to make familiar elements strange and prominent through stylistic deviation, Construction Grammar (CxG) focuses on how specific form-meaning pairings systematically encode narrative priorities and cognitive effects. For instance, in *Huckleberry Finn*, Huck's non-standard constructions (e.g., "I ain't got no money") foreground his marginalized voice, akin to Formalist foregrounding, but CxG highlights their role as recurring patterns that shape reader cognition. Similarly, *Tom Sawyer*'s conventional constructions (e.g., "We'll have a grand adventure!") background social norms, aligning with Formalist backgrounding, yet CxG emphasizes their functional motivation within a usage-based framework. Additionally, Twain's constructional choices contribute to an organic form, where the narrative structure emerges naturally from character voices and thematic concerns, complementing Formalism's view of organic unity while grounding it in CxG's linguistic precision. This integrative approach enriches the stylistic analysis of Twain's novels by bridging cognitive linguistics and literary theory.

Stylistic Studies of Twain's Novels

Mark Twain's *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer* have long been scrutinized for their linguistic innovation, particularly their use of vernacular dialects and syntactic simplicity to evoke authenticity (Fishkin, 1994; Hill, 2010). Linguistic analyses have focused on phonological dialect features (e.g., "ain't" vs. "isn't") and lexical choices (Budd, 2001), but syntactic and argument structure patterns remain understudied.

Prior scholarship highlights contrast between Huck's colloquial first-person narration and Tom's performative, romance-inflected speech. For instance, Huck's frequent use of intransitive constructions (e.g., "*I lit out*") has been interpreted as reflecting his pragmatic worldview, whereas Tom's preference for complex complement clauses (e.g., "*We'll dig him out with the knives*") aligns with his imaginative, plot-driven persona (Blair, 1960; Messent, 2001). However, these claims lack empirical rigor, relying on anecdotal examples rather than systematic constructional analysis.

Recent corpus-based studies of 19th-century American literature (Smutterberg, 2021) demonstrate the viability of quantitative methods for tracking

syntactic change, yet none have applied CxG to compare individual authors or characters. This gap underscores the potential of Goldberg's (1995, 2006) framework to operationalize stylistic differences through measurable constructional frequencies (e.g., caused-motion vs. resultative constructions) and their narrative functions.

Implications for Literary Studies

Goldberg's (1995, 2006) Construction Grammar (CxG) offers three significant advantages for literary stylistics. First, constructions function as form-meaning pairings, inherently encoding pragmatic and discourse functions such as topicalization and emphasis. This allows scholars to analyze how syntactic choices contribute to shaping narrative voice (Dancygier, 2011). Second, CxG is organized as a network, with a hierarchical structure in which abstract schemas derive from specific instances. This mirrors the multilayered complexity of literary texts, where localized syntactic choices collectively produce broader stylistic effects (Steen, 2011). Finally, the usage-based dynamics of CxG enables researchers to quantify constructional frequencies and their degrees of entrenchment. This facilitates the identification of statistically significant stylistic "fingerprints" (Yoon & Gries, 2016), moving beyond subjective interpretations.

The application of such a linguistic framework to literary analysis can offer a novel approach to understanding how linguistic structures shape narrative meaning. By examining syntactic patterns and argument structures within Twain's works through this lens, scholars can gain deeper insights into character development and thematic exploration. This interdisciplinary approach not only enriches our understanding of Twain's literary style but also contributes to broader discussions within cognitive linguistics regarding the relationship between language and thought.

Moreover, this analysis highlights the potential for CxG as a cognitive approach to serve as a bridge between linguistics and literary studies. As noted by Bergen and Chang (2002), integrating cognitive approaches with traditional literary analysis can yield new perspectives on familiar texts. This methodological synergy invites further exploration into how other authors manipulate linguistic constructions to achieve specific narrative effects.

It is worth noting that, the concept of construction as a form-meaning unit in linguistics parallels the idea of organic form in literary studies—a notion rooted in Romanticism and Formalist literary theory that views a work's structure as naturally arising from its content, like a living organism. Both frameworks emphasize a strong relationship between form and meaning, where structure—whether literary or linguistic—is essential to conveying meaning. Organic form treats a literary work as a unified whole, while construction grammar sees meaning as emerging from complete linguistic patterns rather than isolated elements. Each also considers the influence of form on audience perception: organic form through its aesthetic and emotional impact, and constructions through cognitive processing. Despite these similarities, key differences exist. Organic form operates at a macro level, shaping the entire narrative or poetic structure, whereas constructions function at a micro

level, focusing on words, phrases, and syntactic patterns. The former arises from artistic and philosophical traditions, while construction grammar is grounded in cognitive linguistics and language use. Furthermore, organic form is typically used in literary critique to assess a work's aesthetic unity—such as Coleridge's analysis of Shakespeare—while construction grammar is used to examine how meaning is constructed across various linguistic contexts, including literature (Fabb, 2019).

Croft (2001) argues that constructions are context-dependent and reflect cultural dynamics. In Twain's narratives, Huck and Tom actively shape their world through language and action, while their identities and consciousness are shaped by the dynamic interplay of cultural constructs, highlighting the fluid, context-dependent nature of human existence. Similarly, Davari and Sasani (2024) assert that humans are not born as fixed, absolute entities but as integral parts of an ever-evolving world. As creators of history, individuals contribute to the context that, in turn, shapes their identity and consciousness.

By focusing on syntactic patterns and argument structures through CxG, we can better understand how Twain's linguistic choices reflect character motivations and thematic concerns. For instance, this approach can reveal how Huck's non-literary style emerges from low abstraction constructions (e.g., simple transitives) and deictic markers (e.g., “*here*,” “*there*”), whereas Tom's speech may favor subordination and modality (e.g., “*ought to*,” “*must*”) to signal his adherence to literary conventions. Such patterns align with Goldberg's (2006) assertion that speakers—or fictional characters—select constructions that align with their communicative goals and social identities. Therefore, this interdisciplinary approach not only enhances our appreciation for Twain's craftsmanship but also opens avenues for future research at the intersection of linguistics and literary studies.

Method

Corpus Selection and Data Collection

To conduct a rigorous constructional analysis of Twain's literary style, this study compiled a carefully curated corpus of textual data drawn from *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* and *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*. A 10,000-word corpus was selected from each novel, ensuring balanced representation of dialogue and narration to capture both character-specific speech patterns and the authorial narrative style. The selection process prioritized key passages that highlight character interactions, descriptive sequences, and major plot developments.

The corpus was digitized and processed using corpus linguistics tools, including AntConc and Sketch Engine (n.d), which facilitated the extraction and quantitative analysis of syntactic and argument structure constructions. In addition, manual annotation was employed to ensure accurate classification of constructional patterns, particularly those reflecting regional dialects, non-standard syntax, and genre-specific linguistic innovations. The dataset was pre-processed to remove OCR errors and normalize spelling variations while preserving Twain's idiosyncratic linguistic choices.

Analytical Procedure

This study employed a mixed-method approach, integrating both quantitative and qualitative methodologies to analyze the constructional patterns in Twain's texts. The research followed these analytical steps:

1. **Construction Identification:** A systematic extraction of argument structure constructions, including ditransitive constructions (He gave me a book), caused-motion constructions (He pushed the door open), and resultative constructions (He painted the fence white), was conducted. These constructions were categorized based on Goldberg's (1995, 2006) framework.
2. **Quantitative Analysis:** The frequency of identified constructions was calculated using corpus analysis software. Distributional differences between the two novels were assessed to determine whether specific constructions were more prevalent in one text than the other. Statistical methods, such as log-likelihood ratio tests, were applied to identify significant disparities in constructional usage.
3. **Qualitative Interpretation:** Contextualized examination of constructions was performed to determine their role in narrative voice, character differentiation, and stylistic variation. Key excerpts were analyzed to illustrate how Twain strategically deployed certain syntactic structures to reinforce thematic concerns and reader engagement.
4. **Comparative Analysis:** A cross-textual comparison was conducted to establish stylistic tendencies unique to each novel. Differences in grammatical constructions, argument structure variation, and cognitive-linguistic patterns were evaluated to discern Twain's narrative techniques and the underlying cognitive mechanisms at play.
5. **Correlation with Cognitive Linguistic Principles:** The identified patterns were mapped onto cognitive linguistic theories, such as entrenchment (Bybee, 2010), constructional generalization (Goldberg, 2006), and schema formation (Langacker, 2008). This step allowed for a deeper understanding of how Twain's linguistic choices align with cognitive processing models.

Reliability and Validity

To ensure methodological rigor, this study employed triangulation by integrating corpus-based techniques with manual annotation and literary interpretation. Additionally, an inter-rater reliability test was conducted, involving independent linguistic experts who reviewed and verified the categorization of constructions. A reliability coefficient above 0.85 was achieved, ensuring high consistency in the identification process. Furthermore, external validation was performed by comparing findings with existing literary and linguistic analyses of Twain's style.

Results and Discussion

Syntactic and Argument Structure Differences

Our corpus analysis reveals marked differences in the syntactic and argument structure patterns employed in *Huckleberry Finn* versus *Tom Sawyer*. In *Huckleberry Finn*, the narrative is characterized by a higher frequency of non-standard constructions that mirror Huck's vernacular speech. Our analysis reveals distinct stylistic differences in the linguistic constructions employed in *Huckleberry Finn* versus *Tom Sawyer*, reflecting the social and cultural identities of their protagonists. In *Huckleberry Finn*, the narrative is characterized by non-standard constructions that mirror Huck's vernacular speech, such as negative concord and colloquial syntax. These constructions not only mark Huck's regional and social identity as an uneducated outcast but also underscore his dynamic, authentic voice, aligning with a usage-based cognitive representation in Construction Grammar (CxG). In contrast, *Tom Sawyer* features more standard constructions, evident in Tom's structured speech, which reflects his middle-class upbringing and romanticized worldview. These linguistic choices highlight the contrasting social landscapes of the novels, with Huck's vernacular emphasizing themes of freedom and moral struggle, while Tom's conventional language reinforces a narrative of youthful idealism. For instance, the prevalence of negative concord in *Huckleberry Finn* contributes to a distinctive rhythmic and emphatic quality, reinforcing the authenticity of Huck's voice. This is contrasted by *Tom Sawyer*, where more conventional syntactic patterns prevail—reflecting a narrative style that is playful and structured, consistent with Tom's imaginative yet socially conventional character.

1. *I ain't got no money.*
2. *We don't know nothing 'bout that.*

These examples (1, 2) illustrate the negative concord phenomena that underpin Huck's spoken language. By contrast, *Tom Sawyer*'s use of more conventional constructions often appears in the form of caused-motion or ditransitive patterns that support the energetic and organized disposition of Tom's character.

3. *He ran me ragged.*
4. *She pushed the door open.*

Here, the use of caused-motion constructions (Examples 3 and 4) signals Tom's dynamic, action-oriented narrative style. The syntactic regularity and formulaic quality of these constructions in *Tom Sawyer* are statistically significant when compared to the variable, innovative patterns observed in Huck's narrative.

The Role of Constructional Patterns in Characterization

Twain's deliberate manipulation of constructional patterns functions as a crucial tool for character differentiation. Huck's frequent reliance on negative concord and resultative constructions is emblematic of his unrefined, experiential

cognition and serves to delineate his marginal status relative to mainstream society. Conversely, Tom's dialogue tends to incorporate more standardized and occasionally figurative constructions, indicative of his self-conscious adoption of literary norms and his affinity for storytelling conventions.

5. *I got it fixed up so nobody wouldn't know me.*

6. *She made me happy as a clam at high tide.*

In Example 5, the complex interplay of double negation not only marks Huck's uneducated speech but also symbolizes his resistance to conventional social identity. Example 6, drawn from Tom's narrative, employs a simile within a more conventional syntactic frame, reinforcing Tom's role as a character steeped in imaginative literary tradition. These patterns underscore how constructional choices support the creation of distinct persona profiles.

Moreover, the use of argument structure constructions—particularly the ditransitive form in *Tom Sawyer*—highlights the systematic exchange relationships prevalent in that narrative world.

7. *He gave me the book and told me to read it.*

In contrast, *Huckleberry Finn* more frequently employs resultative constructions that emphasize causality and immediate consequence, aligning with Huck's direct, often unsentimental engagement with his environment.

8. *I painted the fence white.*

The frequency of these differing constructions is not merely a stylistic choice; it reflects underlying cognitive representations. Huck's innovative use of constructions (as seen in Examples 1, 2, and 8) corresponds to a cognitive schema that privileges direct experience and episodic memory. In contrast, Tom's reliance on conventional patterns (Examples 3, 4, 6, and 7) indicates a more entrenched, culturally mediated linguistic repertoire.

Expanded Analysis of Constructional Frequency and Literary Function

A detailed quantitative analysis reveals that negative concord constructions appear approximately three times more frequently in *Huckleberry Finn* than in *Tom Sawyer*. This frequency disparity is statistically significant ($p < 0.01$, via log-likelihood ratio tests) and correlates with the distinct narrative voices. Huck's language, loaded with non-standard constructions, creates an immersive oral narrative experience that mirrors the fluidity of his raft journey and his resistance to societal norms.

9. *Ain't nobody gonna catch me nohow.*

10. *We're going to have a grand old adventure!*

Example 9, characterized by multiple negations, reinforces Huck's rebellious and anti-establishment identity, while Example 10—exhibiting conventional syntax—mirrors the organized, imaginative exuberance of Tom's adventures.

Furthermore, the distribution of ditransitive constructions in *Tom Sawyer* suggests a world of structured interpersonal exchanges and social rituals. Such constructions are pivotal in scenes involving community gatherings, where the exchange of objects or information becomes a symbolic act of social participation.

11. *He gave me the book and told me to read it.*

12. *They handed out invitations for the grand ball.*

In these instances, the presence of ditransitive structures bolsters the narrative's alignment with social norms and conventional behavior. In contrast, Huck's narrative frequently disrupts these patterns with constructions that defy standard syntactic ordering, thereby accentuating his outsider status.

Cognitive Mechanisms Underlying Twain's Constructional Choices

From the perspective of cognitive linguistics, the observed constructional patterns align with theories of entrenchment and schema formation. Huck's innovative, non-standard constructions are indicative of a high degree of cognitive flexibility and adaptive schema expansion. This phenomenon is consistent with Bybee's (2010) usage-based models, wherein repeated exposure to specific linguistic contexts leads to the entrenchment of particular constructional patterns. Huck's variable syntax suggests that he is actively negotiating and reconfiguring these patterns based on immediate contextual needs and personal experience.

13. *I told him I warn't no fool, but he just laughed.*

In Example 13, the blending of non-standard forms (e.g., "warn't" for "wasn't") with contextual adaptation reflects schema expansion, where the speaker adapts linguistic rules to fit his unique experiential context. Conversely, Tom's speech exhibits higher stability and reduced variation, suggesting a reliance on entrenched constructions that mirror broader cultural norms.

14. *It was the best plan ever, and we stuck to it!*

The difference in constructional innovation between Huck and Tom is further evidenced by their treatment of causality. Huck's frequent use of resultative constructions to denote direct consequence exemplifies a cognitive emphasis on immediate, embodied experience. Tom's narrative, however, tends toward constructions that suggest deliberation and social formality, reinforcing his role as a storyteller and a participant in culturally sanctioned events.

Thematic Implications of Constructional Patterns

Beyond character differentiation, the constructional choices in both novels have profound thematic implications. In *Huckleberry Finn*, the prevalence of negative concord and innovative constructions mirrors themes of marginalization, resistance, and the struggle for personal freedom. These constructions underscore the protagonist's implicit rejection of the values imposed by a hypocritical society.

15. *I warn't about to let nobody boss me around.*

This example not only exemplifies non-standard syntax but also serves as a thematic assertion of individual autonomy. In contrast, *Tom Sawyer*'s employment of more conventional constructions aligns with themes of adventure, social order, and the celebration of youthful exuberance.

16. Let's make it a real adventure, just like in the books!

Here, the conventional structure underscores the performative aspect of Tom's character, suggesting that his adventures are as much about adhering to narrative conventions as they are about actual experience.

The cognitive processes that underlie these thematic expressions are central to our analysis. Huck's language, with its flexible and dynamic constructional patterns, reflects an embodied cognition where linguistic choices are directly tied to sensory and emotional experiences. Tom's language, on the other hand, reflects a more culturally mediated cognition that is informed by literary traditions and societal norms. This dichotomy is essential to understanding Twain's narrative technique, as it mirrors the broader tension between individual experience and collective cultural identity.

Integration with Cognitive-Linguistic Theories

The application of Goldberg's (1995, 2006) Construction Grammar to these texts allows us to situate Twain's stylistic choices within a broader cognitive framework. According to Goldberg (2006), constructions are not merely arbitrary patterns but are entrenched in usage and reflect cognitive schemata derived from repeated exposure to language. In this study, the higher frequency of non-standard constructions in *Huckleberry Finn* indicates that Huck's cognitive representation of language is deeply rooted in his experiential context—a context marked by social marginalization and resistance to normative structures.

17. I'm goin' to do it my own way, no matter what they say.

This construction, which diverges from standard syntax, epitomizes the cognitive process of schema formation wherein Huck's personal experiences shape his linguistic output. Such adaptive constructions signal a departure from the canonical forms found in more conventional narratives like *Tom Sawyer*. The latter's reliance on established constructions reflects a cognitive orientation that values consistency, predictability, and conformity to social expectations.

Implications for Literary Criticism

The analysis of constructional patterns in *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer* offers significant insights for literary criticism by illuminating their stylistic and thematic distinctions. By applying a Construction Grammar (CxG) perspective, we delineate the stylistic differences between Huck's non-standard vernacular and Tom's structured language, revealing how these linguistic choices reflect their social identities and shape narrative resonance. For instance, Huck's use of constructions like negative concord and colloquial syntax underscores his marginalized status and authentic voice, aligning with themes of freedom and moral struggle. In contrast,

Tom's conventional constructions, such as his elaborate speech, reflect his middle-class upbringing and romanticized worldview. This approach bridges cognitive linguistics and literary studies by providing a clear, replicable framework for analyzing how linguistic constructions contribute to character development and emotional impact, making Twain's stylistic strategies accessible to a broader audience through straightforward textual interpretation.

For example, the interplay between non-standard and conventional constructions can be seen as a reflection of the dialectical tension between individual agency and social conformity—a tension that is central to American literary realism. The statistical validation of these patterns (using log-likelihood tests and dispersion measures) lends empirical support to our interpretative claims and demonstrates that these linguistic phenomena are not anecdotal but are systematically embedded in the texts.

Furthermore, our analysis, supported by reader-response studies, suggests that the linguistic constructions in *Huckleberry Finn* and *Tom Sawyer* influence readers' emotional and cognitive engagement in ways that vary by audience background and expertise. Huck's non-standard constructions, such as negative concord and colloquial syntax, create a sense of cognitive congruence with his struggle for autonomy, potentially eliciting stronger empathetic responses among readers who relate to his marginalized status, as evidenced by studies like Fishkin (1994) showing readers' affinity for Huck's authentic voice. In contrast, Tom's formulaic constructions, such as his structured speech, align with narrative conventions and cultural traditions, resonating more with readers who value formal storytelling, particularly those with literary or linguistic interests, as suggested by reader surveys (e.g., Quirk, 2004). These findings, grounded in Construction Grammar (CxG), highlight how linguistic choices shape reader responses, with variations depending on factors like class, experience, and familiarity with stylistic nuances.

18. *We're gonna set out on a journey that no one can ever take away from us.*

This example from *Tom Sawyer* illustrates a conventional construction that evokes a shared cultural narrative of adventure and social stability, aligning with normative ideologies. By applying Construction Grammar (CxG), our analysis extends beyond traditional observations of dialect, as seen in Fishkin (1994), to explore how such constructions interact with readers' cognitive processing of social and ideological divides. For instance, Tom's structured construction, with its optimistic and formulaic tone, primes readers to perceive a stable, middle-class worldview, as supported by reader-response studies (e.g., Quirk, 2004). In contrast, Huck's fluid, non-standard constructions in *Huckleberry Finn*, such as "I ain't got no money," encode resistance to social norms, fostering cognitive dissonance in readers that mirrors Huck's marginalization. This CxG-based approach reveals how constructional choices not only signal social divides but also shape readers' emotional and cognitive engagement with Twain's ideological critiques, offering a novel framework for literary analysis.

Conclusion

This study has demonstrated the efficacy of Construction Grammar (CxG) as a robust analytical framework for examining the syntactic and argument structure constructions in Mark Twain's *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* and *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*. By integrating corpus-based frequency analysis with qualitative interpretive methods, this research has uncovered systematic differences in Twain's constructional choices, reinforcing the deep connection between linguistic structure, narrative voice, and thematic development.

The findings reveal that *Huckleberry Finn* is characterized by a high prevalence of non-standard constructions, including negative concord, resultative constructions, and caused-motion constructions. These patterns reflect Huck's vernacular speech, reinforcing his marginalized identity, experiential cognition, and resistance to societal norms. In contrast, *Tom Sawyer* employs more formulaic, entrenched constructions, such as ditransitive patterns and conventional syntactic parallelism, which align with Tom's socially embedded, performative, and structured worldview. The differential use of argument structure constructions (e.g., caused-motion, transitive, and ditransitive constructions) across both novels suggests that Twain strategically manipulated constructional frequency and variation to delineate character identity and narrative perspective.

From a cognitive-linguistic standpoint, this study affirms the role of entrenchment, schema formation, and constructional productivity in literary stylistics. Twain's manipulation of form-meaning pairings exemplifies how linguistic structures function beyond grammatical organization to encode social positioning, emotional depth, and cognitive processing strategies. The study further supports usage-based learning models, wherein construction frequency and conventionalization shape linguistic representation, reinforcing the notion that literary style emerges from cognitive and cultural mechanisms rather than prescriptive grammatical constraints.

This study contributes to the interdisciplinary intersection of cognitive linguistics and literary stylistics by providing an empirical framework for analyzing constructional patterns in literary texts. The findings suggest that CxG offers a replicable methodology for assessing how linguistic structures shape characterization, narrative coherence, and thematic framing.

Future research could extend this framework by:

1. Expanding the corpus scope – analyzing additional Twain texts or conducting diachronic studies to assess whether Twain's constructional preferences evolve across his literary corpus.
2. Cross-linguistic comparison – investigating translation shifts in constructional usage, examining whether and how constructional meaning is preserved, altered, or lost across different languages.
3. Genre-based analysis – applying CxG principles to other literary genres, such as modernist prose, Gothic fiction, or postcolonial literature, to

determine how constructional choices interact with genre conventions and reader expectations.

By applying CxG to literary analysis, this study revealed Twain's strategic use of constructional variation, frequency effects, and argument structure manipulation is not merely a stylistic feature but a central mechanism for encoding meaning, shaping reader perception, and reinforcing character differentiation. The findings validate the potential of linguistically-informed literary analysis and pave the way for further interdisciplinary research into how constructional schemata contribute to literary interpretation, cognitive processing, and stylistic evolution.

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Book review: Tomlinson, B., *Materials Development in Language Teaching*, Cambridge University Press, 2011, 451 pages, ISBN: 978-0-521-15704-9

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Materials Development in Language Teaching consists of five parts. The first part entitled “Data collection and materials development” is a triad of noticeable articles of which the first one deals with the use of corpus in the classroom. The author asserts the feasibility of analyzing a bulk of language so that a corpus can be constructed allowing researchers to crunch the way language is being presented and used, nowadays. Through these analyses it is possible to identify the types of language that could be incorporated in design and selection of the material for the classroom. In this part, the way a corpus makes decision making possible for materials design is depicted. The second articles of this part call teachers for mobilizing concordancers in the classroom for the students to crunch the way the language is used. This article zeroes in on the use of concordancers in the classroom without computers to describe grammar and the lexicon. Moreover, the part one rigs teachers with direction to design materials using such concordances. It also illustrates how to access these concordances. This paper seeks to denote that no especial apparatus is needed to use this technique. The third article of part A appertains to the use of corpus to learn English grammar, especially patterns. The authors suggest the study of grammar hinged upon discourse, especially the grammar of the spoken language.

The second part, part B, puts forward the process of materials writing included in three articles. The first article suggests and discusses a framework to design materials that comprises of five processes and steps are introduced in the first segment of this part. The first step of these processes is identification and exploration of needs on the materials. The second one, linguistic exploration in a particular domain is canvassed. The third one includes the contextual realization that appertains to the foraying of ideas that are apposite for the setting or for the textbooks that learners are to study. This reverberates the variety and leeway in the materials development. The fourth process is the pedagogical realization of the materials that is the discrepant options and the actual tasks. The final step is the physical production of the materials where different things need to come into account like the presentation, the size, the visual aspects, the reproduction and the extension.

The third part of this book discusses the process of materials evaluation. It is a collection of tetra-article documents. The first article is about the analysis of language teaching materials: inside Trojan. This section canvasses the piloting of materials. It commences with the implications of piloting materials and brings listing the factors that identify what should be piloted. It likewise demonstrates the advantages piloting presents and the way it should be conducted. In the article, there are checklists that have been utilized by some publishers to conduct the piloting. The second article in part C is about Macro and micro evaluations of task-based teaching. It seeks to acquaint the reader on how to evaluate the communicative tasks. Rod Ellis delineates the micro and macro evaluation. First, he invites us to mull over the kinds of evaluation we should conduct and different dimensions like the approach, the purpose, the emphasis, the scope, the evaluators, the time, and the type of information needed to assess the materials. He likewise supplies us with a very transparent pedagogical description of what a task means in language teaching and the stages to carry out and evaluate one. The third paper of this part is about course-books and text books. The author gives a good idea of the needs and wants of the different players in the process of learning and teaching, underscoring those of the teachers. This part is very beneficial for the experts in the field of language teaching who aim to be uplifted in the evaluation of resources. The last article analyses the teaching materials. In this article, the author submits a framework for materials analysis. There are suggestions and instances to study the materials and forms to connect the finding to our own context. This section is remarkable to recognize the materials that will be used in an institution or class.

Part D includes two articles which the first one discusses the electronic delivery of materials and the second one presents new technologies to support language learning. The first article begins with this reminder that in this era of multi literacy world, language teachers are responsible to contribute more to development of materials. Digital technology has come to assist language teaching supplementary materials through offering standalone computer, laptop lid, video chips hot potatoes suite for doing exercises and skill delivery done sometimes by flash cards. Digital literacy is offering a second life online action empowered by the advent of YouTube, Google talk, blog links, recording blogs & wiki text-board, web diaries, VLE, IWB, Moodle, Wikipedia as a reference book, flipchart software. This contributes and redounds more to the simultaneous development of autonomy and helps language learners and teachers prepare their quiz and expand their choices, participating in discussion forum, collecting and finding of glossary, storing their files etc.

The second article in part four introduces new technologies to support the state of art of language learning. Innovation in technology facilitates electronic learning. The author reminded the motion towards carefully planned materials reflected themselves in monologue where a slower discourse is experienced away

from spontaneous, unplanned discourse where meaning is collaboratively built pedagogically well-constructed. The technology offers collaborative interaction by dint of Skype toolbox, Tokbox video chat, ooVoo, Polycom systems where face to face exchange of information is impossible. Webcam, videoconference, telephone conversation, VOIP and Skype make it possible to economize interaction. Tech-survey young people enjoy the era of technology in stimulated environment. E-twinning as a kind of micro-blogging in the form of twitter short message project allows enjoying pen pal for learning language. Adaptive and responsive iCALL as a self-directive artificial tool can provide contingent micro-scaffolding to the learners in the way of e-learning and chatterbox.

Technologies like PDA, palmtop computer supply teachers with video-based lesson. User-controlled technology such as Jumpcut, videoegg windows or iMovie, Yalpa/show, play is a contributor to intelligence enhancement and concurrent language learning. Copious supply on internet facilitates reading skill and comprehension and allows access to animated texts, diagram, wordcahamp and making academic word list. Social networking such as micro-blogging and multimedia composition makes the writing enhancement possible. Concordance and write-fix help dissect texts for their structures. Technology provides a solitary privacy. Scootle supplies users with a mite of 8000 resources for learning and doing composition practices. Technology caters for audiences' want and needs, assist collaborative interaction and remove inhibitions existent in face-to-face transaction and exchanges. Multimodal input through avatar languages websites, podcast surfing on MSN, AOL come to assist the enhancement of content. Self-presentation in the lab through recoding in audio region and use of camera, microphone, CD camcorder, waveforms, desktop tape recorder is paved by the help of technology. On the whole, technology provides a nomadic environment in which anyone is anywhere where responsive teaching to track change and design a prepackaged reflective procedure out of immediate context is made possible.

The fifth part of the book, part E, entitled "Ideas for materials development" opens on the first article that is about how to assist the second language readers to visualize. The author introduces visualization activities like drawings, connection activities, illustrations and mimicry. These kinds of tasks assist learners to improve their reading comprehension in an unconscious manner. The next article by Alan Maley entitled squaring the circle-reconciling material as constraint with materials as empowerment presents a series of proposals for materials development. The author expounds the nexus among, teachers, materials and students. He canvasses the factors that interpose in these nexuses; for instance, he asserts that some of the factors that can influence the situation with respect to the teachers include the language level and confidence they could handle, their prior learning experiences, their personality and their preferred teaching style. Maley likewise supplies the readers with ideas for materials adaptation since it seems

imperative to the author. Some of these proposals are omission, modification reduction, extension, division, reordering and rewriting. Moreover, the author demonstrates how to design our own materials with instances of projects, drama techniques, cut and paste and to design modules to develop the language skills. The author mentions Prabhu's classification of materials that is composed of two categories, the semi-materials and meta-materials. The first ones appertain to isolated tasks like activities for listening comprehension or vocabulary, a selection of visual, oral or written texts. The second kind of materials, the meta-materials, includes pedagogical procedures where the teacher determines the content and order. This section pertains to materials producers for their classes and those who do not found their teaching on a textbook only or who prefer to design their own study kit.

The next section of part E imparts the materials development including the teacher development and the students' autonomy. The authors assert that this condition is shared in other situations as it appertains to the distribution and assignment responsibility. Students have to develop self-study skills and teachers need to improve their skills for their practicum, which should be malleable and consider accountability. The authors canvass whether the textbooks enhance or hamper the students' autonomy or teachers' development. They likewise discuss the beliefs and stances that textbooks offer to the class. The first article entitled seeing what they mean: helping L2 readers visualize discusses how the readers harness imager to infer the meaning and how to help the second language readers visualize and whether the visualization is practical in reading. Visualization is adumbrated as drawings, connection activities, illustrations and mimicry. This document begins with the idea of eidetic or imagers. Visualization in reading invigorates the activation of schematic order in the processing of information, which equips learners with a readymade schematization. Wonders of reading were introduced as the experience of accomplishment of a ludic, hedonistic reading. Inner voice can be used to go into the minds of learners when they use imagery. However, neurophysiologic examination shows how inner voice self-monitoring facilitates besides outer speech the acquisition of language. Mental imagery is a way of visualization helps readers comprehend the texts and forecast the following sceneries. Interactive compensatory modal proclaims that feebleness in one area is compensated by the gaining potency in other area, which can be exemplified in experiential studies and reading.

The second article depicts Prabhu's (1987) conceptualization of teaching as the freedom of action of teacher apropos of the convoluted tradeoff between teacher, materials and student in the actual practice of teaching in the classroom, based on type B syllabus and the process approach. A drastic change in the way materials produced suggested to alleviate the problem of teacher decentralization through decision-making regarding content, order, pace and procedure. Content-based language teaching is proposed as a way of replacing English language textbook

hinged upon the discipline that content is applied. With consumer-driven world near to close and removal of prescribed materials in the teaching programs, teachers should care about the input, process and outcome when designing materials. To erect a course, information technology and encyclopedic knowledge of existent resources is an aid to teachers for accessing to materials. Core component modules such as project base module thematic module testing module awareness raisin module culture awareness raising module; grammar-fluency module; vocabulary development module; skills development module; humanization module are some options to be harnessed for developing a course. However, meta-materials as empty pedagogical procedure is promoted for self and virtual environment.

The penultimate article of the last part of the book exemplifies the Lozanov's proposals and methodology called Suggestopedia, which is pivoted on a psychological base in opposition to Cartesian philosophy by the practice of going inside. Sprouting from Quantum science, it takes a subatomic crossroad approach and fluid inter-subjectivity for building trust. The therapeutic orientation of this method is believed to work as a treatment to traumatic problems encountered in the process of language learning by prescribing a para-conscious medication to enhancement of left-brain and self-respect and emotional balance through incubation. Pleasure principles of this method by removal of intimation, offering of color, fun, beauty, comfort, humor, tongue twisters, snatches of proverbs and saying and avoidance of malice, crime, accidents, and disasters is borrowed for material development. With multi-dimensional and participative approach, this method inspires the development of materials, teacher development and the autonomy of the students through selection and distribution of responsibility. It is a contributor to the autonomy development and removal of passive learning in the contemporary post-rationalist era concurrent with engagement in holistic, natural, organic and bottom-up processes.

The last article of this section exposes the readers to the self-access materials where, in a sense, is congruent with the promulgation of enhancement of learner autonomy. However, the value of single-focus materials, though conceptualized in a stereotypical sense, is inevitable. Individualistic and open nature of leaning in today's technology enhanced world calls for attending to the materials development for self-access materials. Self-marketing world is vigilant for the needs, wants, and users' concerns for learning enjoyment and their initiative and creative appeals.

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چکیده

واژگان حامل قدرتمندی از معنا در یک زبان هستند و توسعه دانش واژگانی بخشی اساسی در فرآیند تقویت هر زبان خارجی به شمار می‌رود. مطالعه حاضر با تجزیه و تحلیل روابط مؤلفه‌های مختلف واژگان و ترتیب اکتساب آنها در محیط یادگیری زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی در ایران، دانش واژگانی را به عنوان یک سازه چند مؤلفه‌ای بررسی می‌کند. علاوه بر این، هدف این مطالعه ارائه مفهوم‌سازی بهتری از دانش واژگانی زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی است. در مجموع ۱۷۰ زبان‌آموز ایرانی زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی با استفاده از هشت آزمون واژگانی که دانش یادآوری و تشخیص مشتقات، پیوند صورت-معنا، معانی چندگانه و هم‌آیندها را مطابق با چارچوب نیشن (۲۰۲۲) سنجش می‌کردند، ارزیابی شدند. ابتدا، تحلیل‌های همبستگی نشان داد که همه مؤلفه‌های دانش واژگانی اندازه‌گیری شده به هم مرتبط هستند. علاوه بر این، تحلیل مقیاس‌بندی ضمنی، روند یکنواختی را در اکتساب واژگان برای این مؤلفه‌ها آشکار ساخت که نشان می‌دهد در همه جنبه‌ها دانش تشخیص قبل از یادآوری دانش به دست می‌آید. بنابراین، الگوی سلسله مراتبی نشان داد که شرکت‌کنندگانی که از جنبه‌های بالاتر آگاهی دارند، احتمال بیشتری دارد که از جنبه‌های پایین‌تر نیز آگاهی داشته باشند. علاوه بر این، تحلیل عاملی تأییدی نشان داد که دانش واژگان در این زمینه می‌تواند به عنوان یک سازه تک‌بعدی مفهوم‌سازی شود. درک جامع از ماهیت دانش واژگان و روابط متقابل بین اجزای آن می‌تواند بینش‌های مهمی در مورد نقش اکتساب واژگان در بافت فراگیری زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی ارائه دهد.

واژگان کلیدی: مؤلفه‌های دانش واژگان، یادآوری واژگان، تشخیص واژگان، مقیاس‌بندی ضمنی

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دانش، نگرش و دلایل سرقت ادبی در میان دانشجویان تحصیلات تکمیلی زبان انگلیسی در ایران

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سرقت ادبی موضوعی قابل توجه در محیط‌های دانشگاهی در سراسر جهان است که پیامدهایی برای یکپارچگی آموزشی و رشد دانشجویان دارد. این مطالعه با هدف بررسی درک دانشجویان ایرانی زبان انگلیسی از سرقت ادبی، دانش و نگرش آنها، و دلایل اقدام به سرقت ادبی انجام شد. بدین منظور، ۲۰۰ دانشجوی تحصیلات تکمیلی زبان انگلیسی به یک پرسشنامه پاسخ دادند. نتایج مطالعه، فقدان نگران کننده‌ای از آگاهی و درک سرقت ادبی در میان دانشجویان را آشکار کرد. مشخص شد که بسیاری از دانشجویان سطح پایینی از دانش درباره مصادیق سرقت ادبی داشتند و برخی اعمال را به عنوان سرقت ادبی تشخیص نمی‌دادند. نتایج همچنین مبین دلایل سرقت ادبی دانشجویان بود. به طور خاص، اکثر آنها معتقد بودند که به دلیل دشواری برخی از تکالیف و درک کم از مصادیق سرقت ادبی، ممکن است مرتکب سرقت ادبی شوند. یافته‌ها نشان می‌دهد که نیاز به برنامه‌های جامع آموزشی و آگاهی‌بخشی برای افزایش درک دانشجویان از اخلاق دانشگاهی و شیوه‌های نگارش علمی وجود دارد.

واژگان کلیدی: سرقت ادبی، نگارش دانشگاهی، دانشجویان زبان انگلیسی، ادراک دانشجویان

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: دوشنبه، ۲۴ دی ۱۴۰۳

تاریخ تصویب: یکشنبه، ۲۳ شهریور ۱۴۰۴

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شیوه‌های بازخورد نوشتاری مبتنی بر متن و صوتی-تصویری در نگارش انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی: بررسی پاسخ‌ها، چالش‌ها و استراتژی‌های دانشجویان اندونزیایی

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چکیده

مطالعات پیشین، تعامل زبان‌آموزان با اشکال مختلف بازخورد نوشتاری معلم، به ویژه در رابطه با بهبود عملکرد نوشتاری، را مورد کاوش قرار داده‌اند. با این حال، در این پژوهش‌ها چگونگی واکنش عاطفی، شناختی و رفتاری زبان‌آموزان به استفاده از ترکیبی از بازخورد نوشتاری مبتنی بر متن و بازخورد صوتی-تصویری در یک کلاس نوشتاری آموزش زبان انگلیسی کمتر مورد توجه قرار گرفته است. برای پر کردن این شکاف، پژوهش موردی کلاسی حاضر، پاسخ‌های دانشجویان کارشناسی اندونزیایی به انواع مختلف بازخورد چندوجهی را با هدف ارتقای بازنگری اساسی و بهبود نوشتاری آنها بررسی نموده است. این بازخورد چندوجهی، در مقایسه با استفاده صرف از بازخورد نوشتاری مبتنی بر متن، رویکردی جامع‌تر و جذاب‌تر برای هدایت و حمایت از یادگیری دانش‌آموزان در توسعه نوشتاری ارائه می‌دهد. داده‌ها از طریق پیش‌نویس‌های نوشتاری دانش‌آموزان، بازخورد مدرس، کنفرانس‌های بین زبان‌آموز-مدرس و مصاحبه‌های بعدی با دانش‌آموزانی که در یک دوره مقاله‌نویسی ثبت‌نام کرده بودند، جمع‌آوری گردید. یافته‌ها نشان داد در حالی که بسیاری از دانش‌آموزان در ابتدا و به ویژه با بازخورد اصلاحی نوشتاری غیرمستقیم دچار تجربه سردرگمی، ناامیدی یا دلسردی می‌شدند، حمایت مداوم مدرس و استفاده از بازخورد صوتی-تصویری، موجب افزایش وضوح، تعامل و درک از طریق لحن محاوره‌ای و نشانه‌های بصری آن گردید. دانشجویان بیشتر تأمل کردند و از منابع متنوع استفاده کردند، اگرچه به دلیل سواد محدود بازخورد و مهارت نوشتاری یا فقدان مهارت زبانی، در تصحیح‌های سطح بالاتر با مشکل مواجه بودند. برای غلبه بر چالش‌ها، آنها به همکاری همسالان، راهنمایی مدرس و ابزارهای دیجیتال تکیه کردند. کنفرانس‌های حضوری نیز به آنها کمک کرد تا مسائل را روشن کنند و کیفیت پیش‌نویس‌های خود را بهبود بخشند.

واژگان کلیدی: بازخورد صوتی-تصویری، پاسخ‌های دانشجویان، دانشجویان دانشگاه، بازخورد مبتنی بر متن کتبی

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: پنجشنبه، ۶ شهریور ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ تصویب: چهارشنبه، ۲ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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تفاوت های فردی و چت بات های هوش مصنوعی: نقش آن ها در تحقق فراگفتمان در نوشتار توضیحی زبان آموزان انگلیسی به عنوان یک زبان خارجی

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چکیده

هدف این پژوهش بررسی چگونگی تأثیر ویژگی های شخصیتی (برون گرایان و درون گرایان) بر استفاده از نشانگرهای فراگفتمان در نویسندگی توضیحی زبان آموزان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی (EFL) است؛ به طور خاص در استفاده از دو چت بات هوش مصنوعی، جمینی و مایکروسافت کاپایلویت. علاوه بر این، در این پژوهش به تجزیه و تحلیل تجربیات و ترجیحات زبان آموزان در تعامل با این چت بات ها برای درک ادراکات و رضایت کلی آن ها پرداخته شد. شرکت کنندگان شامل ۱۵۰ زبان آموز زن و مرد پیشرفته بودند که به صورت تصادفی به چهار گروه آزمایشی تقسیم شدند: زبان آموزان برون گرای جمینی، زبان آموزان درون گرای جمینی، زبان آموزان برون گرای مایکروسافت کاپایلویت، زبان آموزان درون گرای مایکروسافت کاپایلویت و یک گروه کنترل. در طول مدت درمان که هشت جلسه به طول انجامید، دو گروه جمینی از هوش مصنوعی جمینی برای بحث و بررسی نشانگرهای فراگفتمان بر روی یک صفحه کامپیوتر استفاده کردند و دو گروه مایکروسافت کاپایلویت از نشانگرهای فراگفتمان از طریق هوش مصنوعی مایکروسافت کاپایلویت بهره مند شدند. گروه کنترل روش های آموزش مرسوم شامل خواندن مطالب درسی مشخص را دریافت کرد. نتایج تحلیل کوواریانس یک طرفه نشان داد که گروه درون گرای جمینی در آزمون پایانی شناسایی و تحقق نشانگرهای فراگفتمان نسبت به سه گروه دیگر عملکرد بهتری داشتند. با این حال، مقایسه های پساهاوک تفاوت های معناداری بین گروه های مختلف در شناسایی نشانگرهای فراگفتمان نشان داد. علاوه بر این، در آزمون پس از درمان، پیشرفت در هر دو گروه زبان آموزان درون گرا و برون گرای مایکروسافت کاپایلویت در تحقق نشانگرهای فراگفتمان در نویسندگی توضیحی مشاهده شد. گروه برون گرای جمینی و گروه کنترل نسبت به دیگر گروه ها عملکرد ضعیف تری داشتند. نتایج مصاحبه نیمه ساختاریافته از طریق نرم افزار MAXQDA (نسخه ۲۰۲۲) تحلیل شد. نتایج این مطالعه نشان می دهد که استفاده از مایکروسافت کاپایلویت به طور هم زمان به زبان آموزان درون گرا و برون گرا کمک می کند تا عملکرد نویسندگی توضیحی خود را از طریق تحقق فراگفتمان توسعه دهند.

واژگان کلیدی: نوشتار توضیحی، جمینی، فراگفتمان، مایکروسافت کاپایلویت

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: چهارشنبه، ۲۴ بهمن ۱۴۰۳

تاریخ تصویب: پنجشنبه، ۲۰ شهریور ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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آموزش انتقادی در کردستان عراق: آگاهی مدرسان زبان انگلیسی و نقش بافت و تفاوت های فردی

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چکیده

آموزش انتقادی به عنوان یک رویکرد آموزشی که تفکر انتقادی، آگاهی اجتماعی و یادگیری تحول آفرین را تقویت می کند، به رسمیت شناخته شده است. با این حال، تلفیق آن در آموزش زبان انگلیسی در بافت کردستان عراق، جایی که روش های آموزشی سنتی غالب است، هنوز مورد بررسی قرار نگرفته است. این پژوهش، آگاهی از آموزش انتقادی در میان مدرسان زبان انگلیسی در کردستان عراق و این که آیا مدرک تحصیلی مدرسان، محیط تدریس و جنسیت بر سطوح آگاهی ایشان نسبت به آموزش انتقادی تأثیر می گذارد را بررسی می کند. با استفاده از یک طرح پیمایشی مقطعی، داده ها از ۳۹۷ مدرس زبان انگلیسی شاغل در دبیرستان ها و دانشگاه های سراسر منطقه مورد بررسی جمع آوری شد. برای این منظور، از یک پرسشنامه آموزشی انتقادی محقق ساخته استفاده شد و پاسخ ها با استفاده از تحلیل واریانس چند متغیره (MANOVA) تجزیه و تحلیل شدند. نتایج تفاوت های قابل توجهی را در آگاهی از آموزش انتقادی در سطوح تحصیلی و محیط های آموزشی متفاوت نشان داد. دارندگان مدرک کارشناسی و مدرسان دبیرستان بالاترین سطح آگاهی نسبت به آموزش انتقادی را دارا بودند. تفاوت های مبتنی بر جنسیت نیز مشاهده شد و مدرسان زن آگاهی بیشتری در تولید مشترک دانش و محتوای اقتباس شده داشتند در حالی که مدرسان مرد آگاهی بالاتری نسبت به عاملیت و عمل نشان دادند. این یافته ها بر نیاز به برنامه های آموزش مدرسان مبتنی بر تمرین و حمایت نهادی برای تسهیل تحقق عملی آموزش انتقادی در آموزش زبان انگلیسی تأکید می کند.

واژگان کلیدی: آموزش انتقادی، آموزش زبان انگلیسی، آگاهی مدرس، بافت های آموزشی

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

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ارزیابی کیفیت کلی و توانش ارتباطات بینافرهنگی در کتاب‌های درسی نگارش متون دانشگاهی انگلیسی: مطالعه تطبیقی منابع ایرانی و بین‌المللی

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چکیده

کتاب‌های درسی نقش محوری در یادگیری زبان ایفا می‌کنند و نه تنها به عنوان ابزار آموزشی، بلکه به عنوان رسانه‌های فرهنگی عمل می‌کنند. پژوهش حاضر دو کتاب درسی نگارش متون دانشگاهی انگلیسی، یعنی *Effective Academic Writing 2 (EAW2)* و *Essay Writing (EW)*، را از حیث کیفیت کلی و ویژگی‌های توانش ارتباطات بینافرهنگی، مقایسه می‌کند. با استفاده از طرح توصیفی-مقایسه‌ای و رویکرد ترکیبی، داده‌ها از ۲۷ استاد دانشگاه ایرانی جمع‌آوری شدند. ابزار اصلی شامل فهرست مقابله‌ای ارزیابی کتاب‌های درسی و پنج پرسش باز بود. داده‌های کمی با استفاده از نرم‌افزار SPSS (نسخه ۲۶) و داده‌های کیفی از طریق تحلیل محتوا بررسی شدند. یافته‌ها نشان داد که *EAW2* در ابعادی مختلف مانند کاربردپذیری، تنوع فرهنگی، و تأکید بر توانش ارتباطات بینافرهنگی بر *EW* برتری دارد. باین حال، کمبود محتوای محلی و استفاده ناکافی از محتوای چندرسانه‌ای و فناوری‌های نوین از نقاط ضعف آن بود. در مقابل، *EW* از حیث انطباق با زمینه‌های محلی ایرانی موفق‌تر بود، اما در پوشش تنوع فرهنگی و توسعه توانش ارتباطات بینافرهنگی ناتوان بود. هر دو کتاب در ارائه کمک‌های آموزشی و پلتفرم‌های دیجیتال مشابه عمل کردند و نقاط ضعفی مشترک داشتند. مشارکت‌کنندگان پیشنهاداتی مانند افزودن محتوای محلی، استفاده از محتوای چندرسانه‌ای و فناوری‌های نوین، و تمرکز بر موقعیت‌های واقعی زندگی ارائه کردند. این پژوهش ضمن تأکید بر نقش کتاب‌های درسی در ارتقای توانش ارتباطات بینافرهنگی، نیاز به بازنگری در طراحی آنها را برجسته می‌کند. پیامدهای نظری و عملی این پژوهش شامل تأکید بر تعادل بین فرهنگ محلی و جهانی و استفاده از محتوای چندرسانه‌ای و فناوری‌های نوین است.

واژگان کلیدی: توانش ارتباطات بینافرهنگی، کتاب درسی، کیفیت کلی، نگارش انگلیسی دانشگاهی

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: شنبه، ۱۳ بهمن ۱۴۰۳

تاریخ تصویب: سه شنبه، ۸ مهر ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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شکفتن به وقت رنجش: رویکرد روان‌شناسی هستی‌گرایانه‌ی مثبت به ذهنیت تاب‌آور معلمان زبان دوم

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چکیده

مطالعات روان-عاطفی در زمینه‌های زبان دوم اغلب بر دیدگاهی دوگانه از سلامت روان تمرکز دارند که ابعاد مثبت و منفی آن را از هم جدا می‌داند. با این حال، روانشناسی هستی‌گرایانه وجودی (EPP) بیان می‌کند که سلامت روان ذاتاً شامل توانایی مواجهه با رنج و سختی‌ها است. این مطالعه با توجه به شکاف موجود در زبان‌شناسی کاربردی در مورد دیدگاه‌های مبتنی بر EPP درباره سلامت روان معلمان، به بررسی ذهنیت تاب‌آور معلمان زبان دوم ایرانی با استفاده از طراحی ترکیبی توضیحی متوالی می‌پردازد. از نظر کمی، ۱۵۷ معلم زبان انگلیسی به‌عنوان زبان خارجی مقیاس تاب‌آوری مبتنی بر EPP را تکمیل کردند که جنبه‌های وجودی این مفهوم، از جمله سرسختی، مسئولیت‌پذیری، قدردانی، ذهن‌آگاهی، معنا و باور را اندازه‌گیری می‌کند. از نظر کیفی، مصاحبه‌هایی با ۱۷ معلم با استفاده از مدل SPARK تحلیل شد که تاب‌آوری فرد را در لحظات پرتنش از طریق پردازش موقعیت‌ها، ادراک‌ها، عواطف، واکنش‌ها و دانش نشان می‌دهد. یافته‌ها نشان داد که معلمان زبان دوم ایرانی سطوح متوسطی از تاب‌آوری وجودی را نشان می‌دهند و مضامین کیفی عوامل برجسته‌ای را که به شکل‌گیری تاب‌آوری معلمان کمک می‌کنند، برجسته کرد. یافته‌های این تحقیق بر اهمیت چارچوب EPP در درک تاب‌آوری معلمان تأکید دارند و راهکارهایی برای اقدامات عملی بعدی در آموزش معلمان زبان دوم با تمرکز بر ارتقای تاب‌آوری ارائه می‌دهند.

واژگان کلیدی: روان‌شناسی مثبت وجودی، تاب‌آوری معلمان زبان دوم، روان‌شناسی مثبت، ذهنیت تاب‌آور، مدل تاب‌آوری اسپارک

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: ۲۷ اردیبهشت ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ تصویب: ۸ مهر ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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بهبود روانی گفتار در زبان دوم/خارجی از طریق دو مدل آموزشی مبتنی بر انگیزش در محیط یادگیری برخط

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چکیده

با وجود اینکه روانی گفتار در زبان دوم/خارجی برای برقراری ارتباط مؤثر لازم است. با این حال، بهبود آن در محیط‌های آموزش از راه دور برخط هنوز چالشی جدی می‌باشد. این پژوهش با هدف بررسی مؤثر بودن اجرای دو مدل انگیزشی، یعنی آموزش مبتنی بر چارچوب یا مدل آرکس و مدل سیستم خود‌های انگیزشی زبان دوم ارتقای پنداره، انجام شد. در این راستا، ۶۱ زبان‌آموز انگلیسی سطح متوسط به بالا در سه کلاس دست نخورده قابل دسترس به دو گروه آزمایشی/تجربی و یک گروه کنترل/شاهد تقسیم شدند. گروه‌های آزمایشی دوره آموزشی را بر اساس مدل آرکس (شامل توجه، ارتباط، اعتماد به نفس، و رضایت) و مدل خود‌های انگیزشی زبان دوم کسب کردند، در حالی که گروه کنترل تحت آموزش مرسوم سنتی قرار گرفتند. سه گروه از طریق مصاحبه‌های ساختار یافته یک‌طرفه پیش‌آزمون و پس‌آزمون شدند و داده‌های حاصل وارد نرم افزار PRAAT شد. نتایج حاصل از آزمون‌های غیر پارامتری تفاوت‌های معناداری را نشان داد، به‌طوری‌که گروه‌های آزمایشی آرکس و خود‌های انگیزشی زبان دوم در معیارهای روانی گفتار مانند تعداد توقف و تعداد هجاها عملکرد بهتری نسبت به گروه کنترل داشتند. این یافته‌ها بر اهمیت آموزش مبتنی بر انگیزش در بهبود روانی گفتار در آموزش از راه دور تأکید دارند.

واژگان کلیدی: مدل آرکس، خود‌های انگیزشی زبان دوم، برنامه‌های انگیزشی، آموزش برخط، روانی گفتار

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: پنجشنبه، ۲۸ اردیبهشت ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ تصویب: دوشنبه، ۳۱ شهریور ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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اولویت‌های نامتوازن: بازنمایی مهارت‌های یادگیری قرن بیست و یکم در کتاب‌های درسی زبان انگلیسی

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چکیده

با توجه به ضرورت روزافزون مهارت‌های یادگیری قرن بیست و یکم در آماده‌سازی دانش‌آموزان برای مواجهه با چالش‌های جهانی، ارزیابی چگونگی تجلی این شایستگی‌ها در مطالب آموزشی زبان انگلیسی حائز اهمیت فراوان است. با این همه، تحقیقات موجود در مورد نمود این مهارت‌ها در کتاب‌های درسی پرکاربرد همچنان محدود است و نیاز به یک ارزیابی سیستماتیک را خاطرنشان می‌کند. این مطالعه، بازنمایی مهارت‌های یادگیری قرن بیست و یکم را در مطالب آموزشی زبان انگلیسی از طریق تحلیل محتوای کتاب *Cutting Edge – Pre-Intermediate* نوشته پیرسون بررسی می‌کند. یافته‌ها تأکید نامتوازنی بر این مهارت‌ها را نشان می‌دهد. در این کتاب، مهارت ارتباطی به عنوان برجسته‌ترین مهارت دیده می‌شود که مبین نقش برجسته این مهارت در تقویت تعامل و قدرت است. مهارت همکاری در رتبه بعدی قرار دارد و اهمیت آن را در کار گروهی و حل مسئله نشان می‌دهد. در مقابل، مهارت تفکر انتقادی و خلاقیت، نمود متوسطی در این کتابها دارند، در حالی که آموزش‌های شهروندی و شخصیت به طور قابل توجهی کمتر مورد توجه قرار گرفته‌اند. این بازنمایی نامتوازن نشان دهنده ضرورت توجه متعادل به مهارت‌های قرن بیست و یکم برای ارتقاء رشد جامع زبان‌آموزان است.

واژگان کلیدی: آموزش زبان انگلیسی، مهارت ارتباطی، همکاری، تفکر انتقادی، آموزش شخصیت

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: سه شنبه، ۲۸ مرداد ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ تصویب: جمعه، ۴ مهر ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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بررسی رابطه بین ادراک از خود در نویسندگی (ایده آل گرایی و بایستگی)، ذهنیت رشد و طلب بازخورد اصلاحی در نگارش زبان انگلیسی زبان آموزان ایرانی

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چکیده

در ادبیات موجود، بازخورد اغلب به عنوان انتقال یک طرفه اطلاعات از معلمان به فراگیران در نظر گرفته می شود و در نتیجه، آنها را به عنوان دریافت کنندگان منفعل اطلاعات تلقی می کند. با این حال، معرفی مفهوم رفتار جستجوی بازخورد در حوزه نگارش زبان دوم، نقش فراگیران را به نقش جویندگان فعال بازخورد که برای بهبود عملکرد نوشتاری خود به دنبال کسب اطلاعات مرتبط شخصی هستند، تغییر داده است. بر این اساس، مطالعه حاضر به بررسی وضعیت طلب بازخورد اصلاحی، ذهنیت رشد و ادراک از خود در نگارش زبان دوم در میان ۴۰ دانشجوی کارشناسی ایرانی آموزش زبان انگلیسی پرداخت. داده های لازم از طریق مجموعه ای از پرسش نامه های مرتبط با متغیرهای اصلی و با انجام مصاحبه های گروه کانونی جمع آوری شد. داده ها با استفاده از روش های آماری همچون همبستگی، رگرسیون چندگانه و آزمون t مورد تحلیل قرار گرفت و داده های کیفی نیز از طریق تحلیل مضمونی تحلیل شدند. نتایج، حاکی از وجود همبستگی های آماری معنادار بین طلب بازخورد اصلاحی و ذهنیت رشد و ادراک از خود در نگارش زبان دوم آنان بود. نتایج رگرسیون چندگانه نیز نشانگر توانمندی خرده متغیر بایستگی ادراک از خود در نگارش زبان دوم در پیش بینی طلب بازخورد اصلاحی در میان شرکت کنندگان پژوهش بود. علاوه بر این، آزمون t نمونه های مستقل، تفاوت های آماری معناداری بین نویسندگان دانشجوی باتجربه تر و کم تجربه تر در تمایل به طلب بازخورد از خود نشان داد. علاوه بر این، داده های جلسه مصاحبه گروه کانونی نشان داد که ماهیت و پیچیدگی فعالیت های نگارش، ویژگی های شخصیتی دانشجویان همانند میزان استرس و پریشانی آنها در طی فرایند نوشتن و نوع رابطه بین استاد-دانشجو بر طلب بازخورد آنها تاثیرگذار می باشند.

واژگان کلیدی: بازخورد نوشتاری، طلب بازخورد اصلاحی، ذهنیت رشد، خود بایستگی، خود ایده آل گرایی،

خود نویسندگی در زبان دوم

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

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تاریخ تصویب: دو شنبه، ۳۱ شهریور ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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تقویت مهارت خواندن و واژگان زبان آموزان انگلیسی مبتلا به طیف اختلال در خودماندگی با استفاده از روش جامعه-نمایش همراه با موسیقی و شعردرمانی

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چکیده

در دوران امروزی جهانی شدن و پیشرفت فناوری، ضرورت آموزش همگانی بیش از پیش اهمیت پیدا کرده است. این امر مسلماً در ارتباط با یکی از گروه‌های جمعیتی به شدت در حاشیه و لذا آسیب‌پذیر جامعه بشری همانا یادگیرندگان دارای نیازهای ویژه از اهمیتی مضاعف برخوردار می‌گردد. از جمله گروه‌های این دسته از یادگیرندگان، می‌توان به افراد مبتلا به اختلال طیف درخودماندگی (اوتیسم) اشاره نمود که نیازمند رویه‌های آموزشی خلاق هستند چرا که از روش‌های معمول آموزشی نمی‌توان برای جلب مشارکت این افراد بهره‌چندانی برد. در این راستا، مطالعه حاضر به منظور بررسی مهارت خواندن و واژگان زبان انگلیسی مبتلا به اوتیسم با استفاده از تکنیک‌های جامعه-نمایش همراه با موسیقی و شعر درمانی انجام شد. در مطالعه مذکور، تعداد ۲۰ زبان‌آموز نوجوان از ۳ مدرسه استثنایی در تهران انتخاب شدند و در ۲ گروه مختلف به شکل زیر در دوره آموزشی ۱۰ جلسه‌ای شرکت کردند: یک گروه با آموزش جامعه-نمایش همراه با موسیقی درمانی و گروه دیگر با آموزش جامعه-نمایش همراه با شعر درمانی. بر اساس نتایج این مطالعه، پژوهشگران به این نتیجه رسیدند که هر ۲ روش مذکور بدون اختلاف معناداری باعث تشویق تقویت مهارت خواندن و زبان آموزان مبتلا به اوتیسم می‌گردد.

واژگان کلیدی: جامعه-نمایش (سوسیودراما)، شعردرمانی، طیف اختلال درخودماندگی (اوتیسم)، موسیقی درمانی، مهارت خواندن، واژگان

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: چهارشنبه، ۲۵ تیر ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ تصویب: جمعه، ۴ مهر ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ آنلاین: جمعه، ۴ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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مطالعه مقایسه‌ای سبک‌شناختی «ماجراهای هاکلبری فین» و «ماجراهای تام سایر»، از آثار مارک تواین، از منظر دستور ساختاری گلدبرگ

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چکیده

این پژوهش با به‌کارگیری رویکردی ترکیبی و پیکره-بنیاد، به تحلیل انواع مختلف ساختارهای ساخت موضوعی، در دو رمان «ماجراهای هاکلبری فین» و «ماجراهای تام سایر»، از آثار مارک تواین، از منظر دستور ساختاری آدل گلدبرگ پرداخته است. برای این منظور، پیکره‌ای متشکل از ۱۰,۰۰۰ کلمه از هر رمان، به صورتی روشمند مورد بررسی قرار گرفت. تحلیل‌های کمی شامل شمارش فراوانی و آزمون نسبت درست‌نمایی لگاریتمی، به همراه تحلیل‌های کیفی، به منظور شناسایی ساختارهای مهم و پرتکرار نظیر ساختار مطابقه منفی، نتیجه‌ای، حرکتی-سببی و دومفعولی، به کار گرفته شدند. نتایج نشان داد که در «ماجراهای هاکلبری فین»، رخداد ساختارهای بدیع و غیررسمی به‌طور چشمگیری، نسبت به «ماجراهای تام سایر» بیشتر است که می‌تواند منعکس‌کننده گویش عامیانه شخصیت اصلی، یعنی هاک و هویت تجربی و حاشیه‌ای او باشد؛ در حالی که نویسنده در «ماجراهای تام سایر» به شیوه‌ای منظم از ساختارهای متعارف و الگو-محور بهره می‌برد که بازتاب‌دهنده سبک روایی ساختاریافته متأثر از چارچوب‌های فرهنگی حاکم بر جامعه است. این تفاوت‌ها به تبیین سازوکارهای شناختی نظیر تثبیت، شکل‌گیری الگوها و یادگیری مبتنی بر کاربرد در ایجاد صداهای روایی متمایز، در آثار تواین کمک می‌کنند. ادغام زبان‌شناسی شناختی با تحلیل ادبی در این پژوهش، نه تنها تأثیر انتخاب‌های ساختاری در شکل‌گیری هویت شخصیتی و عمق مفهومی متون را آشکار می‌سازد، بلکه چارچوبی قابل اتکا برای پژوهش‌های میان‌رشته‌ای آینده ارائه می‌دهد. در مجموع، نتایج این مطالعه، درک ما از نوآوری سبک‌شناختی تواین را عمیق‌تر کرده و کاربرد دستور ساختاری در تبیین تعامل پیچیده میان صورت‌های زبانی و معنا در ادبیات را نشان می‌دهد.

واژگان کلیدی: دستور ساختاری، سبک ادبی، ساخت موضوعی، مارک تواین، صدای روایی

اطلاعات مقاله

مقاله پژوهشی

تاریخ دریافت: ۳ اسفند ۱۴۰۳

تاریخ تصویب: ۲۹ شهریور ۱۴۰۴

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

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دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان

دو فصلنامه زبان‌شناسی کاربردی و ادبیات
کاربردی: پویش‌ها و پیشرفت‌ها

صاحب امتیاز:

دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان

مدیر مسئول:

دکتر داود امینی

سر دبیر:

دکتر کریم صادقی

مدیر داخلی:

دکتر رضا یل شرز

نشانی:

کیلومتر ۳۵، جاده تبریز - مراغه، دانشگاه شهید
مدنی آذربایجان، دانشکده ادبیات و علوم انسانی،
دفتر دو فصلنامه.

تلفاکس:

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تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه، ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

بها: ۵۰۰۰۰ ریال

شمارگان: ۱۰۰ جلد

این دو فصلنامه با مجوز شماره ثبت ۹۱/۳۴۷۱۵
وزارت فرهنگ و ارشاد اسلامی چاپ و منتشر
می‌شود.

شاپای الکترونیکی: ۲۸۲۱-۰۲۰۴

شاپای چاپی: ۲۸۲۰-۸۹۸۶

اعضای هیأت تحریریه بین المللی



پروفسور لورنس اورنگا	استاد زبان‌شناسی کاربردی، دوزبانگی و فراگیری زبان دوم	دانشگاه جورج تاون، واشنگتن، ایالات متحده آمریکا
پروفسور گری بارکوزن	استاد زبان‌شناسی کاربردی، مطالعات زبان و زبان‌شناسی	دانشگاه اوکلند، اوکلند، نیوزیلند
دکتر مصطفی بایی	دانشیار آموزش زبان دوم	دانشگاه ایالتی فلوریدا، ایالات متحده آمریکا
پروفسور پل جان تیهالت	استاد زبان‌شناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه آکدر، کریستین ساند، نروژ
پروفسور شمیم رافیک گالا	استاد زبان‌شناسی کاربردی و آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه سه گی، پتالینگ جایا، سلاگور، مالزی
پروفسور ماریا دل پیلار گارسیا مایو	استاد زبان انگلیسی و زبان‌شناسی	دانشگاه دل پاپس واسکو، ویتوریا گاستیز، اسپانیا
دکتر نیکوس سیفیلاکیس	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی برای اهداف خاص	دانشگاه ملی و کاپودیسترز آتن، آتن، یونان
دکتر هدایت سرندی	دانشیار آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه صباح الدین زعیم، استانبول، ترکیه
پروفسور لوئیس وان فلوئر	استاد مطالعات ترجمه	دانشگاه اوتاوا، اوتاوا، کانادا
پروفسور سورش کاناگاراچا	استاد زبان‌شناسی کاربردی، زبان نگلیسی و مطالعات آسیا	دانشگاه ایالتی پنسیلوانیا، استیت کالج، ایالات متحده آمریکا
پروفسور کلیر جین کرمنش	استاد بازنشسته زبان‌شناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه کالیفرنیا در برکلی، کالیفرنیا، برکلی، ایالات متحده آمریکا
دکتر سمید کریمی اقدم	دانشیار آموزش زبان انگلیسی و زبان‌شناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه نورد، لوانگر، نروژ
دکتر انریکو گرازی	دانشیار زبان انگلیسی، زبان‌شناسی و ترجمه،	دانشگاه رما ترا، رم، ایتالیا
پروفسور جیمز پی لاتتولف	استاد آموزش زبان و زبان‌شناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه ایالتی پنسیلوانیا، استیت کالج، پنسیلوانیا، ایالات متحده آمریکا
پروفسور آنکه لنزیگ	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه اینشبروک، اینشبروک، اتریش
پروفسور پل کی ماتسودا	استاد زبان انگلیسی و مدیر برنامه مهارت نوشتری زبان دوم در دانشگاه ایالتی آریزونا	دانشگاه ایالتی آریزونا، تمپه، آریزونا، ایالات متحده آمریکا
پروفسور آری هوتا	استاد زبان‌شناسی کاربردی و سنجش زبان	مدیر مرکز مطالعات کاربردی زبان، دانشگاه بیواسکیلا، بیواسکیلا، فنلاند
پروفسور ماریولین ورسپور	استاد زبان‌شناسی کاربردی	دانشکده دکتری چندزبانگی، دانشگاه پانونیا، وزپریم، مجارستان
پروفسور لی وی	استاد زبان‌شناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه کالج لندن، لندن، انگلستان



اعضای هیأت تحریریه داخلی

دکتر داود امینی	دانشیار آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان
دکتر علی اکبر انصارین	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه تبریز
دکتر بیوک بهنام	دانشیار بازنشته آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان
دکتر بهرام بهین	دانشیار آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان
دکتر کریم صادقی	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه ارومیه
دکتر فرهمین فرخی	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه تبریز
دکتر پروین قاسمی	استاد بازنشته ادبیات انگلیسی	دانشگاه شیراز
دکتر کاظم لطفی پور ساعدی	استاد بازنشته زبان شناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه تبریز
دکتر احد مهروند	دانشیار ادبیات انگلیسی	دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان

اعضای مشاور هیأت تحریریه

دکتر فریده پورگیو	استاد بازنشته زبان و ادبیات انگلیسی	دانشگاه شیراز
دکتر علیرضا جلیلی فر	استاد زبان شناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه شهید چمران اهواز
دکتر ثلاثه چلا	استاد زبانشناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه USM مالزی
دکتر ابوالفضل رمضانی	استاد زبان و ادبیات انگلیسی	دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان
دکتر مهناز سمیدی	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی واحد تبریز
دکتر مینو عالمی	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه آزاد اسلامی واحد تهران غرب
دکتر رضا عبدی	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه محقق اردبیلی
دکتر سید محمد علوی	استاد زبانشناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه تهران
دکتر بهروز عزیدفتری	استاد بازنشته زبان شناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه تبریز
دکتر جواد غلامی	استاد آموزش زبان انگلیسی	دانشگاه ارومیه
دکتر سعید کتابی	استاد زبانشناسی کاربردی	دانشگاه اصفهان

ویراستاران انگلیسی: دکتر ابوالفضل رمضانی و شهاب ناظری
صفحه‌آرا و حروف‌چین: مؤسسه ایشن کامپیوتر



دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان

دو فصلنامه زبان‌شناسی کاربردی و ادبیات
کاربردی: پوشش‌ها و پیشرفت‌ها

صاحب امتیاز:

دانشگاه شهید مدنی آذربایجان

مدیر مسئول:

دکتر داود امینی

سرمدیر:

دکتر کریم صادقی

مدیر داخلی:

دکتر رضا یل شرز

نشانی:

کیلومتر ۳۵، جاده تبریز- مراغه، دانشگاه
شهید مدنی آذربایجان، دانشکده ادبیات و علوم
انسانی، دفتر دو فصلنامه.

تلفاکس:

۰۴۱-۳۴۳۲۷۵۵۹

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شماره انتشار:

سال سیزدهم، شماره دوم

تاریخ انتشار: چهارشنبه ۹ مهر ۱۴۰۴

بها: ۵۰۰۰۰ ریال

شمارگان: ۱۰۰ جلد

این دو فصلنامه با مجوز شماره ثبت ۹۱/۳۴۷۱۵
وزارت فرهنگ و ارشاد اسلامی چاپ و منتشر
می‌شود.

شاپای الکترونیکی: ۲۸۲۱-۰۲۰۴

شاپای چاپی: ۲۸۲۰-۸۹۸۶