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FROM THE EDITOR

by **Jarosław Krajka**

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The impact of educational technology on the development of foreign language proficiency as the focus of coverage of *Teaching English with Technology* finds its more specific manifestations in how different language skills and abilities are to be fostered in computer-mediated environments. While the use of computers for vocabulary and grammar practice as well as mastery of receptive skills and translation in close-ended tasks has been thoroughly investigated since the first days of CALL and the PLATO system, the use of technology-assisted teaching to stimulate the development of oral proficiency has only recently attracted more attention. Taking into account how essential communicative competence is in the contemporary world, and given a wide range of tools and technologies that are at teacher's disposal nowadays, it seems necessary to seek ways of increasing mastery of speaking skills in a technology-rich classroom. Any attempts to verify the influence of technology itself or the way of stimulating learners' oral proficiency enabled by technology are more than welcome.

Many of the articles of the October issue of *Teaching English with Technology* try to satisfy the demand for studies into speaking development. To start with, **Noparat Tananuraksakul** (Thailand) explores how the indispensable component of speaking ability, pronunciation, can be successfully mastered in Internet-mediated learning with the use of a selected phonetics website.

A great amount of speaking practice is also generated through planning, executing, presenting and peer-evaluating multimedia projects. Here, **Ismail Anas** (Indonesia) takes up the challenge of showing how to successfully organize and implement student-made video projects to ensure active learning.

"Encouraging English language production using TED Talks at the tertiary level: A study in a technical college" by **Martha Thindle Karunakar** (India) proves that that using TED Talks as a resource in the ESP classroom improves English language production in terms of speaking and encourages learners to confidently use the language.

As it is interesting to find out what patterns of interaction are generated in different media environments and how the medium influences the message, **Farahnaz Rostami** and **Farzaneh Khodabandeh** from Iran undertook a comparative study of language style variations in e-mail and *Telegram* messages. The conclusion reached was that the essays sent by *Telegram* (containing 5 factors including contractions, questions, modal verbs, opening sentences, vocabulary) were recognized to use more informal styles of writing than emails.

"The impact of immersive strategy with English video clips on EFL students' speaking performance: an empirical study at senior high school" by **Asnawi Muslem, Teuku Zulfikar, Ibnu Hajar Ibrahim, Arifin Syamaun, Saiful and Bustami Usman** (Indonesia) reports upon the research which proves, beyond any doubt, that the students participating in the immersive strategy through English video clips group outperform the students subjected to the immersive strategy through English audio.

On top of all these articles devoted to fostering speaking skills, the October issue contains also a reflection on how learners perceive the effect of digital storytelling on their vocabulary learning (**Amelia Chiew Har Leong**, **Mohamad Jafre Zainol Abidin** and **Jamalsafri Saibon** from Malaysia) and a detailed examination of major learning theories and frameworks used in CALL studies over the last 20 years (**Sedat Akayoğlu** from Turkey).

We hope that a rich mix of topics, teaching contexts and tools used to organize technology-mediated instruction will serve as inspiration for all educators interested in increasing the impact of their instruction with modern teaching aids.

We wish you good reading!

LEARNERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE IMPACT OF USING DIGITAL STORYTELLING ON VOCABULARY LEARNING

by **Amelia Chiew Har Leong**, **Mohamad Jafre Zainol Abidin** and **Jamalsafri Saibon**

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Abstract

Learning vocabulary is one of the problems faced by English language learners. The inability to use vocabulary poses difficulties to learn the language effectively. One of the ways to attract to and interest learners in learning vocabulary is through the integration of technology, such as the use of digital storytelling as its interactivity can create interest in learning. This study examined the effects of digital storytelling in vocabulary learning among young Malaysian English as a Second Language (ESL) learners. Qualitative case study was employed as the research design of this study. Findings revealed that there were several impacts of digital storytelling on vocabulary learning and all of these effects are positive. Some implications of digital storytelling on education are also discussed in this paper.

Keywords: digital storytelling; vocabulary learning; Young ESL Learners; English as Second Language Learning

1. Introduction

According to Katsuyama, Nishigaki and Wang (2008), the role of the English language has expanded so greatly that countries such as Malaysia and Singapore are teaching and learning the language as a second language. The English language is known as the second language in Malaysia (Badrul Hisham & Kamaruzaman, 2009). It is widely used in Malaysia for social media, politics, business, tourism and the educational system (Mohd Faisal, 2004). The learning of the English language in Malaysia is so prominent that English is a compulsory subject in all the schools in the country. However, Andrew (2006) as well as Norlida Ahmad, Munirah Ghazali, Anna Christina Abdullah and Amir Yazid Ali (2004) reported that Malaysian learners' acquisition of the English language is still below satisfactory, as 70% of the students are still weak in the target language, even though learners have been learning the language formally for at least eleven years. According to Barcroft (2004), in order to use a language fluently and correctly, learners' grammatical and lexical competence is needed. This is supported by Meara (1996), who stated that second language (L2) proficiency is highly dependent on learners'

vocabulary skills as the larger the vocabulary knowledge of the learners, the more proficient they are in the language as compared to learners with limited vocabulary knowledge. Besides, it is also believed that when activating their schemata in reading a text, learners should be provided with the appropriate vocabulary in the text (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). Hence, having high competency in vocabulary use is crucial in learning the language.

In the field of ESL learning, the utilisation of digital storytelling has proven to be beneficial and useful in preparing learners to learn the language effectively. According to Koisawalia (2005), the use of digital storytelling is beneficial to language learning as the language features – vocabulary, grammar, sentence structures and linguistic elements – are presented through digital stories. According to Kajder (2006), Marsh (2006) and Ware (2006), the use of digital storytelling is expected to enhance vocabulary learning by exposing language learners to the lexical items while listening to and reading digital stories. Hence, in this paper, we examined the effects of using tablet-based digital storytelling in vocabulary learning among selected young ESL learners in Malaysia.

2. The process of vocabulary acquisition

In the English language, sentences are made up of a list of words defined as vocabulary, in order to convey meaning and to be comprehensible to other English language users. In order to achieve fluency, vocabulary use needs to be mastered by the learners. Thus, vocabulary learning is one of the most essential language abilities in the learning of the English language. In fact, as Wilkins (1972) states, "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". Harmon (2002), as well as Rupley, Logan and Nichols (1999) state that vocabulary skill is needed for English language learners to make meaning and interpret the English sentences, and the greater their mastery of the vocabulary skill, the better they can interpret meaning from the sentences.

Most studies conducted by English language researchers and experts recently have been primarily focused on the importance of vocabulary skill in the English language (Decarrico, 2001). Even though the learning of vocabulary is the most important element to be mastered in order to learn the English language effectively, vocabulary is also the language area which the learners commit most errors in (Segler, 2001). However, learning of vocabulary has never been put into consideration. Vocabulary is one of the lowest priority language skills and elements to be taught and learned in ESL classrooms, among all the other English language elements such as grammar, reading, writing, speaking and listening. Vocabulary is often expected to be self-acquired by their learners with their own effort. Fauziah Hassan and Nita Fauzee Selamat

(2002) reported that out of nine language activities used in the ESL classrooms, vocabulary activity was ranked at number four. Similarly, Teh Chee Seng (2004) highlighted that vocabulary activity was one of the lowest in the list of preferred learning activities of the learners. This is supported by Low (2004, as cited in Zulfa Zakaria, 2005), who indicated that learning of vocabulary is less emphasised and less preferred by learners due to limited exposure to the language, inability to make English language learning an interesting activity and the negative perception of the learning of the English language.

2.1. Problems and difficulties in the learning of vocabulary

Mastering the English language vocabulary proves to be difficult, especially in memorising new, long and seldom used words. It is believed that the main difficulty in comprehending an English text is the need to infer meaning of the new words presented in the text (Qian, 2002). According to Nation (1990), in order to read a text fluently, a learner will need to understand 2,000 common words. Nation (2001) added that a learner needs to possess at least 95% of English words in order to achieve comprehension in reading. In addition, lack of vocabulary would lead to misunderstanding, misinterpretation and inability to comprehend an English text. Thus, what is needed to understand and infer meaning from the English sentences is definitely vocabulary skills. Without the mastery of vocabulary, meaning cannot be inferred from the text and consequently language proficiency cannot be achieved.

In a study on the teaching and learning of vocabulary in ESL classrooms by Joseph, Pandian, Chan, and Ghazali (2011), five-year-old learners were taught vocabulary through reading and memorisation of the words for a spelling test and asked to repeat and write the words taught to improve their ability to spell the words correctly. There was no usage of nursery rhymes or storytelling in the classrooms. The teaching and learning process in Malaysia's five-year-old classroom is very teacher-centred – learners only follow the instructions given by the educators without motivation and engagement to learn the vocabulary.

A study conducted by Nguyen and Khuat (2003) stated that vocabulary learning materials used in the primary classroom are dull and boring. This study was conducted qualitatively by observing and interviewing the learners involved to examine the learners' attitudes in using games to learn vocabulary. The findings derived from this study revealed that 17 out of the 20 learners expressed their interest in being involved in the learning activity (games) and indicated satisfaction and positive attitudes towards learning vocabulary through games. Furthermore, 16 out of 20 learners stated that they were able to learn more new words through games whilst 18 out of the 20 learners said that using games is one of the most

effective ways to learn vocabulary. The learners felt that vocabulary learning activities such as drilling exercises are boring and dull as they were merely memorising the words without comprehending the meanings.

Similarly, Maesin, Mansor, Shafie and Nayan (2009) also expressed the view that the use of uninteresting and dull learning materials provided in the classrooms fails to attract learners' interest in vocabulary learning. These boring and dull learning materials make learners lose interest and discourage them from paying attention in learning vocabulary. Their study was conducted by employing the Likert-scale survey questionnaire with the aim of obtaining the level of learners' preference in using the modern way of learning (collaborative learning) vocabulary. The findings revealed that all 162 learners expressed a high level of preference in using collaborative learning in vocabulary acquisition.

Furthermore, the vocabulary presentation by educators and the use of textbooks are not sufficient in aiding learners' vocabulary learning (Rahimi & Sahragard, 2008). For this reason, learners should be exposed to more than these two input sources in order to achieve effectiveness in vocabulary learning. Carter (2002) opined that vocabulary learning should be conducted implicitly until learners achieve a certain level of proficiency in the language. Thang et al. (2013) reported that Malaysian English language learners who used digital storytelling showed positive attitudes and enjoyed learning the English language more with the use of digital storytelling. This is supported by Abdul-Ameer (2014), who reported that young Iraqi learners' vocabulary learning was made more effective by using digital storytelling as vocabulary learning based on textbooks and teacher-centred learning is discouraging in Iraq. It is also believed that the utilisation of digital stories and digital songs can help to enhance learners' vocabulary learning (Nation, 2001).

2.2. The use of technology in vocabulary learning

It is crucial to identify learner's learning strategy and learning material in order to help them learn vocabulary effectively. The traditional way of learning using textbooks, blackboard and chalk and white board has failed and has been ineffective in the teaching and learning of the language. Hence, educators and learners have resorted to alternative teaching-learning approaches which are more creative through the use of images, songs, animations, videos and movies as the teaching and learning materials (McGill, 2010; Orlova, 2003; Kelly, Kelly, Offner & Vorland, 2002). The use of these creative learning materials is believed to be able to engage learners in their learning, present novelty and provide entertainment to learners. This can consequently get learners' attention and arouse their interest in learning the language.

The introduction and integration of technology into the education system is widely accepted by educators and learners. Besides being able to inject novelty, innovation, creativeness, interest and fun into the learning environment, the use of technology is also believed to be able to cater for various learning styles and strategies. Moreover, the use of technology promotes autonomous and independent learning, in which learners take charge of their own learning without anyone's help, including their educators. However, it is also believed that the effectiveness of using technology in the teaching and learning process is highly dependent on the learning activities. According to Trilling and Hood (1999), technology-based learning activities must be able to engage learners in learning and help them achieve better learning outcomes, which is not doable through the use of traditional learning activities. In other words, successful and effective learning is highly dependent on the degree of engagement in the learning activities by the learners. The higher the degree of engagement, the more successful and effective learning will be.

According to Traore and Kyei-Blankson (2011), the use of technology can motivate learners to learn vocabulary as highly interactive technological learning materials are able to engage learners in learning. Learning activities are enhanced and enriched through the use of technology in the language classrooms. Traore and Kyei-Blankson (2011, p. 563) added that the use of technology gives the learners a "sense of freedom, motivation and encouragement they need for learning". A study conducted by Mohamad Jafre, Majid Pour-Mohammadi, Neda Sharbaf, See Toh and Afif Mohamad Jafre (2011) reported improvement in Malaysian secondary school learners' vocabulary competency after the learners were exposed to the use of electronic and printed glossary in vocabulary learning. It was stated that the use of the electronic glossary is more effective in vocabulary learning as it enhances learners' retention and memorisation of the vocabulary items learned. Similarly, findings from a study conducted by Letchumanan and Tan (2012) showed that learners preferred to use computer games in learning vocabulary as computer games are said to be more interesting and fun to use. The illustrations integrated in the games are believed to enhance the retention of vocabulary items. This is supported by Ab Kadir and Nur Fairuz (2013), who indicated that the utilisation of educational games is able to attract learners to vocabulary learning. Educational games are favourable in vocabulary learning as vocabulary can be implicitly learned when playing the games while learning can be done from anywhere, at any time and at learners' own pace. Hence, the use of technology in vocabulary proves to be beneficial in enhancing ESL learners' vocabulary learning.

2.3. Digital storytelling in vocabulary learning

According to Digital Storytelling Association (2011), digital storytelling is the modern version of the traditional form of storytelling, using the digital media to generate texts to tell stories. Digital storytelling is a way of telling stories creatively by integrating images, texts, sounds and movies to tell and share users' stories in a digital format. As compared to traditional storytelling, digital storytelling has evolved drastically with the integration of technology. The storytelling has been digitalised and used as a learning material in promoting language learning as it can motivate learners to be involved in learning, while the incorporation of technology into the production of the stories increases the interactivity of stories that can attract learners' interest (Hibbing & Rankin-Erikson, 2003; Boster, Meyer, Roberto & Inge, 2002). Besides, Gregori-Signs (2008) found that digital storytelling is a useful tool in language learning as it improves learners' language skills such as reading, writing, listening, speaking, grammar and vocabulary.

The use of digital storytelling allows implicit teaching of vocabulary to be done in an interesting and attractive way. As Guthrie and Wigfield (2000) mentioned, the attractiveness of the learning materials plays a major role in engaging learners in acquiring vocabulary. It is believed that with the use of digital storytelling application, the implicit learning of vocabulary can be conducted in a fun and relaxing way. The use of digital storytelling is believed to promote interactivity and flexibility among learners. Learners should be able to retain and recall learning input better as feedback can be obtained immediately. Moreover, learners will be exposed to more learning opportunity as learning is not restricted to in-class or classroom-hour learning.

Lambert (2003) stated that digital storytelling is an effective tool and material in the learning process. The use of digital storytelling as a learning material in the classroom is believed to be able to attract the learners who used to be called "Digital Natives" (Prensky, 2001, p. 1) to learn the language element. The use of digital storytelling is able to engage learners in learning as it provides them with the motivation to learn "because of the up-to-date ICT technologies and multimedia functions, which can appeal to young generations" (Tecnam, 2013, p. 27). Nowadays, learners are exposed to the use of technological devices such as smartphones, tablets and laptops most of the time; hence, the use of technology in learning poses little or no difficulty at all to the learners as technology is already a part of their lives.

According to Haven (2000, p. 75), digital storytelling is very useful in the teaching and learning of vocabulary as "factual and conceptual information is learnt faster, remembered longer, recalled more readily and applied more accurately, when that information is delivered as

a well told story" because digital storytelling can portray language forms in the most natural way (Cameron, 2001). With the integration of multimedia, learning is a lot more convenient and easier for learners. This echoes what Sadik (2008) posited, i.e. the utilisation of digital storytelling creates creative and interactive learning environment. Similarly, Barrett (2005) also expressed the same thought i.e. digital storytelling can promote student-centred learning such as student engagement, involvement in thorough and in-depth learning, involvement in project-based learning and incorporation of technology in learning. The dynamics of the multimedia elements, the high interactivity of the digital storytelling and the attractiveness of the visuals and audio embedded in the application add to the increased effectiveness of vocabulary acquisition.

2.4. The Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML)

The use of digital storytelling application on tablet to learn vocabulary among the young ESL learners is in line with the assumptions of the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML) as proposed by Mayer (Berk, 2009; Dikilitas, & Duvenci, 2009). The use of multimedia enables materials to be presented in several forms, both auditory and visual. According to Dikilitas and Duvenci (2009, p. 168), "if how human mind operates is considered in designing multimedia learning environment, it is likely that the learning will become more meaningful". Mayer (2001, in Berk, 2009 & Doolittle, 2002) stated that in multimedia learning, there are five cognitive processes to tap on to activate the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning: "(a) selecting relevant words for processing in verbal working memory, (b) selecting relevant images for processing in visual working memory, (c) organizing selected words into a verbal mental model, (d) organizing selected images into a visual mental model, and (e) integrating verbal and visual representations as well as prior knowledge" (p. 54). Moreover, the Cognitive Model of Multimedia Learning is based on three main assumptions, which are the dual channels assumption, the limited capacity assumption and the active processing assumption (Dilikitas & Duvenci, 2009; Mayer, 2001 in Doolittle, 2002). Based on these assumptions, it is assumed that learners make use of two channels to process information; one to process the visual information and the other to process the verbal information. The processing of information is assumed to be an active cognitive process that is able to construct new knowledge based on the mental presentation. However, it is also assumed that each channel has limited capacity to process the information obtained.

The Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning emphasises that the information be processed auditorily and orally. Before any information is kept in long-term memory, it will be

processed in memory channels. These different forms of multimedia such as text and audio are essential for both the teachers and learners. It is believed that these forms of multimedia are able to stimulate learners to learn and comprehend the lesson better, especially in online learning as visual and auditory layers of texts serve very important features.

It is obvious that learners can learn better with more than one medium provided to them. Instead of only offering the learners the printed words, the auditory form of text will be able to help them to comprehend the text better. In addition, incorporating illustrations into a text is always better than having the printed words alone.

The Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning comprises twelve multimedia instructional principles, which are the coherence principle, the signalling principle, the redundancy principle, the spatial contiguity principle, the temporal contiguity principle, the segmenting principle, the pre-training principle, the modality principle, the multimedia principle, the personalisation principle, the voice principle and the image principle. Out of the twelve multimedia instructional principles, the researcher concentrates on only three principles – the multimedia principle, the modality principle and the signalling principle, which support the design and development of the digital storytelling application on tablets in learning vocabulary by young ESL learners.

The multimedia principle focuses on the combination of visual and texts in explaining and presenting the input involving the working memory in enabling learning. Using both visuals and printed texts in presenting the learning content can improve learners' learning outcomes rather than using just the printed texts. Learners comprehend the learning content better by looking at the visuals. The principle assumes that learners learn better with visuals and printed texts rather than with printed texts alone (Mayer, 2001). This is so as they have the opportunity to conceptualise the learning content. The visuals help them to understand, make connections and grasp the learning content better.

The modality principle focuses on the combination of visual and verbal in presenting the learning contents, and going through the working memory for learning to happen. Both the visual and verbal modes used in presenting the learning input will facilitate learning and increase efficiency in learning rather than just using visuals and printed texts. According to the principle, learners learn better with visuals and audio rather than just with visuals and printed texts (Mayer, 2001). Learners will be able to learn better with audio especially when learning vocabulary by listening to the audio as it provides them with the right way the new words are spelled and pronounced. In fact, it helps them to comprehend, remember and recall the words better with the audio provided.

The signalling principle proposes that learners learn better when signs are added to the learning contents to highlight the intended items to be learned. According to Mayer (2009, p.109), "signalling reduces extraneous processing by guiding the learner's attention to the key elements in the lesson and guiding the learner's making of connection between them". The principle directs the learners straight to the items intended to be learned so that the learners know what they should concentrate and put focus on. Signalling is often done using arrows, circles, highlights, volumes or tones of voice and others. According to the principle, learners learn more when cues are added to highlight the important items to be learned in the content (Mayer, 2001). Learners will be able to learn better with the intended vocabulary to be learned highlighted (Mayer, 2005). It is believed vocabulary learning is more effective when it is learned implicitly. Hence, when the signalling principle is implemented, the vocabulary items to be learned need to be highlighted. Highlighting of the words is very crucial as the words use hypertext to display the multimodal glosses with the verbal and printed spelling, pronunciation and definitions of the words. The signalling principle, together with hypertext and glosses, can increase the effectiveness in vocabulary learning of learners.

3. The study

3.1. Objective of the study

The general objective of this study is to examine the impact of the use of digital storytelling on vocabulary learning by Malaysian young ESL learners. The findings from this study are able to provide detailed, in-depth insights and information on the impacts of using the digital storytelling application on the young learners' vocabulary learning.

3.2. Research design

This study employed a qualitative case study approach. The researcher played the role of observer as the participant to "observe and interact closely enough with members to establish an insider's identity without participating in those activities constituting the core of group's membership" (Adler & Adler, 1998, p. 85). The observation conducted was more like an open observation; the researcher observed everything and anything that happened in the observation setting – the learners' behaviours, conversation, expressions, gestures and more. The researcher recorded and jotted down notes of everything that was observed in a number of sessions. In order to be more focused on what to observe during the observation sessions, a rubric adapted from Bryman College, San Francisco's The Plan and Chew Valley School's Setting Reports

Guidelines was used to look at the learners' attitudes, motivation, independent learning, and responses to feedback in every observation session. This rubric was checked and validated by two in-service educators who had a minimum of 20 years of experience in the teaching field. This research design was employed to gain detailed and in-depth responses from the 11-year-old ESL learners on the use of digital storytelling in the learning of vocabulary.

3.3. Research participants

The research participants involved in this study were 6 Primary Five learners from a public school in Perak, Malaysia. The participants were selected using the purposive sampling method based on the following sampling criteria – the learners' age (11-year-old) and the level of English language proficiency (high, intermediate, and low). The participants are referred to as S1, S2, S3, S4, S5 and S6 in this study.

Prior to conducting this study, permissions were sought and granted by the state's Education Department and the Headmistress of the public primary school which the participants were used as the sample. Besides, consent was also granted from the learners' parents for their children's involvement as the young learners in the study as they were minors.

3.4 The Tablet-Based Digital Storytelling Application

The digital storytelling application used in the study was designed and developed in accordance with three multimedia instructional principles of Mayer's (2001) Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML), namely, the multimedia principle, the modality principle and the signalling principle. The digital storytelling application was a digitalised storytelling application integrated with multimedia elements serving to assist the learning of vocabulary by the 11-year-old ESL learners. The multimedia principle states that learners will learn better from visuals and printed texts rather than from texts alone, the modality principle states that learners learn better from visuals and audio rather from visuals and printed texts, and the signalling principle states that learners learn better when the essential items in the learning content are being highlighted and prompted. Hence, learners' vocabulary learning was expected to be made more effective and efficient as this application was integrated with visuals, audio, hypertext, multimodal glosses and word texts.

The implementation of the multimedia principle and the modality principle in the digital storytelling tool was achieved through the integration of colourful images, animations, voiceover narration, songs and texts when the stories were narrated in the application. On the other hand, while implementing the signalling principle, hypertext and multimodal glosses

were used in the application as vocabulary items intended to be learned implicitly were highlighted and made in hypertext as multimodal glosses – glosses with audio and printed texts to be displayed upon the touch of the finger to increase learners' comprehension. The implementation of the three multimedia principles in this digital storytelling application can help the learners to achieve better learning outcome such as increasing their interest, attention, motivation and retention of the digital stories and vocabularies learned in the application.

The implementation of the three multimedia principles of Mayer's (2001) Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Theory (CTML) enabled learners to acquire vocabulary implicitly. The vocabulary items were learned implicitly through the highlighted and hypertexted multimedia glosses (the definition, spelling and pronunciation of the vocabularies were provided verbally and in printed texts) in the form of prompt dialogue box which would pop up with the initiation of a touch on the highlighted vocabulary items. Moreover, there were two vocabulary exercises to be completed by the learners.

3.5 Pilot test and data collection procedures

A pilot test was conducted with 3 Primary Five ESL learners from a public primary school in Malaysia who were not involved in the actual study. They possessed different levels of language proficiency – high, intermediate and low. The learners were provided with the digital storytelling application and were required to listen to and read the first two digital stories from the digital storytelling application for two weeks. At the end of the two weeks, these 3 learners were interviewed to check on the feasibility of the interview questions. Some of the difficult terms used in the interview questions were replaced with simpler terms which can be comprehended by the young learners. The pilot test was successfully conducted with the three learners.

The data were collected from the learners through interview, documentation and observations. They were observed and required to record their daily usage of the application in a log book for a duration of 8 weeks. The learners were interviewed twice at the end of the 8 weeks. Data obtained from the interviews, documentations and observations were analysed both manually and by using the NVivo software. Data were also triangulated and examined by two inter-raters.

The qualitative data were analysed both manually and by using the NVivo software. First and foremost, the data were analysed manually before they were processed using the NVivo software. In order to analyse the data, they were organised systematically, followed by data reduction and data coding. The data went through data reduction process to reduce the

unwanted or insignificant data. Lastly, the data were coded according to the themes derived from the literature review and some of themes emerged from the data obtained. Two human inter-raters were employed to validate the consistency of data coding.

4. Results and findings

4.1. The impact of digital storytelling on vocabulary learning

The aim of the research was to explore and document the impact of the digital application on vocabulary learning of Malaysian 11-year-old ESL learners. Thus, this research sought to investigate and elaborate on the perceptions of vocabulary learning utilising the digital application at learners' own conveniences – anytime, anywhere at learners' own pace and time.

In exploring the perception of its effect on vocabulary learning of young learners, it was revealed that all the responses derived from the learners on the impact of digital storytelling on vocabulary learning were positive. All the young ESL learners posited that the use of digital storytelling in vocabulary learning enhances their learning of vocabulary. Besides, the use of this application was also found to influence their English language learning as a whole. In terms of vocabulary learning, S4 stated that when using the application,

> *... I will read more and learn more new words (I1: L35)*

Besides, S6 also expressed the opinion that the use of the application provided the definitions for the vocabulary items learned in the following way:

> *… just a tap and it shows explanation of words (I2: L73-74)*

Furthermore, as revealed by the learners, they were able to learn vocabulary via the use of this application due to its multimedia features,

> *Yes, because it has nice pictures and we learn new words (S3, I2: L30)*

> *Yes, digital storytelling has more words in it and with pop-ups, therefore more learning of words and meanings (S4, I2: L54-55)*

> *Yes, because in digital storytelling more words and meanings are presented (S5, I2: L51)*

> *More vocabulary learning as I can tap on new words which are highlighted and the pop-up information is really good (S6, I2: L51-52)*

> *… Digital storytelling makes me happy when learning vocabulary (S6, I2: L68-69)*

> *…I like to learn more words for speaking and reading as well (S3, I1: L74)*

> *… I can learn more words… (S6, I1: 26)*

Data collected from the observation learning sessions also yielded similar findings with the data collected from the interview sessions. The researcher observed that in most of the observation learning sessions, the learners were repeating the pronunciation and memorising the spelling of the vocabulary items.

> *All the learners were attempting the vocabulary exercises silently. They seemed to be very focussed and careful in choosing the answers. S2 was trying to recall the spelling of a certain vocabulary item in the story. S6 was mouthing the spelling of another item. There were no eye contacts among the learners.*
> *(5th observation learning session: 30/5/15)*

> *Every time the learners clicked on the hypermedia and vocabulary glosses, they were seen to be repeating after the spelling and pronunciation of the items learned. Some of the learners were mouthing the spelling and pronunciation provided by the application.*
> *(10th observation learning session: 17/6/15)*

> *S5 was repeating after the voiceover narrations in learning the vocabulary items in the digital story*
> *(12th observation learning session, 24/6/15)*

> *S2 was trying to spell and pronounce the vocabulary items after listening to the voiceover narration*
> *(13th observation learning session, 27/6/15)*

> *S6 was seen to be memorizing the spelling of the items by mouthing the spelling*
> *(15th observation learning session, 4/7/15)*

However, one of the learners, S5, posited that classroom's learning of vocabulary is valued more than the use of digital storytelling on tablet,

> *Traditional because I like to use the dictionary (S5, I1: L11)*

This is because the learner felt that using a dictionary for vocabulary learning is better than using the hyperlinked multimodal glosses in the digital storytelling application on tablet. This

may be due to the learner having little knowledge in how to operate and handle technological devices, hence, the learner preferred the classroom's learning of vocabulary.

4.2. The impact of digital storytelling on English language learning

In addition, the findings also showed that the use of digital storytelling could not only enhance vocabulary learning, it also fosters the learning of the English language skills such reading, writing, listening and speaking. As expressed by S2, since the digital storytelling application is embedded with the pronunciation function,

> *…you can listen to the pronunciation and the next time you happened to use the word you would not pronounce it wrongly (I1: L87-88)*

S5 also stated the learning of vocabulary using the digital storytelling application was able to help improve her knowledge of the English grammar, while S3 also added that the use of the digital storytelling application helped to broaden the learners' knowledge in language learning. The learners posited further that

> *… I will surely learn more. There are many new and old words with their meanings that I can learn. I can also listen to the stories and improve my pronunciation (S2, I1: L33-34)*
>
> *… I can learn more and also use the tablet for learning new words and improve my reading and spelling (S5, I1:L28-29)*
>
> *I listen and learn to talk to others using good English (S1, I1: L75)*
>
> *It helps me to speak in English (S4, I1: L86)*

Hence, the findings revealed that the use of digital storytelling could enhance the learning of the English language as a whole. The multimedia features of this application helped to make learning of the English language more interesting and novel.

4.3. Motivation to learn vocabulary and other skills

The findings from this study also showed that the digital storytelling could motivate learners to learn vocabulary. Learners posited that they were motivated to learn vocabulary via the use of the of the digital storytelling application on tablet. The high interactivity of the tablet, the hyperlinked vocabulary items and the multimodal glosses made the learning of vocabulary effective and efficient. Thus, the learners were motivated to learn vocabulary through the use of this application. Learners stated the following during the interview sessions:

> *… it motivates me to learn more words (S5, I1, L79)*
>
> *Yes, because of its pop-up vocabulary which motivates me to read*

> *more (S5, I2: L47)*
>
> *Of course. I especially love the pop-up words. It helps me to learn*
> *words in an interesting and enjoyable way… (S2, I1: L29-30)*
>
> *Yes, it motivates me to learn vocabulary at the fastest way possible*
> *(S2, I2: L33)*
>
> *Yes, because it has nice pictures and we learn new words*
> *(S3, I2: L30)*
>
> *Of course, it is fast to know the meanings of words. (S4, I2: L32)*

The data obtained from the observation sessions also revealed learners' motivation to learn vocabulary via the use of the digital storytelling on tablet,

> *S3 was trying to memorize the spelling and definitions of the vocabularies*
> *learned in the digital stories. S3 was seen mouthing the spelling of the*
> *vocabulary items*
> *(16 observation learning session, 8/7/15)*
>
> *S2 was replaying the multimodal glosses for vocabulary items learned in the*
> *digital storytelling. S2 was repeating softly after the voiceover narration of the*
> *spelling of the vocabulary items*
> *(12th observation learning session, 1/7/15)*

Thus, the learners were motivated to learn vocabulary via the use of the digital storytelling application on tablet due to its attractiveness, efficiency, visual representations and multimodality.

The use of this application also proved to motivate learners to improve (i) speaking, (ii) listening, (iii) reading, and (iv) writing. Learners revealed that they were motivated to learn and practice their speaking skills through the use of digital storytelling on tablet. Voiceover narration in the application in reading the stories and in pronouncing and spelling the words helped to enhance the learners' speaking skills while working with the digital storytelling on tablet. The learners stated the following with regards to being motivated to learn the speaking skill:

> *It motivates me… and improves my speaking… skills (S5, I1, L79)*
>
> *Yes…, for speaking … as well (S3, I1: L74)*

Similarly, data from the observation also revealed the same scenario. S4 and S5 were seen to be practising their speaking skill after listening to the voiceover narration. Both learners were mimicking the intonation and tone of the narrator's voice, as evidenced in the quotes below:

S4 was mimicking the way the characters speak. S4 even replayed the page and kept on repeating after the voiceover narration at the part where the characters speak

(9ᵗʰ observation learning session, 13/6/15)

S5 was diligently imitating the way the voiceover narration narrates the story with great expression. Learner were seen to be repeating over and over again what is said by the voiceover narration

(11ᵗʰ observation learning session, 20/6/15)

The learners were motivated to learn and enhance their speaking skills utilising the digital storytelling application. The integration of voiceover narration has been proven to be a useful feature in assisting the learners to learn and enhance their speaking.

In addition, the learners were also motivated to learn and practise listening via the use of the digital storytelling application on tablet. In using this application, the learners were required to listen to the digital stories, which provided them with the opportunity to practice their listening skills. The learners were willing to listen to the digital stories as the stories were interesting and equipped with interactive animations. Learners posited that

I listen and learn to talk to others using good English (S1, I1: L75)

I enjoy using it for learning language skills in the classroom especially for listening and reading (S1, I1: L95-96)

I am also learning listening, reading and writing skills

(S2, I1: L116)

Thus, the listening skill can be learned, practiced and enhanced through the use of digital storytelling on tablet while learning vocabulary. In more specific terms, the learners were given more opportunities to improve their listening skills.

Reading is one of the most frequently mentioned skills which made the learners motivated to learn. The use of digital storytelling on tablet to learn vocabulary had indirectly motivated the learners to learn reading. This is because reading the digital stories was a fun and interesting thing when utilising this interactive multimedia application. The learners developed high interest in reading after being exposed to the use this digital storytelling application on tablet. The learners were heard to be saying,

Yes, I want to read more and I enjoy reading the story (S5: I2: L32)

Yes, because reading it, I will go on to read more interesting story (S3, I2: L80)

Yes, because I will read the stories again and again… (S4, I1: L31-32)

Yes, … because I can keep on reading the stories and it is fun (S6, I1: L30-31)

> *Yes, I personally like reading stories. Digital storytelling is better as you can listen to the stories and learn vocabulary at the same time (S2, I1: L91-92)*

During a conversation overheard by the researcher during one of the observation learning sessions S6 was asking S3 not to disturb her as she likes reading the digital stories,

> *S3: Come, look at this, it's so cute!*
>
> *S5: No, I don't want to look at your screen. I want to read my story.*
>
> *S3: Just for a while. Come!*
>
> *S5: I love reading my story. Please do not disturb. Stop disturbing me.*

Similarly, data obtained from an observation learning session also showed that the learners were motivated to indulge in reading after being exposed to the use of digital storytelling on the application to learn vocabulary:

> *S4 looked at S1 angrily as S1 distracted S3 from reading her digital story. S4 gestured to S1 that she wanted to continue reading the story. S1 nodded as a sign of comprehending what was signalled by S4. S4 then continued reading her digital story.*
>
> *(2ⁿᵈ observation learning session, 20/5/15)*

Based on the data derived from both the interview and observation sessions, the learners were clearly seen to be motivated to indulge themselves in reading and enhancing their reading skill using the digital storytelling application on tablet.

The use of digital storytelling on tablet is also claimed to be able to motivate the learners to improve their writing skills. The learners posited that with the correct grammatical sentence structures used in the application, they were able to learn from the examples. As posited by the learners,

> *Yes, because after reading the stories, we get to know the flow of the story and we will know how to write essays… (S2, I1: L100-101)*
>
> *I learn the spelling and next I use the words in writing sentences (S4, I2: L77-78)*

Similarly, it was observed that S5 was writing down some sentences on a piece of paper. Those were the sentences that she said would be used in writing essays,

> *S5 was diligently copying some sentences from the digital story. When asked, S5 replied it was for writing essay purposes as the sentences are very well constructed*
>
> *(8ᵗʰ observation learning session, 10/6/16)*

Looking at the data obtained from various sources, it can summarised that the use of digital storytelling on tablet was able to motivate learners to learn vocabulary as well as develop speaking, listening, reading and writing skills. This is because the integration of multimedia elements in the application on tablet is beneficial to be used as learning material and tool.

5. Discussion

The digital storytelling application did serve its purpose in enhancing vocabulary learning of young learners. In specific, the use of this digital storytelling application enabled the learning of vocabulary implicitly. Moreover, the learners were interested in and motivated to use the application to learn vocabulary with thorough guidance, practice and assessment (hyperlinked vocabulary notes, multimodal glosses, and vocabulary exercises) ensured that vocabulary learning has taken place. The multimedia principle and the modality principle of CTML (Mayer, 2001) incorporated in this application enabled the multimedia elements of texts, visuals and audio to be integrated in this digital storytelling application. In addition, the Signalling Principle of CTML (Mayer, 2001) made it possible for vocabulary items to be hyperlinked and displayed as multimedia glosses. This is supported by Moon (1999, as cited in Boase, 2008), who stated that digital storytelling can act as a "vehicle to facilitate learning" (p. 10). Coherently, Nygren and Blom (2001) also stated that digital storytelling is very likely to make learning meaningful and achievable to the learners.

In addition, the features of hyperlink and multimedia glosses (the signalling principle) enabled efficient and effective vocabulary learning. Words which had been hyperlinked directly indicated that these are the vocabulary items intended to be learned in the story. With the tap of the finger, the multimedia glosses were displayed for vocabulary learning purposes. Moreover, the multimedia glosses were integrated with the replay button, which provided the opportunity for the learners to replay the audio to re-spell, re-pronounce and re-define the hyperlinked items until they are learned (the modality principle). This confirms Yoshii's (2006) claim about the usefulness of multimedia glosses in the learning of vocabulary and Watanabe's (1997) finding that the use of multimedia glosses is effective in the implicit learning of vocabulary.

The feature of the voiceover narration motivated the learners to practice their speaking skill. This is because as stated by the modality principle (Mayer, 2001), the learners will be able to learn better with the presence of visual and verbal aids rather than the visual aids alone. In this study, the learners were tempted to repeat after the voiceover narration while narrating the stories in different intonations of voice, punctuation, exclamation and pauses, as well as spelling and pronouncing the vocabulary items learned. According to Normann (2011),

speaking encompasses pronunciation, pacing, rhythm, intonation and stress. Imitating, mimicking and repeating after the voiceover narration gives learners the opportunity to practice their speaking and to learn the right way to speak in the language. As posited by Ellis (1991), children are better than adults in imitating speeches. Yang and Wu (2012) also reported that the use of digital storytelling does not only develop motivation to learn, improve English language achievement and stimulate critical thinking skill, but is also effective in enhancing the speaking skill.

The visual representations integrated in digital storytelling help to lower the learners' anxiety level. As stated by Graham (2006) and Hedge (2006), listening comprehension among the learners is difficult to be achieved as the learners displayed high anxiety in learning the listening comprehension. However, Chung (2002) believes that listening comprehension can be enhanced through the use of visual representations. When integrated with such audio elements as voiceover narration and background audio, digital storytelling exposes learners to the visual representations such as moving animation and colourful graphics. Learners were able to learn and listen better when their anxiety level was lowered. Hence, learners' listening skills were enhanced. Thus, the use of digital storytelling can motivate learners to learn listening. Ramirez, Alonso and Chung (2002, as cited in Sandaran & Lim, 2013) supported this by stating that the integration of technology in digital storytelling was "interesting, attractive, interactive and reiteractive" and "ideal for listening comprehension" (p. 126).

Besides listening comprehension, the incorporation of voiceover narration while reading the digital stories also motivated learners in reading comprehension. Reading comprehension takes place as the integration of multimodal glosses and voiceover narration will enable learners to learn new words. Having the knowledge of vocabulary is crucial as it can motivate learners to learn reading (Hague, 1987). The learning of vocabulary indirectly motivates the learners to read as well. This echoes with what Dale (1965) posited, i.e. one's knowledge of the vocabulary determines how good someone is at reading as one is a better reader if one possesses a vast knowledge of the vocabulary. In fact, the learning of vocabulary is crucial in determining the effectiveness of reading comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Moreover, the style and form of writing of digital stories motivate learners to learn writing. Modelled writing of the narrations of the digital stories was found to enhance learners' writing skill (Oakley, 2011). Digital storytelling contains a modelled writing of narrations as these digital stories are usually presented in correct grammatical structures and construction of sentence structures as well as appropriate uses of linguistic elements. This is supported by Koisawalia (2005), who stated that the digital stories used in the application contain all the

language features such as vocabulary, grammar, sentence structures and linguistic elements which would help learners to learn writing.

All in all, the use of digital storytelling not only helps to enhance vocabulary learning and all other language skills, it also motivates the learners to learn them. This application, incorporated with multi-functions and multimedia, is believed to be highly beneficial for learning purposes of young learners.

6. Pedagogical implications and final conclusions

The lively, attractive, fun and interesting contents of the digital storytelling tool enhanced and motivated learners to acquire vocabulary, as well as develop listening, reading, speaking and writing. Halvorsen (2011, as cited in Normann, 2011) believes that being motivated in learning is a very important factor as motivated learners will possess high enthusiasm in learning which opens more learning opportunities to them. Language learning can be conducted in a motivating, relaxing and conducive environment through the use of digital storytelling. The use of this application provides a stress-free, low-anxiety learning environment to the learners and this will aid them in learning English vocabulary better as by lowering the affective filter.

The digital storytelling application is a suitable and appropriate learning material to be implemented in the primary school setting for the purpose of vocabulary learning. The findings from this study proved the use of digital storytelling has positively influenced vocabulary learning of young learners. In other words, the learners were more positive and more motivated to learn using this application. It is believed that the implementation of this learning material will help to foster language learning and vocabulary acquisition.

To sum up, it can be stated that digital storytelling has achieved its objective in enhancing and motivating the learning of vocabulary by the young learners. Besides, the use of this application has indirectly enhanced and motivated language learning of young learners.

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INFLUENCES OF TEACHER POWER AND THE USE OF PHONETICS WEBSITE OVER EFL UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SPEAKING ENGLISH INTELLIGIBLY

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Abstract

This paper investigates two hypotheses: 1) EFL undergraduate students have positive attitudes towards the use of the phonetics website; and 2) teacher power can greatly influence their positive attitudes toward speaking English intelligibly. Research outcomes derive from questionnaire (n=79), crosschecked with interview data (n=47), revealing their alignments. The first hypothesis was confirmed at a high level; the second was partially supported. Teacher power appeared to be distracted by power relations in interactions between native and non-native English speakers and among non-native English speakers themselves. The study offers two insightful directions for EFL teachers.

Keywords: teacher power; language attitude; spoken English with intelligibility; phonetics website

1. Introduction

Power is an abstract concept that can be found in almost every context, and it has been defined from different perspectives. Politically speaking, Shokri (2017) suggested that in order to understand the concept one must recognize 'power over' as authority, 'power to' as rights and 'power of' as capacity. Drawing on a well-known philosopher Michel Foucault's definition of power as a relationship that operates through action, Alsobaie (2015) connects it with a university lecturer and his/her students. The former has the authority to influence the latter's behaviors in learning and doing assignments so as to earn the grades. This relational-based power is free from coercion because students would have freedom to or not to complete the assignments while lecturers allot grades in reference to their students' performances. It can be said that teachers are entitled to authoritative power due to their professional position.

The relational-based power between teacher and students is also recognized as a fundamental set of power relations in pedagogy. Gore (2002) posits that teaching not only

produces power but also constructs relations between teacher and students, self (subjectivity) and knowledge (discourse), which have an effect on students' learning achievement. Teachers are therefore strongly advised to embrace their authoritative or position power and exercise it consciously to enhance their students' learning. Similar to McCroskey and Richmond (1983), teachers become powerless in the classroom if they fail to exert the kind of power they want to communicate with their students.

Tananuraksakul (2011) found the aforementioned propositions to be insightful for teaching English listening and speaking in Thailand, the context where English is socially alien to learners and where the hidden culture undermines their learning behaviors. Students are culturally deemed to be disciples (*luk-sid* in Thai) and behave passively in the classroom in order to show their respect to their teacher. Their passive behaviors appear to limit improvement of their speaking skills that require active interactions. In such a case, she embraced and exercised the power she holds in the classroom, especially attractive and reward power to build up a rapport with her students and commend them every time they tried to interact with her.

In connection with conscious awareness of power relations in pedagogy, Tananuraksakul's (2017) research findings are also insightful for EFL teachers to positively influence their students' social behaviors and language learning by means of promoting their positive attitudes toward their own non-native English accented speech with both authoritative power and the use of University of Iowa's *Sounds of American English* website, known as the "number 1 phonetics website". Her study is firstly based on the arguments that English has been used as a lingua franca (ELF) in many social contexts and that sounding like a native English speaker is not as important as speaking intelligibly. Secondly, the phonetics website is considered to be a learning tool that can intrinsically motivate young learners to learn because they may find it relevant to their daily lives (Tananuraksakul, 2014, 2015).

This present study aims to investigate Tananuraksakul's (2017) findings more extensively, in particular: 1) the degree of students' attitude toward the use of the phonetics website; and 2) the influence of EFL teachers' authoritative or position power over their students' attitude toward speaking English intelligibly.

2. Related literature review

Power in classroom has existed in various forms, but the ones developed by two social psychologists, French and Raven in 1959, appeal to many researchers (e.g. McCroskey and Richmond, 1983; Tananuraksakul, 2011; Özer et al. 2013; Alsobaie, 2015). Both initially

introduced five separate bases of power – attraction/reference, expert, reward, legitimate and coercion (Raven, 2008). These forms of social power have the potential to influence individuals and can be applied in classroom as teacher power. Attractive power is associated with the ability to make a good relationship in order to influence students' behaviour in learning. Teacher's positive personal traits may attract or motivate his/her students to study.

Expert power stems from superior knowledge, and teachers earn students' respect because they are perceived to be intelligent or knowledgeable in the subject they teach. Reward power derives from a positive incentive, and there are different forms of reward power teachers can use to influence their students' learning behaviour. Legitimate power is the same as position or authoritative power. Culture in the forms of high and low power distance is seen to influence relationship between teacher and student (Hofstede, 1997). Higher power distance culturally puts teachers in a highly respected position as a master (Jambor, 2009). Coercive power is used to manage the classroom or discipline students. Teachers exercise this kind of power when they punish their students.

It appears that researchers were more interested to study the kinds of power teachers employed in the classroom. For example, McCroskey and Richmond (1983) found that 156 American teachers from grade seven through college perceived that they were more likely to exert reward, attractive and expert power. Stoyanova and Ivantchev (2016) discovered that Bulgarian high school teachers tend to exercise legitimate and reward power most frequently and overlooked attractive power. Kuadnok (2017) explored issues of power and pedagogical practices that influence teaching EFL writing in Thai primary school students. The results indicated that teacher-student interaction produced certain sorts of power while teaching was carried out. Agustina and Cahyono (2016) examined how face-threatening and face-saving utterances were produced by lecturers and how power was exercised in their utterances.

However, little attention has been paid to ways in which EFL students' language learning and social behaviour can be influenced positively by teacher power. For example, Tananuraksakul (2011, 2013) quantitatively investigated the effects of both positive reinforcement (reward power) and power distance reduction (attractive power) on her students' confidence in speaking English and attitudes toward teaching and learning the language. The findings revealed positive impacts. Since due to their nature adults require autonomy and self-directness, it was recommended by Alsobaie (2015) that university lecturers exercise their reward and expert power in the classroom. In the same vein, Özer et al. (2013) assert that attractive, expert and reward power are considered "prosocial forms of power and are positively associated with cognitive learning, affective learning, and student motivation" (p. 2590).

In learning EFL with achievement, affective domains are proved to be determining factors (Salmani Nodoushan, 2011), especially motivation, attitudes and self-confidence. These three determinants are interconnected in that the higher the degree of motivation to learn EFL, the more positive the attitude toward learning the language with linguistic self-confidence, and vice versa. Teachers can also blend any available learning technology in their teaching to increase young adult learners' motivation and positive attitudes toward learning (Tananuraksakul, 2016; Ebrahimzadeh & Alavi, 2017). It can imply that teachers can exert attractive power and reward power to increase learners' motivation in and positive attitudes toward language learning and self-confidence in language use while expert power to enrich their knowledge and influence their social behaviour and language learning.

Grounded on related studies as summarized above, two hypotheses are generated for the current research:

H1: Students have positive attitudes toward the use of the English phonetics website.

H2: Teacher power can greatly influence students' positive attitudes toward speaking English intelligibly.

3. The present study

3.1. The aim and context

Both authoritative and expert power was exerted in the classroom to enrich students' knowledge and influence their language learning and social behavior. In doing so, at the start of the semester, the following current issues were discussed in the classroom: 1) World Englishes and intelligibility/ unintelligibility in contexts where people from non-native and native English speaking backgrounds come into contact through the medium of English that may create in-group and out-group power relations; 2) the trend of speaking English with clear pronunciation or intelligibility rather than speaking like a native; and 3) adult learners like them have a tendency to speak English less like a native.

Attractive power was also exercised to build up students' positive attitude toward speaking English intelligibly through weekly usage of the phonetics website as a language model for pronouncing English consonant sounds systems that do not exist in Thai sounds systems (i.e. /g/, /v/, voiced /th/, voiceless /th/, /z/, /sh/, /zh/, /ch/, /j/ and /r/.). Along with each weekly pronunciation lesson, the same kinds of teacher power were exercised in the classroom so as to emphasize the importance of speaking English intelligibly for the purpose of international communication.

Eighty nine undergraduate students, who were non-English major and took English listening and speaking for professional purposes during August and December 2017, were recruited purposively. Out of these, seventy nine voluntarily participated in this study.

3.2. Research tools and data collection

Mixed research methods were applied in this investigation, employing questionnaire and interview questions. The questionnaire comprised two parts. The first part asked about gender, age, frequency of class attendance and chance of international communication. The second part had six items reflecting one's attitude, defined as "learners' feelings [and opinions] about something, especially as shown by their behaviors" (Tananuraksakul, 2015, p. 12), which involve students' enjoyment in learning English pronunciation from the website, perception of better performance and confidence in speaking English after practices with the website. The higher degree of their enjoyment, performance perception and confidence students possess, the more positive attitude they have. The first three items measure the students' attitude toward the English phonetics website usage whereas the last three items measure perceptions of influence of teacher power on attitudes toward speaking English intelligibly with clear pronunciation to interlocutors from non-native and native English backgrounds. It is viewed to be more practical than speaking with a native-like accent.

The reliability of the questionnaire (Cronbach's Alpha) was tested with IBM SPSS 20 software. As seen in Table 1, the questionnaire manifests reliability.

Table 1. Reliability of the questionnaire

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.809	6

Structured interview questions encompass:
1) How do you like or feel about your own English accent with all the pronunciation practices in the classroom?
2) What do you think about the ideas of speaking intelligibly, not natively?

Quantitative and qualitative data were collected at the end of the semester. Descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation were used to interpret the quantitative data, analyzed statistically by IBM SPSS 20 software and interpreted based on the following scales:

5-rating Scale	Descriptive Rating
4.20 – 5.00	crucial/always/very high

3.40 – 4.19	very important/often/high
2.60 – 3.39	moderate/sometimes
1.80 – 2.59	sometimes important/rarely
1.00 – 1.79	not important/never

Qualitative data were used to descriptively report and crosscheck the quantitative data.

3.3. Procedure

In week one, the researcher discussed the present study in the classroom and informed students of the present project. From week two onwards, during the first 5-10 minutes of each lesson, one English consonant that had sound difference from Thai was introduced to the class, and the group was instructed how to pronounce it properly through the English phonetics website. Mimic and minimal-pair activities (e.g. rice / lice, vow / wow, thorn / dawn, chair / share, jam / yam, zoo / sue, vision / fashion) were used to demonstrate and practice the sounds.

In week 2: Introduce /g/ vs /k/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with students: game/came, gold/cold, got/cot, gap/cap, bag/back, pig/pick, dug/duck, clog/clock and bug/buck.

In week 3: Introduce /v/ vs /w/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with students: vest/west, vow/wow, vine/wine, vet/wet, vary/wary and vile/while.

In week 4: Introduce voiceless /th/ vs /t/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with students: theme/team, thought/taught, thin/tin, thigh/tie, thank/tank, through/true, three/tree, both/boat, tenth/ten, path/pat and Ruth/root.

In week 5: Introduce voiced /th/ vs /d/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with students: they/day, there/dare, though/dough, those/doze and breathe/breed.

In week 6: Introduce /z/ vs /s/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with students: zoo/sue, sip/zip, zinc/sink, eyes/ices, prizes/prices, buzz/bus and rise/rice.

Weeks 7 and 8 were excluded because the students took listening and speaking exams.

In week 9: Introduce /sh/ vs /ch/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with students: sheep/cheap, shin/chin, share/chair, ship/chip, match/mash and watch/wash.

In week 10: Introduce /ch/ vs /t/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with the key sounds in final position: beach/beat, arch/art, coach/coat, hatch/hat and match/mat.

In week 11: Introduce voiced /j/ vs /d/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with students: hedge/head, badge/bad, gym/dim, jam/dam, dog/jog and page/paid.

In week 12: Introduce /r/ vs /l/. Mimic the sounds and practice these minimal pairs with students: rice/lice, raw/law, race/lace, read/lead, right/light, wrong/long and alive/arrive.

During week 13, 79 students completed the questionnaire voluntarily and anonymously. Structured interviews were conducted in weeks 14 and 15. In order to avoid or reduce power distance between the researcher and the students, the students were asked to write down their answers to those interview questions anonymously and voluntarily. Forty seven participants returned their answers.

4. Findings and discussion

The questionnaire completed by 79 students revealed a greater number of females (69, 87.3%) than males. Most of their age (92.4%) ranged between 20 and 25. Forty nine (62%) always attended the class while 18 students (22.8%) never missed it. Most students (80%) sometimes had a chance to communicate with foreigners in English while 11 people (13.8%) never had such a chance. Only 3 students (3.8%) always had a chance to do it.

As can be seen in Table 2, the students possessed positive attitudes toward the inclusion of teaching pronunciation features in the EFL classroom because they enjoyed learning English pronunciation from the English phonetics website ($\bar{x}$ = 3.7848), could pronounce English words better ($\bar{x}$ = 3.7468) and felt more confident in speaking English after pronunciation practices with the phonetics website ($\bar{x}$ = 3.7215) at a high level.

The quantitative outcomes align with qualitative data, frequency of class attendance and age range, since 46 students agreed that they liked learning pronunciation through the use of the phonetics website because it helped to boost their confidence in speaking (eight students), improve their pronunciation (thirteen students), give them a chance to practice pronunciation in the classroom (five students), attain a native-like accent (one person). Only one person disagreed because he/she felt pressured to speak English. Therefore, the findings supported the first hypothesis.

Table 2. Analysis of students' positive attitudes toward the use of the English phonetics website

Statements	N	Mean	Overall Meaning
1. I enjoy learning English pronunciation from the English phonetics website.	79	3.7848	High
2. I can pronounce English words better after pronunciation practice with the phonetics website.	79	3.7468	High
3. I feel more confident in speaking English after pronunciation practice with the phonetics website.	79	3.7215	High

The findings in Table 3 indicated that teacher power greatly influenced the students' positive attitudes toward their own non-native English accented speech since they thought that clear English pronunciation was more practical than native accent imitation ($\bar{x}$ = 3.6203). Qualitative data accord with this quantitative analysis. Out of 47, as many as 39 people said it was not necessary to speak like a native, but it was necessary to speak with clear pronunciation.

However, when it came to speaking English to particular groups of native and non-native speakers, they thought that talking with a Thai and clear accent is moderately, not highly, practical. The qualitative data also comport with this quantitative analysis as 7 out of 47 people (14.89%) mentioned that having a native-like accent was more practical, and 1 person (2.12%) thought that it was important to talk slightly like a native to people from different linguistic backgrounds.

These findings suggest that interactions between non-native and native speakers of English as well as among non-native speakers themselves produce power relations (Menard-Warwick, 2005), which distract teacher power in this sense. As such, the findings partially confirm the second hypothesis.

Table 3. Analysis of teacher power's influence on students' positive attitudes toward their non-native English accented speech

Statements	N	Mean	Overall Meaning
1. I think clear English pronunciation is more practical than native accent imitation.	79	3.6203	High
2. I think speaking English to a native speaker with a Thai and clear accent is practical.	79	3.3797	Moderate
3. I think speaking English to a non-native speaker with a Thai and clear accent is practical.	79	3.3165	Moderate

5. Conclusion

The present study conducted a quantitative and qualitative investigation into influences of teacher power and the use of the phonetics website over EFL undergraduate students' attitudes toward speaking English intelligibly. Two hypotheses drawn on Tananuraksakul's (2017) research findings were examined. Both quantitative and qualitative data support the first hypothesis but partially confirm the second hypothesis. Although the students have positive

attitudes toward the use of the English phonetics website, teacher power – authority, expert and attraction – appear to be hindered by power relations of interactions between native and non-native English speakers and among non-native English speakers.

Despite the lowest frequency of international communication for most students, such mentioned interactions reflect identity they create in mind, what Pavlenko and Novton (2007) call 'imagined identity'. They further argue that teachers need to be aware of their students' imagined identities so that they can prepare for productive language learning activities, which is in line with Gore's (2002) proposition.

The study findings offer two insightful directions for EFL teachers. First, they need to embrace and exercise the power they have in the classroom to recognize their students' imagined identity created by power relations of interactions between them and other native and non-native English speakers. Second, they can blend the phonetics website usage in their teaching as a means to promote their students' affective domains.

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BEHIND THE SCENE: STUDENT-CREATED VIDEO AS A MEANING-MAKING PROCESS TO PROMOTE STUDENT ACTIVE LEARNING

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Abstract

Although many studies reported that student-created video task could promote learners' active learning and engagement, the investigation on how the students worked and created the videos is still scarce. The process of video creation in a micro-reality context of English language learning involves social practice and cognition (a socio-cognitive process) of the students. The student-created video is an output-based learning activity that reflects a meaning-making process upon the completion of the project. This paper sheds light on how the students worked on the project through such stages as preparing the materials, setting the scene, selecting the video recording tool and editing the video before the submission. Encapsulated from the videos and semi-structured interviews from 41 Polytechnic students in Indonesia, the approaches that students employed during the process of video creation were explored to arrive at a meaning-making process of learning. As a result, the activity enabled the student active learning, vocabulary building, autonomous learning and self-confidence as well as the student's technological skill. In addition to that, the challenges encountered by the students during the video-making process will also be presented.

Keywords: student-created video; meaning-making process; active learning; ELL

1. Introduction

The advances and innovations in educational technology have brought about significant changes to the way people interact and learn such as ease of access to the Internet, media technology and hand-held devices. Given the importance of technology in language learning, Motteram (2013) emphasized a systematic and comprehensive overview of the current use of technology to support English teaching and learning. One of the emerging strategies in English teaching is the use of videos to support and engage student learning as well as increase their participation in the lesson (Bangs, 1990; Shrosbree, 2008). In this digital era, the use of video-based materials in English language teaching (ELT) has attracted more attention from ELT practitioners worldwide. Both teachers and students can now have wide access to technological

tools for use in learning activities such as Android-based smartphones, tablets, iPads, and digital cameras.

There have been many studies in the literature which report that student-created video can promote learners' active learning and engagement (e.g. Baker, 2016; Sherer & Shea, 2011; Wagener, 2006). So far, however, little attention was devoted to investigating how the students worked on the video-making processes as a social learning practice that informed a meaning-making process. In the current study, the video-making process involved several steps starting from preparing the materials, setting the scene, selecting a video recording tool, and editing the video before the submission. These processes informed a social learning practice and cognition of the students. In addition to this, the student-created video is an output of a process that no one knows clearly what is behind. By knowing what happened to the students, the teachers will be able to address the right approaches to working with them. The teachers will also be able to give them assistance in which specific area of the project they need help.

2. Literature review

2.1. The use of video in English Language Teaching and Learning (ELTL)

The importance of the use of video in the language learning setting has been widely argued as a potential locus to bring a significant contribution to the improvement of students' pragma-linguistic competence (Kelly, 1985). She also emphasized the use of video as a modeling device, input for viewing and stimulus for discussion. Today, however, with the advancement and development of technology in the last few decades, the use of video has been transformed into many kinds of learning strategies. In the practice of ELT, video can promote learning engagement and participation (Hughes & Robertson, 2010). The authors specifically looked at the teachers' perception of digital media use and multiple literacies; however, it is also necessary to have a close look at the matter from the student learning perspective.

Some previous relevant studies in the area of video-based teaching strategies reported that its uptake could help improve learning effectiveness and students' satisfaction. For instance, these studies encompassed the use of video in a blended learning setting (Shih, 2010), video chats in an online conversation (Sindoni, 2011), video-based materials (Lin, 2011) and online video streaming YouTube (Terantino, 2011). However, these studies mainly point out the advantages and effectiveness of using videos as emerging technologies for language learning. Meanwhile, it is important to investigate the students' voices when a teacher exposes them to the video creation process. Obviously, there is an empirical gap concerning the student's

involvement who are considered passive learners. Using video as another blended learning tool, the students need a space to express their personal feelings (emotions), ideas and stories as a lived experience as well as a way of enacting social practices (Widodo, Budi, & Wijayanti, 2016).

This study also aims to provide a clear picture of the importance of involving the students as active agents in which they can cultivate knowledge and make meaning from their experience. Beyond the classroom context, lived experience supports contextual and social learning to make meaning of what they are doing.

2.2. Student-created video and student active learning

Student-Created Video (SCV) as evidence-based learning is relatively a novel practice in English language teaching and learning (Naqvi, 2015). SCV could support the student learning and encourage learners to construct new knowledge as they were exposed to the video-making activity, meanwhile, it could also improve student motivation and active learning engagement (Navqi, 2015). The author claimed that SCV had a huge potential for language learning and suggested the language teaching practitioners incorporate SCV projects into their course, however, there is one interesting issue about the scientific evidence for SCV to what extent it improves the student active learning without investigating its meaning-making process. The same claim reported by Engin (2014) is that SCV could promote second language learning but the study did not examine how SCV brought a meaningful process to the students' knowledge, cognition and learning experience.

2.3. Learning beyond the classroom

Before the age of technology, learning was confined in classroom-based interactions in which the students had limited access to a wider sense of knowledge and information. Today, the advances in web-based and hand-held devices technology (e.g. social networking sites, mobile apps, and LMS) provide a greater opportunity for meaningful and authentic use of language than what the student can get from the classroom (Richards, 2015). It is now possible to extend learning beyond the classroom context where the students can now engage and participate in many kinds of online communities of practice. Ting (2013) argues that student-created video could help the student build a link between language learning and real-life experience beyond the classroom context. She also added that the activity allowed the student to share different ideas and to negotiate meaning.

Based on these findings, the students could now be exposed to a flexible learning activity either inside or outside the classroom using various strategies and learning media. For instance, working with the SCV project requires a long process before the completion and submission of the task. The students need a span of time to search for and find information, create the setting, learn the technological tools and create the video in which these activities need a longer period to get the SCV project accomplished. Practically, in consideration with regular length (mostly 90 to 120 minutes) of classroom teaching time, these perennial processes is considered too demanding for the in-classroom project implementation.

2.4. A meaning-making process of learning

During the video-making project, the intrapersonal learning of each student could be influenced by the student context of interactions and cultural setting that informed a meaning-making process (Theron & Theron, 2014). Therefore, a closer look at the process of learning and interactions between the students would give a clearer picture of how they were exposed to such a form of learning. For instance, the student-created video is an output and a result of a socio-cognitive process that contains meaningful processes that shape learning. Behind the scene, the students would spend a lot of time and effort to explore the video-making process starting from pre- to post-activities which involved the student's social practice and cognition, reflection, adaptive learning, flexibility and a sense of creativity situated within a micro-reality context of English language learning. Therefore, a meaning-making process that promotes active learning must involve student learning with flexibility and adaptive intelligence (Myers as cited in Young & Bush, 2004). When a teacher assigns students to work on a project, he/she might not know what empirical evidence occurred during the process of project implementation.

2.5. Task-based language teaching and learning

A myriad of resources in the area of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) in the literature has advocated its effectiveness in increasing the student's participation in learning. The advances in educational and Internet technology over the last few years have brought strong support to TBLT practice. Thomas and Reinders (2010) raised the issues on the technology approach to promote *Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching(TBLT)* as a strategy for language teaching and learning. The utilization of technology has made it possible to support the implementation of task-based teaching out of the classroom (Richards, 2015). Nunan (2006) stated that TBLT has brought contribution to the following principles and practices:

1. a needs-based approach to content selection;
2. an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language;
3. the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation;
4. the provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language but also on the learning process itself;
5. an enhancement of the learner's own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning;
6. the linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom.

There has been a lot of research evidence reported in the literature regarding the role of SCV in promoting learning effectiveness/advantages, student satisfaction, learning engagement, students' learning motivation, and students' new knowledge construction. However, it is not obvious how those claims were shaped and to what extent SCV promotes students' active learning. Therefore, it is necessary to have a closer look at the students' lived experience on how they build links between SCV and active learning. This paper will not only elucidate the language learning proces through SCV but will also delineate the students' experience during the process.

3. The current study

3.1. Context and design

This research employed a qualitative design (Braun & Clarke, 2013) investigating a meaning-making process of the student-created video task in a micro-reality context of English language learning. Informed by the Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching with Technology (Thomas & Reinders, 2010) approach, the study sought to investigate and understand the meaning-making practices of the participants on how they worked on the task. The methodology of task-based instruction focused on two main procedures that specified the activities of the participants working on the video-making task and how teachers and learners participated in the lesson (Ellis, 2006). Informed by Ellis's framework of designing task-based lessons, the procedure went through three phases:

1) *pre-task* (framing the activity, planning time, doing similar task),
2) *during task* (time pressure, number of participants),
3) *post-task* (learner report, consciousness-raising, reflection).

Table 1. Tasking procedure

Phase	Activities
Pre-task (preparation)	1. The teacher gave a thorough introduction to the task (what, why, and how to do the task). 2. The teacher explained the structure of the task (video-making task, duration/the length of the video, the language, and flow of the talk). 3. The teacher explained the technological tools they could use to perform the task (video/sound recording, video editing software). 4. Task modeling (engaging participants to the task)
During-task (action)	1. Self-study and group discussion about the task topic 2. Preparing the technological tools needed for the video-making takes 3. Lesson planning (this was a step where the participants designed a plan for the video-taking session. It covers some aspects such as the opening, the main talk, the closing, the lighting, the sound, the angle/position, etc). 4. Practice, self-evaluation, and re-practice 5. Video-recording 6. Video editing 7. Video submission
Post-task (reflection)	1. The teacher watched the submitted videos for several times. 2. Reflecting on the task (teacher and students view the videos together and performed a teacher-student discussion about the videos. 3. Focusing on forms (review of learner errors, consciousness-raising task, production practice activities, and noticing activities)

Table 1 describes the tasking procedure in three sequential phases which are pivotal in the TBLT process. Each participant involved in the task went through all the three phases and demonstrated different meaning-making practices that they have experienced (see Findings and discussion below). Given the importance of clear instructions to the task, the participants were given a step-by-step guidance into performing the activities starting from the preparation stage to the final work of the task. It aimed to give a general understanding and thorough comprehension of the task procedure so they would have the same perception on how to work on it and what technological tools needed for its application.

> **Task**
> You are going to work on a task (in a group of 3) to create a video of interviewing your friends about past time activities. The aim of this task is to allow you to practice your English involving video-recording technology as a tool for your learning. The task can be done either on campus or out of campus. To do the task, follow these instructions:
> 1. Study carefully the Past Simple topic again and make sure you have a good understanding of it before moving to the next step of this task. If you have questions regarding the topic, you can either text me your questions or meet me for a discussion.
> 2. Prepare your materials (the lists of past questions) and each question is typed in a big font on an A4 size paper (layout: landscape). E.g. *How was your last holiday? Where was it? What did you do? Etc.* These questions are ONLY examples, you can create more interesting questions for your task.
> 3. Prepare the recording tool you are going to use (camera, handphone with the camera, pocket camera or any other types of recording tools that you are familiar with).
> 4. Grab the recording tools and the questions papers and then find a friend to interview (e.g. Android-based smartphones, tablets, i-Pads, and digital cameras).
> 5. Before you start the interview, ask your friend for his/her willingness and readiness for the interview. Explain the purpose and the structure of the interview (tell how you will do that, how many questions will be asked, where you want to do the interview, and in what language the interview will be).

6. When your interviewee is ready, turn your camera on. Before you turn to the questions, please give a brief introduction. Ex. *Hello, I am (say your name) and I am going to ask you some questions relating to your past activities. Anyway, What's your name? How are you doing today?* Etc.
7. Tell your interviewee that you are going to show him/her some question cards. Ask him/her to talk to the camera (recording) about the answers to the questions. You can do some takes (take 1, 2, or 3) until you are satisfied with your work.
8. After you have finished recording, you can edit the video using any video-editing software that you are familiar with. You can add a short intro to your video opening, some texts, and transitions between different scenes.
9. Submit the video to your teacher and make sure it is playable.
10. You will be invited to talk about your experience working on the task.
11. Finally, you will be asked to fill out the reflection form/journal (a 2 week reflection) regarding your experience during the task. It aims to measure the effectiveness of video-making task in promoting your active learning.

Note: Please be willing to document every single phase of your project/task by either taking some pictures or videotaping your activities. For instance, do take some pictures or videos when you are working on the task (video taking sessions, video editing, group discussions, etc.).

3.2. The participants

The study took place in one of the Indonesian state polytechnics involving two classes of non-EFL students (N=41). The students were from the business administration department who studied English as a compulsory subject demanded by the curriculum.

Table 2. The characteristics of the participants

Characteristics	Group1 (N=19)	Group 2 (N=22)
Sex (M/F)	7/12	8/14
Mean age at enrollment (years)	18-20	19-20
Type of smartphone (android/iOS)	17/2	21/1
Level of English proficiency (Elementary/Pre-intermediate/Intermediate)	2/10/7	4/12/6

The participants were students of mixed proficiency levels ranging from elementary to intermediate. At the time of the study, the participants were at the second level of the course of English in which the core content of the course put an emphasis on the student's speaking performance. The speaking performance can be accelerated through the utilization of technology (video-making task) that empowers students to engage themselves in the learning process.

3.3. Data collection procedures

Regarding the research implementation, I gained access to the field as a lecturer in charge of the English conversation course. About the video-making task, I negotiated the purpose of the task with the students before the study. I discussed some important issues relating to the task

such as the availability of the technological tools, implementation procedures, the length of time and their willingness to work on the project. It was necessary to make sure that the students have access to the technological tools and the Internet. The types of technological tools and project-related software were not agreed. This strategy allowed the student to select the devices which they needed to work on the task.

Besides that, the study could reveal the process of tools selection and the students' preference for the use of technology. The students were also exposed to the use of the Internet in finding relevant information such as ESL conversation questions sites and video-streaming sites (e.g. YouTube). Regarding the implementation procedures, I explained step-by-step the procedure of conducting the video-taking session (see task). Furthermore, I negotiated the length of time and the project timeline to give a clear picture of what they were going to do. They agreed to a two-week period by following the project timeline. I also want to emphasize the importance of project negotiation that helped the students figure out what they would like to learn and what they expected from the study.

Regarding the ethical concerns of using the video data, I discussed and negotiated the purpose of the collected videos with the participants, explaining how the videos would be used. I told the students that the videos would be used for data analysis only and would not be distributed in any kind of forms. They were worried about the content misuse so we both agreed to use the collected videos for research data analysis only. They all agreed that I could use the video recordings for data analysis and for purpose of academic writing, but they requested that the videos not be posted on *YouTube* and any other types of social media (e.g. *Facebook, Instagram, Twitter*).Therefore, the collected videos were saved in the researcher's personal repository and not posted in any kind of social media. In terms of the legal concern, the points of negotiation are stated in the letter of agreement signed by both teachers and participants.

To understand the students' meaning-making experience and feeling, the student-created videos were collected for further analysis. Firstly, the collected videos were played repeatedly to find out themes and patterns. The themes and patterns were categorized to get a clear picture of what empirical evidence occurred during the making process of the project. Secondly, I used the findings from the previous analysis to conduct an interview session with the students to dig up clear information regarding the submitted videos. The steps of the interview were as follows:

1. Watching the videos together with the students
2. Pausing the video at some particular scenes to ask the student about them.

3. Noticing down the information obtained from the student
4. Analyzing the field notes by reading them several times
5. Collecting and analyzing the self-reflection forms from the participants
6. Writing up

4. Findings and discussion

This section reports the research findings related to a video-making project conducted in a micro-reality context of English language learning at one of the state polytechnics in Indonesia. It reveals some empirical evidence fostering the students' experience when they were exposed to a video-making activity. They worked in 2-3 students forming a team with different responsibilities of each person – one was an interviewer, and another was a cameraman. The team worked together starting from the preparation to the production of the video. This activity involved various socio-cognitive processes that contributed to the student learning experience. During the project, the students were exposed to a series of activities that built their knowledge and understanding about the meaning-making practice in each process they had experienced.

4.1. Student-prepared materials before the video-taking session

Organizing the resources for use in the video-making session promotes firm collaboration among the team members. They would need to take some time to discuss the task and decided on what to do. In this very beginning stage, they started to negotiate some relevant ideas such as when to start, where and when to do it. When the students were exposed to such a situation, they would come to discuss their roles for the task in which they tempted to negotiate the roles that they appeared to be familiar with. This situation encouraged the students to dig up their prior knowledge and cognition about what they are going to do. The lack of the students' prior knowledge is one of the three difficulties confronting L2 learners in which they had no enough understanding of the topic (Chiang & Dunkel, 1992). For instance, if a student were assigned to create a video, he would not be able to get it done unless he had a good understanding of the video recording tool as well as the competence of using it.

The following excerpt is not the original version; it has been reconstructed regarding language structure but not in its meaning.

Excerpt 1:

T: How did you prepare your materials/resources before you started the project? Tell me more about your roles?

> *St:...Hmm, I was responsible for the scenario, and my friend also helped me with*
> *some ideas. We worked together at my rent house because she lived nearby.*
> *T: How did you work on it?*
> *St: We created some questions in a list, then we sorted them out to find the*
> *interesting and relevant questions to the topic.*
> *T: Tell me why you decided to work on the scenario?*
> *S: I found my self comfortable and familiar with that and my friend was good at*
> *technology tools. FYI, I was not good at video capturing and editing.*

Excerpt 1 mainly shows how the students organized the task and the role strategy as well. It happened in a micro-social context of student interaction concerning the video-making project. The activity was also done beyond the classroom setting that allowed the students to find a more flexible time and place. This finding is in line with Lund (2003) emphasizing that the social space (time and place) for EFL practice should be extended to create more learning spaces beyond the classroom environment. The social space allowed the students to improve their learning interaction as well as the ease of access to knowledge and information.

> *Excerpt 2*
> *T: Where did you get these questions? (while pointing the questions list made by*
> *the students)*
> *S: Some of them were from the internet sir, and the rest were from us.*

They cultivated the information from online resources that are available on the Internet. If the students are aware of the Internet, they will consider it as a powerful tool to assist them in information searching and processing. This skill is no longer a major problem for students as the students' engagement in technology has been increasing in the last few years. In this process, the students would be able to interrogate their existing knowledge and understanding, therefore, it would help them improve their cognition.

4.2. Student-selected scene-setting

Informed by the videos submitted by the students, the selection of scene-setting for backgrounds commonly took place in campus environments. They came with different reasons underpinning their choices such as flexibility, easiness, noise, and background views. Regarding the flexibility, the students tended to seek a flexible place (informal, relaxing, and adjustable) to start making a video recording. The meaning of informal in this matter is beyond the lecture sessions in which they found it more relaxing and adjustable. The easiness was related to the condition where they could find a place without any administrative procedures

such as classrooms, parks, student unions, and cars. They also avoided crowded places such as a canteen, a faculty lobby, a sports center, a laboratory, and a library.

Excerpt 3

T: Where was this video taken?

S: In the class, sir.

T: Why?

S: Hmm..It was less distortion, not noisy, and hmm..not many people, sir.

T: You were shy, weren't you?

S: Yes sir, my English not good.

The classroom became the most favorite place to do the task because it is a quiet place with less distortion which could affect the sound quality. All videos submitted by the students were taken in quiet places indicating the students' preferences about the scenes. It is understandable that they were novice English learners so they might be shy to speak English in front of the public. It can be inferred that they were not confident enough to make videos in the public area. Interestingly, a group of students made the video in a car which was overly considered isolated from the public. This evidence strengthens the findings that they were facing a big problem regarding speaking confidence.

4.3. Student-selected recording tools

In the current technology era, the availability of technology tools has brought an impact on students' preferences in choosing and using recording tools for their video projects. They were allowed to use any kind of recording tools which they were familiar with. Evidently, they were mostly interested in the use of hand-held devices such as Android-based smartphone, tablet, and iPad. None of the students used Handycam, digital camera, and action camera which were not easy-use and flexible.

Excerpt 4

T: What recording tool did you use for this project?

S: I used my handphone sir?

T: Why?

S: Handphone is simple sir, easy to use, and I can edit directly on it.

T: Why not Handycam or digital camera?

S: Complicated sir, difficult to move the file and to edit it. It also takes time.

Allowing the students to freely choose the recording tools for their projects encouraged the students' creativity and prior technological knowledge that teachers might not know. The

student's creativity in using technological tools had a positive impact on the results of the project in which they created more fancy editing, eye-catching and updated products. Using an Android-based smartphone allowed them to explore more applications in the *App Store* which they could download and install on their devices. Default cameras in most smartphones offer limited features that the students can explore and utilize. Once the video has been captured, then they can just edit it using a specific application afterward. One-stop video processing tools were mostly preferred due to their easiness and flexibility.

4.4. Student-selected video editing tools

As mentioned before, the students' preferred tools for the video-making project were the Android-based applications downloaded and installed from the *Apps Store*. The selection of editing tools or software varied in many cases, including *Windows Movie Maker* as an additional tool to make changes in the video. The prior technological knowledge also underpinned this selection process in which what the students know, believe, and always do influenced their decision to pick a particular video editing tool. They selected WMV because that is the software which the students are familiar with. Otherwise, they would not use software or application if they don't have any competence in it.

Behind this selection process, there was more evidence that suggested a meaning-making process in that some students/groups were not involved in the editing process. They asked someone else from other departments who was competent enough to do such work. The focus here is not merely on the output of the process but on what happened during the process. This encompassed inquiring into what the students did, how much effort they had tried, to whom they asked for assistance, and what they learned from them.

> *Excerpt 5*
>
> *T: This video looks good? Did you do such editing?*
>
> *S: Actually no, sir. I was assisted by my friend from TKJ (computer technology and networking)*
>
> *T: How did you collaborate?*
>
> *S: What do you mean sir?*
>
> *T: I mean how did you work together?*
>
> *S: I just made a concept, and I told him to edit the video such as creating video opening, cutting the unattractive scenes, adding subtitles, and many others.*

This excerpt revealed that the students made an effort by looking for experts to get assistance. This activity gives the students the opportunity to learn new things. It is necessary to notice that

the focus of this process is not to learn new technology but the way they do things encouraged them to experience social learning. There is a process of knowledge exchange between the students in which they can learn from one another.

4.5. Student active and autonomous learning (planned impact on student active learning)

Hawkes (2009) stated that digital technology is a tool for active learning. This statement agrees with the finding that the series of activities involving the students' participation in the video-making project promoted the student learning experience as well as their active learning. Furthermore, Sivan et al. (2000) showed evidence that active learning promoted the student autonomous learning which helped the students apply knowledge. During the project, the students had to work on a multitasking activity such as searching for materials, content organization and video-editing while learning new technology (a recording tool). They would look for assistance when they were exposed to a new technology which they were not familiar with. They would ask someone else to help them with the project such as editing the video and finalizing it. This process allowed the students to learn from other people and encouraged their participation and involvement during the project. This setting was a situation where social learning and metacognition activation took place. Given the importance of social interaction in language learning, it will help the learners improve their social and cultural competence. On the other hand, metacognition is likely to constitute a reflection on what the students have experienced and learned from practice.

4.6. Vocabulary building

The video project is one of the ways of promoting and improving the vocabulary building of the students although further research is still needed to see how it can work well in ELT practice. When working with the video project, the students were exposed to a setting which allowed them to read and find new words. For example, they would be not only familiar with the words associated with past events but they would also find new words related to video technology such as *capture, angle, shot, scene, blurred, cut, format, quality, resolution, etc.* They would have the opportunity to experience and understand the process that shaped learning. When they were working in groups, they would shape their own learning by activating their prior knowledge about the topic they were discussing. Activating the student's prior knowledge will help them to negotiate their ideas and to foster their vocabulary buildup. The more the students are exposed to collaborative learning, the greater their vocabulary mastery.

This research was not to measure how much improvement on vocabulary mastery the students experienced, but to what extent the video project promoted the meaning-making process that shaped learning and vocabulary building. This finding suggests that the EFL teachers should step away from the conventional vocabulary teaching in which the students can now learn new words as they work in a collaborative learning setting. If it is compared to a targeted vocabulary teaching, the students will have limited exposure to a wide range of knowledge and information. Gallo-crail & Zerwekh (2002) stated that if the students are exposed to more diverse strategies, they retained and recalled a greater number of new words. The video project forced them to read, ask questions, raise a discussion and learn new technology while at the same time learn new vocabulary.

4.7. Student's technology skill

Given that the students of today are digital natives (Prensky, 2001), they are likely to be familiar with technological tools used in education and in daily life. It is not guaranteed that they can utilize a particular technology required for a project. Informed by the findings of this research, some students had encountered problems in using the video-editing software which they were not familiar with. Consequently, they asked someone else for assistance who had a skill in such an area of expertise. Looking for help was a process, and it made meaning for the student's learning in which it encouraged them to learn from their social environment. They had the opportunity to learn new technology from others as it contributed to their cognition although the technological skill was not the focus of the study. Interestingly, some students utilized the Android-based applications to edit the video as the students are now commonly familiar with Android-based smartphones. They could easily download and install the apps from the Google Play store and uninstall them when they were not needed anymore.

4.8. Challenges encountered by the students during the video-making process

Exposing the students to a video-making project informed a social learning practice which helped them experience a meaning-making process during the activity. Although the process engaged the students in active learning, they also encountered some challenges that hampered them from the actual implementation of the project. Informed by the interviews with the students, the challenges are as follows:

1. Student technology skills

Although the students were all digital natives, they still had problems utilizing some particular tools such as a video-editing tool, a media converter, and Android-based applications. They took the time to learn the new technologies which appeared to be unfamiliar to them. They would need to learn and understand how the applications work as well as get to know all the features and functionalities. This situation brought implications for the students and practice in which they preferred to look for assistance rather than to learn how to utilize the tools on their own. It was due to the student technology skills in that they were not skillful enough to work on such a project. This research suggests that it is simply necessary for teachers to know the student's preferences about technology. It will help the teacher to make a decision which technology tools will work well for the project. For example, the teachers need to know whether or not the students can work on video-editing tools, so the utilization of technology in instruction can be defined. Given the importance of the *Student Technology Competency (STC)*, an initial survey about the STC are simply necessary to give a clear picture of what technology tools will effectively work for the students.

2. Internet accessibility

The ease of access to the Internet became a major problem for the students when looking for online resources for their projects. They could connect to the Internet in two ways: by utilizing campus WiFi service and mobile broadband connection although they both have advantages and disadvantages. The campus WiFi provides free Internet access as well as a cost-saving benefit for the student, but they could only access the hot spot during the office hours or when they were in the coverage area. Based on the institution's policy, the Internet accessibility for the students was limited to only 5 GB/month. Consequently, they had to use the quota wisely if they still wanted to stay in the free mode. Also, they could not use the Internet facility when they were at home. Alternatively, the students had to use their mobile broadband Internet connection which was not affordable for some students due to the high-cost service set by Internet providers. The affordability of the Internet cost became a major issue that hampers students from the use of paid networks. Regarding the completion of the task which required the Internet connection, some students had to wait until the following days to get access.

3. Language in use

Some lexical and grammatical errors were still found in the videos indicating that the students need improvement in those areas. Fundamentally, this research was not focusing on the lexical

and grammatical analysis; this issue should come to further research and investigation. Although the student-created video project had helped the students to participate in the learning process and promoted the active learning they still needed to improve their English proficiency regarding the two aspects.

4.9. Intercultural implications of the video-making task

During the video-making task, a number of issues were raised as informed by the practice and experience of the participants. Although a video-making task was found interesting and engaging for the students, most of them looked for assistance from other students who had a good competency in using video-editing software. It implies that the tasks dealing with the utilization of technology should have a look at *student-technological competence (STT)* as the main factor affecting the students' performance in completing such a given task. The important notion emerges from the student's answers and experiences concerns that teaching with technology must develop the student's digital literacy and technological competencies (Cartelli & Di Nuzzo, 2013). Bodomo (2010) also stressed that digital literacy plays an important role in Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC). A piece of important evidence withdrawn from the micro-reality context of the video-making task was the students' performance whose level of digital literacy above the average tend to explore the technological tools that they were about to use in their project. They learned the application very rapidly and auto didactically without seeking assistance. Although the students are all *digital natives* (Prensky, 2001), it is too vague to assume that they will not have problems when they are exposed to a technology-rich environment. Positively, the situation encouraged them to actively learn the new things which they have not dealt with before. They would read some articles, ask some experts in the relevant field, watch video tutorials on the Internet, download various applications from the application store (android/iOS), as well as compare their effectiveness and easiness of use.

The Internet technology has grown very rapidly and widely opened the windows of knowledge and information. Working in a micro-reality context of the video-making task, the students spent more time in searching for online references for their task. The Internet-based resources are more accessible for the students in which they can access, open, and read/watch from their hand-held devices (smartphone, tablet, or iPad). The research suggests that we need to empower our students to utilize the Internet-based resources (video streaming site and ESL blogs/webpages) to improve their intercultural competencies by learning from other cultures and transforming the knowledge into their learning practice. It brought implications as regards the learning culture of the students who tend to rely on the Internet as the biggest corpus

knowledge in the world. The students' learning culture and the use of technology will have an important effect on student knowledge-sharing. For instance, a student who has a digital learning culture tends to change his/her reading habit where everything relies on technological tools and Internet technology as a medium for knowledge-search and sharing.

The following table illustrates the meaning-making activities of the participants that reveal resources, common preferred settings, technological tools and types of activities during the task. Grounded in the four-phase practical inquiry model (Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001), a sociocognitive process went through four stages: 1) triggering (identifying potential problems emerges from the experience), 2) exploration (exchanging ideas and discussing ambiguities), 3) integration (connecting ideas to construct new meaning), and 4) resolution (applying new ideas and defending solutions). The students' experience working on the video-making task revealed some problems and they were able to identify the difficulties within the group discussions and group works. For example, teamwork decided to find out resources on the Internet, choose a setting, select technological tools, and perform relevant activities based on their prior knowledge, current experience, and the required competencies pertaining the task. The idea of not using a digital camera and Handycam was informed by the students' experience and discussion within the group. In terms of collaborative learning, the task involved 2 to 3 students working together to search for understanding, meaning, and solution for the task. Gokhale (1995) stresses that working in a group will potentially promote learning rather than individual work.

Table 3. The meaning-making activities of the participants during the task

Meaning-making activities	Resources	Common Preferred Settings	Technological tools	Types of activities
Student-prepared materials before the video-taking session	- Webpages - Discussion notes - Books	Beyond the classroom (rent house, parks, library, and campus yards)	- Internet - Laptop - Smartphones	- Group discussion - Group work - Job distribution - Internet search
Student-selected scene-setting	- Classroom facilities - Campus facilities	In campus settings (classrooms, faculty lobby, sports center, laboratory, and library)	- Video camera	- Scene backgrounding - Lighting - Lay outing
Student-selected recording tools	- Apps store (android or iOS)	On hand-held devices	- Smartphone - Tablet - iPad	- application download, install and remove - application selection - application test

				- choosing an application for use in the task
Student-selected video editing tools	- video editing tools - the android-based video editing application	On hand-held devices	- Smartphone - Tablet - iPad	- editing the videos (with assistance) - discussing the editing results - submitting the videos - reviewing the video (with the teacher/lecturer)

5. Conclusion

Creating a video was not the main point of this research, but it was supposed to see what was happening during the process that made learning meaningful. In ELT, working on a video project is one of the many meaning-making processes which can promote the students' active learning. A myriad of online resources and the teacher-student ease of access to them can potentially be explored as the alternative approaches to language learning, particularly in this digital world. Informed by the process of student-created video strategy, learning can be activated if they are involved in the learning process rather than treating them as passive learners. Therefore, they can directly experience the pace and the real context of learning in which the activity triggers their participation and engagement as active learners, decision-makers, and problem solvers.

For a better implementation of this student-created video project, this research recommends to initially equip the students with required technological skills before asking them to work on a specific task involving technology. By doing this, the students will get a clear picture of the project and understand the procedures of doing it. This issue should not be taken for granted given the importance of STTC is a perennial factor in implementing the video-making project is necessary.

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ENCOURAGING ENGLISH LANGUAGE PRODUCTION
USING TED TALKS AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL:
A STUDY IN A TECHNICAL COLLEGE

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Abstract

This paper investigates using TED Talks to promote English language learning and production to ESL (English as a second language) learners at the tertiary level with the proficiency level between A2 and C1 as determined by their college entry-level test. In this study, it is used with a mixed-ability group of students of an engineering college who have difficulty performing in the language during classroom participation, while comprehending subject lectures or while communicating with their teachers and peers. In order to make their learning more engaging and to enhance the learner experience of the English language in this engineering class, TED Talks were used. Pre- and post-viewing activities were given to a group of students and were continuously assessed using classroom observation and production of language in classroom activities. The findings show that using TED Talks as a resource in the classroom improved English language production in terms of speaking and encouraged learners to confidently use the language.

Keywords: Teaching English; using technology; TED Talks; tertiary level; speaking

1. Introduction

The use of videos as a teaching-learning tool for English language learning is not a new phenomenon (Salaberry, 2001; Stempleski, 1992). The impact of videos in a classroom is two-fold as it involves both auditory narrative and visual presence. This paper investigates the strategy of using TED Talk videos for teaching-learning, especially for active production of English language in a technical college in India.

This study uses the framework of language immersion (Genesee, 1985; Johnson and Swain, 1997; Johnstone, 2002) as a pedagogical approach to examine whether using TED Talks and accompanying classroom activities can lead to enhanced English language production. It aims to recognise the value of using TED Talks as a strategy for constantly immersing the ESL learners in L2, thereby improving language production. Language production can be in terms of

either writing or speaking. The study focuses primarily on the development of speaking skills as it is arguably the most neglected language skill (Baker & Westrup, 2003), particularly in a tertiary level classroom context. In particular, it strives to investigate the impact of watching TED Talks on student motivation for language production as well as to explore how creating an immersive learning environment can encourage speaking.

2. Literature review

The use of videos for English language teaching and learning has been widely acknowledged by ELT practitioners (Goldstein & Driver, 2015). Videos as a tool for teaching-learning gives learners a double benefit by providing authentic use of the language as well as by placing it in the appropriate cultural context (Bello, 1999; Stempleski, 1992).

Another important feature is that videos can be paused and repeated at any time during viewing. While watching the videos, the learners are able to see facial expressions and body language at the same time as they notice the stress, intonation, and rhythm of the language (Bello, 1999). In an almost fun and informal way, the students learn to use the language.

Learning a language through immersion was originally promoted within bilingual education (Johnson and Swain, 1997). Second language learning through immersion programs were first developed in Canada in the 1960s (Genesee, 1985) and later on in the United States in the 1970s (Campbell, 1984). Students who learn a second language through the immersion method develop native-like fluency and confidence to use the language (Genesee, 2004).

The most important teaching objective in this listening exercise is that students are constantly exposed to the English language, including its accent, intonation, pronunciation, and grammar. It is believed that the more one is exposed to the target language, the easier it becomes to master it (Krashen, 1985).

There are several studies that have proved the effectiveness of videos in second-language learning, particularly in English language learning (Hafner, 2014; Liu, 2005; Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Salaberry, 2001; Plass, Chun, Mayer, & Leutner, 1998). However, the use of TED Talks as a video resource for encouraging English language learning and production is fairly limited barring studies like the use of TED talks for listening by Ring (2016). Ring, in his study, investigates and proves the effectiveness of a 25-lesson TED talk program to promote listening skills in English language teaching. Using TED talks as a listening strategy, Ring provides a systematic pedagogic framework for educators to teach effective listening. Results showed students become more autonomous, self-efficacious and collaborative learners. TED

talks also proved to be an effective academic listening resource. Hence, the present study aims to create an immersive language environment for teaching-learning English using TED Talks.

Watching TED Talks draws students' attention to the English language. The class can choose to view the type of videos. The way language is produced in the videos, generates interest in class for discussion and an eventual presentation. It builds a connection with other students and the instructor. Since TED Talks deal with general topics, such a form of learning energizes or relaxes students for the learning exercise. It promotes affability, and decreases anxiety and tension, thus providing a conducive atmosphere for English language production.

TED Talks have several advantages as a learning tool. Using them as an instructional tool was chosen because the current set of teenagers belongs to the 'Internet' generation. They are constantly surfing various sites, watching videos, playing virtual games and are also very active on social media. The Internet unifies linguistic, cultural, social and economic differences. Several TED Talk videos are available online and range from 3 to 18 minutes. Hence, using TED Talks is considered appropriate in a classroom context.

TED Talks generally deal with one's life experiences and anecdotes. It also is, in a way, personal storytelling, people talking about their own start-ups, inventions and life experiences. They are delivered in a contemporary, non-traditional manner and the speaker does not conform to a formal way of lecturing. Although these talks appear unstructured, they follow a framework within which they operate. Presenters are well-coached and instructed to follow a specific presentation formula, which maximizes storyboarding and highlights a passion for the subject. The official TED site records that it has more than 2,700 talks to view based on duration, topics and language preference. According to the data available on the TED homepage, some presentations have received 16 million hits which underscore the popularity of this platform.

TED speakers may or may not be native speakers of the language and this diversity of linguistic backgrounds to a certain extent puts the student listeners in a comfort zone. These videos also have a subtitle option, which helps limited English proficiency (LEP) learners to read and understand what is being spoken. Watching these TED Talks allows for language immersion, promoting learning inside and outside the classroom as online videos can be accessed anytime. If Wi-Fi accessibility is provided in the classroom, students have the option of viewing them even outside of classroom hours, in their hostel, common areas, etc.

3. The current study

3.1. Aim and background

English is the accepted global language and particularly in a country like India, much importance is given to English language teaching and learning. Instructors use various ways of inculcating a love for the language and fostering learners' motivation to master it. Many methods and activities have been used over the years and have been found useful. Although teaching practitioners over time have emphasized learning the language using memorization of grammar rules and syntactic structures, and later on the use of language in real life-like situations, the focus has moved to creating interesting and motivating situations for the students to use language. Going with the flow of the current 'Internet' generation, one of the methods that this teacher/researcher has found effective for creating this motivation in her classroom is the use of TED Talks for English language learning and production.

This study investigates a class of 69 engineering students who took up a course titled 'Communication and Soft Skills' in their third year of the B.Tech programme. The syllabus includes developing listening and speaking skills, gives importance to conversation skills, group discussion and interview skills, giving presentations, and listening.

The linguistic knowledge of the speaker is not the sole indicator of mastery over the language rather, this mastery lies in the ability to communicate with target language speakers (Norton and Toohey, 2001). Learning the grammatical structures of a language is as important as being able to communicate adequately and use the language appropriately. Although the objective of this study was not to make the students fully proficient in the target language, it aimed to make the students improve their communicative competence using total language immersion strategy and thereby language exposure via TED Talks. The learners are totally immersed in the second language (L2), in this context English, which is used for all classroom communication, and listening and speaking activities involving TED Talks.

The L2 proficiency of the observed group ranges from CEFR A2 to C1 as determined by the entry-level test that is mandatory for all students who are admitted into the college. This group comprised students from rural schools (where the medium of instruction is predominantly the regional language), lateral entry students (those who have completed their diploma in the chosen subject, and are still coming to grips with the use of English language), vocational students (who drop a subject like physics in their 11th and 12th grade to take up a vocational course like welding etc., and are similar in level of English language-use abilities with the lateral entry students), students from city government-aided schools (where students

do not get many opportunities for English language production) and also students from urban areas (who are mostly from city English medium schools, and freely use English even outside the classroom). The diverse backgrounds of the students in this group lead to a similar diversity in their English language abilities.

Difficulty in understanding and producing the language can be seen at different levels for individual students. For most of these students, English is like a foreign language. Problems with understanding and speaking in the English language can be seen during classroom participation, while comprehending subject lectures, communicating with their teachers and peers and also during day-to-day conversations.

In addition to this, the problem of mother tongue influence is clearly visible in the group. Even those who are comfortable speaking the language are not willing to participate in language production activities for fear of rejection by their teachers and peers, resulting in a lack of self-confidence and the anxiety of being judged by others.

Furthermore, speaking as an activity is seldom practised in classrooms. This may be due to the teacher's felt need for maintaining classroom decorum, avoiding disturbance to neighbouring classes, etc. Also, there is hardly any opportunity to test speaking skills in the tertiary level curriculum. Hence, it is crucial for the teacher to create a congenial atmosphere for English language learning and production. Integrating videos into English language teaching and learning, particularly, TED Talks is one such activity which encourages language production across this student group.

3.2. Methodology

Listening to TED talks as an activity was administered to the third-year class. The duration of each class was three periods totalling to two and a half hours a week. Although there were other learning modules to be completed, the teacher made it mandatory to watch at least one TED Talk video in each class. In addition, the class could also independently watch these videos outside class hours and document it in their 'class-work book'.

In keeping with the University semester time-frame and the prescribed syllabus, the teacher facilitated several activities and discussions in the classroom as pre-viewing and post-viewing exercises. Selecting appropriate videos for viewing is crucial for the group. Several guidelines were used for selecting the videos: the level of difficulty in understanding the talk, the vocabulary used, the average number of words per minute, the accent of the speaker, the cultural context, etc. Examples of the videos the class watched over the four-month semester are: 'Try Something New for 30 Days' by Matt Cutts, 'Turning adversity into opportunity' by

Muniba Mazari, 'The danger of a single story' by Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie, 'Inside the mind of a master procrastinator' by Tim Urban etc.

3.2.1. Pre-viewing activities

It is important to orient the students on what they are about to watch. Before watching the video, the objective should be clearly described so that viewing is purposeful. One pre-viewing exercise could be trying to understand the difficult vocabulary or providing some background knowledge about the TED Talks they are about to watch. For example, before watching Muniba Mazari's talk, the teacher went through such vocabulary items as 'warrior', 'devastated', 'scrubs', 'whining', 'cribbing', 'adversity', 'exploring', etc. in the classroom with a discussion of each word in context.

Also, while watching the Matt Cutts video, the group was instructed to listen to certain expressions in the talk. Attention was drawn to the manner in which the speaker would greet the audience, introduce his topic, use idiomatic language like 'stuck in a rut', 'following in the footsteps', etc. For some videos, students were asked to read the transcript before watching them, so that while watching it would be comprehensible to the students. The manner in which the speech ended was also a point of focus.

3.2.2. Post-viewing activities

The following are some of the post-viewing activities that were carried out in order to test the impact of watching TED Talks as motivation to English language production:

1. Extempore Speech: Immediately after watching the talk, each student was asked to summarise the talk and make a brief presentation. Students were also divided into pairs and asked to give their opinion on particular topics after discussing them with their partners. Topics for discussion ranged from topics of global relevance to personal ones like eating a healthy diet and cutting down on junk food after watching the TED video 'Try Something New for 30 Days' by Matt Cutts. As a follow-up activity for this video, the students were given the task of looking up Morgan Spurlock's 30-day experiment with McDonald's food.

2. Group Work: Students were divided into groups of 10 and were asked to pick a topic. The topic was a general one of which students would commonly be aware. After 15 minutes of discussion within each group, one member from the group would come to the front and present a brief report.

3. Role Play: Students are divided into groups of four. Each group picks a situation ranging from informal conversations with family, friends or neighbours to formal conversations in an office set-up or a bank, etc. Students take on the role they are representing, prepare dialogues and act them out in front of the class.

4. Short Speeches: Students are asked to select a topic in which they are interested. The topics can be technical or non-technical. Some of the topics on which students spoke are: Four-wheel drive, Functions of a crank shaft, Social media- boon or bane, My pet dog, etc.). Students are given at least a week's time to prepare and are encouraged to speak in front of the class for at least two minutes.

5. Debates: The debates usually centered on topics from the TED Talks. For instance, after watching Muniba Mazari's talk, the class debated on the news report about her husband suing her for distorting facts.

3.2.3. Evaluation

The students were assessed after each activity in order to record their progress. The main objective of this study was to investigate the impact of watching TED Talks on student motivation to produce spoken language. It was seen that almost all of them took part in these speaking activities. For the purpose of analysing speech activities and reaching conclusions, data was collected in the following manner:

i.   Primarily it was done by the teacher's observation of the individual students for interaction with peers and engagement in speaking activities in the classroom.

ii. Each activity was assessed based on predetermined parameters like the organisation of content, pronunciation, vocabulary, sentence construction and fluency.

iii. Additionally, students were asked through a semi-structured interview how they felt about this as an activity and whether they perceived any growth in their abilities and how, why, etc.

4. Results and discussion

After watching these videos for the whole semester and participating in pre-viewing and post-viewing activities, the students themselves believed that they were confident to speak in front of a group.

Students were divided into groups of ten and each group had at least four to five students, on average, who were very good at language production and hence, there was plenty of peer interaction. The students made use of every opportunity to speak that was given to the

class and this was crucial, the students opined. They also suggested that successful language production while engaging in a group activity develops in them a sense of confidence to speak the language, putting them more at ease with their peers, as the focus is on what they have just seen and heard and not on the language *per se*. Gradually, this could also have a positive impact on the students' presentation skills, language delivery and content learning.

During classroom observation, it was seen that in the beginning some students were hesitant to participate in the activities. However, as the students found these TED talks interesting, there was a meaningful discussion based on the topics, and a lot of language was generated. Since it was a discussion for the whole class, the students took part in animated conversations without the fear of being conscious of themselves or of being judged. To some extent, it developed the learner's public speaking ability. The students were able to construct complex sentences instead of generating one-word answers or phrases as seen at the beginning of the semester. They were able to speak extempore with minimum preparation and answer questions spontaneously.

The students also gave positive feedback on this exercise. One of the most impressive videos, in the opinion of this class of students, was 'Try Something New for 30 Days'. The entire class was inspired to try out something new for 30 days in order to make that into a habit. They even decided to maintain a log book to record their daily progress. Some of the things they did were as follows: do a good deed every day, help with household chores, bring home-cooked food for lunch every day, go for a walk in the evenings etc.

One of the definite findings of this study is that these TED talks generated enough motivation in the class to speak the language. In addition, there was decreased anxiety and tension on their part while speaking in front of their peers and the teacher as determined by the students' responses in the semi-structured interviews. Especially, students with inhibitions, reluctant to speak the English language earlier, were found to be enthusiastic about discussing the TED talks that they viewed in the group and the contents of the talks. Particularly, when there was a contradicting view or opinion, the discussions became interesting, resulting in enhanced language production.

Even though the skill focus of the present study was speaking and generating language as the students watched the videos, learners were engaged in a range of other processes like listening, understanding, analysing, synthesising and articulating. Hence, an opportunity was created to hone these language sub-skills as well.

5. **Limitations of the study and implications for future research**

Every research program needs to understand and accommodate the learner variable as it also affects the outcome of the research. As mentioned earlier, in this heterogeneous group of students, there were differences in the pace of learning, learner attitudes, motivation to learn, class attendance, etc. This resulted in differences in the learning outcomes of the students and some groups of students, therefore, gained much more from the experience than others.

Although learning outcomes cannot be measured in quantifiable terms in this study, it can be said that those who were regular to class and participated in classroom activities made the most progress in terms of using English for speaking. It was seen that those who hesitated to speak in English earlier were willing to speak in front of their peers towards the end of the semester. No significant change was seen in students who were already confident in speaking in English.

Using TED Talks in the classroom reframes the traditional role of the teacher in the classroom. An important thing to keep in mind is that the teacher should control the quality and the number of videos viewed in class as it should reinforce language learning and not distract the learner from learning. Teacher autonomy is another important concept that needs attention. The proposed exercises can be done only in situations where the college management does not restrict speaking activities, which lead to some noise generation inside a classroom. Also, setting aside a part of the class for viewing these videos and constructing activities around them requires some commitment on the part of the teacher. If that is the case, the use of videos as an authentic language teaching-learning tool can be integrated into the language curriculum by a creative teacher.

Those that did not attend the classes regularly did not fare well in the final assessment conducted by the University, which the College is affiliated to, as an end of semester exam. This may be due to their missed chance at practising the language. Another reason could be the general disregard for the learning of the English language by these engineering students. There are other students who would like to believe that they are already quite proficient at it.

In terms of implications for the future, similar research can be carried out with other activities like watching and responding to news debates, advertisements, movie clips, commencement addresses, and Toastmaster's Table topic speeches to verify the impact on student learning experience. Similarly, specialised topics (especially given the fact that the target group consists of students of specialised technical courses) for individual groups maybe selected to enhance the learner experience.

6. Conclusion

The English language teacher may use various strategies to facilitate language learning. Using TED talks is one of the teaching-learning approaches which can supplement the traditional and formal method. This study investigated the impact of using TED Talks as a teaching-learning strategy to encourage English language production, particularly speaking, among students in an engineering college. The data for analysis were collected through classroom activities, semi-structured interviews and observation. The results show that engaging students in watching TED Talks triggers increased motivation to engage in speaking activities.

Final conclusions can be drawn only after repeated studies involving different sets of students under varied conditions and resources. Based on this study, it may be concluded that those students who attended classes regularly participated enthusiastically in most of the activities conducted in the class, and those who were motivated to learn showed a definite improvement in their communicative competence, particularly in their confidence to speak in English in front of an audience. Engaging students in such activities and providing them with varied opportunities to practise using the language is advantageous for successful language learning.

Note

On March 1, 2018, National Geographic Learning (NGL), in partnership with TED announced the release of Learn English with TED Talks, an app for students who are learning English as a second or foreign language. This app provides a classroom presentation tool and lesson plans that enable teachers of English to integrate their students' work on the app with a meaningful classroom experience. The following sites can be used to download the App.

For Android users:

https://play.google.com/store/apps/details?id=com.cengage.ngl.nventive.learnenglishwithtedtalks&hl=en_IN

For IOS users:

https://apps.apple.com/us/app/learn-english-nglearning/id1301395785

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A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF LANGUAGE STYLE VARIATIONS
IN E-MAIL AND *TELEGRAM* MESSAGES
BY NON-NATIVE INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

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Abstract

This study sought to explore the formality styles of writing among intermediate EFL Iranian learners to scrutinize their competence in the writing skill. A convenience sample of 30 students were chosen through Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001) from among 60 university students. The first group sent their messages (essay tasks) through e-mail and the second group used *Telegram*. A corpus containing a total of 240 written texts was extracted from both groups. This corpus was then analyzed and compared in terms of formality styles. A detailed comparison of the two sub-corpora revealed a significant difference between texts written and sent by *Telegram* application and e-mails. The results of data analysis also indicated that informality and formality markers potentially function as distinctive factors, capable of differentiating between the texts sent by *Telegram* and e-mails. Ultimately, the essays sent by *Telegram* (containing 5 factors including contractions, questions, modal verbs, opening sentences, vocabulary) were recognized to use more informal styles of writing than emails. Taking the current study's findings into account, academic writing pedagogy may benefit from a focus on employing appropriate writing strategies and techniques to accelerate Iranian university students' writing development.

Keywords: essay writing; formality styles; social media; *Telegram*; writing skill

1. Introduction

Emerging in the 2000s, the technologies built upon Web 2.0 platforms came to be known as social media, encompassing a range of types like blogs, wikis, social networking services and media technologies. Social media have undeniably encroached into human interactions so intricately that have changed people's communication habits vastly (Reinhardt, 2019). Technology (or sometimes called electronic) devices and various applications such as *Telegram*, *WhatsApp* and e-mail have recently been increasingly identified as indispensable elements in language learning process (Lankshear & Knobel 2006; Warschauer & Grimes, 2007). More recently, educational contexts such as schools and institutions have recognized

the effectiveness of these kinds of teaching and learning as complementary instruments to enhance the horizons of educators and learners' attitude towards their capabilities and strength (Chik & Ho, 2017). The spread of social media has resulted in intercultural and sociopragmatic developments, raised people's awareness of social issues, and shaped language learners' identities. To support this idea, Barron (2006) holds that using technology has gained momentum as an essential factor in language learning on various levels and recently various attitudes towards applying social networking have stimulated controversial discussions with promising prospects. It is documented that judicious use of technology devices and applications in educational settings could be justified as crucial teaching and learning visual and audio aids to the process of learning (e.g. Sockett 2014; Sylven & Sundqvist, 2016). For example, with their specialized features, *WhatsApp*, *Telegram* and email have been found to change a few highlights of clients' written output by encouraging individuals and groups to structure their messages in specific ways and ending up in upgrading their writing abilities (AbdAlfattah, 2015; Alfaki & Alharthy, 2014).

A review of recent studies on using technology in the classroom suggests that most research has focused on social networks as a modern facility in language learning contexts to improve students' abilities and teachers' teaching planning (Khoshsima, Toroujeni, & Safarzade Samani, 2017). For example, a descriptive study has been directed on the adequacy of *Telegram* in improving learners' pronunciation in English (Xodabandeh, 2017). The writer found out significant improvement in the pronunciation of participants in experimental group as compared to control group, whereas no significant improvement in pronunciation of participants was reported in experimental group from post-test to delayed test which was administered four weeks later. The writer concludes that using social media in teaching language features can be very operative. The study, however, had only a narrow scope, i.e., pronunciation, but did not focus on broader dimensions of language such as stylistic or rhetorical aspects.

A point to consider at this stage is the language style typical of each of the technology-related communication means, which seems to have received only scanty attention (Sabate, & Begoña, 2008). In social networks and in relation to language learning domain, analyzing language formality takes place under the name of genre and register analysis. This can inform the students about how to write and regard the language forms and improve their abilities in using technology and accurate language forms in appropriate contexts (Epstein, 2013). Epstein's (2013) characterization of formality and language style has been broadly employed as a part of educating and examining language formality in the social networking

environment. In particular, this system has been utilized widely to represent the different components of composing expositions (Pavlick & Tetreault, 2016; Richards, 2015). Applying the elements of this framework in recent studies such as Xodabande's (2017) shows the importance of knowing language formality in using appropriate language means in various online environments. According to Cheung (2010), applying social networks in language learning has brought about a host of controversy as to the distracting drive it ensues in language learning process with regard to the linguistic style shifts. Cheung points out that the learners' inappropriate styles of language have constantly been criticized by various scholars in applied linguistics field (Cheung, 2010).

Having reviewed studies on language formality in technology-based communication, there seems to be a gap as regards language users employing different styles of language in appropriate contexts. Lack of knowledge about styles of language when using different tools such as *Telegram* and email can hypothetically give rise to much difficulties in users' communications and their written correspondence. As regards the importance of using technology in language learning, students need to know the differences between linguistic forms of texts (language formality) written in social networks such as *Telegram* and in e-mail.

This study tries to fill this gap by collecting relevant data about the use of language styles by technology users through comparing their *Telegram* and email writing exchanges. Given the identified gap in the literature, the following questions are formulated to guide the study:

1. Is there any significant difference between using language styles (formality and informality) in technology devices (e-mail and *Telegram*)?
2. Are informal elements of Epstein's (2013) framework mostly applied in *Telegram*-based interaction?

2. Literature review

Reinhardt (2019) defines social media as any application or technology by which users take part in, shape and disseminate media resources and activities with other users using digital networking. Zhu & Chen (2015) typify social media as either profile-based or content-based on the one hand, and either personalized or broadcast on the other, yielding four types or purposes: "to connect to others and build relationships, to collaborate with others, to present or broadcast an identity, or to express creative activity" (as cited in Reinhardt, 2019, p. 4). Ever since human interaction was recognized as a pivotal element in language learning, language teachers and educators have tried to integrate any means, including the most recent

technology-based ones, to boost communicative practice in their classrooms. Synchronous (chat) and asynchronous (email and bulletin board system) Internet applications were incorporated into the language classroom due to their educational potential. Early empirical research (e.g. Beauvois, 1992; Chun, 1994; Kern, 1995) found that computer-mediated communication came up to enhanced output production, exposed to a wider gamut of discourses and helped to increase learner fluency. These benefits are still abundant in second language teaching and learning.

Social media can be used formally as a classroom aid or informally by learners who seek autonomy in learning. Both ways will afford the development of intercultural, sociopragmatic and audience awareness, as well as language learners' identities in the long run. Moreover, certain media have particular potentials. For instance, blogs can cater for reflective learning, wikis support collaborative learning, while social networks facilitate situated learning (Reinhardt, 2019). Research into social media in instructional settings has mostly been based on socially-informed language learning and teaching theories, like social-constructivist, multiliteracies and L2 identity development theories (Reinhardt, 2019). A range of research methodologies and techniques such as case studies, instructional and action research, discourse analysis, ethnography and quantitative data analysis have been reported to be used in this field. To examine the effect of e-learning by using a particular mobile application on the levels of motivation, content knowledge and grades of the students, Hassan (2018) used *WhatsApp* to provide additional support to the experimental group. The results indicated that the experimental group outperformed the students of the control group receiving instruction through the traditional method. The study proved that *WhatsApp* can be effectively used to provide support to motivate students to study properly and to get higher grades.

Communication technologies have gradually influenced conduct and social standards (McQuiggan, Kosturko, McQuiggan & Sabourin, 2015; Büschken & Allenby, 2017). Today, everybody in the general public approaches a colossal measure of data which was hard to imagine a couple of years earlier, while marvelous advances still offer new perspectives in network, correspondence and joint effort in our everyday lives. Xodabande (2017) demonstrates the expanding significance of PC and communication innovation in language instruction. He contends that advancement itself does not choose human conduct, for example, how we as teachers control somebody. Be that as it may, it makes the potential results for new kinds of learning and of conduct. He continues that these new possible results rise in view of the change in development, and provoke the movements of the entire setting of

dialect instructing to the significance of new expertise levels, new groupings, new characters and new educational techniques for dialect educating. Ingram and Sasaki (2003) explain that information and communication technology are back-up means to teaching and learning across all areas of the curriculum and using communication applications such as email had significant effect on students' writing ability.

Examining changes of formality level across groups of students, Khoshsima et al. (2017) contend that technology developments have given a different shape to the entire process of learning. Likewise, techniques for educating and methods for learning have experienced significant changes because of the improvement of data innovation, particularly the headway of PC innovation. The entrance to data, together with the dissipating and use of data, has caused enormous and diverse changes. Technology users can approach PCs and the Web to get data without the obstruction of time and space, which gives them more independence and versatility to pick the substance and techniques for learning (Chik & Ho, 2017).

By reviewing the literature on using various styles of language in different technology devices such as email, it is possible to notice the differences between them. While scrutinizing the discourse of e-mails Abbasian and Tahririan (2008) analyzed two different discourse communities: English as foreign language (hereafter EFL) teachers and biology professionals. The collected emails were contrasted following Phinney's (1991) model of Business Letters of Negotiation. The results revealed that a similar general logical structure was appropriate to the two corpora. The two groups demonstrated a level of error in the techniques they used to understand each move. These observed contrasts in techniques they utilized showed the dynamic idea of email sort obliging the explanatory and practical needs of the talk networks.

Sabater et al. (2008) examined the formality features of emails in a corpus of messages exchanged by academic institutions, comparing them on the basis of their mode of communication (one-to-one or one-to-many) and the sender's mother tongue (native or nonnative). The samples were analyzed for formality of greetings and farewells, use of contractions, politeness indicators and non-standard linguistic features. The findings indicated the advent of a new style in writing for the most conspicuous, confidential and formal purposes which form a new sub-genre of letter-writing. Nonetheless, this study has not addressed more complex writing tasks. Instead, the focus was merely on phatic talk and confined to pragmatic indicators of politeness.

In order to analyze written requests made by Iranian learners of English via online applications, Mehrpour and Mehrzad (2013) carried out an investigation into the way Iranians use modal verbs of *can, could* and *would* in comparison to native speakers' usage. The results indicated that Iranians' use of modal verbs seemed to be more straightforward in comparison to the native writers. As evidenced by that study, even though the native English writers had applied the modals *could* and *would* in a number of e-mails, they tended more often to ask for a favor using the less formal modal, *can.* These differences may have been caused by the socio-cultural background. Iranians, who may be regarded as following the value of collectivism, show a lot of concern about the addressee's negative face and try to respect it by any possible means. On the contrary, English people are more friendly, intimate and casual, and do not worry about such bothersome conventions.

In a similar study, Cheung (2010) concentrated on the talk structures of Chinese and English direct-showcasing deals messages and found that the two corpora share the same moves and steps. The post hoc examination uncovered that the offers sent by these two groups were meant to encode the producers' logical objectives, i.e., the viewer-producer connections they wish to set up through the writings, and the social setting inside which these writings unfold. In this procedure, the business kind is probably going to adjust as far as its talk technique and printed highlights.

In addition to the above-mentioned studies on the effect of e-mail on language learning, some researchers investigated the application of local social networking sites, especially *Telegram* and *WhatsApp*, in learning languages. Xodabande (2017) analyzed the viability of utilizing online networking system *Message* in showing English dialect articulation to Iranian English students. The post hoc of the pre-test and post-test revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group yet no significant difference was found in the ad hoc performance of the two groups from the pretest and the deferred test which was administered a month later.

As seen from the studies reviewed above, most research in applying technology and distinguishing different language styles (formality) has taken place in various academic contexts, especially at schools and universities. Little research has been done into the examination of formality (styles of language) through social networks. In particular, very few studies have used Epstein's (2013) framework for analysis of L2 language styles through using social networks such as *Telegram* and e-mail. Epstein's (2013) reformulations of formality posits that this concept lies on a continuum and it is not based on frozen discrete points but rather it uses as many contextual clues as possible to analyze discourse. Moreover,

this view has never been introduced to the research into social media. Thus, more examination is needed because a deeper understanding of L2 university students' styles of language can provide specific pedagogical implications on how to help L2 students write texts more effectively. The current research, therefore, aims at bridging the mentioned gap in the literature to investigate the differences between narrative texts written and sent by Iranian intermediate university students through *Telegram* and e-mail based on formality style taxonomies.

3. Methodology

3.1. Context and participants

Thirty students (15 female and 15 male) were selected via non-random sampling (convenience sampling) from among a total of 60 students using Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001) at Payame Noor University of Mobarakeh, Isfahan city, Iran. The participants' age ranged between 20 to 40 years old. They had already been learning English for a few years in private language institutes. Attempts were made to select participants as homogeneously as possible because having homogeneous groups would help minimize the negative effects such as variability in work efficiency, the resulting boredom and off-task behavior that could be expected when some individuals finish with a given part of the task well before others do. To further make sure that they were at the similar (homogeneous) levels of language knowledge and skills, they took the Oxford Quick Proficiency Test (2001) (QPT) including two parts: Part One (questions 1-40) deals with simple grammar and vocabulary items and Part Two (questions 41-60) was concerned with reading comprehension multiple-choice items and cloze test. Next, the test results were analyzed by the researcher via SPSS software and its reliability was estimated. Through applying QPT (2001) and using its categorizations, 30 intermediate level students out of 60 participants were selected. Then, they were assigned randomly into two groups of 15 in this study. They underwent a two-month essay writing class as the experimental treatment. Finally, one of the groups sent their messages (essay tasks) through e-mail and the second group used *Telegram* to the researcher.

3.2. Instrumentation and materials

To gauge participants' proficiency in English prior to the experiment and to assess the effects of treatment on their learning the following instruments and treatments were used: Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001) was used to homogenize the participants regarding their English

proficiency. The test results were analyzed by the researcher via SPSS software and its reliability was estimated, securing a satisfactory level. Oxford Quick Placement Test (2001) consisted of two parts: Part One (1-40) deals with simple grammar and vocabulary items. Part Two (41-60) was concerned with a bit more difficult reading comprehension multiple-choice items and cloze test. The students' scores were ranked from high to low and the participants were homogenized based on the OPT (2001) categorizing chart (i.e., 0-17 scores for beginners, 18-29 for elementary, 30-47 for intermediate and 48-60 for advanced level).

Several writing tasks (240 essays) which were in the form of narrative essays and on various topics (including family issues, jobs, friendship, interest and hobbies, sports, free time activities, education, future plans) were utilized to make the participants write and send them to the researcher to analyze the styles of their texts. Each essay included three parts of introduction, body and conclusion. Since the types of writing essays were taught previously, in this process the writing contents were emphasized. During the 2 months (8 weeks, 8 topics for essays) of interaction with the researcher in a course, the participants in the two groups were supposed to write those 240 essays (120 essays in each group) through using e-mail and *Telegram*. Those writing tasks included writing essays about the participants' real life and were analyzed based on Epstein's (2013) framework of formality.

3.3. Data collection

Having given instructions on writing essays for two months (8 sessions) to the non-random selected sample of participants, the researcher shared an e-mail address and a *Telegram* account with the participants. The participants in Group One were asked to compose their essays in e-mail and send the finalized task and the participants in Group Two were asked to type and send their tasks via *Telegram* on a weekly basis for eight weeks. A corpus of 240 messages (120 email messages from Group One and 120 *Telegram* messages from Group Two) was collected in the form of complete essays, containing Introduction, Body, and Conclusion. The process of collecting data included determining the relevance of the content to the assigned topics and marking them based on the formality framework which is elucidated below.

Formality varies according to the extent to which it conforms to everyday oral conversations rendering informality (Atkinson, 1982) or the degree to which it aligns with institutional or organizational conventions as a standard of formality (Andren, Sanne & Linell, 2010). Four linguistic features are the means to reduce formality: informal lexical embedding, colloquial style or jargons, omissions of formally required parts and addition of

non-task talks. These definitions of formality, however, fail to present an adequate characterization of formality for written discourse. Epstein's (2013) framework is adopted for the current study. This framework takes the view that formal language increases in conjunction with informational texts, but decreases with narrative texts. This framework is adopted for three reasons: (1) it is based on a continuum rather than discrete point, (2) it takes many levels of language and discourse into account, and (3) this definition also considers contextual aspects (such as purpose, discourse planning, audience, and common background) that might have some bearing on the formality variation.

In this framework, several elements account for language styles: a) Contractions, b) Modal Verbs, c) Questions, d) Opening Sentences, and e) Formal and Informal Vocabulary. According to Epstein (2013), language style elements in writing a formal or informal English language are categorized as follow:

a) Contradictions:

When writing formal essays, writers should not use contractions, such as *I'm*, *he'd*, *you'll*, etc.

Formal → I *am writing to ask if you have seen the news from Jo.*

Informal → I'm *writing to ask if you've seen the news from Jo.*

b) Modal verbs:

To make requests and give instructions, writers frequently use modal verbs in formal English: *would*, *could*, etc. However, writers should note that modal verbs are also used in this way in informal and semi-formal English.

Formal → Would *you be able to deliver the report by tomorrow?*

Informal→ Will *you deliver the report by tomorrow?*

Formal→ Could *you ask Pierre to come to the meeting?*

Informal→ Can *you ask Pierre to come to the meeting?*

c) Questions:

When asking a direct question, writers frequently use indirect questions in formal writing.

Formal→ *I wonder if you would like to join us for dinner on Tuesday.*

Informal→ *Do you want to join us for dinner on Tuesday*?

Formal → *Could you see if the components have been ordered yet*?

Informal → *Have the components been ordered yet*?

Hint: In addition to this, offers are often made using *would*.

Formal→ *Would you like to see the new prototype*?

Informal→ *Do you want to see the new prototype*?

d) Opening sentences:

After the greeting, English writing normally begins with an opening sentence.

Common opening sentences for formal writings are as follows:

Informal→ *I hope that all is well with you*.

Formal→ *I was just emailing to request some assistance*. (The past tense is frequently used to make a sentence more polite, i.e., formal)

Formal → *Thank you for your email of 12 March.*

Hint: Writings that omit this opening sentence are usually official correspondence between governments and individuals, or formal demands for payment, etc.

e) Formal and informal vocabulary:

Formal writing tends to use slightly different vocabulary from informal writings. Informal writing often uses phrasal verbs.

Formal→ *I would like to request some assistance.*

Informal→ *I'd like to ask for some help*.

Formal→ *Once I have received the information from our suppliers, I will reply to Mr. Braun's email*.

Informal → *After I hear back from the suppliers, I'll get back to Mr. Braun.*

Hint: Certain terms have a formal or informal equivalent. Writers should try not to mix informal and formal styles in the same writings. Some examples have been given in the following box:

Formal	Informal
Thank you.	Thanks.
I would like to apologize for ….	Sorry for …
I would appreciate it if you…..	Can you?
Would you happen to know…?	Do you know….?
Unfortunately, I will not be able to…	I can't……
I am unable to say whether ….	I don't know whether….

Below, examples of essays written and sent by email and *Telegram* are presented with highlights that demonstrate the formality and informality markers in the text.

The first essay was written and sent by Ahmad, a male student from the email group. The essay consists of an introduction, two body paragraphs and a conclusion. Ahmad has observed the mechanics of writing, i.e., paragraph demarcation, equal line-spacing, consistent font type and font size throughout the essay, and appropriate punctuations. However, there are a number of issues regarding this essay. Starting with the first paragraph, Ahmad has used a contraction *it's* with an evidential means *true that* as an opening sentence. In the second sentence, Ahmad has made use of emphatic auxiliary verb which is characteristic of formal writing. The lexical items *proceedings* and *implemented* used in the third sentence also indicate that he has chosen to use the formal style. In addition, the use of modular passive structures like *can be implemented* can be found abundantly in his writing, which insinuates a formal style as well. Disregarding the collocational mistakes, it is clear that Ahmad has made his best to abide by the conventions of formal writing.
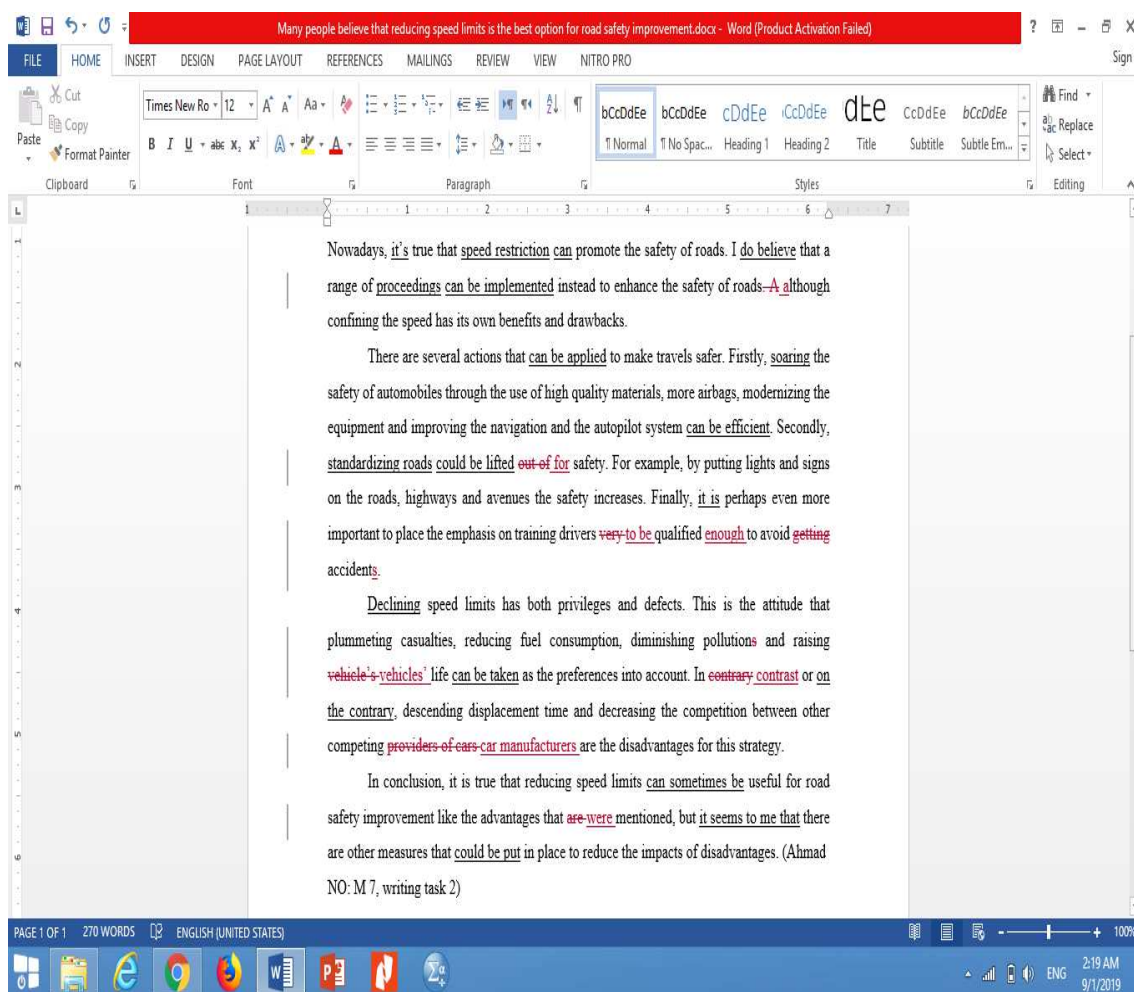

Figure 1. An excerpt from a participant in the email group

The following is excerpted from another (male) participant, Mohsen, from the *Telegram* group. As it is obvious from the image, the short piece of writing is not qualified to be called an essay, as long as it is very short; with no rhetorical organization of introduction, body nor conclusion. The opening is the phrase *Drilling rig*, the tone is too personal and the sentences contain many grammatical, spelling, punctuation, and socio-pragmatic errors. The deictic expression *here* indicates that the writer is either expecting the reader to share the same background knowledge with him or has used an erroneous opening phrase. In the second sentence, the possessive adjective *its* was supposed to be the demonstrative pronoun with a contracted to be verb *it's*. However, Mohsen has taken the intimate and quick nature of the messenger granted and anticipates the reader would make sense of this informal style. The same is true of *im*, which should be interpreted as 'I'm'. The proper names Iran and Amir Kabir have been written with lower case initials. The exclamation mark and the following informal echo question in the third sentence are all indicative of genuine informal style. More instances of informal style could be addressed in the remainder of the text.
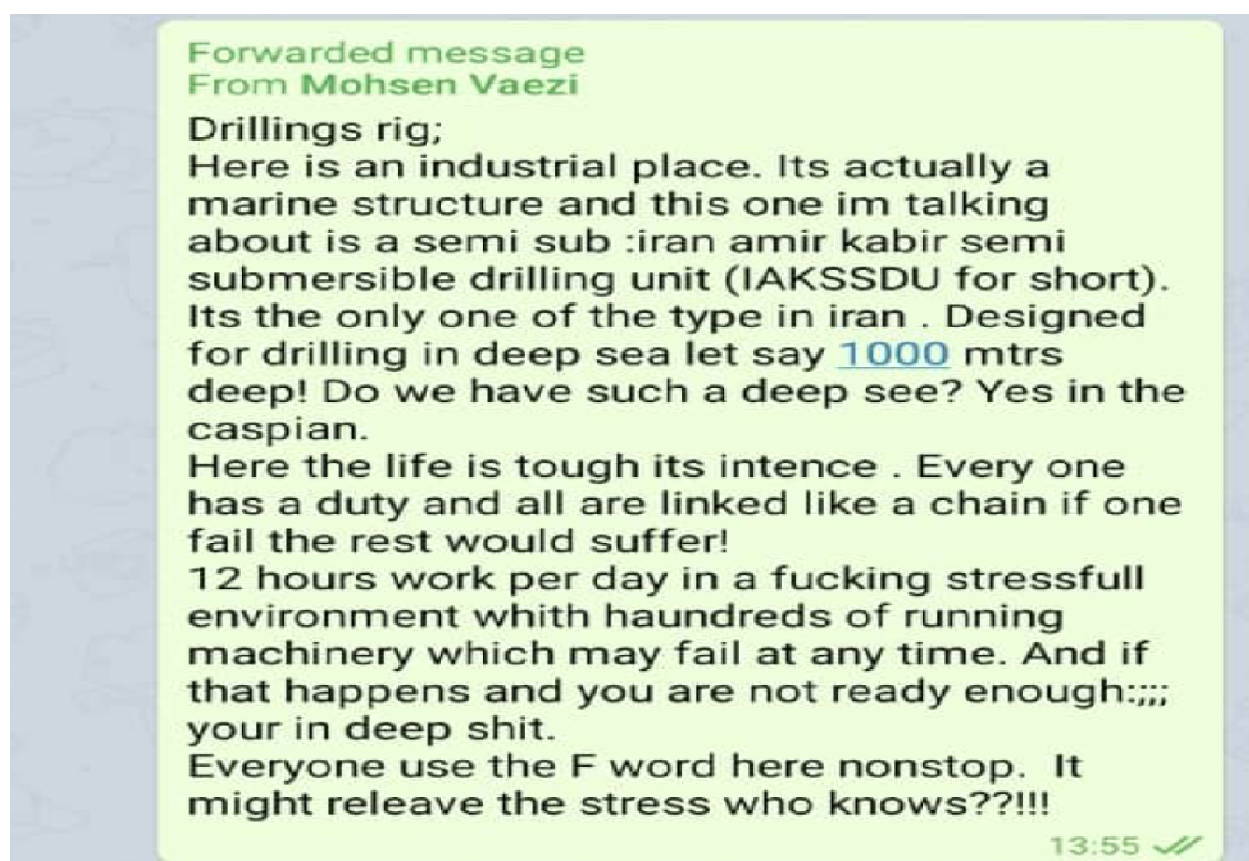

Figure 2. An excerpt from a participant in the Telegram Group

3.5. Procedure

Firstly, the research context was chosen mainly because of the researchers' access to university students who had already studied English in institutes and reached a range of levels of proficiency. Secondly, a sample of 30 students were selected conveniently from among 60 students. Thirdly, the students were divided into two experimental groups (*Telegram* group and email group). Fourthly, the two groups received eight sessions of instructions on narrative writing on every day topics. Next, the students in both groups were asked to send their essays via *Telegram* and email, respectively. Then, the researcher analyzed, calculated and compared the extracted texts for the language style indicators (formality and informality). The *Telegram* messages and e-mail messages of university students were collected over 2 months (8 weeks) after the students received the same treatment. Finally, the results were tabulated and the findings were presented. Prior to the experimental phase of the study, a pilot study was carried out with 3 students who had similar characteristics to the selected sample of participants for the study to locate the possible errors in the identification and calculating frequency and percentages of the formality features.

3.6. Results

The first research question was intended to explore whether there is any significant difference between using *Telegram* and email through applying the formality styles taxonomy. To answer the first question, the data were analyzed descriptively. Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of the five indices measuring formality styles in the texts written by Iranian EFL learners through using *Telegram* and e-mail.

Table 1. Paired Samples Statistics of comparing formality styles through Telegram and email

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Contraction Email	125.73	15	5.035	1.300
	Contraction *Telegram*	126.00	15	4.359	1.125
Pair 2	Modal Verbs Email Formal	33.20	15	3.932	1.015
	Modal Verbs *Telegram* Formal	24.13	15	2.642	.682
Pair 3	Modal Verbs Email Informal	20.13	15	3.815	.985
	Modal Verbs *Telegram* Informal	22.07	15	2.219	.573
Pair 4	Opening Sentence Email Formal	87.27	15	8.908	2.300
	Opening Sentence *Telegram* Formal	70.80	15	5.870	1.516
Pair 5	Opening Sentence Email Informal	15.20	15	3.144	.812
	Opening Sentence *Telegram* Informal	18.00	15	2.299	.594
Pair 6	Vocabulary Email Formal	148.27	15	21.053	5.436
	Vocabulary *Telegram* Formal	136.73	15	12.453	3.215
Pair 7	Vocabulary Email Informal	30.80	15	9.306	2.403

	Vocabulary *Telegram* Informal	31.60	15	4.925	1.272
Pair 8	Questions Email Formal	8.60	15	1.993	.515
	Questions *Telegram* Formal	6.00	15	1.254	.324
Pair 9	Questions Email Informal	5.87	15	1.302	.336
	Questions *Telegram* Informal	7.47	15	1.302	.336

As displayed in Table 1, texts sent via *Telegram* (120 texts) and e-mail (120) had several differences. As the main feature in descriptive statistics of Table 1, the index of mean for all five categories in *Telegram* and emails essays were compared. The texts sent through *Telegram* contained more contractions (M=126.00), as compared to the texts sent by emails (M=125.73). In addition, the average number of formal modal verbs in the *Telegram* messages was lower (M=24.13) in comparison to formal modal verbs in emails (M=33.20), while the average number of informal modal verbs in the *Telegram* messages was higher (M=22.07) than informal modal verbs in emails (M=20.13).

Furthermore, the *Telegram* texts contained less formal opening sentences (M=70.80) than formal opening sentences in emails (M=87.27). The *Telegram* messages contained more opening informal sentences (M=18.00) than informal opening sentences in emails (M=15.00). Also, the *Telegram* texts contained fewer formal questions (M=6.00) than formal questions in emails (M=8.60). The *Telegram* essays contained more informal questions (M=7.47) than informal questions in emails (M=5.87). Finally, the *Telegram* messages contained fewer examples of formal vocabulary (M=136.73) than informal vocabulary in emails (M=148.27). The *Telegram*s contained more informal vocabulary (M=31.60) than informal vocabulary in emails (M=30.80).

As proven by the aforementioned data in the first phase of statistics, the *Telegram* informality of writing styles is more than the same items written through email essays although email essays surpass essays written through *Telegram* as regards formality styles. In the second phase of presenting results, any significant differences between formality styles were sought:

Table 2. The comparison of formality styles used in Telegram and email essays

		Paired Differences 95% Confidence			Sig. (2-
		Upper	t	df	tailed)
Pair 1	Contraction Email – Contraction *Telegram*	3.842	1.763	14	.100
Pair 2	Modal Verbs Email Formal – Modal Verbs *Telegram* Formal	11.133	9.411	14	.000

Pair 3	Modal Verbs Email Informal – Modal Verbs *Telegram* Informal	.057	-2.083	14	.056
Pair 4	Opening Sentence Email Formal – Opening Sentence *Telegram* Formal	23.274	5.188	14	.000
Pair 5	Opening Sentence Email Informal – Opening Sentence *Telegram* Informal	-.449	-2.554	14	.023
Pair 6	Vocabulary Email Formal – Vocabulary *Telegram* Formal	20.226	2.846	14	.013
Pair 7	Vocabulary Email Informal – Vocabulary *Telegram* Informal	3.260	-.423	14	.679
Pair 8	Questions Email Formal – Questions *Telegram* Formal	3.969	4.072	14	.001
Pair 9	Questions Email Informal – Questions *Telegram* Informal	-1.054	-6.287	14	.000

The skewedness and kurtosis values for all the data sets were within the range of + 2 and – 2, indicating the normality of all sets of data on a descriptive level. The following section has illustrated the differences between various pairs:

As of the first formality styles factor, the difference between frequencies of contractions in *Telegram* texts and emails was significant at ($p \leq 0.100$). This significant difference indicated that the participants in the *Telegram* group used contractions more significantly than email participants.

There was a significant difference between the *Telegram* and email groups with regard to informal modal verb frequencies ($p \leq 0.056$), as the second formality styles factor. This significant difference indicated that the participants using *Telegram* employed informal modal verbs significantly more than email participants. Also, the difference between formal modal verbs frequencies in *Telegram* and emails was significant ($p \leq 0.000$). This significant difference suggested that the participants in the email group used formal modal verbs significantly more often than the *Telegram* participants.

As regards the third formality styles factor, the difference between formal opening sentences frequencies in *Telegram* and emails was also significant ($p \leq 0.000$). This significant difference indicated that the participants who used emails used formal opening sentences significantly more often than the *Telegram* participants. In addition, the difference between informal opening sentences frequencies in *Telegram* and emails was significant ($p \leq 0.023$),

too. This significant difference showed that the participants utilizing *Telegram* used informal opening sentences significantly more than email participants.

In relation to the fourth formality styles factor, there was a significant difference between formal vocabulary frequencies in *Telegram* and emails (p≤0.013). This significant difference meant that the participants in the email group made use of formal vocabulary significantly more often than the *Telegram* participants. Also, a significant difference was observed between *Telegram* and email groups in terms of informal vocabulary frequencies (p≤0.679). This significant difference indicated that the participants in the *Telegram* group used informal vocabulary significantly more often than the email participants.

As for the fifth formality styles factor, the difference between formal questions frequencies in *Telegram* and emails was significant (p≤0.001). This significant difference implied that the participants in the email group used formal questions significantly more often than the *Telegram* participants. Eventually, there was a significant difference between *Telegram* and email groups regarding informal question frequencies (p≤ 0.000). This significant difference indicated that the participants using *Telegram* used informal questions significantly more than the email participants.

4. Discussion

The first research question aimed to identify whether there is any significant difference between texts written and sent by Iranian intermediate students using two types of technology devices (i.e., e-mail and *Telegram*) with regard to language styles (formality and informality). Considering Epstein's (2013) framework with the indices measuring formality styles, five features (1. Contractions, 2. Modal verbs, 3. Questions, 4.Opening sentences, 5. Vocabulary) were included in our analysis. Quantitative analysis of the data revealed a significant difference between the *Telegram* and e-mail texts based on a linear combination of formality styles measures. The findings of this study suggested that the essays written by university students through *Telegram* differed significantly from those written through e-mail.

The results of the current study are compatible with the inquiry conducted by Ingram and Sasaki (2003), which demonstrated that information and communication technology could be used to support teaching and learning, including major and minor facets of the curriculum and using social media applications and email had significant effect on students' writing ability. We saw that the participants of the current study were completely motivated to cooperate in the process of research and wrote various essays on various selected topics and this showed that using technology (here, *Telegram* and email) had positive effect on their

writing through distinguishing the writing styles (informal and formal). Through achieving this significant result, the current study showed that a well-balanced approach to incorporating technology, pedagogy and content needs will provide an effective learning environment for students so as to improve their writing capabilities and awareness.

The results of the present study also confirm the conclusions drawn in previous research (Beauvois, 1992; Chun, 1994; Kern, 1995; Mc Quiggan et al., 2015; Büschken & Allenby, 2017; Xodabande, 2017) that computer and communication technology have gained increasing importance in language education and creation of the possibilities for new forms of behavior, new literacies, new genres, new identities, and new pedagogies of language teaching. Our results unequivocally are in compliance with Xodabande (2017), who analyzed the pronunciation changes of Iranian learners of English over a period of time through comparing pretest and posttest results utilizing an on-line messaging system. In both our study and Xodabande's (2017) study, the effect of the social media was found adequately significant. Our findings also proved that the messages sent by the email group were significantly different from the messages written by the participants in the Telegram group, based on the scale of formality style. In view of the findings of the present study and previous research, it can be claimed that on-line Internet-based instructions are highly effective and should be promoted due to their compelling and promising opportunities.

With reference to the second research question, this study sought to explore whether informal elements of Epstein's (2013) framework are mostly applied in *Telegram*. We found that Iranian writers have a strong tendency to use informal language more often in *Telegram*s rather than in emails. However, the language used in emails is not comparable with the formality observed in native speakers' email exchanges. Our results are in line with the findings of the previous research by Mehrpour and Mehrzad (2013). As an uncommon instance of using technology applications to explore the Iranian emails of requests and offers, Mehrpour and Mehrzad's (2013) study revealed that Iranians used more straightforward structures in regards to requests in contrast with the native English writers. In that review, however, the local English journalists had connected the modals *could* and *would* in various messages, they had a tendency to request some help utilizing the less formal modal *can*. These distinctions may have been caused by the socio-cultural background. Iranians, who might be viewed as following the estimation of cooperation, demonstrate a great deal of worry about the recipient's negative face and attempt to regard it by any conceivable means. Despite what might be expected, English individuals are all the more cordial, private and easygoing, and rarely pick at such annoying traditions. The present investigation found that the Iranian

writers' compliance with convention of styles in *Telegram* messages and emails is associated with modular verbs that indicate more formal styles.

The findings of this research can make room for the argument that technology-related applications for educational purposes have positive effect on learners' realization of formality variations across different applications (Hassan, 2018). Each application (here, *Telegram* and email) by nature implies the use of certain types of linguistic and paralinguistic features to mark formality. In general, *Telegram* was found to be less formal than emails. Another argument to put forth is the high potential for the application of formality frameworks to the cyber world: it was proved that Epstein's (2013) framework could be easily adopted, adapted and used to evaluate the formality level of discourses on different environments.

5. Conclusion

Adopting a quantitative corpus-based research design, this study made a comprehensive comparison of formality styles in Iranian EFL university students' writing analyzing five indices from Epstein's (2013) framework: 1. Contractions, 2. Modal verbs 3. Questions 4. Opening sentences 5. Vocabulary. Utilizing different tables of descriptive and inferential statistics for measuring the aforementioned indices as well as employing appropriate analyzing procedures, the researcher came to the conclusion that texts written and sent by *Telegram* differs significantly from e-mails. In conclusion, the study has shown that most EFL university students' essays through *Telegram* contained the basic elements of informal structures. However, the essays written through emails on different subjects contained mostly formal styles of writing. It can be inferred from the above analysis that people have a sensibly lucid idea of convention when it comes to different environments and for specific purposes.

Pedagogically, the significant difference between formality styles of *Telegram* and emails may urge teachers to improve relevant teaching and materials to enrich their writing teaching processes. To this end, EFL teachers are recommended to focus their efforts on using technology devices such as *Telegram* and emails to improve their students' writing ability. It is worth mentioning that the source and size of corpus of the current study limited the degree to which generalizations can be drawn from the data. Further studies, therefore, are recommended to be carried out with larger corpora, utilizing formality styles factors in various technological applications to investigate their role in writing domain. In addition to the considerations raised in this study, future research should also draw on the following guidelines:

1) Formality is higher when the amount of shared context between speakers is low (Heylighen & Dewaele, 1999). This means intimacy between language users would reduce formality. In the case of the formality in the essays written in this study, the students had only flimsy acquaintance with the researchers and came from different walks of life; hence, the intimacy between them was fairly and expectedly less, rendering more formality in their writing.

2) Formality is higher when speakers dislike one another (Brown & Fraser, 1979). Though this consideration is of little concern to the current study, it might be an intervening factor in other similar studies.

3) Speakers adapt their language in order to match the linguistic style of those with whom they are interacting (Danescu-Niculescu-Mizil, 2013). Cumulative adjustments and cognitive alignments are constantly in action when people communicate with one another. Some variation in the formality styles might be anticipated in the same manuscript by the same individual; however, the general tendency should be associated with the dominating style.

Some potential pedagogical implications for L2 writing instruction and utilizing technology in classrooms can be drawn from the findings above. First, using technology devices have been proved to effectively help EFL learners to improve their language proficiency. They motivate learners toward better understanding and internalizing a foreign language; they are a manifestation of real life and provide lucid interactional situations, creating chances to use different aspects of language learning that are not quite suitable to be used in classrooms due to time limitations. Secondly, university students, teachers and instructors would gain a better understanding of technology contexts to enhance their sensitivity to language styles in social media. Finally, by using technology programs such as email and *Telegram*, teachers can motivate students to be engaged in learning the foreign language with more confidence anytime anywhere with anybody.

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THE IMPACT OF IMMERSIVE STRATEGY WITH ENGLISH VIDEO CLIPS ON EFL STUDENTS' SPEAKING PERFORMANCE: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY AT SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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Abstract

This study aimed at investigating the effects of an immersive strategy using English video clips on students' speaking performance. A quasi-experimental design was employed in this study. The study comprised 45 students; 23 in the experimental group (EG) class using English video clips and 22 in the alternative group (AG) class using English audio CD's. All teaching materials used in this study were selected from YouTube. A pre-test and a post-test were implemented in each of the groups. Data were analyzed statistically using SPSS to obtain the mean, standard deviation, and undertake t-tests. The results showed that the students participating in the immersive strategy through English video clips group outperformed the students subjected to the immersive strategy through English audio. The findings have pedagogical impacts for EFL teachers, teacher trainees, practitioners and policy makers to employ English video clips to improve students' speaking performance.

Keywords: Immersive Strategy; English video clips; EFL; students' speaking performances

1. Introduction

The development of education and technology in the contemporary world is increasing rapidly (Saeedi & Biri, 2016), and mastering the English language has become a necessity in this era of globalization. Rapid growth in both the transportation and information sectors have enabled people to interact with others without any limitations in terms of time, distance and place. Unfortunately, a good understanding of this international language as required for these interactions is still an obstacle for many people in Indonesia (Lie, 2007). English lessons have been taught in Indonesia from junior high school up to university level. Over the past two

decades the teaching-learning of EFL speaking skills in schools for non-native language learners has become a potential area of research (Göktürk, 2016). Speaking is one of the most important skills in EFL that should be acquired well by students. However, this ability becomes a problem for students to master for various reasons (Bozatli, 2003; Feng, 2007). Firstly, it consists of a complex cognitive processing task that is difficult for EFL learners to accomplish. In this case, it requires students to employ linguistic, non-linguistic and contextual parameters such as body language, mimicry and gestures as well as nuances of spoken English to construct meaning through producing utterances (Brisk, 2006; Bygate, 2006: Bygate 2009 in Seidhofer & Knapp; Saint-Leger, 2009). Psychological factors, such as anxiety and self-confidence, can also affect EFL learners' oral performance. It is common for such students to be affected by these factors when learning speaking skills (Woodrow, 2006; Tanveer, 2007). Various methods have been employed by teachers to improve students' speaking performance such as the Communicative Approach, Communicative Language Teaching, co-operative learning, Task-based Teaching and so forth. However, students' competence to speak the language for communication with foreigners and others still remains low (Lie, 2007; Muslem & Abbas, 2017). Multimedia technology can be used to enhance students' oral language skills (Christianson, Hoskins, & Watanabe, 2009; Hsu, Wang & Comac, 2008).

Recognising the aforementioned concerns, implementing a suitable strategy for teaching-learning speaking needs to be considered. Alberta Education (2010) has proposed the immersive strategy as one possible approach that can be applied in the instructional process to improve EFL speaking skills. Immersive programs with native teachers of the target language were already undertaken in Montreal, Canada, in 1965 (Genesee et al., 2005). Two effective ways to improve EFL students' speaking performances are living abroad in an English speaking country and learning EFL through an immersive multimedia strategy (Muslem & Abbas, 2017).

Therefore, this research investigates whether the use of an immersive strategy with English video clips can have an effect on increased students' speaking performances at a Private Senior High School in North Aceh in comparison to learning EFL speaking in other ways. This is a new strategy for students in this country, where English is a foreign language, and it is perceived that this method can enhance students' speaking performance.

2. Literature review

2.1. Concepts of immersive learning

Various types of learning can take place with the purpose of enhancing students' achievements in general, and language skills in particular. Immersive learning, for instance, provides opportunities for students to learn a second language in the same way that they learned their first language (Day and Shapson, 1991; Alberta Education, 2010). Genesee (1985) also asserts that immersive learning is a communicative learning method that imitates the important features of first language learning and meets the special needs of second language learners.

In learning a second language, immersive learning is used both as an educational module for content and as a tool for instruction (Pacific Policy Study Center, 2010). Immersive learning offers a direct book in the target language where the learning material is also taught in the target language (Brisk, 2006). The goal is achieved through exposure to linguistic learning materials such as books, videos, CDs, posters, visuals, web-sites, songs and dramatizations (Alberta Education, 2010). Many studies also show that immersive learning produces significant improvements in language proficiency. Genesee (1985), for instance, reports that immersion students achieved significantly higher levels of proficiency in all aspects of the second language in comparison to non-immersion students.

Immersive learning applied in other countries, such as Canada, uses native English speakers as the teachers. In those progams, ESL/EFL students learn, interact and communicate directly with their native English-speaker teachers. Another alternative suggestion to improve students' language skills is travelling to and staying in an English speaking country, where students will have the oppurtunity to interact and communicate directly with native speakers.

Unfortunately, both enrolling students in an immersive program and going to and staying in an English speaking country is very costly and, therefore, not an option for many Indonesian students. However, by utilizing accessible technology, students can actually gain the opportunity to learn and acquire speaking skills easily and naturally without living their country. Mehr and Assadi (2013) argue that the involvement of technology in the instructional process of language learning can still create new ways for instruction.

2.2. Immersive learning strategy through technology to improve speaking

One of the most effective ways to improve students' EFL speaking quality is going abroad to a country in which the English language is used (Muslem & Abbas, 2017). In line with this, Shih and Yang (2008) state that the most effective way to learn a language is to participate in a

community in which the target language is used to communicate in a real-life context. Learners are encouraged to think, speak and write in the target language. By doing such activities, they can improve their English due to the input from the native speaker community into which they are immersed, in meaningful contexts, which enable them to use the target language spontaneously, without mediation of their native language. However, learning the target language in this way is very expensive. Therefore, the use of technology will help students to learn and acquire the target language naturally and spontaneously at a low cost. Thus, by adopting the way of improving students' speaking used when living in the country in which the target language is used, the use of the immersive language learning strategy with English video clips will hopefully produce high quality second language learning skills amongst the students. In this way, students should watch and listen to the video clips used (Hyland, 2004; Ramirez & Alonso Belmonte, 2007) and be immersed in the English learning materials from the English video clips every day. Students can play the clips repeatedly as often as they like until they acquire the pattern of the target language correctly and appropriately. Therefore, technology can, at least partially, substitute the staying abroad strategy while striving to improve students' speaking performance. This claim is based on the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982).

Technology enables ESL language teachers, instructors and other practitioners to obtain teaching-learning materials for their students' learning activities (Chinnery, 2006; Herrington and Kervin, 2007). As a technology product, video clips are part of a multimedia and multi-channel technology. Video clips offer a variety of advantages in language learning as their content is easy to comprehend through the combination of audio and visual input. Ilin, Kutlu, and Kutluay (2013) believe that videos provide many advantages for language learning when used appropriately. One of the most essential advantages is providing useful input and resources for learning languages (Shih and Yang, 2008). Videos provide appropriate visual and audio input that help EFL learners to acquire the language (Herrington and Kervin, 2007; Gezegin, 2014).

2.3. Previous studies in language learning through technology

Many researchers have conducted research in the fields of teaching-learning English by using technology such as computers, the Internet, compact discs, DVDs, English videos and other audiovisual aids (AbuSeileek, 2007; Chang & Lehman, 2002; Chinnery, 2006; Herrington and Kervin, 2007; Ismaili, 2013; Kavaliauskiene, 2012; Liu & Chu, 2010; Nguyen, 2008; Savas, 2012; Sirmandi & Sardareh, 2016; Shahrina Md Nordin, 2010; Sidman-Taveau, 2005; Sihem,

2013; Voogt, Fisser, Pareja Roblin, Tondeur, & van Braak, 2013; Yang, Chen, & Chang Jeng, 2010). Diyyab et al. (2013) reported that the use of a multimedia-based program improved students' oral fluency skills. Murat (2012) also reported that the use of Internet-based video lessons for teaching English word stress to Turkish EFL students resulted in improved students' fluency and oral production skills.

Teaching EFL/ESL has also been conducted for a long time through immersion programs with the involvement of native speakers or teachers of the target language such as in Canada and the USA (Alberta Education, 2010; Ballinger, 2013; Chamot, 1999; Clark, 2009; Cummins, 2000; Fortune, 2000; Genesee, 1985; Lenker & Rhodes, 2007; Pease-Pretty, 2004; Stein & Schools, 1999; Genesee et al., 2005). According to Er and Mirici (2015), immersion programs enable students to understand the form of the English language and know how to use it for communication. In immersive learning, students learn a second language as they learn their first language (Alberta Education, 2010); therefore, immersion programs are the best way to enhance students' speaking. They offer a similar form of education to that implemented in an English speaking country without staying in the country and without involving students' families (Genesee, 1985). These programs can be facilitated by a native speaker or teacher of the target language. However, the present study employs the immersive strategy with English video clips to improve students' speaking performance without a native speaker. This strategy also uses the teacher as a role model. The teacher acts to facilitate the process of teaching-learning English in the class. This approach motivates the students to learn because they have authentic native learning resources through the English video clips. This immersive strategy with English video clips enables the students to learn not only the target language but also the context of the culture of the language (Ranjbar and Ghonsooly, 2017). Therefore, the current research aims to assess if this approach to EFL learning increases students' competency, skills and knowledge of the English language.

3. The present study

3.1. Research question

The objective of this study is to investigate whether there is a significant difference between the performance of students who are taught by using English video clips and those students who are taught by using only audio compact discs.

3.2. Participants

Fourty five students of English from the existing classes of Senior High School Students from Raudhatul Fuqara, Paya Bakong, North Aceh, were selected randomly for this study to investigate the effects of the immersive strategy through English video clips on their speaking performance. This initial group was split into two groups (an immersive strategy using video clips, or an immersive strategy using audio CDs) and students were assigned for experimental teaching using two different treatments. The groups consisted of 23 and 22 students respectively. They were selected using random sampling techniques from those existing classes. The researchers checked for equivalence in the students' speaking proficiency by referring to study reports used at the school and through summative tests. The results showed that initially there were no significant differences between the students' English language proficiency between the two classes.

3.3. Design and procedure

This study employed a descriptive quantitative method. A quasi-experimental study with a pre-test/post-test design was employed in this study. The immersive strategy using English video clips and audio compact discs were the independent variables, whereas students' speaking performance was the dependent variable. The authors could freely choose the group of students to give either of the treatments; the immersive strategy with video or the one with audio CDs. The first group was taught with the immersive strategy through English video clips and the other group was taught using immersive strategy through English audio compact discs.

In order to obtain objective data, the authors prepared a set of rules to be followed by the students and made sure all students followed these throughout the experiment. This was done to prevent both groups from undertaking the same activities during the process of teaching-learning through the immersive activities and from interacting with each other until the treatments and post-tests had been completed.

The learning materials used in the present study were downloaded from YouTube. The authors selected video clips that were performed by native speakers of the target language (English). The topics of the learning materials covered (1) making and cancelling an appointment, (2) expressions of making, accepting and declining an invitation and (3) expressions of congratulations and compliments. Before using the materials, the authors sent them to the senior English teachers at the school to ensure that these learning materials were suitable for the students' level and the school's curriculum. Those teachers stated that these learning materials were matched to the students' needs and their level of skills.

Prior to experimentation, students in both groups were given speaking pretests through interviews to assess their competence levels. The treatments lasted for ninety hours. Students in both groups were given the materials to immerse in during the process of teaching-learning. Students were asked to watch and listen to the materials as instructed by the teachers, every day for a minimum of 10-15 minutes until they covered 90 hours. If they wished so, students could learn for more than 15 minutes each day. Watching and listening to materials could be done at any time inside or outside the classroom, as chosen by students themselves. Within the classroom, students could practice together, in their assigned groups. In the classroom, teachers observed the activities and at the end of each activity, students were given comments and input for improving the quality of their English speaking skills. It was hoped that in this way students could improve their speaking automatically and spontaneously without mediation of their native language.

All activities were undertaken in their respective groups. There was time each day for students to discuss matters in their respective groups with their teacher. After the treatment was completed, the two groups were given a post-test to see which group displayed higher achievements in their speaking performance. The post-test was conducted through face to face interviews with each of the participating students. While undertaking the interviews, the authors recorded the students' speeches to ensure their scores can be assessed objectively and precisely.

3.4. Data collection and analysis

The primary source of data was from the students' speaking performances. The students' speaking skills were tested through face to face interviews. These interviews were recorded to enable the assessors to mark them objectively. The data were analyzed based on an assessment rubric developed to assess the students' oral proficiency, broken down into the components of pronunciation, accuracy, intonation, fluency and integration. They were analyzed through descriptive and inferential statistical methods using the Mann-Whitney independent sample t-test, Wilcoxon paired independent sample t-test and Friedman paired independent sample t-test. They were analyzed through statistical procedures which consisted of the means, standard deviations and the T-tests. For the purpose of this study, the researcher used the SPSS computer program to process and analyze the data.

4. Results

The results from this study showed that the immersive strategy with English video clips improved the students' speaking performance the most. Table 1 shows the results from both the pre-tests and the post-tests for both the video and the audio groups. The mean of the pre-test scores for the video group was 57 and 58 for the audio group. The difference was only 1 (one) point, which was not significant. Meanwhile, the mean score from the post-test for the video class was 76 and the mean score for the audio class was 67. The difference was 9 points which was quite considerable. In general, it can be concluded that the use of the immersive strategy with English video clips improved the students' speaking performance significantly, as evidenced in Table 1.

Table 1. Results from pre-tests and Post-tests for both video and audio groups

Test	Group	N	Median	Min	Max	Mean±SD	P
Pre-test	Video	23	55	50	70	56.82±6.46	0.669
	Audio	22	55	50	70	57.95±6.11	
Post-test	Video	23	75	70	85	75.68±5.41	0.000
	Audio	22	70	60	75	67.05±5.49	

Table 1 reports the results from the pre-tests and the post-tests for both the video and the audio groups on various aspects of speaking: *pronunciation*, *accuracy*, *intonation*, *fluency*, and *integration*. It shows from the comparison of the scores from the video and the audio classes using the Friedman paired independent sample t-test that the p value from the pre-test as compared to the post-test scores was lower than the degree of significance (0.05) for both the video and the audio classes in all aspects of speaking measured. Hence, it can be concluded that the students' speaking proficiency in both the video and the audio classes improved significantly in all the aspects of speaking measured after they were taught by using the immersive strategies with English video clips or with audio CDs.

Table 2 shows that the p values for each aspect in both classes were different. The students' speaking proficiency in both classes improved significantly in all aspects. However, the improvement was different for each aspect. The students in the video group displayed higher results in terms of pronunciation, accuracy, fluency and integration. The intonation aspect also improved significantly in the video class. Additionally, the students in the audio group obtained their highest results in terms of fluency whilst the lowest improvement was visible in the aspect of pronunciation for the audio group. Hence, it can be concluded that the

use of the immersive strategy with either English video clips or with English audio CDs significantly improved the students' speaking in all aspects.

Table 2. Results from pre-tests and post-tests for the video and the audio groups for all aspects of speaking

Groups	Aspects	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Video	Pronunciation	0.000
	Accuracy	0.000
	Intonation	0.001
	Fluency	0.000
	Integration	0.000
Audio	Pronunciation	0.025
	Accuracy	0.014
	Intonation	0.005
	Fluency	0.000
	Integration	0.005

5. Discussion

The implementation of an immersive strategy through English video clips significantly improved the students' oral proficiency for pronunciation, accuracy, intonation, fluency and integration. Therefore, we can see that all these aspects of speaking can be improved due to immersion in English video clips (Ismaili, 2013; Sihem, 2013). Learners played the English video clips repeatedly as they wished to improve their speaking performance by both watching and listening to the video (Sirmandi & Sardareh, 2016). Additionally, the English video clips were spoken by native speakers, allowing students to watch the clips in a naturally spoken context (Nguyet & Mai, 2012; Savas, 2012). As a result, they improved their speaking naturally. These findings are consistent with those of Genesee (1985), who claims that immersion students attain significantly higher levels of proficiency in all aspects of the second language in comparison to non-immersion students. Muslem and Abbas (2017) also state that using immersive multimedia learning with peer support significantly improved students' performances in all measures of oral production in speaking skills. Sulaiman, Muhammad, Ganapathy, Khairuddin, and Othman (2017) prove that students achieve higher scores in language skills when using video input compared to the audio-only input. Allou (2013) also notices that using audio-visual materials will improve students' speaking skills. Using audio-visual input in an EFL classroom reveals positive effects for the instructional process (Gezegin, 2014; Mathew and Alidmat, 2013; Muslem & Abbas, 2017; Muslem, Mustafa, Usman, & Rahman, 2017; Ramirez & Alonso Belmonte, 2007; Rania, 2016).

This improvement may occur for the following reasons. Firstly, the use of the English videos with native speakers as the teaching-learning media can have impact on students' performance (Kavaliauskiene, 2012; Savas, 2012). For instance, the students could view the video repeatedly as much as they wanted so that they could obtain the nuances spoken in English, naturally, since they can watch the speaking presented in the video directly, in comparison to only listening to the CD without seeing the person in the video (Sirmandi & Sardareh, 2016; Muslem & Abbas, 2017). Secondly, they can practice with their friends after watching the English video, autonomously and in contextualized situations (Hyland, 2004; Ismaili, 2013; Sihem, 2013). Thirdly, they could assess one another when practicing speaking. In this case, they could help one another during the practice sessions. For example, when one student speaks and another student listens, they can check whether the sentence being said by his interlocutor was correct or not (Muslem & Abbas, 2017). Finally, if they had problems pronouncing words correctly, fluently and with proper intonation, they could replay the video so as to work on their selected speaking aspects (Choe & Seong, 2016; Hyland, 2004; Sabouri, Zohrabi & Osbouei, 2015). Thus, the use of immersive strategy with English video clips was able to enhance the students' speaking performances.

6. Conclusions, limitations and suggestions for further studies

The implementation of an immersive strategy through English video clips improved the students' speaking skills in terms of pronunciation, accuracy, intonation, fluency and integration. In short, the group of students who were taught by using the immersive strategy with English video clips achieved higher scores than those students from the audio CDs group. Yet, this finding is limited to the aspects of speaking in terms of pronunciation, accuracy, intonation, fluency and integration through immersive strategies with English video clips and audio Compact Discs. Additionally, this study took place in a rural area, where students only used English during the immersion program. Lack of exposure to English among students in the school became a problem after finishing this immersion program. Students did not have any opportunities to use English with their friends or others outside the classroom. However, this study has contributed to improvement of students' speaking performance through using immersive technology via English video clips, especially for those students in this rural area. The use of this strategy has also proved to be cheap and enjoyable. EFL teachers, policy makers, curriculum designers, and material designers are recommended to incorporate this technology strategy in teaching English both at schools and at higher education levels. It is also suggested that students use English video clips from YouTube as a media platform to enhance

their English competence for various communication purposes. Further research should also be conducted that would engage a large number of students and focus on other aspects of speaking, including rate, gestures, body language and cultural values of the target language, to enable students to speak English automatically and spontaneously.

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THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS USED IN CALL STUDIES:
A SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

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Abstract

In the last three decades, there has been a great interest in the field of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). As a newly flourished area, CALL borrowed or adapted theories from other disciplines, such as second language acquisition, linguistics, psychology and education; however, it is still questioned how these theories are modified, utilized and integrated into CALL research. In this study, the articles published in *Computer Assisted Language Learning, System, British Journal of Educational Technology,* and *Language Learning and Technology* between 1997 and 2018 were analyzed and the suggested theoretical frameworks for the research studies were examined. First, the articles without any explicit theoretical frameworks were eliminated. Second, the articles with specific theories were categorized and discussed in categories. At the end of the study, it was found that the prominent theoretical frameworks used in the last two decades were Social Constructivism, Sociocultural Theory, and Interactionist SLA in CALL studies. As for further studies, it can be claimed that these prominent theories will continue to be adopted by the researchers no matter what kind of new tools and platforms emerge for educational purposes. These findings might help researchers to better understand the past and the present situation of CALL research and to design further studies.

Keywords: Computer Assisted Language Learning; theoretical framework; Social Constructivism; Sociocultural Theory; Interactionist Second Language Acquisition

1. Introduction

The importance of theories in any discipline cannot be underestimated. Without established theories, the results of the research studies can constitute no more than a collection of data in the field of practice (Perraton, 2010). Depending on the theoretical frameworks, scholars can ask questions, test hypotheses, design their research studies, conduct some empirical studies and predict the future occurrence of the actions. From the educational perspective, the researchers test the validity of learning theories and try to make generalizations referring to the results of their studies in line with the current learning theories.

As a field that emerged towards the end of the 1970s, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has been of interest to the researchers studying language learning and technology. Warschauer and Healey (1998) described three phases of CALL, which they call Behaviouristic, Communicative, and Integrative. The names of the phases were inspired by the learning theories of those periods. For example, Behavioristic CALL was the first phase of CALL, and it "… was based on the then-dominant behaviorist theories of learning" (Warschauer, 1996: 3). Then, Communicative CALL appeared in the 1980s, because Communicative Language Teaching emerged as a new approach all over the world. As can be seen, the theories used in CALL studies were parallel with the then-dominant learning theories. However, there were no explicitly proposed CALL theories in the literature. The theories were borrowed or adapted from other disciplines, such as second language acquisition (SLA), linguistics, psychology, and education. However, it is still questioned how these theories are adapted, utilized and integrated into CALL research, and what kind of theories were followed in research studies.

On the other hand, some researchers questioned the necessity of CALL-specific theories. Bax (2003, 2011) claimed that the use of computers had been going on through a process of "normalization", and there is no need to find a specific CALL theory. Chapelle (2005) claimed that CALL studies should be grounded on the interactionist view of SLA, and the technique for analyzing the data should be discourse analysis in order to better understand the interaction patterns in conversations. In other words, she claimed that there was no need to find a specific theory for CALL. However, the interactionist SLA theories were criticized for dealing "… exclusively with linguistic dimensions and lacks provision for dealing with cultural dimensions of language learning" (Kern, 2006: 186).

Social Constructivism is another theory that has prominently featured in research studies. The founder of social constructivism was Vygotsky, who emphasized the role of language and culture in cognitive development and proposed that learning occurs as a result of social interaction among learners. According to him, the learners construct their knowledge by interacting with one another. Felix (2002) argued that social constructivism, in which learners construct new information combining their previous experience and newly learned knowledge, could be implemented in CALL studies. Hubbard and Levy (2016) acknowledged that "… social constructivist describes the mind as a distributed entity that extends beyond the bounds of the body into the social environment" (p. 31).

Another commonly accepted theory in CALL studies is the Sociocultural Theory, which grew from social constructivism. It focuses on the social and cultural situatedness of learner activities. O'Rourke (2005) mentioned that the interaction among the learners could not be

reduced to isolated interaction, and the cultural values of the learners are also included in computer-mediated communication. Additionally, the widespread Internet usage has allowed collaborative and cooperative learning, and the ordinary users of the Internet started to create communities of practice – a term coined by Lave and Wenger (1991). The studies that focused on the nature of communities of practice embraced the principles of the sociocultural theory.

Recently, Hubbard and Levy (2016) summarized these three learning theories – the Interactionist view of SLA, Social Constructivism and the Sociocultural Theory – as the main theories that could stand out. In addition to these three learning theories, they listed eight sources of theories in language education and technology as follows:

- *Theory ensemble:* Combining multiple theories in a single study to capture a broader range of perspectives.
- *Theory synthesis:* Creating a new theory by integrating parts of existing ones.
- *Theory construction:* Creating a new theory specifically for some subdomain of CALL.
- *Theory refinement:* Cycles of theory adjustment based on accumulated research findings.
- *Atheoretical CALL:* Research and practice with no explicit theory stated.
- *Theory borrowing:* Using a theory of SLA etc. without change.
- *Theory instantiation:* Taking a general theory with a place for technology and/or SLA consideration.
- *Theory adaptation:* Changing one or more elements of a theory from SLA etc. anticipating or in response to the impact of the technology.

According to Hubbard and Levy (2016), the theoretical frameworks of the studies can be constructed, adapted, borrowed, refined or synthesized from the current learning theories. As they mentioned, there is only one study in which the author claimed that he used the CALL theory in the literature (Oller, 1996, cited in Hubbard & Levy, 2016). Thus, it can be understood that the field of CALL has benefitted from other disciplines and the researchers somehow integrate the theories into CALL research studies.

In this systematic review of the literature, it was attempted to determine what kind of theoretical frameworks have been used in the last two decades. This kind of analysis could be helpful to see the overall picture of theoretical frameworks used in the research studies and to speculate upon future directions for CALL research. For this purpose, the articles published between 1997 and 2018 in the prestigious Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) indexed journals

– *British Journal of Educational Technology, System, Computer Assisted Language Learning,* and *Language Learning and Technology* – were analyzed, and the suggested theoretical frameworks in the published research studies were examined. Firstly, 3315 articles published in these journals were downloaded and categorized into separate folders according to their dates. Then, they were added to a reference management software, Mendeley, and the articles were searched for two keywords "theoretical" and "theoretical framework" so that the articles in which the theoretical frameworks were explicitly stated were found. Finally, the articles that focused on language learning/teaching and technology were determined, while the other articles were eliminated. In the end, the authors of 239 articles in total claimed that they had used a specific theoretical framework and these studies were analyzed in terms of the theories embraced throughout the study. Some theories, such as positioning theory (Wu, 2018), concept mapping (Lin, 2016), personal epistemology (Karimi, 2014), were mentioned only once in all data, hence these kinds of studies were ignored.

2. The theoretical frameworks used in CALL research studies

As a result of this systematic review of the literature, some theories were found to be used in CALL research studies. While some of them disappeared in time, some of them emerged as a response to the technological developments in the field. For example, the popularity of educational games in the recent years has led to an increase in the number of studies adopting student engagement as the theoretical framework. In Table 1, the list of the theoretical frameworks mentioned in the studies is presented.

Table 1. The theories used in CALL research studies

The name of the theory	Sample Paper	Journal
Social Constructivism	Thang, S. M., & Bidmeshki, L. (2010)	*CALL Journal*
Sociocultural Theory	Huang, L. S. (2010)	*System*
Interactionist SLA	Grgurovic, M., & Hegelheimer, V. (2007)	*Language Learning & Technology*
Computer Supported Collaborative Learning	Tsuei, M. (2011)	*BJET*
Learning styles and strategies	Adkins, D., & Guerreiro, M. (2018)	*BJET*
Activity Theory	Choi, H., & Kang, M. (2010)	*BJET*
The Community of Inquiry Model	Lomicka, L., & Lord, G. (2007)	*System*
Student Engagement	Vaughan, N., & Cloutier, D. (2017)	*BJET*

TPACK	Cheng, K.-H. (2017)	*CALL Journal*
Technology Acceptance Model	Lau, S. H., & Woods, P. C. (2009)	*BJET*
Self-regulated learning	Lai, C., & Gu, M. (2011)	*CALL Journal*
Multimodal Analysis of Interaction	Guichon, N. (2017)	*Language Learning & Technology*
Theory of Planned Behavior	Yusop, F. D. (2015)	*BJET*

2.1. From 1997 to 2010

Between the years 1997 and 2010, a total of 109 articles were found to include a specific theoretical framework, and they were explicitly mentioned in the manuscripts. The percentages of theories are presented in the following chart.
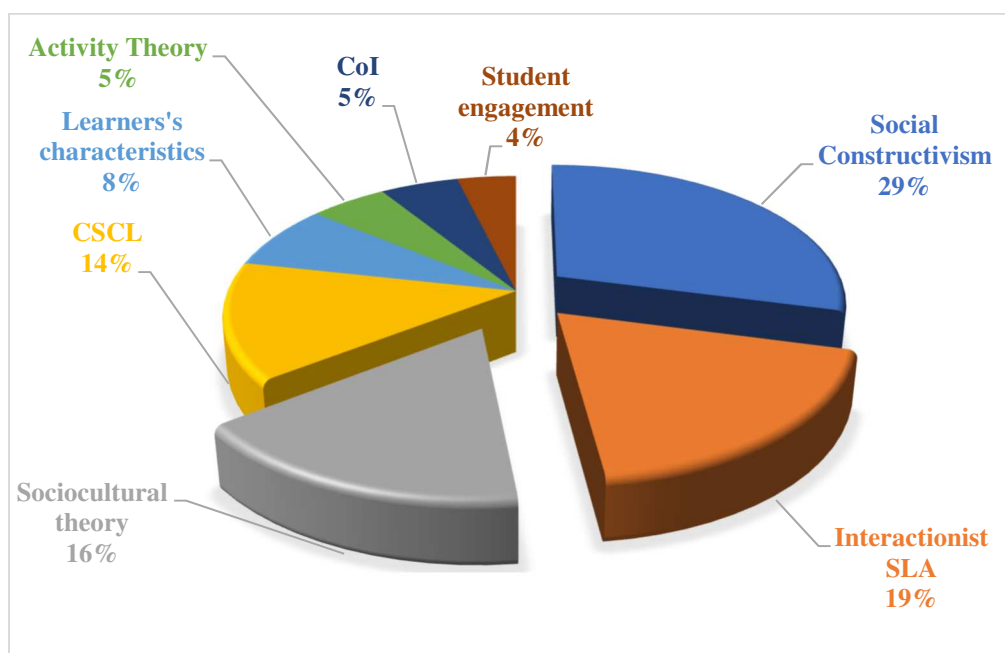
Figure 1. The theoretical framework between the years 1997-2010

As can be seen in Figure 1, the most commonly used learning theory is Social Constructivism, with a percentage of 29%. This finding can be interpreted as the researchers embraced Social Constructivism as the theoretical framework of their studies in almost one-third of articles between 1997 and 2010. Social Constructivism was followed by Interactionist SLA, with a percentage of 19%. In these studies, the most commonly used technique for data analysis was discourse analysis, and the interaction patterns were described as a result of the data analysis. The third most widely used theory was the Sociocultural Theory, and the researchers preferred to include cultural values in the social interactions of the learners. The other theoretical

frameworks were Computer Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL), Learners' Characteristics, Activity Theory, the Community of Inquiry Model, and Student Engagement with the percentages of 14%, 8%, 5%, 5%, and 4%, respectively. Student engagement can be considered as one of the major premises of all learning theories. That is, it is one of the educators' objectives to engage students during the learning tasks; however, student engagement was taken as a theoretical framework in a minimal number of studies.

2.2. From 2011 to 2018

After determining the theories between 1997 and 2010, the articles between 2011 and 2018 were also downloaded, added to Mendeley and analyzed in the same way. After the analysis of the articles, it was found that 130 articles included an explicit theoretical framework and 12 main theories were observed in the data, as presented in Figure 2.
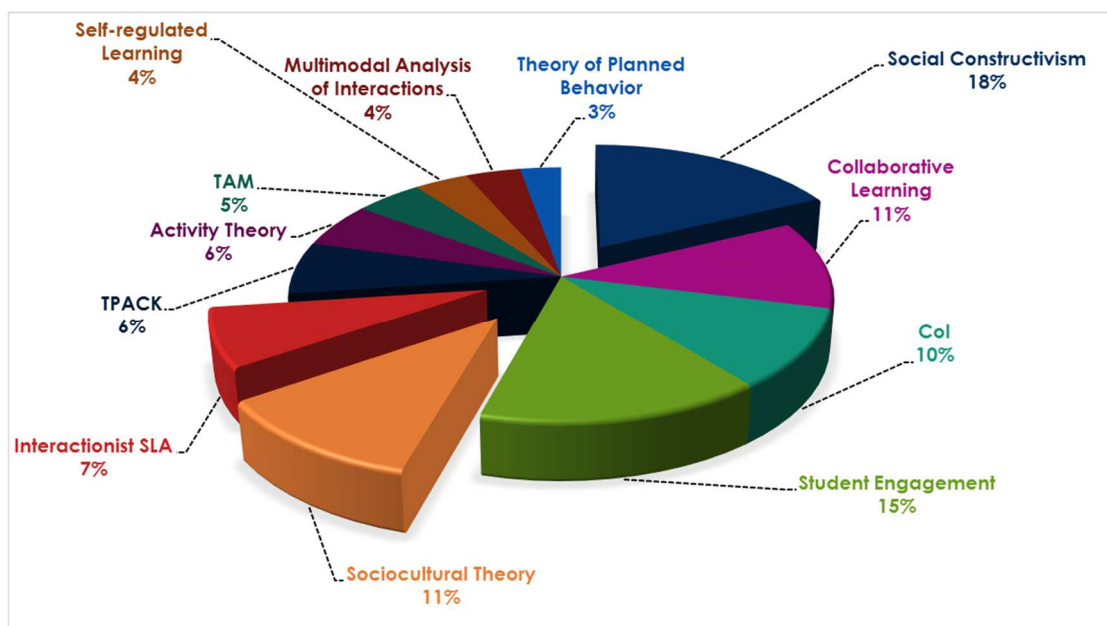

Figure 2. The theoretical framework between the years 2011-2018

As seen in Figure 2, the most commonly mentioned theory is Social Constructivism, with a percentage of 18%, which is similar to the results of the theories used in the articles between 1997 and 2010. Although the percentage of references to Social Constructivism seems lower between 2011-2018, the variety of theories increased in the second phase. Student engagement was mentioned as a theory with a percentage of 15%, and it increased remarkably when compared with the previous period. The proportions of articles that adopted the Sociocultural Theory and CSCL Theory were similar. Although the Sociocultural Theory was estimated, CSCL Theory

interestingly increased in the second phase of the data. These theories were followed by the Community of Inquiry Model (CoI), Interactionist SLA, Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK), Activity Theory, Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), Self-regulated Learning, Multimodal Analysis of Interactions, and Theory of Planned Behavior with percentages of 10%, 7%, 6%, 6%, 5%, 5%, 4%, 4%, and 3%, respectively.

When the results of two different periods were compared, it can easily be noticed that there are some differences and similarities between the phases covered in this study. These differences can be listed as the diversity of the theories, the decrease of articles with learning styles and strategies theories, the increase in the number of studies mentioning student engagement as the theoretical framework, and continuous reference to Social Constructivism, the Interactionist SLA, and the Sociocultural Theory.

The first difference was in the diversity of the learning theories. In the first phase, the number of theories mentioned in the theoretical framework was 8. However, this number increased to 12 in the second phase, which means that more theories emerged in the field of CALL. The newly developed theories after 2011 were TPACK, TAM, Self-Regulated Learning, Multimodal Analysis of Interactions and the Theory of Planned Behavior. The TPACK Model was firstly mentioned by Punya Mishra and Matthew J. Koehler in 2006 and it can easily be guessed that the first studies using TPACK as the theoretical framework are dated after 2010.

Another difference concerned the articles with learning styles and strategies. Although there was a study with a theoretical framework mentioning learning styles and strategies (Tsai & Talley, 2014), it was not common to use them as the theoretical framework of the studies after 2010. This shift can be explained by another result, which is the increase in CoI and CSCL learning theories. There is a move towards collaborative and cooperative work rather than focusing on individual learning. With the widespread use of the Internet, telecollaboration studies have recently attracted the attention of researchers dramatically, which leads to online communities, collaborative learning and shared networking.

Also, there was a great emphasis on student engagement in the second phase. The main reason for this might be the increase in the studies on educational games and M-learning. The studies on educational games and M-learning mostly focus on student engagement. The researchers hypothesize that if students are engaged in the learning process actively, they learn better. Considering the number of studies on educational games and M-learning increased in the second phase, it was understandable to see the increase in student engagement as the theoretical framework.

Finally, as for the similarity between these two phases, it can be stated that there is a continuous reference to Social Constructivism, the Sociocultural Theory, and Interactionist SLA. These three theories were found to be the most appropriate theories by Chapelle (2005), Kern (2006), as well as Hubbard and Levy (2016). They analyzed the theories used in CALL studies and found that they mostly focused on these three theories. As Hubbard and Levy (2016) mentioned, "Vygotsky's [sociocultural] theory supports a collaborative approach and cooperative learning" (p. 30). Since the importance of social interaction increased in the last decade, collaborative approach and cooperative learning have been focused on more recently.

3. The integration of prominent theories in CALL research studies

As one of the results of this study, some of the leading theories which were quite influential in the research studies of the last two decades were determined: Social Constructivism, the Sociocultural Theory, the Interactionist Theory. In this section, these prominent theories are to be discussed in terms of their implementation in research studies.

Social Constructivism

As mentioned above, this theory proposes that learning occurs through social interaction, and the learners construct new knowledge through combining their previous experience with what they are currently learning. This theory was found to be the most frequently used one in both 1997-2010 articles and 2011-2018 articles. The research articles specifically focus on some critical points related to Social Constructivism. For example, in a research study on undergraduate students' perceptions of an online course, the researchers claimed that "online learning, learner training, learner autonomy, and motivation" (Thang & Bidmeshki, 2010, p.3) are supported by Social Constructivism, and because of the focus of the study, they preferred to implement this theory as their theoretical framework. In another study, Wang, Lin and Liao (2012) explained their preference for Social Constructivism as the theoretical framework, stating that "… educational of use of Web (e.g., weblogs) can support and improve highly effective types of learner-to-learner interactions based upon social constructivist learning theory" (p. 140). Finally, Magogwe, Ntereke and Phetlhe (2015) used the concepts of "independent learning, group work, interaction, and communication" while explaining the rationale of their theoretical framework (p.1315).

From these perspectives, it can be claimed that the Internet environments could provide active social interaction, group work and communication opportunities for learners; and researchers prefer to use Social Constructivism as a theoretical framework of their studies. When

the potential educational use of technology for teaching is considered, it is not surprising to see that Social Constructivism has been the most influential theory in the last two decades. More studies based on this theory can be expected in the following years.

Sociocultural Theory

Vygotskyan Sociocultural Theory posits that higher mental functions of humans develop by participating in culturally organized activities using cultural artifacts and by interacting with more experienced others (Lantolf & Thorne, 2009). In addition to social interaction, culture is another relevant term in this theory. Moreover, the communication with a more experienced partner, which was supported by the Zone of Proximal Development Theory (Vygotsky, 1987), gained importance in this framework.

When the studies in this paper are considered, interaction in collaborative writing (Li & Zhu, 2017), collaborative interaction (Peterson, 2009), collaborative dialogue (Zeng & Takatsuka, 2009), and negotiating and constructing meaning (Tan, Ng & Saw, 2010) were among the main concepts of research studies which claimed that their theoretical framework was the Sociocultural Theory. These studies mostly deal with the interaction among the learners and sometimes between the teacher and the learners, and they specifically focus on learning from each other. However, in the Sociocultural Theory, the interaction is expected to occur between a novice and a more experienced partner. It was observed that some researchers analyzed the interaction data among the learners at the same level (Nishioka, 2016). This point should be taken into account for further studies. Moreover, technological facilities allow the researchers to carry out telecollaboration studies more efficiently, and culture is among the essential issues in telecollaboration studies. Based on the Sociocultural Theory, more online intercultural exchange studies can be expected.

Interactionist SLA

Another essential theory observed in the data of this study is Interactionist SLA. Long (1996) emphasized the role of integration in second language development. Then, Chapelle (2003) acknowledged that this theory was appropriate for CALL research. This theory focuses on the importance of interaction for developing language skills, and the researchers mostly analyze the discourse patterns in the interactions of the learners. However, this approach was criticized since it only focuses on the linguistic dimension of communication and ignores the social and cultural elements during the interaction. However, this theory is still widely used as the theoretical framework of the research studies on CALL.

In the light of the present data, the studies within the interactionist SLA theory mostly focus on Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) (Rosell-Aguilar, 2005; Danan, 2010), and the negotiation of meaning (Grgurovic & Hegelheimer, 2007; Yanguas, 2010; Gilbert & Dabbagh, 2005). The researchers believed that learning occurs when learners use the negotiation of meaning functions in their conversation. Since computer-mediated communication studies have increased in number, the body of research on the negotiation of meaning and Interactionist SLA continues to grow. Another dimension in these studies is the TBLT approach and the interaction patterns while completing the tasks are considered as opportunities for language development. Since TBLT is among the current approaches in language teaching, it is not surprising to design studies in accordance with TBLT. However, as criticized by Kern (2006), the studies adopting the Interactionist SLA theory address the linguistic elements ignoring the cultural and social factors. Hence, in the following years, the studies using the Interactionist SLA theory could also integrate cultural dimensions into the studies.

4. Future directions

After reviewing the articles on CALL, it was found that there are still three essential theories, which are quite influential in designing research studies; and this result is consistent with the previous state-of-art articles (Kern, 2006; Chapelle, 2005; Hubbard and Levy, 2016). These three theories – Social Constructivism, the Sociocultural Theory, and Interactionist SLA – have the potential to provide theoretical frameworks for further studies.

It is inevitable for the field of CALL that new technologies and new online platforms emerge for both educational purposes and personal purposes. For example, mobile technologies, educational games, augmented reality, 3D virtual worlds and telecollaboration exchanges between the users of the Internet can be considered as the recently emerged tools and platforms that could be used in educational settings. The literature shows that these new tools and platforms provided a meaningful interaction among learners, increased student engagement level, and support the use of negotiation of meaning functions for the learners (Akayoğlu & Seferoğlu, 2019; Allen, Crosskey, Snow & McNamara, 2014; Baydas & Yilmaz, 2016; Huang, Jang, Machtmes & Deggs, 2012; Reese, Tabachnick & Kosko, 2015, Reinders, 2014; Şad & Göktaş, 2014; Üzüm, Yazan, Avineri & Akayoğlu, 2019). In the following years, it is evident that the studies on the integration of the recently emerged platforms and tools in education will attract the attention of the researchers; however, the researchers will continue to adopt the Sociocultural Theory, Social Constructivism, and the interactionist view of SLA as their central theoretical frameworks.

5. Limitations of this study

This study is limited to the articles published in four journals – *British Journal of Educational Technology, System, Computer Assisted Language Learning,* and *Language Learning and Technology* – indexed in SSCI. Additionally, the articles which explicitly used theoretical framework are taken into account. Although theoretical frameworks in the articles are not expressly mentioned, many studies provide background information, and this might provide a theoretical basis for the study. They might be taken into consideration for further research.

Moreover, research studies on CALL are also published in other journals in educational sciences; however, they were not analyzed in this study. These studies can be searched and analyzed based on specific databases. This kind of analysis can be considered for further research studies, which will provide a broader spectrum for the researchers of CALL.

Finally, although the researchers mentioned that they used a specific theoretical framework for their studies, it could be seen that the context of the research and theoretical framework mentioned in the study might not be consistent with each other. In this review, it was not examined in detail, and the declarations of the authors were taken into consideration.

6. Conclusion

This study was conducted to evaluate the theoretical frameworks embraced by the researchers in the field of CALL. As a result of the study, it was found that the prominent theoretical frameworks used in the last two decades were mostly the same despite rapid technological developments. Social Constructivism, the Sociocultural Theory and Interactionist SLA are found to be the most commonly used theories in CALL studies. It can be claimed that these theories are expected to continue to provide a theoretical framework for research studies in the following years. The main reason for the dominance of these theories is that the CALL researchers mainly concentrate on interaction, negotiation of meaning, cultural exchanges, socially constructed knowledge, communication, collaboration and cooperation in their studies, and the theories mentioned above take these terms as the basis for learning. It is very likely that there will be more studies focusing on educational games, mobile learning, augmented reality, telecollaboration exchanges and 3D virtual worlds in the following years. These tools and platforms will be used for educational purposes more commonly; however, the dominant theories will remain the same because the main concepts will shape CALL studies and they are not likely to change.

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