Volume 26, Issue 1, 2025

International Journal of

MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION

INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL
of
MULTILINGUAL EDUCATION

E ISSN 1512-3146 (ONLINE VERSION)
ISSN 1987-9601 (PRINT VERSION)
https://multilingualeducation.openjournals.ge

Editor
Kakha Gabunia, CCIIR, Georgia

Publisher
Center for Civil Integration and Inter-EthnicRelations"

Address:
Tbilisi, 8/90 Mtskheta St.
Tel: (+995 032) 2922595
Web-site: www.cciir.ge/
E-mail: info@cciir.ge

CCIIR

Content

R. Kriaučiūnienė, S. Poštič, O. Ivancu, A. Vaidakavičiūtė, *Development of CT skills in Foreign Language Teaching Process in Higher Education and Labour Market Institutions* 1

S. Tabatadze, N. Gorgadze, *Language Instruction in the One-Year Georgian Language Program: Teaching Methods and Pedagogical Approaches* 22

K. Belarbi, L. Belaid, *Multilingualism in Tiaret's Linguistic Landscape: Language Contact and Policy Insights* 42

K. C. Rizzuto, L. M. Steiner, V. S. Zambak, *A music and movement program to enhance multilingual learnersphonemic awareness skills* 55

Qiao-Yu Cai, *Formative Quizzes in L2 Chinese Classrooms: Effects on Summative Assessment Outcomes* 72

K. Arkhurst, P. F. Eku-Hyia, R. Amoah-Yeboah, I. Mensah, *Multilingual Education and Literacy in Ghana: Bridging Language Ideologies, Policy and Practice* 93

E ISSN 1512-3146 (online)
ISSN 1987-9601 (print)
International Journal of Multilingual Education
https://multilingualeducation.openjournals.ge/

Roma Kriaučiūnienė, Svetozar Poštič, Ovidiu Ivancu, Agnė Vaidakavičiūtė

Vilnius University, Vilnius, Lithuania

Development of CT Skills in Foreign Language Teaching Process in Higher Education and Labour Market Institutions

ABSTRACT

Thesis/Aim. One of the major aims of universities is to prepare graduates to be independent critical thinkers who can make research-based decisions and contribute to the development of democracy. Labor market institutions also expect their employees to think critically. Therefore, university curricula should focus not only on developing students' discipline-specific competencies but general competencies as well. The foreign language teaching and learning process is considered to provide favorable conditions for the development of students' critical thinking skills especially when the curriculum is based on an action-oriented approach. This study investigates whether critical thinking is effectively integrated into the foreign language teaching-learning process in higher education and its alignment with labor market expectations.

Method. A qualitative empirical approach involved documental analysis of course descriptions and lecture observations at a higher education institution. The research instrument was an observational sheet containing a rubric listing the variables and indicators of critical thinking development.

Results. The research revealed that the emphasis on critical thinking in foreign language teaching is more implicit than explicit.

Conclusions. While critical thinking is recognized as an essential learning outcome in university curricula, its practical implementation in foreign language education requires further refinement to make its focus more explicit.

Keywords: *critical thinking; foreign language teaching; higher education institution; labor market organization; Think4Jobs.*

Introduction

Critical thinking (CT) is one of the most important skills university graduates should have in the 21st century in order to be prepared for mature participation in our society. As Noddings (2013) argues: "Critical thinking is more important today than ever, not because of the increasing sophistication of technology, but because we are trying to move toward participatory democracy that is capable of deliberation". Societies need citizens who facilitate their progress, therefore CT development must be inherent in all levels of education (Uribe Enciso, Uribe Enciso, Daza, 2017), especially at universities

that are committed to preparing leaders for our societies. Moreover, research findings suggest that labour market institutions expect their employees to have CT skills and that CT is valued not only insofar as it contributes to one's professional success, but also for personal improvement and the common good (Penkauskienė, Railienė, and Cruz, 2019). Thus, university teachers have to be ready to foster students' CT skills, apply suitable teaching methods and provide learners with opportunities to develop their abilities to think critically.

Although CT development is included in all the university curricula as an important learning outcome, the uncertainty remains if teachers prepare students as good critical thinkers for their future careers and if they know how to teach learners to become critical thinkers. The question that this article is going to address is: do teachers foster students' critical thinking skills in foreign language classrooms at the university level and language schools – labour market institutions? This study aims to carry out a comparative analysis of how critical thinking is being developed in the foreign language teaching /learning process at the university level and in labour market institutions – language centers.

It should be pointed out that this article represents a part of the research within the framework of the Erasmus project *Think4Jobs* (2020-1-EL01-KA203-078797) (https://think4jobs.uowm.gr/) oriented toward the discovery of the links between critical thinking competence in higher education and labor market demands across five disciplines: teacher education, IT, veterinary medicine, economics, and foreign language teaching. The current article focuses on the latter discipline area.

Literature review

Defining Critical Thinking

Critical thinking is a complex concept of a multifaceted nature that was analyzed by many scholars from different perspectives. Dewey (1933, p. 9) defined critical thinking as an **"***active, persistent, careful consideration of a belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends."* This definition makes it obvious that critical thinking is a complicated process, that requires one's determined and self-regulated effort and ability to reflect, question, and verify one's beliefs against the background of the existing evidence-based knowledge. A similar viewpoint was proposed by Ennis (1993) who claimed that critical thinking is reasonable reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do, the emphasis being on reasonableness, reflection, and the process of making decisions. The definition provided by Epstein (2006, p. 1) "thinking critically is a defense against a world of too much information and too many people trying to convince us" confirms the need for the skill of critical thinking in our contemporary world when people have to differentiate among reliable and unreliable sources of information.

Although there is no absolute agreement about the definition of CT, there is consensus among researchers that CT consists of both skills and dispositions (Halpern, 1998, 1999, 2006). The current paper follows the definition suggested by Facione (1990) known as the Delphi project consensus definition. Following Facione (1990) CT is considered to be an ability identified by skills of interpretation, analysis, inference, evaluation, explanation, and self-regulation as well as dispositions of truth-seeking, open-mindedness, analyticity, systematicity, self-confidence, inquisitiveness, and cognitive maturity.

CT in higher education and its relevance to labor market demands

Much research has also been done into the relevance of CT skills in higher education, particularly in the last decades. The development of CT is highlighted and generally accepted as vital in every field and stage of learning with the teacher's role being considered of the utmost importance (Bezanilla, Galindo-Domínguez, Poblete, 2021; Da Silva Almeida, Rodrigues Franco, 2011; Lenin, 2019; Nuraini, Rusman, 2018). Some researchers (Stupple, Maratos, Elander, Hunt, Cheung, Aubeeluck, 2017) not only argue that CT is an important focus in higher education and essential for good academic achievement as well as for students' professional life beyond universities in labour market but also offer a diagnostic tool to measure students' CT to identify students who need support in developing their CT skills.

Other researchers pay attention to curricular development. The findings of Bećirović, Hodžić, Brdarević-Čeljo (2019) point to an urgent need to revise the existing curricula and design more adequate ones that would focus not only on academic achievement but on fostering CT skills necessary for professional careers of students. In a similar vein, empirical research findings of Niu, Behar-Horenstein, and Garvan (2013) revealed that there are numerous attempts of pedagogical interventions to foster students' CT skills in different domains of studies, however, not all of them prove to be effective.

Despite that, however, there is research that looks into the ways how teachers could contribute to CT development more effectively. According to Thomas (2011), CT skills are complex, and due to that fact, teachers should scaffold students' development of CT skills from the very beginning of their studies at universities and raise students' awareness of the importance of CT skills for further studies and their future professional careers. A similar view is expressed by Wilson (2016) who claims that nurturing students' critical dispositions requires delicate scaffolding to support their development as critical meaning-makers. Wilson (2016) maintains the view that developing students' ability to read critically is vital for the development of CT skills. The author considers the 'Courses in English for

Academic Purposes' (EAP) to be very suitable for that matter. EAP courses generally include the development of students' reading skills, however, if attention is paid to critical reading mostly depends on the teacher's general approach to teaching.

The research conducted by Nappi (2017) specifies effective ways to be used to develop CT, one of them being questioning. Although lower-level questions are easier for teachers to formulate as they seek information retrieval and repetition, the author highlights that teachers should attempt to purposefully formulate higher-level questions that require students to further examine the concept(s) under study through the use of the application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation differently from lower-level questioning that simply requires students to memorize and recall information. Some scholars (Peterson and Taylor, 2012) highlight that both teachers and students will benefit from questions that are purposefully designed as students will acquire the ability to make connections to prior learning as well as make meaning of the world around them. However, formulating questions that require high-level thinking might be a more complicated and time-consuming task for educators, especially language teachers who might focus more on language accuracy rather than the meaning-making process. According to Wilson's (2016) research findings**,** teachers differ in their approach to CT skills development, and this factor determines their approach to teaching. For instance, in some 'English for Academic Purposes' (EAP) classes, students took a performative role (simply 'doing' the task); whereas in other classes, students demonstrated a more intense engagement with the content of their reading.

It should be pointed out that teachers' viewpoints on the development of CT skills are addressed by many scholars (Bezanilla, Galindo-Domínguez, Poblete, 2021; Karakoç, 2016; Uribe Enciso, Uribe Enciso, Daza, 2017). Some researchers (Radulović and Stančić, 2017) highlight the role of teachers in designing more contextualized syllabi to foster the CT skills of students; while others (Nappi, 2017; Popil, 2011) devote their research to various ways and methods of teaching CT in different study programs at the university level; others (Grosser, Lombard, 2008) focus on the CT abilities of prospective teachers. Some researchers identify the reasons why CT development is not so successfully implemented at the university level. In his article, 'The State of Critical Thinking Today' Paul (2005) identified three main obstacles to the acquisition of CT in higher education. First, universities are not aware of their lack of understanding of the concepts of CT. Second, they thought they knew what CT was and were already teaching it to students. Third, lectures, rote memorization, and short-term learning habits are the norm in higher education. Some believe that CT is a single-subject discipline and thus should be taught as logic or study skills. As a result, lecturers expect students to be able to analyze complex concepts but have no idea how to teach them. According to

Elder and Paul (2005), teachers expect intellectual standards from their students but do not have a clear idea of what is considered an intellectual standard or how to formalize it. A comprehensive overview of the extant literature on teaching CT skills provided by Alsaleh (2020) also revealed that teachers tend to focus more on subject content rather than CT development. Moreover, the results indicate a gap in teaching CT skills in terms of innovative methods, particularly in the use of new technologies. The need for further research to investigate new approaches for teaching CT skills is also highlighted. Thus, the way teachers organize the teaching/learning process depends on their awareness of the importance of CT skills development within the framework of their disciplines.

CT in foreign language teaching

Other researchers investigate the ways of teaching CT skills in the foreign language teaching process. Atkinson (1997) argues that it is very difficult for language teachers to nurture students' CT skills, as language teachers are often more concerned with language accuracy than the critical appraisal of texts. They found out that in many cases, the materials used in the language classroom do not encourage students to think critically. Wilson (2016) also provides reasons why EAP teachers do not focus much on fostering their students' CT skills, which partly coincides with Paul's (2004) ideas mentioned above. Firstly, the very concept of CT is not quite clear to teachers themselves; secondly, the content of EAP has no prescribed discipline, in most EAP course books the content of students' reading jumps from one topic area to another, not allowing students the time to reflect deeply, to build up knowledge and understanding in any particular content area, most often focusing on the form rather than the content. Thirdly, the testing system should be improved in terms of CT assessment, because if CT skills are not tested directly, students may feel that it is irrelevant. However, in Wilson's (2016) opinion, EAP teachers have a responsibility to develop students' CT skills and dispositions by providing "delicate scaffolding" to students.

Specifically relevant to the current research paper is the review article by El Soufia and See (2019) who sought to establish whether explicit teaching of critical thinking is effective in enhancing the CT skills of English language learners in higher education. The authors reviewed articles published from 1990 to 2018 searching specifically for studies about teaching CT to English language learners in higher education. Almost all the studies in this review turned out to be very small-scale and had serious methodological flaws. It also revealed the absence of a single agreed-upon definition for CT, which made the comparison of studies difficult as different studies may have measured different things. El Soufia and See's (2019) review revealed that only explicit instruction of CT skills was found to have the best evidence of effectiveness. They claim that despite the emphasis on CT in higher education

there is little evidence that such skills are taught explicitly and systematically at the undergraduate level.

It should be pointed out that a new updated version of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume* (2020) and a new language teaching/learning methodology Action-oriented Approach (AoA) presented by Piccardo and North (2019) provide a more expanded theoretical framework of language teaching and learning. The AoA opens new pathways for language teachers and curriculum developers and empowers them to rethink and reshape their approach to language teaching and learning. The AoA focuses on the learner as a social agent, on student-centeredness, on the social context, and performance of cognitively challenging and engaging real-life tasks that are targeted not only at the development of communicative-linguistic competence of learners but require the activation of general competencies and CT skills as well. Thus, it can be assumed that the application of the AoA in a foreign language teaching and learning process provides more opportunities for the development of learners' CT skills.

The analysis of scientific literature showed that there has been a considerable amount of research carried out into different aspects of CT. It also demonstrated that there should be more attention paid to the development of CT skills in HE in all subjects, and foreign languages including as well. Having taken into consideration the fact that explicit teaching of CT skills seems to be the most effective, this article attempts to contribute to the current research and offers a comparative analysis of the development of CT skills for English language learners in higher education and labor market institutions.

Methodology of the research

This research was carried out within the framework of the European Commission-funded project *Think4Jobs* (2020-1-EL01-KA203-078797) (https://think4jobs.uowm.gr/) in 2020-2023. The project partners from five countries (Germany, Greece, Lithuania, Portugal and Romania) brought together a multidisciplinary team involved in the research into CT education within the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and the Labor Market. The project partners developed collaboratively the theoretical-methodological framework for the research into the development of CT skills across five different domains: teacher education, IT, veterinary medicine, economics, and foreign language teaching. The project partners proposed hypothesis-driven research, that was tested by three research methods, using three corresponding instruments in five domain areas. The general hypothesis stated that there are differences between higher education institutions and labor market organizations

regarding critical thinking development. The current article focuses on the description of the tasks of the first Intellectual Output 1 (IO1) of the Think4Jobs project, mainly aiming at the elucidation of two research methods applied, i.e. class observation and documental analysis, and their respective findings in the area of foreign language teaching and learning at the t university level. The current research into the development of CT in the process of foreign language teaching /learning was operationalized by two *variables* and a number of *indicators* for each variable (Facione,1990) as presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2 below:

Figure 1. Research variable 1 and its indicators.

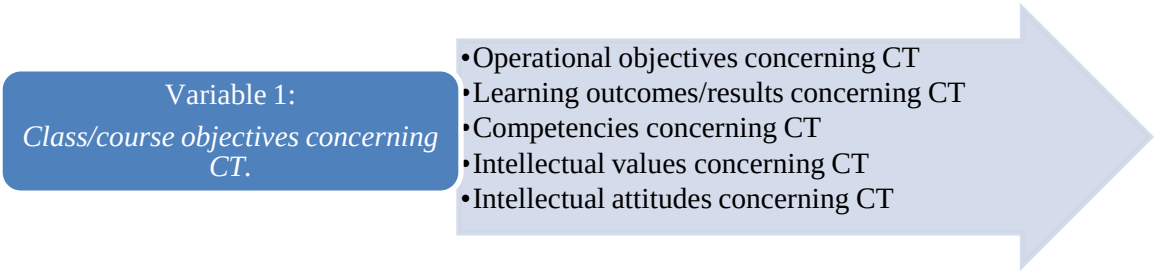
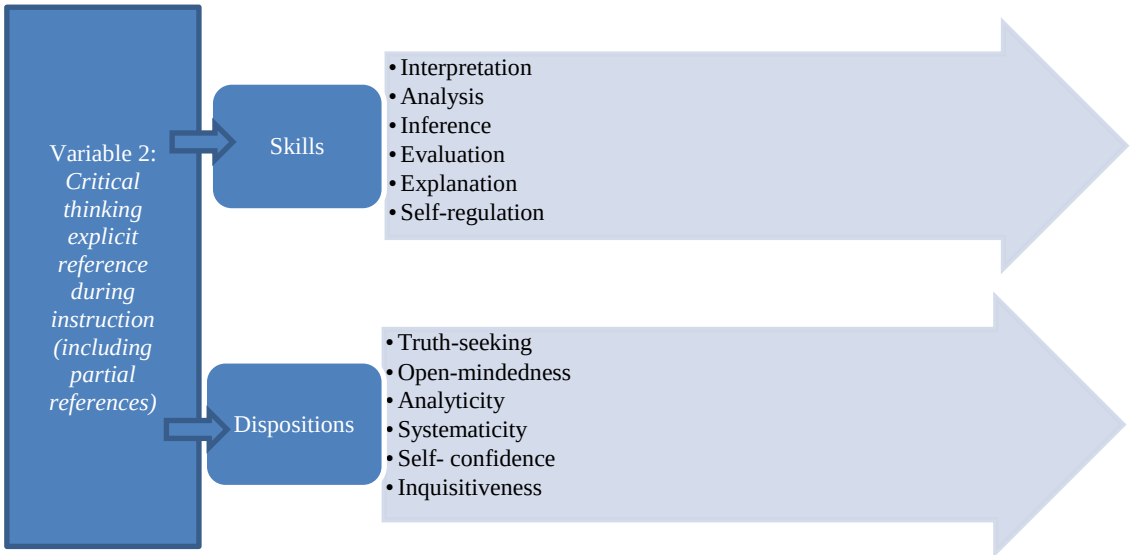


Figure 2. Indicators of the Research variable 2: Critical thinking explicit reference during instruction (including partial references).



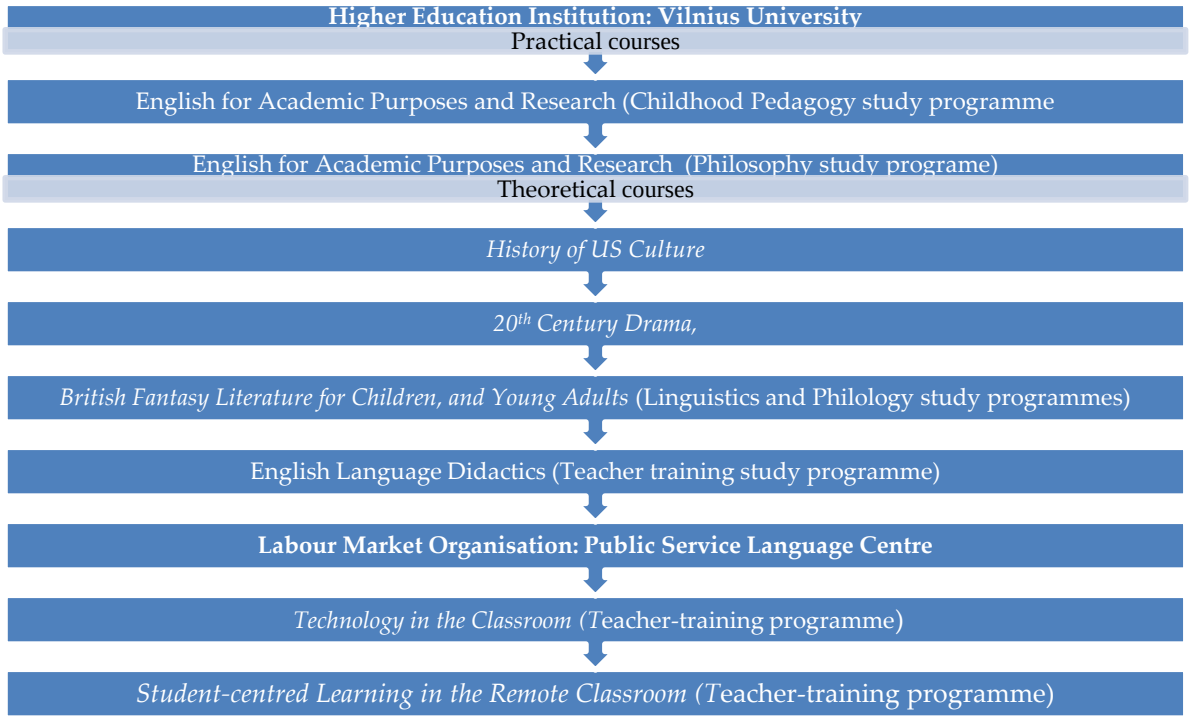
For both research methods mentioned above, class observation and documental analysis the corresponding research instrument was an observational sheet (developed according to Facione, 1990), containing a rubric listing the variables and indicators with a frequency scale for each indicator to be marked by a researcher. The researchers had to provide concrete examples if /when they identified the indicators in the curricular documents or class observations. Documental analysis of course descriptions of the same subjects as their respective class observations was carried out.

The procedure of the research

The class observation was carried out at two institutions in Lithuania: Vilnius University (VU) representing higher education institution and Public Service Language Centre (PSLC) representing a Labor market organization – both institutions were participants of the project *Think4jpobs*. There were three lecturers chosen at Vilnius University who agreed that their classes were observed. Four observation sessions for each lecturer were carried out and observed by three researchers of VU (12 lectures 24 academic hours). The classes chosen were from two practical and four theoretical courses of the first cycle study programs, all the lecturers came from the same department – the Faculty of Philology, the Institute of Foreign Languages – whereas the students were from two faculties of Vilnius University: The Faculty of Philology, mainly specializing in linguistics, and the Faculty of Philosophy, specializing in philosophy, childhood pedagogy, and teacher training. All the students at VU were at B1 to C1 level of the English Language.

The class observations were made of the following subjects at Vilnius University: a practical course of *English for Academic Purposes and Research* of the study programs of *Philosophy* and *Childhood Pedagogy*, theoretical courses and seminars on *History of US Culture*, *20th Century Drama*, *British Fantasy Literature for Children, and Young Adults* for the students of different Philology and Linguistics study programs, and *English Language Didactics* for teacher training study program. (See Figure 3 below).

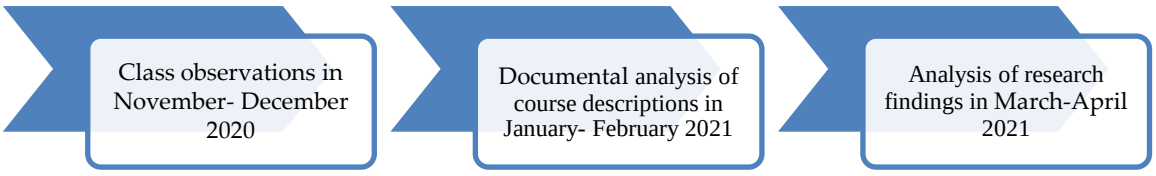
Figure 3. Class observations at Vilnius university and Public Service Language Center.



At the Public Service Language Centre, the class observations were made of an in-service teacher training programmes *Technology in the Classroom*, one of the most popular teacher-training programmes run across the country for teachers of EFL (as well as teachers of other subjects who have level B1 in the English language) and another program of *Student-centered Learning in the Remote Classroom*. They are run by British native-speaking teacher trainers from the UK. Six sessions (four academic hours each) of lectures delivered by two British teacher-trainers were observed by four PSLC researchers, i.e., language teachers and teacher-trainers. The total duration of the lecture observation at PSLC is 24 academic hours.

The whole process of the empirical research is described in Figure 4 below:

Figure 4. The process of empirical data collection and analysis.



As it is evident from the figure above, the whole research was carried out in 2020-2021. Firstly, the class observations of the above-mentioned courses at both institutions, Vilnius University and Public Service Language Center, were conducted. Secondly, documental analyses of the respective courses were performed. Finally, based on the information collected in the observation sheets, the analysis of the empirical research data was accomplished. The principle of researcher triangulation was applied at each stage of the process of the research in order to discuss intermediate insights, possible interpretations, generalizations, and make conclusions about the results of the research.

It should also be pointed out that only CT-related teacher-inspired behaviors and actions were observed during the lectures at both institutions. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, there was no possibility to observe real-time classes in both institutions; therefore, recorded lectures were considered to be acceptable substitutes, with permission granted by participants for recording the respective sessions.

Lastly, all of the researchers have signed a consent form, which includes detailed information about the nature of the research. The participants were informed that the personal data provided by them was passed through rigorous procedures for confidentiality and anonymity. This is verified by the Ethics Permission No. 180000-S-224 signed by the Dean of the Vilnius University Faculty of Philology.

Findings and discussion

Results of class observations at the institution of higher education (Vilnius University)

As it has been mentioned before, the observation of 12 (24 academic hours) classes delivered by three different university teachers took place. The following practical and theoretical courses delivered to BA students were observed: one practical course under the title *English for Academic Purposes and Research* delivered for two study programs of *Childhood Pedagogy* and *Philosophy* at the Faculty of Philosophy, as well as the theoretical courses: *20th century Drama, History of US Culture, British Fantasy Literature for Children and Young Adults* to the students of Philology and Linguistics at the Faculty of Philology, and *English Language Didactics (and final project)* specifically taught to the students of the teacher training program at the Faculty of Philosophy.

Overall, it has been clarified that CT in higher education is developed and sustained by a variety of teaching methods and activities that are both implicit and explicit. The major observation findings revealed the students' active engagement during the class activities, especially in the practical courses of *English for Academic Purposes and Research*. This was achieved generally by the application of the task-based and action-oriented approaches and specifically by group work, mainly working in teams and students' use of analogies between the current social reality and theoretical issues of concern within the framework of their disciplines. The teachers tried to constantly stimulate students' CT in different ways, most of them however, were more implicit rather than explicit.

In the study program of *Childhood Pedagogy*, the observed classes of the practical courses of *English for Academic Purposes and Research* were interactive, and the student-centered approach as applied. The focus was the analysis of research articles according to the IMRD structure. The students reviewed the texts they had read, they were asked not only to summarize them but to interpret their significance and connect them to the theory they had studied earlier. Thus, an implicit attempt to foster the skills of analyticity, comparison, and inference was initiated. During the other lecture, the students were presented with the Konstanz Moral Dilemma Discussion (KMDD) method (Lind, 2016) which is generally used to induce learners to talk about moral decisions and make important judgments, based on the presentation of pro and counter arguments, which is supposed to lead to a better understanding of a dilemma from different perspectives. Thus, the lecturer made an attempt to foster CT in students in a more explicit way by encouraging students to present their arguments leading to a possible solution of a moral dilemma.

In another lecture that was observed students were supposed to discuss trust and independence in the classroom. Based on the overview of a video about the Finnish education system, students were asked to comment on certain aspects of the film, and then compare that to their experience in schools,

draw comparisons, and provide arguments about what level of trust would be possible in the Lithuanian educational system. Each student was encouraged to speak and present his/ her views, the discussion was carried out in an open-minded manner. Thus, it could be assumed that the lecturer inspired the CT skills of analysis, interpretation and evaluation as well as dispositions of truth-seeking, open-mindedness, and analyticity.

In *Philosophy* study programme course the teacher stimulated students' CT by asking challenging questions and encouraging students to give their own perspectives on the concept of Artificial Intelligence. The teacher provided the students with the proper background, initiating the discussion about Artificial Intelligence by playing a short video with a relevant scene from the movie "2001: A Space Odyssey". The scene offered the students the pretext for an exciting discussion on the dangers posed by Artificial Intelligence and the delicate relationship between the creator (humans) and the creation (AI). The teacher tried to keep a fair balance between subjective opinions and objective arguments. Considering the students' field of study (Philosophy), the teacher's method triggered fruitful debates and the initiation of CT skill of interpretation and evaluation as well as the dispositions of analyticity, and open-mindedness, however, in an implicit way. Even though CT was not explicitly mentioned, multiple pedagogical techniques were used to address it and to stimulate it in students.

Class observations of the theoretical courses: *20th Century Drama, History of US Culture, and British Fantasy Literature for Children and Young Adults* revealed that they were more teacher-centered, although numerous attempts were made by the teacher to make these lectures more interactive. For instance, an important part of the lecture on *20th Century Drama* was dedicated to presenting students with different perspectives on the topic of Bertolt Brecht's theories on theatre, following the main literary trends and the most relevant concepts. The latter were properly illustrated with a video explaining the main Brechtian ideas. The students were not always engaged in the presentation. The teacher gave students the opportunity to reflect on the information presented to trigger their inquisitiveness. Students asked questions and manifested a real interest in the topic analyzed. The teacher often initiated the discussions by challenging students to share their own experiences as spectators of the theatre and encouraged them to make connections between the concepts and their own personal aesthetic experiences. Thus, the teacher was implicitly encouraging students to think critically, make inferences, and interpretations and draw comparisons.

In the theoretical course *History of US Culture,* the lecture that was observed focused on the theme of free time and family. The teacher drew different cultural parallels between the British and the American culture. The teacher elicited students' general knowledge to guide the discussion towards theoretical aspects of the topic (the social function of sport). Although the teacher did not mention

specifically the CT skills, he commenced a discussion of sports in a thought-provoking manner. The students actively participated and asked for more information; thus their inquisitiveness was initiated. The American family was the next subject the teacher touched. It was presented from a historical perspective. The teacher tried to make students comfortable enough to discuss controversial and delicate topics (the family, divorce, etc.) making an obvious attempt to foster their open-mindedness. Thus, it could be stated that CT skills and dispositions were addressed in a more implicit rather than an explicit way.

In the lecture on *British Fantasy Literature for Children and Young Adults,* the topics under discussion were the fantastic literature from C.S Lewis to J.K Rowling. The class discussion started with a brief presentation of the series of popular novels "The Faraway Tree" (Enyd Blyton). The students expressed their views on Roald Dahl's books. The teacher proposed a CT approach by asking students to find valid arguments for understanding the immense success "The Paddington Bear" enjoyed in British culture. He guided the students' discussion in such a way that enabled students to come up with various hypotheses for which they found cultural arguments. The teacher encouraged students to find arguments to justify their preference for books discussed during the class. The teacher used popular culture references to make analogies so that students understood them easier.

In the lectures of the course *English Language Didactics (and the final project)*, the participants were primary and secondary school teachers who taught different subjects and wanted to re-qualify themselves to teach English. The theme of one of the observed lectures was dedicated to Learning English Through Visual Arts. The teacher encouraged students to always think about how their current or future students can be given a chance to evaluate their experience and knowledge in the wider context of art and culture. Frequently parallels between how language and cultural artifacts reflect meaning construction in language were drawn, which made students more engaged and interactive during the class.

During another observed class various English teaching activities through the medium of arts prepared by the students were discussed. It has been shown how the integration of visual arts can develop students' creativity and empower their cognitive skills through learning geometrical shapes, becoming more involved in the critical discussion of pressing social issues, or becoming more open-minded about them. It has been clarified that engagement in arts is also beneficial for the class atmosphere: the students seemed to be relaxed and also more engaged and were never hesitant to raise questions and offered their vision of how a certain activity could be implemented.

The other lecture was devoted to the presentation of student-centered group discussions in the classroom and discussed its strengths and ways of facilitation. A comparison of the IRE (initiate,

respond, evaluate) model with the productive discussion model was made followed by an explanation of what constituted a productive classroom discussion. The strategies for engaging all the students equally in the discussion and the difference between the Teacher-guided and the student-driven discussion were presented. Even though it was a theoretical lecture, the teacher made attempts to make it as interactive as possible by raising questions and drawing parallels with the personal lives of students and life in general. The presentation about discussion in class not only showed how to initiate a good discussion, but it went into the essence of stimulating critical thinking in a classroom. It can be argued that CT skills were encouraged by the teacher's active engagement of students through the topics that were relevant and challenging.

The other observed class aimed to present a method of story-telling through various resources and tools by offering students more creative and contemporary ways of telling a story. It was also indicated how story-telling improves socializing skills via group activities and peer review, while intellectual skills are developed through inferencing and raising a set of context-related questions. Students were also encouraged to use story-telling as a means of creating a student-friendly atmosphere, in which CT skills can be easily integrated and developed with more success. Storytelling activities were demonstrated as a great tool for initiating innovative, critical, and creative thinking in students, and the instructor presented them well.

In addition, in the observed classes, it has been noticed how the teachers always encourage students to discuss and consider a multitude of perspectives on the same pressing social issue (e.g., discrimination, technological impact on human relationships, a lack of motivation, etc.). This allows students to learn the skills of negotiation, reasoning, and tolerance of different views and opinions. The reasoning line was mainly developed using discussion and debate. Thus, it could be stated that the dispositions of truth-seeking and open-mindedness were developed.

Furthermore, the notion of creativity seemed to play a significant role in developing CT skills at the university level. Teachers encouraged students to be more creative by offering them a combined approach to using language in a variety of contexts such as looking for a solution by analyzing a specific case, debating on a specific issue, overviewing opposite views, integrating art as a means of exploring social reality, etc. Thus, it could be maintained that the CT skills of interpretation, analysis, inference, evaluation, explanation, and self-regulation were infused in the class activities, although in a more implicit rather than explicit manner.

Most of the teaching time was student-centered, while the teacher only undertook the role of a facilitator. Nevertheless, there were a few instances when the teacher used most of the time to speak and did not fully engage the students in the class activities. This happened during the theoretical

lectures when the teacher tried to share a lot of information with the students. This one-sided teaching method becomes a reason why students tend to lose interest in the topic and prefer to stay silent during the class. This might be explained by the nature of the class (i.e., theoretical lecture), or by the fact that the teacher may not have a specific plan of action on how to critically engage students by drawing a parallel between the theoretical/historical issues and the status quo. Despite that, it can be argued that most of the teachers focused on student speaking time and their active engagement in class activities, during which students analyzed, interpreted, reasoned, and created meaningful interaction within the real-life scenarios, thus developing their CT skills more implicitly.

Results of the documental analysis at the institution of higher education (Vilnius University)

The analysis is based on six different Higher Education course descriptions: two practical courses - *English for Academic Purposes and Research* for the BA study program of *Childhood Pedagogy* and the study program of *Philosophy*. The other four courses were theoretical ones taught to the students of the Faculty of Philology of the study programs of *Philology* or *Linguistics*: *20th Century Drama*, *History of US Culture, British Fantasy Literature for Children and Young Adults*, as well as the course of *English Language Didactics (and final project)* for the teacher training program at the Faculty of Philosophy of VU.

A thorough analysis of course descriptions made it evident that critical thinking skills are clearly stated as one of the skills that students would develop during the courses. Critical thinking skills are developed and nurtured through self-reflection and peer review, task-based learning methods integrated with the student-centered approach via discussion, debates, project work/assignment, case studies, research proposals, problem-solving, and reflections. Students are encouraged to understand and critically evaluate authentic research articles and popular scientific media sources when reading. What is more, students are encouraged to convey information by formulating problems, and presenting different views and arguments, while writing or speaking. Based on the analysis of course descriptions it can be assumed that students should actively engage in class activities and alongside the development of linguistic-communicative skills were expected to nurture their CT skills as well.

One thing that is left not clear in course descriptions is how HEI teachers evaluate students' ability to think critically, keeping in mind that CT skills are distinctively mentioned as competence to be developed during the courses. It can be understood that evaluation of CT skills is implicit and depends on what content students create, how good their information analyses are, and how sound their arguments are – both in written and spoken forms. However, this evaluation should be defined more specifically and explicitly, bearing in mind that there should be a starting point and a clear progress evaluation system if CT skills come as one of the competencies developed during the courses.

Results of class observations at the labor market organization (Public Service Language Centre)

The observations of six sessions (four academic hours each) delivered by two British teacher trainers-lecturers of two programs *Technology in the Classroom* and *Student-centered Learning in the Remote Classroom* were observed by four PSLC researchers, i.e., language teachers and teacher-trainers. The total duration of the lecture observation is 24 academic hours. The observations revealed that most of the time is devoted to the teacher or presenter. The teaching was generally presenter-centered, and the listeners were not actively engaged in the process. Thus, most of the CT skills were tentatively evoked, and it was not very clear whether the listeners or participants of the courses were practically engaged in the activities the teacher was trying to initiate. This could be explained by the nature of the analyzed material, as well as the fact that those were theoretical lectures. Thus, it was the teacher who played a pivotal role in the delivery of the materials, while the listeners were backgrounded.

Despite that, it can be argued that there were some CT skills and dispositions fostered during these lectures. Firstly, a genuine and lively atmosphere was created by the teacher that might have engaged the listeners, which was noted by all the observers. Secondly, in all cases, the teacher tried to encourage creativity by providing examples of how various teaching resources can be combined and their effectiveness tested. Another noticeable observation was the teachers' focus on autonomous and independent learning which was emphasized throughout the sessions. However, it still remained unclear how this could have been specifically achieved by the trainees after the workshops. Besides, there was a clash between engagement and autonomy that served different purposes of CT development. Finally, the last observation should be made about the emphasis on the variety of resources mentioned by the teacher-trainer. In all cases, it was observed that the variability factor was emphasized. Nonetheless, how to deal with the variety of tasks or tools, which could have been misleading and overwhelming for the trainees, still remained unclear.

Results of the documental analysis of the labour market organization (Public Service Language Centre)

The documental analysis was based on two in-service teacher training programs which are considered the most popular teacher-training programs for teachers of EFL (as well as teachers of other subjects who have level B1 in the English language) as provided by PSLC in Lithuania *Technology in the Classroom* and *Student-centered Learning in the Remote Classroom*. As it has been mentioned earlier, they are run by British native-speaking teachers- trainers from the UK.

The documents on in-service teacher training programs included the information of program

provider, the lecturer's profile with biodata on work experience and competencies, a reference to the survey report done by the Ministry of Education, Science and Sport of the Republic of Lithuania, and a short review of the current educational situation in the area in which some changes were expected. Both programs emphasize the practical aspect, which is completely understandable as they were targeted at the audience of working teachers.

The teacher training programs comprise 58 academic hours in *Technology and The Classroom* and 50 academic hours in *Student-centered Learning in the Remote Classroom* and they were offered to over 180 teachers (each). Both programs were designed to empower educators, especially from ethnic minority schools to make their lessons more attractive by using daily devices such as computers, tablets, smartphones for group work, tracking the student performance, evaluation, and cooperation with parents.

The programs consisted of 13 and 11 sessions (webinars), each of them including a short description of activities and resources. Each webinar covered theory, practice, and self-study parts which were strictly limited in time/duration. From the names of those webinars/ sessions, one can assume that CT skills, methods, and strategies are to be included in the process of teaching highlighting student autonomy, encouraging collaboration and hands-on learning, reflection, presentation, practical conference of attendees, etc. Moreover, those programs provided lists of literature sources and resources for the attendees. However, it is not specifically mentioned or explained what kind of methods or teaching strategies lecturers used to implement CT skills in those programs.

Conclusion

The research revealed that CT development is included in the university curricula as an important learning outcome. The documental analysis of HEI course descriptions demonstrated that CT is planned to be fostered during the teaching/learning process through the application of appropriate teaching strategies and methods. Class observations demonstrated that CT is fostered more in an implicit rather than explicit way, especially since some differences exist depending on the type of lecture. Theoretical courses focus more on a teacher-centered approach whereas practical courses were observed to be more student-centered, thus allowing more active students' participation in the performance of tasks. Moreover, practical courses were based on task-based and action-oriented approaches, therefore an assumption could be made that more favorable conditions were created during these courses for the development of students' CT skills. An area that needs to be addressed is the need for a more explicit assessment of CT skills. Based on the documental analysis it could be stated that CT skills are evaluated in an integrated way. Thus, answering the question if university teachers really

foster students' critical thinking skills in their classrooms could be concluded that CT development needs a more explicit focus.

The documental analysis of the teaching programs under the analysis at the labor market institution revealed that CT development is not mentioned directly. This could be explained by the specificity of the training programs, the type of delivery, and the target audience that the teaching process was aimed at. LMO training programs are usually initiated for the improvement of subject-specific competencies, whereas university education is expected to develop not only professionally oriented discipline-related but general competencies, and CT skills as well. Thus, it could be maintained that university education plays a pivotal role in the development of CT skills of their graduates to prepare them for future professional careers and more importantly strengthen their capacity for participatory democracy.

Limitations of the study

It could be argued that some notable differences could be more explicit if the observation of HEI and LMO would follow the same categorization pattern in terms of the type of lectures, target audience, and the number of participants. In HEI, practical tutorials were observed where the number of students was around 16 -20 per group. In LMO, these were lectures that were delivered to a group of 30 teachers, who were in the role of passive listeners rather than active participants or the so-called doers.

Funding

This work has been supported by the "Critical Thinking for Successful Jobs—Think4Jobs" Project, with the reference number 2020-1-EL01-KA203078797, funded by the European Commission/EACEA, through the ERASMUS + Programme. The European Commission support for the production of this publication does not constitute an endorsement of the contents, which reflect the views only of the authors, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use, which may be made of the information contained therein.

Institutional Review Board Statement

The animal study protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Vilnius University Faculty of Philology (No. 180000-S-224 and 8 December 2022).

Informed Consent Statement

Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

Data Availability Statement

Additional data about research can be found in Intellectual Output 1, available at: **https://think4jobs.uowm.gr/results/intellectualoutput1** (accessed on 1 November 2022) and the website of the project at: **https://think4jobs.uowm.gr/** (accessed on 1 November 2022).

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgement

This work has been supported by the "Critical Thinking for Successful Jobs—Think4Jobs" Project, with the reference number 2020-1-EL01-KA203078797, funded by the European Commission/EACEA, through the ERASMUS + Programme. The European Commission support for the production of this publication does not constitute an endorsement of the contents, which reflect the views only of the authors, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use, which may be made of the information contained therein.

References

Alsaleh, N. J. (2020). Teaching critical thinking skills: Literature review. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *19*(1), 21–39. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1239945.pdf

Atkinson, D. (1997). A critical approach to critical thinking in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*(1), 71–94. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587975

Bećirović, S., Hodžić, F., & Brdarević-Čeljo, A. (2019). The problems of contemporary education: Critical thinking development in the milieu of high school education. *European Journal of Contemporary Education, 8*, 469–482.

Bezanilla, M. J., Galindo-Domínguez, H., & Poblete, M. (2021). Importance of teaching critical thinking in higher education and existing difficulties according to teachers' views. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Educational Research, 11*(1), 20–48.

https://doi.org/10.4471/remie.2021.6159

Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume*. Council of Europe Publishing.

Da Silva Almeida, L., & Rodrigues Franco, A. H. (2011). Critical thinking: Its relevance for education in a shifting society. *Revista de Psicología, 29*(1), 175–195. https://www.redalyc.org/articulo.oa?id=337829518007

Penkauskienė, D., Railienė, A., & Cruz, G. (2019). How is critical thinking valued by the labour market? Employer perspectives from different European countries. *Studies in Higher Education, 44*(5), 804–815. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079.2019.1586323

Dewey, J. (1933). *Experience and education*. Macmillan.

Dumitru, D., Bigu, D., Elen, J., Jiang, L., Railienė, A., Penkauskienė, D., Papathanasiou, I. V., Tsaras, K., Fradelos, E. C., Ahern, A., et al. (2018). *A European collection of the critical thinking skills and dispositions needed in different professional fields for the 21st century*. UTAD.

El Soufia, N., & See, B. H. (2019). Does explicit teaching of critical thinking improve critical thinking skills of English language learners in higher education? A critical review of causal evidence. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 60*, 140–162. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2018.12.006

Ennis, R. H. (1989). Critical thinking and subject specificity: Clarification and needed research. *Educational Researcher, 18*(3), 4–10. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X018003004

Epstein, R. L. (2006). *Critical thinking* (3rd ed.). Wadsworth Thomas Learning.

Facione, P. A. (1990). *Critical thinking: A statement of expert consensus for purposes of educational assessment and instruction. Research findings and recommendations*. American Philosophical Association.

Grosser, M. M., & Lombard, B. J. J. (2008). The relationship between culture and the development of critical thinking abilities of prospective teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 24*(5), 1364–1375. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2007.10.014

Halpern, D. F. (1998). Teaching critical thinking for transfer across domains: Dispositions, skills, structure training, and metacognitive monitoring. *American Psychologist, 53*(4), 449–455. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.53.4.449

Halpern, D. F. (1999). Teaching for critical thinking: Helping college students develop the skills and dispositions of a critical thinker. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 80*, 69–74.

Halpern, D. F. (2006). The nature and nurture of critical thinking. In R. J. Sternberg, R. Roediger, & D. F. Halpern (Eds.), *Critical thinking in psychology* (pp. 1–14). Cambridge University Press.

Karakoç, M. (2016). The significance of critical thinking ability in terms of education. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 6*(7), 81–84.

Lind, G. (2016). *How to teach morality: Promoting deliberation and discussion, reducing violence and deceit*. Logos Verlag.

Nappi, J. S. (2017). The importance of questioning in developing critical thinking skills. *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin: International Journal for Professional Educators, 83*(1), 30–41. https://www.dkg.is/static/files/skjol_landsamband/bulletin_grein_jona.pdf#page=30

Niu, L., Behar-Horenstein, L. S., & Garvan, C. W. (2013). Do instructional interventions influence college students' critical thinking skills? A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review, 9*, 114–128. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2012.12.002

Noddings, N. (2013). *Education and democracy in the 21st century*. Teachers College Press.

Nuraini, I. A., & Rusman. (2018). Developing creative and critical thinking through holistic education curriculum. http://icerd2018.conference.upi.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/30/2018/12/Fullpaper_Ira-Ari-Nuraini.pdf

Paul, R. (2005). The state of critical thinking today. *New Directions for Community Colleges, 2005*(130), 27–38. https://doi.org/10.1002/cc.193

Peterson, D. S., & Taylor, B. M. (2012). Using higher-order questioning to accelerate students' growth in reading. *The Reading Teacher, 65*(5), 295–304. https://doi.org/10.1002/TRTR.01045

Piccardo, E., & North, B. (2019). *Action-oriented approach: A dynamic vision of language education*. Multilingual Matters.

Popil, I. (2011). Promotion of critical thinking by using case studies as teaching method. *Nurse Education Today, 31*(2), 204–207. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nedt.2010.06.002

Radulović, L., & Stančić, M. (2017). What is needed to develop critical thinking in schools? *CEPS Journal, 7*(3), 9–25. https://doi.org/10.26529/cepsj.283

Stupple, E. J. N., Maratos, F. A., Elander, J., Hunt, T. E., Cheung, K. Y. F., & Aubeeluck, A. V. (2017). Development of the Critical Thinking Toolkit (CriTT): A measure of student attitudes and beliefs about critical thinking. *Thinking Skills and Creativity, 23*, 91–100. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2016.11.007

Thomas, T. (2011). Developing first-year students' critical thinking skills. *Asian Social Science, 7*(4), 26–35. https://acuresearchbank.acu.edu.au/download/1f8d8121f46df895c4ff47b5422a49bafe53f476d4e3bfead0dbf683074ba8d2/221280/Thomas_2011_Developing_first_year_students_critical_thinking_skills.pdf

Uribe Enciso, O. L. U., Uribe Enciso, D. S., & Daza, M. P. V. (2017). Critical thinking and its importance in education: Some reflections. *Rastros Rostros, 19*(34), 78–88.

Wilson, K. (2016). Critical reading, critical thinking: Delicate scaffolding in English for Academic Purposes (EAP). *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *22*, 256–265. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2016.10.002

Shalva Tabatadze

Center for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations
East European University, Georgia

Natia Gorgadze

Center for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations
Georgian Institute of Public Affairs (GIPA), Georgia

Language Instruction in the One-Year Georgian Language Program: Teaching Methods and Pedagogical Approaches

ABSTRACT

This study examines the effectiveness of the quota system introduced in Georgia's higher education admissions process in 2010, with a specific focus on language teaching methods and students' preparation for undergraduate studies. The research investigates how language teachers utilize diverse instructional strategies, resources, and skill development techniques and assesses the extent to which these align with contemporary pedagogical approaches. A survey research design was employed, collecting data from approximately 700 students enrolled in the One-Year Georgian Language Program across multiple universities. The study's findings indicate a strong reliance on traditional teaching methods, such as grammar instruction and lecturing, while interactive approaches, including role-playing, student presentations, and discussions, remain underutilized. The results also reveal a gap between instructional strategies used for developing language skills and fostering higher-order cognitive abilities, such as analytical thinking and synthesis. The research highlights the need for a pedagogical shift towards a more interactive, student-centered approach to language instruction. These insights provide valuable implications for enhancing language education policies and practices within Georgia's higher education system.

***Keywords**: Language education, teaching methods, higher education, Georgia, student-centered learning, instructional strategies and pedagogical approaches, language skills development.*

Introduction

Language policies in higher education play a critical role in shaping access, equity, and academic success for students from diverse linguistic backgrounds. In multilingual societies, the question of how higher education institutions accommodate linguistic diversity remains central to educational policy debates (Tollefson & Tsui, 2018). Effective language teaching policies can determine the extent to which ethnic minority students integrate into academic and professional spheres (Hornberger, 2022). Research on language policy in higher education highlights the balance between promoting the national language for cohesion and ensuring linguistic rights for minority groups (Spolsky, 2002). Within this broader scholarly discourse, this study examines the

case of Georgia, a post-Soviet state where language policy in higher education significantly impacts ethnic minority students' access and academic achievement.

Georgia's higher education system underwent significant reforms starting in 2005 with the introduction of the Unified National Examinations (UNE), a standardized admission process intended to ensure merit-based entry (Tabatadze & Gorgadze, 2017). However, the implementation of this system disproportionately affected ethnic minority students, particularly those from Azerbaijani - and Armenian-speaking communities, who struggled with the Georgian language requirements. In response, the government introduced affirmative action policies, including quota systems and language-support programs, to facilitate minority enrollment in higher education (Tabatadze & Gorgadze, 2016). Despite these efforts, language barriers remain one of the most significant obstacles for minority students to access and succeed in Georgian universities (Tabatadze, Gorgadze & Gabunia, 2023).

Recognizing these challenges, Georgian higher education institutions have adopted specialized language teaching programs to support ethnic minority students. The most prominent initiative is the One-Year Georgian Language Program, which prepares non-Georgian-speaking students for academic study by developing their proficiency in Georgian through an intensive, structured curriculum (Tabatadze & Gorgadze, 2013). This program, implemented across various public universities, is a critical mechanism for improving minority students' integration into the academic environment. However, questions persist about the effectiveness of teaching methods, the long-term academic outcomes for graduates, and the adequacy of current language policies in meeting diverse learners' needs.

The effectiveness of language instruction is heavily influenced by the teaching methods, resources, and strategies employed by educators (Lightbrown & Spada, 2013). As language learning is a multifaceted process that involves the development of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and metacognitive skills (Oxford, 2016), the choice of instructional techniques plays a crucial role in shaping students' proficiency and engagement. Despite ongoing educational reforms and the increasing emphasis on student-centered learning, traditional methods such as lecturing and grammar-based instruction continue to dominate many classrooms (Ding, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Lu, & Glazewski, 2019). At the same time, the integration of technology and interactive approaches remains inconsistent, raising concerns about the alignment of teaching practices with contemporary pedagogical trends.

Given these considerations, this study aims to examine the teaching methods, resources, and skill development strategies employed in language education. Specifically, it investigates the extent to which teachers incorporate diverse teaching materials and interactive methods, the frequency of various instructional strategies, and the emphasis placed on different language skills. The study also explores the role of metacognitive skills' development in fostering student autonomy and self-regulated learning.

To guide this research, the following research question was formulated: To what extent do language teachers utilize diverse teaching methods, resources, and skills development strategies, and how do these practices align with modern pedagogical approaches? By analyzing this research question, the study aims to

contribute to the broader discourse on language policy in higher education and propose recommendations for improving language support frameworks in Georgia's universities. Through the student survey research method, the study provides insights into the successes and limitations of current language teaching approaches for ethnic minority students.

Literature Review

Language Teaching Methods in Higher Education

The increasing internationalization of higher education necessitates the effective teaching of the language of instruction to students who speak it as a second (L2) or foreign language (FL). This literature review critically analyzes the evolution of language teaching methods in higher education and synthesizes empirical studies to investigate their implementation in classroom settings. Using analysis of existing research, this review examines the pedagogical shifts in L2/FL instruction, the driving factors behind these changes, and their impact on student learning outcomes.

The development of language teaching methodologies in higher education has been shaped by evolving theories in linguistics, cognitive psychology, and sociocultural learning. Early approaches, such as the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), dominated in the 19th and early 20th centuries due to the emphasis on literary competence and classical language training (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). However, the rise of structuralist linguistics and behaviorism in the mid-20th century led to audiolingualism, which prioritized repetition and habit formation (Skinner, 1957).

With the advent of communicative approaches in the late 20th century, including Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), language education shifted towards meaningful interaction and cognitive engagement (Canale & Swain, 1980; Skehan, 1998). The emergence of technology-enhanced learning in the 21st century, such as Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and blended learning, further transformed pedagogical practices (Beatty, 2013). Translanguaging has emerged as a prominent approach in L2/FL higher education instruction, advocating for the fluid and dynamic use of multiple linguistic resources by learners (García & Lin, 2017). While often positioned as a contemporary strategy, translanguaging incorporates elements of traditional translation-based methods, particularly GTM, by enabling students to draw on their full linguistic repertoire to construct meaning. However, unlike GTM, which emphasized rigid translation exercises, translanguaging promotes a more flexible, interaction-driven approach, aligning with communicative and sociocultural perspectives on language learning (García & Lin, 2017). Tabatadze (2021) critically examines translanguaging, questioning whether it represents a progressive shift or a return to outdated translation-based methods and concludes that while translanguaging incorporates translation as a scaffold for comprehension, it moves beyond traditional translation methods by fostering deeper cognitive engagement and social interaction.

The resurgence of translation-related strategies within translanguaging highlights the persistence of historical methods in renewed pedagogical forms. Instructors employing translanguaging often encourage

students to translate and compare linguistic structures across languages, fostering metalinguistic awareness while maintaining a communicative focus. This hybrid approach reflects the broader trend in language education of integrating traditional and modern methodologies to enhance learning outcomes (Lewis et al., 2012).

Several factors have contributed to the transformation of L2/FL teaching methods in higher education. More specifically, cognitive and sociocultural developments stemming from Vygotsky's (1978) Sociocultural Theory, which emphasizes the pivotal role of social interaction in learning, have significantly influenced the rise of collaborative and communicative methodologies. The impact of this theory on education and language learning has grown considerably in recent decades (Lantolf & Xi, 2023). Another factor includes globalization and internationalization of education and English as a Lingua Franca. The increasing mobility of students has led to the multilingual and plurilingual policies worldwide and to the implementation of CLIL and other content-driven approaches to ensure academic success in multilingual settings (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Lantolf & Xi, 2023). Furthermore, advancements in educational technology represent another factor that implies an integration of digital tools in the learning process has supported personalized learning and increased accessibility to language resources (Levy & Stockwell, 2013; Gm, Goudar, Kulkarni, Rathod & Hukkeri, 2024). And finally, the empirical research on language acquisition studies demonstrated the inefficacy of rote memorization and explicit grammar instruction, which has accelerated the shift toward interactive, student-centered approaches (Badr & Abu-Ayyash, 2019).

Analysis of empirical research reveals patterns in the effectiveness of different language teaching methodologies in higher education while comparing traditional vs. communicative approaches. Studies comparing GTM and CLT in university settings demonstrate that while GTM enhances grammatical accuracy, CLT significantly improves fluency and communicative competence (Littlewood, 2011; Gass, Behney & Plonsky, 2020). However, CLT's effectiveness is contingent on students' willingness to engage in interaction-based learning. As for the efficacy of CLIL in Higher Education, longitudinal studies indicate that CLIL enhances both content knowledge and linguistic proficiency, but challenges arise when students struggle with cognitive overload (Pérez-Cañado, 2011). Scientifically it is proven an impact of TBLT on academic language development. Alternatively, research by Ellis, Skehan, Li, Shintani & Lambert (2020) and Robinson (2011) suggests that TBLT fosters critical thinking and task-solving skills, yet its success depends on well-structured tasks aligned with academic objectives. Finally, the role of technology in language instruction is increasingly supported by empirical evidence. A meta-analysis of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) interventions revealed significant improvements in learners' spelling, writing, and reading proficiency (Felix, 2005). Nevertheless, concerns persist regarding digital inequities and varying levels of student technological proficiency. (Hubbard, 2013).

Investigations into university instructors' language teaching methods indicate a hybridization of approaches often manifesting as blended pedagogies. Many instructors combine face-to-face instruction with online components, leveraging digital tools for scaffolding (Means et al., 2013). Another prominent cluster of approaches involves code-switching and translanguaging; studies reveal that lecturers in multilingual settings

frequently employ translanguaging strategies to bridge linguistic gaps, demonstrating their effectiveness in facilitating comprehension and participation (García & Lin, 2017; Tabatadze, 2021). A third emerging focus is integration of academic literacy into university language programs, particularly through the incorporation of academic writing and critical reading components tailored to meet discipline-specific language demands (Van Wyk, 2002; Yulian, 2021; Hyland, 2019).

The evolution of language teaching methodologies in higher education has been shaped by theoretical advancements, empirical research, and global educational shifts. A systematic analysis of classroom-based studies highlights the strengths and limitations of various methods, emphasizing the importance of adaptable, evidence-based pedagogies. The persistence of older methods, such as translation-based strategies, in renewed forms like translanguaging, illustrates the cyclical nature of pedagogical innovation. As higher education continues to internationalize, further research is required to refine instructional approaches that effectively support L2/FL learners in academic contexts.

Overview of Affirmative Action Policy in Georgia's Higher Education and One-Year Georgian Language Program

Different types and forms of affirmative action policies for higher education admission have been implemented in Georgia since 2005. The reform of Georgia's higher education began in 2005 and unified national exams as part of the admission system were one of the most important reforms in the field. The unified national examinations system was developed and implemented within the reform's framework and required every entrant to pass three tests: Georgian Language, General Skills (in the Georgian or Russian languages), and Foreign Language. The first year of the reform had considerable negative effects on ethnic minorities. "An affirmative action" policy for ethnic minority applicants was implemented from the very first year of the formal establishment of Georgia's United National Entrance Exams. However, the forms, methods, and approaches to this policy changed constantly between 2005-2010. The Ministry of Education and Science (MoES) made certain changes in the forms of affirmative action to ameliorate the negative effects of the 2005 united national entrance exams. The MoES modified the regulations and allowed applicants to take the general skill tests as well as elective tests in Russian. At the same time, non-Georgian school graduates, including those from Russian language schools, were eligible to take Russian for the foreign language test. In addition, training courses were offered to the school students and graduates in Ninotsminda and Akhalkalaki's Language Houses with the OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities' support (Tabatadze & Gorgadze, 2013; Tabatadze & Gorgadze, 2016; Gorgadze & Tabatadze, 2017; Tabatadze, Gorgadze & Gabunia, 2020, 2023).

The MoES had to take additional significant steps to support ethnic minority applicants in 2008. Specifically, the regulation of unified national exams was modified, and national minorities were given the option to take the general skills tests in the Armenian and Azerbaijani languages. Preparatory courses were also provided for university applicants. The foundation and authorization of Akhalkalaki College, a new legal entity of public law, based on the Javakheti Branch of Ivane Javakhishvili State University, was an important

intervention in the process of supporting ethnic minorities' enrollment in Georgian higher education. 2008 was an important year with respect to the general educational reform cycle, as 11 years of schooling were replaced with a schooling cycle of 12 years in Georgian language schools. Georgian schools did not have school graduates in 2008 and this increased national minorities' opportunities to enroll in HEI. All of the abovementioned measures increased the number of registered and enrolled national minority students in 2008.

Given the experience with the Unified National Exams between 2005-2009, the Government of Georgia (GoG) decided to introduce a quota system for ethnic minorities' admissions to Georgia HEI. Specifically, the November 19, 2009 amendment to the Law on Higher Education introduced a provision (Article 52.5[1]) requiring Higher Educational Institutions to admit students solely based on the results of the general skills tests (administered in the Azerbaijani, Armenian, Ossetian, and Abkhazian languages). HEIs were obliged to allocate 5-5 % of their total admissions for Armenian and Azerbaijani students, and 1-1% for Ossetian and Abkhazian students.

The Georgian Language One-Year Program was introduced in most of Georgia's public HEI in 2010, and its goal was to develop students' reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills to the extent required to study at the Bachelor's, Medical, or Veterinary Diploma levels. The Program is a 60-credit course (Article 47.2) and is mandatory for all students enrolled through a quota system in the first academic year. Upon successfully completing the Georgian training program, the HEI issues a certificate of completion. Graduates of the program are then eligible to pursue any undergraduate programs to continue their studies.

Higher educational institutions (HEIs) started the implementation of the One-Year Georgian Language Program in 2010. HEIs have significantly revised their One-Year Georgian Language Programs since the program was first launched. The updated programs introduce several innovative approaches, which have been integrated across all HEIs. Specifically: (a) Students are now placed in courses aligned with their language proficiency levels, divided into distinct A and B modules. The A module, designed for students with lower language competence, includes more instructional hours, whereas the B module is tailored for students who performed better in pretesting. (b) Elective courses are incorporated into the second semester, allowing students to develop subject-specific language knowledge and skills aligned with their interests and prospective undergraduate programs. (c) Course syllabi now officially include extracurricular activities to reinforce language learning and student engagement. (d) Universities have established dedicated centers and organized extracurricular activities to support students' academic and social integration. (e) A structured system for teacher professional development has been introduced within the One-Year Georgian Language Program to enhance instructional quality. (f) The program's educational resources have been expanded, and libraries have been enriched with new teaching materials to support student learning (Tabatadze, Gorgadze & Gabunia, 2020). Despite these significant program reforms, no studies have been conducted to examine the effectiveness of teaching methods employed within the program. As a result, there is a gap in understanding how instructors implement these changes in practice. This study addresses this gap by analyzing the teaching methods used by educators, thereby contributing both to academic research and practical applications in language instruction.

Research Methodology

Research Objective and Questions

This study was designed to assess the effectiveness of the quota system introduced in Georgia's higher education institutions (HEI) admission system in 2010, with a particular focus on language teaching methods and preparation for undergraduate studies. The research explored the following question: To what extent do language teachers utilize diverse teaching methods, resources, and skills development strategies, and how do these practices align with modern pedagogical approaches?

Research Methods

The study utilized a survey research design to answer the research question. To ensure representativeness and enable generalization of findings across institutions, a stratified sampling strategy was employed, with each university treated as a separate stratum. Within these strata, students enrolled in the One-Year Georgian Language Program were sampled. In larger universities, such as Tbilisi State University, Ilia State University, and Georgian Technical University, a proportionally large random sample was drawn, covering over 50% of enrolled students. In smaller institutions, including Batumi, Kutaisi, Telavi, Gori, and the Police Academy, a near-census approach was applied, with all or nearly all students included in the sample due to the small population size. This approach allowed for both cross-institutional comparability and reliable insights at the individual university level.

Table 1 below illustrates the survey populations and the number of students sampled per university.

Table 1. Sample of One-Year Georgian Language Program

University	Total Number of Students in One-Year Georgian Language Program	Number of Students Sampled
Tbilisi State University	310	172
State Medical University	68	62
Sukhumi State University	70	64
Georgian Technical University	308	169
Samtskhe Javakheti State University (Akhaltsikhe and Akhalkalaki Branches)	70	64
Ilia State University	280	162
Batumi State University	5	5
Kutaisi State University	11	11
Telavi State University	8	8
Gori State University	8	8
Police Academy of Georgia	11	11

The enumerators were selected for fieldwork based on three important criteria: (1) Experience working as data collectors; (2) Experience working in the Kvemo Kartli, Samtskhe-Javakheti, or Kakheti regions; and (3) Knowledge of both state and minority languages. A total of 29 enumerators were selected. Seven staff members from the Centre for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations (CCIIR) were in charge of the fieldwork. To enhance the reliability of the survey data, all enumerators underwent preparatory training focused on ethical data collection practices, effective communication with respondents, and the proper use of survey tools.

The questionnaire, which consisted of four sections, was developed as follows: (1) Assessment of the teaching process (general evaluation of the program; teaching methods and strategies used by teachers; extracurricular and co-curricular activities, etc.); (2) Assessment of infrastructure, resources, and equipment; (3) Activities for social and academic integration; and (4) Plans after program completion. The draft version of the questionnaire was piloted and tested at Tbilisi State University and Samtskhe-Javakheti State University. Several revisions were made after piloting. Specifically: (1) wording in the response options was clarified for better understanding; (2) The names of the teaching strategies were elaborated; and (3) Some teaching strategies were grouped under the broader, overarching categories. The revised version of the questionnaire was then printed.

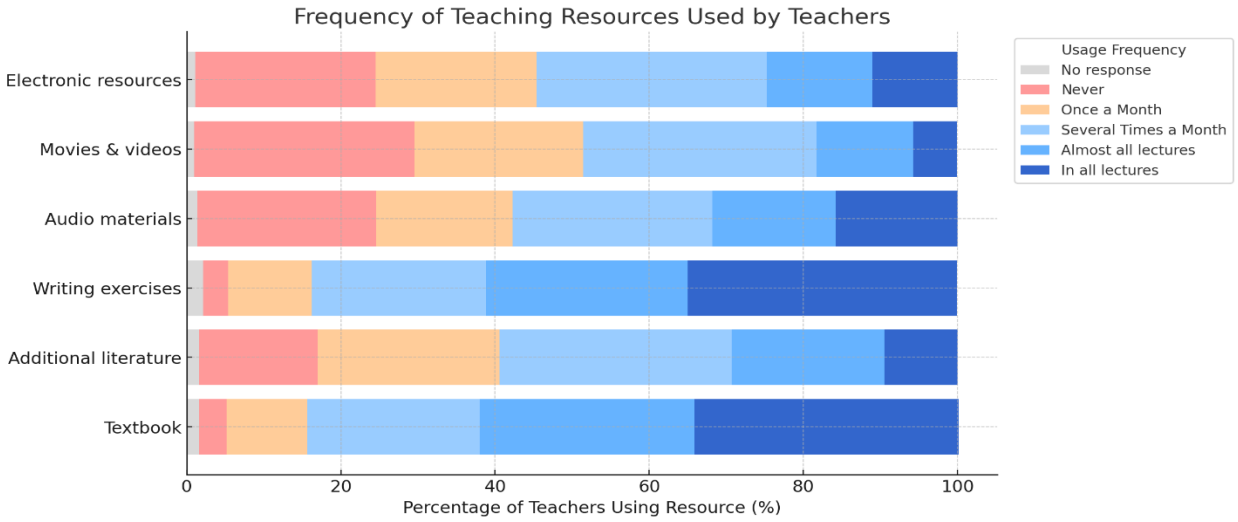
To analyse the survey data, the study employed descriptive statistical methods to identify patterns and frequencies in students' responses regarding teaching methods, instructional resources, skill development strategies, and extracurricular engagement. Frequency distributions and percentage calculations were used to summarize how often specific teaching strategies and resources were applied across the surveyed universities. This approach allowed for a clear identification of dominant instructional practices and underutilized methods.

The data were systematically tabulated to highlight variation in instructional frequency (e.g., "never," "once a month," "several times a month," "almost in all lectures," and "in all lectures") for each teaching method. This categorization enabled the identification of trends in traditional versus interactive pedagogies, as well as the extent of emphasis on different language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking, and metacognitive development). In addition, cross-tabulations were employed to compare responses across different types of activities and strategies, supporting an interpretive analysis of consistency and gaps in pedagogical practices. These statistical strategies provided a robust foundation for drawing conclusions about instructional effectiveness and alignment with contemporary language education standards.

Research Results

A special section of the questionnaire was devoted to the description of teaching methods used by the teachers. The first question asked about the variety of the teaching materials employed, and the majority of the survey participants (76.4%) believe that the teachers in the program use diverse teaching resources. The general question on teaching resources was followed by a list of specific resources to identify those most widely used in the teaching process.

Figure 1: Frequency of teaching resources used by teachers



As the figure clearly shows, the most frequently used resources are textbooks and exercise books (notebooks), while the materials used least are video resources (28.5% of survey participants indicated that these had never been used in lectures) and electronic and online resources (23.4% of survey participants indicated that these had never been used in lectures). Nearly 75% of the participants believe that teachers use diverse teaching methods and strategies, while only 11.3% believe that teachers do not. Additionally, 5.7% of participants did not answer this question, and 8% were unable to respond.

The research further explored the frequency of teachers' use of various instructional methods. The strategies most frequently used by teachers are: (1) Teaching grammar rules (46.6%); (2) Lecturing (40.7%); and (3) Debating (41.2%). The least used teaching methods are: (1) Role play—40% of participants indicated that this method had never been used; (2) Watching and analysing movies; (3) Presentations; and (4) Discussions. The results clearly highlight that while teachers employ a variety of teaching methods, a clear preference is given to traditional approaches, such as lecturing and grammar memorization, over more interactive strategies like role-play, discussions, and presentations.

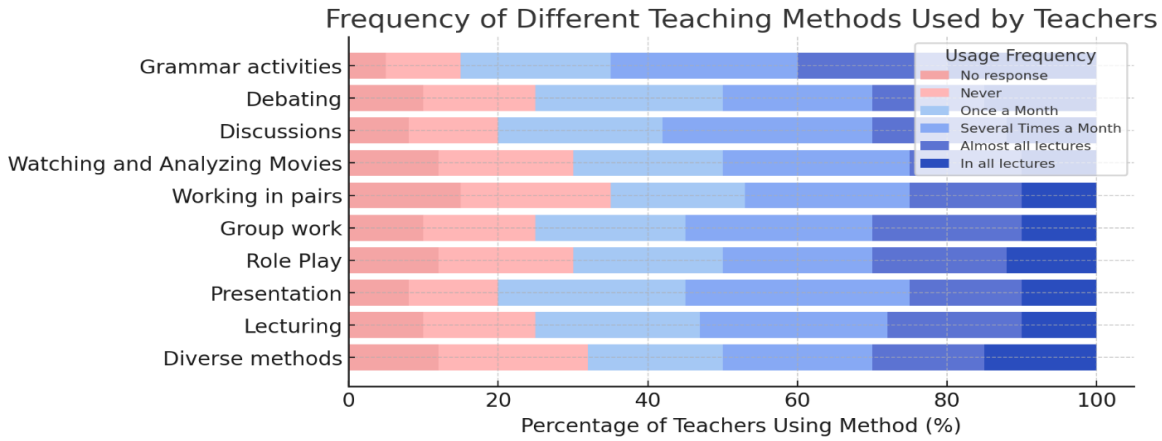


Figure 2. Frequency of different teaching methods used by teachers

Notably, the study revealed quite different frequencies in teachers' use of discussion and debate strategies. Both of these are important methods for students to convey their views and opinions, as well as to support the exchange of ideas and arguments, providing sufficient evidence and reasoning.

The survey was designed to assess the teaching methods teachers use to develop core language skills, such as reading, writing, speaking, and listening. The approach teachers use most frequently during the reading phase is one where one student reads aloud while the other students listen. The "one-by-one" reading method during the reading phase is also frequently used (one-third of survey participants reported that this approach is used daily). Similarly, performing exercises following the reading activity is also common practice with 30% of participants reporting that this happens every day. Again, the approach in which the lecturer reads the text while the students listen is commonly used (29.8% of survey participants reported this approach is used daily). Stating questions after reading, individual reading, and restating/paraphrasing the text are also frequently used strategies. The least widespread strategies are the "ending the story" approach and the "development of infographics and graphic organizers." Forty per cent of survey participants reported that teachers never use these approaches or use them only once a month. In summary, teachers' reading strategies primarily focus on working with texts, with less attention paid to checking the degree of student comprehension. The greatest emphasis is placed on the knowledge and understanding aspects of Bloom's taxonomy, with less focus on higher-order thinking. The figure below presents the distribution of the participants' responses in detail.

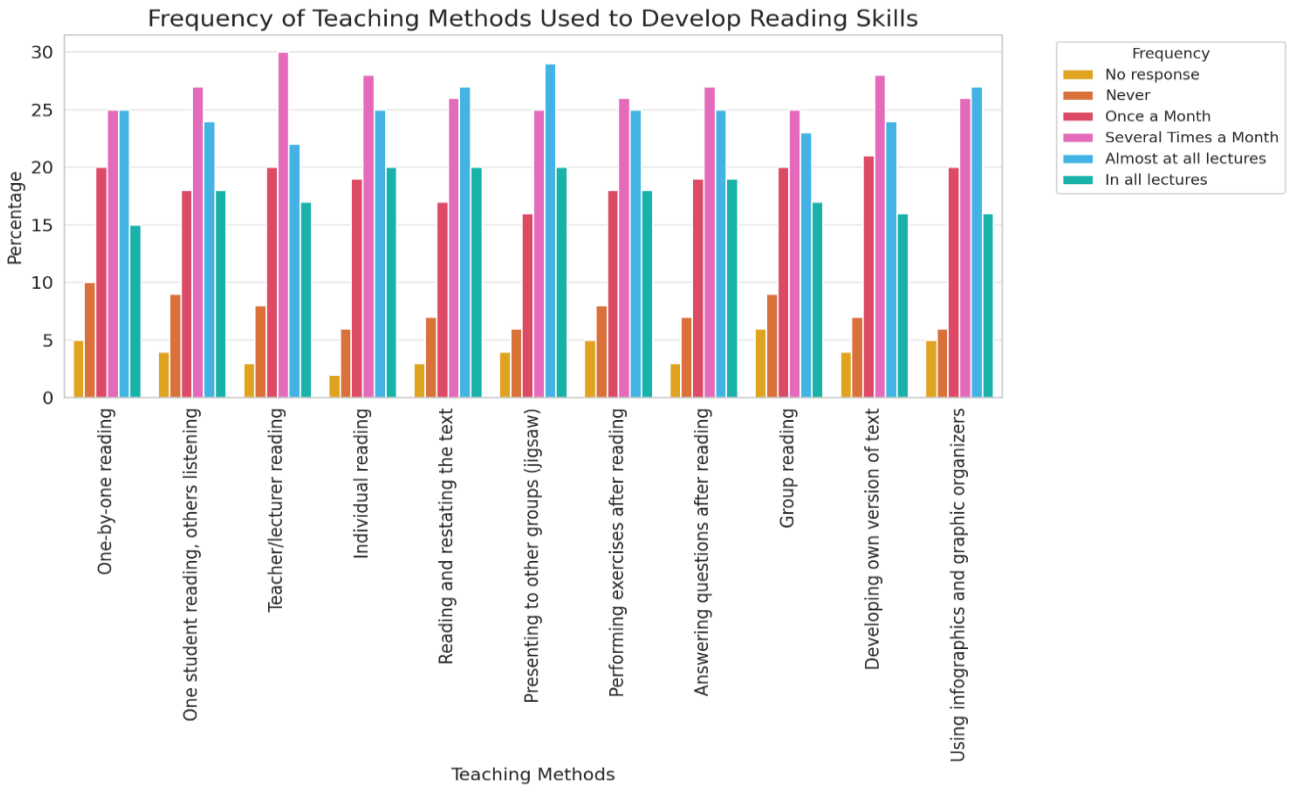


Figure 3. Frequency of different teaching methods used by teachers to develop reading skills

The approaches most frequently used to develop writing skills include filling in missing words in a text and correcting misspelled words or grammar mistakes. The least frequently used approaches are writing essays or papers, with 21–30% of participants reporting that their teachers never use these methods. Additionally, teachers rarely use rewriting exercises or dictation. This result is significant, as it highlights that teachers do not prioritize strategies focused on spelling and memorization, nor do they employ methods that promote higher-order writing skills such as synthesis and analysis. Instead, their primary objective remains the development of lexical and grammatical skills through mechanical drill rather than comprehensive writing skills. The figure below presents the distribution of responses in detail.

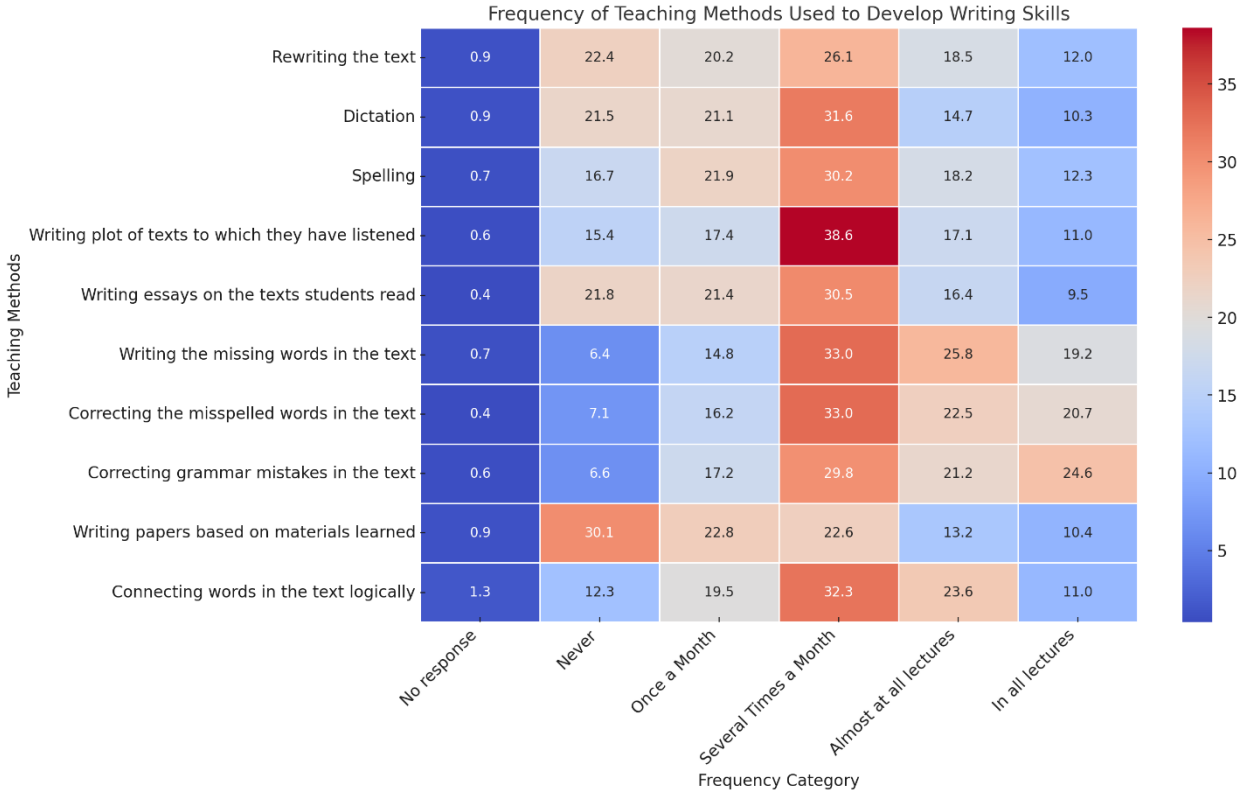


Figure 4. Frequency of different teaching methods used by teachers to develop writing skills

Although students indicated that teachers use diverse methods, the frequency of their use varies significantly. The teaching methods used nearly every day include learning new words from texts they have listened to, identifying grammar constructions in texts, engaging in discussions, and listening to and analyzing texts. However, 42% of participants reported that conducting interviews, an important strategy for developing listening and speaking skills, was never used by teachers. Student presentations were also identified as an infrequently used strategy. In summary, teachers' use of listening and speaking strategies is largely focused on knowledge, understanding, and application, with less emphasis on higher-order thinking skills. The figure below presents the distribution of responses in detail.

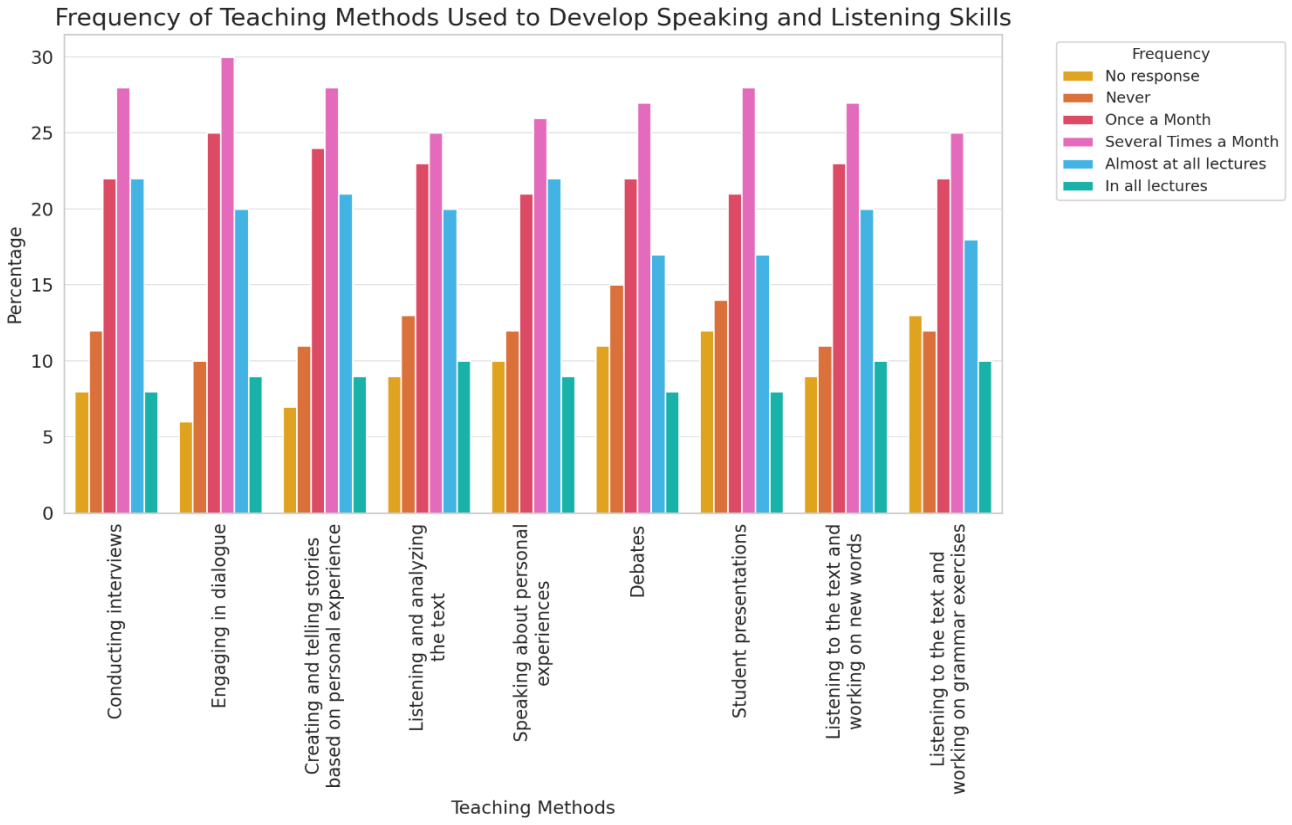


Figure 5. Frequency of different teaching methods used by teachers to develop speaking and listening skills

The questionnaire included questions about the approaches teachers use to develop students' metacognitive skills too. The results show that teachers employ diverse teaching methods for this purpose. A total of 76.6% of participants agreed that teachers use the methods aimed at developing students' metacognitive thinking, while only 7.4% reported that such practices were not used. Additionally, 16% of participants either did not respond to this question or were unable to provide a definitive answer.

Students reported that teachers use specific methods to develop metacognitive awareness with varying frequency, ranging from "several times a month" to "in all lectures." Specifically, 37% of participants indicated that teachers use "note-taking" several times a month. Additionally, 30% reported that "group or individual work after explaining new material" is used several times a month, while 26% stated that this method is employed in almost all lectures, and 21% indicated that it is used in all lectures.

Regarding the method of "summarizing," 33% of participants noted that it is used several times a month, 23% reported its use in almost all lectures, and 18% indicated that teachers employ this method in all lectures. Furthermore, participants stated that strategies such as "teachers explaining how to complete homework" and "teachers asking what was most important in the lesson" are used in all or nearly all lectures. In summary, teachers demonstrate a strong commitment to developing students' metacognitive skills, which is essential for their long-term academic success and facilitates their studies at the undergraduate level. The figure below presents the distribution of responses in detail.

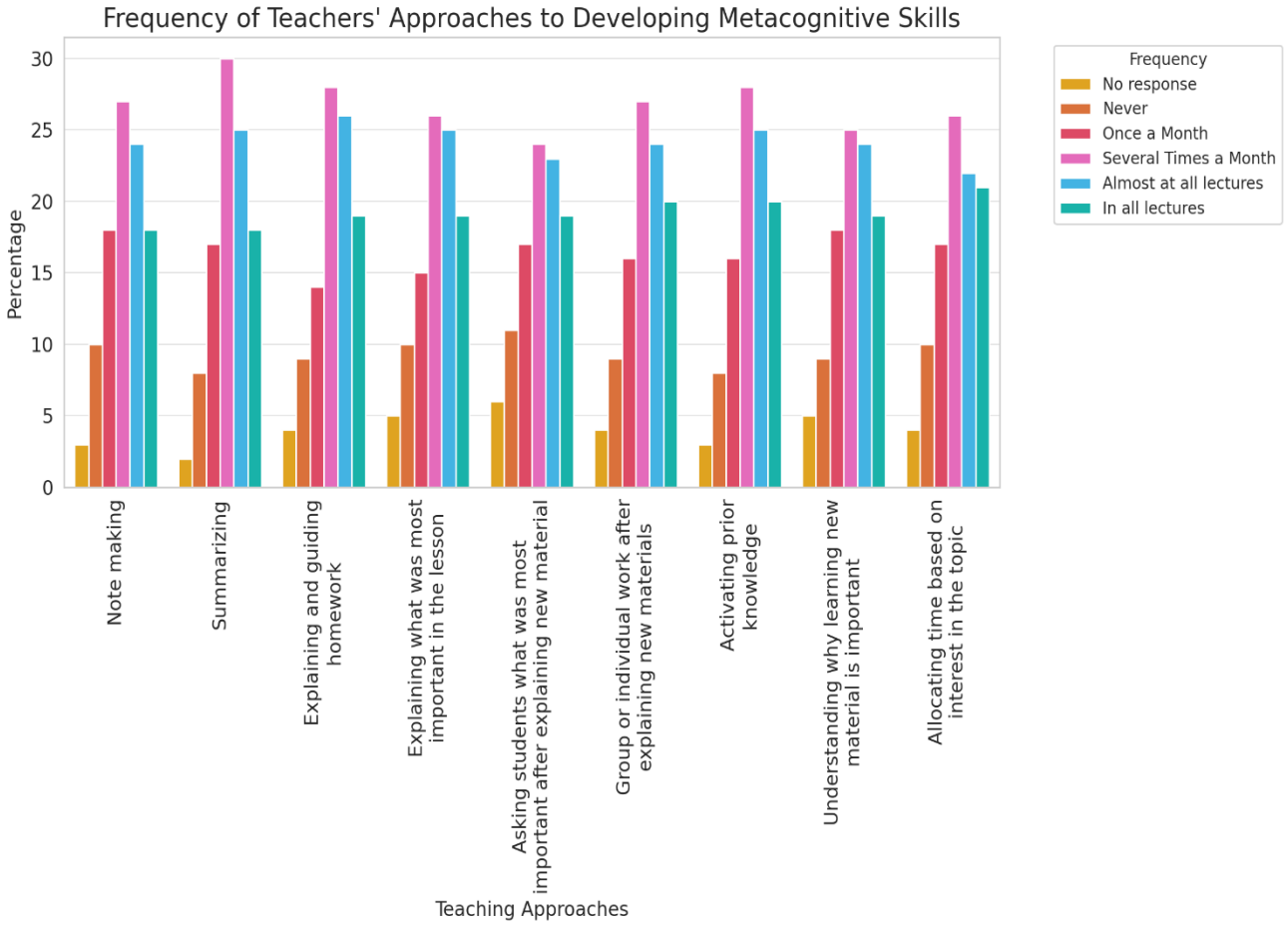


Figure 6. Frequency of teachers' approaches to developing metacognitive skills

Assessment of extracurricular activities as part of the teaching

The study also aimed to examine the integration of extracurricular activities into the teaching process. A total of 48.1% of participants indicated that extracurricular activities are incorporated into the program, while 31.9% reported the opposite. Additionally, approximately 10% of participants either did not respond or were unable to provide an answer to this question. The study examined the extracurricular activities most commonly used in the program and found that they lack diversity, with teachers primarily relying on a limited range of activities. One of the most widely used strategies is showing movies, whereas intensive courses and summer or winter schools are rarely incorporated. Therefore, diversifying extracurricular activities is a key area for improving the One-Year Georgian Language Program. The need for greater variety in these activities was also emphasized in the qualitative findings. Students in the program, along with undergraduate students and university graduates, highlighted the importance of extracurricular activities in their academic experience.

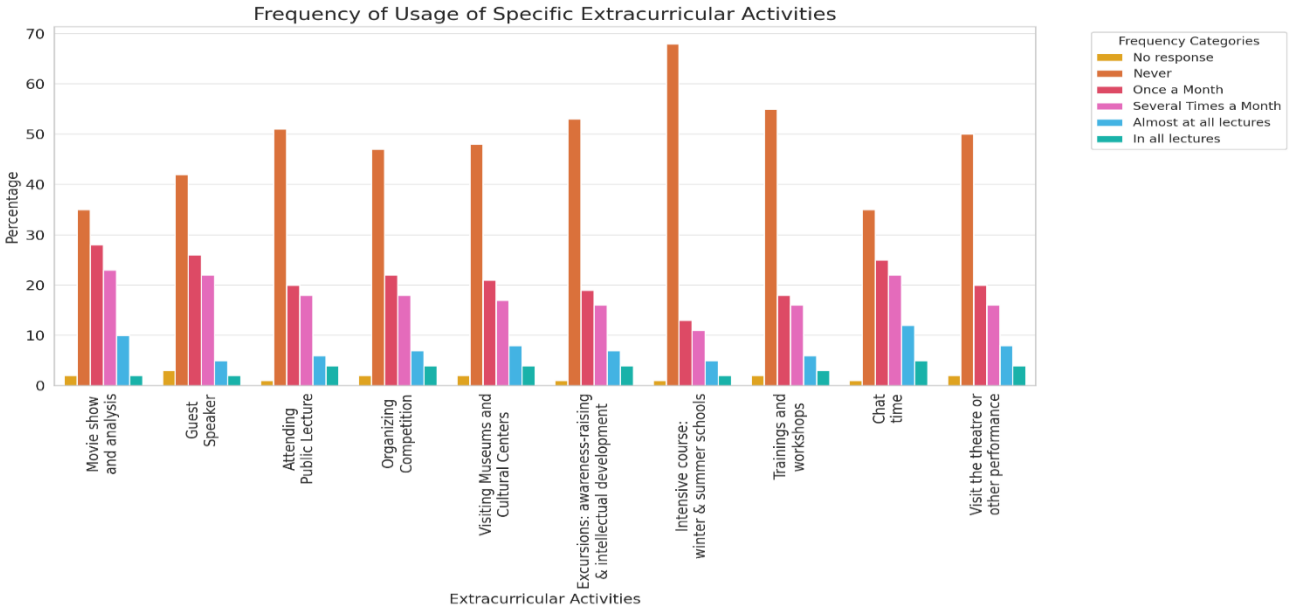


Figure 7. Frequency of usage of specific extracurricular activities

The study also examined the extent to which teachers integrate technology into the teaching process. Findings revealed that 44% of participants reported the use of online platforms, while 15% indicated that online platforms and technology were not utilized in the program. The study also examined the frequency of technology use for different teaching purposes. The findings indicate varying levels of integration: 1) Selection of Teaching Resources from Internet Sources – 25% of participants reported this occurs "sometimes," 18% said "often," and 8.7% indicated it is used "intensively." 2) Use of Technology for Homework/Assignments – 22% of participants reported using technological and internet tools for assignments "often," while 27.8% reported doing so "sometimes". 3) Teacher-Student Communication via Technology and Online Platforms – This had the lowest reported frequency among survey participants. The figure below provides a detailed breakdown of teachers' use of technology and internet platforms in the teaching process.

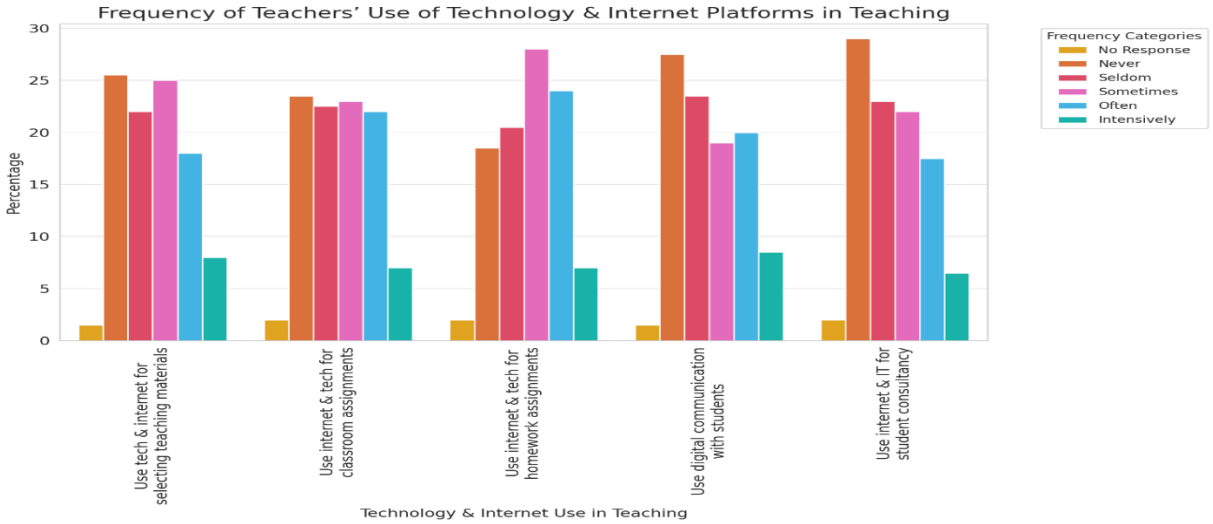


Figure 8. Frequency of teachers' use of technology and internet platforms in teaching

Discussion

The findings of this study provide valuable insights into the current state of language teaching methods, resources, and skill development approaches in the observed educational context. In terms of teaching resources, the heavy reliance on textbooks (34.2% in all lectures) and writing exercises (34.9% in all lectures) reflects a continuation of traditional teaching practices, as highlighted in previous studies (e.g., Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). This reliance on textbooks mirrors the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM), which emphasizes the formal aspects of language through direct instruction and explicit focus on grammar (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). However, the limited use of electronic resources and video materials (23.4% and 28.5% never used, respectively) stands in stark contrast to contemporary trends in language teaching that advocate for the integration of multimedia and digital resources. Such resources have been shown to enhance learner engagement and provide more dynamic and interactive learning experiences (Shadiev & Yang, 2020; Beatty, 2013). The underutilization of these digital tools suggests a gap between current pedagogical practices and the broader push towards technology-enhanced language learning, which can foster more interactive and personalized learning environments (Selwyn, 2021).

In terms of teaching methods, the results indicate that while teachers using a variety of methods, traditional approaches such as lecturing and grammar-focused instruction still dominate (40.7% and 46.6%, respectively). This aligns with the findings of Perera (2020) and Emaliana (2017) who highlighted the persistence of teacher-centered methods, despite the increasing advocacy for more learner-centered approaches, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). The dominance of such traditional methods may limit opportunities for students to engage in meaningful interaction and collaborative learning, which are crucial for developing higher-order cognitive abilities like problem-solving and critical thinking (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). Furthermore, while methods such as role play and group work were acknowledged as valuable, their limited use (40% and 31.1% never used) suggests a resistance to shifting from direct instruction to interactive, student-centered approaches. This gap aligns with the observations in the literature, where the shift to more collaborative methods, which is important in CLT has not yet fully materialized in many contexts (Van Nguyen, 2010).

The findings related to skill development also show a clear emphasis on foundational skills such as reading and grammar. The frequent use of teacher-led reading and writing exercises focused on correcting grammar and spelling errors reflects an ongoing prioritization of language accuracy over fluency and communicative competence. This mirrors Tsui's (2001) observation that" A major concern of L2 teachers is how to generate rich and meaningful interaction in the classroom which will facilitate SLA. Many teachers find it difficult to engage students in interaction, especially in teacher-fronted settings" (p.120). The underuse of more creative strategies, such as infographics and graphic organizers, suggests an opportunity to incorporate more innovative and visual approaches that can support deeper comprehension and stimulate students' critical thinking (Harmer, 2015). Such strategies are consistent with recent trends in language education, where task-

based and content-based methods aim to integrate language learning with academic content to foster both linguistic proficiency and critical thinking (Pérez-Cañado, 2011).

Metacognitive skills, however, appear to be a stronger focus in the observed practices, with 76.6% of participants agreeing that teachers use diverse strategies to promote self-regulation and reflective learning. The frequent use of strategies such as note-taking, summarizing, and group work reflects an increasing awareness of the importance of metacognition in language learning. This trend aligns with the work of Zimmerman (2002), who emphasized the role of metacognitive awareness in fostering autonomy and lifelong learning skills. Teachers' focus on these strategies indicates a positive shift towards helping students not only learn the language but also understand and control their own learning processes, which has been shown to be a key factor in developing lifelong learners (Zimmerman, 2002). This goal is not always achieved by teachers, as Zimmerman emphasizes, "Although research findings strongly support the importance of students' use of self-regulatory processes, few teachers effectively prepare students to learn on their own (p. 69). The use of strategies for the development of meta-cognitive skills by teachers at the One-Year Georgian Language program aligns with the broader emphasis in contemporary language pedagogy on developing learners' ability to regulate their own learning, as advocated by cognitive and sociocultural theories of language acquisition (Vygotsky, 1978; Lantolf & Xi, 2023).

Conclusion

This study contributes to the understanding of current teaching practices in language education, revealing a predominant reliance on traditional, teacher-centered methods and an underutilization of technology and interactive strategies. The findings indicate that while foundational skills like reading comprehension and grammar are emphasized, more complex language tasks such as writing synthesis and critical thinking remain underdeveloped. The results suggest a need for the integration of more interactive, student-centered teaching methods, alongside a stronger emphasis on multimedia resources, to better align with contemporary pedagogical trends that prioritize active learning and higher-order cognitive skills.

The practical implications of these findings are clear: there is a need for teacher professional development programs that focus on the effective use of modern technology, the promotion of interactive teaching methods, and the incorporation of higher-order skill development in language education. For policymakers and educational leaders, these results underline the importance of providing teachers with the tools, resources, and professional support necessary to embrace more diverse and innovative teaching practices that can better prepare students for the challenges of the 21st century.

Future Research Directions

While this study provides a comprehensive snapshot of current practices, future research could further explore the reasons behind the limited use of interactive methods and technology in language classrooms.

Specifically, studies could investigate teachers' perceptions of the barriers to incorporating more innovative methods and resources, including factors such as professional perceptions and beliefs, lack of training, time constraints, or institutional resistance to change. Additionally, longitudinal research could examine the impact of integrating technology and interactive methods on student outcomes, particularly in terms of critical thinking, problem-solving, and language fluency. Finally, future studies might explore the role of culturally relevant materials and approaches in language teaching, given the growing emphasis on multicultural education and the need for inclusive curricula that reflect diverse student populations.

By addressing these gaps, future research can provide further guidance for enhancing teaching practices and better aligning language education with the evolving demands of global communication and digital literacy.

References

Anderson, L. W., & Krathwohl, D. R. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives: complete edition*. Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Badr, H. M., & Abu-Ayyash, E. A. (2019). Semantic Mapping or Rote Memorisation: Which Strategy Is More Effective for Students' Acquisition and Memorization of L2 Vocabulary?. *Journal of Education and Learning*, *8*(3), 158-174.

Beatty, K. (2013). *Teaching & researching: Computer-assisted language learning*. Routledge. Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied linguistics*, *1*(1), 1-47.

Ding, A. C. E., Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A., Lu, Y. H., & Glazewski, K. (2019). EFL teachers' pedagogical beliefs and practices with regard to using technology. Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education, 35(1), 20-39.: https://doi.org/10.1080/21532974.2018.

Dalton-Puffer, C. (2011). Content-and-language integrated learning: From practice to principles?. *Annual Review of applied linguistics*, *31*, 182-204.

Ellis, R., Skehan, P., Li, S., Shintani, N., & Lambert, C. (2020). *Task-based language teaching: Theory and practice*. Cambridge University Press.

Emaliana, I. (2017). Teacher-centered or student-centered learning approach to promote learning?. *Jurnal Sosial Humaniora (JSH)*, *10*(2), 59-70.

Felix, U. (2005). What do meta-analyses tell us about CALL effectiveness? *ReCALL*, *17*(2), 269–288. doi:10.1017/S0958344005000923.

García, O., & Lin, A. M. Y. (2017). Translanguaging in bilingual education. In O. García, A. M. Y. Lin, & S. May (Eds.), *Bilingual and multilingual education* (pp. 117-130). Springer.

Gass, S. M., Behney, J., & Plonsky, L. (2020). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. Routledge.

Gm, D., Goudar, R. H., Kulkarni, A. A., Rathod, V. N., & Hukkeri, G. S. (2024). A digital recommendation system for personalized learning to enhance online education: A review. *IEEE Access*, *12*, 34019-34041.

Gorgadze, N. (2016). Rethinking integration policy–Dual ethnic and cultural Identity. *International Journal of Multilingual Education*, (8), 6-31.

Gorgadze, N. & Tabatadze, S. (2017). *eTnikuri umciresobis studentTa da kursdamTavrebulTa profesiuli ganviTarebis, karieruli winsvlisa da da dasaqmebis SesaZleblobebi da perspeqtivebi /Opportunities and prospects for professional development, career advancement and employment of ethnic minority students and graduates.* Centre for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations. Tbilisi. Georgia.

Harmer, J. (2015). *The practice of English language teaching (With DVD)*. Pearson Education.

Hornberger, N. H. (2022). Researching and teaching (with) the continua of biliteracy. *Educational Linguistics*, *1*(1), 108-133.

Hyland, K. (2019). Second language writing. *Language Teaching*, *52*(2), 157-173.

Hubbard, P. (2013). Making a case for learner training in technology enhanced language learning environments. *Calico Journal*, *30*(2), 163-178.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod*. Routledge.

Lantolf, J. P., & Xi, J. (2023). Digital language learning: A sociocultural theory perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, *57*(2), 702-715.

Lewis, G., Jones, B., & Baker, C. (2012). Translanguaging: Developing its conceptualisation and contextualisation. *Educational research and evaluation*, *18*(7), 655-670.

Levy, M., & Stockwell, G. (2013). *CALL dimensions: Options and issues in computer-assisted language learning*. Routledge.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2013). How languages are learned (4th ed.). Oxford University Press.

Littlewood, W. (2011). Communicative language teaching: An expanding concept for a changing world. In *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 541-557). Routledge.

Means, B., Toyama, Y., Murphy, R., & Baki, M. (2013). The effectiveness of online and blended learning: A meta-analysis of the empirical literature. *Teachers college record*, *115*(3), 1-47.

Oxford, R. L. (2016). Teaching and researching language learning strategies: Self-regulation in context (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Perera, M. R. H. (2020). Factors contributing to persistence of teacher centered learning in the higher education sector of Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Trend in Scientific Research and Development*, *4*(5), 1436-1441.

Pérez-Cañado, M. L. (2011). CLIL research in Europe: past, present, and future. *International Journal of*

Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, *15*(3), 315–341. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2011.630064

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, P. (2011). Task-based language learning: A review of issues. *Language learning*, *61*, 1-36.

Selwyn, N. (2021). *Education and technology: Key issues and debates*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Shadiev, R., & Yang, M. (2020). Review of studies on technology-enhanced language learning and teaching. *Sustainability*, *12*(2), 524.

Skinner, B. F. (1957). *Verbal behavior*. Appleton-century-crofts.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford University Press.

Spolsky, B. (2002). Globalization, language policy, and a philosophy of English language education for the 21st century. *English Teaching*, *57*(4), 3-26.

Tabatadze, S., & Gorgadze, N. (2013). *Evaluation of the Effectiveness of the Quota System in Georgia*. Centre for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations. Tbilisi. Georgia.

Tabatadze, S., & Gorgadze, N. (2016). *qarTul enaSi momzadebis erTwliani programis efeqturobis kvleva/ Study of Effectiveness of One-Year Georgian Language Program*. Centre for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations. Tbilisi. Georgia.

Tabatadze, S., & Gorgadze, N. (2017). Affirmative action policy in admissions system of higher education of post-Soviet Georgia. *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, *9*(3), 363-377. https://doi.org/10.1108/JARHE-03-2016-0020

Tabatadze, S., Gorgadze, N., & Gabunia, K. (2020). *Study of the Higher Education Minority Quota System Policy in Georgia, 2010-2019.* Centre for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations. Tbilisi. Georgia.

Tabatadze, S., Gorgadze, N., & Gabunia, K. (2023). *Enobrivi politika saqarTveloSi*. *Language Policy in Georgia*. Centre for Civil Integration and Inter-Ethnic Relations. Tbilisi. Georgia.

Tabatadze, S. (2017). Minority education in Georgia: Is it delivering what is expected?. *Diaspora, Indigenous, and Minority Education*, *11*(1), 17-30. https://doi.org/10.1080/15595692.2016.1245658

Tabatadze, S. (2021). Reconsidering monolingual strategies of bilingual education through translanguaging and Plurilingual educational approaches. Are we moving back or forward? *International Journal of Multilingual Education*, *17*(2), 47–63. https://doi.org/10.22333/ijme.2021.17003

Tollefson, J. W., & Tsui, A. B. (2018). *Medium of instruction policy* (Vol. 1, pp. 257-279). New York: Oxford University Press.

Tsui, A. B. (2001). Classroom interaction. The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages, 120-125.

Yulian, R. (2021). The flipped classroom: Improving critical thinking for critical reading of EFL learners in higher education. *Studies in English Language and Education*, *8*(2), 508-522.

Van Nguyen, L. (2010). Computer mediated collaborative learning within a communicative language teaching

approach: A sociocultural perspective. The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly March 2010 Volume 12, Issue, 202.

Van Wyk, A. (2002). A university bridging course focusing on academic reading and writing skills. *Journal for language teaching*, *36*(3-4), 220-232.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes* (Vol. 86). Harvard University Press.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2002). Becoming a self-regulated learner: An overview. *Theory into practice*, *41*(2), 64-70.

Khaled Belarbi, Louiza Belaid

Ibn Khaldoun University of Tiaret, Algeria

Multilingual Practices in the Linguistic Landscape: Insights into Linguistic Repertoires and Language Policy

ABSTRACT

Globalization has expanded cross linguistic communication, influencing Algeria's linguistic landscape, especially its public signage. The linguistic landscape (LL) -introduced by Robert B. Landry and Richard Y. Bourhis, (1997)- encompasses the languages found in public signage, outdoor advertisements, street nameplates, storefront signage, and official signage, collectively shaping the linguistic environment of a specific area. This study investigates how Tiaret's linguistic landscape reflects its multilingual character and language practices. The objective is to demonstrate how LL can offer valuable insights into the linguistic repertoire of Tiaret, including patterns of language use, official language policies, prevailing language attitudes, and the long-term impact of multilingual encounters. This research adopts a qualitative approach to analyze the representation of languages in public signage. Data were collected through an interview and an observation of street signs, advertisements, building names, warnings, billboards, store signs, and official signs. The findings revealed a complex relationship between the official language policies, societal attitudes, and multilingual representation in public signage. Future research is required to investigate the impact of foreign language mastery on public signs in the country.

Keywords: *Language contact, Language planning, Shop signs, Public signage, Multilingualism*

Introduction

In recent years, the city of Tiaret has experienced a notable shift in public signage, particularly in the realm of the sales outlet signs, which have transitioned from being predominantly monolingual to multilingual. This change is quite significant and reflects a new trend influenced by language contact. Business owners have increasingly adopted multiple languages in their signage to attract a broader clientele, especially targeting younger generations. This study, based on the researchers observations, explores the motivations behind this shift, and examines how language contact has transformed the linguistic landscape in Tiaret. This phenomenon not only highlights the growing influence of globalization but also exhibit the evolving linguistic preferences of the local populations. The growing presence of foreign language in the country, particularly English and French, alongside Arabic, suggest a shift toward a cosmopolitan identity. Furthermore, this change reflects broader socio-economic and cultural dynamics and its adaptation to contemporary linguistic and cultural influences.

In order to guide this endeavor, the following research questions are raised:

1. What are the key linguistic changes observed in the public signage of Tiaret?
2. What socio-cultural and economic factors motivate business owners to use multilingual signage?
3. How do people in Tiaret view the use of foreign languages in store signs?

Literature Review

Linguistic Landscape: Language, Signs, and Space

> *The linguistic landscape is a reflection of the territorial presence and/or administrative control of a given language group, and the study of linguistic landscapes reveals the extent of language visibility and salience in a given territory.*
>
> — Landry & Bourhis, 1997, 23-24

Since the 1990s, the study of public signage has garnered significant attention, leading to a growing interest in this area of research. Linguistic Landscape (LL) has gained popularity across various disciplines, including linguistics, semiotics, sociology, politics, economics, communication, and urban planning. LL focuses on the examination of written displays in public spaces, particularly those involving minority languages (Shohamy and Gorter, 2009). The term "linguistic landscape" was initially introduced in sociolinguistics by Landry and Bourhis (1997, 25), who defined it as: *"the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration."* This definition indicates that LL encompasses both administrative signs (from regional, national, or municipal levels) and private signs (such as those found on stores, banks, and billboards) as well as spontaneous signs (like graffiti and café menu boards), all of which reflect the multilingual character of a territory. Shohamy and Gorter (2008) later expanded this definition to include:

"…language in the environment, words and images displayed and exposed in public spaces, that is the center of attention in this rapidly growing area referred to as Linguistic Landscape *(LL)."*

According to Gorter, the concept of LL could be used to account for the linguistic situation in a given country, or for the presence of certain languages in a larger geographical location (2006, 1). For him, LL is simply concerned with '*the usage of language in its written form in public spheres*' (Gorter, 2006, 1). In fact, Gorter's account broadens the scope of LL to such a degree that it comprises all the textual items, which are publicly displayed. LL, whatever ways it is defined, lies upon two basic elements, namely *the linguistic sign* and *public space* (Boukhaloua and Belkhir, 2020).

Other researchers focused their studies on a particular sign, such as billboards (Tulp, 1978), shop signs (Dimova, 2007; McGregor, 2003; Sadikhova & Marjan, 2000; Schlick, 2002, 2003), road signs (Puzey, 2007), or proper and brand names (Edelman, 2009; Tufi & Blackwood,2010). However, some of them included visible or displayed texts (Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Dagenais, Moore, Sabatier, Lamarre, & Armand, 2009; Spolsky & Cooper, 1991, Litvinskaya, 2010, 11).

Research in the linguistic landscape explores various directions within the field of linguistics. Some studies focus on the comparative aspect between different geographical regions (e.g. Coluzzi 2012), while some others"focus on situations of minority languages (e.g. Cenoz, J. and D. Gorter 2006), multilingualism (e.g. Backhaus 2007, Shohamy et al. 2010), or practical application of LL in the second language acquisition (e.g. Cenoz and Gorter 2008). Still, the underlying interest of all LL studies remains similar: "(1) they use written language in the landscape as a primary source of data; (2) that they analyze the data concerning the presence, status or functions of minority languages" (Gorter et al. 2012, 3). This wide range of applications has significantly contributed to the popularity of the linguistic landscape across various research fields (Boukhaloua and Belkhir, 2020).

Linguistic Landscape Signage: Origins and Classifications

Ben-Raphael e.al. (2006), Shohamy, E; Ben-Rafael; Bami, M. (2010), as cited in Boukhaloua and Belkhir (2020), distinguish between the top-down and bottom-up signage. *Top-down* (public signs, created by the state and local government bodies such as public sites, public announcements and street names) and *bottom-up* language use (created by vendors, private businesses including names of shops, business, signs and personal announcements.), as it is summarized in the table below:

Category	Type of Linguistic Landscape Sign
Top-down	a) Public institutions (religious, municipal-cultural and educational) b) Public signs of general interest c) Public announcements d) Signs of street names
Bottom-up	a) Store signs (e.g. clothing & jewelry) b) Private business signs (factories, agencies) c) Private announcements

Table 1: Types of Linguistic Landscape Signs: Top-Down vs. Bottom-Up (Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara and Trumper-Hecht, 2006).

The Multi-functional role of the Linguistic Landscape

The Linguistic Landscape (LL) has multiple functions within a given community namely: informative, symbolic, cultural, historical, educational, social etc. Each contributes to how language is experienced

and understood in public spaces.

The Informative Function

It is viewed as providing information on the linguistic diversity of a specified area and the level of the area's involvement in globalization processes. Thus, English plays a significant role in the names of cafes, restaurants, etc. When international events are held, English becomes an official language in signage, catering spheres, etc. Secondly, signs in minority languages define the geographical and administrative borders of minority language areas.

The Symbolic Function

It is connected with the status of the language, the demographic and institutional power of the ethnic group. This function has to do primarily with signs on administrative buildings.

The Social Function

It is linked to the local and national identities and it reveals the attitude of social groups to the problem of signage. The choice of the language indicates social problems and interethnic relations in society.

The Psychological Function

It is described through the attitude the subjects of LL experience at the vision of elements of LL and describe them as (un)pleasant, beautiful, ugly, (in) correct, etc.

The Mythological function

In 2002, Hicks analyzed the Gaelic revitalization in Scotland and added the mythological or the folkloric function. It focuses on places named in association with traditional stories, myths, and folklore. Furthermore; these signs reflect the traditional culture of a specific group and may serve as a transmitter or a link between the past and the present generations, which symbolizes one of the design features of language "*Cultural transmission"*. Thus, adding a sense of belonging to the in-group. Therefore, this function has to do with the phatic function of language to establish a relationship between past and present generations.

The Commercial function

Hornsby (2008) coined the commercial function. It is fulfilled when a language is used to promote a certain product or a place for tourists. It is, therefore, used for commercial purposes. This function is associated with conative function because it calls for persuasion and affecting consumers‟ behaviors.

Methodology and Data Collection Procedures

This endeavor adopts a qualitative research design typically grounded in the linguistic landscape of the selected speech community; it combines a non-participant observation and a semi-structured interview. The approach adopted helps us gain visual and interpretive insights into how multilingualism is usually expressed in public sings and how the linguistic choices reflect the language ideologies and attitudes in the speech community.

Analysis of Store Owners' Interview

Age and gender, regarded as demographic variables with no influence on the study's outcomes, were not taken into account in the analysis, four vendors and an owner of a private educational institution, were asked to explain the motive behind labeling their sales outlet.

Question 1: Business Type and Vendor's Level of English Proficiency

Respondent ID	Type of Business	English Proficiency Level
1	Private school	Advanced
2	Bakery	Intermediate
3	Pastry Market	Intermediate
4	Fast-food Restaurant	Intermediate
5	Clothing Store	Beginner

Table 2: Services Provided and English Proficiency Levels

The three respondents claim that they have an intermediate level of the language saying that they can understand a few words in English but cannot speak fluently. The respondent with an advanced level claimed that he can speak English fluently, which is why he decided to open a private educational school of foreign languages to give the chance to other people improve their skills in languages, especially English. The interviews with the store proprietors indicate that most Algerian non-English speakers value English. The last one claimed that he has a beginner level of English proficiency, but still wish to learn and improve his skills in English.

Question 2: Why did you choose to name your store in English?

Two business owners emphasized the international status of the English language, claiming that the mastery and use of English help to attract customers, and not just any customers, but those who are socio-economically privileged. The other decided to simply name their store with the brand label of

the company they collaborate with. The other respondent described English as a prestigious language that gives a modern appeal.

Question 3: Who do you think is able to read or understand your business sign?

The responses to this question varied among the business owners. Two of them stated that they chose words commonly heard by the public, like ' Pizza' and 'Fashion', which means they are already exposed to them in media, social media, or other contexts. This suggests that people may form judgments based on the perceived familiarity or prestige of the English language, even without full comprehension. Most store managers thought their signs were clear to most clients, regardless of their language proficiency. A few respondents specifically mentioned that their target audience includes youngsters already skilled in English.

Question 4: To what extent do you think an English store name influences customer visits?

The interviewees confirmed that labeling a shop in English plays a major role in attracting clients. However, they emphasized that factors such as reputation, quality of the service, hygiene, and so forth also complement the English label.

For example, the drawing of a cupcake or ice cream cone with its attractive colors makes the store sign readable and beautifully appealing to everyone. That is to say, the overall view of the store sign can be affected by other factors, such as the colors used, the drawing, and the shape of the sign than the text inserted. The conventional information people gain from observing this sign allows for more than just reading it; they also appreciate it and feel attracted to it.

Question 5: Have you received any feedback about your use of English in your store's name?

All respondents confirmed that they receive feedback and comments regarding the use of the English language. While the feedback varies, it is generally positive, with many appreciating the modern and international appeal that English conveys. Some also noted the novelty of using English in a local setting. Moreover, the sales outlet owners reported that their clients tend to be better informed about the quality of their products and services through the English signage. Consequently, the English outlet name reflects that their business aligns well with the international market standards.

Question 6: Do you believe English should be more widely used on commercial establishment and street signs in Algeria?

All respondents expressed a preference for increased use of English on public signs and in the streets, citing the global and powerful status of the language. They strongly believe that promoting English could contribute to the region's development as a commercial hub and potentially as a tourist destination.

Interpreting Sign Designers Perspectives

The creation of store signs takes place at the graphic design store. Graphic designers are key figures responsible for crafting graphics used in advertising and signage. Two graphic designers from the town center were interviewed about their clients' language preferences and demands. Their responses supplement the findings from the interviews with the sales outlet owners.

Question 1: Which languages do your clients most commonly request for signage?

One graphic designer affirmed *"there is no fixed answer to this question."* Most advertisement signage includes up to three languages. In his opinion Arabic, French, and English are used equally. The other one claims that French and Arabic hold a position of dominance around the area. When asked about English, he confirmed he had also designed signs in English, though less frequently.

Question 2: Which language is currently most dominant in signage and advertising in Tiaret?

The two designers asserted that English is now holding a new spot. They confirm that people tend to use more English, especially when it comes to private businesses; French and Arabic are not in demand compared to how they used to be in the past. In their words, there is no single predominant language, but there are three which co-exist simultaneously instead.

Question 3: Which language do you believe made your most successful design?

The first graphic designer claimed that the one in Arabic, since it is the mother tongue of Algerian, while the other one assumed that the one written in foreign languages, i.e., French or English since they attract more attention.

Question 4: In your opinion, does using English in public signs help attract more customers?

The two graphic designers who responded to Question-item 2 agree that English signs would be more attractive, especially for younger generations, as they are more interested in English and use it more frequently.

The interviews conducted have revealed the importance of the English language, which is in constant progress in Algeria due to its international and modern status. Though French was taking a recognizable position at all levels, now with the huge spread of trade and market in English, this language is learned at schools, universities, and even private schools. Besides the positive attitudes of Algerian citizens towards the language, it would be the prioritized language for public signage.

Research results

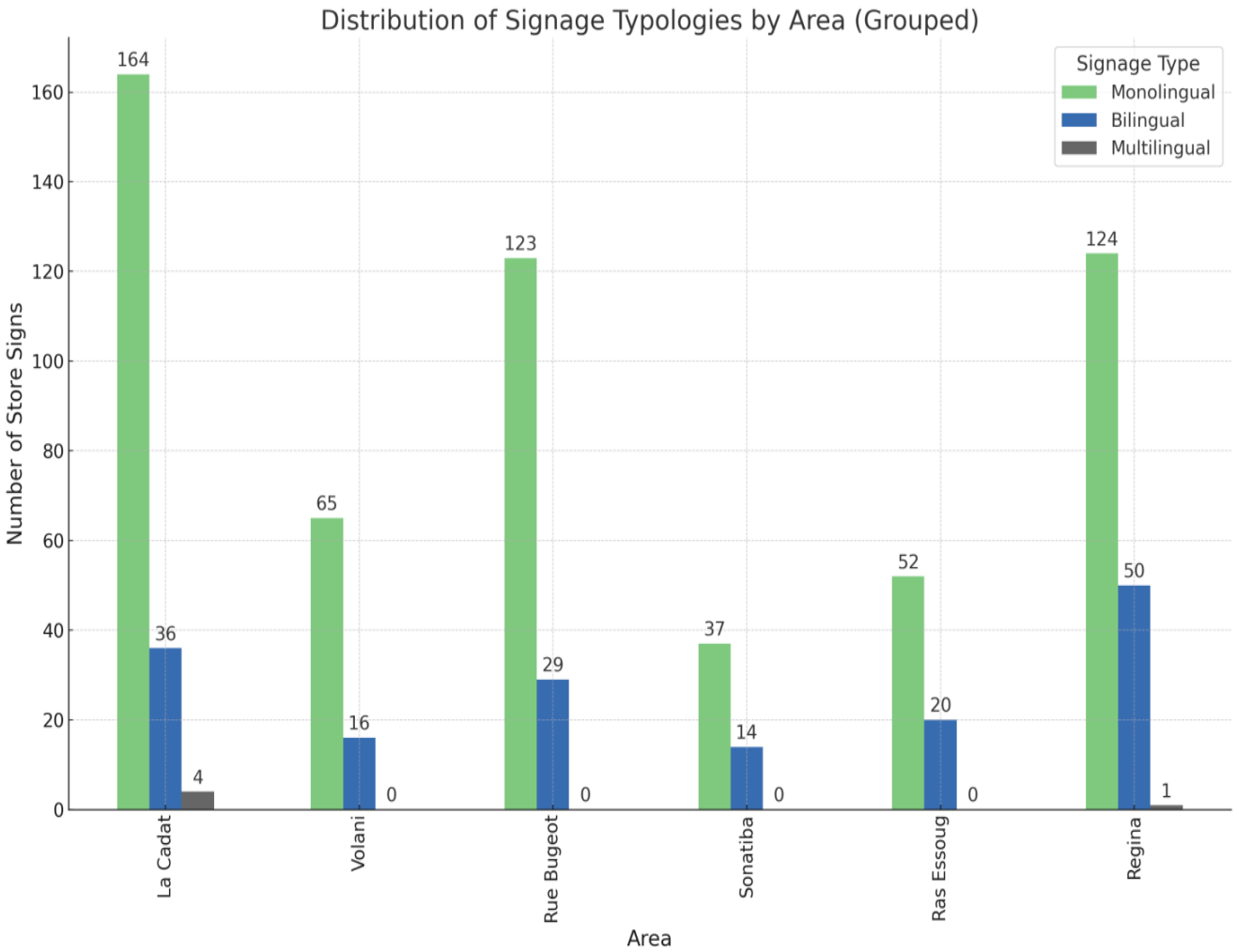
Patterns of Language Use in Public Signage

The occurrences of language varieties on shop signs contribute to a comprehensive understanding of the linguistic landscape of the selected community. A substantial number of store signs photographs were collected and analyzed. Moreover, the Algerian linguistic repertoire is rich and it is likely characterized by language diversity, an aspect clearly reflected the languages used on the store signs.

During the data collection process, researchers observed signs featuring one single register; others incorporate two or even three language varieties. Therefore, the analysis of data collected reveals different typologies of sales outlet signs i.e., monolingual, bilingual and multilingual typology.

Figure 1 below exhibit that there is a noticeable dominance of monolingual shop signs (76.9%) across all studies locations, indicating limited linguistic diversity in public commercial spaces. Bilingual signs account for 22.4% of the total, while multilingual signs are limited to only 0.7%, reflecting minimal instances of complex language hybridity. Among the sampled locations, Regina and Rue Bugeot stand out with the highest numbers of bilingual signs (50 and 29, respectively), this suggests a greater degree of linguistic variation likely due to socio-economic or demographic factors. Nonetheless, areas like Volani, Sonatiba, and Ras Essoug show minimal to no multilingual signage. Thus, the overwhelming presence of monolingual signs may suggest a preference for national languages or a limited demand for multilingual communication in these contexts.

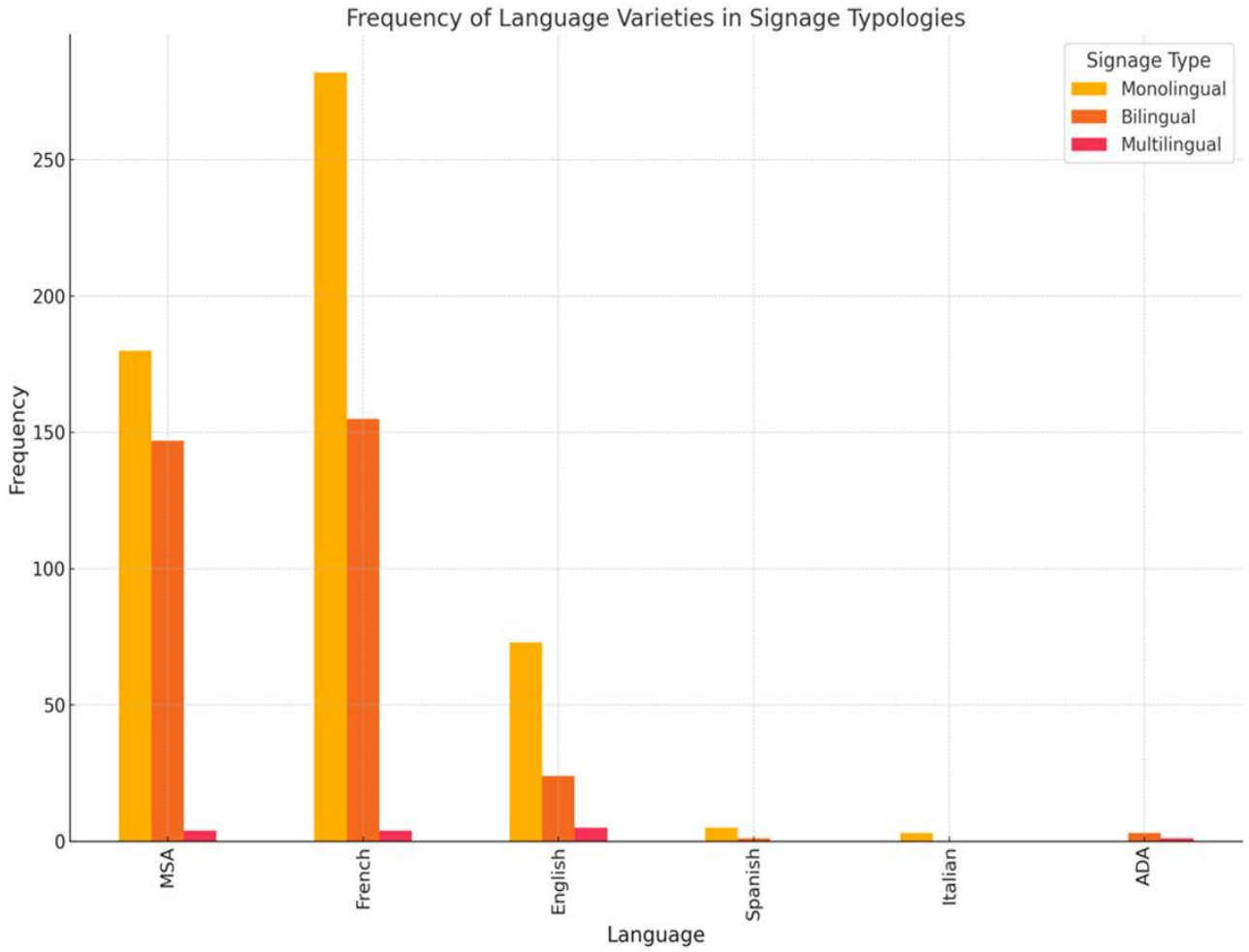
Figure 1: Distribution of Signage Typologies



Similarly, the data in figure 2 below reveal that monolingual signs include the most frequent

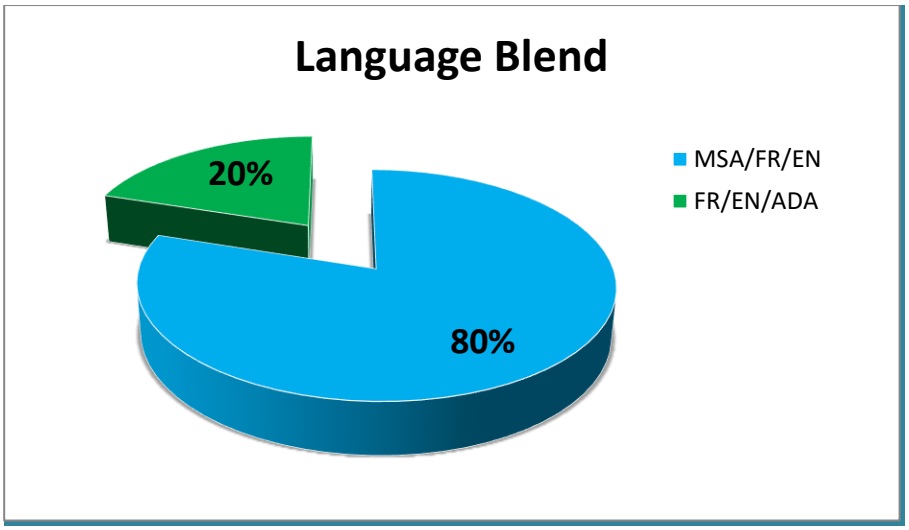
language varieties of the sample i.e. MSA (180), French (282) and English (73). Even less common languages, such as Spanish and Italian appear more frequently in monolingual signs. However, ADA is absent in monolingual signs. Moreover, bilingual combinations consist of MSA and French, as their occurrence is very high, with 147 signs in MSA and 155 in French. Also, the occurrences of English are about half of its appearance in monolingual signs. Interestingly, although ADA does not appear in monolingual signs, it is present in a small number of bilingual and multilingual combinations.

Figure 2: Frequency of Language Varieties in Signage Typologies



The dominance of MSA and French as observed regarding bilingual combinations, applies also to multilingual patterns. As shown in figure 3, there are only five multilingual signs out of hundreds of stores in Tiaret community. 80% of the multilingual patterns include MSA, and French alongside English. It is notable that there is only one trilingual pattern in which French, English and ADA are included. This rare combination asserts that ADA occurs in three bilingual patterns and suggests strong evidence that it exists alongside official and foreign languages, even at low frequencies. The figure below displays the percentage of language blend in public signs.

Figure 3: Language Combinations in Multilingual Signs



Our findings exhibit that the most prominent commercial sectors in terms of language signage are the food sector, clothing and fashion, and automobile accessories. The food sector has the highest number, with French appearing on approximately 54.8%, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) on 54%, and English on 14.3% of the signs. Spanish, Italian, and ADA are present in less than 1.2% each. These percentages may not sum to 100% because many signs are multilingual and counted under more than one language. The clothing and fashion sector follows with 217 signs, where French appears on 54.4%, MSA on 26.7%, and English on 17.5% of the signs. The automobile accessories sector, though smaller with 44 signs, shows a strong presence of French (77.3%) and MSA (50%), with no English or other languages used. In this regard, French and Modern Standard Arabic are considered the dominant languages in the most active sectors, while English plays a secondary role. Minor languages like Spanish, Italian, and ADA are rarely used, and this indicates limited linguistic diversity in the aforementioned languages.

Discussion of the Findings

As mentioned earlier, Landry and Bourhis (1997) distinguished between the informational and symbolic functions of language signs. The data collected shows that a specific language (English) or languages (MSA and French) are available for communication, e.g., to sell products. On the other hand, the symbolic function refers to the value and status of languages as perceived by members of a language group in comparison to other languages. For example, Modern Standard Arabic is highly respected by Algerian speakers, yet it is seldom used in daily interactions.

Landry and Bourhis view that LL can be an important factor in language policy and in economic

processes, which does not seem to be the case for Algeria, since our study of Tiaret Linguistic landscape reflects Algeria's linguistic diversity that is still neglected by decision makers.

The findings revealed that using French and MSA effectively attracted customers, as most Algerians understand these languages. It is worth mentioning that some signs have German too; this could reflect the migration tendency of most Tiaretian youngsters. The presence of English in the linguistic repertoire and public signage of a community is one of the most prominent indicators and positive outcomes of globalization. In Algeria, people started using English and prioritizing its reform and policy in primary schools. This is a strong sign of the positive attitudes of the society as a whole in favor of English over the French language, which is receiving less interest in the economy and education.

Conclusion

This study of the linguistic landscape of Tiaret has revealed that the city is shifting toward multilingualism, incorporating English, French, Spanish Italian, and German, driven by language contact, economic factors, and globalization. The most remarkable linguistic change is English signage, especially among younger business owners aiming to attract a broader and modern clientele. Participants viewed English signage positively; they associated its use with professionalism, modernity, and prestige. Nonetheless, French remains dominant due to its colonial legacy and its institutional presence. By contrast, the visible presence of Algerian Dialectal Arabic in signage reflects the community's cultural attachment to their mother tongue. In this regard, further research in other Algerian cities is needed to investigate whether similar multilingual patterns emerge.

References

Backhaus, P. (2006). Signs of multilingualism in Tokyo*: A linguistic landscape approach*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Backhaus, P. (2007). Linguistic landscapes: A comparative study of urban multilingualism in Tokyo. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Basimolodi, O. M. (2000). A review of Botswana's language policy in education and its effect on minority languages and national development. In R. Trewby & S. Fitchart (Eds.), *Language*

and development in Southern Africa: Making the right choices (pp. 143–158). Namibia: Gamsberg Macmillan Publishers.

Ben-Rafael, E. (2009). A sociological approach to the study of linguistic landscape. In E. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery* (pp. 40–54). New York: Routledge.

Bunyi, G. W. (2005). Language classroom practice in Kenya. In A. M. Y. Lin & P. W. Martin (Eds.), *Decolonisation, globalisation, language-in-education policy and practice* (pp. 131–152). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2006). Linguistic landscape and minority languages. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 3*(1), 67–80. https://multilingualeducation.openjournals.ge/

Claus, R. J. (2002). The value of signs for your business. *Signline, 38*, 1–8.

Gorter, D. (Ed.). (2006). *Linguistic landscape: A new approach to multilingualism*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Huebner, T. (2006). Bangkok's linguistic landscapes: Environmental print, code-mixing, and language change. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *3*(1), 30–57. https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710608668384

Hult, F. M. (2009). Language ecology and linguistic landscape analysis. In E. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery* (pp. 88–104). New York: Routledge.

Jaworski, A., & Thurlow, C. (Eds.). (2010). *Semiotic landscapes: Language, image, space*. London: Continuum.

Kachru, B. B. (1990). *The alchemy of English: The spread, functions, and models of non-native Englishes* (Illini Books ed.). Urbana: University of Illinois Press. (Original work published 1986)

Kress, G., & van Leeuwen, T. (1996). *Reading images: The grammar of visual design*. London: Routledge.

Landry, R., & Bourhis, R. Y. (1997). Linguistic landscape and ethnolinguistic vitality: An empirical study. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *16*(1), 23–49. https://multilingualeducation.openjournals.ge/

Mac Giolla Chríost, D. (2007). *Language and the city*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Malinowski, D. (2009). Authorship in the linguistic landscape: A multimodal performative view. In E. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery* (pp. 107–125). New York: Routledge.

McCormick, K., & Agnihotri, R. K. (2009). Forms and functions of English in multilingual signage. *English Today, 25*(3), 11–17.

Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Longman.

Phillipson, R. (2003). *English-only Europe? Challenging language policy*. London: Routledge.

Preisler, B. (1999). Functions and forms of English in a European EFL country. In T. Bex & R. Watts (Eds.), *Standard English: The widening debate* (pp. 239–268). London: Routledge.

Rey, M. (2004). Multilingual writing: A reader-oriented typology with examples from Lira Municipality (Uganda). *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 40*, 126–140.

Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. W. (2003). *Discourses in place: Language in the material world*. London: Routledge.

Schlick, M. (2003). The English of shop signs in Europe. *English Today, 19*(1), 3–17.

https://multilingualeducation.openjournals.ge/

Shohamy, E., & Gorter, D. (Eds.). (2009). *Linguistic landscape: Expanding the scenery*. New York: Routledge.

Shohamy, E., Ben-Rafael, E., & Barni, M. (Eds.). (2010). *Linguistic landscape in the city*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Kerry Carley Rizzuto, Lilly M. Steiner, Vecihi S. Zambak

Monmouth University, West Long Branch, New Jersey, United States

A Music and Movement Program to Enhance Multilingual Learners' Phonemic Awareness Skills

ABSTRACT

The goal for the study was to create an inclusive and culturally responsive music and movement program for all children, concentrating on MLLs. The program allowed them to learn phonemic awareness in a joyful way by moving their bodies to the sounds of music. Given that phonemic awareness skills play an important role in early reading acquisition, it made sense to screen children's ability early on in education. Deficits in phonemic awareness are typical of early childhood children with emergent reading difficulties. The theoretical framework supporting this study draws on the tenets of both critical theory and social justice theory.

Critical theory represents a broad school of thought that critiques the nature of power relationships in a culture and explores ways to emancipate members oppressed within the system.

The following research questions guided our study: How did a ten-week culturally responsive Music and Movement Program impact the phonemic awareness abilities of emergent multilingual learners?

Keywords*: inclusive and culturally responsive music; MLL, phonemic awareness; emergent multilingual learners*

Introduction

The U.S. public school system has experienced a "demographic milestone" According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (2024), the percentage of English language learners enrolled in public school increased from 9.4% in 2011 (about 4.6million students) to 10.6% in 2021 (about 5.3 million students) (NCES, 2024). By 2040, a third of the nation's school children younger than 17 are estimated to either be immigrants themselves or the child of an immigrant.

Further, children who come from other countries are usually able to speak more than one language; multilingual learners (MLLs) are students who in the process of acquiring proficiency in multiple languages. Learning multiple languages can provide cognitive advantages, such as improved problem-solving skills and better multitasking abilities, as well as social benefits, like greater cultural awareness and empathy. However, with research indicating that MLLs who struggle with overall low levels of literacy often do not have sufficient phonemic awareness skills, the aim of this study was to assess the effects of music and movement program on multilingual learners, (García, et al., 2018).

Given the marked variability in children's language and literacy skills when they arrive at kindergarten, which usually spans the age ranges of five to six (Reardon, 2013), and the overwhelming evidence that kindergarten skills predict later reading comprehension and school success (Stanovich, 2009), one primary goal of early childhood classrooms is to promote foundational oral language skills; a critical part of learning oral language and applying it to learning to read is phonemic awareness, (Morrow, 2019).

Phonemic awareness is a critical element that is directly connected to oral language (Morrow, 2019; & Goldenberg, 2008), and there has been a renewed interest in when it should be taught in early childhood classrooms, as it also is a predictor of children's early reading achievement (Lawson, et al., 2022). Phonemic awareness is the ability to recognize and manipulate the individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken words (Morrow, 2019). It is a critical skill for learning to read because it helps children understand that words are made up of distinct sounds, which can be segmented (broken apart) and blended (put together) to form words.

This skill includes the ability to hear, identify, and play with phonemes, and it is a key component of phonological awareness, which also includes understanding larger units of sound like syllables and rhymes (Tracey & Morrow, 2017). Children need to know how to make connections between letters and sounds, typically by the end of kindergarten (Kilpatrick, 2015). Phonemic awareness is an important predictor of later reading success, as there is a one-to-one correspondence between a child's phonemic awareness ability by the end of kindergarten and their capability to read by the end of third grade (Kilpatrick, 2015).

Screening or assessing phonemic awareness typically occurs early in the kindergarten year and is typically monitored three times per year using the *A test for assessing phonemic awareness in young children* (Yopp, 1995). When assessing children's phonological awareness skills, it is useful to understand that by the end of kindergarten, 80-90% of typical students have achieved phonemic awareness. However, if children leave kindergarten or first grade without having had developed phonemic awareness, it will become difficult for them to learn to read by the end of third grade (Cummins, 2021).

The amount of pre-existing oral language that children have varies. Some children may have been exposed to phonetic concepts, which are the various aspects and skills related to understanding and manipulating phonemes, which are the smallest units of sound in a language. These concepts are foundational for developing reading and spelling abilities. Key phonemic concepts include identifying individual sounds in words, for example, recognizing the /b/ sound in 'bat' and phoneme segmentation, which is the ability to break a word down into its individual sounds, such as segmenting the word 'dog'

into /d/ /o/ and /g/. Phonemic concepts also include phonemic substitution, deletion, and addition of sounds. Typically, young children in the early childhood period, which is typically considered to be between the ages of five and eight come to school having had differing experiences with phonetic concepts; their familiarity with the concept depends on the amount of speaking and language experiences with adults and peers they have engaged in, the number of books read aloud in the home and school and playing with nursery rhymes and word games (Tracey & Morrow, 2017).

Melby-Lervag and Lervag (2012) found that first-language ability literacy could not be studied in second-language learning because nearly all the eligible studies assumed first-language ability. As a result, Morrow (2019), noted that cross-linguistic studies to a large degree have depended upon the assumption that children have attained first-language ability before second-language classroom exposure. However, the importance of considering first-language ability in second-language learning is crucial (Atwell et al., 2010). For example, Cummins (2021), found Spanish receptive vocabulary ability was not related to English phonemic awareness with children about to enter kindergarten. Riccio and Imhoff (2024) reported similar results, but only for children with weak Spanish-receptive vocabulary skills upon entry into kindergarten. For children with strong Spanish-receptive vocabulary skills, Spanish vocabulary was related to English phonemic awareness,

It is usually simple to provide extra help for children with phonemic awareness. Skills such as phonological awareness are metalinguistic, which is the understanding of how language works and how it changes ad adapts in different circumstances "and are known to transfer across languages" (Lawson, et al., 2022). Phonemic awareness has been found to be correlated between Spanish and English, consequently it is educationally valid to measure a Spanish-dominant student's phonemic awareness skills in Spanish to better predict their reading ability in English, even if they are receiving English only instruction. However, children who speak predominantly Spanish should be tested by The *Test of Phonological Awareness in Spanish* (TPAS), (Riccio & Imhoff, 2024), which measures phonological awareness ability in Spanish-speaking children. The TPAS can be used to help identify children who may need assistance from instructional activities to improve their phonemic awareness abilities to aid reading instruction (Riccio & Imhoff, 2024).

Traditional instructional methods and curriculum designs do not fully meet the needs of multilingual students, resulting in inequitable educational outcomes. MLL students require more tailored interventions that address their unique linguistic and academic challenges. By adapting the curriculum and instructional strategies, we can create a more inclusive and supportive learning environment that promotes the academic success of multilingual learners. Music can promote back-and-forth conversations and self-regulation skills, which can lead to greater language and literacy

skills. “Specifically, music has been used with children with communication disorders to practice the turn-taking necessary in conversational dialog, and children who have more opportunities to engage in back-and-forth conversations during the preschool years tend to have better language skills” (Rowe, et al., 2023, pp. 378).

Using music and movement to teach students phonemic awareness has recently been regarded as an equitable way to teach early childhood students. Music stimulates language learning, builds phonological and phonemic awareness, and enhances language skills (Melby-Lerva˚g, et al., 2012). MLLs who participate in early childhood music programs also improve their fine and gross motor skills and experience gains in cognitive, social, emotional, and musical skills (Au, 2011, Anthony & Francis. 2022; Lundetræ, & Thomson, 2018). Actively listening to songs and nursery rhymes introduces children to the specific sounds and language patterns of English, and singing in another language can improve learning how to speak it, for both multilingual learners and native-English speakers, (Cummins, 2021).

The goal for the study was to create an inclusive (Gay, 2010) and culturally responsive music and movement program for all children, concentrating on MLLs. The program allowed them to learn phonemic awareness in a joyful way by moving their bodies to the sounds of music. Given that phonemic awareness skills play an important role in early reading acquisition, it made sense to screen children’s ability early on in education. Deficits in phonemic awareness are typical of early childhood children with emergent reading difficulties (Moats, 2016).

The theoretical framework supporting this study draws on the tenets of both critical theory (Madison, 2005; Popkewitz, 1998) and social justice theory (Kincheloe &McLaren, 2002). Critical theory represents a broad school of thought that critiques the nature of power relationships in a culture and explores ways to emancipate members oppressed within the system.

The following research questions guided our study:

How did a ten-week culturally responsive Music and Movement Program impact the phonemic awareness abilities of emergent multilingual learners?

Literature Review

Music and Literacy Development

Recently, growing attention has been paid to the relationship between young children and the use of music and movement in connection to their phonemic awareness skills (Cumming, et al., 2015). Current research focuses on the neural overlap of music and language processing. Sound processing is an essential aspect of phonological perception (Angulo-Perkins & Concha, 2014), while highly

developed sound processing is also needed to learn the sound-letter correspondences (Melby-Lerva˚g, et al., 2012). Consequently, using the body has the potential to improve recall and enhance new learning. Movements that are meaningfully integrated into the learning task have been recognized as especially beneficial (Smith & Read, 2022). The largest body of research on the relationship between music and oral language focuses on links between music experience and children's phonological awareness skills, or the ability to recognize, discriminate, and manipulate the sounds of one's language (Anthony & Francis, 2022).

Moreover, Damsgard and Nielsen (2022), investigated the effects of children's prereading and word-reading skills when coupled with music and movement; their findings demonstrated that the presence of bodily engagement in five- and six-year-old children had significant differences with long-term effects following the retention period. Damsgard and Nielsen (2022), maintain, "It is important to have high bodily engagement and task integration to improve learning efficiency for long-lasting gains in the context of letter-sound knowledge (p.1711). Using music and movement to teach phonemic awareness can help educators strengthen important neural pathways in the brain that provide a foundation for decoding as well as orthographic mapping of words.

Research, specifically in early childhood education, recently pointed to the fact that having children move their bodies to recreate specific letters, shapes and sounds contributes to their understanding of phonemic awareness (Cummins, 2021). Following these recommendations from research, (Angula-Perkins, et al., 2014; Cummins, et al., 2015; Damsgaard & Nielsen, 2022), scholars found that when music and movement programs are used as part of regular literacy practices in preschool and kindergarten, they create higher levels of understanding in letter-sound correspondence (Damsgard & Nielsen, 2022; Lundetræ, & Thomson, 2018).

There are three aspects of phonemic awareness that are important for teachers of MLLs to incorporate into their phonemic awareness instruction: reading or singing chorally with a group; explicit explanations of unknown words that include contextual support through real objects, pictures or drawings, gestures, examples, and demonstrations, [as shown in the music and movement curriculum]; and practice in pronouncing sounds in words through comprehension lessons.

Growing concerns about English reading success for young MLL children abound (U.S. Department of Education, 2021). Although researchers have called for more studies on the development of English reading ability among MLL learners, trying to understand the influence of varying levels of specific aspects of language ability on this development has been problematic (August et al., 2010). Growing concerns about English reading success for young MLLs proliferate (U.S. Department of Education, 2024). Although researchers have called for more studies on the

development of English reading ability among MLL learners, trying to understand the influence of varying levels of specific aspects of language ability on this development has been challenging (August et al., 2010). This difficulty arises from the intersection of numerous factors such as the learners' native language proficiency, socio-economic background, and the quality of language instruction they receive. Moreover, the diversity in the languages spoken by MLL students adds another layer of difficulty in crafting one-size-fits-all approaches to phonemic awareness instruction, (García, 2018).

There is a paucity in the research regarding phonemic awareness instruction and MLLs. Deficiencies of adequately developed phonemic awareness is troubling as these skills are watched as the best predictor for reading ability by third grade (Smith & Read, 2020). Segmentation and blending are considered the most important 'subskills' for young children to have acquired for beginning reading (Yeong & Rickard Liow, 2012). An adequate level of these skills will allow the early childhood students to decode words during the emergent stages of literacy (Levya, et al., 2019).

Methods

Music is a way for all children to experience rich language in an authentic and risk-free way. All children can join in and feel comfortable participating at their own level of ability or choice of language, regardless of their language or literacy background (Peregoy & Boyle, 2013). Music also presents opportunities for developing automaticity, knowing what to say and producing language without pauses (Cummins, 2021; Goldenberg, 2008). To enhance the culturally responsive nature of the program (Gay, 2010), teachers can provide emergent MLLs opportunities to teach their classmates their own cultural songs and dances. This reciprocity in having the emergent multilingual leaners teach emergent native English speakers builds upon the idea that all languages are equally valued (Cummins, 2021).

Moreover, early childhood educators can reinforce the fact that children's language and emergent literacy competencies that are well developed in one language help support development of language and literacy in other languages. Music- based activities may be effective, especially for emergent MLLs because they provide engaging, developmentally appropriate, and culturally relevant opportunities for these students to express themselves (Au, 2011). The use of music in kindergarten classrooms is not only associated with academic benefits, but it also provides practical and equitable channels to enhance social interaction for students through flexible, child-centered activities (Dickerson & Donner, 2022).

Context

All interviews, observations, and artifact collection occurred at a PreK-5 school located in a suburban school district in the mid-Atlantic United States. The school serves a community of English-speaking White (77%) and Spanish speaking families (21%), with 41% of the families receiving free and/or reduced lunch at this school, 49% of students scoring at or above the proficient level for math, and 42% scoring at or above that level for reading.

The Music and Movement Program

The Music and Movement Program showcases a daily 20-minute videos which is embedded in teacher's literacy instructional time. Each teacher used the program three to five days a week for ten weeks. Every video showcases letters (and phonemes, and diagraphs, sight words) and the sounds they make. The video also displays different words that have the same beginning sound(s). The Music and Movement Curriculum contains a crucial component in its curricula; it demands that the children get up and out of their seats to respond to the music and form the letters on the screen with their bodies and sing the sounds the letters make, as they are guided by a teacher. The videos progress in complexity and feature sounds, letters, and words in different languages. Most importantly, the videos focus on a wide a range of diverse children of many cultures and ethnicities, as well as differently abled children; the children interact to the various videos, modeling the desired behaviors while engaging music plays.
Participants

Researchers used convenience sampling to select three Kindergarten teacher-participants. The researchers spoke to all early childhood teachers at a faculty meeting and the three Kindergarten teachers volunteered to participate in the study. Of the three participants, one teacher had taught in preschool and kindergarten for 10 years; one had taught kindergarten for 27 years; and the other teacher had taught for three years. They each signed informed consent. The principal of the school spoke to the families of the three classes at a special meeting and all parents gave assent for their children to participate in the ten-week program.

The students in two of the three Kindergarten classes were given the music and movement program. Two classes of students, (Na=20) and (Nb = 20), received the music and movement program and served as the treatment groups. Learners in (Na=20) included eight Caucasian children, including three students with Individual Education Plans (IEPS). IEPs are the education plans for children who receive special education services in and out of the classroom. IEPs are formal plans that detail the special education services and supports a school will provide to meet the unique needs a student with a disability. Five of the children were emergent MLLs, and seven were diverse. In the second treatment group (Nb=20), six children had IEPS, seven children were Caucasian and three of them had IEPS,

and seven children were MLLs, and two of them had IEPs. The third kindergarten class did not receive the music and movement curriculum and served as the control group (Nc=20 students). The control classroom (Nc=20), (without receiving the Music and Movement Program), was comprised of children with 12 Individual Education Plans (IEPs). Seven of the children with IEPS were Caucasian, and five were Latinx MLLs, all received regular classroom instruction. The rest of the class included four Caucasian children. The researchers administered the pre-tests and the post-tests of *A test for assessing phonemic awareness in young children* (Yopp, 1985) to the students in the control classroom.

Data Collection

The researchers employed a mixed-methods design, consisting of both qualitative and quantitative (quasi-experimental) data collection. The quantitative part of the study involved the implementation a of music and movement program. There were two groups of students: two kindergarten classes (Na=20) and (Nb =20) in the treatment group and one kindergarten class in (N=20) the control group. For the qualitative portion, a Grounded Theory approach was used (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Additionally, students in both groups were quantitatively assessed pre-test and post-test using *A test for assessing phonemic awareness in young children* (Yopp, 1995).

For qualitative data, researchers conducted the open-coding procedures to identify key variables of the students' improvement in phonemic awareness as teacher-participants used the ten-week phonemic awareness music and movement curriculum (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). In the research meetings, researchers narrowed down the codes, categories, and collapsed data into themes. The initial list of codes, categories, and themes were compared and aligned with theory and literature dealing with phonemic awareness and the use of music and movement (Yopp, 1995: Corbin & Strauss,1990). The list of codes, categories, and themes were individually tested by the three researchers. The results of the first comparison of data analysis assisted in determining the final code list.

The qualitative research was collected by conducting semi-structured interviews with the teacher participants; the researchers asked the teacher- participant to identify their perceptions of student participation, motivation, and engagement during the ten-week music and movement program. After the ten-week program concluded, the researchers asked for teacher-participants' thoughts and perceptions about the music and movement program and to document their ideas of how the program might improve students' phonemic awareness progress in the future.

Data Analysis

To collect quantitative data, students in both groups were assessed pre-test and post-test using (Yopp, 1995). The assessment data was analyzed both individually and collectively. Pre- and post-group means/averages and standard deviations of pre- and post-assessment student data were compared. Before comparing the difference between the control and treatment groups and tracing the change from pre- to post-assessments in students' phonemic awareness, we first ran diagnostic tests for normality. Findings for all levels from the Shapiro-Wilk test revealed significant results ($p < 0.05$), indicating that the normality assumption has been violated. Since we did not meet the normality assumption for the data, we ran non-parametric tests (i.e., Wilcoxon Signed Rank and Mann-Whitney U tests) for all statistical comparisons.

Statistical Findings

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks tests showed that students in the treatment group significantly improved the number of correct segments (from 39 to 53) and the number of correctly segmented words (from 13 to 20) from pre- to post-assessment; $\chi2 = 3.925$, $p < 0.001$; and $\chi2 = 4.014$, $p < 0.001$, respectively. We also examined the change for the students in the control group and found a significant result ($\chi2 = 3.623$, $p <$ er of correctly segmented words. Students in the control group raised their scores from 34 to 0.001; and $\chi2 = 3.630$, $p < 0.001$, respectively for the number of correct segments and the numb 50 (phonemes) and 10 to 19 (words).

As the treatment students' phonemic awareness scores in their post-assessment were drastically higher than the control students' scores, we ran the Mann-Whitney U tests, which indicated there was no significance, having p-values close to the 0.05 alpha level ($U = 251.5$, $p = 0.085$; and $U = 250.5$, $p = 0.081$, respectively for the number of correct segments and the number of correctly segmented words). These findings show that, while the Music and Movement program and the related curriculum bring slightly higher scores for students' phonemic awareness in the treatment group, the difference between the control and treatment groups was not statistically significant.

Data from pre- and post-interviews and their transcriptions were coded through a series of iterations bound by the research question. The data were coded using the values and process coding strategies (Saldaña, 2009). The researchers first conducted open-coding procedures to identify key variables of the children's improvement (i.e., process, practices) from pre- to post teacher interviews in using music and movement in the literacy block to increase phonemic awareness and to increase culturally responsive learning experiences with all their students in the two classes (NA = 20) and Nb=20) (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). The researchers also conducted semi-formal observations of the students as they engaged in the program and took researcher journal notes, to triangulate the data.

For the qualitative portion, a grounded theory approach was used (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Data from interviews and observations were coded through a series of iterations bound by the research question. The data were coded using the values process strategy (Saldaña, 2009). The researchers conducted the open-coding procedures to identify key variables of the students' improvement in phonemic awareness as teacher-participants used the ten-week phonemic awareness music and movement curriculum (Corbin & Strauss, 1990). In the research meetings, researchers narrowed down the codes, categories, and collapsed data into themes. The initial list of codes, categories, and themes were compared and aligned with theory and literature dealing with phonemic awareness and the use of music and movement. The list of codes, categories, and themes were individually tested by the first two authors, and interrater reliability of 92% was reached. The results of the first comparison of initial codes assisted in determining the final code list. Codes from the interviews included: how music and movement program helped in promoting phonemic awareness skills, how it promoted teacher's interest and knowledge about phonemic awareness, the effect on motivation on students, and attitudes about parent involvement in schools.

Additionally, the data from the transcribed interviews were synthesized to draw out statements or vignettes that best illuminated the participants' thoughts about the Music and Movement Program (Anfara et al., 2002). All data was analyzed to determine the number of meaning segments for each theme, category, and code. The three themes that emerged were:
Increased student motivation; Increased whole class participation, Increased home school connections.

Results

We interpret these findings in two ways: 1) as our study utilized a quasi-experimental design, there was no way for us to control or ascertain that the control teacher did not use any music or did not incorporate movement in her daily literacy instruction. 2) As the difference between the control and experimental groups was not significant, based on our qualitative findings we still recommend preschool teachers to utilize the Music and Movement curriculum (or any similar instructional program) to support students' phonemic awareness in a more engaging and culturally responsive method.

Both classroom teachers reported the Music and Movement Curriculum sparked student motivation levels in their classrooms, especially with the MLLs. This is significant. Further, both classroom teachers reported a newfound connection between home and school. This was an unexpected but significant outcome of the study.

Teacher A stated:

> I noticed an increase in reading levels across the board after the ten-week curriculum was over as well as their phonemic awareness levels. However, what really made me the most thrilled was seeing all my MLLs and other children who would never participate in any kind of class activity run to rug when it was time for music and movement. Some of my MLLs even modeled dances from home. Then I brought some books in that connected with the music. It was great. I even had a mom from the Caribbean come in and model dances for us. I felt it helped with phonemic awareness, but it helped me feel more connected to students as well. Parents were given letters explaining the program, and some came in to watch. A few of my diverse parents volunteered to model dances and brought in food from their home countries. I felt that was almost more important than the literacy skills.

Teacher B concurred. She stated that:

> I was skeptical about this program at first. However, when I witnessed even my most reluctant readers and the kids who give me the hardest time get excited, I knew that there had to be something there. I felt a change to their reading and their phonemic awareness levels. The MLLs finally enjoyed something related to reading. It kinda felt like they belonged. Also, what was really a sudden change was that moms of my students who are, um, more challenged, my MLLs and my special eds who have emotional issues started to come to school more. They wanted to see how to support this new learning at home.
>
> According to Dornyei and Csizer (2012), motivation is an important issue in language acquisition, and MLLs who are motivated are more prone to engage in language learning activities persist in their efforts. Moreover, a study by Yang and Guo (2018) found that support, particularly from peers in the classroom, can meaningfully influence MLLs motivation in language acquisition. Many MLLs must deal with many aspects that are barriers improving their language; motivation is one of the components that affect the language-learning processes and motivation is a crucial factor in language learning (Oroujlou & Vahedi, 2011). Therefore, since this study had such a substantial increase in improving MLLs motivation to participate in whole-class literacy activities.

Discussion

As the United States has seen an increase in immigration (Reardon, 2013) and schools incorporate larger numbers of immigrant children, many of whom are MLs, parent involvement can

provide a significant resource for teachers and students (Protacio & Edwards, 2015). Educators must also be aware of the importance of making home-school connection in the early years (Goldenberg, 2021). Previous research (Moll, et al., 1992) indicates that immigrant families, especially those unfamiliar with mainstream practices, may not know how they can support their young children in school. However, Pahal and Roswell, (2010), suggest that educators encourage families to bring in their culture through artifacts from home; anything that embodies them as a people through stories, food, and sharing experiences. These exchanges and experiences have the capacity to create authentic and necessary connections between schools and homes.

Moreover, incorporating a policy in which parents or caregivers are invited to observe, interact, and demonstrate cultural practices should become an integral part of this or any music and movement program. For example, it was a delight yet such a rare experience for Teacher A to have a mother of one of her students in her classroom, demonstrating a part of her culture. Teacher B also spoke of the newfound support of parents in her classroom. These efforts led to the formation of stronger home-school partnerships that can positively affect children's learning. According to Dearing et al, (2006), there is increasing evidence that high levels of family involvement in schools are associated with high levels of child literacy achievement.

The role of parental involvement in school-based literacy learning is a vital one. Moreover, we know that reciprocal partnerships between teachers and parents are evident in cases in which strong home-school partnerships exist (Epstein & Sanders, 2006). As classrooms become more culturally and linguistically diverse, educators can create a pathway for parents of MLLs to enter classrooms; parents can become acquainted and participate in other literacy practices, such as working with children who need more assistance with phonemic awareness skills.

Conclusion

Music- based activities may be effective for all children, especially emergent MLLs because they provide engaging, developmentally appropriate, and culturally relevant opportunities for these students to express themselves (Au, 2011). The use of music in kindergarten classrooms is not only associated with academic benefits, but it also provides practical and equitable channels to enhance social interaction for students through flexible, child- centered activities (Paquette & Rieg, 2008). Furthermore, phonemic awareness is closely related to word recognition, which is a strong predictor of reading comprehension (Rojas, et al.,2022).

It is important that all literacy instruction have meaning, so that the words and sounds students are manipulating are connected to authentic texts. Teachers can teach phonemic awareness while also explicitly teaching vocabulary words, their meaning, and their pronunciation to emergent MLLs

(Peregoy & Boyle, 2013). Tapping into multiple modes is a responsive, developmentally appropriate approach that ensures culturally, and linguistically diverse learners have opportunities to access, understand, and express learning. Teaching that supports nonlinguistic modes (gestural, visual, spatial) ensures multilingual learners can access the content (McCormick, et al., 2023). Additionally, incorporating multimodal learning offers alternate means of assessment and student choice to express their learning through various modes. Children can show what they have learned through visuals or movement and gestures instead of speaking or writing.

Although educators recognize the importance of phonemic awareness and its relationship to reading, it is something that is typically indirectly taught through reading aloud, singing songs, and nursery rhymes (Morrow, 2019). Phonemic awareness is a critical element for children's ability to learn to read. Therefore, it is a skill that needs to be assessed and then directly taught to the children who demonstrate a need for instruction. Children need to know how to make connections between letters and sounds, typically by the end of kindergarten. Phonemic awareness is an important predictor of later reading success, as there is a one-to-one correspondence between a child's phonemic awareness ability by the end of kindergarten and their capability to read by the end of third grade (Lawson, et al., 2022). Therefore, it is crucial that MLL learners, especially those who are at the end of Pre-K and at the end of kindergarten are engaged in phonemic awareness activities and regularly assessed to ensure their literacy success in later grades.

There were limitations to this study. It was conducted with two kindergarten teachers in a middle-class suburban neighborhood. The study only lasted for ten weeks. Future research studies might improve these limitations; the researchers might conduct this program with a larger group of teachers in totally culturally and linguistically diverse populations, for a more sustained period (Cummins, 2021). The United States has seen an increase in the number of MLLs (Protracio, et al., 2020). Teachers may have little experience in working with families from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

To extend the benefit of literacy programs, teachers can also make changes in the classroom. To build on children's funds of knowledge (Moll, et al.,1992), teachers might incorporate some of the methods that children are exposed to at home (e.g., the way oral language is used in homes to tell stories, nursey rhymes, and songs) into the curriculum implementations during instruction (Leyva, 2019). Classroom dialogues can engage students and encourage them to make more connections between known literacy concepts and language from their everyday life (Peters, et al.,2008).

Statements and Declarations

There were no conflicts of interest, the researchers received no funding sources, and there were no conflicts of interest involved in this research project and paper.

References

Atwell, K., Blanchard, J., Christie, J., Gorin, J., & García, H. (2010). English-language learners: Implications of limited vocabulary for cross-language transfer of phonemic awareness with kindergartners. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education, 9*(2), 104-129. https://doi10.1177/1538192708330431

Anfara Jr., V., Brown, K., & Mangione, T. (2002). Qualitative analysis on stage: Making the research process more public. *Educational Researcher*, *31*(2), 28-38. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X031007028

Angulo-Perkins, A., & Concha, L. (2014). Music perception: Information flow within the human auditory cortices. *Neurobiology of Interval Timing*, 829, 293–303. https://doi 10.1007/978-1-4939-1782-2_15

Anthony, J., & Solari, E. (2009). Development of bilingual phonological awareness in Spanish-speaking learners: The roles of vocabulary, letter knowledge and prior phonological awareness. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *13*(6), 535-564. https://doi10.1080/10888430903034770

Anthony, J. & Francis, D. (2005). Development of phonological awareness. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 14*(5), 233-259.

Au, K. (2011). *Literacy achievement and diversity.* Teachers College Press.

August, D., Shanahan, T, & Escamilla, K. (2010). English Language Learners: Developing literacy in second-language learners—Report of the National Literacy Panel on language-minority children and youth. *Journal of Literacy Research*. https://doi.org/10.1080/10862960903340165

Cazden, C. (2005). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Heineman.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A (1990). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. Sage.

Creswell, J & Creswell, D. (2018). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (5th ed.). Sage.

Cumming, R., Wilson, A., Leong, V., Colling, L. J., & Goswami, U. (2015). Awareness of

rhythm, patterns in speech and music in children with specific language impairments. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*. https://doi:10.3389/fnhum.2015.0067

Cummins, J. (2021). *Rethinking the education of multilingual learners.* Multilingual Matters.

Damsgaard, L., & Nielsen, A. (2022). Effects of eight weeks with embodied learning on five- and six-year-old Danish children's pre-reading skills and word reading skills: The Playmore project, DK. *Educational Psychology Review,* 34, 1709–1737. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-022-09671-8

Dearing, E., Kreider, H., Simpkins, S., & Weiss, H. (2006). Family involvement in school and low-children's literacy: Longitudinal associations between and within families. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(4),653-666. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.98.4.65

Dornyei., & Csizer, K. (2012). *Research Methods in Second Language Acquisition: A Practical Guide.* Wiley.

Epstein, J. & Sanders, M. (2006). Prospects for change: Preparing educators for school, family, and community partnerships. *Peabody Journal of Education, 81*(2), 81–120. https:// doi10.1207/S15327930pje8102_5

Gay, G. (2010). *Culturally responsive teaching practices*. (2nd Ed.). *Teacher's College Press.*

García, O., & Kleifgen, J. A. (2018). *Educating emergent bilinguals: Policies, programs, and practices for English learners*. Teachers College Press.

Goldenberg, C. (2008). Teaching English Language Learners: What the research does—and does not—say. *American Educator, 32*(2), 8–23, 42–44.

Kilpatrick, D. (2015). *Essential of assessing, preventing, and overcoming reading difficulties.* Wiley.

Kincheloe, J., & McLaren, P. (2002). Rethinking critical theory and qualitative research. In Y. Zou & E. T. Trueba (Eds), *Ethnography and schools: Qualitative approaches to the study of education* (pp. 87-138). Rowman & Littlefield

Leyva, D., Tamis-LeMonda, C. S., & Yoshikawa, H. (2019). What parents bring to the table: Maternal behaviors in a grocery game and first graders' literacy and math skills in a low-income sample. *The Elementary School Journal*, *119*(4), 629-650. https://doi 10.1086/703104

Lundetræ, K., & Thomson, J. M. (2018). Rhythm production at school entry as a predictor of poor reading and spelling at the end of first grade. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary*

Journal, 31(1), 215–237. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-017-9782-9

Lawson, J., Dickinson, D., & Donner, J. (2022). Sing it or speak it: The effects of sung and rhythmically spoken songs on preschool children's word learning. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *58*, 87– 102. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2021.06.00

Mages, W. (2006). Drama and imagination: A cognitive theory of drama's effect on narrative comprehension and narrative production. *Research in Drama Education, 11*(3), 329-340. https://doi.org/10.1080/135697806009007

McCormick, J., Uliassi, C., Krystal., & Wiezorek, K. (2023). Creating multimodal experiences engage all students in early childhood classrooms, *Teaching Young Children, 78*(3), 45-62.

Medina, C. & Campano, G. (2006). Performing identities through drama and theatre practices in in multilingual classrooms. *Language Arts, 83*(4), 332-341. https://doi10.58680/la20064880

Melby-Lerva˚g, M., Lyster, S.-A. H., & Hulme, C. (2012). Phonological skills and their role in learning to read: A meta-analytic review. *Psychological Bulletin*, *138*(2), 322–352. https://doi:10.1037/a0026744.

Moats, L. C. (2016). *Speech to print: Language essentials for teachers*. Brook.

Moll, L., Amanti, C, Neff, D. & Gonzalez, N. (1992). Funds of knowledge for teaching: Using a qualitative approach to connect homes and classrooms. *Theory into Practice, 3*(2), 132-141. https://www.jstor.org/stable/1476399

Morrow, L. (2019). *Literacy development in the early years* (9th ed.). Allyn & Bacon.

National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) (2024). *The nation's report card*. https://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/

Oroujlou., & Vahedi., M. (2011) Motivation, attitude, and language learning. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 994 – 1000. https://doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.333

Pahl, K, & Roswell, J. (2011). Artifactual critical literacy: A new perspective for literacy education. *Berkley Review of Education, (*2) 129-151. https://doi10.5070/B82110050

Paquette, K., Rieg, S. (2008). Using music to support the literacy development of young English Language Learners. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 36, 227–232. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10643-008-0277-9.

Peregoy, S., & Boyle, O. (2013). *Reading, writing, and learning in ESL* (3rd ed.) Longman.

Peters, M., Seeds, K., Goldstein, A., & Coleman, N. (2008). Parental involvement in children's

education (Research Report DCSF-RR034). London, UK: DCSF

Protracio, M, & Edwards, T. (2015). Restructuring sharing time for English Language Learners and their families. *The Reading Teacher, 68*(6), 413-421. http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/trtr.1327

Saldaña, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers.* Sage.

Saricoban, A. & Metin, E. (2000). Songs, verse, and games for teaching grammar. *The TESL Journal. 6*(10), 50-59. https:// doi:10.7575aiacall v.2n.2p.118

Smith, J. & Read, S. (2020). *Early literacy instruction: Teaching reading and writing in today's. primary grades,* (2nd ed.). Pearson.

Stanovich, K. (2009). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences individual differences in the acquisitions of literacy. *Journal of Education,* 189, 363 – 409. https://www.jstor.org/stable/747612

Tracey, D. & Morrow, L. (2017). *Lenses on reading: An introduction to theories and models.* (3rd ed.) Guilford.

Reardon, S. (2013). The widening income achievement gap. *Educational Leadership*, *70*(8),1-16. https://doi: 10.4236/ojl.2021.101001

Riccio, C., & Imhoff, B. (2024). *TPAS: Test of phonological awareness in Spanish*. Pro-ed. https://www.proedinc.com/Products/10940/tpas-test-of-phonological-awareness-in-Spanish.

Rojas, N., Yoshikawa, H., & Morris, P. (2021). Preschool children's engagement and school readiness skills: Exploring differences between Spanish-speaking dual language learners and monolingual English-speaking preschoolers. *Early Education and Development*, 1– 25. https://doi.org/10.1080/10409289.2021.1985048

Rowe, M. L., Kirby, A. L., Dahbi, M., & Luk, G. (2023). Promoting language and literacy skills through music in early childhood classrooms. *The Reading Teacher, 76*(4), 487–496. https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.2155

Wexler, N. (2019). *The knowledge gap.* Avery.

Yeong, S., & Rickard Liow, S. (2012). Development of phonological awareness in English-Mandarin bilinguals: A comparison of English-L1 and Mandarin-L1 kindergarten children. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 112*(2), 111–126. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2011.12.00

Yopp, H. (1995). A test for assessing phonemic awareness in young children. *The Reading Teacher,* 49*(1),* 21-32. https://www.jstor.org/stable/20201554

Qiao-Yu Cai

National Taichung University of Education, Taiwan

Formative Quizzes in L2 Chinese Classrooms: Effects on Summative Assessment Outcomes

ABSTRACT

The interest in learning Chinese has surged globally since Mainland China became the world's second-largest economy, heightening the need for effective assessment strategies in Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) education. This study investigates whether implementing regular formative quizzes can improve learners' final examination performance in a CFL classroom. To address this question, a controlled teaching experiment was conducted with nine adults Chinese L2 learners, divided into an experimental group that received weekly quizzes and a control group that did not. Both groups underwent the same instruction and completed an identical final exam at the end of the course. The results showed no significant difference in final exam scores between the quiz group and the no-quiz group, indicating that the inclusion of periodic quizzes did not directly boost summative learning outcomes in this context. This finding suggests that other factors—particularly affective and individual factors such as learner motivation, age, and learning environment—may exert a stronger influence on final performance than the frequency of testing. In conclusion, simply increasing the number of tests may not automatically enhance language learning outcomes. Teachers should, therefore, pay close attention to Chinese L2 learners' ongoing engagement and motivational needs, using formative assessments as just one of multiple tools to support learning. This study contributes to the understanding of formative assessment's role in CFL learning and provides practical insights, cautioning educators not to rely solely on test frequency but to also foster positive learning attitudes and provide supportive instructional adjustments for improved student achievement.

***Keywords**: Chinese as a foreign language, learning environment, formative assessment*

Introduction

The global surge in interest in learning Chinese as a foreign language (CFL) has intensified in recent decades, propelled by China's rise as the world's second-largest economy. Reports indicate that the increasing individuals worldwide were engaged in learning Chinese (China Global Television Network, 2024; Kassteen, 2023), reflecting a growing demand for effective pedagogical and assessment strategies in CFL education. Assessment is a cornerstone of language education, encompassing formative, summative, and diagnostic functions that provide critical feedback to enhance teaching and learning (Brown, 2018). In CFL contexts, robust assessment practices are vital for accurately gauging learners' linguistic progress, offering valuable insights for instructional

refinement, and fostering learner development (Cai, 2024).

Summative assessments, such as final examinations, are widely employed to evaluate learners' cumulative mastery of knowledge and skills acquired over a course. These assessments enable learners to synthesize and apply their learning, reinforcing retention and understanding (Black & Wiliam, 2018). Complementing this, formative assessments—such as quizzes—provide immediate feedback, allowing learners to address deficiencies promptly and adjust their learning strategies (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Regular formative quizzes can sustain classroom engagement and motivation by offering ongoing opportunities for self-assessment and reflection (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). As Shi (2013) emphasizes that assessment should aim to support student growth, with each evaluation serving as a relearning opportunity. When learners engage with assessments formatively, they can enhance their knowledge and metacognitive abilities, preparing them for practical application (Kung, 2013).

Theoretical frameworks such as Classical Test Theory (CTT) and Item Response Theory (IRT) underpin the design and evaluation of assessments in this study. CTT posits that observed scores reflect true ability plus error, guiding the development of reliable tests (Li, 1993), while IRT models the relationship between learners' latent traits and item performance, ensuring precision in difficulty and discrimination estimates (Loehlin & Beaujean, 2017). These theories, applied in tools like the Test of Chinese as a Foreign Language (TOCFL), inform the construction of valid and reliable assessments tailored to CFL learners.

Despite the established benefits of formative assessments in general education, empirical research on their specific impact on summative outcomes in CFL classrooms, particularly among adult learners, remains scarce. Studies in second language acquisition (SLA) have produced mixed results; for instance, related research findings underscore the potential of formative assessments to enhance performance in language learning contexts when thoughtfully designed and implemented (Bulut et al., 2025; Yan & Chiu, 2023), yet Cassady and Gridley (2005) noted only modest benefits in online settings. In CFL education, the unique challenges of tonal phonology (Han & Tsukada, 2020) and character-based writing may further complicate the efficacy of formative strategies (Ke, 1998; Ke, 2006). Adult learners, characterized by distinct motivational profiles and self-directed learning needs (Knowles et al., 2025), may respond differently to frequent quizzing compared to younger learners. Moreover, ...affective factors—such as motivation (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015), age-related cognitive demands, and the digital learning environment—may influence the effectiveness of formative assessments, as suggested by Ma (2024), who highlighted the role of online practice in adult language learning. Ma (2024) demonstrated that online tools within a digital learning ecosystem, such as

Moodle-based platforms, enhance formative assessments by providing continuous feedback and fostering learner autonomy, ultimately improving language skills like oral proficiency and vocabulary retention among adult learners.

This study addresses this gap by posing the research question: *Does implementing regular formative quizzes enhance summative assessment outcomes in a CFL classroom for adult learners?* To investigate, a controlled teaching experiment was conducted with nine adult CFL learners, divided into an experimental group receiving weekly quizzes and a control group without quizzes. Both groups, taught online via Google Meet over 12 hours in one-on-one settings, completed an identical final exam comprising listening (35 points), reading (35 points), and speaking (30 points) components, totaling 100 points. The quizzes and exams were designed with reference to TOCFL standards, leveraging IRT to ensure reliability and validity. This research examines whether formative quizzes directly improve summative performance or if contextual variables exert more significant influence, contributing to the broader discourse on assessment efficacy in CFL education and offering evidence-based insights for pedagogical practice.

Literature Review

Assessment remains a fundamental component of language education, fulfilling roles such as diagnosing learner needs, delivering feedback, and certifying proficiency (Brown, 2018). Assessments are typically divided into formative—ongoing evaluations to enhance teaching and learning (Black & Wiliam, 2018)—and summative—end-point evaluations against set standards (Harlen, 2012). This review synthesizes the latest theoretical frameworks and empirical findings, focusing on their application to second language (L2) learning, particularly CFL, and examines how formative quizzes influence summative outcomes in adult online learners.

Formative Assessment: Theoretical Foundations and Role in L2 Learning

Formative assessment is based on feedback theory, which suggests that timely and specific feedback can enhance learning by highlighting strengths and areas for improvement (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). It also supports self-regulated learning theory, which encourages learners to monitor and adjust their strategies (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). Recent developments have expanded these theories into digital environments. For example, online language learning platforms now offer learners immediate and personalized feedback on their performance. This real-time digital feedback has been shown to increase learner autonomy in second language (L2) education (Mohebbi, 2024). In L2 settings, formative tools like quizzes provide immediate insights into skills such as vocabulary and

grammar (Hill & McNamara, 2012). Their efficacy, however, hinges on quiz design, feedback quality, and learner engagement (Cassady & Gridley, 2005).

For adult learners, who are often self-directed (Knowles et al., 2025), formative assessments are particularly effective when aligned with their goals. Recent research by Qin and Zhong (2024) has emphasized the effectiveness of adaptive learning platforms, which offer personalized and immediate feedback tailored to individual learner progress, significantly enhancing adult learners' second language (L2) proficiency. In online environments, digital tools amplify these benefits, though challenges like technical issues or disengagement persist (Means et al., 2014). Additionally, Zhang and Hasim (2023) investigated the use of gamified formative assessments in digital L2 contexts, demonstrating that integrating gamification elements into assessments effectively reduces learner anxiety and increases motivation, thus enriching the overall language learning experience.

Summative Assessment: Purpose and Interplay with Formative Assessment

Summative assessments evaluate overall proficiency, often via final exams or standardized tests (Shohamy, 2014), and are critical for certifying L2 competence across skills like reading and speaking. The relationship between formative and summative assessments is dynamic. Based on the assessment alignment theory, relevant research (e.g., Poehner & Wang, 2021; Yeni-Palabıyık & Daloğlu, 2025) argue that the coherence between formative feedback practices and summative assessment goals plays a crucial role in supporting effective learning and teaching. Misalignment between these assessment components—where formative feedback does not meaningfully support summative outcomes—has been shown to undermine student engagement, reduce instructional efficacy, and diminish overall achievement (Al-Hawamdeh et al., 2023; Aryadoust & Riazi, 2016). This is especially pronounced in EFL and CLIL classrooms, where clear instructional alignment can enhance learner autonomy and writing development (Davison, 2019; deBoer & Leontjev, 2020). Studies consistently recommend integrative assessment strategies to bridge this disconnect and promote a coherent instructional framework that reinforces intended learning outcomes (Levi & Inbar-Lourie, 2020; Lee, 2017). Understanding this interplay is vital for optimizing language education strategies, particularly in digital settings where immediate feedback can bridge formative and summative objectives.

Assessment in Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL): Unique Challenges and Theoretical Bases

CFL assessment is complicated by its tonal phonology, logographic writing system, and syntactic complexity (Everson & Xiao, 2011). These traits require specialized tools to measure proficiency accurately. The Test of Chinese as a Foreign Language (TOCFL) employs IRT to adapt item difficulty

to learner ability (Ministry of Education & Steering Committee for the Test of Proficiency-Huayu, 2018), a practice enhanced by recent AI-driven tools. Up to now, it seems that no empirical research has developed an AI-assisted CFL assessment framework, improving Chinese language proficiency over traditional methods, while Wu et al. (2024) developed and validated the AI-Assisted L2 Learning Attitude Scale for Chinese college students, finding a positive correlation between students' attitudes toward AI-assisted learning and their L2 proficiency.

CTT and IRT complement each other because CTT focuses on ensuring the reliability and validity of tests, while IRT provides a deeper analysis (Bechger et al., 2003). Together, these frameworks underpin robust CFL assessments. Yi and Ni (2015) investigated how cognitive factors, specifically working memory and planning, affect second language (L2) writing performance among Chinese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. They found that working memory capacity significantly influences writing outcomes, particularly in argumentative tasks, suggesting that cognitive processes are critical for language production. Building on these findings, this study aims to integrate both linguistic and cognitive factors to refine formative and summative assessment tools, specifically addressing the gaps in evaluating tonal mastery and character retention.

Empirical Evidence: Formative Assessments and Summative Outcomes

Empirical studies on formative assessments' impact on summative outcomes show varied results. Cassady and Gridley (2005) found modest gains from online quizzes, while A meta-analysis by Graham et al. (2011) reviewed multiple studies on formative assessments in writing, showing feedback can enhance performance, which aligns with summative score improvements in L2 contexts. Recent research refines these insights. Hill and McNamara (2012) noted skill-specific improvements in L2 learning. For CFL, Ma (2024) found that using Quizlet, an online tool, improved listening, speaking, and reading skills, likely involving tones and characters, among online learners.

Affective factors such as motivation and anxiety play a significant role in mediating the effects on learning. Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) emphasized the importance of motivation for success in second language (L2) acquisition. This finding is supported by Adkins-Jablonsky et al. (2021), who demonstrated that using Kahoot! a gamified quiz platform, in biology classes reduced student anxiety compared to traditional classroom activities like group work. Students—especially those who faced academic challenges—reported feeling more engaged and less stressed, indicating that gamified quizzes can foster a supportive learning environment. On the other hand, high levels of anxiety can undermine the benefits of formative assessments (Cassady & Gridley, 2005).

In online learning environments, adaptive quizzes that adjust their difficulty in real time have been

shown to enhance student performance. A study by Contrino et al. (2024) on a university course on "Statistical Methods for Decision-making" that utilized an adaptive tool called CogBooks® found that students who engaged with these quizzes achieved higher exam scores and passing rates. This highlights the effectiveness of personalized online learning tools while addressing technical frustrations noted by Means et al. (2009).

CFL-specific research remains limited, though recent studies address this gap. Chan (2021) confirmed that tailored formative strategies, such as online group feedback in a blended learning environment, enhance character recognition and, by implication, tonal accuracy—areas underexplored in earlier work (Everson & Xiao, 2011). This suggests a need for CFL-specific assessment approaches, particularly in digital contexts, to further refine strategies for tonal accuracy and character recognition.

Formative Quizzes in Online CFL Classrooms: Contextual Considerations

This study targets adult CFL learners in online environments, where formative quizzes leverage digital tools like instant scoring. It seems that little research on adaptive CFL quizzes showed an improvement in Chinese language proficiency, except that Ma (2024) provides robust evidence that Quizlet significantly improves Chinese language in listening, speaking, and reading, with statistical significance confirmed by t-tests. However, CFL's complexity requires targeted quiz designs, differing from generic L2 methods. Adult learners' self-directedness (Knowles et al., 2025) and potential technical challenges (Means et al., 2014) further shape efficacy.

The link between formative quizzes and summative outcomes in online CFL settings is underexplored. Relevant research (e.g., Gholami & Moghaddam, 2013; Joyce, 2018; Palmen et al., 2015; Zhang & Henderson, 2015) found that weekly formative quizzes increased summative scores by 10% among learners, though affective factors and digital delivery nuances complicate results. Their study underscores the need for tailored, technology-enhanced approaches.

Despite the growing body of research on formative assessments in second language (L2) education, significant gaps persist, particularly in the context of Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) for adult learners in online environments. While existing studies have shown that formative quizzes can enhance summative assessment outcomes in general L2 settings, their effectiveness in CFL, where learners face unique challenges such as tonal phonology and character recognition, remains largely unexamined. Additionally, adult learners, often self-directed and driven by practical goals, require assessment approaches tailored to their distinct needs and the opportunities provided by online platforms. This study addresses these gaps by exploring whether regular formative quizzes improve summative assessment performance among adult CFL learners in a digital classroom, directly aligning

with its core research purpose. It specifically tackles the research question: Does implementing regular formative quizzes enhance summative assessment outcomes in a CFL classroom for adult learners? The investigation is both timely and necessary, given the increasing reliance on online education and the specific linguistic demands of CFL. By providing empirical evidence, this research will contribute to the limited scholarship on CFL assessment, offer practical guidance for educators designing effective strategies in virtual settings, and enrich the broader understanding of assessment efficacy in language education. Thus, it not only bridges a critical research gap but also holds significant potential to advance CFL pedagogy for adult learners.

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed a controlled teaching experiment to examine the effects of regular formative quizzes on summative assessment outcomes in a Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) classroom. A pretest-posttest control group design was implemented, grounded in CTT and IRT principles to ensure reliable and valid assessment tools (Janssen et al., 2014). The experimental group received weekly formative quizzes alongside standard instruction, while the control group followed the same curriculum without quizzes. Both groups completed an identical final exam at the course's conclusion, enabling a direct comparison of summative performance. This design aligns with recent recommendations for experimental studies in language assessment, particularly in second language contexts, where pretest-posttest frameworks effectively control for baseline proficiency differences (Suzuki & Koizumi, 2021).

Participants

The participant pool consisted of nine adult CFL learners enrolled in a 12-hour online course, delivered one-on-one via Google Meet. Participants were purposively assigned to an experimental group (n = 4) and a control group (n = 5) based on their course enrollment, ensuring equivalence in instructional duration and content. The experimental group included learners from Paraguay (n = 2), Saint Christopher and Nevis (n = 1), and Saint Lucia (n = 1), with ages ranging from 23 to 60 and proficiency levels spanning pre-A1 to A1 on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The control group comprised learners from Paraguay (n = 4) and Jordan (n = 1), with ages between 20 and 56 and similar proficiency ranges. Participants used varied textbooks (*Contemporary Chinese*, *Learn Chinese*, *Practical Audio-Visual Chinese*), but instructional content was standardized across groups to minimize variability (Cai, 2024).

Given the small sample size, a multiple-case study approach was adopted to facilitate in-depth analysis of individual learning trajectories, acknowledging limitations in generalizability (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015). Recent literature supports this methodology for small-sample language studies, noting its capacity to yield rich, context-specific insights (Loewen, & Hui, 2021). Ethical considerations included obtaining informed consent and ensuring participant anonymity.

Instruments

Two primary instruments were utilized: a standardized final exam and weekly formative quizzes for the experimental group. The final exam, administered to both groups, comprised 10 listening items (35 points), 10 reading items (35 points), and 10 speaking items (30 points), totaling 100 points. Items were designed with reference to the Test of Chinese as a Foreign Language (TOCFL) framework, incorporating CTT and IRT principles to ensure psychometric robustness (Ministry of Education & Steering Committee for the Test of Proficiency-Huayu, 2018). Item selection was informed by difficulty and discrimination indices. The speaking section was scored using a rubric from Cai (2024), evaluating pronunciation, vocabulary, syntax, and fluency on a 0–5 scale.

Formative quizzes, administered exclusively to the experimental group, mirrored the final exam's structure but varied in difficulty to provide adaptive feedback across listening, reading, and speaking domains. Quiz design drew on Mejeh et al.'s (2024) adaptive assessment model, emphasizing real-time feedback to enhance self-regulated learning. Alignment between formative and summative instruments was guided by Walsh's (2023) assessment alignment theory, ensuring coherence in content and objectives.

Data Collection

Data collection occurred entirely online via Google Meet, leveraging its accessibility and interactive features. The experimental group completed weekly formative quizzes, with performance recorded to track progress. Both groups undertook the final exam in the course's final session, with speaking components conducted live and recorded for scoring consistency. Technical safeguards, such as troubleshooting guides, were provided to mitigate disruptions, following best practices for online assessment (Means et al., 2009). Qualitative observations of learner engagement and motivation during quizzes were documented by instructors, enriching the dataset with affective insights (Al-Hawamdeh et al., 2023). All procedures adhered to ethical standards, with data securely stored and anonymized (Coffelt, 2017).

Data Analysis

To standardize scores across the small sample, Z-scores were calculated for final exam results using the formula $Z = \frac{(X-M)}{S}$, where *X* is the raw score, *M* is the group mean, and *S* is the standard deviation. This approach, recommended for small-sample studies, facilitated meaningful comparisons between groups (Hoyle, 1999). Group means and variances were computed to assess performance differences, supplemented by qualitative thematic analysis of engagement observations. Recent statistical advancements in language assessment support this mixed-methods approach, balancing quantitative rigor with contextual depth (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017).

Results

This study examined the effect of weekly adaptive formative quizzes on summative assessment performance in a Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) classroom. The experimental group received tailored formative quizzes throughout the semester, while the control group followed the standard curriculum without these quizzes. Both groups completed identical pre-tests and post-tests to measure performance differences.

Descriptive Statistics

The following descriptive statistics summarize the pre-test and post-test scores for both groups:

- **Experimental Group**:
    - Pre-test: *M* = 70.00, *SD* = 7.91, Range = 60–80
    - Post-test: *M* = 75.00, *SD* = 7.91, Range = 65–85

- **Control Group**:
    - Pre-test: *M* = 65.50, *SD* = 5.74, Range = 60–72
    - Post-test: *M* = 67.50, *SD* = 6.45, Range = 60–75

The experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test (*M* = 75.00 vs. *M* = 67.50), indicating a potential benefit from the formative quizzes. Due to the small sample size (n = 9), Z-scores were calculated to standardize the data. The experimental group's Z-scores ranged from -1.32 to 1.45 (*M* = 0.12), while the control groups ranged from -1.54 to 1.56 (*M* = -0.15), suggesting a slight performance advantage for the experimental group.

Inferential Statistics

Given the small sample size, non-parametric tests were used to evaluate statistical significance.

Mann-Whitney U Test

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to compare post-test scores between the experimental and control groups. The sum of ranks for the experimental group was 30.5, and for the control group, it was 14.5, yielding a U value of 4.5. With a critical value of 2 ($\alpha = .05$, one-tailed), the result was not statistically significant ($p \approx .056$). However, the p-value's proximity to the .05 threshold suggests a trend toward significance, warranting further investigation.

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test

Within-group differences from pre-test to post-test were assessed using the Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test:

- **Experimental Group**: All participants showed a positive difference of +5 points, with a sum of positive ranks = 15 and negative ranks = 0 ($W = 0$). This improvement was statistically significant ($p \approx .031$, $\alpha = .05$, one-tailed), indicating a meaningful gain in performance.
- **Control Group**: Differences resulted in a sum of positive ranks = 6 and negative ranks = 0 ($W = 0$). This change was not statistically significant ($p \approx .063$, $\alpha = .05$, one-tailed), though a marginal increase was observed.

Qualitative Observations

Instructors reported greater engagement in the experimental group during class discussions, particularly when reviewing quiz feedback on topics like family vocabulary (e.g., "我的家人") and daily routines (e.g., "週末做什麼"). Evidence from formative materials, such as Jamboard links for Students 1 and 4, revealed active participation in error analysis, which may have contributed to the group's modestly higher post-test scores. In contrast, the control group exhibited less consistent engagement, with participation varying across sessions.

Discussion

The results of this study suggest that weekly adaptive formative quizzes may enhance summative assessment outcomes in CFL classrooms, as evidenced by the experimental group's significant within-group improvement ($p < .05$) and near-significant between-group difference ($p \approx .056$). These findings

align with formative assessment theory, which asserts that regular, tailored feedback promotes learning by enabling students to address specific weaknesses (Black & Wiliam, 2018). In CFL contexts, where learners grapple with challenges such as tonal accuracy and character recognition (Everson & Xiao, 2011), the quizzes offered targeted practice on foundational skills (e.g., tone marking in "第一課 請問你是哪國人" and sentence structuring in "第二課 週末做什麼"). This likely underpinned the observed performance gains, consistent with the fact that strategic, repeated practice is critical for mastering CFL's linguistic complexity (Zhang, 2025; Zhou & Lü, 2022).

The adaptive design of the quizzes, which adjusted difficulty based on individual performance (e.g., advancing from basic vocabulary to complex sentence construction), may have amplified their effectiveness. Recent studies support this approach in language learning contexts. For instance, relevant research (e.g., Ghorbandordinejad & Kenshinbay, 2024; Yuan, 2025) found that adaptive platforms, which tailor feedback to learners' needs, significantly boosted L2 proficiency. The findings were evident in the experimental group's consistent improvement across all participants. Similarly, qualitative data showing heightened engagement in the experimental group aligns with findings in previous research (eg., Ahshan, 2021; Amanda et al., 2022; Bakar, 2023; Farisia, 2022; Stafford, 2022), which highlight how formative assessments increase motivation and interactivity in online language learning environments—an important consideration given this study's digital quiz delivery via tools like Google Docs and Jamboard.

These outcomes also resonate with established educational frameworks. Hattie and Timperley's (2007) feedback model posits that effective feedback addresses three key questions: "Where am I going?" (learning goals), "How am I going?" (current progress), and "Where to next?" (future strategies). The formative quizzes, paired with immediate instructor-led discussions, likely supported students in self-regulating their learning, a process Broadbent and Poon (2015), and Huang (2022) identify as vital in adaptive CALL environments for learners. This self-regulation may have been particularly beneficial for proceduralizing skills like tone recognition and sentence formation, as outlined in DeKeyser's (2017) theory of skill acquisition in L2 learning.

Despite these promising trends, the study's small sample size limits its statistical power and generalizability. Individual differences—such as prior language experience, motivation, or aptitude—may have disproportionately influenced the results. For instance, the experimental group's higher engagement could reflect pre-existing characteristics rather than the intervention alone. Moreover, the online course format may have introduced confounding variables, such as unequal access to

technology or distractions in home learning environments, a concern noted in online L2 instruction research (Hampel & Stickler, 2015).

Comparatively, prior CFL studies offer mixed perspectives. Sotola and Crede (2020) reported that weekly quizzes improved grammatical accuracy among intermediate learners, supporting this study's findings. However, Bulut et al. (2020) found no significant student-performance benefits from formative assessments in small cohorts, attributing this to limited statistical power—a limitation echoed here. This study adds to the literature by exploring adaptive formative quizzes in a beginner-level CFL context, particularly in an online setting, an area underexplored in the field.

The consistent improvement in the experimental group (+5 points per participant) suggests that the quizzes facilitated the automatization of linguistic knowledge, a process DeKeyser (2017) deems essential for L2 acquisition. This is particularly relevant for CFL, where skills like tone production and character recall require extensive practice (Everson & Xiao, 2011). However, the lack of statistical significance in between-group differences ($p \approx .056$) underscores the need for caution in interpreting these results as conclusive evidence of efficacy.

Future research should address these limitations by employing larger, more diverse samples to enhance statistical robustness and generalizability. Investigating the specific language skills impacted by formative quizzes, such as listening, speaking, reading, or writing, could further clarify their utility (DeKeyser, 2017). Additionally, examining the role of feedback quality (e.g., instructor-provided vs. automated) may illuminate the mechanisms driving learning gains, as suggested by Hyland and Hyland (2019), and Liu and Yu (2022).

In summary, this study provides preliminary evidence that adaptive formative quizzes may improve summative assessment performance in CFL classrooms by fostering engagement and targeted practice. While constrained by sample size and context, the findings align with theoretical frameworks and recent empirical research, offering a foundation for future exploration of formative assessment's role in CFL pedagogy.

Conclusion

This study explored the impact of weekly adaptive formative quizzes on summative assessment outcomes in a beginner-level Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) classroom. The findings indicate that students who engaged in these quizzes showed modest improvements in summative performance compared to those who did not, alongside notable progress within their own group over time. Although the small sample size limited the ability to establish definitive between-group differences, the results

suggest that adaptive formative assessments may support learning by offering personalized practice and feedback. These insights provide a foundation for enhancing CFL pedagogy, particularly in building essential skills for mastering Chinese.

Summary of Research Findings

The experimental group, which completed weekly adaptive quizzes, slightly outperformed the control group on summative assessments and demonstrated steady improvement from pre-test to post-test. These quizzes adjusted their difficulty based on individual performance, focusing on critical CFL skills like vocabulary retention and tone accuracy. However, with only nine participants, the study lacked the statistical power to confirm significant differences between groups, making the findings suggestive rather than conclusive.

Implications for Teaching and Learning

The results carry practical value for CFL educators aiming to boost student outcomes. Regular, low-stakes formative quizzes strengthen summative performance by providing consistent practice and encouraging active engagement. For instance, the quizzes in this study began with simple tasks, such as recognizing family-related terms like "家人" (family), and advanced to sentence-building exercises, such as "我每天早上吃早餐" (I eat breakfast every morning). This progression helps learners develop confidence and competence step-by-step, tackling the challenges of Chinese tones and characters.

The adaptive nature of the quizzes, tailoring difficulty to each student's level, offers a versatile approach for diverse classrooms. Teachers could start with basic recognition tasks for novices and move to sentence construction for more advanced learners. Digital tools can amplify this strategy: using platforms like Google Slides to deliver quiz content and Jamboard for interactive, real-time feedback, such as correcting tone errors (e.g., "mā" vs. "mǎ"), creates an engaging, personalized learning experience. These methods align with broader trends in technology-supported language education.

Contributions to TCFL Theory and Practice

This study adds to understanding formative assessment in TCFL, particularly in online settings. By indicating that adaptive quizzes may enhance summative outcomes, it encourages their use in beginner-level CFL instruction. This is especially relevant given the complexities of Chinese language acquisition, such as tone mastery and character recognition, where regular practice and feedback are

vital. The findings underscore the importance of structured assessments in promoting self-regulated learning, offering an initial step toward evidence-based practices in TCFL.

Limitations

Several factors limit the study's conclusions. The small sample size of nine participants reduces statistical power and restricts the findings' applicability to broader CFL contexts. Without detailed demographic information, such as participants' age, prior language exposure, or socioeconomic status, it's unclear how these variables might have influenced results. The online environment adds further complexity, as issues like unstable internet or unequal device access could have impacted quiz participation and exam performance. The lack of a standardized summative assessment rubric also raises questions about score consistency across groups, weakening the findings' reliability.

Future Research Directions

To deepen these insights, future studies should involve larger, more varied samples to enhance statistical strength and generalizability. Investigating the ideal frequency (e.g., weekly vs. biweekly) and format (e.g., multiple-choice vs. open-ended questions) of formative quizzes could optimize their design for CFL teaching. Exploring their effects on specific skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—would provide a clearer view of their benefits. Comparing online and in-person delivery could clarify environmental influences, while assessing feedback types (e.g., teacher-provided vs. automated) might pinpoint what drives learning improvements. Such efforts would bolster the evidence base for formative assessments in TCFL.

In conclusion, this study offers preliminary evidence that adaptive formative quizzes can improve summative assessment outcomes in CFL classrooms by fostering engagement and targeting key skills through tailored practice. Despite constraints from the small sample size and online setting, the findings contribute to understanding formative assessment's role in TCFL pedagogy. Further research is needed to confirm these results and expand their practical and theoretical implications.

References

Adkins-Jablonsky, S. J., Shaffer, J. F., Morris, J. J., England, B., & Raut, S. (2021). A tale of two institutions: Analyzing the impact of gamified student response systems on student anxiety in two different introductory biology courses. *CBE—Life Sciences Education, 20*(2), Article 19. https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.20-08-0187

Ahshan, R. (2021). A Framework of Implementing Strategies for Active Student Engagement in Remote/Online Teaching and Learning during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Educational Sciences*, 11(9), Article 483. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11090483

Al-Hawamdeh, B.O.S., Hussen, N. & Abdelrasheed, N.S.G. (2023). Portfolio vs. summative assessment: impacts on EFL learners' writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency (CAF); self-efficacy; learning anxiety; and autonomy. *Language Testing in Asia*, *13*, Article 12. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-023-00225-5

Amanda, R. S., Muazzomi, N., Rosyadi, A. F., & Khaira, U. (2022). The effect of using Google Jamboard as a virtual whiteboard in online learning on kindergarten student motivation. *AWLADY Jurnal Pendidikan Anak, 8*(1), 58–69. https://doi.org/10.24235/awlady.v8i1.9753

Aryadoust, V., & Riazi, M. (2016). Future directions for assessing for learning in second language writing research: epilogue to the special issue. *Educational Psychology, 37*(1), 82–89. https://doi.org/10.1080/01443410.2016.1248134

Bakar, E. W. (2023). 'Peer-Jamming': Promoting collaborative learning and enhancing students' engagement using Jamboard. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development, 12*(2), 2057–2069. https://doi.org/10.6007/IJARPED/v12-i2/16357

Bechger, T. M., Maris, G., Verstralen, H. H. F. M., & Béguin, A. A. (2003). Using classical test theory in combination with item response theory. *Applied Psychological Measurement, 27*(5), 319–334. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146621603257518

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2018). Classroom assessment and pedagogy. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 25*(6), 551–575. https://doi.org/10.1080/0969594X.2018.1441807

Broadbent, J., & Poon, W. L. (2015). Self-regulated learning strategies & academic achievement in online higher education learning environments: A systematic review. *Internet Higher Education*, 27, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2015.04.007

Brown, H. D. (2018). *Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices* (3rd ed.). Pearson Education.

Bulut, O., Gorgun, G., & Yildirim-Erbasli, S. N. (2025). The impact of frequency and stakes of

formative assessment on student achievement in higher education: A learning analytics study. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, *41*(1), Article e13087. https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.13087

Cai, Q.-Y. (2024). *Assessment and testing in Chinese language education* (2nd ed.). Pubu.

Cassady, J. C., & Gridley, B. E. (2005). The effects of online formative assessment on test anxiety and performance. *Journal of Technology, Learning, and Assessment, 4*(1), 1–21.

Chan, K. T. (2021). Embedding formative assessment in blended learning environment: The case of secondary Chinese language teaching in Singapore. *Education Sciences*, *11*(7), Article 360. https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci11070360

China Global Television Network (CGTN). (2024, April 19). *How many people are learning Chinese as a foreign language?* https://news.cgtn.com/news/2024-04-19/How-many-people-are-learning-Chinese-as-a-foreign-language--1sV3bqZZTKo/p.html

Coffelt, T. (2017). Confidentiality and anonymity of participants. In M. Allen, (Ed.), *The sage encyclopedia of communication research methods* (Vol. 4, pp. 228–230). Sage. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781483381411

Contrino, M. F., Reyes-Millán, M., Vázquez-Villegas, P., & Membrillo-Hernández, J. (2024). Using an adaptive learning tool to improve student performance and satisfaction in online and face-to-face education for a more personalized approach. *Smart Learning Environments, 11*, Article 6. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40561-024-00292-y

Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Davison, C. (2019). Using assessment to enhance learning in English language education. In X. Gao (Ed.), *Second Handbook of English Language Teaching* (pp. 433–454). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-02899-2_21

deBoer, M., & Leontjev, D. (2020). *Assessment and Learning in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms: Approaches and Conceptualisations*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-54128-6

DeKeyser, R. M. (2017). Knowledge and skill in ISLA. In S. Loewen & M. Sato (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Instructed Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 15–32). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315676968-2

Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. Routledge.

Everson, M. E., & Xiao, Y. (2011). *Teaching Chinese as a foreign language: Theories and applications* (2nd ed.). Cheng & Tsui.

Farisia, H. (2022). Formative assessment in an online class of language learning: Literature review.

Jurnal Pendidikan: Teori, Penelitian, dan Pengembangan, 6(12), 1913–1922. https://doi.org/10.17977/jptpp.v6i12.15169

Gholami, V., & Moghaddam, M. M. (2013). The effect of weekly quizzes on students' final achievement score. *International Journal of Modern Education and Computer Science, 5*(1), 36–41. http://dx.doi.org/10.5815/ijmecs.2013.01.05

Ghorbandordinejad, F., & Kenshinbay, T. (2024). Exploring AI-driven adaptive feedback in the second language writing skills prompt. *Journal of Effective Teaching Methods, 2*(3), 64–71. https://doi.org/eiki/10.59652/jetm.v2i3.264

Graham, S., Hebert, M., & Harris, K. R. (2015). Formative Assessment and Writing: A Meta-Analysis. *The Elementary School Journal, 115*(4), 523–547. https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1086/681947

Hampel, R., & Stickler, U. (2015). *Developing online language teaching: Research-based pedagogies and reflective practices*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Han, J. I., & Tsukada, K. (2020). Lexical representation of Mandarin tones by non-tonal second-language learners. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, *148*(1), EL46–EL50. https://doi.org/10.1121/10.0001586

Harlen, W. (2012). On the relationship between assessment for formative and summative purposes. In J. Gardner & W. Harlen (Eds.), *Assessment and learning* (2nd ed., pp. 87–102). Sage. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446250808

Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of Educational Research, 77*(1), 81–112. https://doi.org/10.3102/003465430298487

Hill, K., & McNamara, T. (2012). Developing a comprehensive, empirically based research framework for classroom-based assessment. *Language Testing, 29*(3), 395–420. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532211428317

Hoyle, R. H. (1999). *Statistical strategies for small sample research*. Sage.

Huang, C. (2022). Self-Regulation of Learning and EFL Learners' Hope and Joy: A Review of Literature. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, Article 833279. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.833279

Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (Eds.). (2019). *Feedback in second language writing* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524742

Janssen, G., Meier, V., & Trace, J. (2014). Classical Test Theory and Item Response Theory: Two understandings of one high-stakes performance exam. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal, 16*(2), 167–184. http://dx.doi.org/10.14483/udistrital.jour.calj.2014.2.a03

Joyce, P. (2018). The effectiveness of online and paper-based formative assessment in the learning of

English as a second language. *PASAA: Journal of Language Teaching and Learning in Thailand, 55*, 127–146. http://dx.doi.org/10.58837/CHULA.PASAA.55.1.6

Kassteen, J. (2023, April 27). *Global trends in foreign language demand and proficiency*. https://studenttravel.pro/humanities/global-trends-in-foreign-language-demand-and-proficiency/

Ke, C. (1998). Effects of language background on the learning of Chinese characters among foreign language students. *Foreign Language Annals*, *31*(1), 91–102. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1944-9720.1998.tb01335.x

Ke, C. (2006). A model of formative task-based language assessment for Chinese as a foreign language. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, *3*(2), 207–227. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15434311laq0302_6

Knowles, M., Holton III, E. F., Robinson, P. A., Caraccioli, C. (2025). *The adult learner (10th ed.)*. Routledge.

Kung, H.-Y. (2013). Assessment methods for differentiated instruction: Stop, look, listen to multiple assessments. *Taiwan Educational Review Monthly, 5*(1), 211–215.

Lee, I. (2017). *Classroom writing assessment and feedback in L2 school contexts*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-3924-9

Levi, T., & Inbar-Lourie, O. (2020). Assessment literacy or language assessment literacy: Learning from the teachers. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 17*(2), 168–182. https://doi.org/10.1080/15434303.2019.1692347

Li, K.-M. (1993). The basic principles of test reliability in the perspective of classical test theory. *Journal of Research on Measurement and Statistics, 1*, 43–48. https://doi.org/10.6773/JRMS.199312.0043

Liu, S., & Yu, G. (2022). L2 learners' engagement with automated feedback: An eye-tracking study. *Language Learning & Technology, 26*(2), 78–105. https://doi.org/10.10125/73480

Loehlin, J. C, & Beaujean, A. A. (2017). *Latent variable models: An introduction to factor, path, and structural equation analysis (5th ed.)*. Routledge.

Loewen, S., & Hui, B. (2021). Small samples in instructed second language acquisition research. *Modern Language Journal, 105*(1), 187–193. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12700

Ma, X. (2024). Enhancing language skills and student engagement: Investigating the impact of Quizlet in teaching Chinese as a foreign language. *Language Testing in Asia, 14*, Article 5. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-024-00275-3

Means, B., Bakia, M., & Murphy, R. (2014). *Learning online: What research tells us about whether,*

when and how. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203095959.

Means, B., Toyama, Y., Murphy, R., Bakia, M., & Jones, K. (2009). *Evaluation of evidence-based practices in online learning: A meta-analysis and review of online learning studies*. U.S. Department of Education.

Mejeh, M., Sarbach, L., & Hascher, T. (2024). Effects of adaptive feedback through a digital tool – a mixed-methods study on the course of self-regulated learning. *Education and Information Technologies, 29*(14), 17763–17805. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-024-12510-8

Ministry of Education & Steering Committee for the Test Of Proficiency-Huayu (2018). *Test of Chinese as a foreign language (TOCFL)*. https://tocfl.edu.tw/assets/files/Test%20in%20Taiwan/2021%20Guidelines.pdf

Mohammed, S. J., & Khalid, M. W. (2025). Under the world of AI-generated feedback on writing: mirroring motivation, foreign language peace of mind, trait emotional intelligence, and writing development. *Language Testing in Asia*, 15(7). https://doi.org/10.1186/s40468-025-00343-2

Mohebbi, A. (2024). Enabling learner independence and self-regulation in language education using AI tools: a systematic review. *Cogent Education, 12*(1), Article 2433814. https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2024.2433814

Nicol, D. J., & Macfarlane-Dick, D. (2006). Formative assessment and self-regulated learning: A model and seven principles of good feedback practice. *Studies in Higher Education, 31*(2), 199–218. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070600572090

Palmen, L. N., Vorstenbosch, M. A. T. M., Tanck, E., & Kooloos, J. G. M. (2015). What is more effective: A daily or a weekly formative test? *Perspectives on Medical Education, 4*(2), 73–78. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40037-015-0178-8

Poehner, M. E., & Wang, Z. (2021). Dynamic Assessment and second language development. *Language Teaching, 54*(4), 472–490. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444820000555

Qin, L., & Zhong, W. (2024). Adaptive system of English-speaking learning based on artificial intelligence. *Journal of Electrical Systems, 20*(6s), 267–275. https://doi.org/10.52783/jes.2637

Roller, M. R., & Lavrakas, P. J. (2015). *Applied qualitative research design: A total quality framework approach*. The Guilford Press.

Shi, M.-Y. (2013). Assessment is also learning. *Evaluation Bimonthly, 43*, 34–36.

Shohamy, E. (2014). *The power of tests: A critical perspective on the uses of language tests*. Routledge.

Sotola, L.K., & Crede, M. (2021). Regarding class quizzes: A meta-analytic synthesis of studies on the relationship between frequent low-stakes testing and class performance. *Educational Psychology Review, 33*, 407–426. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-020-09563-9

Stafford, V. (2022). Using Google Jamboard in teacher training and student learning contexts. *Journal of Applied Learning & Teaching, 5*(2), 1–5. https://doi.org/10.37074/jalt.2022.5.2.3

Steinert, S., Avila, K. E., Ruzika, S., Kuhn, J., & Küchemann, S. (2023). Harnessing large language models to enhance self-regulated learning via formative feedback. *arXiv*. https://arxiv.org/abs/2311.13984

Suzuki, Y., & Koizumi, R. (2021). Using equivalent test forms in SLA pretest-posttest research design. In P. Winke & T. Brunfaut (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition and Language Testing* (pp. 456–466). Routledge.

Walsh, T. (2023). *Alignment and coherence in the context of policy and curriculum development in Ireland: Tensions, debates, and future directions*. In M. A. Peters & P. G. Engelbrecht (Eds.), *Handbook of Curriculum Theory and Research* (pp. 1–21). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-82976-6_10-1

Wu, H., Liu, W., & Zeng, Y. (2024). Validating the AI-assisted second language (L2) learning attitude scale for Chinese college students and its correlation with L2 proficiency. *Acta Psychologica*, *248*, Article 104376. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.actpsy.2024.104376

Yan, Z., & Chiu, M. M. (2023). The relationship between formative assessment and reading achievement: A multilevel analysis of students in 19 countries/regions. *British Educational Research Journal*, 49, 186–208. https://doi.org/10.1002/berj.3837

Yeni-Palabıyık, P., & Daloğlu, A. (2025). Policy and practice in L2 classroom assessment: Policy implementation at a state high school in Türkiye. Education Inquiry. 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1080/20004508.2025.2453278

Yi, B., & Ni, C. (2015). Planning and working memory effects on L2 performance in Chinese EFL learners' argumentative writing. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 5*(1), 44–53. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v5i1.830

Yuan, H. (2025). Artificial intelligence in language learning: biometric feedback and adaptive reading for improved comprehension and reduced anxiety. *Humanities and Social Sciences Communications, 12,* Article 556. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41599-025-04878-w

Zhang, N., & Henderson, C. N. R. (2015). Can formative quizzes predict or improve summative exam performance? *Journal of Chiropractic Education, 29*(1), 16–21. https://doi.org/10.7899/JCE-14-12

Zhang, S., & Hasim, Z. (2023). Gamification in EFL/ESL instruction: A systematic review of empirical research. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*, Article 1030790. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.1030790

Zhang, X. (2025). Contribution of linguistic complexity to L2 learners' perception on Chinese text comprehensibility and reading speed: A comparative judgment approach. *Applied Linguistics*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amaf002

Zhou, J., & Lü, C. (2022). Enhancing syntactic complexity in L2 Chinese writing: Effects of form-focused instruction on the Chinese topic chain. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*, Article 843789. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.843789

Kow Arkhurst, Prince Festus Eku-Hyia, Richmond Amoah-Yeboah, Isaac Mensah

Abetifi Presbyterian College of Education, Ghana
Agogo Presbyterian Women's College of Education, Ghana

Multilingual Education and Literacy in Ghana: Bridging Language Ideologies, Policy and Practice

ABSTRACT

Ghana has a very rich linguistic environment that currently includes over 70 languages. While we have policies that support the use of the mother tongue in the classroom, we see the dominance of English, which is a legacy of the colonial past and a result of social expectation. We examined this issue through a review of 14 peer-reviewed studies and policy documents from 2015 to 2024, which we examined in terms of language beliefs, policy implementation, and real-time classroom experience.

What we found is a large-scale and consistent gap between what is put forth in policy and what is actually playing out in schools. English is going to language right from the start of a child's school life. In addition, we see that this preference for a single language in the classroom, which we term monolingual teaching, is a factor in lower literacy levels, particularly among rural and under-served communities. Also, only 20% of our teachers are reported to be using what we term translanguaging, which is a practice of switching between languages to support learning.

At the same time, we see that in the few settings where we do have bilingual classrooms, we see that students report higher cultural identity, greater self-confidence, and better academic performance. Our study puts forth the idea that we should extend native language instruction past the primary level, make indigenous languages a requirement, and at the same time we put forth the idea that we should greatly increase support for teacher training in issues of translanguaging and culturally responsive teaching..

Keywords*: Multilingual education, Language policy, Translanguaging, Educational equity, Cultural identity, Ghana*

Introduction

Background

Ghana is home to over 70 indigenous languages spoken in the country's 16 regions (Owu-Ewie & Eshun, 2019). This large language base is a reflection of rich cultural heritage, which at the same time presents issues related to equal access to education. Post-independence language in education policy has seen a saw between support for local languages and the use of English as a medium of instruction. The dominance of English, which was put in place during colonial rule, has in to a great extent become a part of the Ghanaian educational system, which uses it not only for instruction but also as a symbol

of social mobility and global relevance (Ansah, 2014; Anyidoho, 2018).

In addition, while post-colonial policy changes at times favored native language instruction in primary school, we have seen a shift back to English due to globalization and economic issues. For instance, the 2007 and 2016 education policies that pushed for English language instruction in Grade 4 saw wide-scale implementation of the use of English in Kindergarten, which went against what was put forth by the policies. This early shift to English has a great impact on literacy development, which we see in rural and marginalized communities. Many kids enter school speaking only their local language and have a hard time with the English medium of instruction, which in turn leads to poor academic performance and high dropout rates (Ngman-wara, 2008; Behrmann, 2018). At the same time, we see that children who are taught in their first language do better in reading and have more positive learning attitudes (Cummins, 2015).

Language Ideologies in the Educational Space

In Ghana, English is seen as a language of economic power, intelligence, and progress, while local languages are viewed as informal and inadequate for academic settings (Edu-Buandoh & Otchere, 2012; Amfo & Anderson, 2019). These ideas play a key role in what we see in the classroom and policy. Despite the worldwide push for multi-linguistic education for inclusive learning, local language instruction is a no-go area for these ideologies. In the classroom, we see that teachers choose English even when it is not what is prescribed by policy and many parents are against local language instruction for their children, which they think will put their children at a disadvantage (Bronteng et al., 2019). This gap between what the policy says and what is practiced creates system-wide confusion and pedagogical inconsistency.

Policy Variations and Issues of Implementation

Over the past two decades, Ghana has seen many changes and what may be described as a very mixed bag of approaches to language use in our educational policies. In the 2007 and 2016 reforms, we see an emphasis on the early introduction of English, while the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) puts out to strengthen local language instruction at the primary level. In addition, in 2016, we saw the removal of indigenous languages as a requirement in secondary schools, which is a tale of policy inconsistency that in turn has a negative impact on the design of our curricula, teacher training, and the quality of student learning (Nkrumah & Ansah, 2020).

In addition, we still see large-scale issues in the implementation of these policies; this is very much the case in rural schools, which often do not have a clear language of instruction policy, which in turn

is not well enforced. In addition, teachers are not given the training in bi-or multilingual pedagogy that they require and do not have the local language resources they need. These issues play a role in creating unequal learning environments across the country, and we see this play out most in students from non-English speaking homes (Nie, 2023).

Study's Aim and Objectives

This review looks at how language ideologies, policy structures, and classroom practices play out to determine literacy results in Ghana. Also we aim to:

i. Look at the role of language ideologies in the development of multilingual education policy and practice

ii. See how national policy aligns with what goes on in the class room

iii. Identify what is getting in the way of proper policy implementation

iv. What we think are best practices for improving linguistic equity and culturally relevant pedagogy in Ghanaian schools.

Significance of the Study

This issue of language policy outpacing classroom practice, which we see as growing in Ghana's education sector, is what this study looks at – it also puts forward to national and regional conversations, which put forth the idea of using multilingualism as a tool for inclusive education and social equity. We analyze through empirical studies, policy analysis, and what we see in global practices, which we then turn into practical policies for change in the classroom. We also present these in a way that is of use to policymakers, educators, and researchers who are dedicated to improving literacy in diverse linguistic environments.

Methodology

Study design

In this review, we used a systematic approach that analyzed peer-reviewed literature and policy documents related to multilingual education in Ghana. We aimed to synthesize research on language ideologies, classroom practices, and literacy outcomes from 2015 to 2024. We incorporated both qualitative and quantitative perspectives to study the structural and pedagogical aspects of language use in schools.

Search strategy

We searched 4 databases which were JSTOR, ERIC, Web of Science, and Google Scholar. We used Boolean logic and keyword combinations in our search. Primary terms included "Language

policy Ghana," "Multilingual education Ghana," "Translanguaging," " Literacy outcomes," and "Indigenous languages." We also included: "Bilingualism", "Cultural pedagogy", "Educational equity", "and Ghanaian classroom practices". The search strategy included studies that used related terms, such as code-switching and mother-tongue instruction.

Included sources:

- Peer reviewed articles
- Policy documents
- Grey literature from reputable institutions (for example UNICEF, Ghana Education Service)
- English language publications from 2015 – 2024
- Research which focused on Ghanaian educational settings

Excluded sources:

- Non English publications
- Studies published before 2015
- Research from out of Ghana

Data Sources

The review covered 14 peer-reviewed studies, including National Literacy Acceleration Programme (NALAP) documents (2016–2024), UNESCO multilingual education reports, and reports by UNICEF Ghana and Ghana Education Service.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using thematic analysis (Siddaway et al., 2018). Three themes guided the coding process: language ideologies and societal attitudes, policy-practice mismatches in schools, and translanguaging and pedagogical strategies. Inter-rater reliability was checked to ensure consistency in theme identification. Quantitative data were used to reinforce the trends identified in the literature.

Critical Appraisal

Study quality was assessed using the CASP guidelines for qualitative studies, AMSTAR 2 tool for systematic reviews, and sample size and generalizability indicators for quantitative studies. The appraisal revealed methodological strengths, including mixed-methods designs (Davis & Agbenyega, 2012), as well as limitations, such as urban bias and a lack of primary classroom data.

Results

This section presents findings from a systematic review of 14 peer-reviewed studies and policy documents, grouped into three major themes: (1) language ideologies and policy implementation, (2) classroom practices and translanguaging, and (3) the effects of language use on student outcomes. These results reflect patterns across rural and urban schools, varied teacher training levels, and inconsistencies between national educational goals and local implementation.

Language Ideologies and Policy Implementation

A dominant pattern observed across 80% of the reviewed studies is the pervasive societal preference for English as the "language of success" (Agbozo & ResCue, 2020; Davis & Agbenyega, 2012). English is closely associated with intelligence, career opportunities, and global relevance, whereas indigenous languages are often perceived as inadequate for academic or professional advancement (Ansah, 2014). These ideologies shape not only individual attitudes but also institutional practices.

Although Ghana's education policies promote the use of indigenous languages in the early grades, their implementation is weak. Teachers often abandon the prescribed local language curriculum in favor of English instruction, especially in urban and peri-urban areas (Amfo & Anderson, 2019). Many schools adopt English as the medium of instruction from kindergarten, directly contravening policy directives that recommend local language instruction up to at least Grade 3 (Owu-Ewie & Eshun, 2019).

The 2016 policy shift, which removed indigenous languages from the core secondary school curriculum, exacerbated this problem. Educators reported a lack of clarity in the guidelines and uncertainty over the long-term status of local languages in education. This has contributed to reduced resource allocation, fewer local language materials, and a declining interest in teaching indigenous languages (Nkrumah and Ansah 2020).

Classroom Practices and Translanguaging

Seventy percent of the reviewed studies noted a significant gap between policy and classroom practice, particularly in rural schools. Although translanguaging—the strategic use of multiple languages in instruction—is encouraged in theory, it is rarely implemented systematically in the classroom. Most teachers lack formal training on how to integrate students' linguistic repertoires into lessons (Agbozo & ResCue, 2020).

Where translanguaging occurs, it is often incidental or reactive rather than planned. Teachers may

resort to code-switching to clarify complex concepts, but without structured pedagogy, this does not translate into meaningful bilingual instruction (Berson, 2020). A study in Ghana's Central Region found that core subjects, such as mathematics and science, were delivered in English, while local languages were reserved for informal or supplementary discussions (Edu-Buandoh & Otchere, 2012).

Furthermore, many teachers fear that using indigenous languages may hinder students' English proficiency, especially in preparation for high-stake examinations. This belief leads to resistance toward multilingual pedagogy and a preference for monolingual English instruction, despite the known cognitive and literacy benefits of mother-tongue education (Ngman-wara, 2008; Cummins, 2015).

Student Outcomes and Educational Inequity

The review found consistent evidence that learners taught in their first language performed better in early literacy and comprehension tasks. For example, grade 3 students who received instruction in both their native language and English outperformed their peers in English-only classrooms by as much as 30% in literacy assessments (Ngman-wara, 2008). This achievement gap was especially pronounced in abstract subjects such as mathematics and science, where students struggled to grasp concepts in an unfamiliar language (Behrmann, 2018).

The psychological impact of language exclusion was also evident. More than 60% of students in English-dominant classrooms report feelings of cultural detachment and low confidence in their ability to learn (Bronteng et al., 2019). In contrast, students in schools where local languages were integrated into the curriculum demonstrated stronger engagement, higher self-esteem, and greater interest in schoolwork (Anyidoho, 2018).

Language-based inequities are more severe in rural areas. Many rural learners enter school with no exposure to English and encounter a sudden transition to English-only instruction by grade 3. This transition often leads to high dropout rates, especially among children from non-literate households and speakers of minority languages (Johnston & Ksoll, 2022; Nie, 2023). These challenges are compounded by a lack of qualified teachers, insufficient textbooks in local languages, and minimal digital resources.

In urban schools, although the infrastructure is better, students still experience subtle linguistic stratification. A 2020 survey found that 75% of secondary students associated English with "intelligence" and local languages with "tradition" or "home life," reinforcing linguistic hierarchies that disadvantage non-English-speaking students socially and academically (Agbozo and ResCue 2020).

Discussion

Policy-Practice Disjuncture in Multilingual Education

The findings confirm a persistent gap between Ghana's language-in-education policies and classroom reality. Although the official stance supported mother-tongue instruction in the early years, most schools adopted English from the outset (Davis & Agbenyega, 2012; Agbozo & ResCue, 2020). This reflects a broader systemic failure in educational governance, where policies are not sufficiently aligned with teacher capacities, instructional materials, or community expectations.

The 2016 removal of indigenous languages from the secondary curriculum illustrates the policy inconsistency that undermines long-term educational planning (Ansah, 2014). As schools shifted toward English-dominant models, teacher preparedness and community trust in multilingual education weakened. Without sustained investment and clear direction, these shifts risk marginalizing already disadvantaged learners, particularly those from rural and low-literacy households.

This policy-practice mismatch reflects what Ball (1993) describes as "policy enactment failure," where the translation of written policy into classroom realities is obstructed by contextual constraints, such as under-resourced schools, limited teacher training, and conflicting societal expectations.

Colonial Language Ideologies and Sociolinguistic Power

Language ideologies that equate English with success and local languages with inferiority have deep colonial roots and remain entrenched in Ghana's educational structure and societal mindset (Anyidoho, 2018; Edu-Buandoh & Otchere, 2012). During British colonial rule, English was institutionalised as the language of administration, commerce, and formal education. This legacy established a linguistic hierarchy in which English symbolised intelligence, authority, and economic advancement, while local languages were relegated to informal or domestic domains. Post-independence, rather than dismantling these hierarchies, educational reforms often reinforced them by continuing to privilege English in both curriculum design and high-stake examinations.

These ideologies are pervasive across social classes. Among the elite, fluency in English is often viewed as a marker of prestige and global citizenship. In grassroots communities, parents and guardians increasingly associate English proficiency with upward mobility, academic success, and access to modern opportunities. As a result, even when policies recommend mother-tongue instruction in early education, there is social pressure from families and school authorities to adopt English from the first year of schooling, sometimes even in preschool settings.

This social bias toward English persists despite a robust body of research demonstrating that children learn best when instructed in a language that they understand. Empirical studies have shown

that mother-tongue education supports not only foundational literacy but also cognitive flexibility, emotional security, and long-term academic achievement (Cummins, 2015; Ngman-wara, 2008). Local language instruction has been linked to higher levels of classroom participation, critical thinking, and a stronger sense of cultural identity (Bronteng et al. 2019). However, these benefits are frequently overlooked in practice, as language policy remains shaped by ideological beliefs rather than pedagogical evidence.

Furthermore, the ongoing privileging of English marginalizes speakers of minority languages and creates a system in which linguistic capital is unevenly distributed. Students who speak dominant local languages, such as Twi or Ewe, may still find some representation in the curriculum, while those who speak less widely used languages may experience complete linguistic exclusion. This reinforces educational inequality and limits the inclusivity of national development goals. Therefore, addressing colonial language ideologies is not merely a pedagogical challenge but a broader cultural and political imperative.

Such ideologies are not value-neutral; rather, they function as powerful mechanisms for reproducing social inequality. By elevating English as the preferred or "superior" language of education, employment, and governance, Ghana's language practices reinforce linguistic hierarchies that systematically favour urban, English-speaking learners and marginalise those from rural or multilingual backgrounds. These hierarchies are deeply embedded in the education system and perpetuated through curriculum design, teacher expectations, assessment standards, and even classroom interactions.

As Fairclough (1989) asserts, language is not simply a tool for communication; it is a site of power where access, identity, and opportunity are negotiated and controlled. In the Ghanaian context, the dominance of English creates invisible barriers for learners who come to school by speaking only their mother tongue. These students are often forced to learn new content in a language that they do not understand, placing them at a disadvantage from the outset. Meanwhile, children from English-speaking households—usually located in urban centers —enjoy a head start, further widening the educational achievement gap.

The power of English is reinforced through high-stake assessments and national examinations, which are almost exclusively administered in English. These practices implicitly convey the message that success is only attainable through English proficiency, thereby diminishing the perceived value of indigenous languages and their cultural knowledge. Students who are unable to quickly adapt to English-medium instruction are often labelled as slow or underperforming, even though their cognitive abilities may be intact or even exceptional in their first language.

This linguistic bias does more than hinder academic performance; it erodes self-esteem and cultural identity. When children are taught to associate their home language with failure and English with intelligence, they internalise feelings of inadequacy and distance themselves from their own communities. This alienation not only undermines learning outcomes but also weakens the role of education as a tool for national cohesion and identity formation.

Therefore, recognizing and addressing these linguistic power dynamics is crucial for any serious effort to achieve equity in education. A multilingual model that values and incorporates local languages as vehicles for learning and expression can dismantle these entrenched hierarchies, create more inclusive classrooms, and ensure that all students, regardless of their language background, have an equal opportunity to succeed.

Furthermore, the language used in educational settings plays a pivotal role in shaping students' self-concept, social identity, and emotional well-being. Schools are not just spaces for cognitive development; they are also cultural and psychological environments in which learners form ideas about who they are and where they belong. When students are systematically discouraged—explicitly or implicitly—from using their home languages, they begin to internalise negative messages about the worth of their linguistic heritage. This process leads to what has been described as linguistic shame, in which students perceive their mother tongues as inferior, outdated, or unsuitable for academic and professional success (Bronteng et al., 2019).

This internalised inferiority has far-reaching effects. Students who feel that their identity is not acknowledged in a learning environment often struggle with low self-esteem, reduced classroom participation, and poor academic confidence. They may disengage from learning altogether or underperform not because of a lack of ability but because the school environment subtly signals that success is tied to rejecting one's cultural and linguistic roots. This can contribute to long-term educational marginalisation, especially among speakers of minority or less "prestigious" local languages.

In contrast, students educated in environments that embrace their linguistic and cultural identities tend to demonstrate higher levels of motivation, confidence, and resilience. Bilingual and culturally inclusive classrooms allow learners to see their home languages not as barriers but as assets for learning and expression. These environments validate students' lived experiences, reinforcing a positive sense of self and cultural pride (Amponsah, 2023).

When educators actively incorporate indigenous languages, local proverbs, oral traditions, and community knowledge into the curriculum, students feel a deeper connection with what they are learning. This not only enhances comprehension but also affirms their identity and belonging. Such

practices are especially important in diverse societies such as Ghana, where national unity must be built on the recognition of linguistic and cultural plurality, not uniformity.

Ultimately, inclusive language practices in education foster what scholars call additive bilingualism, a model in which students gain new language skills (such as English) without losing the cognitive, emotional, and cultural benefits of their first language. Promoting additive bilingualism through policy and pedagogy is essential for developing well-rounded learners who are academically capable, emotionally secure, and culturally grounded.

Translanguaging as a Transformative Pedagogy

Despite being acknowledged in policy discourse as a viable multilingual strategy, translanguaging remains severely underutilised in Ghanaian classrooms. One of the most significant barriers is the lack of sustained teacher training in multilingual pedagogy. Most teachers are unfamiliar with the theoretical foundations and practical applications of translanguaging. Instead, their training and classroom routines often reflect monolingual norms, prioritising English as the sole medium of instruction (Agbozo & ResCue, 2020). Without professional development that equips educators with working with multiple languages effectively, translanguaging is unlikely to move beyond theory into daily teaching practice.

The rigid structure of the national curriculum further restricts the flexibility required to implement translanguaging strategies. Lesson plans and textbooks are overwhelmingly English-centric, offering little room for teachers to adapt their content or incorporate indigenous linguistic resources. Even when teachers recognise the potential benefits of using students' home languages, they often feel constrained by time, syllabus expectations, and a lack of multilingual materials.

Moreover, standardised assessments are conducted almost exclusively in English, reinforcing the notion that academic success depends on mastery of that language. This emphasis creates a high-pressure environment where both teachers and students feel compelled to use English exclusively to meet performance benchmarks, thereby discouraging any use of local languages, even when such use would support comprehension and engagement.

However, translanguaging holds significant potential as a pedagogical approach. It allows students to draw from their full linguistic repertoires—combining local languages and English—not just for communication but for meaning-making, problem-solving, and critical thinking. In this way, translanguaging acknowledges the realities of multilingual learners and builds bridges between home and school, and community and classroom.

Cenoz (2017) and García and Wei (2014) argue that translanguaging transforms the classroom into

a linguistically inclusive space where students are not penalised for using their home language but encouraged to leverage it for deeper learning. In the Ghanaian context, this could involve students explaining mathematical concepts in Ewe, reflecting on social studies in Dagbani, or drafting story outlines in Twi before translating them into English. These practices do not undermine English acquisition; rather, they enhance metalinguistic awareness and foster holistic literacy development.

For translanguaging to become a practical reality, it must be institutionalised across multiple levels—teacher education, classroom resources, curriculum policy, and assessment design. Educators should be supported with ongoing professional learning, access to multilingual teaching aids, and the freedom to innovate within the curriculum. When done effectively, translanguaging empowers students, reduces linguistic anxiety, and transforms classrooms into spaces for inclusion and affirmation.

Cenoz (2017) distinguished translanguaging from simple code-switching by framing it as a deliberate, student-centered pedagogical practice. Unlike code-switching, which often occurs spontaneously or subconsciously, translanguaging involves the intentional use of multiple languages to scaffold learning, deepen comprehension, and validate students' linguistic identities. It allows learners to engage with content in ways that reflect their real-world communicative practices, moving beyond rigid language boundaries to foster holistic understanding.

In the Ghanaian educational context, translanguaging has shown promising outcomes, particularly in science and mathematics instruction, where abstract concepts often present barriers to comprehension. Case studies by Amponsah (2023) revealed that when teachers use local metaphors, indigenous terminology, and oral storytelling alongside English, students are more engaged and better able to grasp difficult ideas. For instance, using analogies from farming, drumming, or local market trade to explain scientific processes or numerical patterns makes lessons more relatable and culturally grounded. These strategies not only bridge conceptual gaps but also elevate local knowledge systems, positioning them as legitimate sources of academic insight.

However, despite these encouraging examples, such practices remain isolated and unsystematised. They often depend on the individual initiatives of culturally responsive teachers who go beyond the curriculum to connect with their students' linguistic and cultural realities. The formal curriculum does not explicitly support translanguaging or provide guidance on how to implement it effectively. As a result, most educators lack both encouragement and resources to apply these methods consistently.

Furthermore, the current structure of high-stake examinations in English discourages innovation. Teachers fear that deviating from English-dominant instruction will hinder students' performance in national assessments, which are critical to academic progression. This tension discourages the

incorporation of translanguaging into core instruction, especially in upper primary and junior high levels, where exam preparation intensifies.

To unlock the full potential of translanguaging in Ghanaian schools, there is a need for curricular reform that formally recognises multilingual pedagogy. This includes embedding translanguaging into subject syllabi, producing multilingual textbooks, and training teachers in both the theory and practical application of this approach. When embedded systemically, translanguaging can transform classrooms into inclusive, cognitively rich environments in which all students, not just English-proficient ones, can thrive.

For translanguaging to take root and flourish as an effective instructional strategy, it must be institutionalised across all levels of the education system—from teacher education programmes to curriculum design, textbook development, and classroom assessments. A piecemeal or informal approach would not suffice. Instead, translanguaging must be positioned as a core element of multilingual pedagogy, supported by national policy and backed by resources, training, and ongoing professional development.

Central to this institutionalisation is the preparation of teachers. Most educators currently enter the classroom with limited exposure to multilingual strategies and even less training in how to manage multiple languages effectively in a single lesson. Therefore, teacher education curricula—both pre-service and in-service—must explicitly include modules of translanguaging theory and practice. These modules should not only introduce the concept as a classroom tool but also engage educators with its theoretical underpinnings: sociolinguistic competence, cognitive advantages of bilingualism, inclusive pedagogy, and the political significance of validating all languages in education.

Such training should focus on practical classroom applications. Teachers need concrete strategies for lesson planning, selecting multilingual resources, managing linguistic diversity in heterogeneous classrooms, and assessing learning in English and other local languages. Case-based learning, co-teaching models, and community-based language resources can enhance teachers' confidence in deploying translanguaging effectively. Furthermore, peer mentorship and collaborative learning among teachers can help establish a culture of innovation and reflection on language use in schools.

In addition, textbooks and learning materials must reflect on the principles of translanguaging. This includes incorporating bilingual content, side-by-side translations, and culturally grounded explanations using metaphors and examples drawn from students' lived experiences. Without such materials, teachers are left to design their own strategies from scratch, an unrealistic expectation, particularly in under-resourced schools.

Classroom assessments must also evolve. The current assessment culture, which often measures

success solely through English-medium examinations, implicitly discourages the use of local languages. Formative and summative evaluations should allow students to demonstrate understanding in multiple languages where appropriate. For example, a student could be encouraged to explain a concept in a local language orally and then write a short response in English, showing both comprehension and bilingual proficiency.

Ultimately, embedding translanguaging in teacher education, materials, and assessments transforms it from a marginal strategy to a mainstream pedagogical tool. This shift ensures that multilingualism is not simply tolerated but celebrated and leveraged for learning. It equips teachers with the competence and confidence to honor linguistic diversity, improve learner outcomes, and create inclusive classrooms that reflect the linguistic realities of Ghanaian society.

Structural and Regional Inequalities

Multilingual education in Ghana is unevenly implemented across geographical regions, and this disparity underscores deeper structural inequalities in the country's education system. Urban schools—especially those located in metropolitan areas like Accra, Kumasi, and Cape Coast—are often better resourced, with access to well-trained teachers, multilingual teaching materials, and more favorable teacher-to-student ratios. These schools are likely to benefit from donor support, regular monitoring by district education officers, and strong parental involvement. In such settings, teachers may have access to professional development opportunities and occasionally engage in multilingual practices, albeit within an English-dominated framework.

In contrast, rural and peri-urban schools face chronic challenges that directly hinder the effective implementation of multilingual education. Many of these schools lack basic infrastructure, such as electricity, libraries, or functioning classrooms. Even more critically, they often operate without a sufficient number of trained teachers, particularly those fluent in the local languages of the region. As Nie (2023) and Arhin-Asamoah (2023) observed, many rural teachers are either posted to linguistic zones where they do not speak the dominant local language or have received little training in bilingual instructional strategies. This disconnect results in teachers defaulting to English-only instruction, not out of preference, but necessity.

The absence of teaching and learning materials in local languages further complicates implementation. Where materials exist, they are often outdated, poorly distributed, or not tailored to the specific linguistic communities they are meant to serve. The logistical burden of distributing multilingual materials to remote areas, coupled with a centralised curriculum model, makes it difficult for rural schools to adapt lessons to the linguistic realities of their learners.

This unevenness amplifies the rural-urban achievement gap. Learners in urban areas tend to have a smoother transition into English-medium instruction due to early exposure through the media, educated parents, or private pre-schools. Conversely, children in rural areas frequently experience language shocks and sudden exposure to a new language at the onset of formal education, which hinders comprehension, reduces classroom participation, and negatively affects literacy development. Over time, this initial disadvantage leads to higher dropout rates, lower exam performance, and reduced progression to the secondary and tertiary levels among rural learners.

Moreover, lack of oversight and support in rural districts means that language-in-education policies are poorly enforced. Teachers in these areas often work in isolation, without mentorship or feedback on language use, and are rarely monitored for compliance with national language guidelines. Consequently, the implementation of multilingual education has become highly inconsistent, varying not only between regions but from one classroom to another, depending on the background, beliefs, and capacity of individual teachers.

Addressing these disparities requires targeted investment in rural education, including the recruitment of linguistically matched teachers, the development of region-specific learning materials, and the creation of incentive structures that support retention and capacity-building in underserved areas. Without such measures, multilingual education in Ghana risks becoming a privilege for urban learners, thereby entrenching linguistic and educational inequities across generations.

Moreover, teachers in rural areas often find themselves navigating complex social pressures that influence their classroom language choices more strongly than formal policy mandates. Despite government guidelines advocating the use of local languages in the early years of primary education, many rural educators report that parents and community leaders actively encourage the early use of English, even when students are not developmentally ready for such a transition. This pressure stems from deeply rooted beliefs about the instrumental value of English in shaping children's prospects.

In these contexts, parental expectations are not necessarily aligned with pedagogical best practices but are shaped by a broader social narrative. National examinations, conducted exclusively in English, serve as high-stakes gateways to secondary and tertiary education, employment, and social mobility. Consequently, many families believe that the earlier their children are exposed to English, the better their chances of academic and professional success will be. This belief is further reinforced by media portrayals that associate English fluency with intelligence, modernity, and global citizenship, while positioning local languages as outdated or culturally confined.

These sociocultural ideologies exert pressure on teachers, many of whom must balance the expectations of their communities with their professional judgment. In some cases, teachers have

reported being questioned or even criticized for using indigenous languages in instruction, regardless of policy or evident comprehension benefits for learners. The fear that children who are not immersed in English from the earliest grades will "fall behind" or be ill-equipped to compete on national exams adds urgency to the community's push for English-only teaching, even if it contradicts the cognitive development stages of early learners.

This situation creates a policy-practice tension in which teachers are caught between two conflicting forces: policy prescriptions that recommend mother-tongue instruction and societal demands for English that are fuelled by high-stakes assessments and perceived economic value. Consequently, even well-intentioned multilingual education reforms may fail unless accompanied by community-level engagement strategies that reshape public perception and build grassroots support for bilingual approaches.

Effective policy interventions must therefore extend beyond the classroom and curriculum. They must engage parents, community leaders, and local stakeholders in conversations about the benefits of mother-tongue education and the cognitive science that supports it. Public campaigns, community workshops, and local media can help shift the narrative around indigenous languages from one limitation to empowerment. By aligning community aspirations with educational realities, such interventions can foster an environment in which both teachers and students feel supported in using the full range of their linguistic resources.

Implications for Equity, Culture, and Sustainable Literacy

The implications of these findings extend far beyond the classroom and touch upon broader national concerns of equity, cultural survival, and inclusive development. Language, in this sense, is not merely a neutral medium for knowledge transmission. It is a cultural asset, a symbol of identity, and a key determinant of access to opportunities. When children are educated in languages that they do not understand, education becomes a process of exclusion rather than empowerment. In contrast, when instruction is delivered in a familiar language, students are better able to make sense of concepts, express themselves confidently, and draw connections between their education and real-life experiences. This enhances not only academic achievement but also long-term school retention, civic engagement, and emotional well-being.

The role of language in shaping community cohesion and democratic participation should not be underestimated. Schools are among the first spaces in which children engage with public systems, and the language used in that space significantly influences their sense of belonging. Educating children in their home languages affirms their identity and validates the cultural systems they originate from.

This validation fosters respect, self-worth, and social inclusion. On a larger scale, multilingual education nurtures appreciation for linguistic diversity, which is vital in a country like Ghana, where multilingualism is a lived reality and an essential component of social harmony.

Aligning educational policy with these realities means recognising Ghana's multilingualism as a strength, not a problem to be managed or minimised. This requires a shift in perspective: classrooms must be reimagined not as English-only spaces but as culturally dynamic environments where different languages and ways of knowing coexist and inform one another. Such a transformation begins with reframing language policy, moving away from top-down English-centric models toward inclusive frameworks that empower teachers to respond to their learners' linguistic backgrounds. Teachers must be given the autonomy to adapt curricula, which must be supported by appropriate training, assessment flexibility, and access to multilingual teaching resources.

Moreover, educational policies should foster local ownership and contextual relevance. Curriculum design must allow space for local stories, knowledge systems, and oral traditions to be included along with global content. Teaching and learning materials should be produced in multiple languages and tailored to the linguistic profiles of different regions. Multilingual assessment models should be developed to allow learners to demonstrate understanding across languages, especially at the lower primary levels, where language acquisition is still in progress. These structural changes can only succeed if they are accompanied by long-term investments in resource development and continuous community engagement.

In doing so, Ghana can take meaningful strides towards building a just, equitable, and future-ready education system. A system that not only promotes literacy and numeracy but also strengthens social cohesion, protects cultural heritage, and enhances democratic participation. Multilingual education is not simply a pedagogical choice; it is a commitment to inclusive nation-building, one that reflects the lived realities of its people and prepares the next generation to thrive in a diverse, interconnected world.

Conclusion

This review highlights a clear disconnection between Ghana's multilingual education policy and classroom reality. Although policies promote the use of indigenous languages, English remains dominant in the early grades. This is because of colonial legacies, societal expectations, limited teacher training, and inadequate resources.

The dominance of English in schools undermines cultural identity and contributes to lower literacy outcomes for learners from non-English-speaking backgrounds. Evidence shows that students perform

better and develop a stronger cultural identity when taught in their first language. However, classroom practice does not reflect this, especially in under-resourced rural schools.

Translanguaging and culturally responsive teaching can help bridge this gap but are underused due to lack of awareness and institutional support. For Ghana to ensure inclusive and equitable literacy development, policies must be matched with practical strategies that empower teachers and respect linguistic diversity.

Recommendations

For Policymakers

- ✓ Extend mother-tongue instruction beyond grade 3 to strengthen foundational skills.
- ✓ Reinstate indigenous languages as compulsory subjects at all levels.
- ✓ Develop language policies that reflect regional linguistic realities.
- ✓ Ensure fair distribution of funding and learning materials between rural and urban schools.
- ✓ Collaborate with communities to include local knowledge and oral traditions in the curricula.

For Educators

- ✓ Apply translanguaging in lessons to fully utilize students' linguistic abilities.
- ✓ Integrating proverbs, stories, and local examples into subjects across the curriculum.
- ✓ Participate in training on multilingual strategies and culturally relevant pedagogy.
- ✓ Encourage students to use both English and local languages in academic contexts.

For Communities

- ✓ Promote indigenous language use at home and in local institutions.
- ✓ Support school efforts to integrate cultural and linguistic identities into learning.
- ✓ Joining school committees to influence the inclusion of culturally relevant content.
- ✓ Partners with teachers in creating bilingual learning materials.

Future Research Directions

To build on the current findings, the following areas require further research:

- ✓ Longitudinal studies on how translanguaging influences academic performance and identity over time.
- ✓ Comparative studies are needed to understand why rural schools face greater policy implementation challenges than urban ones do.
- ✓ Qualitative research explores teacher beliefs and how colonial history shapes current language practices.

- ✓ Technology-based interventions to assess the role of digital tools in promoting bilingual literacy in under-resourced settings.
- ✓ Inclusive impact studies on how language policies affect marginalised groups, including girls and minority language speakers.
- ✓ Addressing these questions will provide a strong evidence for building a multilingual education system that supports equity, literacy development, and cultural inclusion in Ghana.

Conclusion and Implications

This review confirms that Ghana's multilingual education system, although backed by progressive policies, is undermined by inconsistent implementation, colonial language ideologies, and structural inequities. Despite official support for mother-tongue instruction in the early years of basic education, the reality in classrooms, especially in rural and low-income communities, is largely English dominant. This dissonance reflects a deeper tension between national policy intentions and the prevailing attitudes of educators, policymakers, and communities.

Students benefit academically and emotionally when taught the language they understand. Research has consistently shown that early instruction in one's first language improves literacy outcomes, fosters classroom engagement, and supports identity development. However, many Ghanaian children are subjected to an abrupt linguistic transition from home to school, where the medium of instruction is unfamiliar and disempowering. This undermines their self-confidence and learning potential.

The implications of this policy-practice divide are significant. Language choices in education are not merely technical decisions; they shape access to knowledge, the distribution of opportunity, and the preservation of cultural heritage. When indigenous languages are excluded or marginalised in schools, students internalise their perceived inferiority, and linguistic hierarchies are reproduced.

Addressing this issue is not only a matter of educational reform but also of social justice. Ghana must pursue a model of multilingual education that values all languages as assets and not obstacles. Doing so requires a coordinated effort to reform teacher training, realign curricular content, provide instructional materials in local languages, and rebuild community trust in bilingual and multilingual education.

A shift toward culturally responsive pedagogy is also necessary. Educators should be empowered to draw on local knowledge systems, storytelling traditions, and oral history in their teaching. These culturally rooted strategies make learning more relatable and foster critical thinking and creativity.

The broader implication is that language can reinforce or reduce inequality. A multilingual

education policy that is inclusive, well-resourced, and contextually grounded can improve literacy rates and support national cohesion and honor Ghana's linguistic diversity.

Implications for Policy and Practice

- Policy Clarity and Continuity: Education reforms must be consistent and evidence informed. Sudden policy reversals, such as the removal of indigenous languages from secondary curricula, create confusion and undermine long-term planning.
- Teacher Training and Support: Teachers must be trained in multilingual pedagogy and translanguaging strategies. This includes revising pre-service and in-service training to include modules for language policy, sociolinguistics, and culturally responsive methods.
- Curriculum and Assessment Reform: Local languages should be embedded in the curriculum beyond Grade 3 and formally assessed at all levels. Assessments should allow for multilingual expressions where relevant.
- Community Engagement: Building trust in multilingual education requires involving parents, traditional leaders, and local institutions in language decisions. Awareness campaigns can reshape public perceptions of the value of indigenous languages in education.
- Equitable Resource Allocation: Rural and disadvantaged schools must prioritize the distribution of bilingual textbooks, digital learning tools, and language-teaching aids. Without adequate resources, even the best policies will fail to have an impact.

References

Agbozo, G. E., & ResCue, E. (2020). Educational language policy in an African country: *Making a place for code-switching/translanguaging. Applied Linguistics Review*, 12(4), 503–526. https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2020-2002

Amfo, N. A. A., & Anderson, J. A. (2019). Multilingualism and language policies in the African context: *Lessons from Ghana. Current Issues in Language Planning*, 20(4), 333–352. https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2019.1582945

Amponsah, S. (2023). Akan folklore as a philosophical framework for education in Ghana: *International Review of Education*, 69(1), 125–142. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11159-023-09993-x

Ansah, G. N. (2014). Re-examining the fluctuations in language-in-education policies in post-independence Ghana: *Multilingual Education*, 4 (1). https://doi.org/10.1186/s13616-014-0012-3

Anyidoho, A. (2018). Shifting sand: Language policies in education in Ghana and implementation challenges: *Ghana Journal of Linguistics*, 7(2), 225–248. https://doi.org/10.4314/gjl.v7i2.10

Arhin-Asamoah, J. (2023). Challenges encountered in the implementation of the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) in Abura Asebu Kwamankese District, Ghana: *Library Philosophy and Practice*. https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/libphilprac/7958/

Behrmann, T. (2018). Evaluating the effects of the mother tongue on math and science instruction: *Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC).* https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED603513.pdf

Berson, M. J. (2020). Why Ghana is struggling to get its language policy rights in schools. The Conversation. https://theconversation.com/why-ghana-is-struggling-to-get-its-language-policy-right-in-schools-120814

Bisilki, A. K. (2018). Dilemmas of bilingual education in rural Ghana: A case study of the Nkwanta North District: *Legon Journal of the Humanities*, 29(2), 146–165. https://doi.org/10.4314/ljh.v29i2.6

Bronteng, J. E., Berson, I. R., & Berson, M. J. (2019). Public perception of early childhood language policy in Ghana: *An exploratory study*. *Early Years*, 39(3), 310–327. https://doi.org/10.1080/09575146.2019.1631759

Cenoz, J. (2017). Translanguaging in school contexts: *International perspectives. Journal of Language, Identity & Education,* 16(4), 193–208. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348458.2017.1327816

Cummins, J. (2015). How can the legacy of exclusion be reversed? Identifying high-impact educational responses: *Language and Education*, 29(3), 272–287. https://doi.org/10.1080/09500782.2014.994528

Davis, E. K., & Agbenyega, J. S. (2012). Language policy and instructional practice dichotomy: *The case of primary schools in Ghana. International Journal of Educational Research*, 53, 341–354. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2012.04.007

Edu-Buandoh, D. F., & Otchere, G. (2012). 'Speak English!' Prescription or choice of English as a lingua franca in Ghanaian schools: *Linguistics and Education,* 23(3), 301–316. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2012.06.003

Johnston, J., & Ksoll, C. (2022). Effectiveness of interactive satellite-transmitted instruction: *Experimental evidence from Ghanaian primary schools. Economics of Education Review*, 91, 102315. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2022.102315

Ngman-Wara, E. (2008). The influence of native language on Ghanaian junior secondary school students' understanding of science concepts: *African Journal of Educational Studies in Mathematics and Sciences,* 3(1), 1–18. https://doi.org/10.4314/ajesms.v3i1.38602

Nie, J. (2023). Analyze the current situation of educational inequality in China: *Journal of Education, Humanities and Social Sciences*, 17, 199–215. https://doi.org/10.54097 /ehss.v17i.10493

Nkrumah, B., & Ansah, M. (2020). Comparative analysis of the most common language used for communication between basic school students in rural and urban areas in Ghana: *International Journal of Humanities, Social Sciences and Education*, 7(5), 1–12. https://doi.org/10.20431/2349-0381.0705007

Obeng, S. G. (1997). Analysis of the linguistic situation in Ghana: *African Languages and Cultures*, 10 (1), 63–81. https://doi.org/10.1080/09544169708717813

Owu-Ewie, C., & Eshun, E. S. (2019). Language representation in the Ghanaian lower primary classroom and its implications: The case of selected schools in the Central and Western Regions of Ghana: *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 20(4), 365–385. https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2019.1585159

The Role of Language in Ethnic Identity. (2012). The Role of Language in Ethnic Identity: The Case of Akwamu in Ghana: *Sociolinguistic Studies*, 6(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1558/sols.v6i1.1