



**Volume 4 Issue 2, December 2021.**



LONDON CHAMBER  
of  
COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY

THE COLLEGE  
OF TEACHERS

Institutional Member

ISSN 2631-8946 (Printed)  
ISSN 2631-8954 (Online)

**THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF  
APPLIED LANGUAGE STUDIES AND CULTURE  
(IJALSC)**



**Volume 4 • Issue 2 • December 2021**



# **International Journal of Applied Language Studies and Culture**

## **About us**

In order to be an effective communicator in today's interconnected world, beside being technologically savvy there is also a need to be aware of how language shapes different social realities. Learning a foreign language, teaching foreign languages and intercultural communication are only few of the domains that one should take into account when discussing applied language studies.

After carefully reviewing existing journals of applied language studies, our institution saw an opportunity to add to the existing body of publications by establishing a journal where researchers will be able to express their unique approaches towards applied language topics by following the concepts of post-positivistic and cultural criticism approach.

## **Mission**

The International Journal of Applied Language and Cultural Studies is published by London College of United Knowledge. It is an inclusive academic journal that will support researchers by offering them a platform where they deliver and discuss concepts from the field of applied language studies. The journal aims to be an integral part of researcher's path toward academic progress.

## **Editorial Board**

Our editorial board is formed of University Professors from different parts of the world. Working closely with the editorial board will yield the way for more objective quality assurance of the whole publication process. This distinguished board will function as an integral part of the London College UK's vision for supporting global academic community in the field of applied language studies.

## **Access**

The London College of United Knowledge Journal will be Open Access Peer-reviewed publication. The present journal is part of longterm development plan of London College UK and as such will be the focal point of its overall strategic growth. Consequently, London College UK will make sure that the longevity of the journal will be followed by easy access and constant support for authors.

## **Focus and Scope**

The purpose of the Journal is to publish articles relevant to field of Applied Language and Cultural Studies.

The field of Linguistics includes Applied Linguistics, Language Teaching, Computational Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, Historical Linguistics, Psycholinguistics, Language Acquisition, Sociolinguistics, Bilingualism, Language and Gender, Language Variation and Change, Speech Science, Perception, Theoretical Linguistics, Morphology, Phonology, Phonetics, Pragmatics, Semantics and Syntax. The field of Cultural studies includes Cultural studies, Humanities and Social science.

The editorial team will consider academically rigorous papers and will welcome Editorials, Letters to the Publisher, Research Articles, Case Studies, Reflective Essays, Review Articles, Research Briefs, Policy Briefs, Conference Proceeding and /or Abstracts, Commentaries, Viewpoints and other work which are of scientific value and interest.

## **Community**

London College UK will support the Journal by organizing academic conferences where published works will be presented and discussed. In addition, these conferences are valuable opportunity for all researchers and attendees to discuss the latest matters relating to language teaching and culture.



**Director and founder**

Mr. Alfred Irshaid, Jordan

**Editor-in-Chief**

Dr. Isa Spahiu, Faculty of English Language, AAB College, Prishtina-Kosova

**Chief of technical support**

Dr. Lazar Stošić, Institute of management and knowledge, External associate coordinator for Serbia, Skopje, Macedonia, President of The Association for the Development of Science, Engineering and Education, Serbia

**Editorial Advisory Board**

Dr Hasan Boynukara, Namık Kemal University as the head of English Language and Literature, Turkey

Dr. Valentina Gulevska, University “St. Kliment Ohridski”, Faculty of Education, Bitola, Macedonia

Dr. Łukasz Tomczyk, Pedagogical University of Cracow, Poland

Dr. Bledar Toska, Department of foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities, University of Vlora, Albania

Dr. Alla Belousova, Don State Technical University, Russian Federation

**International Editorial Board members**

Dr. Abrosimova Larisa, Institute of Philology, Journalism and Intercultural Communication, Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

Dr. Sklyarova Natalia, Institute of Philology, Journalism and Intercultural Communication, Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

Dr. Gushchina Lyudmila, Institute of Philology, Journalism and Intercultural Communication, Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

Dr. Elena Stakanova, Institute of Philology, Journalism and Intercultural Communication, Southern Federal University, Russian Federation

Dr. Reza Kafipour, Department of English, Paramedical School Shiraz University of Medical Sciences Meshkinfam Street, Shiraz, Iran

Dr. Edita Kamberi Spahiu, Lecturer at International Balkan University, Macedonia

Dr. Marwa Essam Eldin Fahmy, College of Foreign Languages & Translation, MISR University for Science & Technology, Egypt

Dr Mohammad Etedali (Finland)

Mr. Troy Blankenship (USA)

Dr. Jaroslav Veteška, Faculty of Education, Czech Rep.

James Pearce PhDc (U.K.)

Carla E Burton M.Ed. (Belize)

Dr. Miroslav Krystoň, Faculty of education, Matej Bel University, Slovakia

Tinatin (Tinna) Goletiani (Georgia)

Acheme Oklobia Odeh, Girne American University, University Drive, Turkey





# Content

---

## **TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TO DEVELOP COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF ESL LEARNERS**

*Harun Rashid, Wang Hui*.....1-7

## **ANTICIPATION, SIMULTANEITY/CONSECUTIVITY AND DISTINCTIVE FEATURES IN PHONOLOGY**

*Renáta Gregová*.....9-17

## **ANALYSE THE ISSUES AND CHALLENGES IN TEACHING WRITING AMONG ENGLISH TEACHERS**

*Harun Rashid, Wang Hui*.....19-24



# TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TO DEVELOP COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE OF ESL LEARNERS

Md. Harun Rashid, Faculty of Modern language and communication, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia,  
Email: [harun.sh96@gmail.com](mailto:harun.sh96@gmail.com)  
Wang Hui, Faculty of Modern languages and communication, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia,  
Email: [vicky0176742521@gmail.com](mailto:vicky0176742521@gmail.com)

**Abstract.** The article discusses issues concerning the development of future English teachers' communicative competence. It considers the idea that developing communicative competence benefits not only the learner's interactive abilities from an educational standpoint, but also the learner's psycho-emotional characteristics and sociocultural development as a person. As previously stated, communicative competence refers to the ability to interact effectively with others, and competence is defined as a collection of language skills an individual possesses in order to learn a foreign language. This potential contributes to his/her ability to perform at a high level. This paper discusses the theory of communicative competence and several of its models; the significance of developing communicative competence in future English teachers; and the implications of communicative competence in English language teaching and learning. Additionally, the work suggests fundamental methodological principles for developing future English teachers' communicative competence.

**Keywords:** *Teaching English, communicative competence, ESL Learners.*

## 1. Introduction

The growth of global connectivity and mobility has resulted in English usage in multilingual and multicultural settings. The concept of communicative ability has evolved into a sought-after capability in the twenty-first century. As the essential aspect of learning a second language, the communicative ability allows the foreign community to collaborate and engage easily with speakers from various languages and cultural contexts (Savignon, 2018). However, one of the fundamental issues that remain is integrating communicative ability into language assessment and instruction. As this occurs, the status of English spoken by native speakers as a predictor of standardized language tests is being questioned by current and emerging English varieties in real-life contexts (Edwards & Fuchs, 2019; Laitinen, 2018; Tickoo, 2020). For example, world-class universities have accepted more international students, and transnational expats have flooded

multinational corporations. Curriculum, instructional methods, classroom setting, and other facets of language learning are also being changed to accommodate multicultural cultures (Derin & Hamuddin, 2019; Mena & Rogers, 2017; Sleeter & Carmona, 2017). According to the findings of a research conducted by Sipahi (2020), the fact that the anxiety is higher while solving the vocabulary test, while the students are given their own special teaching plans, the debilitating anxiety prevents them from performing a strong and high performance. In this context, therefore, teachers and examiners need to take this into consideration more.

It is incongruous if evaluation of language testing and teaching remains rigid or restricted to the linguistic system's scope without considering the capacity to interact effectively in multilingual environments. As a result, the present research seeks to answer how to measure communicative competence and encourage communicative language testing in the emerging framework of second language testing. The essay starts with a historical analysis of communicative ability and its scholarly debates to accomplish this aim. Following that, valuable mechanisms or templates for assessing communicative skills are added. The discussion then moves on to current debates or research in this area and the implications for language teaching and testing. The paper ends by suggesting potential

Corresponding Author

Md. Harun Rashid, Faculty of Modern language and communication, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia,  
Email: [harun.sh96@gmail.com](mailto:harun.sh96@gmail.com)



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY). The article is published with Open Access at [www.alscjournal.com](http://www.alscjournal.com)

studies on communicative ability, language acquisition evaluation, and multicultural learning environments.

## **2. Defining and Describing Intercultural Communicative Competence**

A thorough explanation of the mechanism involved and a specification of the person's requirements promote the appraisal of an individual's capacity to relate and engage through cultural barriers with individuals from other social classes. It benefits not just the assessor but also the instructor and the learner. Both three will benefit from consistency and openness (Council of Europe, 1993) and must agree on the goals and objectives of the teaching, studying, and evaluation systems in which they participate.

It is, therefore, necessary to note that their goals and objectives are shaped in part by the social frameworks in which they operate – national, domestic, and international – and in part by the preoccupations of organizations, which constitute those of the communities in which they serve. In this first part, I will explain and characterize intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in the context of foreign language teaching (FLT). This will include developing a vision of ICC based on current FLT theories and incorporating perspectives from other disciplines to have an ICC paradigm worthy of educating teaching and evaluation discussions by FLT practitioners. Therefore, I would discuss how the model applies to certain particular circumstances to demonstrate the general need to always interpret ICC models following the needs of the circumstances in which learners find themselves.

## **3. The Historical Review of the Concept and Controversies of Communicative Competence**

Hymes (1972) invented the word communicative competence in reaction to his frustration with Chomsky's (1965) term of grammatical competence. Chomsky defines competence as the mutual knowledge formed between the ideal speaker and listener in a homogeneous speech culture. Linguistic or grammatical capacity becomes the only consideration for language success. The ability of learners to produce an understanding of a

language system is used to assess competence. In contrast, Hymes finds grammatical competence and Chomsky's definition of success too limited to represent the whole individual language behavior and therefore cannot indicate actual competence. Later, Hymes (1972) describes communicative skill as "knowledge of the laws for interpreting and producing both the referential and social sense of words." He believes that the social component is as essential as linguistic information and that linguistic competence help learners recognize and develop grammatically correct sentences.

However, communicative skills aid in understanding and producing more relevant, relevant, and necessary sentences in specific contexts. In a related way, Widdowson (1978) claims that "we not only learn how to write and comprehend right sentences as discrete linguistic units of spontaneous incidence but also how to use sentences correctly to accomplish communicative purposes. He considers language learning to include interpreting a collection of grammatical laws and the capacity to express messages or express the language to others.

Furthermore, learning a language requires remembering terms and sounds, talking and composing vocabulary stocks, and using certain expressions appropriately based on specific speech contexts. Widdowson (1973) also argues that providing English training over six or more years would not guarantee learners' capacity to interact, so the concept of 'once competence is learned, success can compensate' is not sufficient. Furthermore, he recommends that communicative skills be acquired alongside linguistic skills; otherwise, learning only linguistic skills can impede communicative abilities. The realities of English as a lingua franca (ELF), globalization, and intercultural exchange, on the other hand, have called these two original concepts into question. Although Chomsky and Hymes' proposals for language competence vary in several respects, the two philosophers should not understand how to ensure meaningful contact in multilingual and multicultural cultures with the resulting language system expertise, abilities, and mindset. Intercultural research of language teaching and learning has adopted and thoroughly developed combining these elements, i.e., linguistic skills, skills, and attitude.

At this stage, Byram (1997) introduced intercultural communicative competence (ICC), which did not contradict Hymes'

concept of communicative competence, but instead extended it by adding the intercultural component of utilizing a foreign language. This addition incorporates aspects of communicative ability with various language understanding and skills, perceptions toward individuals from diverse contexts, and other cultural interactions. Brown's (2009) ethnographic research on contact barriers among local and international students at British universities illustrates the need for intercultural communicative competence. She says that host students play an essential role in assisting international students in communicating in linguistically acceptable English and understanding the critical social aspects that will enable them to adapt to the local student culture.

For example, I was instructed not to.

"Look at a woman in a straightforward way, or you will get slapped. When I said, 'oh why?' he said, 'because you're not expected to, you don't do that.' He was English, talking about English women, you see. I didn't know that before!" (Brown, 2009)

It also demonstrates the significance of including cultural sensitivity, understanding diverse communities, and mediating between them in language teaching and evaluation. More specifically, the inadequate purely native speaker model was replaced with a new intercultural voice concept.

Young and Sachdev (2011) found that both students and teachers tended to adapt and apply Intercultural Communicative Competence in their classrooms. Byram's ICC has incorporated multi-voiced linguistic notions of foreign language instruction, and it remains narrowly tied to the binary connection between various nations and cultures. As a result, the ICC structure, which is focused on nationalist cultural groupings, can also be contested in terms of global contact. Kramsch (2006) also believes that communicative maturity is insufficient in the current communication conditions in the modern age. Language learners are increasingly likely to communicate with only a native speaker from a single recognizable national community. It also includes speakers who grow up in a multilingual, cultural, and linguistic setting. As a result, she proposes symbolic competence as a broader and more reflexive viewpoint of communicative competence, as well as intercultural communicative competence (Baker, 2016). She goes on to describe symbolic competence as "the capacity to read and understand spoken and written discourse,

recognize the symbolic meaning of terms and metaphors, comprehend their social and historical importance, equate them with metaphors of one's language, and reframe one's perception of events" (2010).

Kramsch does not dismiss communicative competence since symbolic competencies enhance the sophisticated capacity to understand and negotiate the significance that language learners need in conversation in the universal sense. Kramsch and Whiteside (2008) clarify in their analysis that symbolic competence is not merely an aspect of communicative competence or another language learners must acquire. It is described as the capacity to control others' mindset, ideology, identity, and status about what is expected in the speech case. In other terms, symbolic competence is the most recent and current means of comprehending communicative and intercultural competence in multilingual settings.

#### **4. The Frameworks of Communicative Competence**

According to Bagari and Djigunovi (2007), three models have emerged as the foundations of methodological and theoretical studies on communicative competence. The first is the Canale and Swain system (1980). In the same vein as Hymes (1972), their first paradigm combines three critical components of language and abilities: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence, which Canale (1984) later switches several sociolinguistic elements into discourse competence. Grammatical knowledge, according to them, allows the learner to comprehend and apply linguistic information to articulate the literal interpretation of utterances.

Semantics, phonetics, syntactic, morphological, and vocabulary skills are all included in this component. Canale and Swain have Hymes' definition of language usage appropriateness in several social settings when assessing sociolinguistic competence. Furthermore, this skill assesses learners' understanding of language usage in specific sociolinguistic or sociocultural contexts. Canale (1983) identifies strategic maturity as an aspect that can improve communication efficiency through understanding verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that can mitigate communication breakdown. Repetition, paraphrasing, reluctance, message



alteration, and so on are all examples. Finally, discourse competence is the capacity to interact utilizing coherent and cohesive language output that results in substantive spoken and written texts. It can be analyzed by looking at how learners use readable devices like pronouns, conjunctions, parallel structure, and a logical association between groups of sentences.

Bachman and Palmer (1996) suggest two broad fields that contain language capacity, namely language knowledge and strategic skill, in a more detailed, systematic, and specific context than the previous model. Organizational and pragmatic skills are the two critical components of language knowledge that supplement each other for efficient language usage. Administrative experience, which consists of grammatical knowledge and textual knowledge, is the one that controls the usage of structured language in this model. Grammatical knowledge is the awareness of vocabulary, grammar, phonology, morphology, and other concepts that measure language learners' ability to comprehend and produce grammatically correct sentences. Textual knowledge, on the other hand, is the ability to generate coherent spoken or written text.

It addresses learners' ability to choose acceptable cohesion devices such as conjunctions, paraphrases, organizing sentences, and so on and their ability to discuss the subject with a suitable form of text such as narration texts, interpretation, argumentation, etc., causation, and so on. In the case of pragmatic understanding, it encompasses two fields of competence: the ability to communicate and translate specific language functions and recognize and establish explicit linguistic norms appropriate in a given setting. The third paradigm is the communicative language competence model outlined in the CEF, or Common European Framework (2001), intended to aim for both language testing and language teaching and learning.

Language competence, sociolinguistic competence, and pragmatic competence are these paradigm's three essential communicative competence elements. Language competence, which requires grammatical competence, allows language learners to understand language material, such as lexical, textual, phonological, and grammatical competence, to produce formal utterances. Sociolinguistic competence will enable learners to articulate practical language

usage in a given social setting, while pragmatic competence highlights two abilities: rhetoric competence and useful competence.

## **5. Current Debates in Assessing Communicative Competence**

The preceding segment examines the historical evolution of communicative competence in second language teaching, learning, and testing through reflecting and elaborating on prominent communicative competence viewpoints and their context that could be used to devise a method to measure learners' communicative competence. The latest debates on communicative ability would focus on two main topics. The first step is to measure communicative proficiency in the classroom. Second, what is the issue with measuring communicative ability in high stakes or formal language tests? Two significant challenges arise in language assessment when it comes to communicative proficiency in the classroom. The first is the conflict between language curriculum goals and communicative maturity requirements (Derin, Nursafira, Yudar, Gowasa, & Hamuddin, 2020). From high school to doctoral programs at universities, most educational establishments place a premium on writing abilities. The majority of school and university tasks do not use oral competence as an appraisal indicator. There is a growing disparity between oral and written assignments. As a consequence, there is no adequate structure or paradigm for evaluating communicative competence.

In this regard, Oliver, Haig, and Rochecouste (2005) study the teaching and evaluation of oral tasks in a Western Australian secondary school. They explain that teachers had difficulties judging students' verbal functions due to the curriculum's emphasis on written ability. Teachers agree that they lack the expertise and guidance needed to evaluate communicative skills, even though both teachers and students believe that communicative maturity is required. Furthermore, Canagarajah (2006) considers that there is a need to shift pedagogical preferences away from the emphasis on discrete-item tests on structured grammatical competence and toward implementing instruments capable of assessing performance and pragmatics.

Also, he stresses that "the new appraisal will concentrate on negotiation techniques, positioned results, communicative repertoire,

and language awareness” (p. 229). However, the principle is not the only aspect that needs to be improved. According to Savignon (2018), the rectification of school practice should be promoted as well. Teachers must work with community resources to facilitate both pre-service and in-service teachers in strengthening their abilities to educate integrated communicatively. Harding (2014) asserts that there is an immediate need to change the nature of language research from narrow textual standards to test constructs that are adequate to represent existing communicative requirements in the field of formal language testing. Elder, McNamara, Kim, Pill, and Sato (2017) report three research that examines language evaluation for English in the basic intent sense in a more recent review. Their results present almost the same question about whether language can and can be measured critically and independently from meaning, as they discovered in studies where most non-linguistic expertise placed less focus on test-takers’ precision and more emphasis on participants’ communicative skill in transferring the message.

Similarly, Morrow (2018) contends that communicative language research aims improve language test validity. A test of this kind can use authentic resources and practices focused on test-takers’ real-world language usage to assess different forms of appropriateness for social, cultural, and pragmatic norms. Even though the construct of communicative language testing differs significantly from the well-established psychometric testing models, a shift toward communicative language testing must be encouraged.

## 6. Implications for Language Teaching and Testing

Observing advancements in language training against communicative competence, the current study contends that second language education can focus on communicative language testing rather than simply assessing linguistic competence. To meet the validity criteria, the second language exam should also emphasize sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence. It includes a test that incorporates various English varieties due to the type of communication required in the twenty-first century. It is consistent with Harding’s (2014) suggestion of “adaptability” in the construct of communicative language research.

He goes on to say that adaptability is a general indicator of “test takers’ need to cope with various varieties of English, to use and recognize relevant pragmatics, to cope with the complex communication habits in digital contexts, and to note and adapt to the formulaic linguistic trends correlated with different realms of language use” (p.194).

## 7. Conclusion

This study suggests three consequences for language testing based on the theoretical analysis and existing controversies in measuring communicative ability and communicative language testing. First, English has recently been taught and utilized by millions of people worldwide in various contexts, including higher education. Students of higher education will hear a variety of English dialects. High-stakes or graded language tests should recommend testing test takers’ willingness to deal with various English dialects. The test should also include such communicative abilities, such as the ability to express and react to pragmatic language use, the ability to tolerate potentially unfamiliar language varieties, the ability to negotiate to mean and avoid communication breakdown, the ability to communicate with interlocutors from different language background and culture, and the ability to use appropriate language.

Second, communicative language testing and evaluation may provide several communicative research instruments. Language usage, for example, maybe measured using a carefully constructed and immersive role-play. The test interviewer will be able to measure the test takers’ usage of proper language form as well as effective use of language pragmatics in this manner. A role-play game with various positions and social statuses may be used to test language learners’ sociolinguistic competence. It investigates the utility of Bachman and Palmer’s image answer test as another sample operation. To rely on pragmatic conduct, he employs this approach rather than composing a written verbal audio-lingual prompt.

Third, utilizing blogging, social networks, wikis, and other interactive spoken or written correspondence forms, language classroom evaluation may combine novel tasks with

technology-enhanced language teaching and testing. Teachers could use collective writing and note-taking, multimodal understanding, video conferences, and other tasks to assess language success. It is demonstrated that using a media literacy technique, such as exposing students to authentic online news stories, will improve their oral communicative competence. This teaching method and evaluating language would represent the real-world context of language usage and modern literacies, as mobile devices increasingly achieve communication.

### Conflict of interests

The author declares no conflict of interest.

## 8. References

- Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language Testing in Practice: Designing and Developing Useful Language Tests*. Oxford etc.: OUP.
- Baker, W. (2016). Culture and language in intercultural communication, English as a lingua franca and English language teaching: Points of convergence and conflict.
- Brown, L. (2009). A failure of communication on the cross-cultural campus. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 13(4), 439-454.
- Byram, M. (1997). Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Canagarajah, S. (2006) Changing Communicative Needs, Revised Assessment Objectives: Testing English as an International Language, *Language Assessment Quarterly: An International Journal*, 3(3), 229-242
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. W. (Eds.), *Language and Communication*, 2-27. London: Longman.
- Canale, M. (1984). A communicative approach to language proficiency assessment in a minority setting. In Rivera, C. (Ed.), *Communicative competence approaches to language proficiency assessment: Research and application*, 107-122. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied linguistics*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Cevik, Y., & Spahiu, I. (2013). An Overview of Culture to teach EFL through Using Folk Literature: A Sample Case of Nasreddin Hodja. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(23), 29-32. <https://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEP/article/view/8378/8686>
- Council of Europe. Council for Cultural Co-operation. Education Committee. Modern Languages Division. (2001). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge University Press.
- Derin, T., & Hamuddin, B. (2019). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, and Enjoyment during Study Abroad: A Review of Selected Paper. *Lisan: Jurnal Bahasa dan Linguistik*, 8(2), 76-82.
- Derin, T., Nursafira, M. S., Yudar, R. S., Gowasa, N. S., & Hamuddin, B. (2020). Persuasive Communication: What Do Existing Literature Tell Us About Persuasive Communication Among Students? *Betamax: Journal of Ultimate Research and Trends in Education*, 2(1), 12-18.
- Edwards, A., & Fuchs, R. (2019). Varieties of English in the Netherlands and Germany. *English in the German-speaking World*, 267.
- Elder, C., McNamara, T., Kim, H., Pill, J., & Sato, T. (2017). Interrogating the construct of communicative competence in language assessment contexts: What the non-language specialist can tell us. *Language & Communication*, 57, 14-21.
- Harding, L. (2014). Communicative language testing: Current issues and future research. *Language assessment quarterly*, 11(2), 186-197.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. *Sociolinguistics*, 269-293.
- Kramsch, C. (2006). From communicative competence to symbolic competence. *The modern language journal*, 90(2), 249-252.
- Kramsch, C. (2010). Theorizing translingual/transcultural competence. In G. Levine & A. Phipps (Eds.), *Critical and intercultural theory and language pedagogy* (pp. 15-31). Boston, MA: Heinle.
- Kung, F. W. (2016). Facilitating learners' second language communicative competence through the development of media literacy: A conversation analytic approach. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 25(2), 337-346.
- Laitinen, M. (2018). Placing ELF among the varieties of English. *Modeling World Englishes: Assessing the Interplay of Emancipation and Globalization of ESL Varieties*. Amsterdam: Benjamins, 109-131.
- Mena, J. A., & Rogers, M. R. (2017). Factors associated with multicultural teaching competence: Social justice orientation and multicultural environment. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology*, 11(2), 61.
- Mena, J. A., & Rogers, M. R. (2017). Factors associated with multicultural teaching competence: Social justice orientation and multicultural environment. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology*, 11(2), 61.
- Morrow, C. K. (2018). Communicative language testing. *The TESOL Encyclopaedia of English Language Teaching*, 1-7. [doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.celt0383](https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118784235.celt0383).
- Oliver, R., Haig, Y., & Rochecoste. (2005). *Tackling talk: teaching and assessing oral language*. Edith Cowan University: Perth, Australia. Retrieved from: <https://ro.ecu.edu.au/ecuworks/7126>.
- Spahiu, I. (2013). Using Native Language in ESL Classroom. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, 1(2), 243.
- Savignon, S. J. (2018). Communicative competence. *The TESOL encyclopedia of English language teaching*, 1-7.
- Spahiu, I., & Spahiu, E. K. (2018). The Role of Social Interaction in Language Acquisition. *Knowledge International Journal*, 23(5), 1399-1401. <https://ikm.mk/ojs/index.php/KIJ/article/view/1684>
- Tickoo, A. (2020). An emergent English-mediated identity and a Chinese variety of WE. *Pragmatics and Society*, 11(1), 70-95.



- Widdowson H.G. (1973) "Directions in the Teaching of Discourse," in Corder S. P. & E. Roulet (eds.) *Theoretical Linguistic Models in Applied Linguistics*, Brussels: AIMA.
- Widdowson, H.G. (1978). *Teaching Language as Communication*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Yamashita, S. (2001). Using pictures for research in pragmatics: Eliciting pragmatic strategies by picture response tests. *A Focus on Language Test Development* (pp. 35). Honolulu: the University of Hawai 'i at Manoa, National Foreign Language Resource Center.
- Young, T. J., & Sachdev, I. (2011). Intercultural communicative competence: Exploring English language teachers' beliefs and practices. *Language awareness*, 20(2), 81-98.
- Sipahi E. Test Anxiety: A Case of ESL Vocabulary Testing Using Multiple-Choice Items and Error Identification Tests. *kurmanj*. 2020; 2 (4) :1-6  
URL: <http://kurmanj.srpub.org/article-2-75-en.html>



# ANTICIPATION, SIMULTANEITY/CONSECUTIVITY AND DISTINCTIVE FEATURES IN PHONOLOGY

Renáta Gregová, Department of British and American Studies, Faculty of Arts, P. J. Šafárik University, Košice, Slovakia, Email: [renata.gregova@upjs.sk](mailto:renata.gregova@upjs.sk)

**Abstract.** The notion of distinctive features has had a firm position in phonology since the time of the Prague Linguistic Circle and especially that of one of its representatives, Roman Jakobson, whose well-known delimitation of a phoneme as “a bundle of distinctive features” (Jakobson, 1962, p. 421), that is, a set of simultaneous distinctive features, has inspired many scholars. Jakobson’s attempt “to analyse the distribution of distinctive features along two axes: that of simultaneity and that of successiveness” (ibid., p. 435) helped cover several phonetic and/or phonological processes and phenomena. Distinctive features, although theoretical constructs (Giegerich, 1992, p. 89), reflect phonetic, that is, articulatory and acoustic, properties of sounds. In the flow of speech, some features tend to influence the neighbouring phonemes. Sometimes speech organs produce something that the brain just ‘plans’ to produce (anticipatory speech errors). There are situations where it seems as if the successive organization of phonemes went hand in hand with the simultaneous nature of certain articulatory characteristics of those phonemes (the transgression of consonants and inherence of vowels in Romportl’s theory), or the given feature seems to be anticipated by the preceding segment. This is the case with nasalization and/or anticipatory coarticulation, as well as regressive (anticipatory) assimilation. In addition, simultaneity/consecutivity is a decisive criterion for the difference between the so-called complex segments, as specified in Feature Geometry, and simple segments (Duanmu, 2009). Moreover, the phonological opposition of simultaneity- successivity (that is, consecutivity) itself functions as a feature making a difference between segmental and suprasegmental elements in the sound system of a language, as was first mentioned by Harris (1944), later indicated by Jakobson (1962) and then fully developed by Sabol (2007, 2012).

**Keywords:** *distinctive features, simultaneity, consecutivity, anticipation.*

## 1. Introduction

Anticipation is one of the crucial components of cognition (Swarup & Gasser, 2007, p. 42). There is a correlation between anticipation and language: the complexity of a communication system of a population depends on the refinement of the population’s anticipatory behaviour (ibid., p. 43). Language utterances are primarily organized in a sequence (consecutive organization of phonemes, morphemes, words), but many linguistic phenomena are realized simultaneously, that is, at the same time (Kremers, 2012). The concepts of anticipation, sequence and simultaneity have been studied from various perspectives by various authors (for details, see e.g. Natsopoulos & Abadzi, 1986). The aim

of this article is to show how anticipation, consecutivity and simultaneity penetrate the fields of phonetics and phonology. Attention will be paid to those issues that are – in one way or another – connected with distinctive features of phonemes, the essential notion in phonology. Distinctive features are theoretical constructs (Giegerich, 1992), but they reflect phonetic, that is, articulatory and acoustic, properties of sounds.

I will start my survey with anticipatory speech errors and slips of the tongue. This issue is quite specific, being, at first sight, a question of psychology rather than of linguistics, but is one with an impact on communication: it is a phenomenon that violates communication. Then, attention will be paid to the transgression of consonants and the inherence of vowels, a phonological opposition that is very important in an acoustic analysis based on the segmentation of the flow of speech. Third, the problem of nasalization as anticipatory coarticulation and anticipatory coarticulation itself will be specified. After this, anticipatory assimilation, an important sound phenomenon in many languages, will be explained, using examples from Slovak. Then, I will concentrate on the difference

Corresponding Author

Renáta Gregová, Department of British and American Studies, Faculty of Arts, P. J. Šafárik University, Košice, Slovakia, Email: [renata.gregova@upjs.sk](mailto:renata.gregova@upjs.sk)



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY). The article is published with Open Access at [www.alscjournal.com](http://www.alscjournal.com)

between the contour segment, the complex segment, and the simple segment, as specified in Articulatory Phonology and Feature Geometry. Finally, the difference between segments – i.e. vowels and consonants on the one hand and suprasegments, that is, prosodic features on the other – will be explained from the viewpoint of the opposition of simultaneity-consecutivity.

## 2. Anticipatory speech errors

As indicated above, speech errors and slips of the tongue are studied in psychology but also in linguistics. They are connected with the mechanism of speech production, and scientists divide them into several categories (see e.g. Hill, 1973 for further details). One of them is simply called anticipation. A speaker can anticipate a phoneme, the onset of the syllable, or the whole syllable. However, Fromkin (1973) provides examples showing that sometimes it is only a distinctive feature of a phoneme – as a minimal constituent of this sound unit – that is anticipated:

(1) Dick Carter is a musician. ➡ Nick Carter is a musician.

(2) sit all day ➡ zit all day

(3) a nasal infix ➡ a navel infix (Fromkin, 1973, p. 17).

Speech errors of this kind are usually classified as phonemic errors because it seems that a person produces a sound that should be pronounced later in a sentence (or a phrase). But looking at the examples above in detail, it is clear that it is not the whole phoneme that is anticipated, but its distinctive feature: the only difference between /d/ and /n/ is that of nasality<sup>1</sup>, /s/ and /z/ differ by voicing<sup>2</sup>, and /z/ and /v/ have different places of articulation<sup>3</sup>. Example (1) illustrates nasality anticipation, in example (2), there is so-called voicing anticipation, and example (3) is a case of labiality anticipation (ibid.).

Both speakers and listeners perceive speech errors (including anticipation) as

<sup>1</sup> The English /d/ is alveolar, stop/plosive, oral and voiced, while /n/ is alveolar, stop/plosive, nasal and voiced.

<sup>2</sup> In English, /s/ is alveolar, spirant/fricative, oral and voiceless, and /z/ is characterized by being alveolar, spirant/fricative, oral and voiced.

<sup>3</sup> /z/ is characterized by being alveolar, spirant/fricative, oral and voiced, and /v/ is labio-dental, spirant/fricative, oral and voiced.

something negative, but linguists, as well as psychologists, agree on their usefulness for the analysis of the whole process of the production of speech. It is proven that speech errors are not made by chance, and thus they provide interesting material for the analysis of what is behind the speech, what happens between the brain and the articulators. They reveal much about mental processes during human speech: “Contemporary investigations of the psychological processes underlying language production have their roots in the investigation of spontaneous speech errors [...]” (McClain & Goldrick, 2018, p. 47). Moreover, examples like those in (1) – (3) demonstrate that “features do play a role in [...] phonology” and are “[...] real elements in performance” (Fromkin, 1973, p. 17–18). Both citations support the relevance of distinctive features, contrary to some theories that cast doubts on their validity in phonology (for example, consider Absolute Slicing Hypothesis for a different approach to the notion of distinctive features in phonology).

## 3. Transgression of consonants and the inherence of vowels

The phonological opposition of transgression-inherence was introduced by the Czech linguist Milan Romportl (1973), who named consonants as ‘transgressive’ because certain features of their acoustic spectrum overlap into the sound spectrum of the neighbouring sound, which is then necessary for the correct identification of the given consonant. Vowels are ‘inherent’ because all important acoustic features are realized within their own sound spectrum (Romportl, 1962, p. 284; see also Gregová, 2016, p. 111–112). What does this mean in practice? In the process of the segmentation of continuous speech, the border between the neighbouring sounds is not always clear-cut, because the fundamental acoustic features of a consonant infiltrate the acoustic spectrum of the following vowel. As is well-known, acoustic features depend on articulation. Thus, in other words, the final phase of the realization of a consonant ‘happens’ simultaneously with the initial phase of the articulation of the following vowel, as illustrated in Figure 1. There are three articulatory phases of a consonant (C): on-glide, intension (the preparatory, initial phase); retention, tension (medial stage, the peak phase); and off-glide, detension (final phase). The following vowel (V) has three

stages of articulation, too. In the case of the transgression of consonants, the off-glide of the consonant is realized simultaneously with the on-glide of the following vowel (indicated by the circle).

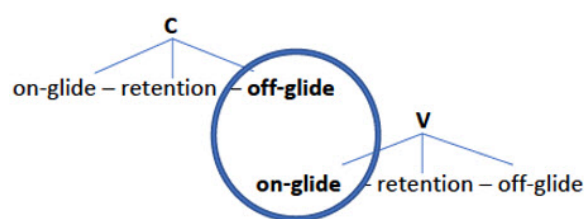


Figure 1. The 'transgression-inherence' opposition in terms of articulation

This phenomenon was first observed when parsing sonorant + vowel combinations, for example, *j + i*. As a consequence, the 'transgressive' feature is phonologically relevant for sonorants (*r, l, m, n, j, v*).

The whole issue can be visualized by the oscillogram and the spectrogram of the Slovak word *krajiny*, meaning 'countries'.

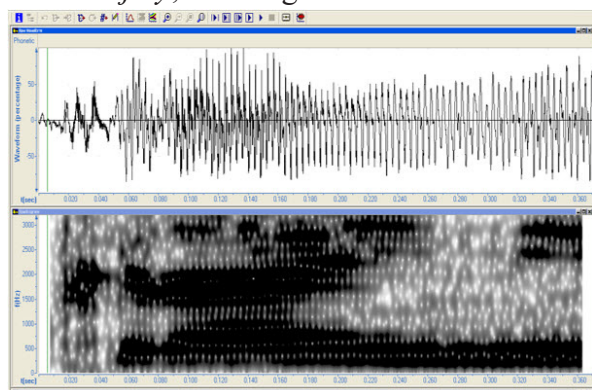


Figure 2. The oscillogram and the spectrogram of the word *krajiny* ('countries') (Gregová, 2016, p. 113)

The basic categories of sounds – vowels and consonants – are characterized by a given shape of an oscillographic curve and a spectrogram. The differences in the acoustic structure (depending on the differences in the production of sounds) have their reflection in the sound wave, as well as in the structure of the spectrogram, and serve as a tool for the segmentation of the flow of speech into smaller units. However, when the acoustic structures of the neighbouring sounds are interconnected (when the articulatory phases overlap, see Fig. 1), it also has an effect on the form of an oscillogram and spectrogram. In such cases, the boundaries between the sounds are difficult, or even impossible, to delimit. In Figure 2, the

differences between the initial sounds *k – r – a* are quite clear; however, the boundaries between *j* and *i*, as well as between *n* and *i*, are blurred. Here, the successive organization of sounds is accompanied by the simultaneous realization of certain acoustic characteristics of those sounds. These 'tight bonds' between neighbouring sounds have their reflection in the structure of the syllable. If speech sounds are acoustically interconnected, together they form the onset or the coda of the same syllable (see also Vachek, 1989, p. 37). This information is very useful in syllable theory (for further details, see Gregová, 2016).

Nevertheless, the transition of a certain acoustic feature, that is, an articulatory feature, of one sound to another sometimes results in the modification of the articulatory phase, and we can thus speak of coarticulation.

#### 4. Nasalization as/and anticipatory coarticulation

Coarticulation is a well-known phenomenon in many languages. There are assorted definitions of this phenomenon, one of which is that it is a type of articulation during which there is a reciprocal influence of the articulatory (motoric) movements of sounds (Dvončová, 1980, p. 76).

The thorough cross-language research of articulatory control in speech production reveals the existence of several types of coarticulation – lingual, laryngeal, labial and velar (Hardcastle & Hewlett, 1999). The one which can be considered the most universal is velar coarticulation or, in other words, nasalization, or nasal coarticulation. This is because, as Peter Roach says, in all languages one can observe "some degree of coarticulatory nasalisation of vowels adjacent to nasal consonants" (Roach n.d.). The phenomenon of coarticulation has its roots in the way the human brain controls the production of speech. When we speak, many muscles are active at the same time, and sometimes the brain wants them to make sudden changes that they are not capable of. For example, in the English word 'none [nʌn]', the vowel is normally an oral sound (the soft palate is raised, thus preventing the air from escaping through the nose). During the articulation of the two 'n' sounds, the soft palate must be lowered because /[n]/ is a nasal sound in English. However, the velum (soft palate) cannot be lowered and then raised and lowered again as quickly as required for the given combination of sounds, so the



vowel is pronounced with the soft palate still slightly lowered, giving a nasalized quality to this vowel (Gregová, 2016, p. 116). The nasalization is a coarticulation effect caused by the nasal consonant environment (Roach n.d.).

Having established that nasal sounds are coarticulated with adjacent segments, a question arises “as to the direction in which nasality produces its greatest effects. In other words, which type of velopharyngeal coarticulation” – anticipatory (that is, ‘right-to-left’ or ‘backward’) or carryover (that is, ‘perseverative’, ‘left-to-right’ or ‘forward’ when an earlier segment influences a later one) – prevails in the spreading of nasality to neighbouring units (Chafcouloff & Marchal, 1999, p. 73)?

Various authors (see Hardcastle & Hewlett, 1999 for further details) provide physiological, acoustic and perceptual evidence to support the existence of both anticipatory as well as carryover velopharyngeal coarticulation (nasalization) in languages. For example, early velum lowering, that is, anticipatory nasalization, has been observed in American English and Brazilian Portuguese, whereas lowering was initiated later in French, Chinese and Swedish, evidencing carryover nasalization. However, sometimes there are contradictory results of the evaluations of the data from one and the same language; for example, Clumeck speaks of anticipatory nasalisation in Hindi, but Ohala reports carryover nasalization in this language (Chafcouloff & Marchal, 1999, p. 79). So, what does it depend on? The nasal coarticulatory pattern may depend on the number of vowels in a language, on whether the sounds are nasal or nasalized, or on whether nasality has a distinctive function in a given language (as, for example, in French or Portuguese) or not (ibid.).

There are several coarticulation models (for details, see Farnetani & Recasents, 1999); however, considering that distinctive features are a ‘guiding thread’ of this paper, in featural phonology, the existence of coarticulation is explained by the theory of feature spreading (ibid., p. 41), wherein “[...] coarticulation cannot be the product of inertia, as some authors mention, but rather a deliberate spread of features” (Daniloff & Hammarberg, 1973, p. 41).

For example, in Italian, the nasality–non-nasality feature in the consonantal oppositions /n/–/d/ and /m/–/b/ is affected by the presence or absence of the same feature

in the following vowel. The nasality feature does not have the same perceptual weight for vowels and consonants, and appears to be more important for the former speech sounds than the latter (Maturi, 1991), at least in Italian. But, a certain degree of an anticipatory effect of nasality can be observed in English and Slovak, for example (Hučka, 2012). However, it has no phonological value. There are neither nasal nor nasalized consonants in standard English or Slovak.

Thus, nasalization is a phenomenon that occurs in many languages. However, its directionality, extent and phonological value vary from language to language, and the whole issue is still open for further research. What all authors agree on is that nasalization is a consequence of velopharyngeal coarticulation.

In standard generative phonology, coarticulation is defined as “the transitions between a vowel and an adjacent consonant, the adjustments in the vocal tract shape made in anticipation of a subsequent motion, etc.” (Chomsky & Halle, 1968, p. 295).

Coarticulatory variations originate from the physical properties of speech and are determined by universal rules. Also, the huge amount of research carried out in this field from the 1960s up until today show that the distinctive ‘nasal’ feature, with its either anticipatory or perseverative nature, behaves differently across languages (see above). Thus, there are cross-language similarities as well as cross-language differences in coarticulation.

For generative phonology, the language-specific/language-universal difference helps to delimit the difference between coarticulation and the other important sound change – assimilation, since assimilations in standard generative phonology involve operations on phonological features (the minimal classificatory constituents of a phoneme) and are accounted for by phonological rules. They are controlled by the speaker and perceived by the listener, and are language-specific (ibid.).

## **5. Anticipatory assimilation: evidence from Slovak**

Generally speaking, assimilation is a process in which two dissimilar sounds become more similar when they are close to each other. It is an accommodation of a sound to its environment. Depending on the direction of the influence, it can be progressive or regressive; here, I will concentrate on the latter, also known as anticipatory assimilation.

Assimilation sound changes affect distinctive features, and in phonology, they are known as neutralizations. Neutralization is a phonological phenomenon. It is the change of one phoneme into another, and is caused by the sound environment (Král' & Sabol, 1989, p. 319). The anticipatory assimilation (regressive neutralization) of voicing is a typical feature of many Slavic languages. The whole issue of this sound phenomenon will now be illustrated by data from the Slovak language, which belongs to the west Slavic language family. In Slovak, the neutralization of the phonological opposition voiced-voiceless takes place on the word boundaries, at the boundary between the prefix and the word base, the word base and the suffix, and at the boundary between word bases (Král', 2005, p. 54). The general rule<sup>4</sup> is that when a voiceless obstruent meets any voiced sound (i.e. a voiced obstruent, a sonorant or a vowel), the voiceless obstruent assimilates into its voiced counterpart (ibid.). For example,

(4) graphic form: **pes leží** 'a dog lies' →  
sound form: [pez leží] 'a dog lies'.

When a voiced obstruent meets a voiceless counterpart, the result is two voiceless obstruents (ibid.), as illustrated below:

(5) graphic form: **dub stojí** 'an oak stands' → sound form: [dup stojí] 'an oak stands'

There are three other anticipatory (regressive) assimilations in Slovak. The neutralization of the consonantal phonological opposition diffuse-non-diffuse<sup>5</sup> affects the pairs *t – t'*, *d – d'*, *n – ň* and *l – l'*. The diffuse sounds *d*, *t*, *n* and *l* are pronounced as the non-diffuse sounds *d'*, *t'*, *ň* and *l'*, respectively, when followed by *e*, *i*, *ia*, *ie* or *iu* (Sabol, 1989, p. 159).

For example, consider the graphic and the sound forms of the Slovak words *nedel'a* and *deti*:

(6) graphic form: **nedel'a** 'Sunday' →  
sound form: [ňed'e'l'a]

(7) graphic form: → **deti** 'children'  
sound form: [d'e't'i]

The neutralization of the consonantal phonological opposition sibilant-non-sibilant<sup>6</sup> has a regressive nature, too. The basic rule is that when a non-sibilant sound gets into contact with a sibilant consonant (e.g. *t + s*), the result is a simple or a geminate sibilant consonant (ibid., p. 161), for instance:

(8) graphic form: **otca** 'of father' →  
sound form: [o>ca]

(9) graphic form: **ľudský** 'human' →  
sound form: [l'uckí]

The anticipatory assimilation of the opposition acute-non-acute<sup>7</sup> is connected with the pairs *m–n* and *m–ň*. The phonemes *n* and *ň* with the acute feature are pronounced as a non-acute *m* when followed by the non-acute *b*, that is, the distinctive acute feature is neutralized (ibid., p. 165):

(10) graphic form: **hanba** 'shame' →  
sound form: [hamba]

(11) graphic form: **bonbón** 'sugar' →  
sound form: [bombón]

All those anticipatory changes (illustrated by examples (4)-(11)) are very important; their violation is perceived as an orthoepy mistake, that is, an incorrect pronunciation, and they may violate communication. Neutralizations, especially the neutralization of the voicing feature, are part of the phonological system of the Slovak language and belong to the phenomena interfering with the sound system of the foreign language when studying a second language, for example, English.

<sup>4</sup> There are four exceptions to this general principle of the anticipatory assimilation of voicing in Slovak, but these will not be specified here since they are beyond the scope of this paper (see e.g. Sabol, 1989 or Král', 2005 for further details).

<sup>5</sup> Diffuse sounds are those that are articulated in the front part of the oral cavity (bilabial, labio-dental and pre-alveolar places of articulation); all the other consonantal sounds are labelled as non-diffuse (Sabol, 1989, p. 158–159).

<sup>6</sup> The sibilant feature is phonologically relevant for the sibilants *s*, *z*, *š*, *ž*, *c*, *dz*, *č* and *dž*, and the non-sibilant feature is delimited for the consonants *t*, *d*, *t'* and *d'* (Sabol, 1989, p. 161).

<sup>7</sup> The sounds produced in the middle of the oral cavity (alveolar and palatal sounds) are labelled as acute, and those sounds that are articulated at the edges of the oral cavity are called non-acute (Sabol, 1989, p. 164).

## 6. Simple segments, contour segments, and complex segments

The simultaneity - consecutivity interaction not only helps to identify various sound processes and phenomena, as has been illustrated so far, but may also explain the difference between types of segments depending on their articulation.

As is well-known, Jakobson (1962) and the representatives of so-called linear phonology, following Jakobson's tradition, see a phoneme as a bundle of simultaneously organized distinctive features. For example, the phoneme /b/ is a combination of consonantal, anterior, oral and voiced features (cf. e.g. Giegerich, 1992). But Feature Geometry and Nonlinear Phonology in general assume that features are arranged hierarchically in a feature tree (Hall, 2006, p. 313).

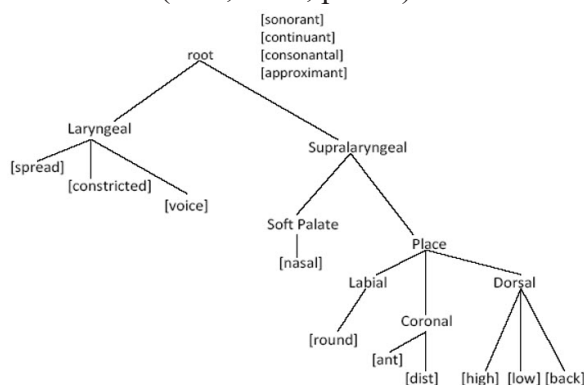


Figure 3. A feature tree (Gregová, 2016, p. 18)

In other words, each segment is presented as a hierarchically-organized node configuration whose terminal nodes represent feature values, and whose intermediate nodes represent constituents, as illustrated by Figure 3. A root node indicates the speech sound itself. The lower-level nodes (in capital letters), the so-called class nodes, represent articulators that may but do not have to be further extended. In square brackets are the individual features of a sound, which are known as terminal features since they do not further expand into other features. There are two categories of terminal features: articulator-bound features – allocated to the appropriate articulator (for example, [high], [nasal]) – and articulator-free features that are not connected with a specific articulator and indicate the degree of stricture (for example, [consonantal], [approximant]). Only relevant class nodes and terminal nodes are used for the description of individual phonemes, depending on the

phonetic properties of the phoneme (see also Gregová, 2016, p. 18–19). For example, a simple segment, /b/, is simply labial, wherein a root dominates one articulator. However, in non-linear phonology, there are also contour segments and complex segments that are both characterized by multiple articulations.

A contour segment – in Sagey's theory (1986) – is a sequence of different features by the same articulator within one timing slot. For example, the English affricate /tʃ/ is a contour segment with a coronal articulator and [+stop] and [+fricative] features. In this case, the multiple articulations means a sequence of articulations. And, as is well-known, the phonetic length of an affricate is that of a single consonant and, functionally, it is a single segment, too. On the other hand, a complex segment is a root node with two or more simultaneous oral tract restrictions (i.e. simultaneous articulations). To be more specific, a complex segment is a segment with multiple articulations that has a phonetic duration of a single segment (Sagey, 1986, p. 79; Newman, 1997, p. 8) and that phonemically occupies only one X-slot, i.e. one timing unit in an autosegmental sense (Scheer, 2012, p. 868), and thus it behaves like a simple sound (Newman, 1997, p. 9).

However, there is no general agreement on which sound sequences can be treated as a complex segment and which should be evaluated only as a consonant cluster. When comparing several sources, one may come to the conclusion that what is a complex segment in, for example, Sagey's classification (1986) can be treated as a consonant cluster in Duanmu's approach (2009) and vice versa.

As already mentioned, the simple and generally accepted definition of a complex segment says that it is a segment with multiple articulations and a single-segment timing.

In Duanmu's theory, the existence of possible and impossible complex sounds depends on the so-called no-contour principle, wherein "an articulator cannot make the same feature twice within one sound" (Duanmu, 2009, p. 26). The principle assumes that all features in a complex segment (sound) are simultaneous (ibid.). What follows from this is that a single complex sound cannot be characterized simultaneously by, for instance, both [+nasal] and [-nasal], or by [+anterior] and [-anterior], because conflicting gestures cannot overlap, must be made in sequence, and require more than one timing slot (Duanmu, 2010, p. 16). For example, [bm] cannot form a complex sound, because [b] is characterized



by labial, soft palate [-nasal] and [m] is labial, soft palate [+nasal]. On the other hand, [fr] is a possible complex sound (Duanmu, 2010, p. 17), although [f] is [+fricative] and [r] is [-fricative]. But there are two articulators, and that is why there are no conflicting gestures: the articulator for [f] is labial and that for [r] is coronal (see Duanmu, 2009, 2010 for further details).

Here the opposition of simultaneity-consecutivity plays a very important role, since simultaneous articulation, typical of many Niger-Congo and Tsimshianic languages, leads to complex segments (multiple articulation but single timing), for example, *tk* or *dg*, but the consecutive articulation of individual simple sounds in other languages (for example, most Indo-European languages) says that these are sequences of two stops (cf. e.g. Sagey, 1989; Ladefoged & Maddieson, 1996). Simply put, if, for example, [p] and [t] are pronounced nearly simultaneously, the result is the labio-coronal complex sound /pt/. However, if the pronunciation is not simultaneous, but in a sequence (Hall, 2003, p. 331), we are speaking of two separate sounds.

The difference between a complex sound and a sequence of consonants has an impact on the structure of the syllable in a language: if, for example, the above-mentioned combination of the sounds [p] and [t] is a complex segment, it occupies one slot in the syllable structure, and when [pt] is a consonant cluster, the syllable boundary can be placed between these two sounds (cf. Gregová, 2016).

## 7. Segment vs. suprasegment

The phonological opposition of successivity-simultaneity is one of the oppositions characterizing the difference between the segmental and suprasegmental subsystems of a language.

The suggestion that phonemes (or utterances in general) can be broken down into simultaneously occurring components was first mentioned by Harris as early as 1944, and was later indicated by Jakobson in his delimitation of distinctive features: "The whole pattern is based on eight dichotomous properties; among them six inherent (or qualitative) features concerning the axis of simultaneity only (vocality, nasality, saturation, gravity, continuousness, and voicing), and two prosodic features involving also the axis of successiveness (length, and hightone)" (1962, p. 21).

The whole idea was fully developed by Sabol (2012), who says that segments are created successively, linearly, and syntagmatically. In continuous speech, each segment (sound, phone) is realized within its own time. We can speak of a sequence, of continuity. Suprasegments are created at the same time, concurrently, simultaneously. We can speak of simultaneity, concurrence (Sabol, 2012, p. 59). An element interconnecting both segments and suprasegments is the syllable. This unit is created by segments, and it is the bearer of all prosodic features.

In Sabol's theory, the opposition 'successivity-simultaneity' is one of the four oppositions characterizing the co-operation and the countermovement of segments and suprasegments. The second opposition is 'articulation-modulation': segments are the result of the direct work of speech organs (articulations), whereas suprasegments are given by the modulation of the articulatory air stream. These two oppositions, 'successivity-simultaneity' and 'articulation-modulation', are given by the way in which segments and suprasegments are realized (*ibid.*, p. 59–69).

The third opposition, 'phonotactic difference-phonotactic affinity', and the fourth one, 'phonological/distinctive function-stylistic function', are given by the functions of segments and suprasegments. 'Phonotactic difference-phonotactic affinity' means that a tendency towards phonotactic difference accompanies segments, and it is given by the basic opposition of CV in the syllable structure. However, suprasegments (in neighbouring syllables) are characterized by smaller differences, similarities, and affinities. And as for the opposition 'phonological/distinctive function-stylistic function', the first one dominates in segments, whereas the latter is typical of suprasegments (*ibid.*).

## 8. Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to show how the cognitive category of anticipation, as well as the notions of consecutivity and simultaneity, are incorporated in the sound level of language (speech). The survey of the phenomena connected with one of these three categories was opened by anticipatory speech errors that confirm the relevance of the distinctive features of phonemes, which initiated the investigation of the psychological processes connected with language production (Hill, 1973). Anticipatory coarticulation

perceived as nasalization has an important phonological value in some languages, and anticipatory assimilation changes of certain distinctive features are crucial for successful communication. All those phenomena are connected with the economy of speech and with efforts to reduce the amount and range of articulatory movements and articulatory work on the speaker's side, though of course only to the extent permitted by the language system so as not to violate communication. Then, I have shown that the successive or simultaneous 'action' of speech organs leads to certain modifications in the acoustics of sounds, that is, the transgression and inherence of vowels, or to different types of sounds: complex segments, contour segments, or sequences of sounds. All these phenomena are reflected in the structure of the syllable, the interconnecting unit that is realized successively in segments and simultaneously in suprasegments.

### Conflict of interests

The author declares no conflict of interest.

## References

- Daniloff, R. & Hammarberg, R. (1973). On defining coarticulation. *Journal of Phonetics* 1, 239–248.
- Dvončová, J. (1980). *Fyziologická fonetika*. Slovenské pedagogické nakladateľstvo, Bratislava.
- Duanmu, S. (2009). *Syllable Structure. The Limits of Variation*. Oxford University Press, Oxford.
- Duanmu, S. (2010). *The CVX Theory of Syllable Structure*. Available at <http://www-personal.umich.edu/~duanmu/CUNY-CVX-2010Oct.pdf>.
- Farnetani, E. & Recasens, D. (1999). Coarticulation models in recent speech production theories. In William J. Hardcastle & Nigel Hewlett (eds.). *Coarticulation. Theory, Data and Techniques*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge. 31–68.
- Fromkin, V. A. (1973). Introduction. In Victoria A. Fromkin (ed.). *Speech errors as linguistic evidence*. Mouton, The Hague, Paris, 11–45.
- Gregová, R. (2016). The generative and the structuralist approach to the syllable: A comparative analysis of English and Slovak. Cambridge Scholars Publishing, Newcastle upon Tyne.
- Giegerich, H. J. (1992). *English phonology. An introduction*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Hall, T. A. (2006). Segmental Features. In Paul de Lacy (ed.). *A Cambridge Handbook of Phonology*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 311–334.
- Hardcastle, W. J. & Hewlett, N. (eds.). (1999). *Coarticulation. Theory, Data and Techniques*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Harris, Z. S. (1944). Simultaneous components on phonology. *Language* 20(4), 181–205.
- Hill, A. A. (1973). Theory of Speech Errors. In Victoria A. Fromkin (ed.). *Speech errors as linguistic evidence*. Mouton, The Hague, Paris, 205–214.
- Hučka, P. (2012). *The Influence of Nasality on Vowel Quality in Slovak and English*. Master's Thesis, Pavol Jozef Šafárik University, Košice.
- Chafcouloff, M. & Marchal, A. (1999). Velopharyngeal coarticulation. In William J. Hardcastle & Nigel Hewlett (eds.). *Coarticulation. Theory, Data and Techniques*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 69–79.
- Chomsky, N. & Halle, M. (1968). *The sound patterns of English*. Harper and Row, New York.
- Jakobson, R. (1962). *Selected Writings, I: Phonological Studies*. Mouton, The Hague.
- Kráľ, Ā. & Sabol, J. (1989). *Fonetika a fonológia*. Slovenské pedagogické nakladateľstvo, Bratislava.
- Kráľ, Ā. (2005). *Pravidlá slovenskej výslovnosti. Systematika a ortoepický slovník*. Matica slovenská, Martin.
- Kremer, J. (2012). The syntax of simultaneity. *Lingua* 122 (9), 979–1003.
- Ladefoged, P. & Maddieson, I. (1996). *The sounds of the world's languages*. Blackwell, Oxford.
- Maturi, P. (1991). The perception of consonantal nasality in Italian: conditioning factors. In *Proceedings of the XIIth International Congress of Phonetic Sciences, Aix-en-Provence, Vol. 5*, 50–53.
- McClain, R. & Goldrick, M. (2018). The Neurocognitive Mechanisms of Speech Production. In J. T. Wixted (ed.). *Stevens' Handbook of Experimental Psychology and Cognitive Neuroscience*. New York: Wiley, 47–74.
- Natsopoulos, D. & Abadzi, H. 1986. Understanding Linguistic Time Sequence and Simultaneity: A Literature Review and Some New Data. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* 15 (3), 243–273.
- Newman, J. (1997). *Coursebook in Feature Geometry*. Lincom Europa, Munich, Newcastle.
- Roach, P. n.d. Connected speech and coarticulation. Available at <http://www.personal.rdg.ac.uk/~llsroach/phon2/asscoareli-into.htm>.
- Romportl, M. (1962). K analýze zvukového systému ruštiny. *Slovo a slovesnosť* 23 (4), 282–86.
- Romportl, M. (1973). *Studies in Phonetics*. Academia, Prague.
- Sabol, J. (1989). *Syntetická fonologická teória*. JÚLŠ SAV, Bratislava.
- Sabol, J. (2007). Syntagmatický a paradigmatický princíp v konexii fonických prvkov. In Ján Sabol & Ladislav Sisák (eds.). *Koreferencia a konexia textu*. Acta Facultatis Philosophicae Universitatis Prešoviensis. Jazykovedný zborník, 48 (AFPh UP 96/178). Prešov: Filozofická fakulta Prešovskej univerzity, 13–20.
- Sabol, J. (2012). Semiotické pozadie segmentov a suprasegmentov. *Jazykoveda v pohybe*. 59–69.
- Sagey, E. C. (1986). *The Representation of Features and Relations in Non-linear Phonology*. Doctoral Dissertation, MIT.
- Sheer, T. (2012). Invariant syllable skeleton, complex segments and word edges. *Journal of Linguistics* 48, 685–726.
- Swarup, S. & Gasser, L. (2007). The Role of Anticipation in the Emergence of Language. In Martin V. Butz, Olivier Sigaud, Giovanni Pezzulo and Gianluca Baldassarre (eds.). *Anticipatory Behavior in Adaptive Learning Systems*. ABiALS 2006. Lecture Notes in Computer Science, Vol. 4520.

Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer, 35–56.  
Vachek, J. (1989). *Written Language Revisited*. John  
Benjamins, Amsterdam, Philadelphia.



## ANALYSE THE ISSUES AND CHALLENGES IN TEACHING WRITING AMONG ENGLISH TEACHERS

Md. Harun Rashid, Faculty of Modern language and communication, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia,  
Email: [harun.sh96@gmail.com](mailto:harun.sh96@gmail.com)

Wang Hui, Faculty of Modern languages and communication, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia,  
Email: [vicky0176742521@gmail.com](mailto:vicky0176742521@gmail.com)

**Abstract.** Teaching one of the productive skills of the English language, writing, involves developing students' linguistic competence, which many E.S.L. teachers find difficult. The study's main goal is to examine the challenges faced by E.S.L. teachers in teaching writing skills to students in university classrooms. This study aims to identify problems faced by teachers of Arts Colleges in Universities. The researcher used questionnaires to survey teachers' concerns about teaching writing skills. The researcher used a descriptive method to report the problems encountered by the sampled teachers in teaching writing skills. The survey had 12 questions. This study's findings not only revealed the problematic factors but also suggested some practical solutions. This study's findings and recommendations may help teachers reflect on their teaching practices and assist authorities in supporting teachers' efforts to improve student writing skills.

**Keywords:** *Challenge of Writing, teachers' problems, Academic writing, L2 writer.*

### 1. Introduction

English is an essential worldwide language for communication, education, and business. English has become a crucial language in our nation. Our country's second language is English. Reading, writing, listening, and speaking are the four essential skills taught in English classes. Writing is an integral part of learning English. Writing abilities should be trained formally, according to Giridharan and Robson (2011). Writing, on the other hand, is a multiplex activity. To be creative and write well in the future, kids need to learn this ability in elementary school. So E.S.L. students should improve their writing abilities. They will have greater job possibilities after they finish their higher education. The business sector wants future employees who can write effectively. Strong writing abilities let students interact with the world around them and gain information from all angles. Writing is an essential talent in many areas of professional life. The primary issue is that even though the writing is an important academic talent, several previous

studies have found that it is not promoted or successful among students. Although English teaching is mandatory in Malaysian schools, the execution is inadequate, focusing only on the pupils' linguistic structure.

The pupils' deep writing abilities have not been adequately developed. In other words, the curriculum and instructional techniques do not adequately prepare pupils for writing. This indicates that Malaysian pupils are unable to express themselves effectively and creatively during class. Students will encounter difficulties if they do not practice their writing skills. E.S.L. students need to have this language ability since it is utilized widely for global knowledge mediation. In other words, students will acquire independence by becoming proficient writers and gaining knowledge in many areas. Nunan (1999) claims that writing a clear, fluent, and prolonged article is the most challenging job in language acquisition. According to Hyland, writing is a complicated cognitive activity involving many processes and techniques? As can be seen, writing is not an easy skill for E.S.L. students to learn. It is vital for communication between the writer and the reader. Writing is the master of all language abilities since one is deemed stupid and ignorant without it. Thus, studies on writing difficulties among EFL students in countries like Indonesia, Thailand, and Vietnam have been conducted. The findings show that pupils seldom write, and the best options are intervention techniques to address this problem. Nonetheless, little research on Malaysian students has focused on developing

Corresponding Author

Md. Harun Rashid, Faculty of Modern language and communication, University Putra Malaysia, Malaysia,  
Email: [harun.sh96@gmail.com](mailto:harun.sh96@gmail.com)



This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY). The article is published with Open Access at [www.alscjournal.com](http://www.alscjournal.com)



writing skills, attitudes, and motivation to acquire writing skills and learn writing skills.

Thus, this study will focus on upper secondary pupils to learn about their writing difficulties and obstacles. According to Mohtar et al. (2017), students' written work frequently displays flaws, particularly in the structures and concepts they convey. Because instructors don't grasp their students' issues, they offer little writing advice. To help children with their writing, instructors must first identify their issues. It is critical to observe how instructors teach writing to improve this talent.

## **2. Definition of Writing**

Writing is a method of putting thoughts, feelings, and experiences into words. According to Nunan (1989), writing is not a natural activity. Ordinary people learn to communicate in the language. Meanwhile, E.S.L. students should be encouraged to express their ideas, experiences, emotions, and feelings. Asmuti (2002) argues that acquiring writing talent allows authors to organize their thoughts and elaborate them in an organized way. A student must expand their vocabulary, idioms, and grammatical structure while learning a language.

## **3. Approaches to Writing**

To teach writing, various methods and strategies must be used (Selvaraj & Aziz, 2019). The writing approach is defined by the relationship between the authors' perspectives on writing and the patterns of writing methods they use. To summarise, writing approaches are concepts, norms, and ethics connected with the writing process used in schools during writing courses.

## **4. Product Approach**

The product approach to writing focuses on the result rather than the process. For example, the product approach to writing concentrates on the text, essay storyline, etc., according to Nunan (1989). The instructor is concerned about the final output being legible, grammatically accurate, and using discourse norms like significant ideas and supporting information. Grammar, spelling, and vocabulary are given top priority; Getnet (1994) defines the product approach as an orientation that emphasizes the final product

of pupils. This method is also described as "a conventional technique in which pupils are urged to imitate a model text" (Gabrielatos, 2002) states that in E.S.L. writing classes, pupils must follow four stages. First, students must read example essays and note the essay's distinctive features, such as how ideas are organized, the language used, and writing mechanics.

In the second phase, students isolate the model essays' characteristics. 3. Students attempt to replicate the sample essays by arranging thoughts according to the model. During this stage, the organization of ideas takes precedence over ideas themselves. The last step is for pupils to write their essays utilizing skills, sentence structures, and terminology. For example, Raimes explains that pupils are given phrases to copy and modify with minimal possibility of making mistakes. This technique helps students utilize particular pattern-product approaches in writing narrative, descriptive, and persuasive essays. According to Tangpermpoon (2008), pupils will also increase their grammatical awareness and learn to rectify vocabulary and sentence structures. This method is unpopular since it concentrates on grammar and syntax rather than the writing process.

## **5. Process Approach**

The phrase process writing is used by Kroll (2001). He claims writing is a cyclical process. Before completing a writing assignment, students will go through a few phases. They can always go back and edit their work. This method has four stages: planning, drafting, revising, and editing. Various classroom activities like brainstorming, rewriting, and group discussions are given greater emphasis in this method.

## **6. Eclectic Approach**

The eclectic approach combines genre and method. This method is gaining popularity for teaching writing skills. This method is also thought to help instructors and students improve their writing abilities by expressing their originality. This method helps students grasp the target genre's characteristics, enhancing their competence since they simultaneously study form, language, and function. In conclusion, no one way can enhance students' writing competence in E.S.L. classes.

## 7. Challenges in Writing

Writing is a challenging skill to master. Heaton (1975) says teaching writing is hard. Writing proficiency includes grammatical, rhetorical, intellectual, and judgemental components. They lack fundamental grammar, punctuation, capitalization, and spelling abilities. E.S.L. students' vocabulary, grammar, and sentence structure. Mistakes in grammar, sentence structure, tenses, and spelling. Students lack writing skills owing to a lack of language. Vocabulary is the basis of excellent writing. Students communicate orally and in writing. Writing requires good grammar. It offers information to help readers understand it. Grammar-challenged students will struggle to construct appropriate phrases.

Nyangau Benard (2014), a preposition is a typical student mistake; poor spelling is another hurdle for young writers. Spelling is an essential part of writing, he says. E.S.L. students often delete or add letters to their spellings. Students misspell words depending on the sound. Inconsistencies in English spelling create spelling errors. L1 interference, especially Bahasa Melayu, is harming Malaysian E.S.L. secondary students' English literacy. Grammar was shown to be a problem for 120 Malaysian students learning to write. The L1 impact produces grammatical errors. A lack of grammatically correct phrases causes anxiety among E.S.L. pupils. According to Myles (2002), students frequently interpret while writing. Myles (2002) quotes Friedlander (1990), saying that kids use the first language to think and pay attention. According to Sipahi (2020), English language teachers and assessors should change the language test format and vocabulary should usually be considered multiple choice.

Choosing the right word is an important point. Student needs more attention.

## 8. Problem of the study

Fareed et al. (2016) found that 30 E.S.L. undergraduates had language competence (grammar, syntax, and vocabulary), writing anxiety, vague ideas, relying on L1, and poor structural organization. They also ruled out several causes for the issues. They lacked training, thoughts, writing practice, and reading habits. Singh et al. (2017) examined 144 students' writings using content analysis. The results revealed two common writing errors: subject-verb agreement and tenses. The

pupils overgeneralized, causing them to mix up the tenses. Students also struggled with complicated building construction. Students' failure to utilize subject-verb agreement correctly created this issue. Similar studies also noted that even university students made these mistakes due to a lack of mastery of English. Ibnian (2017) found that pupils had different writing issues – morphology, syntax, use errors, mechanical faults – spelling, punctuation, capitalization (spelling, tenses), prepositions, and connectors. The absence of defined evaluation methods and mark systems and time constraints contributed to EFL students' writing problems.

The lack of acceptable teaching methods, resources for consultation, and unsuitable subjects made it difficult for pupils to participate in writing tasks. A questionnaire was used by Habibi et al. (2017) for 70 students. The findings indicated that students face seven writing issues: inadequate organization/ illogical sequence, word choice, grammatical mistake, spelling, concept confusion, punctuation, and capitalization. The study found that female students struggle with word choice, whereas male students struggle with grammatical errors. Pablo and Lasaten (2018) encountered that 227 students work with a lack of diversity in content and ideas, lack of connectives in the organization, improper vocabulary, word choice, lousy sentence structures in language usage, and pronouns. Due to the challenges students experience in writing, the quality of their essays varies from bad to fair.

## 9. Finding of the study

The findings also provided solutions for instructors and students. In addition to giving examples, teachers can assist students with their needs. Students should read more to improve vocabulary and grammar. Knowing their students' needs and abilities helps E.S.L. teachers design writing lessons. Teachers should use appropriate methods to teach. Teachers should also provide students with resources. Encouragement requires scaffolding. Giving kids feedback while they're writing can help. In addition, the study suggests combining appropriate writing methods for framing. An early survey of broader options, especially elementary school children, is recommended to improve writing skills. This study looked at 14 papers from 2012 to 2020 for writing issues—

mostly tertiary studies. Only one study from a secondary school was included. Most studies highlighted E.S.L. students' writing issues. Different designs and equipment were used, but the results were nearly identical. Most students struggled with vocabulary, grammar, and concept organization. Many studies examined in this systematic review addressed these questions. These ideas are for future instructors to make E.S.L. students' writing lessons more fun and engaging. Instructors can help students with their writing assignments by providing feedback, example essays, and scaffolding. Adopt student-centered teaching strategies.

Meanwhile, students should improve their writing skills. Reading improves writing. This helps students learn information and concepts. Grammar and vocabulary should be improved.

## 10. Theory

The inability of students to set goals for themselves, both macro and micro, is a common problem. The issues stem from internal factors such as educators' inability to use evidence-based examples in everyday teaching and students' failure to identify their cognitive levels. All of these issues are modifiable and require extensive support from English educators. To improve student learning outcomes, teachers must identify these issues (Moses et al., 2019). Observing children's writing helps introduce a theory of cognitive processes. It aids in writing skills and lays the groundwork for a more in-depth study of writing thought. The approach emphasizes goal setting through four steps: thinking, prewriting, drafting, rewriting, and proofreading. It will help generate new ideas and opinions (Di Zhang, 2019). The theory also supports teachers as leaders in the process of writing skills. Using critical thinking and problem-solving skills can help improve writing skills and reduce the learning burden.

## 11. Discussion

The inability of teachers to apply classroom-based examples to increase students' cognitive capacity will contribute to poor writing skills (Moses et al., 2019). Teachers who use a mental process lens allow students to write without restriction. Setting a time limit will enable students to brainstorm and write down their ideas. However, some

students can still correct errors in their writing and use visual planners to help organize their ideas (El Soufi & See 2019). The stimuli to generate thoughts are an advantage, but some students may struggle to recall their thoughts promptly. Environmental distractions can cause a lack of focus. Writing is an important study skill for all students. A fast Write is a method in which students are given a topic, issue, or idea to write about and a time limit. Students should register for the entire period, regardless of errors. Students could use this method. Preparing a topic helps students think in a specific direction and supports their writing. This quick method may confuse some students (Hodges & Tracey, 2017). Graphic organizers can also be used to improve writing patterns. It can use writing instructional strategies (Inaltekin & Goksu, 2019). Students could have used a mind map or timeline to generate ideas. This will help students create more ideas for writing if a student lacks visual sense and knowledge to extract pictures from mind maps.

## 12. Recommendations

The audience, assistant, evaluator, and examiner are primary roles for teachers in the process approach to teaching writing. Innovici (2015). As an audience, the teacher must respond appropriately to the points made by students in their writing. A teacher's assistant must help students write constructively in terms of purpose and language. The writing process requires the same amount of time and effort as vocabulary and grammar. Writing helps students improve their grammatical and vocabulary skills while also developing other linguistic skills. As evaluators, teachers provide feedback on the writing piece's strengths and weaknesses and its overall outcome. A teacher examines students' proficiency. As an alternative idea, teachers should use as many different techniques as possible, with the cognitive approach helping students the most. Teachers can use mind maps before writing. So that students can appreciate visual aids in writing, teachers should encourage students to create their own mind maps. Gardner (1999) claims that mind maps can capture students' spatial, bodily-kinaesthetic, and visual intelligence. Some teaching writing techniques include brainstorming, concept maps, list-making, and note-taking Bukhari (, 2016). These are common prewriting techniques to help students generate writing ideas.



Then comes drafting. For Brown (2001), “drafting is viewed as an important and complex set of strategies that requires time, patience and training.” They should now explain the language’s vocabulary, syntax, and lexis. Teachers should provide models, samples, and guidelines during the drafting and encourage students to revise and edit their work. With vocabulary and guide words related to the theme or genre, students are more focused and guided. The language input for the task begins here and continues in subsequent writing stages. Teachers can now assign students to work in groups or individually. Then comes proofreading, peer editing, and writing. Teachers should encourage students to exchange and evaluate their peers’ texts during the proofreading and peer editing stage. So that they can improve their editing skills and focus on important information, students must first edit their own or peers’ work. Thus, students improve their writing. Finally, students will produce personal papers, either collaboratively or individually. Students work hard to write a piece of writing. So the teacher must respond correctly.

Positive teacher feedback can help students gain confidence and inspiration to write better in the future. The final step is publication. Students could read their work in front of their peers or read their peers’ final work Bukhari (, 2016). Publishing is important for students because it allows them to share their work with a real audience of peers and other students. It also instills ownership in the kids. This is significant because students will strive to improve their performance to be recognized as writers. The cognitive-process approach ensures that students master the process writing approach, including prewriting, drafting, feedback, and rewriting. These two main approaches complement each other throughout the writing process. Nonetheless, more research is required to assess the effects of the cognitive-process-based approach in writing classes.

### 13. Implementation

This study suggests that teachers teach writing using a cognitive-process approach. This approach can help students improve their writing skills and overcome problems with expressing themselves in writing. Smalley et al. (2001) claim that a process approach can help students learn English and improve their writing skills. Students can work through the

steps at their own pace, gradually building confidence, interest, and self-esteem. Students can switch between levels to develop enviable compositions. This study focused on teaching three components of writing: content, organization, and grammar. These three elements are important to evaluate because they affect writing quality. Writing is about content. It is the essence of all great writing.

Organize facts and ideas first, then use grammar to construct sentences. Wugha (2007). Teachers should use the process approach to help students organize their thoughts while writing, making them more motivated to finish their assignments. Students will become better writers and learn the art of writing by implementing the writing process, including prewriting, drafting, revising editing, and publishing.

### 14. Conclusion

Written output and cognitive processes are intricately intertwined, and scholars are still learning about them. Writing theory is increasingly focusing on creativity and sociability. The writing approach refers to the issues a teacher faces when teaching writing skills. The teacher can use cognitive writing theory to identify problems and improve current practices to improve student academic outcomes. The cognitive approach ignores various environments like enthusiasm, involvement, and social influence. The use of mind maps and classroom exercises can help students generate more ideas and improve their cognitive abilities. But these factors lack external consensus. Creating relationships with students, understanding their social backgrounds, and verbally encouraging them can help them write well. Teachers connect theory and practice to stimulate learners’ learning. Finally, approaches help teachers describe their methods to other students.

#### Conflict of interests

The author declares no conflict of interest.

### 15. References

- Bukhari. S.S.F., (2016). Mind Mapping Techniques to Enhance EFL Writing Skill. *International Journal of Linguistics and Communication*. Vol. 4, No.1, pp. 58-77 <https://doi.org/10.15640/ijlc.v4n1a7>
- Cer, E. (2019). The instruction of writing strategies: The effect of the classroom strategy on the writing

- skills of pupils in secondary education. *SAGE Open*, 9(2), 1-14.
- Cevik, Y., & Spahiu, I. (2013). An Overview of Culture to teach EFL through Using Folk Literature: A Sample Case of Nasreddin Hodja. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(23), 29-32. <https://www.iiste.org/Journals/index.php/JEP/article/view/8378/8686>
- Davis, K., Christodoulou, J., & Seider, S. (2011). The Theory of Multiple Intelligences. In R. Sternberg & S. Kaufman (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Intelligence* (pp.485-503), Chapter 24. Cambridge University Press.
- Di Zhang, E. (2019). An investigation of novice E.S.L. writers' cognitive processes and strategy use of paraphrasing. *Lang Test Asia* 10, 9-14.
- El Soufi, N., & See, B. H. (2019). Does explicit teaching of critical thinking improve the necessary thinking skills of English language learners in higher education? A critical review of causal evidence. *Studies In Educational Evaluation*, 60, 140-162.
- Faraj, A.K.A., (2015). Scaffolding EFL Students' Writing through the Writing Process Approach. *Journal of Education and Practice*. Vol.6, No.13
- Fareed, M. et al. (2016a). E.S.L. Learners' Writing Skills: Problems, Factors, and Suggestions. *Journal of Education & Social Sciences*, 4(2), 83-94.
- Gabrielatos, C. (2016). EFL Writing: Product and Process EFL Writing (December).
- Giridharan, B. (2012). Identifying Gaps in Academic Writing of E.S.L. Students \*. *US-China Education Review A* 6, 1548-6613.
- Habibi, A. (2017). Students' Perception on Writing Problems: A Survey at One Islamic University in Jambi. *Ta'dib*, 22(1), 96-108.
- Hodges, k, & Tracey S. (2017). Theoretically speaking: An examination of four theories and how they support writing in the classroom. *The clearinghouse: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues, and Ideas*, 90(4), 139-146.
- Ibnian, S.S.K. (2017). Writing Difficulties Encountered by Jordanian EFL Learners. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Studies*, 5(03), 2321-2799.
- Inaltekin, T., & Goksu, V. (2019). A Research on visual learning representations of primary and secondary science in Turkey. *International Journal of Progressive Education*, 15(6), 51-65.
- Maarof, N. & Murat, M. (2013). Writing strategies used by E.S.L. upper secondary school students. *International Education Studies*, 6(4), 47-55.
- Moses, R. N., & Mohamad, M. (2019). Challenges faced by students and teachers on writing skills in E.S.L. Contexts: A literature review. *Creative Education*, 10(13), 3385-3391.
- Riwayatiningsih, R. (2015). "Implementing Process Writing Approach to Improve the Writing Skill of the Second Semester Students of Nusantara PGRI Kediri University." *Nusantara of Research*, Vol.2, No.1
- Rusinovci, X. (2015). Teaching Writing through Process-Genre Based Approach. *US-China Education Review A*, October 2015, Vol. 5, No. 10, 699-705
- Spahiu, I. (2013). Using Native Language in ESL Classroom. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, 1(2), 243.
- Spahiu, I., & Spahiu, E. K. (2018). The Role of Social Interaction in Language Acquisition. *Knowledge International Journal*, 23(5), 1399-1401. <https://ikm.mk/ojs/index.php/KIJ/article/view/1684>
- Selvaraj, M. & Aziz, A.A. (2019). Systematic Review: Approaches in Teaching Writing Skill in E.S.L. Classrooms. *International Journal of Academic Research in Progressive Education and Development*, 8(4), 450-473.
- Selvaraj, M. & Aziz, A.A. (2020). Utilizing Flow Chart in Writing Narrative Essay: English as Second Language Students' Perceptions. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 10(3), 1-16.
- Singh, C. K. S. et al. (2017). Grammar Errors Made by E.S.L. Tertiary Students in Writing. *English Language Teaching*, 10(5), 16.
- Sipahi E. (2020). Test Anxiety: A Case of ESL Vocabulary Testing Using Multiple-Choice Items and Error Identification Tests. *kurmanj*. 2020; 2 (4) :1-6 URL: <http://kurmanj.srpup.org/article-2-75-en.html>
- Yunda. R., Komariah & Burhansyahl. (2017). Using Story Mapping Technique to Improve Students' Ability in Writing Recount Text. *Research in English and Education (READ)* Vol.2, No.4. pp 32-40



# LONDON COLLEGE<sup>®</sup>

UNITED *of* KNOWLEDGE

[www.LondonCollegeUK.com](http://www.LondonCollegeUK.com)

## KUWAIT

SUBAH AL SALEM - BLOCK 2  
BAVARIA TOWERS  
TOWER A  
TEL: +965 222 73 767  
MOB: +965 500 20 510

## HEAD OFFICE

LEVEL 18 - 40 BANK STREET  
CANARY WHARF  
LONDON E14 5NR  
TEL: +44 203 608 6081  
MOB: +44 203 608 6033

- 📍 London College of United Knowledge
- 📧 @lcollegeuk
- 📞 lcollegeuk
- 📞 0096550020510

