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Editorial

From the submissions to the final acceptance and publication of papers for each issue, all papers undergo the Preliminary Review continuously screened out 80% of all papers submitted, resulting in 6 articles advancing to the Double-Blind Reviews for this May/June 2023 Issue. In the issue, the first paper from Indonesia researched Talent Management which is beginning to have an initial threshold in South East Asia. The second paper from Malaysia reviews online co-teaching on postgraduate engagement, with the fourth paper from Singapore and Malaysia analyzing the progressive SEAAIR conferences hosted over the 20 years of 2001-2021. Two papers from Vietnam highlighted key Vietnamese focus foreign language learning by investigating the relationships of Emotional intelligence (EI), intrinsic learning motivation (IM), and willingness to communicate (WTC) are among the factors that influence students' success, with the sixth paper focusing on the enhancement of English major students' translation process through a comparative analysis. The fifth paper from the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia looks at postgraduate research supervision, highlighting the supervisory approaches,

The key synopses of these six papers are as follows:

- **Article 1 – Dyah Kusumastuti, Nenny Hendajany, Djoko Pitoyo, and Nurhaeni Sikki,** all from *Sangga Buana University, Indonesia,* aim to understand TM's concept, process, and practices in academia through article analysis using the software Publish or Perish (PoP) that focuses on article journals that were published from 2008 to 2022, included in Scopus Database, and using the keywords: talent management, higher education. Findings of TM concept and processes include employee value proposition, talent attraction, recruitment, selection & staffing; Talent Development which includes boarding, training, talent development, career management, coaching, mentoring, succession planning, talent pool, and leadership development; Talent Retention made up of performance management, Compensation, Reward, Retaining Talent; Human Resource Management that includes: managing Talent, managing performance, rewarding Talent. In addition, it identified that Cultivation has a strong relationship with HEI and a weak relationship with TM that offers a process framework to efficiently attract, develop and retain employees in the HEI sector and talented academic staff.
- **Article 2 – Lee Yee Ling and Kasthoori Bai Munusamy Naidu,** both from *Education for All Impact Lab, School of Education, Taylor University, Subang Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia,* investigate the impacts of online co-teaching on postgraduate student engagement, its drawbacks, and suggestions for improvement using Descriptive statistics. The findings indicated that the participants were cognitively, behaviourally, and emotionally engaged during the online co-teaching. They benefited from the richness of knowledge shared by the two instructors, effective classroom management, and implementation techniques of co-teaching models. The only drawback was the confusion caused by the co-teachers different opinions and ways of approaching students.

- **Article 3 – Nguyen Thi Diem Ha, Nguyen Quynh Uyen, Nguyen Thi Hoang Nguyen, and Nguyen Hoang Thanh Trang,** all hailing from the *Yersin University of Dalat, Lam Dong, Vietnam,* investigated the relationships of Emotional intelligence (EI), intrinsic learning motivation (IM), and willingness to communicate (WTC) are among the factors that influence students' success in foreign language learning (FLL). It explored the potential of EI subcomponents to serve as predictors for IM and WTC, with results indicating that the students' EI positively correlated with their IM and WTC, and one of four EI subcomponents predicted IM and WTC, with no significant difference existed within groups of students learning English, Japanese, and Korean as foreign languages.
- **Article 4 – Yit Yan Koh** *of the University of Newcastle, Singapore,* and **Yaw Long Chua** *of Universiti Tenaga Nasional, Malaysia, reviews* the development of SEAAIR conference themes and subthemes to reveal the relatedness of the theme based on the country's contemporary educational or socio-economic development. The paper analysis is based on the country for 2001 – 2021. It is presented to analyze the countries' trends and active participation level at the SEAAIR Annual Conference.
- **Article 5 – Mubarak AlKhatnai** *of King Saud University* examines written assessments from academic supervisors from a master's program using qualitative content analysis focused on identifying comments related to the foci; content, language, structure, and presentation; and directive, expressive, and referential language functions. The findings revealed that the dominant focus of the supervisors' written feedback was content, followed by language, then structure, and presentation. Supervisors strongly prefer directive language, followed by referential language, with a minimal representation of expressive language. It concluded that the supervisors emphasized content-related feedback more, while language, structure, and presentation were secondary and tertiary concerns.
- **Article 6 – Nguyen Thi Thu Huong** of *The University of Foreign Language Studies, the University of Da Nang* pedagogical study investigates how to enhance English major students' translation process through a comparative analysis. The results of the study show that the functional approach to translation help enhances students' translation process in terms of their more frequent mentions of non-linguistic translation problems, their broadened repertoire of translation strategies, and their reflections on the notions of "accuracy" and/or a "good" translation from a functional perspective. It highlights that workshops positively impacted their decision-making process, even given their limited linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge. A functional approach to Translation enhances students' translation process and cultivates their awareness of real-life practice, leading to improved skills and confidence in Translation.

JIRSEA Editor: Assoc. Prof. Teay Shawyun, Ph.D.

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Talent Management of Academic In Higher Education: A Bibliometric Analysis

Dyah Kusumastuti [1*], Nenny Hendajany [2], Djoko Pitoyo [3], Nurhaeni Sikki [4]

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ABSTRACT

It has been widely proven that any organization, including higher education institutes (HEI), applied talent management (TM) to achieve competitive advantages. This research aims to understand TM's concept, process, and practices in academia through article analysis. The result of this study will be used for the next research on TM in academia, supported by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Research and Technology (MECRT). The analyzed article samples are collected using the software Publish or Perish (PoP) that focuses on article journals that were published from 2008 to 2022, included in Scopus Database, and using the keywords: talent management, higher education. PoP results include 48 articles to be analyzed using bibliometric analysis with the help of the software VOSViewer to learn about the relationships between the TM concept and process for academic staff. Findings that the concept and processes of TM involve a series of typical management activities from workforce planning that includes analyzing talent needs & talent planning; Talent Acquisition which includes employee value proposition, talent attraction, recruitment, selection & staffing; Talent Development which includes boarding, training, talent development, career management, coaching, mentoring, succession planning, talent pool, leadership development; Talent Retention made up of performance management, Compensation, Reward, Retaining Talent; Human Resource Management that includes: managing Talent, managing performance, rewarding Talent. This research also found that item Cultivation has a strong relationship with HEI and a weak relationship with TM. This research offers a process framework to efficiently attract, develop and retain employees in the HEI sector as well as retain talented academic staff.

Keywords: Talent Management, Higher Education, Bibliometric Analysis.

Introduction

Researchers have shown that higher education institutions need to catch up in leveraging talent management. With processes such as attracting, developing, and retaining quality talent, TM is essential for institutional success to drive institutions to achieve competitive advantage (Rudhumbu & Maphosa, 2015). Talent is vital to achieving distinction in any institution, including HEI. Accordingly, selecting and managing Talent are effectively some of the determining factors for HEI's success and enhanced competitiveness (Nasser, 2019). Literature has shown that talent retention in institutions has become a significant challenge faced by several HEIs for the last two decades. TM has become a human resource (HR) management practice that aims to improve employee engagement in "emotional and intellectual connection as well as a competitive weapon" for organizational success, organization growth in an ever-changing environment and maintaining it as long as possible (Daruka & Pádár, 2019; Mellahi & Collings, 2010; Mohamed Mousa & Ayoubi, 2019b). One of the biggest assets an HEI can have is highly qualified academics or lecturers in this context. Therefore, it is essential for HEIs to implement a comprehensive talent management strategy to enhance the quality of their human resources, leading to improved university rankings and the continued reputation of the institution within local and international scientific communities (Nasser, 2019).

Several studies regarding TM can be presented as the following: A study from (Taamneh et al., 2021) reported that TM had garnered significant attention as a primary solution to the grand challenges businesses face. Two key realities within the Higher Education Institution (HEI) environment support this assertion. Firstly, a majority of HEIs globally struggle with talent shortages. Secondly, highly talented academics play a crucial role in enhancing the quality of research and education, bolstering the HEI's reputation, and providing a competitive advantage. It is important to note that other crucial indicators of academic excellence, such as innovative teaching, often require lecturers to possess self-efficacy in student engagement and class management, which are sometimes undervalued (Paisey & Paisey, 2018). Overlooking these qualities when assessing an academic talent can cause biases in talent management and decision-making. Thus, this has led to a growing demand for a more balanced approach to talent management in HEIs.

There has not been a consensus or an agreed definition among TM scientists and practitioners in profitable and nonprofitable organizations. Cappelli & Keller (2014) explained that the core of TM lies in having the right person doing the right job at the right time. ("matching with the job"). The concept of TM in academia varies across subfield disciplines and the country's context. It has led to difficulties in understanding a more direct definition of academic Talent. Nevertheless, the concept of Talent in academia has always been associated with measures such as research quality, number of publications, and number of citations contested in the Western educational communities.

A study from (Nijs et al., 2014) highlights the emergence of talent management (TM) as an important topic in human resources (HR) practices well before it gained attention as an academic subject. It suggests that TM is a field of study influenced by growing phenomena, leading to various implications for future research and theoretical advancements. However, there remains limited consensus on the definition of Talent and TM and the appropriate methodologies to study the TM construct. In another study conducted by Mohamed Mousa & Ayoubi (2019a) on talent management in an Egyptian business school, it was discovered that

the implementation of TM lacked structured procedures and exhibited irresponsibility in areas such as staff placement, empowerment, motivation, evaluation, and talent retention. It is important to note that the findings of this study cannot be generalized. Still, they suggest the need for future research to assess talent management practices in various HEIs with different regulations. Another study (R N Musakuro, 2022) described that academic talents must be managed more effectively and efficiently in HEI. An effective and efficient TM allows academic staff to improve productivity and work satisfaction. Martin et al. (2022) conducted a study highlighting the significance of TM for HEIs in the face of national and international competition, demographic shifts, IT advancements, and external workforces. The study emphasizes the need for HEIs to proactively engage in talent search and intensify their efforts in attracting and developing talents within their education systems to gain a competitive edge. The findings suggest that TM should be understood and implemented in diverse contexts and environments, involving all stakeholders within the TM system and its operations (Collings, 2014).

Problems of the Study

The HEI sector is closely related to changes, especially after the Corona Pandemic, rushed by continuous advancements in information technology and influenced by shifts in worker demographics. These factors will motivate emerging interdisciplinary collaborations (Abu Said et al., 2015; Drucker, 2001) and acknowledge academics as esteemed professionals, recognized as golden workers and talents, given their responsibilities in supervising students, conducting and publishing research, enhancing graduates' skills, providing consultation services, and engaging in commercialization efforts on behalf of their respective affiliated universities, as well as contributing to their affiliated universities' academic ranks. As mentioned by the QS World University ranking, the academic arena has a strategic role in the graduates' quality. It can be seen that the university's score ranking reflects its efforts in working toward sustainable development goals (SDGs). Some criteria include academic reputation reflected in the teaching and research qualities and the reputation of its graduates from the employers. Even more, the academic reputation has a 40% value out of the overall score (L, 2022). Regarding managing talents for academics in HEIs, the TM concept, and definition are strongly needed as the basis of the management practice.

The lack of empirical studies in the TM field causes the concept and definitions of TM to appear inconsistent, and difficult to gain universal agreement because there are no comprehensive systematic literature reviews about TM in HEIs, although talents are not a completely novel concept (McCarthy & Collins, 2014; Meyers & Woerkom, 2014; R N Musakuro, 2022; Rudhumbu & Maphosa, 2015). To ensure the effectiveness of TM practices in HEI, it is essential to possess a comprehensive understanding of the knowledge, concepts, and definitions of TM. This knowledge is crucial for formulating policies and establishing TM strategies that align with the core strategy of the institution, taking into account the cultural context and potential opportunities that may be available (Meyers & Woerkom, 2014; R N Musakuro, 2022). As such, this study is aimed to:

1. Gather information, concepts, knowledge, process, and TM practices in HEI using bibliometric analysis from journal articles published through the Scopus database.
2. Analyze the results of the TM process from the bibliometric analysis through a qualitative approach.

This study is focused on obtaining talent management concepts, processes, and practices in HEI to enrich further discussions under the TM theme. This study is limited by analyzing the bibliometrics of article titles and abstracts of 48 articles collected using the Publish or Perish (PoP) software application. We set the filters to focus on journal articles with titles including the word Talent, keyword Talent Management Higher Education, published in 2008 -2022, exclusively from the Scopus database.

Literature Review

Talent and Talent Management

Understanding of Talent is described as diverse skills, abilities, knowledge, experience, values, intelligence, attitudes, character, competence, commitment, and values that are genetically encoded contributions to organizational goals. D. and S. N. Ulrich (2012) define the context of employee talent in the organization is formulated as:

$$\text{Talent} = \text{Competence} \times \text{Commitment} \times \text{Contribution}$$

Competence refers to the knowledge, skills, and values required for today's and tomorrow's jobs. One company further refined competence as the right skills, place, job, and time.

Competency: A series of individual performance behaviors that can be observed, measured and are important to produce effective individual and corporate performance. The individual characteristics of a person that result in effective and superior performance in a job (Sanghi, 2007)

But without commitment, competence is discounted. Highly competent employees who are not committed are smart but don't work hard. Committed or engaged employees work hard, put in their time, and do what they are asked to do. Contribution occurs when employees feel their personal needs are met through active organizational participation. In this talent equation, the three terms are multiplicative, not additive. If anyone is missing, the other two will not replace it. A low score in competence will not turn into Talent even when the employee is engaged and contributing.

Since the study of talent management by a McKinsey consultant in 1997, talent management has received significant attention in the theory and practice of human resources until now because Talent is proven to be a source of organizational competitive advantage. Nevertheless, until now, the literature and the concept of Talent Management still need to be debated; it seems that defining TM is challenging because there is no universally accepted definition or model of TM (Daruka & Pádár, 2019; Rhodrick N Musakuro & De Klerk, 2021). Part of the study results (Daruka & Pádár, 2019) regarding the TM concept for academics produce a definition and understanding of Talent and the TM process, shown in Table 1.

From Study (Daruka & Pádár, 2019), the consequent literature, when examined, differs significantly in the interpretation of the TM process. However, the article can generally divide into four TM processes: attraction, selection, development, and talent retention. Several articles specifically mention academic Talent and differentiate them into two aspects: their

primary job – teaching versus research versus talent support, and seniority – senior versus junior. Regarding the talent segment, most articles only mention managerial/leadership talent. At the same time, others list high-potential Talent so that the TM model can identify five talent segments related to TM processes.

Table 1: Talent definitions & segments and TM definitions & processes on TM academics

No	Author (s)	Who is Talent ?	Talent segment(s)
1	Badia (2015)	Leadership potential High potentials	Leadership potential High potentials
2	Bradley (2016)	talent pool (pivotal, high value-added, roles in both teaching and research … these roles may not be explicit leadership roles ((Yielder & Codling, 2004) (p. 15))	Teaching and research talents
3	Paisey & Paisey (2018)	Talent has been defined in a variety of ways, for example whether it is innate or alternatively, whether it can be acquired, with different organizations taking different approaches across the full spectrum (Meyers, van Woerkom, and Dries 2013). Other questions raised are whether talent must be manifest at the recruitment stage or whether instead its potential can be recognized, and whether the focus should be on people themselves or on their characteristics, such as their qualifications (Thunnissen, Boselie, and Fruytier 2013b). Underlying conceptualizations variously view talent as capital, individual difference, giftedness, identity, strength, or the perception of talent (Dries 2013). In terms of implications for organizations, Minbaeva and Collings (2013) argue that it may not be necessary to always recruit the 'best' in terms of experience or qualifications, or 'A players' for example; instead it is important to focus on outputs and to consider how talent can best be deployed within an organization. (p. 3) talent was being defined in terms of qualifications rather than other attributes (p. 11)	
4	Thunnissen (2016)	Within their TM definitions authors adopt different terms for "talent," for example "excellent abilities," but also terms like "key employees", "high potentials" or "those individuals with high potential who are of particular value to an organization" are used. The variety of terms used to define talent reflects one of the most central debates in TM, i.e. whether TM is an inclusive approach which focusses on (the talents of) all employees, or an exclusive approach aimed at attracting and retaining a select group of employees (Tansley, 2011). (p. 58-59) talents are recruited and developed with a broad variety of TM practices to direct their behavior in a direction that fits the organizational needs, and, as a result, the individual is happy and motivated, and individual and organizational performance increases (p. 59) talent: a scientist with extraordinary insights, a great mind who realized critical breakthroughs in his or her academic field (p. 62).Senior and junior academic talents, postdoc researchers and lecturers (p. 66).	Senior and junior academic talents, postdoc researchers and lecturers
5	van Balen et al. (2012)	high potentials (p. 314) talent is often defined as a natural ability or capacity, in an academic context it generally refers to the academic quality of someone's past achievements (Thunnissen et al., 2010; Van Arensbergen and Van den Besselaar, 2012), (p. 318) …criteria for talent relate to research performance, teaching skills and motivation. (p.318) …in the US, where tenure depends on explicitly formulated criteria with respect to quality and quantity of research output (p. 318)	High potentials
6	van den Brink et al. (2013)	senior academic talent: full professors; junior academic talent: PhD students, postdocs and assistant professors (p. 184). It was found that performance indicators such as the H-index and citation indices /were widely used in most academic fields, although predominantly for the initial selection between applicants. In the next phase, where seemingly equal applicants were evaluated, the selection process became less transparent and objective. (p. 192)	Senior academic talents, junior academic talents
No	**Author(s)**	**What is TM?**	**TM processes**
1	Barkhuizen, Mogwere, & Schutte (2014)	Talent management can be defined as the implementation of integrated human resource strategies to attract, develop, retain and productively utilize employees with the required skills and abilities to meet current and future business needs (Kontoghiorges & Frangou, 2009). (p. 70)	attract, develop and retain talented employees (p. 69)
		continues	

2	Bradley (2016)	Lewis and Heckman (2006) and Collings and Mellahi (2009) develop frameworks for talent management that define it with explicit connections between talent and strategy and so view talent management as the 'architecture' required to develop and sustain competitive advantage. Specifically, they define talent management as an organizational system (or culture) that: 1. Identifies key positions that differentially contribute (add value) to the organization's competitive advantage; 2. Develops a talent pool of high potential and/or high performing individuals to fill these positions; and 3. Develops human resource systems to facilitate the alignment of talented individuals, key positions and organizational strategy. (p. 14)	Recruitment, development, retainment and reward of academic talent TM's alignment with strategy, metrics, and management
3	Erasmus et al.(2017)	Managing talent within an organization has been identified as the lever capable of facilitating the attraction, development, and retention of the required skills and knowledge within the organization through sound strategy, practices, and interventions (Schiemann, 2014). (p. 84) Al, Cascio, and Paauwe (2014) conceptualize TM as "those activities and processes that enable identification of positions and talent pools that are critical to building and sustaining an organization's competitive advantage" (p. 174) (p. 84) Cappelli and Keller (2014) describe TM as "the process through which organizations anticipate and meet the needs for talent in strategic jobs" (p. 307). (p.85) Stahl et al.'s (2012) claim that "TM specifically involves attracting, selecting, developing and retaining high potential employees" (p. 38) and shou and should not include all employees of any given organization. (p. 85)	attraction (talent sourcing), development, deployment, and retention (p. 94)
4	Paisey & Paisey (2018)	Scullion, Collings, and Caligiuri (2010, 106) define global talent management as including: all organizational activities for the purpose of attracting, selecting, developing, and retaining the best employees in the most strategic roles (those roles necessary to achieve organizational strategic priorities) on a global scale. (p.	Talent management spans the employee lifecycle, from attracting and selecting employees to developing and retaining them (Scullion, Collings, and Caligiuri 2010; Stahl et al. 2012). (p. 1)
5	Singh & Singh (2015)	Also, talent management refers to the sourcing (finding talent); screening (sorting of qualified and unqualified applicants); selection (assessment/testing, interviewing, reference/background checking, etc., of applicants); on-boarding (offer generation/ acceptance, budging/ security, payroll, facilities, etc); retention (measures to keep the talent that contributes to the success of the organization); development (training, growth assignments, etc); deployment (optimal assignment of staff to project, lateral opportunities, promotion, etc) and renewal of the workforce with analysis and planning as the adhesive, over-arching ingredient (Schweyer, 2004; CIPD, 2006; Ehsan et al., 2014). (p. 753). In other words, talent management is what occurs at the nexus of the hiring, development and workforce management process and can be described alternatively as talent optimization. It is managing the entire employee life cycle, leadership development, succession planning and so on (Delong and Trautman, 2010). (p. 753). Thus, talent management is all about formulating successful talent strategies (Sears, 2003). (p. 753).Thus, it is the systematic cycle of planning, execution, and evaluation to manage the flow of talent into, through, and out of the organization to achieve goals and meet needs. (p. 753)	hunting, acquiring, developing and retaining best talent (p. 751) In a nutshell talent management rests on the four pillars; viz. recruitment management, performance management, learning management and compensation management. (p. 753)
6	Thunnissen (2016)	TM is often described as the systematic attraction, identification, development, engagement/retention and deployment of talents (e.g. Scullion et al., 2010) (p. 58)	Selection and recruitment, and Development, performance and promotion practices (p. 65-66)

Source : part of Study Daruka &Padar (2019)

Furthermore, with a process-based TM model with technological developments, globalization, and demographic changes as macro-environmental factors, strategy, HRM role and HRM strategy, organizational structure and culture, leadership attitude, central

areas of activity, location and country and career opportunities as organizational factors, may influence all TM activities. Some researchers from (M Mousa et al., 2021) stated that there are three schools of thought on talent management. The first school of thought considers talent management as an active part of traditional HRM practices focusing on selecting, developing, and retaining employees with superior performance. The second stream states that with an inclusive approach that treats all administrative staff as having Talent and prioritizes a detailed set of competencies for them to understand and practice, this talent management is a rebranding for the concept of HRM. The third has an exclusive approach that narrows the scope of training, support, and organizational learning.

Talent Management of Academic

Academic long-term development contributed to knowledge competence and professional identity. (Martin et al., 2022) consider academics as talented personnel because they have unique competencies and abilities that can be utilized to advance their university and society. In general, TM practice in universities worldwide has been based on a collegial system in which the power of hiring professors rests with academic staff.

In their investigations of TM approaches in Iran, (Moghtadaie & Taji, 2016) found that talent development, attraction, and maintenance have respective ratings within academia that influence culty performances. From Study (R N Musakuro, 2022), there are five key functions related to talent management, explaining the various but interrelated functions of the talent management system, namely:

Planning & Workforce planning

The planning stage includes determining TM strategy, aligning with business strategy, environmental analysis, and talent success profiles to ensure that the right organizational goals are prioritized; workforce planning is a process that involves the development and practical implementation of action plans to have people - competent people in the organization.

Talent Acquiring (TA).

Acquiring in TM includes processes that focus on attracting, recruiting, selecting, and hiring talent Organizations in attracting talent need to use what is called Employee value proposition (EVP), which is a series of traits and rewards so that talented individuals are attracted to remain in the organization (Bussin, 2014). EVP has the potential to augment and strengthen an employer's brand because it reflects the desired state of the organization concerning the desired strategic goals and culture.

Talent Development (TD)

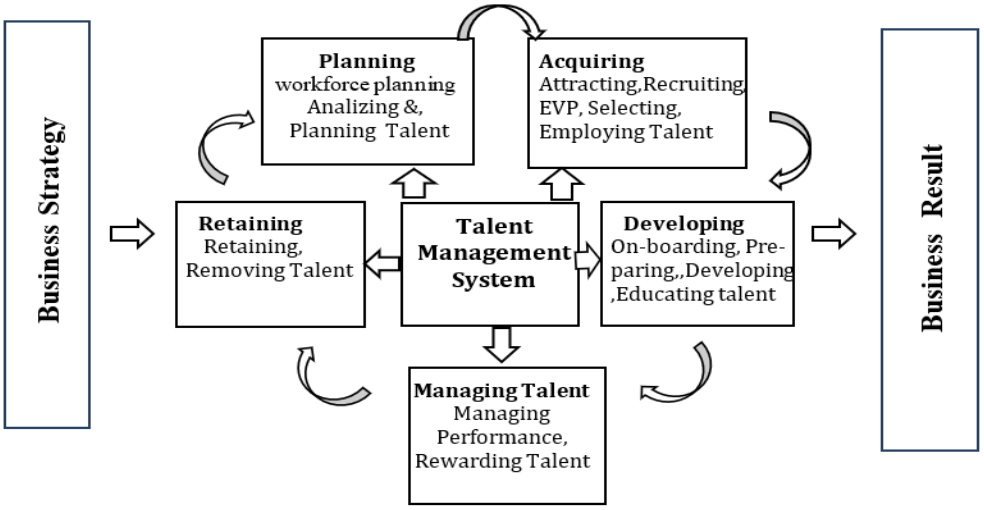
The methods include training, development, career management, coaching, mentoring, and succession planning. This short-term training will improve skills, competencies, and attitudes that will improve organizational performance through their work (Erasmus, BJ, Schenk, HW, 2014). Career management is an important component in developing Talent. Mentoring is also a method of developing employees, especially new staff members. It can be described as the ongoing support a senior employee (mentor) provides to a less experienced employee (mentee). Succession planning is an effort to predict leadership requirements, identify candidate pools, and develop and improve leadership competencies through planned organizational programs.

Managing Talent

Managing Talent within the organization can be used in performance management, compensation, and reward management practices. Its broad definition suggests that it involves aligning organizational strategy and individual goals. Compensation is the real monetary and non-monetary incentives the company provides employees as a reward for their work. On the other hand, extrinsic rewards consist of direct, indirect, and non-financial rewards (Zheng et al., 2009).

Talent Retention (TR)

Talent retention includes several initiatives employers use to retain employees (Bussin, 2014). suggests that to retain key employees, employers need to develop a retention strategy focusing on the following core things: attractive compensation packages, a conducive and enjoyable work environment, and adequate training and development programs to enable employees to grow and develop. In addition, organizations must articulate talent management ideology, accountability aspects, governance issues, and measurement of talent management processes (Bussin, 2014; Meyer, 2016; R N Musakuro, 2022). The author summarizes these five functions related to TM, which can be described as follows:



Bibliometric Analysis

Bibliometrics has focused on the quantitative analysis of citations and citation counts, which are complex. The key concepts in bibliometrics are output and impact, measured through publications and citations. The bibliometric method has been used to map strategic management fields, disciplines, fields, specializations, and the interrelationships of individual papers to one another, enabling researchers to base their findings on bibliographical datasets produced by other scientists working in the field who express their opinions through citations. , collaboration, and writing. Scientific mapping combines classification and visualization (Zupic & Čater, 2015)(Zupic & Čater, 2015). The aim is to represent the structure of the research area by partitioning elements (documents, authors, journals, or) into distinct groups. Visualization is used to create a visual representation of the classification that appears. MB uses easily accessible online databases with citation data (for example, Thomson Reuters Web of Science [WOS], which contains the Social Sciences Citation Index [SSCI] and SCI data) and software for performing analysis, such as BibExcel.

The data set results are analyzed, and insights about field structure, social networks, and topical interests can be proposed. Bibliometric analysis is growing rapidly and will trigger the growth of research and new knowledge. The main use of the bibliometric method is to analyze individual and institutional research & publication performance and map science to reveal the structure and dynamics of scientific fields (Cobo, Lo'pez-Herrera, Herrera-Viedma, & Herrera, 2011a). The bibliometric method works with quantitative rigor in the subjective evaluation of the literature.

The Workflow for scientific mapping has five steps presented in Figure 2: First, it is very important to note that the right bibliometric method depends on the accuracy of the method chosen so that it can answer the research. So in this first step, the researcher must define the research question and choose the right bibliometric method to answer the question. Second, the researcher must establish a bibliometric data database, filter the core document set, and export the data from the selected database. This second process flow sometimes requires creating your database. Third, using bibliometric software for analysis. Researchers can write filtering computer code to complete this step so that these bibliometric results can be further analyzed with statistical software to identify subgroups of documents that represent research specialties. Fourth, the researcher must determine which visualization method to use to answer the research objectives. Fifth is interpretation, explaining, and finding the appropriate purpose of the first step.

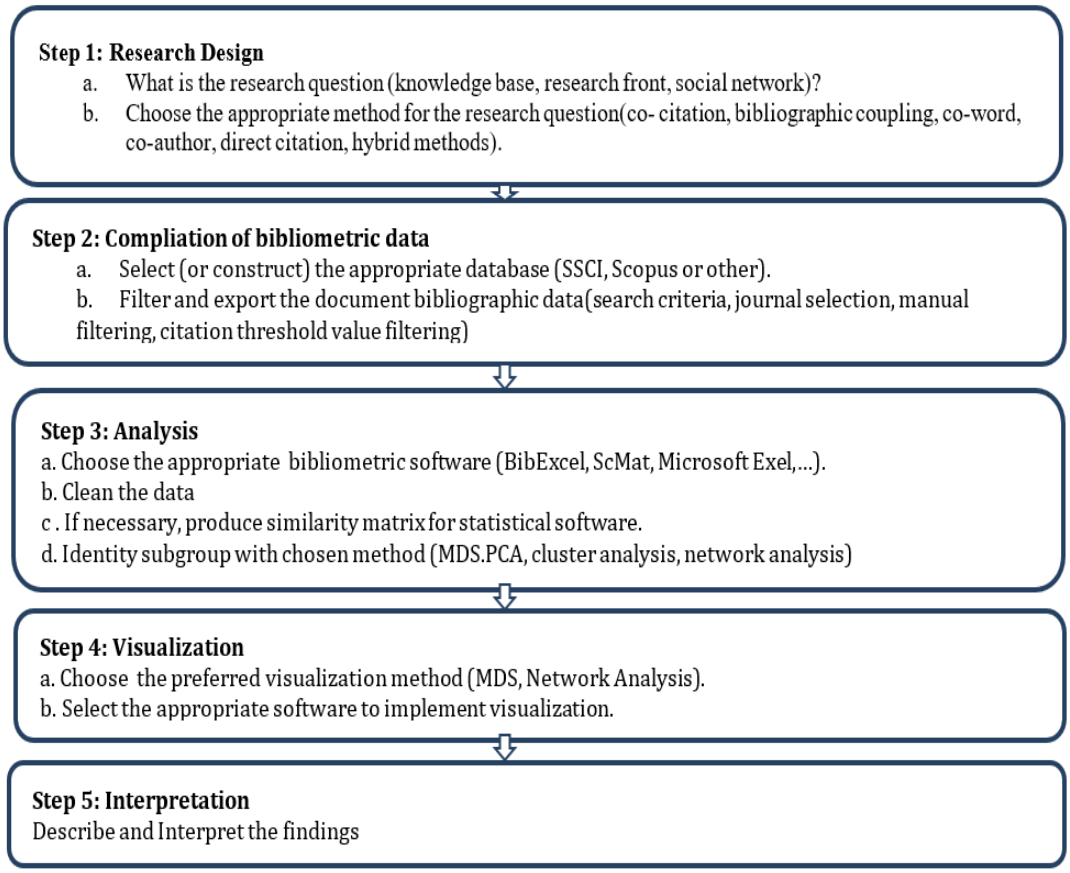


Figure 2: Steps bibliometric analysis (Source: Zupic & Čater, 2015**)**

Methodology

To collect the processes related to TM in this research, the steps are as follows:

1. Collect and organize article databases using Publish or Perish (PoP) software with conditions set in Table 1. The selected articles were published in the Scopus database (Adams, n.d.). The collection resulted in 48 article titles and citations: 481. The results of this search can be seen in Table 1. The results of searching for article titles, authors/'s, citations, and publishers can be seen in Appendix A. The results of article titles are then saved in RIS data and are equipped with an abstract of the article. The article database in RIS is set with the help of Mendeley, which is a reference manager application to help ease further analysis. Table 2 shows the results of analyzing the targeted articles from the Scopus Database using PoP on October 10, 2022**.**

Table 2: Results of the collection of articles using PoP

			Citation metrics
Scopus search		Publication Years	2008-2022
Authors	-	Citation Years	14(2008-2022)
Affiliations	-	Papers	48
Publication name	Journal	Citations	481
Title words	Talent	Cites/Year	34.36
Keyword	Talent Management Higher Education	Cites/paper	10.02
		Authors/paper	1.00

Source : Results from article collections with Publish or Perish V. 8, October 2022

2. Bibliometric analysis. Of the 48 articles consisting of titles, authors/'s, and abstracts, a quantitative bibliometric analysis was carried out with the stages seen in Figure 2. The Bibliometric Analysis used VOSViewer (VV), a computer program to map bibliometric knowledge visually (Van Eck & Waltman, 2017). VOS stands for Visualization of Similarities. VOSViewer supports four basic bibliographic data files: Scopus, Dimension, and Pubmed. In addition, VOSViewer can also read RIS, Endnote, and RefWorks formats. Using the API feature, VOSViewer can also read data from Crosserff, Pubmed, PMC, Semantic Scholar, OCC< COCI, and Wikidata. VOSviewer is a software tool for constructing and visualizing bibliometric networks. This Bibliometric analysis will provide information focused on the relevant items with TM.

Several types of analysis in VosViewer (VV) are:

- **Co-authorship**, analyzing the author's collaboration with other authors. The analysis will visualize results by author name, organization, or country of origin. **Co-occurrence** displays a visualization of the network between keywords—co-citation links references used by others. Bibliographic Coupling connects observed documents based on references. There are two calculation methods used by VV: full and fractional counting. Full counting will count as is, while the number of co-authors influences fractional in a document being tested. If the data you want to read is part of the Title or Abstract, then VV will cut the words in the title/abstract and then visualize the relationship between the pieces of words/terms.
- **VosViewer Visualization** – There are three kinds of visualization views in VV:

Network, overlay, and density visualization. The network will show the network between visualized terms. The network between terms with thick lines means the relationship is getting stronger. The overlay will show traces of research history, while density will show the density/emphasis on the research group. Density can be used to see parts of research that are rarely done. On the right panel, the VV application sets up several visualization features. For example, weight settings can be selected based on links, occurrence, number of documents, etc. Choice of labels using circles or frames, font settings, and max length (to set how many characters will appear in each circle/frame. Figure 3 shows the steps taken in this investigation.

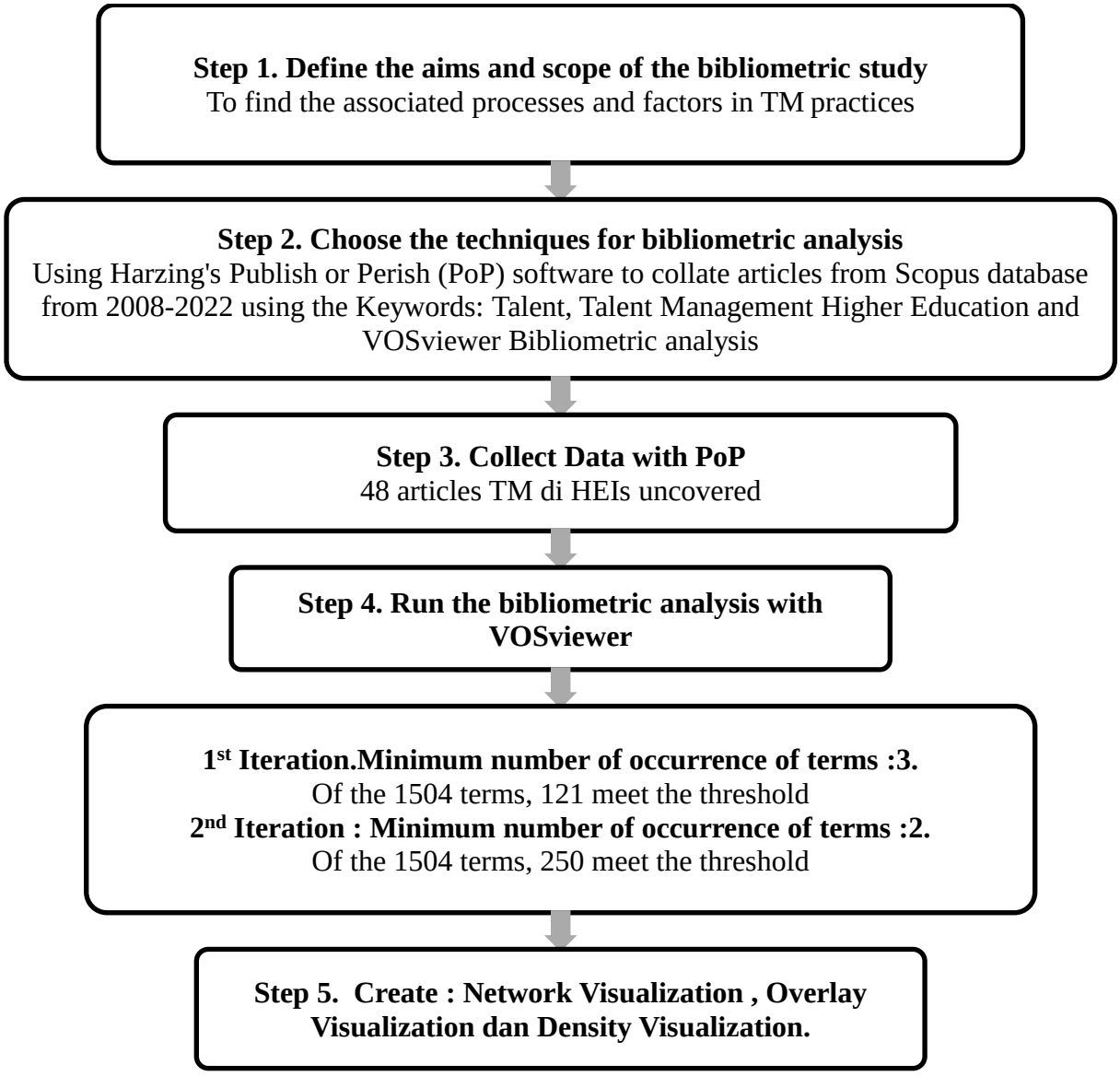


Figure 3: Steps in Bibliometric Analysis using the software *VOSviewer*

As for this research, Figure 3 uses two iterations, namely the first iteration. The minimum number of occurrences of terms: is 3, meaning that VV will issue items that are found to be repeated three times or more. While the second iteration is an item with a minimum number of occurrence of terms: 2, meaning that the VV will issue the items found mentioned two times.

Researchers did this to capture items more related to Talent Management following research objectives, and because the articles collected from 2008-2022, for 14 years, received 48 articles.

While the PoP and VOSViewer results are here, interpretations are given under the paragraph 'Interpretations' to help understand these results. VOSViewer functioned according to the limitations set by the authors, such as iteration 1 was decided to include a minimum number of occurrence of terms: 3. This means that items with a power of three times would appear. The bigger the occurrence indicates that the items frequently appear. Term 3 resulted in 1504 terms, where 121 met the threshold. In this research, iteration was done twice using VV with terms set to 3 and 2. It is to gather more TM-relevant items and ignore the association power, according to this study's aim.

RESULTS OF BIBLIOMETRIC ANALYSIS OF TALENT MANAGEMENT

From the analysis using VosViewer, iteration 1, using three (3) occurrences, means that the terms appear three times more, resulting in three clusters, each producing items related to Talent Management, which can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3: VOSviewer Iteration 1 with three occurrences. Results with three clusters and 73 items from 48 published articles indexed by the Scopus database

3 Cluster, 73 items	**Resulting in keyword items that emerge and having inter-relationships**
Cluster1 (30 items)	addition, article, **China, cultivation, education**, effect, example, experience, **expertise**, factor, future, growth, impact, industry**, knowledge**, law, **leader, Malaysia,** model, part, perspective, **policy,** program, quality, **requirement, role, skill**, student, survey, year.
Cluster 2 (25 items)	**academic talent**, challenge, **compensation**, evidence, hand, **HEI, higher education sector, human resource**, implication, measure, insight, **orientation, South African Higher education, succession planning, talent acquisition, talent management practices, workforce planning,** main finding, hand, **value, selection**, **performance management, leadership development**.
Cluster 3 (18) items)	**Academic staff, Academics**, attribute, author, case study, concept, methodology, empirical study, originality, **value**, perception, practical implication, qualitative study, **talent management process, teaching**, theme, **total value**, view.

Source : output bibliometric with VosViewer

In Table 3, the Talent Management items are bolded. Regarding graphic output VOS Viewer with the occurrence, three can be shown in Network Visualization (Figure 4). It can be seen which items TM processes and TM practices are related to. Bold lines indicate strong associations (Figure 5). Overlay Visualization for Talent Management illustrated the emerging articles based on year (e.g., yellow means 2022) (Figure 6)). Item Density visualization illustrated an overview of the number of relevant research studies for each item. The bright yellow color in Figure 6 indicates a high volume of research on that specific item. Explanations for the following figure are given in Table 4.

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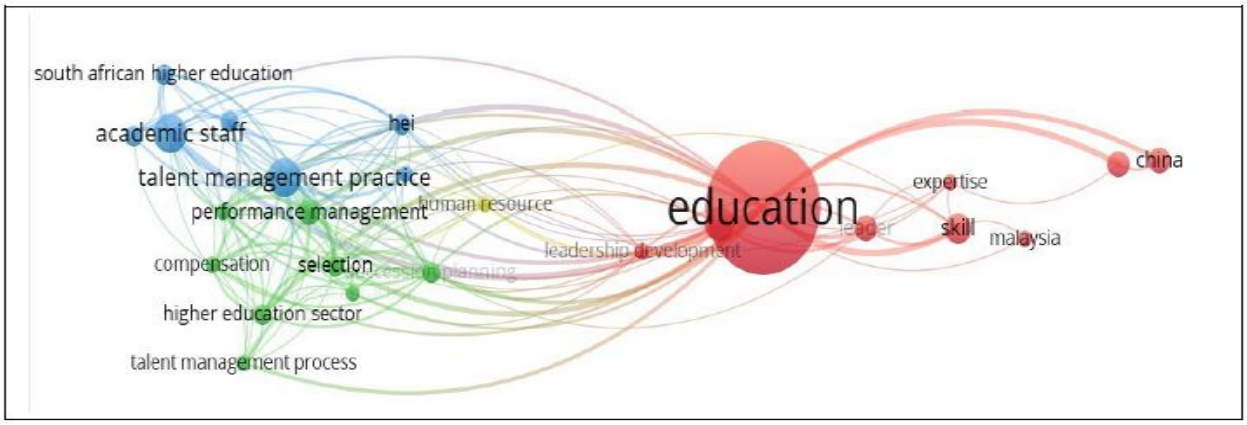


Figure 4: Network Visualization for TM

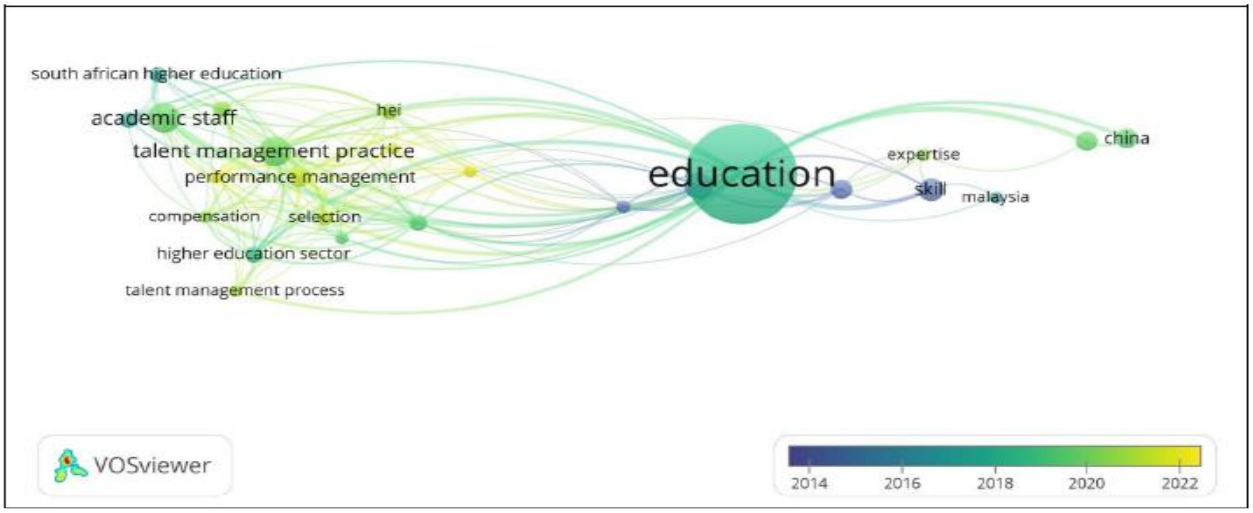


Figure 5: Overlay Visualization for Talent Management

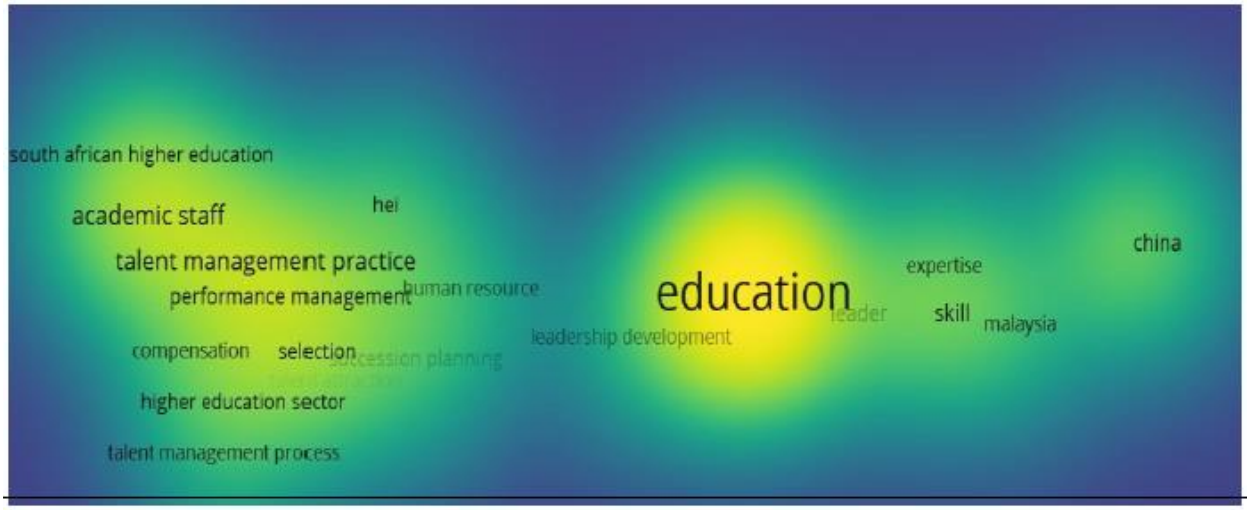


Figure 6: Item Density Visualization for Talent Management

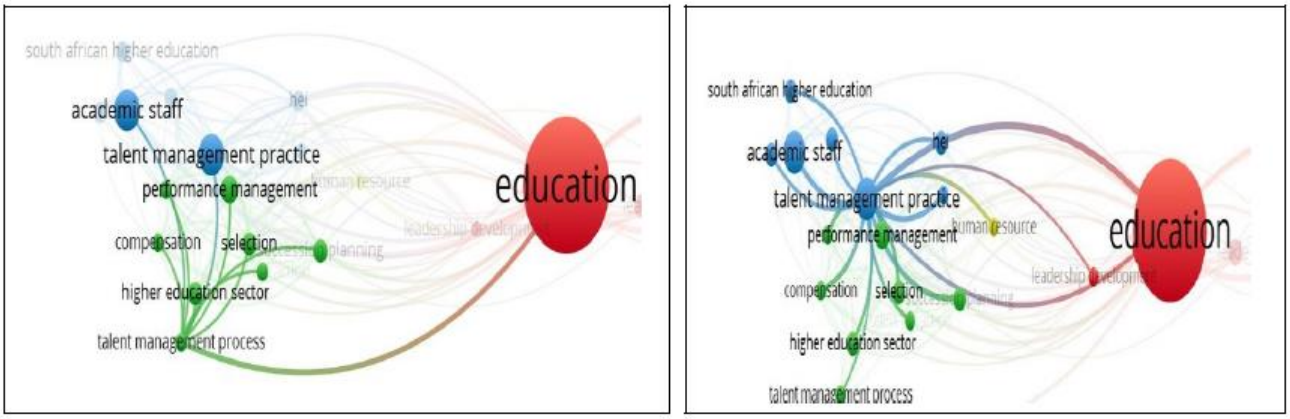


Figure 7: Network Visualization from TM Process and TM practice (iteration 2)

To complete and determine all TM-related items in HEI, we did two iterations to yield two occurrences, i.e., that appear twice in the Abstract and the Title of the article. Two hundred items are found meeting this case.

The results of the Network Visualization are as follows:

Table 4: VOSViewer iterations with two occurrences. Results with 6 clusters and 200 items from 48 published articles indexed by the Scopus database that relate to TM

6 Cluster, 200 items	Results from the Keyword or items related to TM
Cluster1 (56 items)	Ability, cultivation, human resource management, India, Malaysia, management ability, school education, skill, talent pool, talent war.
Cluster 2 (49 items)	academic staff, compensation, hei, higher education institution, higher education management, higher education sector, human capital index, performance management, reward, selection, south african higher education, succession planning, talent management practice, talent retention, workforce planning
Cluster 3 (18) items)	Academic staff, Academics, talent management process
Cluster 4 (24 items)	Leader, leadership, leadership development, talent development
Cluster 5(23 items)	Australian Higher Education, human resource, talent acquisition, talent attraction, talent attraction, talent management process
Cluster 6(18 items)	Academic talent, performance, western country

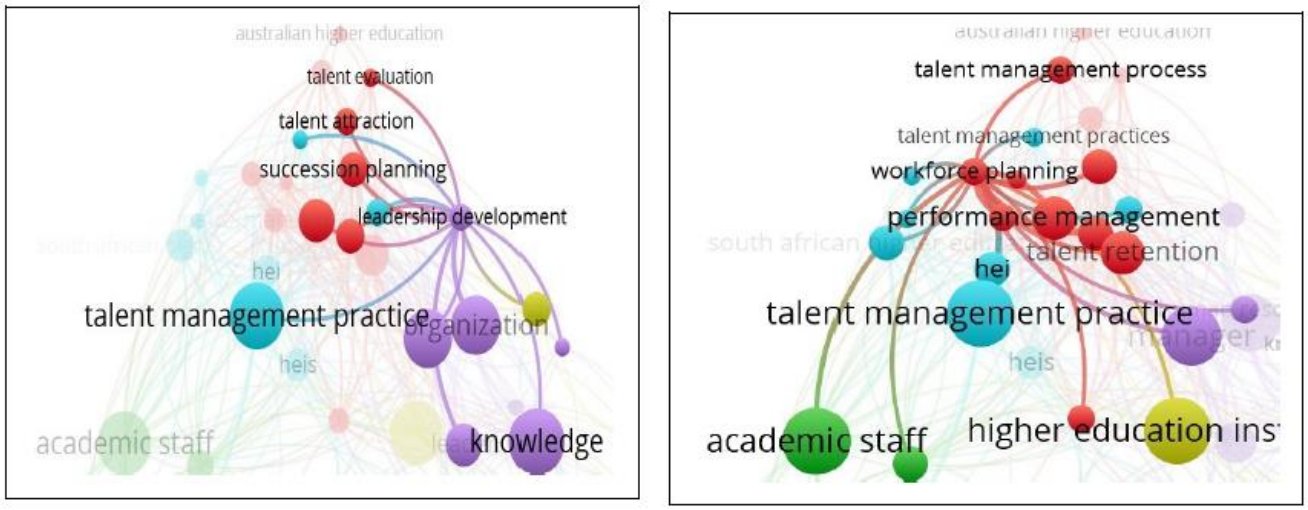


Figure 8: Network Visualization from Leadership Development and workforce planning

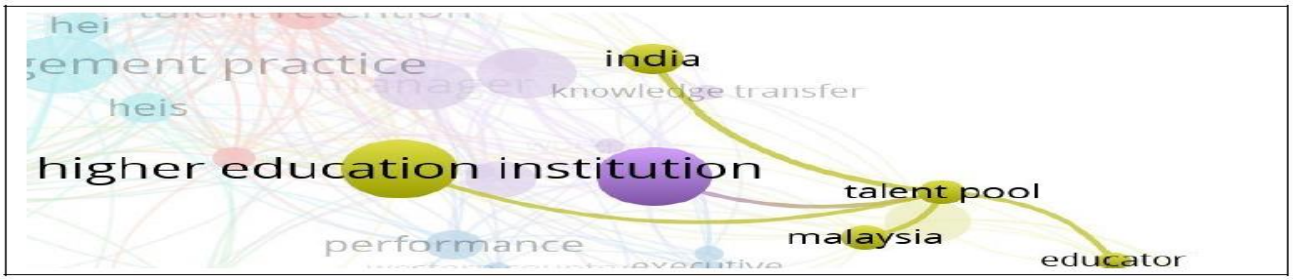
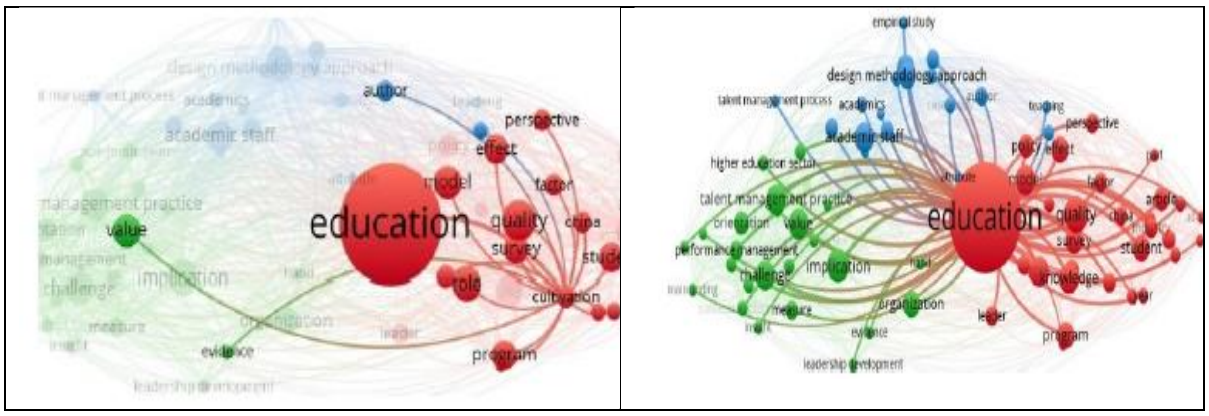


Figure 9: Network Visualization from Talent Pool (iteration 2)



`Figure 10: Network Visualization from Cultivation and Education

The interpretations of the above figures are explained in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Interpretation of Figure 4-10 based on quantitative bibliometric analysis.

Interpretations based on the quantitative bibliometric analysis and scrutiny of the publications from their Titles and Abstracts with iteration 1 and 2
Figure. 4 Network Visualization (NWV) for TM Process
NWV iteration 1 with occurrence 3 shows that TM Process and TM Practice have a network with items performance management, selection, compensation, academic staff, higher education sector dan succession planning, leadership development.
Figure 5: Overlay Visualization for TM Process and TM Practice4
Here, the TM Processes and TM Practices are superimposed to see any particular hitherto unseen characteristics that would not have been able to be observed. Clearly, observing from the Green cluster TM Processes are dominated by the color Yellow. This indicates that in 2020 there are more publications among other items. While the Green color of this cluster show that its publications or research is quantitatively less such as compensation, academic staff, higher education sector, performance management, selection.
Figure 6: Item Density visualization
Currently, TM is less discussed in publications perhaps due to the dearth of research (the color is green) although Talent Development is more often mentioned.
Figure 7 : Network Visualization from TM Process and TM practice
From Talent Management Process having a network with higher education sector, compensation, selection, performance management, academic staff . human resource, succession planning and leadership development South African Higher Education.
Figure 8 : Network Visualization from Leadership Development and workforce planning
From both above items having network with talent management practice, talent management process succession planning, talent attraction, talent evaluation, Australian higher education. Meanwhile, the workforce planning items have a relationship with talent management practice, higher education institutions, talent retention, talent attraction, performance management, talent management process, academics.
Figure 9 : Network Visualization from talent pool
From talent pool having a network with educator, Malaysia, higher education institution, India, performance, Western Country, leadership.
Figure 10: Network Visualization from cultivation dan education
From item cultivation not having any direct relationship with item Talent Management, but having a strong network with education, quality, value. While education having a strong network with leadership development , performance management, higher education sector, academics. Therefore, it can be argued that this items cultivation can be an opportunity for new research to be related to Higher Education dan Talent Management .
The 48 articles, countries involved in the first and second iterations investigated include South Africa, China, Malaysia, India, Egypt, Australia, and some other western countries. Based on the iteration with 2 occurences, succession planning and human capital index have relationships with talent management process, talent attraction, Australian higher education, talent management practice, academic, staff, talent retention, performance management.

From the PoP Database, Total articles and citations per annum are shown as follows:

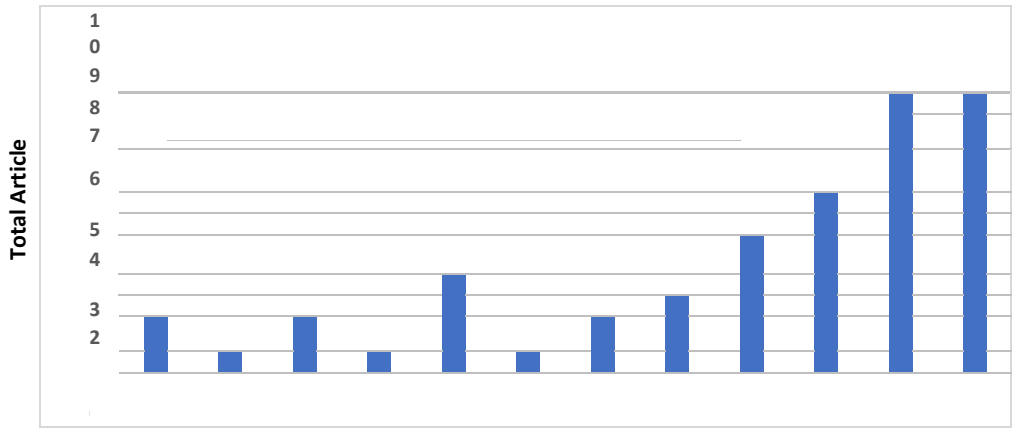


Figure 11: Total Number of Relevant Articles published per annum

Total citations are shown below:

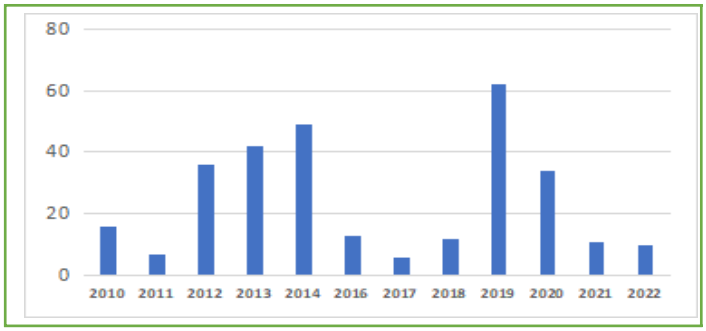


Figure 12: Total Number of Relevant Citations per Year

Following the aim of this study to identify a strong or less strong relationship between the TM process and TM practice from 48 articles, bibliometric analysis results with Vosiewer both occurrences 2 and 3, based on Table 5 and from Figure 2 to Figure 10, the items that related to TM are:

Table 6: From Bibliometric analysis of processes related to TM

Workforce planning	Talent Development	Compensation,
Talent Aquisition	Succession planning	Leadership Development
Talent Attraction	Performance Management	Higher education institution
Reccruitment	Talent Pool	Academics.
Selection	Reward	Human Resource
Talent Evaluation	Cultivation	Value
Talent Retention	Expertise, Skill	Orientation
Human capital index	South Africa	China
Malaysia	India	Egypt
Egypt	Australia	Western countries.

Source : Research data

The number of articles on TM in HE tends to increase, although small, while citations from year to year vary. From Figure 4, the overlay shows a historically increasing number of research on TM in HE, although the absolute number is still small. Figure 5 also shows that the density of items is still sparse, although the bright yellow color well indicates a trend of increase. In qualitative analysis, TM management can be explained in the discussion below.

Discussion

Academics Talent & Talent Management

However, in academia, the concept of Talent is often associated with metric indicators such as quality of research, number of publications, and number of citations, innovative teaching, requiring a teacher to have self-efficacy in areas such as student engagement and classroom management 8.

1) As individuals who can make a difference in organizational performance either through their direct contribution or in the long term by demonstrating the highest level of potential (Barkhuizen, 2014; Mohamed Mousa et al., 2022; Saurombe & Barkhuizen, 2022).
2) As technologically literate, globally astute, and operationally agile (i.e., the best and brightest players in the top 10% to 20% of organizations), these top peoples usually have 10-20% of all employees.
3) Individuals with the skills, knowledge, intelligence, right attitude, character, and drive to learn and grow demonstrate the highest potential to make a difference in organizational performance through their direct or long-term contribution (Fitzgerald, 2014).

From the definitions above of Talent, it can be concluded that Talent contains a series of competencies to produce superior performance so that individuals can make a difference, including individuals as academics in HE. "A competency is an underlying characteristic of an individual that causally related to criterion-referenced effective and/or superior performance in a job or situation (Lyle M. Spencer, Jr, 1993)

Competency Development

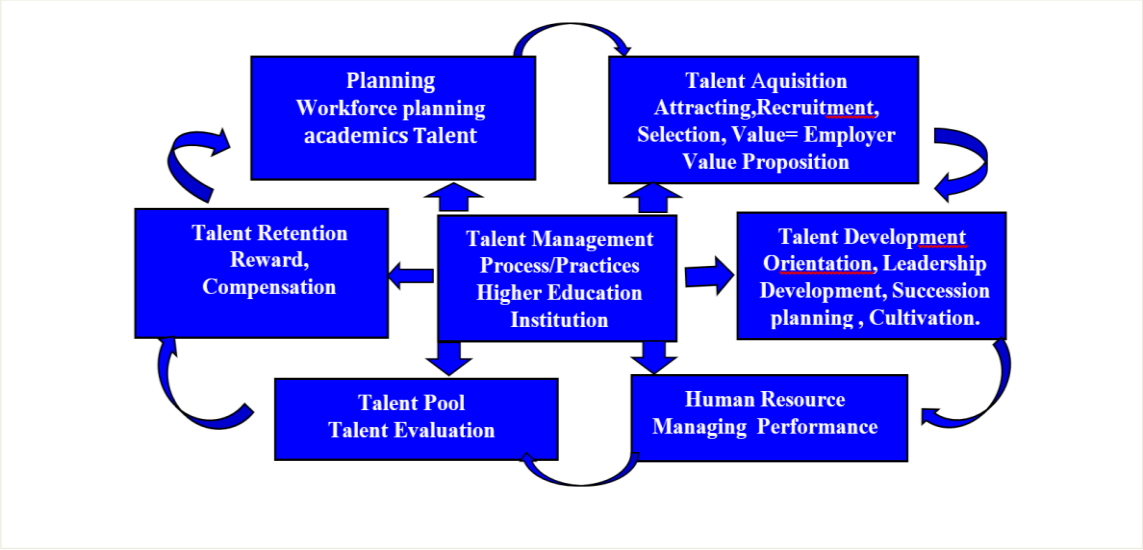


Figure 13: Model Talent Management Process/Practices of Academic in Higher Education Institutions

One of the benefits of competency through a behavioral approach to Talent is that we enter into the realm of human Talent, which can be developed in adulthood. Competency with behavior approach can be used as an instrument in Managing Talent for academics**.** Competencies and intelligence as behavioral manifestations of Talent (Boyatzis & Ratti, 2009). From the results of TM research with bibliometric analysis, based on Table 6, Talent Management for academics in Higher Education can be developed, shown in Figure 13.

The results clearly showed that the following are involved:

Planning -Workforce Planning (WP) involves planning talent actions or, more precisely, creating a talent management strategy, clarifying the roles and competencies needed by the organization, and planning the number of employees or academic needs (R N Musakuro, 2022) This has to be linked to the HEI's Vision, Specificity, and development path.

Talent Acquisition (TA) management must tread carefully to attract, recruit, select, and employ talented people without losing people already in the system. A successful procedure is when recruits and incumbents can strengthen Talent (Bussin, 2014; R N Musakuro, 2022). In attracting HE Talent, it is necessary to have a policy regarding the Employer Value Proposition, which is a series of traits, awards that include intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, values, and ethical culture that can make talented prospective employees or employees interested (Rudhumbu & Maphosa, 2015) and stay in the organization (Bussin, 2014; R N Musakuro, 2022). The TA process is closely related to Workforce planning. Value or affirmed is an Employer Value Proposition. It is a new thing in HEI. The Employee Value Proposition (EVP) in this study is academics. EVP consists of factors that academics receive in return for their work. While it consists of compensation and benefits, it also includes topics such as work-life balance and well-being. Organizations need to offer this value, and a balanced EVP will be able to attract and retain academic Talent.

Talent Development involves identifying staff talent deficiencies and exploring ways to address them. This may include training, upskilling, reskilling, career management, coaching, mentoring, and succession planning, cultivation. It must be said here that training is not only to address current deficiencies but also to prepare academics for the still unknown future needs. Training is filling the competence gap between needs and existing ones to improve performance in their work, even though it is short-term (R N Musakuro, 2022). Succession Planning for academics, Upskilling and Reskilling. Change is inevitable. The world of HEI is changing. Jobs change. Organizations want to think beyond the current job vacancy and plan for the future. This section focuses on identifying and designing academic development opportunities, including their level of advancement, starting from assistant professors, associate professors, and even emeritus who can still work. HEI is an institution that can be referred to as a "Knowledge Enterprise," and academic workers are referred to as " Knowledge workers," so Academics as Knowledge Workers are talented academics (Kusumastuti& Indriani 2020).

Hanover Research Council (2010) considers academics talented because they have the competence to advance their universities and communities and even continue the HEI itself. Drucker (2001) asserts that academics fall into the 'gold workers' category because their jobs are supervising students, researching, publishing, providing consulting services, and contributing to their university's academic ranking. Abu Said et al. (2015) also emphasized that

the work of an academic to increase the number of graduate students supports graduates; providing business consulting when necessary is a sufficient basis for classifying him as a "talented or elite member". Orientation is emphasized as an educational orientation process that requires a long time, so it is more accurately referred to as the Onboarding (OB) process. OBs can last several months, often up to a year, and are known to academics as a lecturer apprenticeship. This includes training and work experience, which helps them gain confidence in doing the job. as an academic.

Talent Retention includes initiatives to retain employees based on performance and recognized through compensation and other rewards. (Bussin, 2014) suggests that institutions must develop a retention strategy consisting of attractive compensation packages, training that makes employees grow, a conducive work environment, and career certainty.

Human Resource & Managing Performance

In general, organizations are familiar with HRM, which includes using performance management, reward management, and alignment of organizational strategy and individual goals with competency instruments as the basis for the process (Bussin, 2014, Musakuro, 2022). Human Resource Management has been recognized as a key consideration for ensuring organizational success. However, new types of employees can present challenges, especially for established organizations with little clue about their desires and personal satisfaction measures (D. Ulrich et al., 2012).

For example, in Talent Management for academics in Indonesia, MECRT has managed performance through the SISTER (Integrated Resource Information System) application system for all lecturer activities in call "Tri Dharma "or Trilogi in Higher Education and SINTA (Science and Technology Index) for publication activities and several citations. Each lecturer has a SINTA Score. And the government provides rewards for achieving this performance.

The new findings from the bibliometric results are related to Talent Cultivation in HEI so that further studies can be carried out. From Study Yuan Xul and Lei Guo (2022), talents are significant for "going global" enterprises in ASEAN countries. HEI is an incubator for talent production. HEI must move forward hand in hand. And a more recent trend is to apply higher education across borders to produce Talent skilled to the company's development skills requirements. Generally, individuals in the middle of cross-border higher education acquire new competencies, such as the language of Talent, not only retaining indigenous peoples' national identity and characteristics but also enhancing international understanding and experience of related cultures. Increasingly international HEI encourages more qualified Talent, e.g., in return, the contribution of human capital increases HEI's development rate across borders.

Implications

The results of this research study contribute to the advancement of theoretical knowledge and practice in Human Resource Management, namely Talent Management at HEI. From the model developed in Figure 13, theoretically, TM Management at HEI follows the concept of three TM schools of thought: First, TM is the dynamics of traditional HRM practices, which focus on the processes of selection, recruitment, development, and retaining. Second, TM is practiced with an inclusive approach that treats all administrative staff as having to rebrand

Talent for the HRM concept. Third, TM with an Exclusive approach that supports organizational learning only for high-performing employees(M Mousa et al., 2021). The next research findings of the TM model are shown in Figure 13, which can be tested for various HEI organizations with different cultural characteristics and HRM department authorities.

Conclusion

This TM study with bibliometric analysis offers a TM model of academics in HEI, with a general TM function linked to Workforce Planning, Talent Acquisition, Talent Development, Human Resource Management /Managing Talent, Talent Pool, and Talent Retention. This function consists of sub-functions shown in Figure 13. TM rarely discusses functions from various TM literature in HEI are sub-functions, such as the Employer Value Proposition, which will impact the engagement of academics in their institutions, Onboarding, Talent Pool, and Cultivation. With an appropriate TM model for HEI, it can be used to develop a TM Strategy that matches the core strategy of the institution and is useful for establishing policies in practicing TM so that there is clarity on the authority of the HRM department at HEI and the authority of academics. Furthermore, with the formation of a Talent Management System and university leadership aware of academic development, a New Generation of Talented Academics will be born who will contribute to university sustainability.

Acknowledgment

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References

APPENDIX 'A'

The result of collecting 48 articles with Publish or Perish

No	Cites.	Authors	Title	Year	Publisher
1	1	K.L. Anders	Fusion of leadership theory and practice: Use of SuperLeadership and talent management by administrator leaders in institutions of higher education	2008	IJ. of Interdisciplinary Sciences
2	182	P. Brown	Education, meritocracy and the global war for talent	2009	Journal of Education I
3	13	M.R. Peet	Generative knowledge interviewing: A method for knowledge transfer and talent management at the University of Michigan	2010	IJ. of Educational Advancement
4	3	R. Gupta	Entrepreneurial opportunities in indian talent pool management-a case of merittrac	2010	Asian Journal of Management Cases
5	7	M. Mpinganjira	Retaining Africa's talent: The role of Africa's higher education	2011	IJ. of Emerging Marke
6	24	Y. Shi	Talent management issues for multinational logistics companies in China: Observations from the field	2012	IJ. of Logistics Resear Applications
7	12	A. Levenson	Talent management: Challenges of building cross-functional capability in high-performance work systems environments	2012	Asia Pacific Journal o Human Resources
8	42	P. Ng	The global war for talent: Responses and challenges in the Singapore higher education system	2013	Journal of Higher Edu Policy and Manageme
9	22	B. Satiani	Talent management and physician leadership training is essential for preparing tomorrow's physician leaders	2014	Journal of Vascular Su
10	16	N. Barkhuizen	Talent management, work engagement and service quality orientation of support staff in a higher education institution	2014	Mediterranean Journal Social Sciences
11	10	N. Barkhuizen	Talent management of academics: Balancing job demands and job resources	2014	Mediterranean Journal Social Sciences
12	1	X. Tian	"Innovation and entrepreneurship" talents cultivation system construction in economic management discipline	2014	BioTechnology: An In Journal
13	13	N. Azman	Managing and mobilizing talent in Malaysia: issues, challenges and policy implications for Malaysian universities	2016	Journal of Higher Edu Policy and Manageme
14	6	S. Purawat	Biomedical Big Data Training Collaborative (BBDTC): An effort to bridge the talent gap in biomedical science and research	2017	Journal of Computatio Science
15	0	S. Maamor	Meeting the demand for global Islamic finance talents: Malaysian initiatives (1999-2014)	2017	IJ.of Economic Resear
16	7	R. Gandy	Talent management in higher education: is turnover relevant?	2018	European Journal of Training and Develop
17	4	D.L. Lesenyeho	Exploring the causal relationship between the antecedents and consequences of talent management for early career academics in South African higher education institutions	2018	SA Journal of Human Resource Managemen
18	1	B.A.M. Kamil	Talent development and retention from the bankers' perspectives: A study at Islamic Banks in Malaysia	2018	Journal of Social Scier Research
19	24	M. Mousa	Inclusive/exclusive talent management, responsible leadership and organizational downsizing: A study of academics in Egyptian public business schools	2019	Journal of Manageme Development
20-	16	M. Mousa	Talent management practices: perceptions of academics in Egyptian public business schools	2019	Journal of Manageme Development
21	13	S. Neri	Talent management in transnational higher education: strategies for managing academic staff at international branch campuses	2019	Journal of Higher Edu Policy and Manageme
22	7	S. Zhong	Inquiry and experiential mixed teaching method is effective way to cultivate high-quality innovative talents	2019	IJ. of Information and Education Technology
23	2	Y.H.H.M. Yusof	Development of multi-criteria tacit knowledge acquisition framework (Mc-tkaf) to support talent development intervention program in a Malaysian comprehensive university	2019	IJ. of Advanced Trend Computer Science and Engineering
24	19	K. Asplund	When profession trumps potential: The moderating role of professional identification in employees' reactions to talent management	2020	International Journal o Resource anagement
25	7	A.A. Mohammed	An examination of talent management processes in Australian higher education	2020	IJ. of Productivity and Performance Manager
26	4	M.D. Saurombe	A talent value proposition framework for academic staff in a South African HEI	2020	Journal of Global Busi and Technology
27	2	Y.H.H.M. Yusof	Multi Criteria Tacit Knowledge Acquisition Framework (MC-TKAF) using Fuzzy Delphi Method for supporting Talent Development Intervention Program in Malaysian Higher Education Institution	2020	Journal of Physics: Conference Series
28	1	S. Chaudhry	Talent management practices in service sector: Evidences from literature review	2020	IJ. of Pharmaceutical Research
29	1	A.A. Mohammed	Proposal of a guide for talent evaluation and management based on a qualitative and three-staged approach: A case of the higher education sector	2020	Journal of Applied Re in Higher Education

30	0	P.Dong	A drill - down approach towards talent supply scenario in sikkim	2020	Prabandhan: Indian Jc Management
31	9	A.M. Taamneh	Talent management and academic context: a comparative study of public and private universities	2021	EuroMed Journal of E
32	1	P. Brown	Higher education, graduate talent and the prospects for social mobility in china's innovation nation	2021	International Journal c Educational Research
33	1	R.N. Musakuro	Academic talent: Perceived challenges to talent management in the south african higher education sector	2021	SA Journal of Human Resource Managemer
34	0	X. Nie	The enlightenment of foreign MD-MPH double degree program to the cultivation of high-level applied public health talents in China	2021	Chinese Journal of Endemiology
35	0	W. Chen	Evaluation of Talent Cultivation Quality of Modern Apprenticeship Based on Context-Input-Process-Product Model	2021	IJ.of Emerging Techn in Learning
36	0	W. Yang	Research on the innovation ways of computer-assisted teaching and student management talent training model	2021	Journal of Physics: Cc Series
37	0	L. Deng	Research on the Application of Computer Network Technology in the Training of Talents in Vocational Education	2021	Journal of Physics: Cc Series
38	0	I.R. Mohamed Jais	Talent management in higher education institutions: Developing leadership competencies	2021	Journal of Education a Learning Research
39	0	Z. Huang	Talent recruitment analysis based on Chinese mainland public colleges and universities in perspective of occupation requirement	2021	Journal of Public Affa
40	5	M. Mousa	Why Him Not ME? Inclusive/Exclusive Talent Identification in Academic Public Context	2022	IJ.of Public Administı
41	2	M.D. Saurombe	Talent management practices and work-related outcomes for South African academic staff	2022	Journal of Psychology Africa
42	2	D. Pandita	Innovation in talent management practices: creating an innovative employer branding strategy to attract generation Z	2022	IJ.of Innovation Scien
43	1	L. Pham	'Value flows' between talent and their networks: a case study of international graduates working in Vietnam's emerging economy	2022	IJ. of Human Resourc Management
44	0	L. Yi	Construction and Index Analysis of Whole Chain Linkage Talent Training System Based on Fuzzy AHP Model	2022	Journal of Sensors
45	0	M. Bartrop-Sackey	Exploring the talent retention strategies of Cape Coast Technical University in Ghana	2022	SA Journal of Human Resource Managemer
46	0	R.N. Musakuro	A framework development for talent management in the higher education sector	2022	SA Journal of Human Resource Managemer
47	0	Z. Xu	Cultivation Path for Innovation Ability of Sci-Tech Talents in the Background of Big Data	2022	IJ.of Emerging Techn in Learning
48	0	T. Gerhardt	Talent management in private universities: the case of a private university in the United Kingdom	2022	IJ. of Educational Management

Interpretations based on the quantitative bibliometric analysis and scrutiny of the publications from their Titles and Abstracts with iteration 1 and 2
Figure. 4 Network Visualization (NWV) for TM Process
NWV iteration 1 with occurrence 3 shows that TM Process and TM Practice have a network with items performance management, selection, compensation, academic staff, higher education sector dan succession planning, leadership development.
Figure 5: Overlay Visualization for TM Process and TM Practice4
Here, the TM Processes and TM Practices are superimposed to see any particular hitherto unseen characteristics that would not have been able to be observed. Clearly, observing from the Green cluster TM Processes are dominated by the color Yellow. This indicates that in 2020 there are more publications among other items. While the Green color of this cluster show that its publications or research is quantitatively less such as compensation, academic staff, higher education sector, performance management, selection.
Figure 6: Item Density visualization
Currently, TM is less discussed in publications perhaps due to the dearth of research (the color is green) although Talent Development is more often mentioned.
Figure 7 : Network Visualization from TM Process and TM practice
From Talent Management Process having a network with higher education sector, compensation, selection, performance management, academic staff . human resource, succession planning and leadership development South African Higher Education.
Figure 8 : Network Visualization from Leadership Development and workforce planning
From both above items having network with talent management practice, talent management process succession planning, talent attraction, talent evaluation, Australian higher education. Meanwhile, the workforce planning items have a relationship with talent management practice, higher education institutions, talent retention, talent attraction, performance management, talent management process, academics.
Figure 9 : Network Visualization from talent pool
From talent pool having a network with educator, Malaysia, higher education institution, India, performance, Western Country, leadership.
Figure 10: Network Visualization from cultivation dan education
From item cultivation not having any direct relationship with item Talent Management, but having a strong network with education, quality, value. While education having a strong network with leadership development , performance management, higher education sector, academics. Therefore, it can be argued that this items cultivation can be an opportunity for new research to be related to Higher Education dan Talent Management .
The 48 articles, countries involved in the first and second iterations investigated include South Africa, China, Malaysia, India, Egypt, Australia, and some other western countries. Based on the iteration with 2 occurences, succession planning and human capital index have relationships with talent management process, talent attraction, Australian higher education, talent management practice, academic, staff, talent retention, performance management.

Online Co-Teaching in Higher Education: Prospects, Drawbacks, and the Way Forward

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ABSTRACT

Co-teaching occurs when two instructors share instruction planning, delivery, and assessment with students in a single physical space. This study aimed to investigate the impacts of online co-teaching on postgraduate student engagement, its drawbacks, and suggestions for improvement. A total of 26 postgraduate students completed an online questionnaire which consisted of closed and open-ended questions. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the responses to the close-ended questions—the analysis of open-ended questions involved coding and categorizing the codes into themes. The findings indicated the participants were cognitively, behaviourally, and emotionally engaged during the online co-teaching. They benefited from the richness of knowledge shared by the two instructors, effective classroom management, and implementation techniques of co-teaching models. The only drawback was the confusion caused by the co-teachers different opinions and ways of approaching students. This study provides suggestions for planning effective online co-teaching in classrooms.

Keywords: online, co-teaching, student engagement, benefits, challenges, suggestions

Introduction

The unprecedented Covid-19 pandemic has impacted 220 million students at tertiary institutions (UNESCO, 2021). Lockdowns in response to Covid-19 led to worldwide school closures, including higher education institutions (HEIs) (Schleicher, 2020). In Malaysia, HEIs were closed when the government imposed a Movement Control Order (MCO) on 18th March 2020 (Tang, 2022). To ensure the continuity of education despite the lockdowns, most HEIs sought to offer online classes as a substitute for physical lessons (Schleicher, 2020). This endeavor was made possible with the advancement of web conferencing tools like Zoom, Google Meet, and Cisco Webex. The educators, on the other hand, had to adapt to the change in the mode of delivery and embrace new pedagogical concepts (Schleicher, 2020). UN News reports that teachers have been at the heart of the educational response to Covid-19 (United Nations, 2021), and one such response is online co-teaching.

Co-teaching is the practice of pairing teachers in a classroom where the teachers share the duties of planning, organizing, delivering, and assessing learning in a single physical space (Bacharach, Heck, & Dahlberg, 2018). Although co-teaching is widely practiced at the primary and secondary school level (Brendle, Lock, and Piazza, 2017; Caprio, 2019; Friend, Columbia & Clarke, 2014), its practice in tertiary education institutions has only recently started to gather acclaim (Kelly, 2018). Co-teaching allows faculty members with different expertise, diverse viewpoints, and teaching styles to share instruction, providing rich learning experiences for students. Co-teaching enables the continuation of collegial conversations and supportive relationships between Faculty that took place on-campus before Covid-19 closures. The nature of this collaboration allowed subject area experts to share scholarly resources and reduce the feeling of isolation that generally occurs in an online setting (Scribner-MacLean & Miller, 2011). Online co-teaching allows students to be continuously exposed to and enriched by different points of view and experience myriad pedagogical dimensions in terms of techniques and teaching methods (Kursch & Veteška, 2021).

The concept of online teaching at tertiary institutions during Covid-19 has been widely researched and reported (Schleicher, 2020; UNESCO, 2021). Most of these studies have centered on the impacts of online teaching on student learning, instructional methods adopted by teachers in an online setting, and the challenges teachers and students face. These studies were conducted in a silo-teaching context. The implementation and impact of online co-teaching on student learning during Covid-19 is under-researched. Although there are substantial studies conducted on co-teaching and the findings have shown that co-teaching improved student engagement (Ben-Eliyahu, Morre, Dorph & Schunn, 2018; Clancy, 2022; Lochner, Murawski & Daley, 2019), all of these studies were conducted in a physical learning context and not in an online learning context. The impact of online co-teaching on student engagement remains unclear. Thus, the first objective of this study was to investigate the impact of online co-teaching on postgraduate student engagement during Covid-19 in a Malaysian higher education institution.

Caprio (2019) argued that most of the studies related to co-teaching were conducted on teachers. These studies focused on investigating instructors co-teaching lived experiences in higher education, their mentoring practices, and their opinions on the impacts of co-teaching on their professional development (Cordie, Brecke, Lin, & Wooten, 2020; Lock, Clancy, Lisella, Rosenau, Ferreira, & Rainsburry, 2016). It is necessary to let students have a voice in expressing

their opinions on classroom practice, including co-teaching (Caprio, 2019). Moreover, co-teaching in higher education, especially for postgraduate students, is less prevalent (Bacharach et al., 2018; Harter & Jacobi, 2018). Therefore, the study's second objective was to explore postgraduate students' views on the benefits and differences compared to silo teaching, drawbacks, and suggestions for improvement regarding this practice. Two research questions were formulated to guide this study:

1. Research Question 1: How does online co-teaching impact postgraduate student engagement?
2. Research Question 2: What are the postgraduate students' perceptions of online co-teaching in terms of the benefits of online co-teaching, differences between co-taught and non-co-taught lessons, drawbacks of online co-teaching, and suggestions for improving online co-teaching?

Literature Review

This section will review the literature concerning the study's framing, as illustrated in Figure 1.

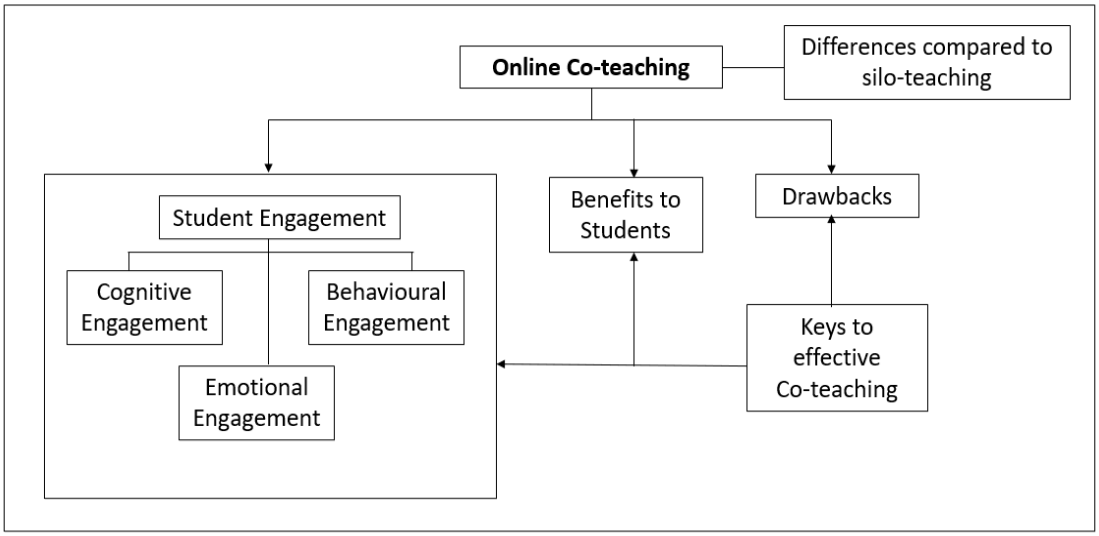

Figure 1. Framing of the study

The following sections present the key literature review that elaborates and supports the framing of this study. The literature review covers co-teaching models, impacts of co-teaching on student engagement, benefits of co-teaching, challenges, and keys to effective online co-teaching.

Co-teaching Models

Co-teaching is grounded in social constructivism, emphasizing the importance of social interaction, collaboration, and shared experiences in meaning-making. It is commonly related to apprenticeship, involving a collaborative partnership between experienced and novice teachers to improve student learning outcomes (Friend et al., 2014). A research synthesis found

seven co-teaching models (Bacharach et al., 2018; Badiali & Titus, 2010; Keeley, 2015; Keeley, Brown, & Knapp, 2017).

The "One Teach/ One Observe" model is called mentor modeling. This model is adequate for novice teachers as it provides an orientation to mentoring's instructional strategies. This model can be carried out in two ways. First, the novice observes a mentor's teaching and has a reflective conversation with the mentor about classroom teaching. Second, the mentor observes the novice teacher and provides feedback to help the novice improve their instructions. The third model is the "One Teach/ One Assist" or "One Teach/ One Drift" model. This model allows one teacher to focus on a large group of students while another monitors student progress and provides necessary support to individual students. In station teaching, students develop specific knowledge and skills when they visit each station. This model allows teachers to design various activities to cater to students' learning preferences.

In the fourth model, Parallel Teaching, the class is split into two groups. Each co-teacher teaches the same content to their assigned groups. The fifth model is Supplement Teaching, which allows one teacher to work with the whole class to help them achieve the intended learning outcomes. In comparison, one teacher works with students who need remedial education or extended resources. In Team Teaching or Synchronous Team, co-teachers share the same responsibility, presenting the same content and building on each other's ideas. The last model is the Alternative Teaching model. In this model, co-teachers differentiate the content or teaching approaches based on students' diverse learning needs. This model can happen in two ways. First, co-teachers modify the curriculum according to the student's progress. Second, two teachers teach the same content using different teaching methods to achieve the same learning outcomes.

Clancy (2022) categorized these seven models into two broader categories: (a) model with one lead teacher (i.e., one teach-one assist, one teach-one observe, and one teach-one monitor) and (b) model with co-teachers lead together. The models under the same category shared similar advantages and disadvantages, as shown in Table 1 (Bacharach et al., 2018; Badiali & Titus, 2010; Caprio, 2019; Clancy, 2022; Keeley, 2015; Lindgren, 2021).

Table 1. Advantages and Disadvantages of the Seven Co-teaching Models

Category	Co-teaching model	Advantages	Disadvantages
The model with one lead teacher	One Teach/One Observe	-Less interruption for other students and teachers -More eyes on students to identify and address their needs	Limit students' opportunities to benefit from the expertise and support of the other co-teacher
	One Teach/ One Assist		
The model with co-teachers leading together	Station Teaching	-Allow teachers to differentiate instructions based on students' learning needs	Requires extensive time planning and collaborating from both co-teachers. A healthy and mutual relationship is required based
	Parallel Teaching	- Students receive more attention from their teachers -Small group is more manageable	
	Supplement Teaching	Allow teachers to differentiate instructions based on students' learning needs.	

	Team Teaching	Capitalizes on two teachers' expertise and instructional strategies.	on trust and willingness to give and receive feedback.
	Alternative Teaching	Allow teachers to differentiate instructions based on students' learning needs.	

Benefits of Co-teaching

Numerous studies have highlighted the benefits of co-teaching for student learning (Bacharach et al., 2018; Boland, Alkhalifa, & Al-Mutairi, 2019; Caprio, 2019; Eschete, 2015; Holbrook, 2017). Co-teachers can leverage their strengths to provide students with diverse experiences and content knowledge. This can lead to variations in instructional materials, homework, and teaching styles that benefit students (Caprio, 2019; Gillespie & Israetel, 2008; Gokbulut, Akcamete, & Guneyli, 2020; Harter, 2018; Rahmawati & Koul, 2016; Wiesenberg, 2004). For example, using the station teaching model can cater to the needs of different learning styles, resulting in better academic performance and more positive student behavior (Badiali & Titus, 2010). Co-teachers can complement each other's opinions, provide timely feedback, and encourage students to view issues from different perspectives, thus helping to close learning gaps (Caprio, 2019; Gokbulut et al., 2020)

Caprio's (2019) investigation into students' perceptions of co-teaching revealed that they preferred it to non-co-taught settings as it allowed for quicker support and improved comfort in asking for help. Co-teaching can also increase interactions between co-teachers and students as teachers are less occupied due to the decreased teacher-to-student ratio. Students also perceive that co-teaching brings more fun to learning as two teachers can make jokes together. Co-teaching enables an effective grasp of student attention, with two teachers providing simultaneous instructions to students (Gillespie & Israetel, 2008). These factors lead to higher engagement and enjoyment of learning (Bacharach et al., 2018; Boland et al., 2019; Caprio, 2019).

Impacts of Co-teaching on Student Engagement

Student engagement is crucial for academic success (Clancy, 2022). While there is no universal definition for student engagement, in this study, student engagement was defined as "students' investment in and commitment to learning, belonging, and identification at school, and participation in the institutional environment and initiation of activities to achieve an outcome" (Christenson et al. 2008, p.1112). Student engagement entails three dimensions: behavior, cognitive and emotional (Ben-Eliyahu et al., 2018). Cognitive engagement reflects the extent to which one thinks about learning activities, focusing on tasks, and developing new meaning with information (Be-Eliyahu et al., 2018; Lochner et al., 2019). Behavioral engagement focuses on what students do during the learning activities (Be-Eliyahu et al., 2018). Emotional engagement refers to affect and motivation towards learning and schools (Be-Eliyahu et al., 2018).

Existing literature indicates that co-teaching has positive impacts on student engagement (Ben-Eliyahu et al., 2018; Clancy, 2022; Latorre-Navarro & Meier, 2019; Lochner et al., 2019; Nutt, 2021; Pilotti, 2017; Tonelli, 2019). Lochner et al. (2019) found that the student's cognitive engagement in their study was higher in a co-teaching classroom than in a solo-taught

classroom. The students asked and answered more questions and demonstrated higher thinking order skills. In agreement with Lochner et al. (2019) 's study, findings from the quasi-experimental study by Tonelli (2019) showed that the students in the treatment group (i.e., co-taught classroom) demonstrated a higher level of engagement. They had better knowledge of physical and earth science. They also experienced increased deep learning, attitudes toward learning, and school attendance. Tonelli (2019) attributed these positive results to stronger co-teacher support.

Clancy (2022) investigated the relationship between different co-teaching models (i.e., team teaching, station teaching, alternative teaching, one teach-one monitor, One teach-one assist, and One teacher-one observe) and student engagement in an inclusive classroom setting. Her research findings show a significant relationship between co-teaching models and student engagement. The students were more engaged during models in which co-teachers led instruction together than one co-teacher led instruction independently. Clancy (2022) concluded that the model, which is dominated by one co-teacher limited students' opportunities to benefit from the expertise and support of the other teacher. Lindgren (2021) reported similar findings that the One teach-one assist model was not very helpful for student engagement, particularly in an inclusive mathematics classroom setting. The student did not get differentiated instruction as one teacher only assisted without providing more individualized coaching. Conversely, the students showed positive behavioral, cognitive, and affective engagement in a station teaching context. This model allowed the co-teachers to differentiate the classroom instructions based on the needs of individual student groups (Lindgren, 2021).

Challenges in Co-teaching

Research has also indicated that there are some challenges in the implementation of co-teaching. In terms of individual factors, Chitiyo (2017) and White (White, 2020) reported that teachers lacked the skills and confidence to collaborate with their co-teachers, and this is supported by Hussin and Hamdan (2016), who highlighted strong self-concept as a key factor in co-teaching. Collaboration issues such as insufficient planning time, conflicting timetables, and increased workload impede co-teaching implementation (White, 2020; Dougan et al., 2022; Strogilos et al., 2023; Pratt, 2014). Co-teachers find it difficult to allocate time to create co-teaching plans; therefore, they must meet after school hours to co-plan lessons (Downey, 2017). They may need to use emails to share lesson plans and teaching resources outside of office hours, which impact the quality of their personal life (Downey, 2017).

Besides, teachers lack sound knowledge of co-teaching key principles and practices (Chitiyo, 2017). They have negative perceptions of co-teaching, thinking that it does not benefit student learning and is not helpful in fulfilling students' learning needs (Chitiyo, 2017; White, 2020). Moreover, differences in co-teachers personalities affect the implementation of instruction and co-teaching relationships. Teachers with different teaching and assessment approaches need time to navigate how to prevent conflicts during co-teaching (Lusk, Sayman, Zolkoski, Carrero, & Chiu, 2016). Co-teachers must discuss and compromise to achieve consensus on the type of instructions used and sharing responsibilities.

In addition, school factors such as school policies, availability of resources, and senior leadership support also influence co-teaching implementation (Chitiyo, 2017). School administrators do not take careful consideration when they pair co-teachers (Downey, 2017).

As a result, co-teachers need to pay additional efforts to learn how to work together to ensure that co-teaching serves its purpose (Scribner-MacLean & Miller, 2011). If they are not paired in the next semesters, they have to start building rapport all over again. Uncertainty in future co-teaching partnerships is detrimental to the development of a stable relationship among co-teachers (Downey, 2017)

Apart from that, not all students appreciate co-teaching in the classroom. For some, co-teaching is confusing as it differs from the conventional silo teaching models they are familiar with (Harter, 2018). Confusion, lack of clarity, and the uneasiness and tension brought upon by conflicting and incompatible instructions during class contribute to why some students may not prefer co-taught lessons (Hellier & Davidson, 2018; Pratt, 2014; Laughlin et al., 2011). They may resist co-teaching as they think it is less effective for their personal growth and development of competencies (Lusk et al., 2016). In contrast, the participants in Caprio (2019) 's study acknowledged this teaching approach and perceived that co-teaching did not negatively impact their learning.

Fundamentally, co-teaching challenges are rooted in what makes humans unique - our differences, be our personalities and behavior or values and philosophies. While traditional teaching cultivates an environment where an eclectic mix of individuals are guided by a single person who holds command of the room due to their professional qualification and role to guide the others (which in itself poses several obstacles), co-teaching goes beyond this dynamic and challenges the compatibility of multiple contrasting personalities by bringing another person with power into the picture to achieving the goal of effective teaching and learning. This then requires the equal distribution of responsibilities and workload, time management of both parties, prioritizing co-teaching regardless of the extra efforts required, discussing and aligning teaching philosophies, methods, and approaches, practicing combined instructions and assessments, and most importantly, consistently striving towards improving the rapport and coordination between two educators (Dougan et al., 2022; Strogilos et al., 2023; Pratt, 2014).

Strogilos et al. (2023) accurately described these issues as continuous challenges which are not limited just to the role of the educators in establishing effective co-teaching practices but also highlight the importance of strategic, systemic implications by academic institutions in supporting educators to co-teach. These include keeping co-teaching as a voluntary option, allowing educators to pick their partners, preparing ahead of time to pair educators, and allowing them to work on lessons long before the semester begins (Dougan et al., 2022). Moreover, ensuring that the extra workload is acknowledged and addressed through extra pay for extra working hours or reducing other responsibilities to allow for the conception and execution of effective co-taught lessons is also important.

Additionally, students' years desensitized to precise instructions in academic settings must be considered when discussing co-teaching challenges. Especially in an Asian, predominantly collectivistic (Loh & Teoh, 2017), contrasting instructions, ideologies, or opinions between educators who are often culturally revered can be uncustomary and thus present as strong student resistance. Nevertheless, clear communication, consistent and respectful discourse, and methodical co-teaching can easily overcome this challenge. Lock et al. (2018) wrote that co-teacher communication could be an exemplary collaborative practice.

Keys to Effective Online Co-teaching

Co-teachers must develop good co-teaching relationships to ensure that co-teaching can be practiced effectively (Downey, 2017; Lersch, 2012). Co-teachers should establish clear roles and responsibilities to work together effectively (Lochner et al., 2019). Co-teaching partners must actively engage in co-planning, co-instruction, and co-assessment, sharing the responsibility of all students.

Open communication is essential to foster stable co-teaching relationships so that co-teachers can share a common goal in co-teaching (Bacharach et al., 2018; White, 2020). Co-teachers need to achieve consensus on learning objectives, course ownership, course management strategies, and assessment tasks so that this information can be explicitly delivered to students (Lochner et al., 2019). The exchange of content knowledge and sharing of teaching methods and instructional beliefs are essential for effective collaboration. Co-teachers must demonstrate mutual respect's expertise, ideas, and contributions (Latorre-Navarro & Meier, 2022). They must collaborate to support student learning and create a positive classroom culture.

Competent information technology literacy facilitates online co-teaching (Scribner-MacLean & Miller, 2011). Co-teachers must identify appropriate technological tools and platforms for delivering instruction, communicating with students, and assessing learning. They also need to discuss the ownership of the online tasks and determine the meeting host.

Methodology

Research Context

This study was conducted during the implementation of a 4-week postgraduate module, Principles of Teaching and Learning, during the Covid-19 pandemic. All students from the Master in Teaching and Learning (MTL) program and Postgraduate Certificate in Teaching and Learning (PGCTL) program must enroll in this module. Most MTL students hold a bachelor's degree in a related field without working experience. The PGCTL students were mostly school teachers or lecturers from local universities. This module was practice-based, providing opportunities for students to relate learning theories to classroom practices, design lessons to meet the needs of diverse learners, and evaluate the quality of various teaching strategies. The instructors met the students for 1.5 hours per week.

The School of Education assigned two instructors to teach this module. The main author taught students specializing in Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) education. The first author was a novice lecturer with only 1.5 years of experience teaching at a higher education institution. The co-author taught the students whose specialization was in social sciences. She was a veteran who taught at a higher education institution for over 20 years. The School did not have a specific policy on co-teaching. Instructors could decide whether to teach students of different specializations in two separate classes or combine them. Since the three assessment tasks were the same for all students regardless of their specialization, the two instructors combined and co-taught the classes for collegial support. The two instructors had been co-teaching the lessons since the Covid pandemic outbreak started in the Year 2020.

A team teaching model was adopted in this co-teaching setting. The two instructors co-planned and co-taught the lessons. There was a clear instructional partnership as the instructors shared all responsibilities. Before the co-taught lessons, the instructors met and discussed the lesson content, teaching strategies, and learning activities. During the lessons, the instructors actively worked with the entire class as a whole and built on each other ideas. After the co-taught lessons, the instructors reflected on their co-teaching experiences. For instance, they shared their opinions on how the students responded to their questions, their participation in the learning activities, etc. Then, they made necessary modifications to improve the next lessons. For example, the instructors observed that some students listened passively throughout the lessons. They used Google Slides to encourage more students to provide their written responses. In one of the lessons, the students were split into two breakout rooms based on their program. Each instructor joined one breakout room to attain the students' specific needs from two different programs (e.g., how to relate their teaching experiences with the questions in the assessment tasks, how to improve their assignment draft, etc.). Figure 1 shows the online co-teaching cycle.

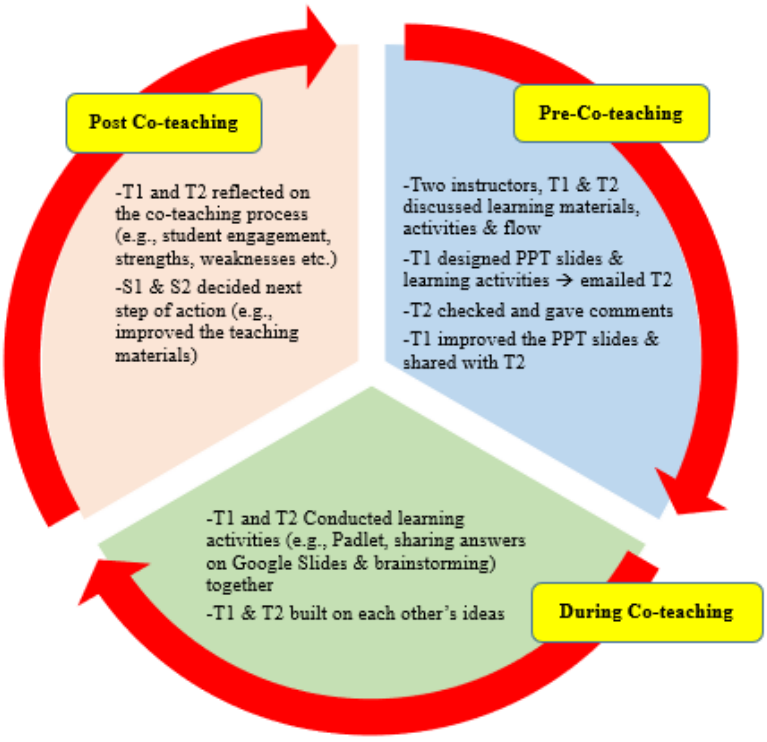

Figure 1. Online Co-teaching Cycle

Participants

A total of 48 postgraduate students enrolled in this core module—Principles of Learning and Teaching—in the 202106 Semester. 26 of them completed the survey. The responding rate was 54.2%. Thus, the data could be considered as reliable. Twenty participants (76.9%) were students from the MTL program. The remaining PGCTL students (n = 6, 23.1%). There were six male (23.1%) and nine female (34.6%) participants. 11 participants (42.3%) chose not to reveal their gender. More than 50% of the participants (n =15) were international students. The participant profiles are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Participant Profiles

Demographic factor	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Program		
Master in Teaching and Learning	20	76.9
Postgraduate Certificate in Teaching and Learning	6	23.1
Gender		
Male	6	23.1
Female	9	34.6
I prefer not to say	11	42.3
Student status		
Local	11	42.3
International	15	57.7

Data Collection and Analysis

This study was guided by both qualitative and quantitative research design. An online questionnaire in the form of Google Forms was developed based on the existing literature. The questions were adopted from existing literature on student engagement (Hart, Stewart, & Jimerson, 2011; Veiga, Reeve, Wentzel, & Robu, 2014) and co-teaching (Bacharach et al., 2018; Gokbulut et al., 2020). The questionnaire consisted of four close-ended and four open-ended questions. The close-ended questions focused on student engagement during online co-teaching in terms of behavioral, cognitive, and emotional engagement and the benefits of online co-teaching. Each close-ended question consisted of six to eight items measured using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The open-ended questions required the students to give their opinions on the drawbacks of co-teaching, effective strategies, and ways to improve co-teaching practice.

The online questionnaire was pilot-tested with the postgraduate students enrolled in the 202009 semesters who were not part of the final sample. Twenty-five participants had completed the pilot test. The interrater reliability for the close-ended questions in the pilot test was .65. The Kappa value between .60-.79 is at a moderate level of agreement (McHugh, 2012). Thus, the data could be considered reliable.

SPSS version 25.0 was used for data analyses. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the responses to the close-ended questions. The responses to the open-ended questions were coded. Then the codes were categorized into themes related to the advantages and drawbacks of co-teaching and ways to move forward in co-taught lessons.

A few strategies were used to strengthen the trustworthiness of this study. First, all qualitative data were coded by two coders, the first and the second authors. The two coders chose one response and coded the data separately. Then, the codes were reviewed and revised based on the consensus of the three coders. Once agreement was reached on the coding schemes, all responses were coded. Next, the coders discussed their coding results and explained their coding decisions until a consensus was reached. Across the entire process, approximately 10% of changes were made. The second strategy involved data documentation which allowed for an audit trail.

Results

The research findings were discussed from five aspects: student engagement during online co-teaching; benefits of online co-teaching; online co-teaching practices; drawbacks of online co-teaching, and suggestions for improvement.

Student Engagement during Online Co-teaching

The research findings showed that the participants were behaviorally, cognitively, and emotionally engaged during the online co-teaching lessons. The mean scores for all the items in the three engagement scales were above 4.0. Amongst the three scales, cognitive engagement was rated the highest ($\bar{x}$ = 4.50). In contrast, behavioral engagement was rated the lowest ($\bar{x}$ = 4.28).

Table 1 shows the behavioral engagement of the participants. Overall, the mean score for behavioral engagement was ($\bar{x}$ = 4.28), showing that the participants agreed that they were behaviorally engaged. The statements which were rated the highest ($\bar{x}$ = 4.46) were BQ5 (i.e., When I encounter difficulties in completing my assignments, I keep working until I solve them.) and BQ6 (i.e., I joined online classes on time). The students rated BQ4 (i.e., I raised my doubts about the assignments) the lowest ($\bar{x}$ = 3.96).

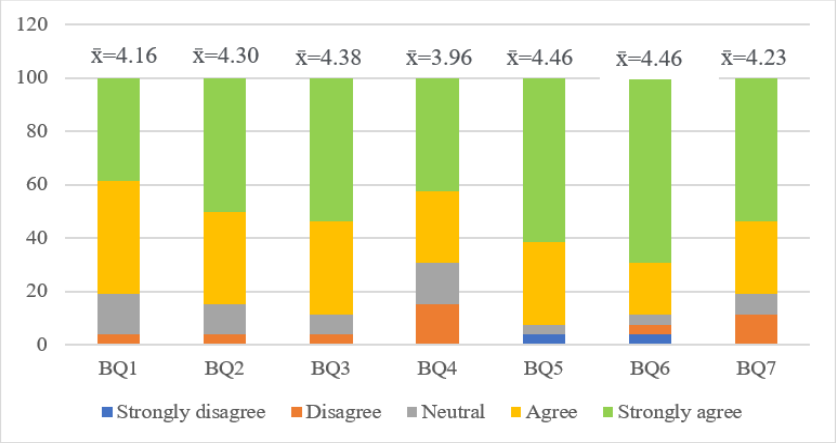

Figure 1. Participants' behavioral engagement during online co-teaching

As shown in Figure 3, the students agreed that they were cognitively engaged ($\bar{x}$ = 4.50). The participants strongly agreed that they tried to understand the requirements of each question (CQ6, $\bar{x}$ = 4.62). This is followed by statement CQ2 (i.e., I figure out how the module resources might be useful in the real-world teaching context) and CQ3 (i.e., When learning new information, I try to put the ideas in my own words) the same ($\bar{x}$ = 4.58). The statement with the lowest score was CQ5 (i.e., I thought deeply and critically about the questions, $\bar{x}$ = 4.34).

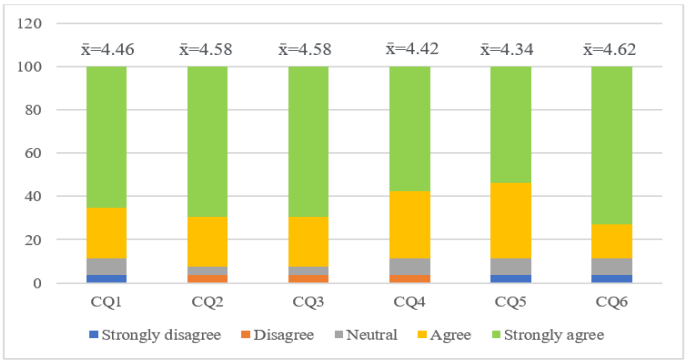

Figure 3. Participants' cognitive engagement during online co-teaching

Figure 4 shows the participants' emotional engagement during online co-teaching. The mean score for emotional engagement was 4.32, showing that the participants also agreed that they were emotionally engaged. The statement rated the highest was AQ4 (i.e., I enjoyed learning new things, $\bar{x}$ = 4.58). The statement with the lowest score was a negative statement (AQ7), showing that the participants did not feel that they were challenged in the presence of two instructors ($\bar{x}$ = 1.53).

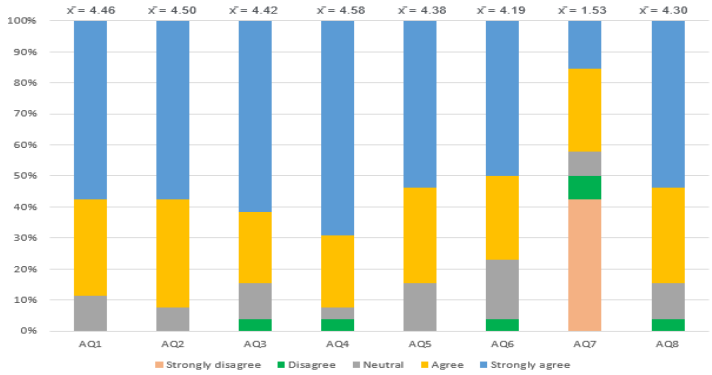

Figure 4. Participants' emotional engagement during online co-teaching

Benefits of Online Co-teaching

Figure 5 shows the participants' perceptions of the benefits of online co-teaching.

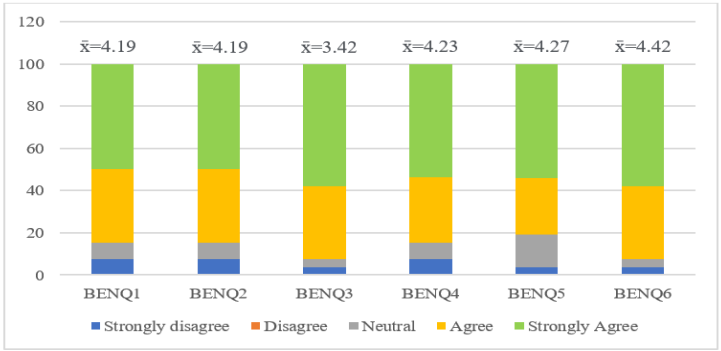

Figure 5. Participant's perceptions of the benefits of online co-teaching

The statement rated the highest was BENQ6 ($\bar{x}$ = 4.42). The participants strongly agreed that with the presence of two instructors, they could manage two breakout sessions or groups simultaneously. The students also agreed that the two instructors built on each other's ideas (BENQ4, $\bar{x}$ = 4.23). The students also had the opportunity to experience different instructional approaches adopted by the two instructors (BENQ5, $\bar{x}$ = 4.27). The statement rated the lowest was BENQ3 ($\bar{x}$ = 3.42). This finding showed that the participants neither agreed nor disagreed that the diversity of the experiences shared by the two instructors opened their minds.

Differences between Co-taught and Non-co-taught Lessons

In one semester, the postgraduate students took a few modules. Only the module taught by the main author and the co-author was conducted in an online co-teaching context. At the same time, other modules were taught by one lecturer. Co-taught and non-co-taught lessons were compared based on their experience in different modules. As shown in Figure 6, 23 participants (88.5%) claimed that there was a difference between attending a single-instructor and co-taught lessons. The differences can be discussed from a few aspects, including sharing knowledge and experience, classroom management, and modeling co-teaching practice.

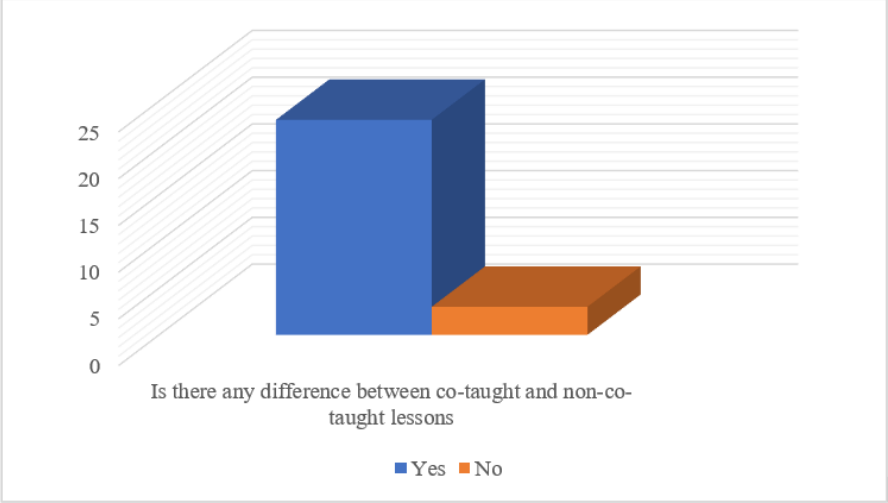

Figure 6. Participants' perceptions of differences between co-taught and non-co-taught lessons

The participants' justification about the differences between co-taught and non-taught lessons supported the quantitative data about the benefits of online co-teaching. The differences could be discussed from a few aspects, namely the diversity of experiences, classroom management, co-teaching exemplary and co-instructors complementary roles (Figure 7)

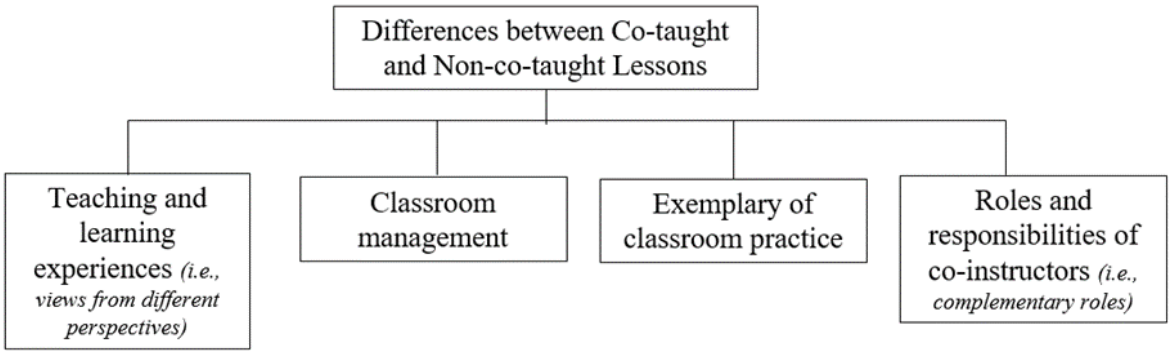

Figure 7. Participants' views on the differences between co-taught and non-con-taught lessons

Even though the participants rated BENQ3 (i.e., The diversity of experiences shared by two instructors open my mind) the lowest in the questionnaire, the qualitative data showed the opposite. The participants claimed they had benefited significantly from the online co-teaching practice of different perspectives and knowledge bases the two instructors brought forth individually. For example, five participants said,

"I like the way they can ask each other about their opinions and provide discussions with each other which we can listen to." (Student 4)
"The two teachers jointly teach, which can have the collision of two kinds of thoughts and obtain more angles and diversified classroom experiences." (Student 8)
"There's more than one teacher that I can ask when I need help or verification on my arguments, which is helpful since both teachers are aware of the context." (Student 13)
"The two instructors will have different viewpoints and thinking angles, which can cultivate students' dialectical thinking." (Student 20)
"Students get to hear various feedbacks and learn from different perspectives on a concept taught in class." (Student 23)

Other listed advantages are better classroom management, especially the breakout sessions. This data aligned with the participant's responses to BENQ6 (i.e., Two instructors can manage two breakout sessions simultaneously). For example, Student 4 said, *"Having two different breakout rooms when it (instruction) needs to be differentiated is also good."*

Student 6 elaborated that two instructors ensured the smooth flow of the lesson, *"I have more opportunity to direct my questions to the supervisors as one of them can continue giving lectures while the other will be able to answer my questions, without interrupting the lecture process."* (Student 6)

The participants also believed that the co-teachers set an exemplary collaborative teaching model. For example, two students mentioned, *"Two teachers can cooperate well with each other and accomplish teaching goals together."* (Student 7) and *"In co-teaching class, both teachers played an active instructional role. They introduced students to complementary teaching styles and personalities…Cooperation between teachers can also promote students' ability to work in teams, which reflects humanism."* (Student 20).

Two students further elaborated on the supportive roles of the instructors, which was impossible to be seen in non-co-taught lessons. For instance, Student 25 explained, *"When one of the*

supervisors missed or forgot certain points, the other supervisor could immediately add on and explain (the points) clearly."

Online Co-teaching Practices

The participants explained a few practices which made online co-teaching effective. These practices included turn-taking; co-planning; providing feedback; adopting teacher and student-centered teaching approaches, and integrating technology (Figure 8).

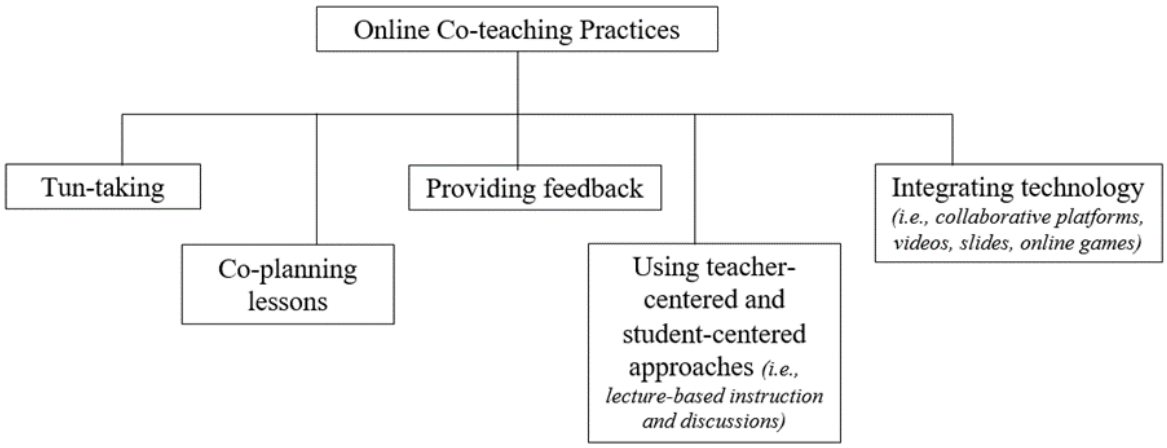

Figure 8. Online co-teaching practices by co-instructors

Even though the co-instructors shared the teaching responsibilities, the participants noticed that they occasionally practiced the "one teach, one assist" model. The co-instructors took turns playing the leading and supporting roles. Student 1 wrote, *"The teachers take turns to teach, and the main teacher for the lesson will do the teaching, and the co-teachers will work hand in hand by reinforcing the points."* Student 8 explained, *"The two tutors have a clear division of labor. They know their roles in each lesson. This was very helpful for me to understand the course."*

Collaborative co-planning is an essential practice in co-teaching. Co-planning requires co-teachers to plan the lessons and make appropriate accommodations based on students' learning needs. Student 26 was aware of the importance of co-teaching as she explained, *"They had good pre-planning. They gave clear instructions and conducted engagement activities."*

The participants also stated that timely feedback benefited their learning. They explained, *"Discussion on assignment questions and answered sharing from students to comment and provide appropriate feedback to our answers so that we can improve our answers"* (Student 5) and *"Constructive feedback is most helpful."* (Student 17)

The co-instructors adapted their teaching methods based on student participation in the online lessons. They adopted teacher-centered and student-centered approaches. When the participants responded passively, the co-instructors adopted lecture-based instruction. One of the participants explained, *"As most of the students were mostly silent, I think it's very teacher-centered even though the lecturers try to make the lessons student-centered. Some activities are used to help the lecturers interact with the students. However, most students do not even bother*

trying as they may not understand the questions given, making the lecturers answer some of them themselves." (Student 18)

Regarding the student-centered teaching approach, the participants explained that whole class discussions were planned for the students to share their ideas or clarify doubts. The student explained, *"The instructors held discussions and encouraged us to share our answers."* (Student 12)

The co-instructors used a few online learning tools throughout the four weeks to improve student engagement and enhance their learning. For instance, three students explained,
"They used Padlet to collect students' ideas" (Student 15)
"The teachers use some technologies in the classroom, such as video, slides, Kahoot, and Padlet, to get us involved. (Student 20)
"They conducted learning activities such as Padlet and put us in breakout rooms discussion in Zoom." (Student 23)

Drawbacks of Online Co-teaching

The research findings showed the advantages of co-teaching outweighed its disadvantages. 19 participants perceived that online co-teaching worked well. The only drawback highlighted is the possibility of students being confused by the difference between the two co-instructors in their thinking, perspectives, and ways of handling students. For example, three students expressed the view that,
"There could be a different opinion regarding certain topics. This could lead to confusion among the students." (Student 5)
"They may have a difference in style and thinking". (Student 12)
"Two supervisors might have different approaches to students." (Student 24)

Suggestions for Improving Online Co-teaching

Though the participants perceived that they benefited from co-taught lessons, there was still room for improvement. The participants provided some suggestions to improve the students' online co-teaching experience. The suggestions were providing more learning resources, integrating interactive activities, and sharing real-life experiences (Figure 9).

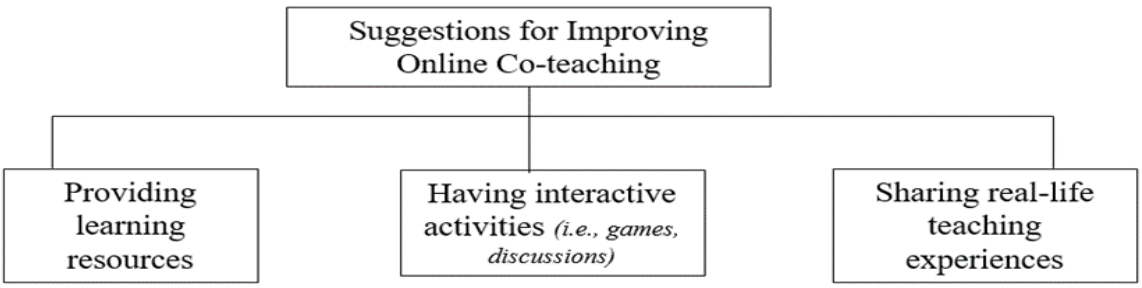

Figure 9. Participants' suggestions to improve online co-teaching

Student 18 suggested the instructors prepare more learning materials with better quality, *"I hope the instructors can provide more and better learning resources."*. However, she did not give an example of her desired learning resources.

The students suggested the co-instructors include more interactive activities to promote cognitive and emotional engagement. They explained,
"I think that incorporating more activities that are more inclusive and more interesting can help benefit the classes. Using different games that promote critical thinking skills can help the students to answer the questions based on their own opinions better." (Student 19)
"Gamification activities such as Quizzizz or Kahoot would be nice and fun." (Student 24)

Student 26 thought that classroom discussions were necessary to develop his content knowledge. He explained, *"The instructors can include slightly more discussions based instead of just focusing on assignment questions. There can be discussions on certain topics to enhance our knowledge."*

The participants, especially the students without teaching experience, thought sharing real-life experiences would help complete this practice-based module. They mentioned that,
"As I have never taught before, it will be helpful if the teachers or our peers can share their teaching experiences with us." (Student 17)
"Sharing real-life teaching experiences will be good. We can know what happens in other classrooms. We can learn from their experiences." (Student 22)

Discussion

This study investigated the postgraduate students' perceptions of their engagement during online co-teaching lessons, the prospects and drawbacks of online co-teaching, and suggestions for future improvement. Generally, the postgraduate students appreciated co-teaching and had positive feedback about their experiences in co-taught classrooms. These findings are consistent with a few previous studies, which showed that students rated co-teaching settings higher than silo-teaching settings (Bacharach et al., 2018; Caprio, 2019). Similar to the previous studies (Eschete, 2015; Harter & Jacobi, 2018; Rahmawati & Koul, 2016). In agreement with the previous studies (Ben-Eliyahu et al., 2018; Latorre-Navarro & Meier, 2019; Lochner et al., 2019; Nutt, 2021; Pilotti, 2017; Tonelli, 2019), the research findings indicated that the students were engaged cognitively, behaviourally and emotionally during online co-teaching. All close-ended items in the questionnaire were rated high. Regarding behavioral engagement, the students actively participated in the classroom activities and invested time to complete academic tasks. They employed thinking skills to solve task-related problems. They enjoyed co-taught lessons and felt comfortable asking for assistance from the co-instructors. Conversely, student involvement did not improve in the research conducted by Hayward (2017), even though the participants had positive perceptions of co-teaching. A plausible explanation is that co-teaching can only benefit students if co-instructors adopt effective teaching methods (Hayward, 2017).

The students in this study explained that their active engagement was supported by a few good co-teaching practices, such as adopting a combination of student-centered and teacher-centered teaching methods, providing timely feedback, and showing adequate pre-lesson preparation. This research finding elaborates Hayward's (2018) study that a lack of student-centered teaching approaches and collaborative opportunities for students affected student involvement in co-

taught lessons. The students expressed the view that co-teaching instructors' accommodative attitude towards each other could be another contributing factor to the positive impacts of co-teaching. Similarly, the participants in the previous studies (Bacharach et al., 2018; White, 2020) argued that mutual respect between co-teachers is the most important element for effective co-teaching. Another reason for students' high engagement could be that with co-teaching, there is more room for their diverse learning needs to be attended to (Kelly, 2018). In co-taught lessons, students wait less for teachers' help as two co-teachers can attain their needs more quickly (Bacharach, Heck, & Dahlberg, 2010).

Similar to the research conducted by Hayward (2018), the students in this study reported some differences between their learning experience in co-taught lessons and non-co-taught lessons. The research findings suggest that co-taught lessons bring a few advantages, most importantly the richness that can be gained from varying perspectives and opinions from two instructors (Bacharach et al., 2010; Kelly, 2018). Another advantage highlighted is the distribution of labor to manage students when they are put in small groups. Supervision is more effective as the order of a class is better maintained with the presence of two instructors (Bacharach et al., 2010; Caprio, 2019). Since there are two teachers in a class, teachers can differentiate their instruction to meet the diverse needs of students (Downey, 2017). They can assist struggling learners, challenge advanced students, and adapt instructional methods to accommodate different learning styles. In addition to the existing literature, the participants in this study added that they gained knowledge about co-teaching models, which might benefit their practice. Co-teaching models apply to all grades and curricula (Bacharach et al., 2010). Therefore, there are opportunities for the participants to implement co-teaching in their class future.

From the aspects of the drawbacks of co-teaching, consistent with the previous study (Lusk et al., 2016), the students thought that co-teaching would be less effective if two instructors had different opinions and teaching styles. Since co-teachers have different personalities, they commonly have different viewpoints (Harter & Jacobi, 2018). In some cases, instead of adding variation to a lesson, this phenomenon might lead to confusion. There might also be some degree of resistance from students who have well-adapted to traditional silo-teaching lessons (Lusk et al., 2016). Thus, communication among co-teachers and students is essential to ensure co-teaching's effectiveness. The structure of co-teaching lessons, co-teachers' roles and responsibilities, and co-teaching rationale must be communicated to students.

Due to the nature of this module, the instructors spent most of the time guiding the students to complete their assignments based on their teaching or learning experiences. The findings showed that there needed to be more clarity between the student's expectations and the activities conducted by the co-instructors. The participants suggested ways to improve online co-teaching practice, including more interactive activities and sharing sessions on teaching experiences. Interactive activities allow co-instructors to understand their students and adapt lessons to accommodate their learning needs. For these students, sharing real-life experiences with veteran teachers or experts could help them connect what they learned in the module with the real world. Small group and individual instructions can also be integrated into co-teaching classrooms to provide additional support or remediations for needy students. Private virtual chat rooms may be scheduled if students want to discuss a learning issue with a co-teacher (Lusk et al., 2016).

Collaborative challenges such as insufficient planning and unfamiliarity with co-teaching methods mentioned in the literature (Chitiyo, 2017) should have been reported by the

participants in this research. A plausible reason is that the two instructors had invested time in planning the instructions and activities together before the lessons. Furthermore, both instructors had been co-teaching this module for five semesters. Thus, the instructors were familiar with the structure, procedures, and co-teaching techniques. This is in line with Kelly's (2018) study that highlighted Community of Practice (CoP) as a principle for co-teaching which refers to the establishment of mutually agreed co-teaching practices that will be implemented in the classroom for successful co-teaching.

Co-teachers' collaborative relationship is crucial when implementing co-teaching (Brendle et al., 2017; Hayward, 2017). If co-teachers have good working partnerships, they can play equal roles and collaborate well during co-teaching. Teachers may feel stressed and overwhelmed when they do not see themselves as equal to their co-teachers, such as content knowledge and experience (Downey, 2017). Therefore, it is suggested that the Faculty consider the pairing issue as some teachers may not feel comfortable with different personalities. Aldabas (2018) reported that co-teachers readiness and belief related to the use and implementation of co-teaching impact the effectiveness of this practice. Thus, it is also necessary for the Faculty to ensure that co-teachers are ready regarding attitudes, knowledge, and co-teaching skills to implement co-teaching successfully (Aldabas, 2018).

Conclusion

The research findings of this study showed that co-teaching is a potential practice to engage students during online learning. The students reported that they benefited from online co-teaching in broadening their views, setting examples for co-teaching models, and effective classroom management. Student engagement in co-taught classrooms is influenced by how well instructors can grasp their attention and the amount of help they receive (Lersch, 2012). The irony is differences in the point of view between co-teachers may have favorable and unfavorable consequences for student learning. While some students benefit from co-teaching to broaden their knowledge (Bacharach et al., 2010), some may be confused by the presence of two teachers (Harter, 2018). Thus, it is crucial to communicate the structure of co-teaching to students. The development of online co-teaching practices during the Covid-19 pandemic faced different possibilities and challenges when individual teachers joined forces to facilitate student learning. Moving forward, research and evidence-based practices in co-teaching can further inform professional development programs for the benefit of students and teachers. This happens when educators and researchers work collaboratively to collect empirical data on the co-teaching practices in various classroom settings, effective co-teaching practices to support diverse learners and refinement of co-teaching strategies. Collaboration might extend beyond the traditional co-teaching model to include interdisciplinary teams and partnerships with specialists, such as counselors, therapists, or technology integration experts, to enhance the teaching and learning experience.

Implications of the Study

This study has practical implications for the professional development of teachers and teacher education. The research findings indicate that co-teaching is a potential teaching approach to support online learning. Thus, co-teaching can be a training model for professional development programs. Promoting systematic collaboration between teachers can strengthen the link between professional development and teacher practice (Eschete, 2015). Co-teaching allows

teachers to access mentorship and modeling, get opportunities to collaborate with colleagues, and reflect on their pedagogical approaches (Lusk et al., 2016). Reflective discussions among co-teachers are vital for analyzing their teaching experiences, teaching outcomes, and collaboration processes. This will lead to professional growth and increased quality of teaching skills. The findings also suggest that school administrators must provide supportive culture such as allocating resources, facilitating classroom visitations, and establishing a systematic structure to support co-teaching initiatives.

Considering the benefits of the co-teaching model as revealed by this study, teacher training colleges or universities can consider the possibility of incorporating co-teaching models into their teacher training programs, including practicum (Latorre-Navarro & Meier, 2022; Lochner et al., 2019). This will allow student teachers to learn essential teaching skills better to prepare them for independent teaching in the future. Student teachers can also be exposed to the co-teaching practices highlighted by the participants, such as turn-taking and the adoption of various teaching methods to provide a better learning experience for their future students.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Study

Although this study has practical implications for practitioners' professional development, a few things could be improved regarding instruments and data collection methods. The first limitation is related to the instrument, particularly the questions about student engagement. All questions were closed-ended, so the participants could not explain the reasons for their ratings. The second limitation is the data collection method, which only involves a questionnaire. This is the only source for data triangulation to create an in-depth picture of online co-teaching. For example, there needed to be more consistency in the participants' views on the impacts of the instructors' different opinions and teaching approaches on their learning. The reasons behind these discrepancies were not explored since the participants' responses were only collected using the questionnaire. The third limitation is the small sample size, which only involved 26 postgraduate students from one university. Thus, the research findings cannot be generalized to other educational contexts.

For future studies, the researchers can add open-ended questions about student engagement in the questionnaires. Open-ended questions allow students to articulate their opinions about the impacts of online co-teaching on their engagement and the predetermined items. Besides, students can elaborate on how online co-teaching impacts their engagement. The researchers can collect data from multiple sources, such as student interviews and video recordings, to delve deeper into how co-teaching is conducted online. Conducting convergent and discriminant validity during the pilot test and excluding invalid items from the questionnaire during data collection is also recommended. To increase the sample size, future studies can involve postgraduate students from different cohorts who have also experienced co-teaching under the same co-instructors.

Since two groups of students with different amounts of teaching experience enrolled in this module, future studies can adopt a more sophisticated quantitative data analysis method to compare the impacts of co-teaching on these students. In addition, previous studies suggest school administrators need to pay attention to the issue of pairing or assigning co-teachers (Downey, 2017; Lersch, 2012). Future research can explore co-teachers lived experience in practicing co-teaching to understand the challenges they face in co-teaching and suggest ways

for professional development. Lastly, this study was conducted during the Covid-19 pandemic outbreak. Thus, the co-teaching study was conducted in an online setting. In this post-Covid-19 era, hybrid learning is commonly practiced to ensure a smooth transition from fully online learning to physical lessons. It is recommended to extend this study to a hybrid setting to explore how this practice can be capitalized in this setting for the benefit of student learning.

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Exploring the Use of Emotional Intelligence Subcomponents as Predictors of intrinsic motivation and Willingness to Communicate: The Case of Vietnamese FLL Undergraduates

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ABSTRACT

Emotional intelligence (EI), intrinsic learning motivation (IM), and willingness to communicate (WTC) are among the factors that influence students' success in foreign language learning (FLL). However, the research concerning the association between these three factors is limited, especially those dealing with the EI subcomponents. In addition, there has been no report on the link between EI, IM, and WTC of the students learning Japanese and Korean as foreign languages. Therefore, this study investigated the relationships of EI of FLL university students with IM and with WTC. At the same time, it explored the potential of EI subcomponents to serve as predictors for IM and WTC. Using descriptive statistics, Pearson product-moment correlation, and stepwise regression, this study analyzed questionnaire responses from 78 FLL undergraduates. The results indicated that the students' EI positively correlated with their IM and WTC, and one of four EI subcomponents predicted IM and WTC. Meanwhile, the one-way ANOVA test indicated that no significant difference existed within groups of students learning English, Japanese, and Korean as foreign languages. These results suggested several meaningful implications.

Keywords: Emotion, predictive role, motivation, communicative readiness, L2

Introduction

Emotional intelligence, learning motivation, and willingness to communicate belong to factors that influence students' success in foreign language learning. They are far from new topics, but even these three factors have recently attracted much attention from researchers interested in the relationships between learning constructs.

Emotional intelligence (EI) is an individual's ability to manage and differentiate one's and others' feelings and emotions and use this information to make appropriate decisions and responsive actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). EI is a recent research topic in education in general and foreign language learning and teaching in particular. Studies showed that EI was an effective tool for assessing the everyday behavior of college students (Brackett, Mayer, & Warner, 2004). Research also indicated that EI influenced the students' learning outcomes and that improving the students' EI made a foreign language learning-teaching process more effective (Tevdovska, 2016). On the other hand, using appropriate teaching methods improved the learners' EI in a face-to-face learning-teaching environment (Goroshit & Hen, 2012). Recently, studies confirmed the relationship between EI and some foreign language learners' aspects, such as oral performance and communicative willingness (Jalilzadeh & Yeganehpour, 2021) or communication apprehension and self-efficacy (Cong & Li, 2022).

Intrinsic motivation (IM) is one of the two types of learning motivation based on Self-determination theory (SDT) (Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2017). The other is extrinsic motivation. Many researchers placed IM higher importance than extrinsic one for its role in learning success and psychological satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991). The first study exploring learners' motivation and its relation to learning outcomes appeared over half a century ago (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Since then, many research papers, review articles, and books have been available on the shelf. In the last decade alone, the number of related work has been abundant (e.g., Ngo, Spooner-Lane, & Mergler, 2017; Jodaei, Zareian, Reza Amirian, & Reza Adel, 2018; Shih, 2019; Lei & Levitan, 2020; Nguyen & Habok, 2021; Khojah & Thomas, 2021). However, reports of the link between FLL students' EI and L2 motivation, especially IM, are still rare.

Willingness to communicate (WTC) is one's choice to or not to enter into a conversational interaction (McCroskey, 1992). This construct is a recent research topic in foreign and second language learning. Many researchers have tried to verify the interaction between WTC and other factors, such as language acquisition and EI. Published investigations have shown that WTC strongly influences foreign language acquisition, and high WTC-level learners tend to employ their linguistic opportunities more effectively and frequently than low ones (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1998; Yashima, 2002; MacIntyre, 2007). Research has also indicated that there is a close association between WTC and EI (e. g., Janfeshan & Nazeri, 2014; Ketabdar, Yazdani, & Yarahmadi, 2014; Rahbar, Suzani, & Sajadi, 2016; Mehrpoor, & Soleimani, 2018; Mirzapour & Chamani, 2020). However, available research using subcomponents of EI to predict WTC is scarce.

As mentioned above, EI, IM, and WTC are reputable factors that influence the learning success of FLL students. However, few empirical works are available concerning employing EI subcomponents to predict WTC and IM. So, this study examined the possibility of using FLL

university students' EI subcomponents as predictors of their IM and WTC. It aims to deepen our understanding of the predictive role of EI subcomponents in the hope that its results might be practical in the foreign language learning and teaching process.

Literature Review

Emotional Intelligence and Foreign Language Learning Study

Emotional intelligence (EI), or emotional quotient (EQ), is a framework relating to emotional expression and interaction with other people. Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 185). They also divided EI into four psychological components: i.e., emotional managing, understanding, facilitating, and perceiving (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Some researchers, including Goleman (1995), believed EI was more important than intelligence quotient (IQ).

There are two distinct EI models of frequent use: ability and trait. Although no contradiction exists in these models, they have somewhat different concepts and measurement perspectives. The ability model refers to EI as intelligence or cognitive ability and measures it by objective performance tests. On the other hand, EI views EI as a personality characteristic and evaluates it by self-report tests (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000; Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2009). The challenge of ability-EI measurement is considering whether a response is correct, especially when the respondent comes from a culture different from Western ones. Meanwhile, trait EI measurement, based on the respondent's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in certain situations and thus, may be effectively used regardless of cultural background (Fukuda, Saklofske, Tamaoka, Fung, Miyaoka, & Kiyama, 2011). For instance, although based primarily on samples from Western countries, Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) applies well to Japanese university students (Fukuda et al., 2011).

Two EI measurements appear to be used frequently in foreign language learning studies, including most of those cited in the current work. The first, probably the most popular, is Bar-On's EI questionnaire (Bar-On, 1997), also known as EQ-i, containing 133 items. The second is SEIS (Schutte et al.,1998; Ciarrochi, Chan, & Bajgar, 2001), with 33 items. Since the number of items of SEIS is much smaller than that of EQ-I, using it may avoid losing the focus of the learners answering the questionnaire.

The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) consists of four components: Perception of Emotions (PE), Managing Emotions in the Self (MES), Managing Others' Emotions (MOE), and Utilizing Emotions (UE). Ciarrochi et al. (2001) reported that this scale measures the emotional intelligence in adolescents with very high reliability and possesses positive correlations with "skill at identifying emotional expressions, amount of social support, the extent of satisfaction with social support, and mood management behavior" (p. 1105). Schutte et al. (1998) suggested that measuring the students through the self-report SEIS can help reduce the risk of poor performance at the university.

Since EI connects to work performance and outcomes (Carmeli, 2003), many researchers used EI in their foreign language learning studies. In recent years, the number of works on EI and related issues has been substantial. Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) collected EI data from 508

second-year students at four universities in Iran and demonstrated a close relationship between some sub-components of EI and academic achievement. Maqbool (2019) found a similar relationship among Pakistani students learning English as a foreign language (EFL). Meanwhile, based on questionnaire responses from 138 university EFL students, Ghanadi and Ketabi (2014) established a positive correlation between Iranian EFL students' EI and their learning beliefs and the predictive role of the former for the latter. At the same time, Zafari and Biria (2014), investigating EI and language learning strategy use, discovered that students with higher EI scores employed more strategies than those with lower scores. They also found that the metacognitive one was the most frequently used strategy. Recently, Esmaeeli, Sabet, and Shahabi (2018) reported that EFL students' achieved scores in English speaking skills possessed a link to their EI. The finding of Jalilzadeh and Yeganehpour (2021) was insistent with the above result.

Motivation and Its Relationship with Emotional Intelligence

Learning motivation is a notion that can help to understand why some students get a better learning outcome than others (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) considered motivation as a guide leading students "to make certain choices, to engage in action, to expend effort and persist in action" (p. 3). Self-determination theory (SDT) classifies motivation into intrinsic and extrinsic (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2017). Intrinsic motivation (IM) is all aspects of activation and intentions arising from internal factors such as interest, enjoyment, and satisfaction in performing learning activities. Meanwhile, extrinsic one, based on external factors, relates to performing learning activities to gain an achievement such as financial success, other people's respect, fame, and even saving time for other activities. Between these two motivations, many researchers give IM a more crucial role than extrinsic one regarding learning success and psychological satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci et al., 1991). Furthermore, IM has three dimensions: knowledge, accomplishment, and stimulation (Noels, Pelletier, Clement, & Vallerand, 2003).

The relationship between learning motivation and emotional intelligence has attracted considerable attention. In a sample of 737 primary students, Tam et al. (2018) found that an increase in the EI level of the students enhanced their learning motivation. Also, focusing on primary students, Arias, Soto-Carballo, and Pino-Juste (2022) indicated a positive correlation between EI and motivation. Meanwhile, Trigueros et al. (2019) point out that EI positively correlated with motivation among 615 secondary school pupils. Studying a much larger sample of 3512 adolescent students, Usán Supervía and Salavera Bordás (2018) confirmed the positive correlation between EI and motivation. Furthermore, they revealed that the relationship between EI and intrinsic motivation was firmer than between extrinsic and motivation. Investigating a sample of 404 university students who participated in online-English courses during the COVID-19 pandemic, Chang and Tsai (2022) concluded a positive effect of the students' EI on their learning motivation.

Some studies have explored the interplay between learning motivation and EI. However, the authors of this study found no available report on the predictive role of FLL university students' EI subcomponents for their IM.

Willingness to Communicate and Its Relationship with Emotional Intelligence

Students' communicative skill is one of the paramount goals that a foreign language learning and teaching process aim to obtain. There is the case that linguistically competent students do not want to communicate in the foreign language they are learning. Meanwhile, not-so-good ones are willing to use the target language to communicate (MacIntyre et al., 1998). The concept of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) may help give a reasonable explanation. WTC is one's state of communicative readiness. In other words, WTC reflects what a student freely chooses between communicating and keeping silent in a given situation (MacIntyre, 2007). Studies indicated that WTC is essential for learners to use the target language in communication (Kang, 2005).

As one of the ultimate goals of foreign language learning and teaching is the ability to communicate the target language efficiently, WTC and its relation with other learning factors, especially EI, have drawn many investigations. Rahbar et al. (2016) showed that EFL learners' EI had a tight relationship with WTC. Meanwhile, Tabatabaei and Jamshidifar (2014), analyzing a sample of 60 participants, showed that EFL students' EI positively correlated with their WTC. They also found that gender played an essential role in this relationship. Scrutinizing on a larger sample size of 100 EFL learners, Gohlami (2015) confirmed the positive link between EI and WTC and the outperforming of the female group compared to their male counterparts. Several other reports also noted the EI-WTC positive correlation (e.g., Janfeshan & Nazeri, 2014; Ketabdar et al., 2014; Mehrpoor & Soleimani, 2018; Mirzapour & Chamani, 2020).

Almost the published studies on the EI-WTC relationship employed EI as a whole in their analysis. The investigations using subscales of EI for a similar association are very few. In a sample of 165 EFL Turkish students, Oz (2015) found that four subscales of EI positively correlated with WTC, and two even served as predictors of WTC. Recently, studying 65 Iranian EFL learners, Dastgoshadeh and Javanmardi (2021) also reported similar findings. As the number of research employing subscales of EI to explore the EI-WTC link is significantly moderate, it is clear that more investigation needs to be done to deepen our understanding of this relationship, especially for those learning Japanese and Korean as a foreign language (JFL and KFL).

In summary, studies have proved that EI, learning motivation, and WTC are among FLL constructs that influence learning success. Research has also established positive correlations between EI and learning motivation and EI and WTC. However, few investigations used EI and its subcomponents as predictors of IM and WTC. In addition, previous studies almost dealt with English-learning students, and no similar work on students learning foreign languages different from English.

By analyzing the questionnaire responses of university FLL students, this study looked for the answer to the following research questions:

(1) Is there any correlation between FLL undergraduates' EI and their IM and WTC?
(2) Does any EI subcomponent serve as a predictor of IM and WTC?

Hypothesis

This study supposes the following null hypotheses:

(1) There is no significant correlation between subcomponents of emotional intelligence and students' intrinsic motivation.
(2) There is no significant correlation between subcomponents of emotional intelligence and students' willingness to communicate.
(3) None of the subcomponents of emotional intelligence can predict students' intrinsic motivation.
(4) None of the subcomponents of emotional intelligence can predict students' willingness to communicate.

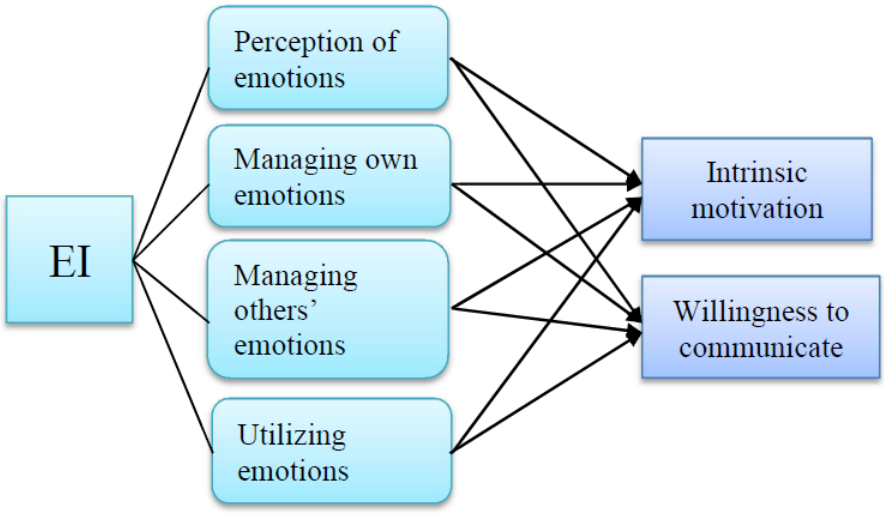

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Methodology

Research Design

The current work used an inferential quantitative research design employing an adapted questionnaire to collect data on the students' EI, learning IM, and WTC. These quantitative data were indispensable to examining the extent of the relationship between EI-IM and EI-WTC and whether EI subcomponents served as predictors for IM- and WTC-learning factors. Based on findings and available literature, the study then discusses its implications.

Participants

Limited by financial and administrative problems, the subjects of this study were students from a single university enrolling at the Department of Foreign Languages. For an acceptable sample size and a similar level of WTC in the context of the study, the study preferred students in the same academic year as many as possible. Considering a balance between these two

requirements, the third-year students were the best choice as they had already enrolled in many foreign language courses, though only a few compared to the fourth-year ones, and outnumbered students in other years. Of the 96 candidates, 78 third-year students, 25 males (32.1%) and 53 females (67.9%), willingly participated in this study. Among them, 37 students (47.4%) majored in English, 18 (23.1%) in Japanese, and 23 (29.5%) in Korean. These students have just returned to the university for two months after more than half a year of learning their online courses at home due to the COVID-19 preventative regulation. The participants answered a questionnaire in the classroom with no time limitations. Before the students answered the questionnaire, the authors assured them that their responses would not affect the assessment of their learning courses and would be confidentially used only for research purposes. The researchers then confirmed they were voluntary once again. During the process, the authors also provided the participants with an explanation and clarification whenever needed.

Instruments

This study employed a questionnaire having three scales. The students rated themselves on the items using a five-point scale, ranging from 5 (strongly agree) to 1 (strongly disagree). The questionnaire has been translated into Vietnamese to ensure a clear understanding before being delivered to the participants. Cronbach's alpha showed the entire questionnaire to reach high-scale reliability, $\alpha = 0.888$. Details of the scales used in this work are as follows.

Emotional Intelligence Scale: The current work employed the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS). There were two reasons. First, Fukuda et al. (2011) proved that this trait-EI measurement is valid in the Japanese culture, a Confucian heritage culture similar to the Vietnamese one. Second, SEIS contains only 33 items, not many for the student to become unfocused. Developed by Schutte et al. (1998) and factor structured by Ciarrochi et al. (2001), 04 subcomponents of SEIS and their number of items are as follows: Perception of Emotions (PE; 10 items), Managing Emotions in the Self (MES, also known as Managing Own Emotions; 09 items), Managing Others' Emotions (MOE, also known as Social Skills; 08 items), and Utilizing Emotions (UE, 06 items). The scale reliability of SEIS was $\alpha = 0.821$ in the present work. Appendix A shows the statements and obtained descriptive statistics.

Intrinsic Motivation Scale: This study used an IM scale developed by Noels et al. (2003) and adopted by Wang and Lee (2019). This scale covers all three dimensions of IM with four items: intrinsic knowledge (01 item), intrinsic accomplishment (02 items), and intrinsic stimulation (01 items). The authors slightly modified by changing the word "English" to "Japanese" or "Korean" in the version delivered to JFL and KFL students, respectively. The current study obtained a Cronbach's alpha of $\alpha = 0.709$ for this scale, which shows acceptable scale reliability. Employed IM scale's structure, statements, item mean, and standard deviation are those in Appendix B.

Willingness to Communicate Scale: This study collected WTC data through a modified scale with 13 statements. The original scale, developed by Baghaei (2011) and known as WTC in a Foreign Language Scale (WTC-FLS), contained 20 items. To better suit the Vietnamese context, the authors reduced them by deleting statements 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 20. Furthermore, the authors changed the expression "some native speakers of English" into "foreigners" in EFL, "Japanese" in JFL, and "Korean" in the KFL students' version. The word "English" was also

replaced by "Japanese" or "Korean" in the version delivered to JFL and KFL students, respectively. The modified 13-item WTC-FLS reached high-scale reliability, with α = 0.897. Appendix C presents the used scale's statements, item mean, and standard deviation.

Analyses

The current research used descriptive statistics to describe the responses and conducted several necessary analyses, including Cronbach's alpha, Pearson's correlation, regression, and one-way ANOVA analysis. Cronbach's alpha was to check the scale reliability. While Pearson's correlation test examined whether correlations exist between EI and IM, and WTC, regression analysis examined which EI sub-components might play a predictive role for other questionnaire learning constructs. Finally, one-way ANOVA analyses examined if there is any significant difference in the target language towards WTC.

Results

Students' Emotional intelligence, Intrinsic Motivation, and Willingness to Communicate

Table 1 below shows the descriptive statistics of the participants' questionnaire responses.

Table1: The Descriptive Statistics of Follow-up Questionnaire Components and Subcomponents

Scale/sub-scale [b]	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
EI total [b]	2.33	4.55	3.63	.35
PE	2.20	4.60	3.46	.43
MES	2.44	4.89	3.86	.50
MOE	2.50	4.25	3.46	.46
UE	2.33	4.83	3.81	.52
IM	3.90	4.19	4.05	.61
WTC	3.24	4.01	3.71	.61

[a] N = 78; 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree.
[b] EI total: the whole emotional intelligence scale, PE: Perception of Emotions, MES: Managing Emotions in the Self, MOE: Managing Others' Emotions, UE: Utilizing Emotions, IM: Intrinsic motivation, and WTC: Willingness to communicate.
[c] Summed mean (score) 119.96, SD 11.71.

As shown in Table 1, the mean values of the student responses for EI, IM, and WTC were 3.5-4.4, reflecting favorable responses (Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995).

Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Intrinsic Motivation and Willingness to Communicate

The current work performed Pearson's correlation analysis to examine the link between EI and its subcomponents with IM and WTC. Table 2 below presents the results of the correlation test.

Table 2: Pearson's Correlation Analysis Results

	PE	MES	MOE	UE	EI total
IM	-	.429**	-	.271*	.338**
WTC	.232*	.517**	-	.254*	.405**

**: Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*: Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
- : Non-significant correlation with *p*-value > 0.05.

As shown in Table 2, there was a positive correlation between whole EI and IM and whole EI and WTC. That means increasing one variable will cause an increase in the other. Moreover, the Pearson test also indicated that two of four subcomponents of EI, namely MES and UE, positively correlated to the IM construct, with the coefficients decreasing as MES < UE. MES also had a better significant level than UE. On the other hand, WTC showed similar relationships with three EI subcomponents, namely PE, MES, and UE, among which MES possessed the biggest correlational coefficient of 0.517 and a significant level of 0.01.

Predictive Role of EI Subcomponents

To explore the potential usefulness of EI in English language learning-teaching, this study focused on the possible role of EI subcomponents in predicting IM and WTC. To do so, the authors conducted stepwise regression analyses using the respondents' subcomponents of EI as predictors for IM and WTC. Table 3 below shows the results of this test.

As shown in Table 3, although two EI subcomponents correlated to the students' IM (see Table 2 above), only MES could predict this learning construct. This predictor accounted for 17.3% of the variance of IM. On the other hand, very similar to the case of IM, MES was a predictor of the FLL learners' WTC. The difference is that, in the case of WTC, MES accounted better for the variance of the dependent variable, 25.7%. Regression test results indicated that the entire EI could predict IM and WTC. However, the corresponding percentages of accounted variance were significantly lower than MES.

Table 3: Stepwise Regression Using EI or Its Subcomponents as Predictors

		B	□	Adjusted R square	*p*-value	VIF
IM[a]	Constant	2.038			0.000	
	MES[b]	0.521	0.429	0.173	0.000	1.000
IM[a]	Constant	1.947			0.005	
	EI total	0.578	0.338	0.102	0.002	1.000
WTC[a]	Constant	1.281			0.007	
	MES[b]	0.630	0.517	0.257	0.000	1.000
WTC[a]	Constant	1.184			0.076	
	EI total	0.696	0.405	0.153	0.000	1.000

[a] Dependent variable
[b] predictor

The Difference in Language toward a willingness to communicate

This research population consisted of EFL, JFL, and KFL students. As the English-speaking foreigners are overwhelming Japanese- and Korean-speaking in the Vietnamese context, fewer

opportunities for outside classroom communication for JFL and KFL learners might lead to a significant difference in target language towards the WTC construct compared with EFL counterparts. This fact concerned the authors greatly and forced them to conduct a one-way ANOVA analysis. However, the test result showed no statistically significant difference between groups, with *p-values* > 0.05, as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: One-way ANOVA Test Result[a]

Language (I)	Language (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. (*p*)	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
English	Japanese	-.09332	.17711	.600	-.4461	.2595
	Korean	-.08180	.16365	.619	-.4078	.2442
Japanese	English	.09332	.17711	.600	-.2595	.4461
	Korean	.01152	.19395	.953	-.3748	.3979
Korean	English	.08180	.16365	.619	-.2442	.4078
	Japanese	-.01152	.19395	.953	-.3979	.3748

[a]Dependent variable: WTC

Discussion

The relatively high mean of IM, 4.05, is encouraging since intrinsic motivation is more sustainable along the learning process (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Deci et al., 1991). However, the mean of WTC was 3.71, with a minimum of 3.24, indicating that some participants had a low intention to communicate in the Language they chose to learn. On the other hand, previous studies have claimed that a mental disorder might reduce the scores of overall EI and subcomponents MES and MOE (e.g., Coury, Duca, & Toledo Júnior, 2020). Thus, the students' EI responses probably need a closer look.

As shown in Table 1, the five-point Likert mean of the entire EI was favorable, and the score (summed mean) of the total 33-item EI scale was 119.96. The 33-item self-report SEIS employed by the authors had a score spectrum from 33 to 165, with "higher scores indicating more characteristic emotional intelligence" (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009, p.120). As noted in Table 1, the score of the students reached 119.96 in this study. This score may consider characteristic because it is much higher than the neutral value, i.e., 99, of the score spectrum. In addition, this level of EI was comparable to similar data from previous studies in some countries before the COVID-19 pandemic (e. g., Thingujam & Ram, 2000; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Pau & Croucher, 2003; Bastian, Burns, & Nettelbeck, 2005; Brown & Schutte, 2006). Therefore, the findings might imply that the EI of the participants suffered not at all or negligible detrimental impact from COVID-19. As there has been no report of an EI study concerning students in Vietnam before the COVID-19 pandemic, this research had no similar data to compare for a more convincing conclusion.

The positive correlation between the entire EI and IM in this study supports the findings of reported investigations (e.g., Tam et al., 2018; Trigueros et al., 2019; Arias et al., 2022; Chang & Tsai, 2022). Furthermore, the outcome of the Pearson test for EI subcomponents-IM correlation suggests that amongst four subcomponents of EI, MES, and UE had stronger influences on the students' IM and *vice versa*. Gardner (1983) conceptualized intrapersonal intelligence as the ability of a person to recognize one's own emotions and interpersonal intelligence as the ability to perceive others' emotions and intentions. The results of this study

revealed that only intrapersonal components, namely MES and UE, correlated to IM. Intrinsically motivated students learn the target language for their interest, enjoyment, and satisfaction in doing learning activities. Hence, IM is reasonably associated with intrapersonal subcomponents of EI.

A positive connection between overall EI and WTC found in the current work confirms the results of previous studies on EFL learners (Janfeshan & Nazeri, 2014; Ketabdar et al., 2014; Gohlami, 2015; Rahbar et al., 2016; Mehrpoor, & Soleimani, 2018; Mirzapour & Chamani, 2020). On the other hand, while Oz (2015) and Dastgoshadeh (2021) showed a positive correlation for all EI subcomponents, the present study revealed a similar one for PE, MES, and UE but MOE. The absence of MOE-WTC correlation in this investigation is understandable. Successful communication requires a student not only the ability to initiate but effectively maintain it as well. In other words, the involvement of both intrapersonal and interpersonal subcomponents of EI is necessary. Thus, the fact that only intrapersonal MES, UE, and PE but not interpersonal MOE positively correlated with WTC might imply that the participants probably considered how to start communication more important than keeping it going. They might think that when a conversation has already begun, everything will go well.

Self-determination theory assumes that humans possess three innate psychological needs, namely *autonomy, competence, and relatedness,* and are motivated to grow and change by seeking the satisfaction of these three needs (Ryan & Deci, 2017). The Heuristic model of L2 Use (MacIntyre et al. 1998) also proposes that personality and intergroup climate can affect the student's motivation, including interpersonal and intergroup. FLL student is not an exception. Thus, social context and personality factors influence the IM of FLL learners. In the present study, other predictors of IM, but PE-, UE- and MOE-subcomponents, may be among these factors.

MacIntyre et al. (1998) defined WTC as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons using an L2" (p. 547). This "readiness" depends on FLL learners' psychological, social, and linguistic factors, among which communication apprehension and self-perceived linguistic competence are the two dominant variables (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; MacIntyre et al., 1998). Based on the personal trait of emotions, the SEIS probably could not account for 100% variance of the WTC construct. For this work results, it is reasonable to argue that other predictors of the remaining percentage are those from the social environment and linguistic competence factors.

Pedagogical implications

Individual differences make it almost impossible to obtain all variables that affect foreign language teaching and learning. Thus, it usually challenges foreign language teachers to select an appropriate teaching method. The results of the present work may be worth the intention of foreign language teachers to use self-report tests of the FLL students' EI, IM, and WTC as one of the possible tools supporting an effective teaching-learning process. The current study showed that enhancing different subcomponents of EI resulted in increasing IM and WTC to a different extent. In addition, Schutte et al. (1998) suggested that measuring the students through the self-report SEIS can help reduce the risk of poor performance at the university. Therefore, the relationship between EI and IM, and WTC may help choose, for example, appropriate classroom activities.

Limitations

The authors should note that the three scales used in the questionnaire were all self-report measures. Therefore, response bias was possible and, thus, an inevitable limitation of the current study. Other disadvantages are those that go with convenience sampling, the method used in this work. In addition, the relatively small sample size may be another weak spot. However, as not so many new students enter the Department of Foreign Languages each academic year, gaining more participants was almost impossible because the study design required a similar level of WTC and learning context. Last but not least, the numbers of JFL and KFL students were somewhat smaller than that of EFL students. Therefore, the validity of the result of the one-way ANOVA analysis might need to be revised.

Recommendations

The practicable procedure might be as follows. First, the teacher in charge of a course, says English Speaking II, collects the course-enrolled students' emotional intelligence subcomponents, intrinsic motivation, and willingness to communicate through a questionnaire. A subsequent analysis then provides the necessary information, such as the relationship between these three factors and which one is the predictor. Based on the analytical result, the teacher may reach an effective teaching strategy for the course.

The present work focused on the relationship between the components of emotional intelligence, intrinsic motivation (IM), and willingness to communicate (WTC). Future investigations may extend to other affective variables instead of IM or/and WTC in searching for more applicable frameworks to improve foreign Language learning-teaching.

Conclusion

This study reported quantitative data on FFL undergraduates' emotional intelligence, intrinsic motivation, and willingness to communicate. The means of these three constructs were positive. In addition, it offered the results of Pearson's correlation measurement and regression analysis to deepen understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence, intrinsic motivation, and communicative willingness. The current work concludes that FFL students' emotional intelligence level measured by the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale was comparable to many studies conducted before the COVID-19 pandemic. Furthermore, one subcomponent of emotional intelligence strongly predicted intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate. Therefore, during the English teaching-learning process, activities enhancing students' emotional intelligence exploitation may cause an improvement in their intrinsic motivation and, especially, intention to communicate in the target language. This improvement may remarkably contribute to the student's learning success.

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Appendix A

Descriptive Statistics of The Students' EI

Statement[a]	M[b]	S.D.
1. Perception of Emotion (PE)		
(1) I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.[c]	2.99	1.026
(2) I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.	4.00	.822
(3) I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.	3.53	.893
(4) By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing.	3.49	.964
(5) I know why my emotions change.	3.88	.939
(6) I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.	3.95	.851
(7) I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.	3.31	.902
(8) I know what other people feel just by looking at them.	3.13	.843
(9) I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.	3.38	.871
(10) It is difficult for me to understand why people feel like they do.[c]	2.99	1.145
2. Managing Emotions in the Self (MES, Managing Own Emotions)		
(11) When faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.	3.95	.896
(12) I expect to do well in most things I try.	3.83	.763
(13) I expect good things to happen.	4.55	.847
(14) When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.	3.21	1.049
(15) I seek out activities that make me happy.	4.17	.828
(16) I have control over my emotions.	3.45	.989
(17) I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome for the tasks I take on	3.79	1.011
(18) When faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.[c]	3.83	.973
(19) I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.	3.95	.820
3. Managing Others' Emotions (MOE, Social Skills)		
(20) I know when to speak about my problems to others.	3.92	.908
(21) Other people find it easy to confide in me.	3.10	1.027
(22) I like to share my emotions with others.	2.33	.907
(23) I arrange events others enjoy.	3.59	.946
(24) I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.	3.45	.989
(25) I compliment others when they have done something well.	4.24	.724
(26) When another person tells me about an important event in their life, I almost feel like I have experienced it myself.	3.32	1.038
(27) I help other people feel better when they are down.	3.74	.763
4. Utilization of Emotion (UE)		
(28) Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.	4.36	.683
(29) When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.	3.45	1.065
(30) Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.	3.91	.900
(31) When I am positive, solving problems is easy.	4.10	.920
(32) I can develop new ideas When I am in a positive mood.	3.96	.904
(33) I tend to develop new ideas When I feel a change in emotions.	3.10	.961

[a] Developed by Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, Golden, and Dornheim (1998).
[b] N = 163; 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree.
[c] These statements are reverse scored.

Appendix B

Students' Perceptions towards intrinsic motivation

Statement: I am motivated to learn English when…	**M**[b]	**S.D.**
Intrinsic-knowledge		
(1) I enjoy acquiring knowledge about the English community and their way of life.	4.08	.769
Intrinsic-stimulation		
(2) I enjoy hearing the English language spoken by English.	4.19	.740
Intrinsic-accomplishment		
(3) I experience the satisfaction of accomplishing difficult exercises in the English language.	3.90	.975
(4) I enjoy surpassing my previous limits in my English language studies.	4.03	.821

[a] Modified statement of those developed by Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2003) and adopted by Wang and Lee (2019). The word "English" was changed to "Japanese" when used for JFL and "Korean" for KFL students.
[b] N = 163; 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree.

Appendix C

Descriptive statistics of the students' WTC

Statement	**M**[b]	**S.D.**
(1) If I encountered some foreigners, I hoped they would have an opportunity to talk to me.	3.82	.950
(2) If I encountered some foreigners, I would find an excuse and talk to them.	3.24	.942
(3) If I encountered some foreigners facing problems in my country because of not knowing our Language, I would take advantage of this opportunity and talk to them.	3.97	.821
(4) I am willing to accompany some foreigners and be their tour guide for a day free of charge.	3.71	.995
(5) I am willing to talk with foreigners.	3.83	.903
(6) If someone introduced me to a foreigner, I would like to try my abilities to communicate with them in English.	4.01	.798
(7) To practice my English, I am willing to talk in English with my classmates outside the class.	3.77	.882
(8) I am willing to ask questions in English in the classes at the university.	3.69	.795
(9) I am willing to talk and express my opinions in English when all my classmates listen.	3.62	.943
(10) I am willing to have pair and group activities in the class to talk in English with my classmates.	3.76	.996
(11) To practice my English, I am willing to talk in English with my professors outside the class.	3.45	.949
(12) I am willing to give a presentation in English to my classmates.	3.78	.949
(13) In group work activities in the class, I am willing to speak in English.	3.62	.886

[a] Modified those developed by Baghaei (2011). The word "foreigner(s)" and "English" were also replaced by "Japanese" or "Korean" in the version delivered to JFL and KFL students, respectively.

Appendix C

Descriptive statistics of the students' WTC

Statement	M[b]	S.D.

[b] N = 163; 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree.

SEAAIR 20|20: A Review of SEAAIR Annual Conferences 2007 – 2021

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ABSTRACT

Since its establishment in 2000, the South East Asia Association for Institution Research (SEAAIR) has organized the SEAAIR Annual Conference in different countries in South East Asia (SEA), including the extension of SEA, which was China (2002), Taiwan (2019) and Korea (2022). Each year, the Conference focuses on different themes based on the country's institutional research and current educational and socio-economic development. The paper reviews the development of SEAAIR conference themes and subthemes to reveal the relatedness of the theme based on the country's contemporary educational or socio-economic development. The analysis of the paper submission based on the country for 2001 – 2021 is presented to provide an analysis of the trend and active participation level of the countries at the SEAAIR Annual Conference.

Keywords: Institutional Research, Quality Management, Teaching and Learning, Education Technology

Introduction

The South East Asia Association for Institutional Research (SEAAIR) celebrates its 20th Anniversary in 2021. Such celebration indicates that SEAAIR has also been organizing the 20 Annual SEAAIR Conference, leaving its footsteps in various countries in Southeast Asia and East Asia. Therefore, it is the right time to review the achievements in the past two decades and set a direction for the coming years.

The Annual SEAAIR Conference is organized to gather researchers and the institution's key personnel of the Institutes of Higher Education (IHE). Most delegates from the ASEAN countries and some from outside the ASEAN region meet and discuss the advancement of institutional research based on the Conference's theme.

Although the Annual SEAAIR Conference is an academic conference, this is not solely focusing on the academic research paper presentation and panel discussions on the theme. The Conference also promotes cultural exchanges between countries. For every Conference, the host university organizes cultural events such as cultural nights or city tours to introduce the country's culture to the delegates.

The conference theme sets the tone for the Conference and provides an objective and a direction for all discussions held during the Conference. In a few words, the theme communicates the host university's intent for the Conference based on the university's values and direction and the contemporary development in the country or region.

On the other hand, the subthemes provide further elaboration on the conference theme, where delegates have a more detailed discussion from different angles and perspectives. The subthemes serve as a divergent-convergent thinking mechanism and provide the delegates with a practical brainstorming session. During the divergent thinking process, the ideas from the delegates were gathered through the question-and-answer sessions of the keynote speeches, panel discussions, and full-paper presentations. The moderators then converge such ideas based on the conference theme into an essential takeaway for the delegate at the end of the Conference.

This paper presents a detailed analysis of the Conference through two major discussion areas: "themes" and "paper submissions". The themes category included investigating themes and subthemes based on the countries and keywords. On the other hand, the paper submission category probed into the analyses of these submissions based on the countries, authors, and keywords. Such a presentation aims to understand the relevant themes and paper submissions better, providing a reference for future conferences.

Methodology

This research adopted the Documentary Research Methodology (Scott & Marshall, 2015). Documentary research uses personal and official documents, including publications, newspapers, computer files, and directories, as source materials to provide qualitative and quantitative analyses of the research theme and objectives.

Documentary data analysis is a cyclic interactive process of data collection, reduction, display, and conclusion drawing or verifying (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As shown in Figure 1, once the data is collected, the data is reduced to generate new ideas on what should be presented in the data display.

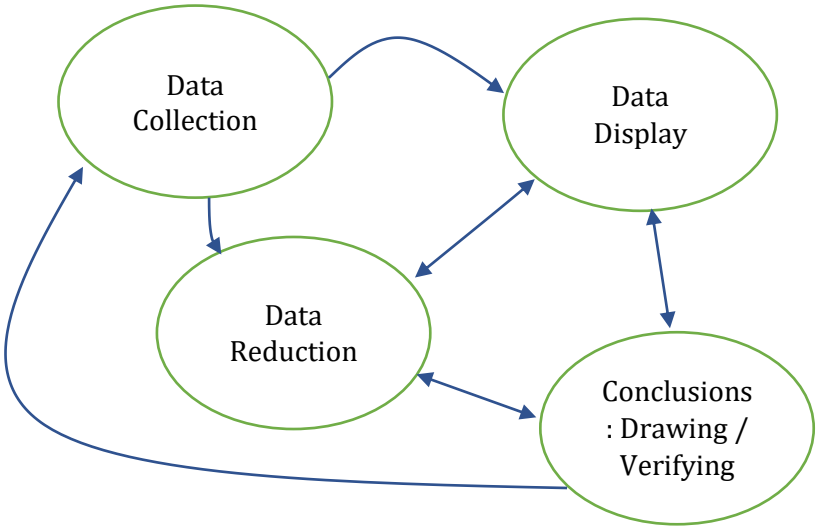

Figure 1: Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model (Figure reproduced from (Miles & Huberman, 1994)

751 papers were collected from 13 proceedings (2007 – 2021), with analyses of subthemes, authors, countries, and keywords performed on these papers. Detailed analyses of papers (authors, countries, and keywords) were performed through the Data Collection – Data Reduction – Data Display process. Such reduction and display bring the conclusion to be drawn. The analyses of the themes and subthemes followed the Data Collection – Data Display process as the data was obtained, and the conclusions were drawn through the presentation of the data collected. Such a cyclic process was adopted as the research framework for this paper.

Adopting the idea from (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007), the validity of the research methodology and data may be strong in the documents written for a specific purpose, and the reliability by corroboration. (Scott, A Matter of Record, 1990) suggested the reliability and validity of documentary research: authenticity, credibility, representativeness, and meaning. Data collected for this research are officially published proceedings (with official ISBN or ISSN numbers) available from (SEAAIR, n.d.) All papers in the Conference were reviewed through a double-blind review process to confirm the quality of the papers. Hence the data collected in this research is valid and reliable.

The limitation of the study

Table 1 summarises the availability of information on the Conference Theme, Sub-themes, and Proceedings for the SEAAIR Annual Conference 2001 – 2021. It should be noted that the information is obtained from the SEAAIR website (SEAAIR, n.d.). Hence there was some missing information due to the unavailability of information on the website.

Furthermore, the COVID-19 Pandemic hit the world in 2020 and 2021. The postponement of the Annual SEAAIR Conference 2020 in Malaysia was the reason for the unavailability of the information for 2020.

Organized by the SEAAIR Executive Committee, the Annual SEAAIR Conference 2020 was held on the virtual platform for the first time; hence, the host for this year was listed as Virtual.

Table 1: The availability of the information on the Conference Theme, Sub-themes, and Proceedings for the SEAAIR Annual Conference 2001 – 2021.

Year	Reference	Conference Theme	Conference Sub-Themes	Conference Proceedings
2001	(SEAAIR, n.d.)	☒	☒	☒
2002	(SEAAIR, n.d.)	☒	☒	☒
2003	(SEAAIR, 2003)	☑	☒	☒
2004	(SEAAIR, n.d.)	☑	☒	☒
2005	(SEAAIR, 2005)	☑	☑	☒
2006	(SEAAIR, 2006)	☑	☑	☒
2007	(SEAAIR, 2007)	☑	☑	☑
2008	(SEAAIR, 2008)	☑	☑	☑
2009	(SEAAIR, 2009)	☑	☑	☒
2010	(SEAAIR, 2010)	☑	☑	☑
2011	(SEAAIR, 2011)	☑	☑	☑
2012	(SEAAIR, 2012)	☑	☑	☒
2013	(SEAAIR, 2013)	☑	☑	☑
2014	(SEAAIR, 2014)	☑	☑	☑
2015	(SEAAIR, 2015)	☑	☑	☑
2016	(SEAAIR, 2016)	☑	☑	☑
2017	(SEAAIR, 2017)	☑	☑	☑
2018	(SEAAIR, 2018)	☑	☑	☑
2019	(SEAAIR, 2019)	☑	☑	☑
2020	(SEAAIR, n.d.)	☒	☒	☒
2021	(SEAAIR, 2021)	☑	☑	☑

Host Universities

Over the 20 years, Annual SEAAIR Conferences were hosted by universities from eight countries, six located in Southeast Asia and two in East Asia.

Figure 1 shows the map of the host countries for the Annual SEAAIR Conferences from 2001 to 2021. In addition, Table 1 in the following section also illustrates the hosting country based on the year. Since the organization was established in Malaysia, the countries hosted the most significant number of annual conferences, which were 2001, 2002, 2006, 2009, and 2012, with the first Conference receiving a great response of about 100 delegates (SEAAIR, n.d.) Within 20 years, six out of 10 ASEAN countries took a turn to organize the Annual SEAAIR Conference. The four countries worth future exploration are Brunei, Cambodia, Laos, and Myanmar.

From Figure 2, despite the Conference being named the Annual "South East Asia" Association for Institutional Research Conference, the association also expanded its connection to China (2004) and Taiwan (2019), where the two conferences were successfully held outside the Southeast Asia region. The connection pool will be further expanded in 2022, when the 22nd Annual SEAAIR Conference is held in Korea, making it the third external connection for SEAAIR.

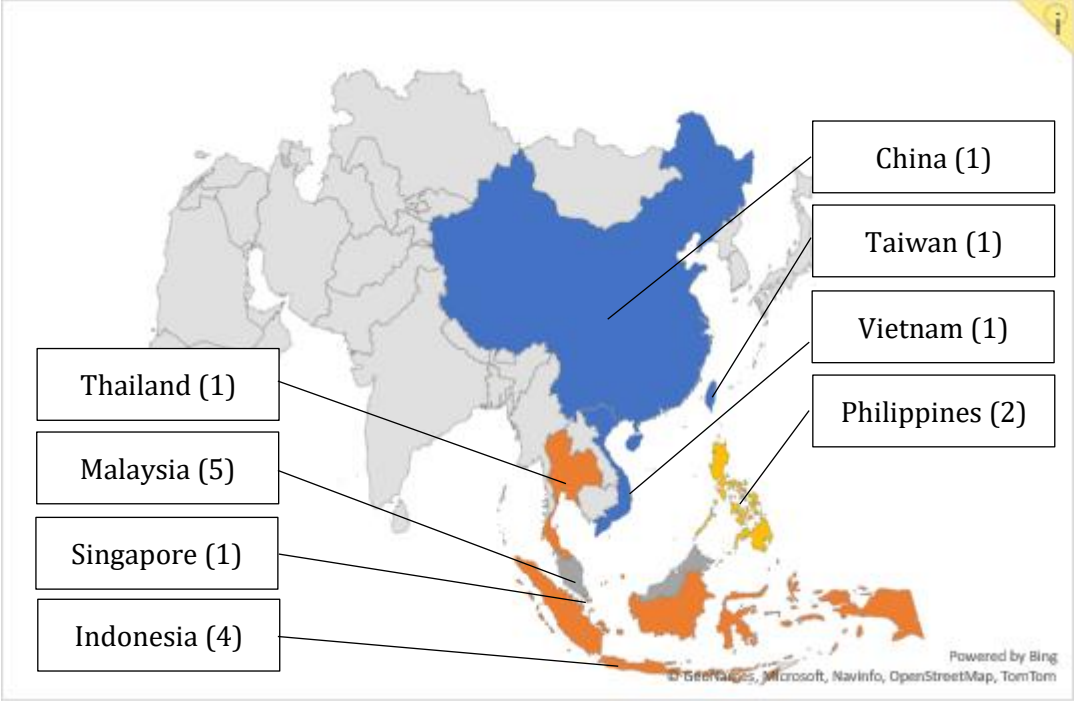

Figure 2: The host countries for Annual SEAAIR Conferences from 2001 to 2021. The number indicated next to the country represents the number of conferences the country hosts. The SEAAIR 2021 was held on the virtual platform; hence, it is not displayed in the figure.

Conference Themes

The conference theme sets the Conference's tone and agenda and gives the delegates the first impression. The clear tagline gives the public the core message of the Conference, and the discussion sessions during the Conference are designed based on this core message. The conference themes attract academics keen to address contemporary issues while keeping inclusive and welcoming touch (Edelheim, Thomas-Francois, Åberg, & Phi, 2017). Further quoting the author's description,

> *"Themes that aim at attracting those at the cutting edge, but keeping an inclusive, welcoming touch. The space filled with those words are often like small images, depicting the field of research with much sharper contours and brighter colors than can be achieved in the researching practice" (Edelheim, Thomas-Francois, Åberg, & Phi, 2017, p. 7).*

Table 2 shows the conference theme from 2003 to 2021. At a glance, the conference themes merely discuss the host country's concerns through an academic approach.

Table 2: The host countries and conference theme from 2003 to 2021.

Year	Host Country	Main Theme
2003	Thailand	Institutional Research and Quality Development in Higher Education
2004	China	Entrepreneurial University of the 21st Century
2005	Indonesia	Higher Education Reform Facing Local and Global Changes
2006	Malaysia	Transforming Higher Education for the Knowledge Society
2007	Thailand	Self-Sufficient and Sustainable Higher Education- An Agenda
2008	Indonesia	Institutional Capacity Building Toward Higher Education Competitive Advantage
2009	Malaysia	The Future of Higher Education
2010	Philippines	Towards Global-ASEAN Institutional Research Strategic Alliances
2011	Thailand	University Social Responsibility: Pathways to Excellence
2012	Malaysia	Culturalizing World-Class Higher Education in ASEAN
2013	Indonesia	Entrepreneurship In Higher Education and Institutional Effectiveness
2014	Philippines	Cross-Cultural Education in AEC 2015: Realizing Possibilities, Defining Foundations
2015	Vietnam	Internationalisation and Inclusivity of Higher Education in South East Asia
2016	Thailand	Academic and Social Engagement in Higher Education
2017	Singapore	ASEAN Higher Education at the Crossroad: Challenges, Changes, Capacities, and Capabilities
2018	Indonesia	ASEAN@50: Sustaining Student Competencies and Employability
2019	Taiwan	Transforming Intelligence into Action in IR
2021	Virtual	Diversity in Education

Booming from the 1980s, entrepreneurship in China has generated significant economic growth. Such eloquent economic growth has brought the host country, China, to continue investigating the academic institution's contribution to the "Entrepreneurial University of the 21st Century". China has implemented the Five-Year Plan since 1957 (Economic Policies, n.d.) The plan was initially focused on industrial development at the expense of other sectors of the economy. Currently running on the 14th Five-Year Plan, the country seeks to deal with the worsening relations between China and the USA and the COVID-19 Pandemic that caused the economy to shrink in 2020. The academic discussion on the entrepreneurial university fit nicely into the country's focus on the economy back then.

Indonesia, the largest economy in Southeast Asia, has been performing well economically since the recovery from the Asian financial crisis in the later 1990s (The World Bank, 2022). Furthermore, Indonesia managed to cut the poverty rate by half since 1999, to under 10%, just before COVID-19 hit the country in 2020. Like China, Indonesia has a 20-year development plan from 2005 to 2025, segmented into 5-year medium-term development plans. Being the host country for SEAAIR Annual Conferences in 2005, 2008, 2013, and 2018, which is where the 20-year development plan was running, the conference theme is all tailored to the contributions of the institutes of higher learning toward the growth economy, from the angles of reformation, capacity building, entrepreneurship, and economic sustainability. Such sequences also reflect how SEAAIR strategically contributes to the nation's economic growth by reforming the nation to ensure economic sustainability.

Host universities in Malaysia and Thailand designed the Conference based on the education development in the country. Malaysia hosted the SEAAIR Annual Conferences in 2006, 2009, and 2012, which are in the Education Development Plan & Policy 2001-2010 and Education National Key Results Area 2010-2012 (Devan, 2021). The themes in 2006 and 2009 address the nation's education development well, focusing on the transformation, then planning the future for higher education in the region. As the country moved to focus on the Key Results Area, the Conference organized in 2012 then addressed the need for "World Class Higher Education in ASEAN" to bring higher education in the region to the next level, looking at the world's recognition of the institutions of higher education in Southeast Asia.

When the conferences were held in Thailand, the host universities took the opportunity to address higher education quality, sustainability, and social engagement. The Thailand National Education Commission announced the National Education Act in 1999 to reform teaching and learning methods and improve environments (Office of the National Education Commission, 1999) (Bureau of International Cooperation, 2008). In addition, the Tenth National Economic and Development Plan (2007 – 2011) introduced the concept of Education Sustainability Development. It directed the national development framework with His Majesty King Rama IX's Sufficiency Economy (Nuamcharoen & Dhirathiti, 2018). Hence, the discussion on the quality of education with social engagement for education sustainability development fits nicely in the national policy and development plans.

SEAAIR Annual Conference placed its footstep in Vietnam in 2015. The country set the Conference's tone on "Internationalisation and Inclusivity". The Vietnam government released the Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA) 2005, which outlined a comprehensive strategy to reform the higher education system in the country from 2006 to 2020 (Hoang, Tran, & Pham, 2018). The strategy requests that higher education institutions address the country's socio-economic development to meet the demand for a highly skilled workforce that can be integrated into the international market.

The Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) is said to be one of the keystones of the Philippines' foreign and trade policies (Shead, 2017). The Philippines has been actively participating in the ASEAN's regional agenda for its relevance and importance at the international level. The Philippines asserts that ASEAN should remain the central focus for internal and external dealings to continue driving regionalism and be the interlocutor between the competing powers in the region. The country has been actively promoting peaceful international trade that abides by the rules and practices that benefit the region. This is in tune with the idea of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC). Hence, it is easy to realize that conferences in 2010 and 2014 addressed the issues in ASEAN.

Singapore ranked 14 in the overall Best Countries' global performance on various metrics in 2021, being the best country in Southeast Asia (U. S. News, 2021). Furthermore, Singapore is also ranked the second most expensive city in the world (gov.sg, 2021). With these factors, the high cost of organizing a regional conference is always considered by the host university in Singapore. Notwithstanding the high cost, the Annual SEAAIR Conference managed to record its first Conference in Singapore in 2017. The Republic is at the forefront of innovation in higher education to address the global technological paradigm shift in Industry 4.0, which was initialized in 2011 and then popularised in 2016 (Gleason, 2018); (Dima, 2021). The host university seized the opportunity to provide a platform to discuss challenges, changes, capacities, and capabilities of the higher education institution to ensure that graduates can cope with Industry 4.0 and survive through the different ball games in the industry.

Taiwan's Higher Education Institutions faced significant local and international challenges in the past decade, from pushing the universities to higher world rankings to dealing with declining students. (Ching, 2021) One significant change observed was the establishment of Institutional Review Boards, Research Committees, and Institutional Research (IR) Centers, with 25 IR Centers reported in 2015. In line with the country's reported number of IR Centers, the Taiwan Association for Institutional Research (TAIR) was established in 2016 to support IR activities in Taiwan and provide resources to the IR Centers (TAIR, n.d.) Worth mentioning that Taiwan is the only country in the east listed as the Affiliated Organisation for the Association of Institutional Research (AIR), after SEAAIR (AIR, Affiliated Organizations, n.d.) Therefore, it is observable that after a few years of its establishment, the 19th Annual SEAAIR Conference provided an opportunity for the country to start discussing "Transforming Intelligence into Action in IR" and learning from other members in Institutional Research.

The COVID-19 Pandemic hit the world in 2020, and country borders were closed to contain the virus to stop the outbreak. Hence, the 20th Annual SEAAIR Conference, which was supposed to be held in Malaysia, was postponed. The condition improved in 2021, but most of the country's borders were still not ready to be opened. The SEAAIR Executive Committee decided that a Virtual Conference would be organized to maintain the continuity of the Annual SEAAIR Conference. The idea of Diversity in Education was adopted as the SEAAIR Executive Committee felt that diversity is the keyword for changes to be made in institutions to address the effects brought by this Pandemic. The two-day virtual Conference was then organized to address the diversity in Instructional Research, Quality Management, and Teaching and Learning, sharing the best practices that the researchers in the region presented.

Conference Subthemes

Subthemes are topics that further elaborate on the conference theme specifically. The subthemes for Annual SEAAIR Conferences range from three to six, with most of the conferences addressing five subthemes (12 conferences in total). Conferences in 2005 had three subthemes, while those of 2009 were held with four. On the other hand, the Annual SEAAIR Conferences 2011 and 2016 in Thailand were held with six subthemes.

In the current analyses, a total of 79 subthemes were extracted from 15 conferences that were held from 2005 to 2021. These conferences are analyzed based on eight categories. The group of criteria, Institutional Research and Development, Quality Assurance and Management, and Teaching and Learning are the core objectives of SEAAIR. On the other hand, Educational Technology, Society and Culture, Education Sustainability, Creativity and Education, and Education and Industry are the second group of criteria that assist in better elaborating the conference theme. Ideally, all SEAAIR conferences must have the first category's subthemes to reflect the core business of SEAAIR. Table 3 illustrates the conference subthemes of Annual SEAAIR Conferences from 2005 to 2021.

Table 3: Conference subthemes of Annual SEAAIR Conferences from 2005 to 2021.

Year	Subtheme	Total Number of Papers	Number of papers	Institutional Research and Development	Quality Assurance and Management	Teaching and Learning	Education Technology	Society and Culture	Education Sustainability	Creativity and Education	Education and Industry
2005	Strategy and Policy Analysis	N/A		x							
	Quality Enhancement and Higher Education Management				x						
	Technology for Education and Teaching Learning					x					
2006	ICT in Higher Education	N/A					x				
	Higher Education Management				x						
	Quality and Continuous Improvement in Higher Education				x						
	Case Studies and Success Stories					x					
	Institutional Research			x							
2007	Institutional Research	52	15	x							
	Total Quality Assurance		5		x						
	Institutional Resources Based on Sufficiency and Sustainability		4						x		
	Teaching and Learning Mechanisms		18			x					
	Higher Education Management Practices Towards Sufficiency and Sustainability		10		x				x		
2008	Capacity building through Quality Assurance and Quality Management	85	17		x						
	Institutional Research in Higher Education Capacity Building		17	x							
	Managing and Sustaining Higher Education Competitive Advantage		19						x		
	Learning and Teaching to Enhance Institutional Capacity		25			x					
	Industrial Network to Support Higher Education Competitive Advantage		7								x
2009	Visioning for Excellence in Higher Education	63	10		x						
	Alternative Learning Environments for Future Learners		28			x					
	Impacts of Quality on Future Higher Education Practices		11		x						
	Institutional Research and the Growth of Higher Education		14	x							
2010	Strengthening Strategic Alliances for Academic Sustainability and Competitiveness	49	8						x		
	Transforming the Global-ASEAN Culture, Capability and Capacity of Higher Education and Research Strategic Alliances		12	x				x			
	Technology and Transformation of Teaching, Learning, and Research Paradigms in Knowledge-Based Economy		8			x					
	Experiences, Learning, and Sharing from Global, Regional, and Intra-regional Collaborations		12	x							
	Quality and Institutional Research Capabilities in Higher Education		9		x						
2011	Academic Endeavors and Excellences	74	17		x						
	IR Responses and Responsibilities		10	x							
	Educational and Technological Advances and Applications		15			x	x				
	Institutional Capacities and Capabilities		20	x							
	Quality Tenacity and Tanets		3		x						
	New, Creative, Innovative and Esoteric Initiatives		9			x				x	
2012	Institutional Research in World-Class higher education	N/A		x							
	Innovation Capabilities in World-Class higher education									x	

Year	Subtheme	Total Number of Papers	Number of papers	Institutional Research and Development	Quality Assurance and Management	Teaching and Learning	Education Technology	Society and Culture	Education Sustainability	Creativity and Education	Education and Industry
	Teaching and Learning Scholarship in World-Class higher education					x					
	Best Practices and Benchmarking World-Class higher education				x						
	Culture in World-Class higher education							x			
2013	Transforming Institutional Planning and Strategic Management	66	13	x							
	Enhancing Teaching and Scholarly Activities		24			x					
	Practicing Institutional Effectiveness: Theory, Techniques, and Technologies		8				x				
	Assessing Student Learning Outcomes and Program Quality		8		x						
	Exploring Entrepreneurship and Institutional Effectiveness		13	x							x
2014	Development Education Models for AEC 2015	54	11	x							
	Cross-Culturalization of Higher Education Institutions in AEC		6	x				x			
	Leading-Edge Strategies and Practical Solutions to Education Quality		17							x	
	Contemporary Problems in Education: Exploring the AEC Boundaries		6			x					
	Education and Authentic Human Development for AEC		14		x						
2015	Managing Internationalisation and Inclusivity of teaching and learning toward students' success	55	20			x					
	Achieving Internationalisation and Inclusivity through teaching technologies		5				x				
	Improvement of institutional and academic quality through Internationalisation and Inclusivity		13		x						
	Realizing Internationalisation and Inclusivity through Institutional Research		3	x							
	Accomplishing Internationalisation and Inclusivity through effective institutional management		14		x						
2016	Executing Teaching and Learning Engagement	62	19			x					
	Institutionalizing academic and social engagement		16	x				x			
	Empowering Technologies for Academic and Social Engagement		5				x	x			
	Discovering Institutional Research in Examining Academic and Social Engagement		13	x				x			
	Augmenting Quality Practice to Ensure Academic and Social Engagement		5		x			x			
	Enhancing Social Engagement through Service Learning		4					x			
2017	Investigating the Revolution of Educational Models, Policies, and Practices: New Magnitudes	46	12	x							
	Applying the Innovative Teaching, Learning, Assessment Techniques, and Technologies: New Scales		13			x				x	
	Implementing the Rigorous Academic Curricula: New Perspectives		3		x						
	Enhancing the Institutional Effectiveness and Academic Quality: New Dimensions		13		x						
	Re-focusing the Student Experience and Engagement: New Enrichments		5			x					
2018	Competency and Employability as the Focus of Teaching and Learning	39	9			x					

Year	Subtheme	Total Number of Papers	Number of papers	Institutional Research and Development	Quality Assurance and Management	Teaching and Learning	Education Technology	Society and Culture	Education Sustainability	Creativity and Education	Education and Industry
	Technology as an Enabler of Teaching and Learning		9			x	x				
	Quality Assurance of Students' Capacity and Capabilities		6		x						
	Institutional Management of Students' Efficacies and Effectiveness		10	x							
	ASEAN and Institutional Agenda for Students' Integration and Mobility		5	x							
2019	Quality Assurance: Practices, Impacts, and Outcomes	67	18		x						
	Advanced Technology and IR Application: Social Networks, Data Warehousing, and Data Collection		6				x				
	Institutional Governance: Enrolment, Social Mobility, and Higher Education Accountability		14	x							
	Teaching Dimensions and Possibilities: Innovations, Performance, and Assessment		27			x					
	Research Institutionalisation: System, Dissemination, and Utilisation		2	x							
2021	Teaching, Learning, and Quality Assurance	39	19		x	x					
	Education Governance, Culture, and Values		15	x				x			
	Inclusive and Multidisciplinary Curriculum		2		x				x		
	Educational Technology and Innovation		2				x			x	
	National Education Agenda		1	x	x						

Not surprisingly, all conferences address the first group of the criteria and ensure that the conference subtheme not only align with the Conference's theme but is also in line with the direction and core values of Institutional Research. This is also depicted in Figure 3, where the highest the first three criteria represent the highest occurrence of the analyses. The design of the conference theme and subthemes results from the discussion between the host university's Local Organising Committee (LOC) and the SEAAIR Executive Committee. Hence, conferences must set the theme based on the needs of the university or country and adhere to the direction of SEAAIR.

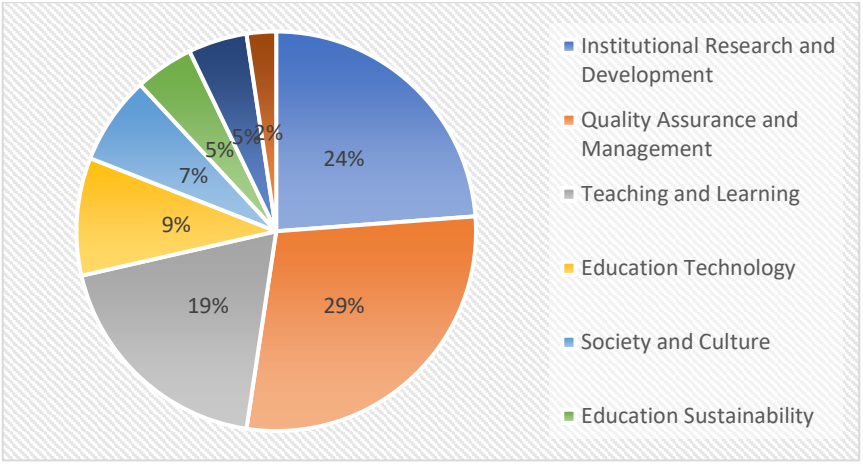

Figure 3: Distribution of the measurement criteria for Annual SEAAIR Conference Subthemes.

Education Technology creates, uses, and manages technological resources and processes to facilitate learning (Robinson, Molenda, & Rezabek, 2008). The institutions of higher learning have changed from using just overhead projectors in the early days to using various technologies such as computers, projectors, smart boards, or even virtual meeting environments. Hence, the importance of understanding and applying education technology has become one of the topics that need to be addressed by universities. This criterion has been ticked in conferences from 2015 – 2021 continuously.

Some of the subthemes address more criteria. For instance, "Empowering Technologies for Academic and Social Engagement" 2016 covers Education Technology and Society and Culture criteria. For example, Thailand suggested subthemes crossing two criteria in their four times of conference hosting. The subthemes combined one criterion from the SEAAIR core objectives and another from the other group. Such a combination led the delegates to focus on the main business and expand the research area to complement the core business. The university also invites a more diverse discussion through the subtheme, leading to the potential multidisciplinary research collaboration.

The subtheme of the 21st Annual SEAAIR Conference presented a different way of categorization, which may be due to its main theme, which relates to diversity. Hence, the subtheme was designed to include as many criteria as possible. Two criteria cover each of the subthemes. For instance, "Teaching, Learning, and Quality Assurance" covers both criteria of "Quality Assurance and Management" and "Teaching and Learning". Such an arrangement allows the coverage of more topics within the comfortable number of subthemes of the Conference.

Conference Papers Analyses

Analyses of Paper Submission Based on Country

The annual SEAAIR Conference received submissions and presentations of papers from 29 countries across the world's five continents. 751 papers were collected from 13 proceedings (2007 – 2021), with analyses of subthemes, authors, countries, and keywords performed on these papers. Figure 4 illustrates the word cloud of the submission number based on the 751 papers. The Philippines is the leading submission country, contributing 278 conference papers. Furthermore, it is not surprising to observe the top four countries with the highest submission of conference papers are the Philippines (37.02%), Thailand (16.11%), Malaysia (14.78%), and Indonesia (14.65%). The full spectrum analysis of the paper submitted by countries is depicted in Figure 5.

Figure 4: The word cloud shows the frequency of the countries based on 751 papers submitted from 29 countries.

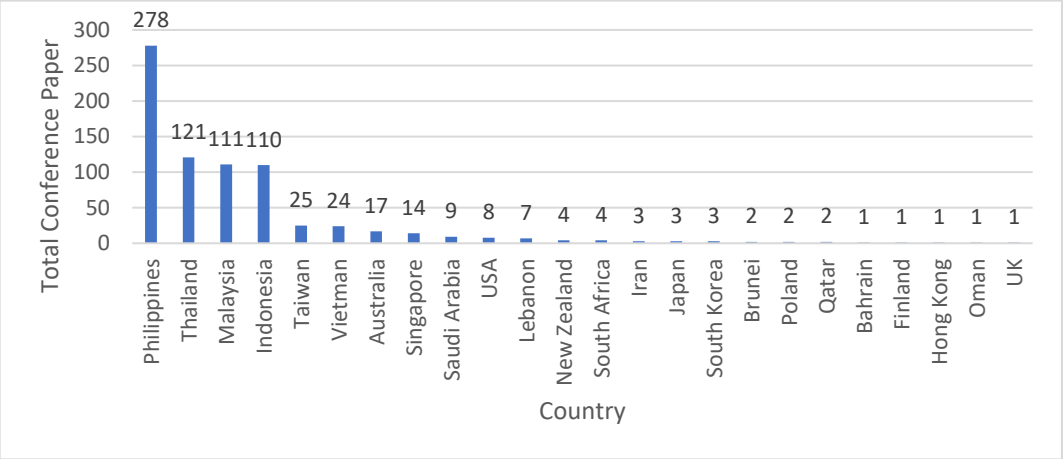

Figure 5: The total number of conference papers submitted based on the country

Looking in detail at the submission trend from Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand, the four countries have been the main contributors to the conference papers, with a contribution rate as high as 95.9% in 2011 and averaging 82.2% of the contribution per Conference. Figure 6 illustrates the moving paper contribution rate for the above four countries.

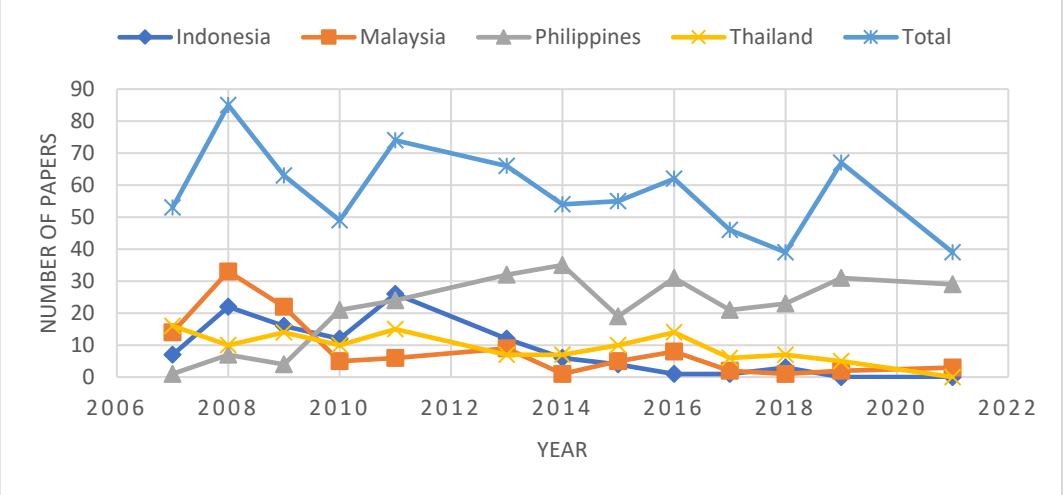

Figure 6: Number of papers submitted by Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand concerning the total submission from 2007 to 2021.

Of the four countries, Malaysia showed the most significant decrease in the submitted paper at the Conference. The submission of conference papers dropped from 33 in 2008 to 1 in 2018. This would partly be because the universities in the country started to recognize the paper published in the Scopus- or Web-of-Science-Indexed proceedings. This observation agrees with the data presented by (Purnell, 2021), where the number of publications in the Scopus and Web of Science showed a 200% increase from 2008 to 2014.

Further comparing Figure 6 and Table 2 to analyze the number of submissions based on the host country, the results show no obvious pattern to show that any host country would bring in more participation. For instance, the Conference held in Singapore in 2017 may have the lowest

participation as Singapore is rated as having the highest cost of living in Southeast Asia (Tan, 2022). Furthermore, a low participation rate would be assumed with the high currency exchange rate. Notwithstanding the high traveling cost, Singapore ranked 11 out of 13 proceedings analyzed, with 46 papers submitted – just three papers less than the Philippines in 2010 (49 papers). On the other hand, Indonesia brought the highest submission rate of 85 in 2008, then 66 in 2013, and registered the lowest submission rate in 2028 with only 39 paper submissions.

Analyses of Paper Submission Based on Authorship

Figure 7 illustrates the distribution of the paper submitted based on the number of authors per paper. One or two authors authored about two-thirds of the submission. At the same time, 84 papers with more than three authors contributed 11% of the submission.

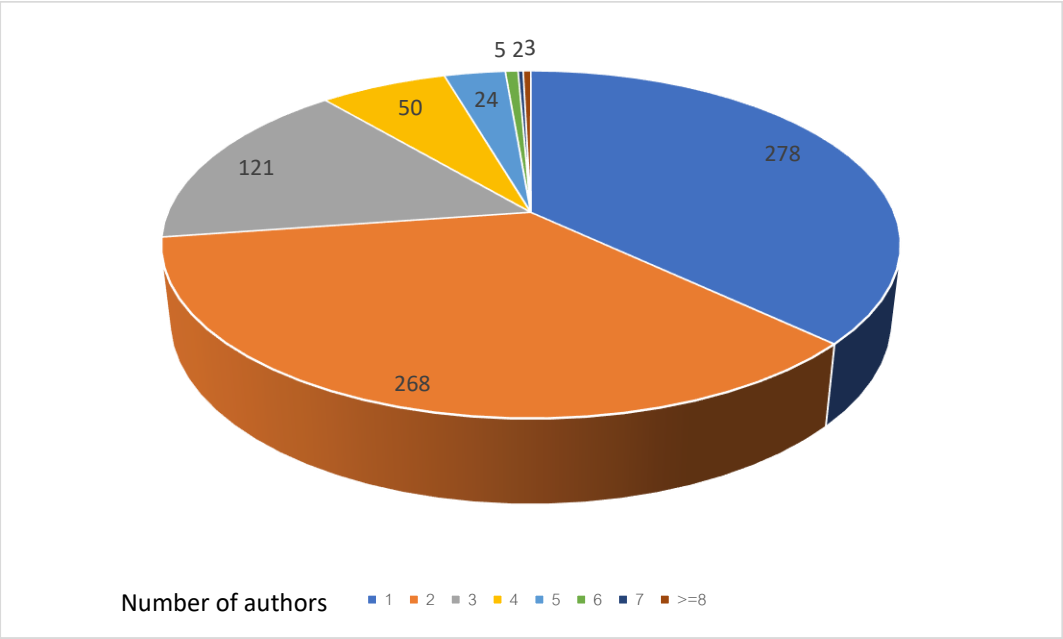

Figure 7: Distribution of the paper submitted based on the number of authors per paper

Breaking down the submission regarding the conference year, as shown in Figure 8, although single-authored papers contributed to 37% of the total conference paper, the single-authored submission was a downhill trend. As expected, the increasing trend of multiple authors, especially three or more authors, was shown throughout the years. As the university focused more on academic research outputs, academic collaboration was observed among academics to produce a publication. This, in turn, gives a higher volume of publications per year per academic reflected in the academic portfolio.

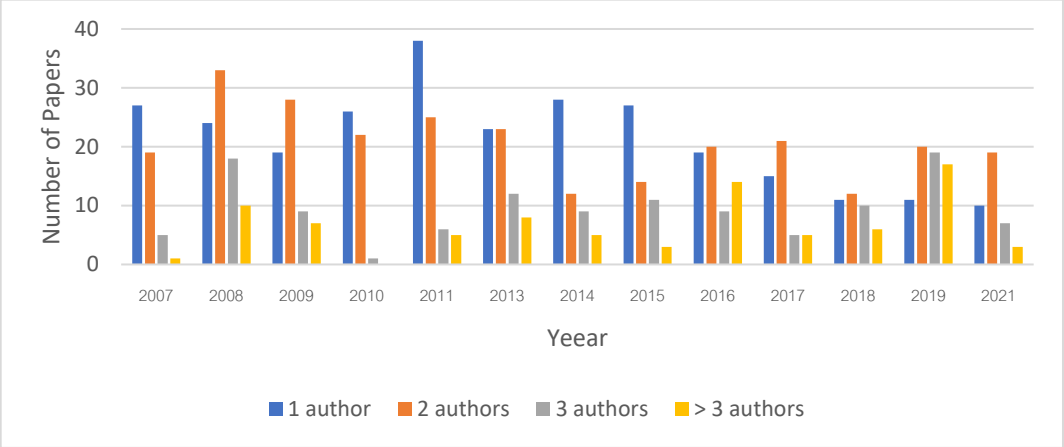

Figure 8: Number of paper submissions based on number of authors from 2007 to 2021.

Based on the Vancouver criteria, authorship guidelines published by (ICMJE, 2022), authorship credit is recommended based on the following four criteria: "Substantial contributions to the conception and design, or analysis and interpretation of data; drafting the article or revising it critically for important intellectual content; final approval of the version to be published; agreement to be accountable for all aspects of the work in ensuring that questions related to the accuracy or integrity of any part of the work are appropriately investigated and resolved". Although the guidelines were initially drafted for medical research, (Pruschak, 2021) showed that the guidelines were also applicable to social sciences research.

Further analyses of the 84 papers submitted with more than three authors show that papers are mainly submitted from 11 out of the 29 countries, as shown in Figure 9. The four countries with the highest number of collaborations of more than three authors were the Philippines (23 papers), Taiwan (13 papers), Malaysia (14 papers), and Thailand (11 papers). There were three papers authored by eight or more, which were published in 2013 (14 authors), 2016 (11 authors), and 2021 (8 authors).

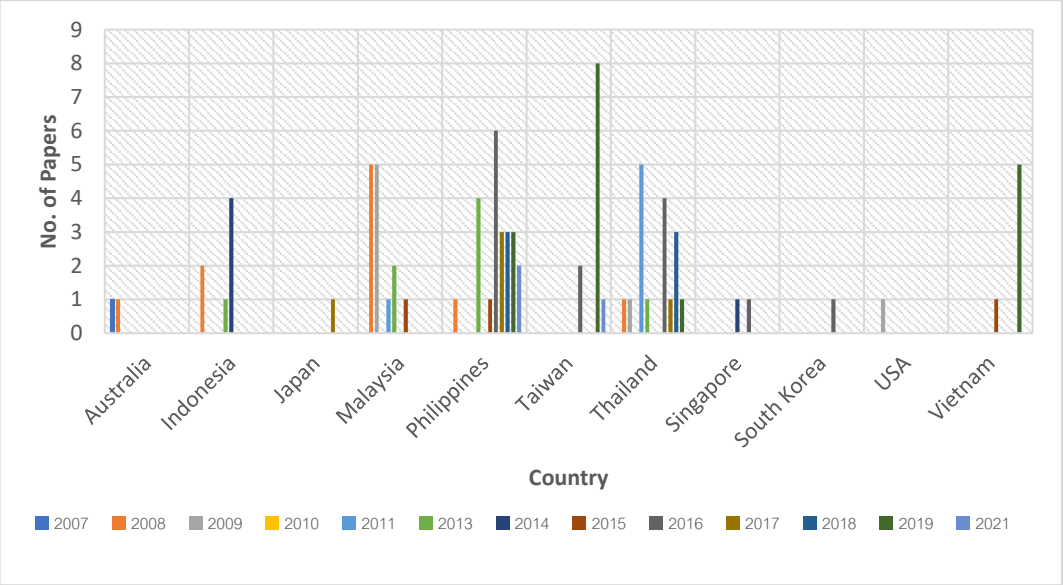

Figure 9: Countries with papers with four or more authors

To ensure that all authors' contributions in a paper are substantial and recognizable, the SEAAIR Annual Conference 2022 published a new rule to limit the full authorship for each paper to three. For a paper with more than three authors, the correspondence author needs to inform the Technical Chair to justify the contribution of all authors and seek approval from the Technical Chair. This move is said to be implemented in line with the Vancouver criteria.

Analyses of Paper Submission Based on Conference Subthemes

Earlier in Table 3, the subthemes with the respective categorization were presented. Table 4 below shows the categories of the subthemes based on the number of papers submitted by the countries. Some subthemes may cover more than categories; hence, the total number presented in Table 4 is more than the total number of papers examined in the proceedings, that is, 751. The first three categories are the primary research areas of the institutions. As expected, they have the highest number of papers covered by the countries. The following five categories are the secondary research areas that developed based on the theme and direction of the Conference. The numbers of papers presented in these categories are relatively lesser.

Table 4: Categories of subthemes based on the number of papers submitted by countries

	Institutional Research and Development	Quality Assurance and Management	Teaching and Learning	Education Technology	Society and Culture	Education Sustainability	Creativity and Education	Education and Industry
Australia	4	8	4	1		1	1	
Bahrain			1					
Brunei			2					
China								
Finland		1						
Hong Kong								1
Indonesia	36	23	24	3	5	8	4	6
Iran		3						
Japan		1		1				
Lebanon	1	1	1	1	1		1	1
Malaysia	26	23	46	4	3	10		3
New Zealand		2	1			1		
Oman		1						
Philippines	70	78	74	22	28	6	16	5
Poland		1						
Qatar		1	1					
Saudi Arabia	4	2	4		1			
Singapore	1	3	8	1				
South Africa	1		2					
South Korea		2			1			
Taiwan	8	5	7	4	3			
Thailand	30	23	34	12	10	10	3	2
UK						1		
USA	3	3	1					
Vietman	3	14	7		1			

	Institutional Research and Development	Quality Assurance and Management	Teaching and Learning	Education Technology	Society and Culture	Education Sustainability	Creativity and Education	Education and Industry
Total	187	195	217	49	53	37	25	18

The table reveals the different preferences in the research theme by different countries. Such difference is more evident in countries with high submission volume, such as Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand. Take these countries, for example; Malaysia and Thailand mainly submit papers on Teaching and Learning. Indonesia and the Philippines, on the other hand, submitted more papers in the categories of Institutional Research and Development, and Quality Assurance and Management, respectively.

It is worth the consideration to further increase the frequency of education sustainability and education technology in the Conference, as these areas have gained increased focus in recent years following the Sustainability Development Goal by UNESCO and the COVID-19 Pandemic. With further research completed and published in these two areas, the institutions can develop teaching and learning strategies through sustainable quality assurance and management systems, yielding institutions that continue to develop sustainably.

Analyses of Paper Submission Based on Keywords

A total of 2634 keywords were registered in 13 proceedings. Figure 10 shows the word cloud generated based on the keywords used by the authors. It should be mentioned that some minor modifications to certain words were made to ensure keywords are captured as accurately as possible. For example, "Elearning" and "E-learning" are standardized as "E-learning"; "ICT", "Information and Communication Technology", and "Information and Communications Technologies" are standardized as "Information and Communication Technology".

Figure 10: Word cloud generated based on the keywords

The keywords were then further analyzed through single keywords and combined keywords. Some of the frequent keywords are illustrated in Table 5. As expected, Higher Education was the keyword with the highest frequency. The word "Perceptions" became the second most

popular keyword as many researchers presented research based on a survey done on a pool of respondents.

Table 5: Top Ten Keywords of Annual SEAAIR Conference Proceedings

Keyword	Occurrence
Higher Education	75
Perceptions	24
Institutional Research	18
Academic Performance	17
Quality Assurance	14
Training	12
Undergraduate	12
Information and Communication Technology	11
Satisfaction	10
University Social Responsibility	10

SEAAIR focuses on the improved understanding, planning, and operations of post-secondary education institutions. Furthermore, SEAAIR also encourages the application of appropriate methodologies and techniques from many disciplines and comparative research into national higher education systems in Southeast Asia (SEAAIR, n.d.) The keywords fit not only the conference theme and subthemes but also the direction of the SEAAIR.

Some common keywords are combined with other words to provide a group of keywords addressing the same area. Table 6 shows the top ten keyword combinations of the Annual SEAAIR Conference Proceedings.

Table 6: Top ten Keywords combinations of Annual SEAAIR Conference Proceedings

Keyword	Occurrence
Student Student Employability, Student Attrition, student-centered Learning, Student Challenges, Student Confidence, Student Development Programme, Student Engagement, Student Interest, Student Leaders, Student Learning Outcomes, Student Life Cycle, Student Organisations, Student Performance, Student Retention, Student Satisfaction, Student Services, Student Teachers, Student Transition, Student Unions, Students' Attitude, Students' Difficulty, Students' Involvement	84
Learning Learning Achievement, Learning Activities, Learning and Teaching, Learning Approaches, Learning Commitment, Learning Difficulty, Learning Engagements, Learning Management, Learning Management System, Motivation, Learning Organisation, Learning Outcomes, Learning Styles, Learning Technologies, Learning Theories,	60

Academic Academic Performance, Academic Programme, Academic Programme, Academic Quality, Academic Services, Academic Staff, Academic Successes, Academic writing	44
Teaching Teaching and Learning, Teaching and Research, Teaching Anxiety, Teaching Competencies, Teaching Curriculum, Teaching Effectiveness, Teaching English, Teaching Learning Process, Teaching Methods, Teaching Practice, Teaching Quality, Teaching Reading, Teaching Standards	41
Entrepreneur, Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurial Entrepreneur, Entrepreneurial Attitudes, Entrepreneurial Capital, Entrepreneurial Institution, Entrepreneurial Journey, Entrepreneurial Project, Entrepreneurial Risk-Taking, Entrepreneurial Models, Entrepreneurial Training, Entrepreneurship Activities, Entrepreneurship Learning, Entrepreneurship Program, Entrepreneurship Teaching	40
Quality Quality, Quality Analysis, Quality Assurance, Quality Education, Quality Instruction, Quality Legacy, Quality Management, Quality Management System. Quality Mentoring, Quality Research, Quality Teaching	32
Information Information, Information Competency, Information Literacy, Information Management, Information System, Information System Model, Information Technology, Information Technology Knowledge	31
University University Admissions, University Governance, University Lecturers, University Personnel, University Services, University Social Responsibility, University Stakeholders, University Students,	27
International, Internationalisation International Competitiveness, International Cooperation, International Higher Education, International Linkages, International Programme, International Students, Internationalisation Approaches, Internationalisation Motives, Internationalisation of Education, Internationalisation Processes	26
Education, Educational Education, Education 4.0, Education Effect, Education Management, Education Students, Educational, Educational Media, Educational Quality Mentoring, Educational System, Educational Quality Assurance	22

The keyword combination is viewed as authors aligning the research paper to the theme and subthemes of the Conference. For example, "Entrepreneurship" arises from the Conference in 2013, where the theme and subthemes focused on Entrepreneurship in Higher Education. Another example is the keyword combination of "Internationalisation". This combination arose

from the 2015 conference, which addressed the internationalization and inclusivity of higher education.

Discussion

In the ASEAN Context, the Conference leaves its presence in six out of ten ASEAN member countries. Four universities are listed in the Times Higher Education (THE, 2022), while only two were listed in QS World University Rankings (QS, 2022). This lays the potential barrier for SEAAIR's venture into the Bruneian university and promoting Institutional Research in the country. The fresh market in Brunei may also be seen as a potential opportunity for future SEAAIR conferences to be organized in Brunei and have the Bruneian culture introduced to the world. On the contrary, Cambodia, Laos, and Myanmar are relatively less developed or low-income countries (World Population Review, 2022), so institutional research or conference hosting may not be the university's priority. Therefore, SEAAIR may consider connecting with Brunei to create awareness in Cambodia, Laos, and Myanmar. Such establishment may be achieved through the publicity of the current members and the call for conference notification sent to the universities.

Based on the analyses performed on the themes, the host country designs the conference theme based on the local development related to government policies, socio-economy development, or future planning. Table 7 describes the highlight or keywords of the conference themes based on the observation of themes for conferences held from 2003 to 2021.

Table 7: Conference theme keywords/highlights for Annual SEAAIR Conferences 2003 – 2021, categorized by countries.

Country	Keywords / Highlights
China, Indonesia	Entrepreneurship
Malaysia, Thailand	Education Quality, Education Sustainability
Philippines	ASEAN Movements
Vietnam	Internalisations, Inclusions
Singapore, Taiwan	Implementation, Actions, and Challenges

Such categorization may provide a guideline for the host universities to understand the trend created from the past conferences and how they may design their themes based on the modern nation development and the direction of the host university.

SEAAIR's core research area is based on the three main pillars: Institutional Research and Development, Quality Assurance and Management, and Teaching and Learning for post-secondary education. The host university needs to ensure that the Conference's subthemes are closely tied to these three pillars so that researchers will address these research areas, leading to knowledge sharing and further strengthening the foundation of Institutional Research in the region. From the current analyses of 16 conferences, the subthemes not only complement the main theme and covers SEAAIR's main research pillars but also suggest additional topics that may be of the host university to elaborate the conference theme further.

Of the 15 conferences, three-quarters of the conferences proposed five subthemes to complement the main theme. The number of subthemes covers all necessary topics and does

not leave researchers with too many confusing choices of topics. When the Conference is organized with too many subthemes, the host university may face an issue of a low volume of submissions in certain subthemes, leading to the subtheme not being able to be well addressed through the research outputs.

82.56% of the conference papers were submitted from Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand. A decreasing trend was observed in Indonesia and Malaysia, while the Philippines showed increased submissions. The first submission from Taiwan was in 2016, coinciding with the establishment of TAIR (TAIR, n.d.) Since then, the paper from Taiwan has increased, leading to the hosting of the Conference in 2019. With the close relationship between SEAAIR and TAIR, a predicted positive increment in Taiwanese papers should be observed.

An interesting trend was observed when the paper submissions were analyzed based on the continent or geopolitical region. In the earlier years, balanced submissions were seen from all continents and geopolitical regions. However, the submissions from Europe, the Middle East, and America stopped from 2015 onwards. On the other hand, 2016 marked the first submissions from East Asia, and submission from the region was observed every year. As universities try to increase their ranking, academics are more selective in publishing journals and conferences. As a result, indexed conference proceedings became one of the considerations for publication. The conference proceedings indexed in the Conference Proceedings Citation Index of Scopus or Web of Science are strongly recommended to increase participation.

Single-authored papers contributed to one-third of the total Conference analyzed. This means that the other two-thirds of the papers were multiple-authored papers, with 27% of the papers authored by three or more authors. Given the increase of multiple-authored papers published at the Conference, it is recommendable for the Conference organizing committee to introduce authorship guidelines that incorporate the Vancouver criteria to recognize the equal contribution of all authors. Higher education institutes or research institutions must emphasize academics' hiring and promotion processes to ensure justifiable authorship in conferences and journals, as publication counts are also drafted based on the Vancouver criteria.

Conclusion and Future Works

This paper discussed the conference themes and subthemes of the Annual SEAAIR Conferences from 2001 to 2021. The analyses revealed the relatedness of the conference theme based on the country's contemporary educational or socio-economic development, which can be categorized based on the host country and the essential key phrases. Most conferences have five subthemes to support the conference themes, providing a clear guideline to the researchers to gear their research output in line with the conference theme. In two decades, SEAAIR engaged six out of ten ASEAN countries in hosting the conferences and extended their connection to China and Taiwan to fly the flag of SEAAIR in other Asia countries.

From 2007 to 2021, the Annual SEAAIR Conference received 751 conference papers from 29 countries. Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand showed the highest participation, contributing more than 80% of the conference papers. Although a negative increment in paper submission was observed in Western countries, a positive increment was seen in East Asia in almost the same period. The annual SEAAIR Conference should index the conference proceeding in either Web of Science or Scopus to boost the participation rate further. On top of that, the Conference also received an increased number of papers with multiple authors. Such a trend of increment suggests it is a good time for the Conference organizing committee to provide an authorship guideline concerning the Vancouver criteria. As such, the ethical, equal

contribution from the paper's authors is recognized, leading to a higher quality of the conference proceedings.

The keywords in a research paper help others locate similar papers within their research scope. Keywords presented in the conference paper showed their relatedness, recency, and appropriateness according to the theme and subthemes. The keywords also demonstrated that the authors of the conference papers understood and appreciated the vision and missions of SEAAIR, contributing their idea to the development of Institutional Research in the region.

This research work can be expanded in a few areas. With the ongoing Conference, the analyses will be expanded to the following years to observe the trend of submission from the countries, especially the return of the Middle East, America, and Europe, and the increase of East Asia submissions. Similar research is also expandable to the detailed analyses of JIRSEA or other Institutional Research journals and conference proceedings to analyze the trend and direction of the paper submissions.

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Focus and Language Functions in Supervisors' Written Feedback on Master's Theses at KSU's Translation Department

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ABSTRACT

Written feedback is an essential communication between theses supervisors and postgraduate students. This study examines written assessments from academic supervisors from a master's program with no official assessment rubric or tool at a postgraduate level. The data from written feedback on five masters' theses underwent qualitative content analysis focused on identifying comments related to the foci; content, language, structure, and presentation; and directive, expressive, and referential language functions. The findings revealed that the dominant focus of the supervisors' written feedback was content, followed by language, then structure, and presentation. Supervisors strongly preferred directive language, followed by referential language, with a minimal representation of expressive language. This study concluded that the supervisors emphasized content-related feedback more, while language, structure, and presentation were secondary and tertiary concerns. The supervisors also preferred directives, such as clarifying questions and suggestions, over referential language functions, such as indirect corrections. They showed little interest in expressive language functions, such as giving praise or negative criticism when giving written feedback. Implications and recommendations were also provided in this study. It is concluded that the supervisors focused on the content of the thesis. In addition, they also looked at its overall aspects.

Keywords: assessment, content analysis, language functions, masters thesis, written feedback

Introduction

Theses and dissertations are often the culminating requirements of a postgraduate degree. While students direct the content and focus of these papers, they do so under the guidance of supervisors through assessment feedback. The importance of feedback assessment for students, supervisors, and the academe underlines the need to give more attention to feedback to achieve better outputs. Therefore, the supervisor's role is essential as written feedback has been shown to affect students' writing development positively (Biber et al., 2011) and without which postgraduate supervisees may not meet the expected proficiency in academic writing at a master's or doctorate level. The assessment of Ph.D. dissertations or master's theses also helps to uphold the standards of a program and encourages students to pursue subsequent research work (Man et al., 2020). While various studies have explored the topic of postgraduate feedback assessment of supervisors (e.g., Biber et al., 2011; Bourke & Holbrook, 2011; Ghadirian et al., 2014; Holbrook et al., 2014; Hussain, 2011; Kiley, 2009; Kumar & Stracke, 2017; Prieto et al., 2016), this has primarily been researched at a doctorate level. Only a few look at supervisor feedback at a master's status (e.g., Bastola, 2020; Hyatt, 2005; Man et al., 2020). This present study attempts to add to this area by addressing the topic of supervisors' written feedback assessment at a master's level in a Saudi Arabian university.

The data collected came from five supervisors, who each provided written feedback on their assessment of a master's thesis from one of their supervisees. The five students were all completing their Master of Translation Studies degrees at King Saud University (KSU), Saudi Arabia. An essential factor of this study is that the university does not have a standard rubric, standard format, or assessment tool for evaluating master theses or providing feedback, as Bitchener et al. (2011) and Bastola (2020) recommended. It is a significant motivating factor for this study, as it will be a foundation for creating a standardized assessment tool or template. It will also hopefully improve the writing standard of the graduate program. To this end, this paper aims to uncover common foci and categorize language functions through a qualitative content analysis of the supervisors' written feedback on master's theses.

Literature Review

Assessment of supervisory feedback

This paper draws on several studies that tackle this area of research, including Holbrook et al.'s (2014) study that, like this study, explored the focus and substance of constructive comments provided by Ph.D. examiners. Hussain (2011) studied the supervision and evaluation of graduate students' research projects in a localized setting, focusing on the realities and requirements of research and supervision in Saudi Arabia. The study's outcome was that he determined standards and benchmarks for evaluating theses. Ghadirian et al. (2014) conducted a similar survey of the challenges of improving the quality of supervision. The study concluded that more attention and proper planning are needed to modify related rules and regulations, improve qualitative and quantitative research in mentorship training, better the research atmosphere, and effectively monitor and evaluate the supervisory field. These studies imply that

theses supervision is a challenging task and is a continuous work in progress (Ghadirian et al., 2014; Hussain, 2011). Biber et al. (2011) explored the effectiveness of feedback for individual writing development. Their meta-analysis revealed that written feedback positively affected students' writing development. The study also highlighted that commenting is more effective than error location; generally, a focus on form and content seemed more effective than an exclusive focus on form (Biber et al., 2011).

The results of the studies cited above were mainly positive regarding written feedback. However, Soden (2013) found the opposite when he investigated the impact of written input on critical academic writing in two master's programs in the UK. The study revealed that written feedback could have been more suitable for conveying the implicit nature of critical academic writing and that nuance was lost in the written form, leaving room for misinterpretation. (Soden, 2013). Soden recommends developing an approach to feedback delivery that engages other senses through visual exemplars and dialogue as audio feedback. These approaches can strengthen the supervisor and supervisee relationships and improve supervisee engagement and motivation (2013). This result is also one of the considerations of the current study as it also aims to analyze written feedback from supervisors on identified theses and if it will serve as corroboration or a contradiction in the future. In contrast, Singh's 2016 study on graduate students in the Malaysian setting showed that while they preferred written feedback, they needed frequent feedback from their supervisors via an electronic method. The implication is that although the feedback is written, it more closely resembles the dialogues recommended by Soden (2013).

Written feedback: focus and functions

Other recent studies have also explored the topic of supervisory written feedback in thesis writing (Gedamu & Gezahegn, 2021; Man et al., 2020; Noel et al., 2021; Nurie, 2018; Saeed et al., 2021). Nurie (2018) explored supervision practices in higher education, concentrating on language function and written feedback. While the study's results implied that better supervision practices were needed, it also identified supervisors' written feedback as essential to effective communication. Another related research was conducted by Man et al. (2020) that focused on the content of assessment feedback in examiner reports on master's dissertations in translation studies. The research revealed that supervisors considered the expression of ideas as more important than the accuracy and originality of those ideas (Man et al., 2020). The study of Gedamu and Gezahegn (2021) addressed the focus and language functions of supervisors' written feedback in an EFL context. Their results showed a trend where thesis supervisors consistently chose the directive feedback language function over the expressive feedback language function in written assessments (Gedamu & Gezahegn, 2021). Saeed et al. (2021) investigated supervisory feedback formulation for research proposals and postgraduate students' responses to that feedback. The study revealed that directive language was overwhelmingly represented in the results of questions that aimed to engage students. The feedback focused on content, organization, linguistic accuracy, and appropriateness (Saeed et al., 2021).

As discussed in the introduction of this paper, most studies explored Ph.D. dissertations/research, and there is scant research into the feedback of master's theses by

supervisors. This study aims to explore more on master's thesis, particularly the written feedback provided by the supervisors. In addition, most of the studies cited used quantitative and qualitative research. In contrast, this study uses a qualitative approach to analyze the data unique to this locus and situation. To this effect, this study concentrates more on the focus and language functions of the written feedback to provide a micro-discussion on variables related to the assessment of supervisory written feedback. Based on this study aims to analyze the supervisors' written feedback on a master's thesis. Specifically, it seeks to answer to determine the following:

(1) The common foci of supervisors' written feedback on a graduate's thesis; and
(2) The categories of language functions that the supervisors' written feedback.

Methodology

Theoretical and conceptual framework

To reiterate, the focus of this study is on the analysis of supervisors' written feedback on master thesis research. Drawing on Saeed et al. (2021) research, this study defines written feedback "as a tool for communicating issues and flaws in academic writing." This current study intends to explore the foci of the data and adapt the categories listed by Saeed et al. (p1. 2021); linguistic accuracy, content, appropriateness, and organization. They categorized foci according to language, content, structure, and presentation. The operational definitions are the following: language refers to grammar, spelling, and punctuation, as well as linguistic accuracy and appropriateness. Structure and presentation refer to the organization and formatting of the paper, specifically the formatting of references, tables, figures, headings, and appendices. Lastly, the content relates to the inputs on ideas or data presented in the study.

Influenced by various studies on language functions within advisory feedback (Bastola, 2020; Basturkmen et al., 2014; Kumar & Stracke, 2007; Saeed et al., 2021; Xu, 2017), the researchers have identified and coded certain pragmatic functions found in the data as part of the content analysis process. As such, the coding is grouped into three main categories: referential, directive, and expressive. As these categories reflect Saeed et al.'s (2021) findings, this study uses the definitions provided by their research: "referential (feedback that provides information, corrections, and reformulation), directive (feedback eliciting information such as seeking students' clarification, justification, and confirmation, and telling and suggesting what to do and not to do), and expressive (registering a positive or negative response)" (p. 3). The data on supervisory written feedback will analyze these three categories of functions. Figure 1 shows the conceptual model and key constructs used for this research.

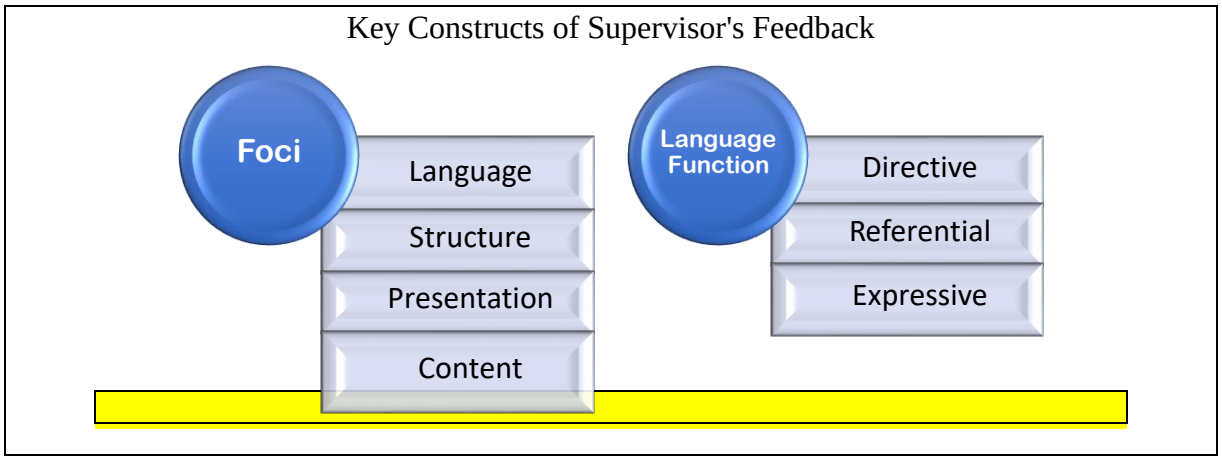

Figure 1: Conceptual Model of Feedback Analysis of Master's Thesis

Research design and method

This study uses qualitative design to answer the two research focuses on the common foci of supervisors' written feedback on graduates' theses and the categories of language functions of the supervisors' written feedback. The researcher employed content analysis to identify code and categorize the foci (language, structure, presentation, content) and language functions (directive, referential, expressive) in the written feedback. According to the supervisor, all relevant data were organized in tables, focus (language, structure, presentation, content), and language functions (directive, referential, expressive). Inter-rater validation was also done to provide a more objective interpretation of data. The inter-rater has similar leverage as the researcher.

Content analysis is a research tool used to determine the presence of certain words, themes, or concepts within some given qualitative data (i.e., text). This paper's content analysis adapted methodology aims to quantify and analyze the presence, meanings, and relationships of certain words, themes, or concepts used by the supervisor in providing feedback to the five sample understudies. The researcher can thus evaluate the feedback context and content to identify bias or partiality and then make inferences about the messages within the feedback, both the sample and supervisor intent, and even the culture and time surrounding the text. The content analysis aims to find correlations and patterns in how feedback concepts are communicated and reveal differences and biases in communication in different contexts. In addition, it seeks to understand the supervisor's intentions in providing feedback and analyzing the consequences of communication context and content, such as the flow of information or student and inter-rater responses.

The content analysis follows the adapted approaches of Holsti (1968), "Any technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying special characteristics of messages," and Constable et al. (2005), "An interpretive and naturalistic approach. It is both observational and narrative and relies less on the experimental elements normally associated with scientific research (reliability, validity, and generalizability)." As such, a minimal statistical approach is applied in this paper of the context and content analysis, which is more observational and narrative, to make inferences by systematically and objectively identifying particular feedback characteristics.

In this paper, the Content Analysis general steps are adapted from Hsieh and Shannon (2016), Elo et al. (2014), and Krippendorff (1980):

1. Deciding the level of analysis: word, word sense, phrase, sentence, themes
2. Deciding on an interactive set of categories or concepts allows flexibility to add categories through the coding. It provides for introducing and analyzing new and vital material that could have significant implications for the research questions.
3. Deciding coding for the frequency of a concept to enable the researcher would count the number of times a concept appears in a text.
4. Deciding on coding rules so that word segments are transparently categorized logically. The rules could make all of these word segments fall into the same category, or the rules could be formulated so that the researcher can distinguish these word segments into different codes.
5. Developing rules for coding your texts. i.e., for translation of the text into codes. It will keep the coding process organized and consistent. Validity of the coding process is ensured through consistency and coherence in code usage, meaning that they follow their translation rules. In content analysis, obeying the translation rules is equivalent to validity.
6. Deciding what to do with irrelevant information: should this be ignored (e.g., common English words like "the" and "and") or used to reexamine the coding scheme in the case that it would add to the outcome of coding?
7. Coding the text is done as the researcher can recognize errors far more easily (e.g., typos, misspellings).
8. Analyzing the results by drawing conclusions and generalizations where possible. Determine what to do with irrelevant, unwanted, or unused text: reexamine, ignore, or reassess the coding scheme. Interpret results carefully, as conceptual content analysis can only quantify the information. Typically, general trends and patterns can be identified.

Research context and limitations

This study was done at a Saudi Arabian University; the participants were five supervisors and five graduate students from the Master in Translation Studies program. The selection criteria of the student participants are that they are well advanced in the completion of the thesis, and this is solicited voluntarily from the class of 2022. As to the supervisors, the main selection criteria are delimited to experienced supervisors with more than five years of thesis supervision, with active thesis supervision at the time of the study, and their participation is also voluntary. Once both parties agreed to participate in the study, written permission was solicited and granted by the students, the supervisors, and the university's Graduate Program Committee, for the written feedback data to be used for this study. Confidentiality and personal information protection were also assured for those participating in this research study. The limitations of this study include the number of theses studied, as the data was gathered only from students who had submitted their master's thesis and received feedback, and were available to consent. The limited data necessarily narrows the focus of this paper**.** Despite needing more consistency in the length and depth of the feedback details, all gathered data are used. This inconsistency is a direct result of the university not having a standard rubric, format, or assessment tool for evaluating master's

theses, as Bitchener et al. (2011) and Bastola (2020) recommended.

Findings

This section shows the content analysis results and provides tabulated data showing how the various foci and language functions ranked with each supervisor.

Table 1. Number of comments focusing on content, language, structure, and presentation in supervisor feedback

Supervisor	Content	Language	Structure & Presentation
A	7 (46.6%)	4 (26.7%)	4 (26.7%)
B	1 (12.5%)	5 (62.5%)	2 (25%)
C	24 (61.5%)	9 (23.1%)	6 (15.4%)
D	14 (56%)	2 (8%)	9 (36%)
E	10 (58.8%)	1 (5.9%)	6 (35.3%)

The content was the dominant focus of the written feedback from supervisors A, C, D, and E (Table 1). Structure and presentation proved to be the secondary focus for supervisors B, D, and E. Followed by language for supervisors D and E. Supervisor A had an equal number of comments focused on language, structure, and presentation. After content, supervisor C focused more on their feedback on language than on structure and presentation. Supervisor B's written feedback differs significantly from the other supervisors, showing a higher focus on language, structure, and presentation, with content only warranting a single comment. However, the inconsistency of these figures could be explained by the brevity of Supervisor B's feedback, eight comments versus 39 comments from Supervisor C, who provided the most extensive feedback.

Table 2. Number of supervisor feedback comments that demonstrated directive, referential, and expressive language functions

Supervisor	Directive	Referential	Expressive
A	13 (86,6%)	1 (6,7%)	1 (6,7%)
B	6 (66,7%)	3 (33,3%)	0 (0,00%)
C	33 (84,6%)	4 (10,3%)	2 (5,1%)
D	21 (91,3%)	2 (8,7%)	0 (0%)
E	13 (76,5%)	4 (23,5%)	0 (0%)

The results in Table 2 show that the directive language function dominated feedback from all five supervisors. For supervisors, B, C, D, and E comments that could be categorized as having referential language functions took second place. Feedback from supervisor A demonstrated one comment that could be categorized as having referential language functions and one that could be categorized as having expressive language functions. Supervisor C provided two comments whose language functions were identified as expressive. None of the comments from supervisors B, D, and E demonstrated expressive language functions.

Discussion

Foci of Feedback

This paper aimed to explore the written feedback provided by supervisors on master's theses, specifically focusing on identifying and codifying common foci and language functions in the data. Through analysis of the supervisors' written feedback, the researcher identified content as the dominant focus, followed by structure, presentation, and language. Table 3 below demonstrates examples of the supervisor's written comments concerning content.

Table 3. Supervisor comments on content

Supervisor	Comment
A	On p.12 and 13,…you must say more about the typologies you reviewed and explain the rationale. On p.32, for the sub-heading 'Micro-strategy Analysis,' I expected to see an explanation or criteria for identifying… On p.56, in the section 'Function Fulfillment,' there is no mention of Skopos Theory, which makes +your earlier introduction of it irrelevant.
B	Chapter 6 needs an implication part in which you summarize all your findings' implications (methodological, theoretical, for models or tools, etc.).
C	It is essential to mitigate bias in the dataset collection. Please update your literature review with more recent studies and provide your analysis of recent contributions in this domain. On page 27,… Did you create any guidelines to be followed to classify 81 instances"? If not, then how did you organize them? Based on what characteristics?
D	P. 3 "This study was motivated by the current poor state of the Arabic AVT in general (Gamal, 2007). Provide a more recent reference for this claim. P. 33 clarifies the idiom "like the tender white…"
E	Page 6, "Regular texts such as novels.." what is Regular text?? P. 59 you also have limitations that relate to the generalizability of your results

As discussed, this study's operational definition of the content pertains to the ideas and data presented in the master's thesis. These results support Bitchener et al.'s findings in their 2010 study that identified content as the predominant focus of feedback provided by the 35 supervisors who participated in the study. Findings from Ghazal et al. (2014), Gedamu and Gezahegn (2021), and Basturkmen et al. (2014) similarly showed a preference for focusing on content in written feedback. Basturkmen et al. (2014) also found that idea development was almost as highly prioritized a focus as content in their supervisory feedback data. It implies that content is a significant consideration in academic research, and an assessment tool or rubric should be developed with this in mind.

In this paper, structure and presentation refer to the organization and format of the paper, i.e., correct formatting of references, tables, headings, and appendices. Based on the findings of this study, comments focusing on structure and presentation (25%) were the second most prevalent after comments focusing on content (52%). Although there is a wide margin between the two foci, the supervisors emphasized correct presentation and structure. It is per findings from Man et al. (2020), whose results highlighted "format" as a particular focus of supervisor feedback. Swales (2014) mentioned the importance of citation as the most overt evidence of an academic text. The emphasis on structure and presentation in the data implies that it should be considered when creating an assessment tool.

Although fewer comments focused on the language overall, supervisors A, B, and C made more or equal comments on language than on presentation and structure. It indicates that the importance placed on language is either peculiar to the supervisor or perhaps depends on the student's abilities. This result can also be corroborated by the findings of Man et al. (2020), which showed a strong emphasis in examiners' comments on the combined category of "communication and format," including language accuracy. It also supported Gedamu and Gezahegn's (2021) findings, in which students perceived supervisors as dominantly on linguistic accuracy and appropriateness. However, this could be because the study took place in an EFL context with students from the foreign graduate program. While language is a lesser focus in this current study, Man et al. (2020) and Gedamu and Gezahegn (2021) demonstrate that language is an essential focus of supervisors' written feedback. It plays an integral role in building the content and presentation of the thesis.

Language functions

This study's second research question relates to identifying and categorizing language functions in supervisors' written feedback. Table 2 shows the directive to be more prevalent than referential or expressive language functions. Some exemplars of directive language function in supervisor written feedback can be seen in Table 4 below:

Table 4. Examples of the directive language function in supervisor feedback comments

Supervisor	Comment
A	Avoid it as it is informal in academic writing (p.55). *Language*] On p.12 and 13,…you need to say more about the typologies you reviewed and explain the rationale*Content*] On p. 13,…be more specific and mention the section. [*Structure and Presentation*]
B	Chapter 6 needs an implication part in which you summarize all your findings' implications (methodological, theoretical, for models or tools, etc.). [*content*] Onp.6, "*1.6 Limitations*", in this section is better transferred to the final chapter [*Structure and presentation*] Onp.27 "*and the neural NMT*," here "neural" should be deleted. [*language*]
C	…you found 24 more instances to watch the documentary one more time. How did you verify that there are no missing

	instances? For example, if you could watch two more times, the number could be 150, so my question is, how did you verify and ensure that all the collected instances are correct and you did not miss any instances? [*content*] On p.27, Please add a table and show the instances with three English and Arabic text columns. [*structure and presentation*] what is ST? The first time should be spelled out. [*language*]
D	Section 1.1. most of this part seems to fall under the problem statement…So this section calls for some re-arrangement. [*Structure and Presentation*] your discussion chapter requires considerable revision [*content]* Change verbs such as confirmed, proved, etc., to less assertive ones.[*language]*
E	P. 3 support your claim that "very little research has been devoted to rigorous evaluation of the quality of Arabic translation on these localized websites" [*content*] PP. 13, 16, 20, 59 (we and our) use I or the passive voice (when appropriate) instead of we *language*] p.21 delete page number, as you do not have a direct quote here [*Structure and Presentation]*

These examples show that even though the focus of the written feedback is varied, the common denominator is the use of the directive language function. Welch (1980, as cited by Hussain, 2011) mentions the use of the directive as the foundation of three mentorship styles, which aim to provide comprehensive advice and guidance to research mentees by using approaches that range from highly structured to semi-structured directive feedback. Interestingly, Straub (1997, as cited by Soden, 2013) found that students were equally receptive to a highly structured, directive approach to feedback from their mentors or teachers, mainly when the feedback is specific and elaborate. Straub (1997, as cited by Soden, 2013) also revealed that the students appreciated directive feedback on grammar and sentence structure. The results of this study showed that the majority of supervisors provided explicit written feedback using directive language in their comments and giving precise details, including page numbers and examples of correct language usage.

Basturkmen et al. (2014) found that supervisors used directive feedback in single questions, suggestions, and combining both when addressing content, coherence, and cohesion issues. It is also true in the findings in this current study; for instance, some supervisors provided simple interrogative questions that are directive in nature, such as "What is ST? The first time should be spelled out." And with longer clarifying and interrogative questions, such as

> *"you found 24 more instances to watch the documentary one more time. How did you verify that there are no missing instances? For example, if you could watch two more times, the number could be 150, so my question is, how did you verify and ensure that all the collected instances are correct and you did not miss any instance?" [content]*

These are just some examples that use a directive function. In addition, most of the written

feedback categorized under content is in the directive function. An explanation for this trend is related to the supervisor's need to address the extensive content, which is complex. It is supported in the studies of Basturkmen et al. (2014) and Saeed et al. (2021) that the nature of thesis content necessitates the use of directive feedback through questions that aim to clarify and evaluate the supervisees' arguments. Saeed et al.'s 2021 study also revealed that the supervisor participants formulated feedback through directives. They are intended to "elicit information, seek clarifications and justifications from the postgraduates, suggest/advise, and order them what to do or not to do in revising" (Saeed et al., 2021, p. 7) their thesis content. Supervisors may also use this directive function to lend substance to their authoritative intervention when providing feedback on the supervisee's thesis. Using questions and instructions in the directive language is also an effective tool in encouraging students to engage with the feedback and maintain this line of communication between supervisors and supervisees (Saeed et al., 2021). It might imply a positive and negative response from the students. This aspect needs to be covered in this study. Thus, this also serves as another recommendation to look into students' responses to this written feedback. However, highlighting the importance of directive feedback, the dominance of the directive function employed by the supervisors may also imply that directive is still a common way of providing written feedback. Whether they may be focused on different aspects of the paper, these directive comments still give instruction and guidance to students. As Saeed et al. (2021) mentioned, statements, interrogating, and clarifying questions may also allow the supervisee/thesis student to negotiate with their supervisor/mentor.

Table 5: Samples of Foci of the Feedbacks Comments

Focus	Comment
Content	This is why you should state how you made sure that the transcribed texts are error-free (no grammar mistakes, etc.) (Supervisor B) Page 61, You should be confident in your contributions and clearly state how your work adds new scientific knowledge in this domain and how this fills the previous research gap (Supervisor C).
Language	On p.1, "machine translation research," this was mentioned in the long form, and in the paragraph above, it was MT. Spell out. (Supervisor B) Audiovisual, rather than AVT (Supervisor E).
Structure and presentation	On p. 10,…this info was just mentioned earlier, so it is repetitive. (Supervisor A) P.2 (Grab et al., 2018) (Supervisor D).

In addition to the directive, the other two language functions were reflected: referential and expressive. In referential function, as discussed in the earlier section of this paper, referential refers to feedback that provides information, corrections, and reformulation. It is more about giving information functions of language. In this study, 14 comments were categorized as referential and ranged in focus from content to language to structure and presentation; examples of these comments can be seen in Table 5. Further data analysis revealed that most of the

comments categorized as referential were written declaratively. The comments focused on giving information, which is the purpose of referential language function, but also subtly implied that there was an error to be corrected.

Although only 14 supervisor comments were categorized as referential, some supervisors prefer using simple statements for corrections or providing information. This finding is reflected in Xu's 2017 study, in which supervisors primarily formulated referential feedback rather than directive feedback as is more predominant in the studies mentioned previously (e.g., Basturkmen et al., 2014; Saeed et al., 2021; Straub, 1997, as cited by Soden, 2013). Basturkmen et al. (2014) had similar results to the ones found in this study: the directive was the dominant function used by supervisors, but when feedback on both language and presentation was broadly referential. Similarly, in this study, most of the comments identified as referential focused on either language or structure and presentation.

As stated earlier, expressive language function in written feedback refers to registering a positive or negative response/comment. Only three identified instances of the expressive were used when synthesizing the results from the written feedback of the supervisors. Cross-referencing these results with those on focus in the written feedback revealed that the three identified expressive comments focused on content. The expressive comment from Supervisor A, "On p.56, in the section 'Function Fulfillment,' there is no mention of Skopos Theory at all, which makes your earlier introduction of it irrelevant," communicates an expression of criticism (more of a negative comment). It offers information and decries the irrelevance of the information the student supervisee provides.

The other two examples came from Supervisor C, "Strength: This study addressed a critical and interesting topic in subtitling the verbal-visual components…." and "Strength: the author examines the strategies used in rendering the verbal-visual components." It is immediately apparent that these were expressive comments as they both start with praise, demonstrated by the word "strength." The lack of explicit function in the supervisors' feedback indicates that most do not give much weight to either praise or criticism, depending more on the directive and referential directive language functions in feedback. The results of this study run counter those uncovered in Bastola's 2020 study, which concluded that of the data gathered on written feedback, most comments could be categorized as expressive, followed by referential and then directive. However, the results on this aspect of the current study are corroborated by the findings of other studies (Basturkmen et al., 2014 & Saeed et al., 2021), which found that the directive served as the principal language function in the supervisors' feedback. In the study of Xu (2017), it was not the expressive function that ranked first but came second to the referential function that mainly was used based on the findings, then "directive" came last. The findings of this study and the corroborated findings of other studies suggest differences in perception on giving evaluation on a thesis/research. It can be attributed to different factors, such as the divergent supervisor–supervisee relationships in research supervision (Ali et al., 2016; Xu, 2017; Bastola, 2022;). It includes linguistic resources employed by the supervisors (Starfield et al., 2015), supervisors' supervision practices (Nurie, 2018), supervisors' reliance on institutional or personal assessment (Killey & Mullins, 2004, as cited in Man et al., 2020) and more. This aspect, particularly in investigating these factors, also forms part of the recommendation of this current study.

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study explored supervisors' written feedback on the master's thesis, particularly on the focus of the written feedback and the language functions used by the supervisors. The two results were also cross-referenced in the discussion section and revealed that supervisors primarily focused their comments on the content, structure, presentation, and followed by language. It also revealed that supervisors mostly used the directive language function in comments, followed by the referential language function with only minimal expressive use in the written feedback. This study concludes that the supervisors emphasize giving their written feedback, particularly on content, in the directive to engage supervisees with questions, request clarification, and provide suggestions of dos and don'ts of thesis writing. Supervisors use directive comments when focusing on the content and commenting on language, structure, and presentation to elicit the same level of engagement. It can also be concluded that the supervisors of this study, bar one, are not inclined to use expressive in their comments, limiting their abilities to either approve or disapprove.

Moreover, it was also underscored that although the supervisors have similar focus (content, language, structure, and presentation), it was still notable that the varied presentation of their comments resulted from the institution not having a standard assessment tool or rubric. Further, it can be concluded that a written feedback assessment tool/rubric would allow supervisors to provide a more uniform presentation of feedback that encourages them to read into aspects of the student's thesis that they might have overlooked.

Based on these conclusions, some of the key recommendations are:

1. The academic institution of the locale needs to design a formal, academically approved set of written feedback assessment tools or rubrics emphasizing the focus and manner of feedback comments in the formative and summative evaluation of the thesis. It includes the guidelines in feedback provisions for different parts of the thesis. The aim is to ensure consistency and coherence across constructive feedback and summative evaluations of students and their learning development. It is supported by Ghadirian et al. (2014), who also suggested that more attention and proper planning are needed for modifying related rules and regulations and improving qualitative and quantitative research in mentorship training of the supervisors to align their feedback understanding, approaches, and practices. It includes the need for developmental training or mentoring of thesis supervisors to arrive at a mutually agreed upon set of fundamentals in providing feedback and evaluations to the student within the institution's regulations.
2. In addition, a conducive research environment by bettering the research atmosphere and effectively monitoring and evaluating the supervisory field is needed to provide the entire student-centered research support. It calls for student and academic support, meeting facilities, and research supports availability and accessibility.
3. Furthermore, the limitations of this study may also serve as areas for further studies. Thus, this current study recommends more comprehensive studies on the response of graduate students to written feedback through a larger pool of assessor-assessee participation. It includes researching factors affecting supervisors' written feedback, a more significant sample of supervisors' written feedback, and a more extensive sample of theses within and across disciplines to be studied further. The supervisees' responses to feedback would be essential in directing the format of the feedback rubric, both

requiring how the feedback foci should be weighted; and how supervisors should structure that feedback. These recommendations are reflected in the studies by Bitchener et al. (2011) and Bastola (2020), whereby supervisees needed more input on the structure and presentation of their theses as positive expressive feedback was more helpful and encouraging than directive or referential feedback.

4. A more constructive approach is based on Soden's (2013) recommendation of developing a system for feedback delivery that engages other senses through visual exemplars and dialogue as audio feedback. It is supported by Biber et al. (2011) research demonstrating the effectiveness of feedback for individual writing development. Their meta-analysis revealed that written feedback positively affected students' writing development. It should be further researched into and established in all graduates' research programs for supervisors and student researchers.

In conclusion, this paper has attempted to discover more about the supervisory's feedback to the master thesis. The limited findings provided another perspective on the mechanisms and research environment needed to better support students' research development.

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The Use of a Functional Approach to Translation in Enhancing Students' Translation Process -the Case of a Vietnamese Foreign Language Program

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ABSTRACT

In several contexts, including Vietnam, where professional translator training is lacking, translation courses in language teaching programs fall short of meeting the demand for proficient translators. Particularly, students' analytical ability and translation process seem to be de-emphasized. Drawing on a functional approach to Translation, this pedagogical study investigates how this approach enhances English major students' translation process. The effectiveness of the innovation was assessed by conducting a comparative analysis, which involved qualitative examination of 30 students' written and spoken reflections on the translation tasks and their translation solutions, both before and following the workshops. The results of the study show that the functional approach to translation help enhances students' translation process in terms of their more frequent mentions of non-linguistic translation problems, their broadened repertoire of translation strategies, and their reflections on the notions of "accuracy" and/or a "good" translation from a functional perspective. The workshops generally positively impacted their decision-making process, even given their limited linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge. The functional approach to Translation enhances students' translation process and cultivates their awareness of the real-life practice, leading to improved skills and confidence in Translation. This pedagogical approach holds potential benefits for translation teaching in the context of an English program under s and similar programs in Vietnam and beyond.

Keywords: functional approaches to Translation, translation teaching, translation process, text analysis, translation strategies, Vietnam.

Introduction

There is a growing need for trainee translators who are non-native speakers of English in situations of intercultural communication (House, 2015; Taviano, 2013). Like other ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) countries, Vietnam has witnessed this increased demand for translation services since the country implemented the open-door policy in 1986 and welcomed numerous opportunities for international and regional exchanges in different fields from business and trade to education and culture (Do, 2018, 2019, 2020; Pham & Tran, 2013). Despite the booming translation market, some authors, including Chan and Liu (2013), Hoang (2020), and Le (2021), point out that the translation profession is underdeveloped in Vietnam and other ASEAN countries due to inadequate accreditation and standards of practice. The pressures caused by the increased global and local demand for translation services and the lack of professional translator training in Vietnam are directed to translation courses in foreign language programs at the tertiary level, which is expected to train graduates with adequate skills for employment. Nevertheless, graduates of English programs in Vietnam who are often expected to engage in professional translation work usually lack the skills and ability to do so (Do, 2018, 2019, 2020; Ho & Bui, 2013; Le, 2021; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012). One of the various constraints to skill development in higher education is the lack of efficient pedagogy (Do, 2018, 2019, 2020; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012; Tran, 2013).

Translation teaching at the tertiary level in Vietnam, which is usually part of language programs, has been problematic, as substantiated in many studies of translation teaching and student attitudes towards translation teaching in English programs (Ho & Bui, 2013; Hoang, 2020; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2012; Pham & Tran, 2013). In most of these studies, the respondents reported their translation ability to be limited. The students had "difficulties in using exact and suitable words in translation or did not understand meanings of all words in source texts (STs)" (Ho & Bui 2013, p. 74). This seems to be linked with students expressing dissatisfaction over boring class procedures in which they were not asked to do anything other than translate. There is a lack of focus on the translation process and elements of the translation process in translation teaching. Many researchers, including Chen (2010), Lu & Xu (2023), and Wongranu (2017), who reviewed Translation teaching in countries including China and Thailand, reported similar findings. For example, in Thailand, Translation is mainly seen as a means to study English, and translation classes adopt "read and translate" procedures. The anxiety and lack of confidence that students experience in translating can be attributed to outdated procedures in traditional translation classes (Wongranu, 2017).

Numerous studies (Colina & Lafford, 2018; Chen, 2010; Károly, 2014; Mediouni, 2016; Nguyen, 2023; Petrocchi, 2014) have aimed to address obstacles in translation teaching by introducing functional approaches to Translation in tertiary-level classes. While the adoption of functional approaches highlights a shift towards focusing on students' translation processes, limited knowledge exists regarding its impact on the actual translation process of students.

This study was conducted in the English program at the University of foreign languages in Vietnam (UFL), where Translation teaching closely aligned with the description mentioned above. The researcher, who also served as the teacher, implemented the functional approach to Translation in the curriculum and classroom pedagogy to enhance students' translation process. The primary aim of this study is to investigate the impact of employing the functional approach to Translation on students' translation process by addressing the following question: How does the functional approach to translation influence students' translation process?

Literature Review

The Focus of Translation Process in Translation Teaching

In recent years, several innovative process-oriented translation methods have been introduced in language teaching contexts. Some authors inform their translation teaching frameworks with knowledge from various approaches to Translation. Kokkinidou and Spanou (2013) have devised a model for using Translation in foreign language teaching based on the text-linguistic approach by Hatim and Mason (1997) and Baker (2011). This model also focuses on parameters (i.e., textual factors and the target reader) in the translation process: before, during, and after Translation. Beecroft (2013) proposes a pedagogy based on Fillmore's (1997) "scenes-and-frames model" in English teaching in Germany. According to the model, the learner discusses the different "scenes" that occur in their minds when reading the STs (frames) and identifies which scene would be appropriate to the contexts of the texts in producing the target frame or target text (TT) that is intended for the target reader. The model, which focuses on the "functional, communicative, inter- and transcultural process" (Beecroft, 2013, p. 169), encourages students to make informed decisions in Translation based on their reflections of the scenes and frames. Leonardi (2010) and Dagilienė (2012) flexibly incorporate language skills in pre-translation, Translation, and post-translation activities. They advocate careful selection of authentic texts, pre-translation (reading, summarising articles, and explaining vocabulary and grammar), and post-translation activities (revision and back Translation). A study by Lee and Gyogi (2018) allows students to reflect on their Translation of cultural words in terms of oral reflections on Translation and written journals about their problems in translating cultural words, their translation strategies, and the success of their translations.

The brief overview of studies on teaching Translation in language classes above demonstrates a tendency to focus on students' ability to make informed translation decisions in the translation process by incorporating stages of the translation process in translation teaching. In the broad sense, the translation process refers to the context of a translation assignment which includes every operation and agent from the time of receiving the translation assignment from the client or commissioning party to delivering the final product of Translation to the reader (Muñoz Martín, 2010). In the narrow sense, the translation process refers to the mental operations of the translator during the translating activity (Muñoz Martín, 2010; Zabalbeascoa, 2000). The process commences when the translator analyzes the text and continues until they find the appropriate TT segment (Zabalbeascoa, 2000).

In this study, the translation process is understood in a narrow sense. The author also refers to Gile's (2009) sequential model of Translation with a two-phase operation: comprehension of the ST and reformulation or production of the TT. The translator formulates the "meaning hypothesis" (or understanding of the meaning) of a translation unit or text segment (word, phrase, paragraph, or text) based on their linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge and ad hoc knowledge (or knowledge of a specific field or situation). If the meaning hypothesis is plausible, they proceed to formulate the meaning hypothesis in the TT. During this phase, the translator produces the provisional TT segment and determines whether it meets the requirements of the "fidelity test" (accuracy) or the "acceptability test" (i.e., it is acceptable to the TT readers) by drawing on their linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge. When the tests for the first segment or translation unit

yield satisfactory results, the same process for the next segment begins.

Gile explains that the process involves the translator reading the whole ST to identify problems and their attempt to solve them; therefore, the translation process can refer to problem-identifying and problem-solving. It is possible to propose a definition of the translation problem at this stage. A translation problem refers to a text segment (verbal or non-verbal) that is either at a micro level (i.e., a text segment) or at a macro level (i.e., at the text level) and that requires the translator to consciously apply a justified translation strategy (González-Davies & Scott-Tennent, 2005). This definition indicates the interrelated counterparts of problems and strategies. In translating, problems and difficulties can be identified in both phases: comprehending the ST and producing the TT. Translation strategies then solve the problems and difficulties. Translation strategies are classified into comprehension and production/translation strategies (Chesterman, 1997). After adopting translation strategies or producing the Translation, the translator decides whether the Translation is accurate or/and acceptable. This study views the translation or problem-solving process as a general term incorporating problem identification, translation strategies, and reflection on the Translation (TT production phase).

There are encouraging indications that several language teaching methods for Translation have emphasized the translation process. The following section explores the incorporation of functional approaches in teaching translation, further contributing to this trend. Functionalism provides the groundwork for innovative pedagogical Translation approaches in various language teaching contexts, including the one examined in this study.

Functional Approaches to Translation and the Notion of Translation Process

Functionalists propose that Translation is influenced by skopos, which means “aim” or “purpose” in Greek (Nord, 1997). The action of Translation should be negotiated and performed according to the purpose of the Translation or the TT in the target culture. The approach flourished in Nord’s (2005) text-oriented translation model, which stresses the skopos and analysis of text features. The model allows the translator to have a thorough understanding of the ST and enables them to make appropriate decisions concerning the intended function of the Translation. The model has its practical use in translator training as students’ competence in Translation can be developed by taking into account the three aspects: the translation brief, ST analysis, and the hierarchy of translation problems (Nord, 1997). *The brief lets the translator* establish why a translation is required, by whom, what the clients need, when, where the TT will be used, and who the TT addresses are.

Text analysis refers to the extratextual and intratextual factors of ST and TT. Extratextual factors include “sender” (text producer or writer), “sender’s intention”, “audience” (reader), “medium” (channel), “place of communication”, “time of communication”, “motive for communication” (why a text is produced), and “text function”. Intratextual factors include subject matter, content, presupposition, text composition (or structure), non-verbal elements, lexis, sentence structure, and suprasegmental features (e.g., italic or bold type). As for translation problems, Nord’s classification of translation problems includes pragmatic translation problems (related to differences in the situations of the ST and TT), cultural translation problems (related to cultural differences), linguistic translation problems (related to differences between languages), and text-specific translation problems (e.g., metaphors or puns). Nord (1997, 2005) advocates that the

translator should, in the first place, consider pragmatic perspectives in doing Translation, prioritizing problems arising from the situations of the ST and the TT and the function of a translation.

While Nord (1997, 2005) does not put forth specific translation strategies or techniques, the author highlights that the choice between documentary (source text-oriented) or instrumental (target-oriented) translation depends on its skopos or purpose. The selection of translation type is closely linked to the function of the source text (ST) and the target text (TT) within their respective linguistic and cultural contexts. Additionally, according to the "coherence rule," a translation is intended to convey information that should maintain internal textual coherence in the target text (TT), ensuring that it is understandable to the readers or recipients of the TT. The “fidelity rule” (the external textual coherence with the ST) maintains that a translation should be coherent or have a relationship with its ST regarding the ST information transmitted to TT readers. Unlike the Skopos rule, Nord's concepts of coherence and fidelity rules align well with Gile's requirements for a translation.

Many studies have proposed the incorporation of functionalist insights, particularly those of Nord, into translation teaching in language programs. Petrocchi (2014) incorporates text analysis and extratextual elements based on Nord’s (2005) model in his specific class procedures because text analysis provides hints to understanding the translator’s strategies and solutions. Colina and Lafford (2018) illustrate examples of translation activities that focus on the effects of contextual features (e.g., text, author, reader, and function) on understanding and producing texts. They include authentic texts and translation briefs so students can understand how authentic texts are constructed in various genres, fields, and contexts, considering different purposes and readers. Specifically, to assist students in their translation processes, the authors introduce top-down and bottom-up genre-based approaches to text analysis where different elements of texts are considered. Károly (2014) and Chen (2010) implemented the functional theoretical framework and Nord’s text analysis model into foreign language programs to develop students’ translation competence. These studies focused on students’ translation problems and difficulties (based on Nord’s category of problems). In problem-solving, students adopted various strategies to deal with problems translating an ST item (i.e., metaphors).

Other various scholars have recognized the potential of the functionalist approach to Translation in foreign language classrooms. Mediouni (2016) implemented functional approaches to Translation in Arabic-English legal text translation and introduced a teaching method consisting of three phases: pre-translation (text analysis and parallel text examination), Translation, and post-translation (revision and reflection). Although the study provided empirical evidence on using the functional approach in translation teaching, it primarily focused on the pre-translation stage utilizing parallel texts or comparable corpora. Similarly, Yu, Lapteva, and Sonyem (2018) refer to the Communicative-Functional Approach to Translation Teaching, which emphasizes linguistic aspects and the analysis of linguistic features. Skopečková (2018) suggests, albeit without providing empirical evidence, that students' creativity can be enhanced when they reassess previous steps in the translation process, including identifying target text function and comprehension of the source text. While several studies support the importance of focusing on the translation process through the lens of the functional approach, these studies have been limited in scale and often concentrated on specific aspects of the translation process rather than the process as a whole. Consequently, further empirical research is necessary to substantiate and reinforce this

emerging trend in Translation within language education.

In their consciousness-raising workshops on Translation, Nguyen (2023) adopts the functional approach to explore the integration of consciousness-raising (CR), a proven effective teaching method in language instruction, into translation education. The study highlights the importance of CR in enhancing students' understanding of various aspects of the translation process. This study aims to replicate Nguyen's (2023) work, focusing on a detailed examination of the functional approach to Translation concerning students' translation processes. It is expected that certain findings regarding the effectiveness of CR and/or the functional approach to Translation on students' translation processes may overlap. The discussion of the data below will acknowledge and address this potential overlap (in terms of translation strategies).

Research Design

The study aims to investigate the influence of the functional approach to Translation on students' translation process, prioritizing this aspect over their translation test results. Qualitative research is deemed the most appropriate methodology to capture the rich diversity of experiences among a limited number of individuals. Qualitative research delves into participants' unique perspectives, allowing them to express their ideas and interpretations, effectively "fashioning meaning out of events and phenomena" (Schwandt, 1994, p. 118). Similarly, Merriam (2002) highlights that qualitative research enables participants to construct and interpret their reality (pp. 3-4). Thus, qualitative research is expected to provide a comprehensive insight into how students construct and engage with the methodological approach in translation teaching. This study can effectively portray students' responses to the pedagogy regarding their evolving translation processes, changes in translation production, and personal perceptions of progress by employing qualitative research.

Participants

This study randomly recruited thirty female Vietnamese students from a foreign language university enrolled in the introductory translation course Translation 1. Translation 1 is part of the English language program and one of the three main translation courses. Its objective is to enhance students' language proficiency and translation abilities. Before enrolling in Translation 1, students who had not taken any translation courses previously were required to complete integrated English skills courses, which aimed to help them reach level B2 (upper-intermediate level) according to the Council of Europe's Language Policy Division (2009) by the end of their second year. Students at this English proficiency level will likely have minimal difficulties comprehending English texts for Translation since the texts are thoughtfully selected to ensure students' understanding. Additionally, any improvements observed following the intervention should not be conflated with the outcomes of students' involvement in previous translation courses.

The Research Procedure

This study occurred during the first week of the Translation 1 course, outside the students' regular schedule. Students from various classes of the Translation 1 course voluntarily participated after attending a briefing session explaining the research objectives, procedures, and the voluntary nature of their involvement. These students had not received prior instruction on expressing their translation difficulties. Initially, 30 third-year students completed Translation Task 1, translating two texts and documenting their challenges. Fifteen of these students (labeled 1 to 30) voluntarily

attended individual interviews (Interview 1/Int.1) after completing Translation Task 1. During the interviews, which lasted 10 minutes each, students elaborated on their translation difficulties after having 10 minutes to review their translation task papers. The next step involved the participation of all 30 students in three consecutive days of workshops immediately following Translation Task 1. Finally, one day after Workshop 3, all 30 students completed Translation Task 2, similar to Translation Task 1. A follow-up interview (Int.2) was arranged for those who had participated in the previous interviews. The study obtained ethical approval from the University of Queensland's School of Languages and Cultures (Ethical Clearance Application Number: 15-13). The research procedure can be summarised in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1: Data Collection Procedure

The Translation Workshops

The translation workshops introduced to the students' elements of the translation process, such as text analysis, translation strategies, and reflection on Translation as guided by functional approaches to Translation.

Table 1: Workshop Contents

Workshops	**Contents**
Workshop 1	"Good" Translation Workshop 1A: Introduction: What is a "good" translation Workshop 1B: Definition of Translation and the Role of the Translator Workshop 1 C: Variety of texts
Workshop 2	Understanding texts Workshop 2A: Text analysis Workshop 2B: Text Analysis II Workshop 2C: Text Analysis III
Workshop 3	The notion of "accuracy Workshop 3A: Translation strategies Workshop 3B: Omissions, additions, and Substitutions Workshop 3C: What is "accuracy"?

Table 1, provided above, summarizes the three workshops, each lasting 150 minutes and divided into three 50-minute sections. During Workshop 1, students engaged in discussions that aimed to redirect their focus toward understanding the concept of a good translation. These discussions involved exploring their initial assumptions about Translation and their overall understanding of the translator's responsibilities, ethical considerations, and the various types of texts they encounter.

Workshop 2 emphasized text analysis, a crucial aspect of the translation process. Students were introduced to various elements within texts that must be considered when undertaking a translation task, alongside the identification of text types. These features were explained using deductive metalinguistic descriptions. Conversely, the role of the translation brief in a translation task was presented inductively during Workshop 2C. Specifically, students were allowed to translate a passage both with and without the translation brief and then asked to identify differences in their translations. This activity aimed to cultivate students' awareness of how the translation brief facilitates informed decision-making throughout the translation process.

During Workshop 3, students were introduced to translation strategies, specifically domestication, and foreignisation. They were tasked with identifying these strategies in published Vietnamese translations and engaging in discussions about their appropriateness. The students analyzed the employed strategies, explored the reasons behind their usage, and considered the potential impacts these strategies might have on different types of readers. This exercise aimed to enhance students' understanding that text characteristics and brief Translation influence the choice of translation strategy. In the concluding segment of the workshop, students were encouraged to reflect on their criteria for accuracy and what they considered a good translation.

Translation Tasks

Before and after the translation workshops, students were given comparable translation tasks to complete. Each task comprised two smaller tasks: Task 1a (67 words) and Task 1b (68 words) were conducted before the workshops, while Task 2a (60 words) and Task 2b (75 words) were performed after the workshops. Each task sheet included a text (e.g., Text 1a in Task 1a) for the students to translate, followed by a section where they could comment on the problems and difficulties they encountered during the translation process. The translation tasks maintain uniformity in structure, reference tools, time allocation, text length, translation direction (English to Vietnamese), text type, topics, text complexity, text features, and translation briefs (or instructions). This approach ensured that the translation tasks were suitable for students' English proficiency level, facilitating their comprehension and enabling them to perform well within their capabilities. Simultaneously, these considerations allowed for optimal exploration of students' translation process by providing a consistent framework for analysis.

Following each task, students were instructed to document at least five problems and difficulties while performing the Translation. They were asked to record their challenges and translation choices before and after the workshops, labeled as Writ.1 (written comments before the workshops) and Writ.2 (written comments after the workshops). As Gile (2004) suggests, students' notes can offer valuable insights into their thought process during the Translation, shedding light on individual and collective problems and their employed translation strategies (p. 2).

Interviews

To delve deeper into students' written comments regarding their translation problems, interviews (Int.1–interviews before the workshops; Int. 2–interviews after the workshops) were conducted as part of this study. These interviews allowed students to elaborate on their comments and provide additional information that they may have been unable to include in the translation tasks due to time constraints or limited English proficiency. Moreover, to ensure data richness, participants could express themselves in English or Vietnamese during the interviews, enabling them to use the most comfortable language (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013). Any potential bias was minimized

by employing open and neutral questions that did not focus on specific translation-related aspects (such as text features). For instance, a question like "Can you explain your written comment?" was utilized. Ultimately, verbal thoughts expressed during the interviews offered valuable insights into participants' perspectives on various elements of the translation process (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2013).

Data Analysis Method

The study presents the results of changes in the students' identification of translation problems, their translation strategies, their reflection on what constitutes a good translation, their translation solutions, and their perceptions of progress after the workshops. *Translation problems* range from difficulties related to extratextual features and general style conventions to those related to vocabulary and sentence structure. *Translation strategies* involve those adopted in the comprehension stage (comprehension strategies) and TT production stage (stylistic strategies and strategies to deal with vocabulary and sentence structure problems).

Students reflect on a good translation composed of functional appropriateness, stylistic appropriateness, expression, and accuracy. Functional appropriateness involved the students' reflections on whether their translations met the requirements of the translation brief (i.e., the Translation should be appropriate to its function and the target reader). The category of stylistic appropriateness in this analysis referred to the students' comments on their translations in terms of how adequately they conveyed general stylistic features of the ST. The category of *expression* referred to the student's comments on the target language or the language of their translations, referring to the readability or comprehensibility of translations. The category of *accuracy* was concerned with the student's comments on whether or not their translations accurately rendered the content of the ST without any unjustified omissions, additions, or changes or whether the meanings of words, phrases, and sentences had been rendered adequately.

The translation process is close to students' translation or translation solutions. This article is limited to analyzing students' translation solutions to the ST item "green cleaning" (part of the title of Text 2a). *Perception of progress* covered the students' reflections on their difficulties, translation processes, and improved translation ability or skill, which showed their increasing confidence in performing translation tasks.

The primary focus of the research question, "How does the use of the functional approach to translation affect students' translation process?" can be primarily addressed through the students' self-reported problem identification, adoption of translation strategies, reflections on what constitutes a "good" translation, and their translations. Students' perceptions of their progress contribute to their psycho-physiological competence, including self-confidence (Kelly, 2005).

Findings and Discussion

The students' translation process changed, marked by increased attention to non-linguistic translation issues (as evidenced by written comments), adopting a wider range of strategies, and a greater reflection on achieving optimal translations (as reflected in interview data). Concurrently, their translation skills showed signs of improvement, aligning with the growth of their confidence levels.

Focus Shifted to Non-Linguistic Translation Problems

Table 2: Total Numbers of Translation Problems and Difficulties Raised in Written Comments

	Types of problems	Written comment 1 (before the workshops)	Written comment 2 (after the workshops)
1	Difficulties related to extratextual features		
	Author	3	8
	Reader	2	19
	Text function	1	5
	Subtotal	**6**	**32**
2	Difficulties related to general style conventions	**6**	**16**
3	Difficulties related to vocabulary and expressions		
	ST comprehension	34	20
	TT production*	28	25
	Both ST comprehension and TT production	2	1
	Unspecified difficulty**	18	24
	Sub-total	**82**	**70**
4	Difficulties related to sentences and sentence structures		
	ST comprehension	3	2
	TT production*	9	6
	Both ST comprehension and TT production	0	1
	Unspecified difficulty**	1	9
	Sub-total	**13**	**18**
Total		**107**	**136**

* *TT production*: the difficulty in producing the provisional TT segment.
** *Unspecified difficulty*: The difficulty that cannot be classified due to the lack of relevant information

The students (30) were asked to write about five translation problems and difficulties they experienced in the two tasks. The data demonstrated a moderate change in their elaboration on translation problems and difficulties from 107 to 137 items. Most of the commentary was devoted to linguistic problems with vocabulary and expressions in both translation tasks (82 items before and 70 items after). The students were mostly concerned about "new", "strange," or "difficult" words and phrases. A lack of grammatical knowledge can also be a problem. Student 25 noted: "Subject "it"- "it was as silent as the grave". I don't know if "it" refers to the house or refers to the atmosphere of the house [Text 1b]" (Student 25, Writ. 1). Focusing on linguistic problems appears to be common among foreign language learners when they translate regardless of their communicative language teaching or structural language programs as evidenced in many studies including those by Lörscher (2005) and Tirkkonen-Condit (2005).

After the workshops, the students began to shift their focus from linguistic problems to non-linguistic ones, as demonstrated by the slight decrease in identified problems with vocabulary structures and the surge in those with extratextual features (from 6 to 32) and general style conventions (from 6 to 16). Even though some students briefly referred to the author, text function, or text type in Written Comment 1, they had vague ideas about the role of these features. Take text function, for example. Student 28 was concerned about how to target readers would comprehend their Translation, only briefly noting "the purpose of this text" without elaborating on it. However, after the workshops, some students had a clearer idea of extratextual features that affected their translations. For instance, Student 22 raised the problem of their Translation's informative function ("My translation doesn't give information clearly", Writ. 2).

One reason for the decline in the students' identified linguistic problems could be that after the workshops, they found linguistic problems self-evident at their levels and that these problems were not worth noting. Meanwhile, students' attention to problems related to extratextual features has been attributable to the workshop's focus on extratextual features, including author, reader, and text function, which can potentially cause pragmatic translation difficulties.

Fernández and Zabalbeascoa (2012) have indicated that students who reported more non-linguistic problems (or those with general style conventions) performed better in Translation than those who did not. In this study, the students diverted their attention from linguistic problems to non-linguistic problems. They considered text features presented in the workshops, including extratextual and intratextual features (particularly non-linguistic extratextual ones) part of text analysis, an essential principle of the functionalist approach to Translation.

After attending the workshops, the students started incorporating considerations of contextualized or pragmatic meanings determined by extratextual features into their translation problem identification. This suggests that students can expand their focus beyond purely linguistic issues when equipped with a deeper understanding of text features that impact source text comprehension and target text production. To deal with translation problems, they also adopted a wider range of translation strategies.

Broadened Repertoire of Strategies

Table 3: The students' Strategies Raised in Interviews Before and After the Workshops

	Interview 1	**Interview 2**
1. *Comprehension strategies*		
Use of general reading strategies	4	11
Use of dictionary	12	6
2. *Stylistic strategies*		
Reflection on the style of the ST	6	7
Choice of the appropriate target language in consideration of extratextual features	4	14
Consideration of emotive meanings	0	5
3. *Strategies to deal with vocabulary problems*		
Use of dictionary	7	5
Consideration of the general context	12	6
Focus on the message of the ST	1	4
Consider translation variants	6	12
Word-for-word Translation	6	5
4. *Strategies to deal with sentence structure problems*		
Word-for-word Translation	2	3
Word order rearrangement	2	0
Consideration of the length of the sentence	2	0

The results showed that after the workshops, the students were more thoughtful during the ST comprehension and TT production stages, as evidenced by their increased reporting about general reading strategies (comprehension strategies), choosing appropriate target language in consideration of extratextual features, and considering translation variants (translation strategies).

In dealing with comprehension problems, the students tended to use general reading strategies more frequently and were less dependent on dictionary use after the workshops compared with previously. Before the workshops, only students 5, 6, and 10 referred to the surrounding words and phrases to understand the context, and most students mainly resorted to dictionary check-ups.

After the workshops, a number of the students (11 students) diversified their reported comprehension strategies and referred to more text features that assisted their comprehension. Student 1, for instance, explained that the picture enabled her to understand the subject matter of the text: "I looked at the text [Task 2a], and the picture provided implied cleaning using natural substances rather than chemical products, and cleaning involving a manual method rather than machines" (Student 1, Int. 2). When students made good use of general reading strategies and consideration of the general context, they might not have had to check dictionaries for vocabulary comprehension. Directing attention to situational features derived from text analysis enables students to enhance their text comprehension while translating.

In terms of stylistic strategies, even though the same proportion of students referred to the strategy of reflecting the style of the ST in both interviews, in Interview 2, more students had concrete ideas of how the text type influences word choices based on their awareness of the different types of Translation (e.g., novel Translation or scientific Translation). For instance, Student 9 proposed using academic language in this context to suit the "scientific and instructional" text type.

Furthermore, before the workshops, four students considered the choice of language, but they rarely described the language they used or should have used in any detail. After the workshops, 14 out of 15 students referred to the strategy of choosing an appropriate target language considering extratextual features, and they elaborated further on the strategy. They described the influence of text function (e.g., compelling) and the reader on the choice of language. For example, student 7 maintained that the language should be appealing to attract the reader or "communicating to people about cleaning or promulgating environmental protection among people to maintain their social responsibility" (Int.2).

Consideration of emotive language, which was unfamiliar to the students before the workshops, was referred to by one-third of the students (Students 3, 4, 6, 10, and 13) after the workshops. The five students considered the connotative aspects of the words and personal pronouns in choosing the words appropriate for Translation, considering the text content, the relationship of the characters in the story, and the type of character (Task 2b). For instance, Student 4 considered choosing between "strong", "serious", and "mild" Vietnamese personal pronouns depending on the content of the story ("the story was about hatred or dislike"). They found that "'Anh ta' [a neutral Vietnamese pronoun for "he"] was not suited to the story because the pronoun seemed "light" while "hắn" [a negative Vietnamese personal pronoun] seemed more serious".

Vocabulary and expressions remained the focus of their translation problems and difficulties, and even though a third of the students still adopted dictionary use and word-for-word Translation after the workshops, they were more judicious in their choice of dictionary definitions. They opted to avoid word-for-word Translation if they could. They justified their choices by referring to a variety of text features. For example, Student 13 referred to other text features (content and text type) in producing what they called a "better" (word-for-word) translation: "I just used word-for-word translation. But thanks to your help, I could produce a better translation after going through all the content of this advertisement" (Int. 2).

Some students focused on the message of the ST, although the number of students mentioning this strategy was still low after the workshops. Interestingly, more students were cautious in choosing the appropriate target equivalents among different translation variants after the workshops. Some other students (Students 3, 9, and 11) made their decisions among the translation variants for "cleaning" or "green cleaning" based on the subject matter (the environment), non-verbal

elements, and translation briefs in Task 2a.

At first, I used literal Translation with which "green" meant "màu xanh lá" [the color of leaves] … But later, when I looked at the pictures and the requirements of the task1, I thought of the words "dọn dẹp dùng những chất thân thiện với môi trường" [BT: cleaning using environmentally friendly substances. (Student 9, Int. 2)

The students exhibited a certain level of autonomy and creativity in their decision-making process, as they could revisit earlier steps, such as text analysis and problem identification, and reassess any of the proposed solutions. This finding aligns with Skopečková's research (2018).

Generally, the students broadened their use of translation strategies. They adopted more effective translation strategies (except those used to deal with sentences), which were not limited to what they formally presented in the workshops. According to Nguyen (2023), the student's utilization of translation strategies can be attributed to the principles of CR, which enables them to adopt and adapt these strategies flexibly. This article presents a functional approach to Translation, facilitating students in considering the features of both the source text (ST) and target text (TT) and empowering them to transcend the presented material through their creative decision-making process.

Students' Reflection on a Good Translation

Table 4: Reflection on a good translation in interviews before and after the workshops

	Interview 1	**Interview 2**
1. Functional appropriateness	2	9
2. Stylistic appropriateness	7	10
3. Expression	13	15
4. Accuracy	13	14

Functional appropriateness was a relatively unknown concept before the workshops, as only two students briefly referred to the target reader's interest, feelings, and comprehension. In contrast, nearly two-thirds of the students were aware of functional appropriateness after the workshops, showing a deeper understanding of the issue. For example, some students thought that the Translation should maintain the readers' interest and that the readers were expected to behave in the intended way as indicated by the function of the text. For some, a persuasive translation of an advertisement or promulgation should persuade the reader to act in the intended way—"turn to natural cleaning" (Student 1, Task 2a) or "choose those products" (Student 8, Task 2a).

The author intends to persuade people to turn to natural cleaning, but my Translation does not sound persuasive…Our style should show that natural cleaning is effective. I find that my Translation produced such an effect, but the effect was not high. (Student 1, Int. 2)

The students referred to *stylistic appropriateness* at the level of text type in both interviews (7 students in the first interview and ten students in the second), with the students in the second interview able to provide further elaboration. A few students in the first interview were unclear about the features of a translation concerning the text type. For example, Student 4 said that the

[1] The student referred to the translation brief of Task 2a. The students used the term "requirements of the task" in the final workshop when they reflected on what they had learned.

story (Text 1b) should be "logical," but they did not explain the logic further. In the second interview, two-thirds of the students discussed stylistic appropriateness, demonstrating a clearer idea of the type of Translation and the features of Translation. They noted there were different types of translations, such as novel Translation, Scientific Translation, or poetry translation.

I did not know whether my Translation was good or appropriate to the style of novel Translation. (Student 3, Int. 2)

Though almost all students reflected on their *expression* or the language of their translations in both interviews (13 students in Interview 1 and 15 students in Interview 2), more students indicated the impact of various features on expression in Interview 2. In the first interview, many of the 13 students made subjective comments about the language of their translations, and they rarely justified them. Some students (1, 2, 5, 6, and 13) used general evaluative terms, such as "smooth", "flowing", "flowery", "better", and "natural" to refer to a good translation in translating Task 1a. These students did not present further explanations for their comments. A different picture can be seen in Interview 2, where the students used fewer general evaluative terms and commented on the language of Translation concerning different text features. For example, some students commented on textual features that influenced their word choice, including the purpose and target reader. Students 4 and 7, for instance, explicitly mentioned the text function (e.g., "promulgating environmental protection among people to maintain their social responsibility", Task 2a) and the target reader (e.g., "children" in Task 2b). Student 13 could mention a combination of text features:

For example, as this text was an advertisement, our expression should be attractive to people. I needed to translate it in a way that could appeal to people [Task 2a]. (Student 13, Int. 2)

Regarding *accuracy*, even though most students referred to what they called "fidelity" to the ST before the workshops, they were mainly concerned about reflecting the meanings of ST words, phrases, and sentences. This indicated their attention to fidelity at lower levels of text ("Even though I could understand the word, I could not choose the correct word for translation"–Student 3, Int. 1). After the workshops. However, some students still equated accuracy with being faithful to the original meanings of words, phrases, and sentences. Several others considered the meanings of these linguistic items concerning the content, the text type, the author's intention, the text function, and the target reader. For instance, some students who considered the text function and the requirements of the target reader thought that accurate Translation might involve maintaining the original ST form (Students 4, 6, and 9), adding information, or changing sentence structures (Student 11).

Our translated sentences may be completely different. They are not completely different, but the original meanings should be kept. I should completely change structures so that children can have a better understanding. (Student 11, Int. 2)

Generally, even though the workshops did not explicitly present the concepts of functional appropriateness, stylistic appropriateness, expression, and accuracy, the students developed their new awareness of the notion of a good translation from a functional perspective owing to their increased awareness of the role of a variety of text features presented in the workshops. The students' translation process was influenced by the text function or skopos, guiding their decision-making in creating their Translation. Additionally, they considered the text type to ensure stylistic appropriateness. By drawing upon their linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge, the students prioritized both accuracy and expression, aligning with Gile's "fidelity test" and "acceptability

test" as well as Nord's "fidelity" and "coherence" rules. Remarkably, these two rules were integrated within the pervasive influence of the skopos, which guided every step of the translation process.

Generally, after the workshops, students' translation process was informed with more non-linguistic problems, more diverse translation strategies, and detailed judgment of their Translation. Students informed translation process also seems to have affected their translation solutions. The next section presents students' translation solution to the ST item "green cleaning" after the workshops.

Word Choice and Functional Appropriateness

After the workshops, one-third of the students presented more appropriate word choices and avoided word-for-word Translation, as shown by the analysis of their translation solutions to ST item "green cleaning" (Task 2a). Many students produced functionally appropriate Translation for "green cleaning" because they were concerned about their target reader's comprehension, text function, and subject matter. Some students (5, 8, 23, 28, 29, and 30) produced the literal Vietnamese Translation or kept the ST English form in their translations. Some of them possibly thought that Vietnamese readers would understand this English phrase. Students 4 and 19 commented that they retained the English ST "green cleaning" in their Vietnamese translations because Vietnamese communities in Australia might understand it (despite this, Student 19 used a sense-oriented translation solution in their Translation).

Rather than being constrained by word-for-word Translation, more than one-third of the 30 students conveyed the sense of "green cleaning" and related "green cleaning" to "the environment" in their translations. Students 11, 15, and 25 related the phrase to be "environmentally friendly." In contrast, Student 7 relied on a common Vietnamese expression used to indicate a clean environment ("xanh sạch đẹp" [BT: green, clean, and beautiful]). Student 16 related "green cleaning" to "safe cleaning".

Dọn dẹp một cách thân thiện với môi trường thật dễ dàng—Hãy tạo thiên đường của riêng bạn [BT: Easy environmentally friendly cleaning—Create your own heaven]. (Student 11, Title 2a)
Dọn dẹp dễ dàng và an toàn [BT: Easy safe cleaning]. (Student 16, Title 2a)
Their idiomatic Translation, literal Translation, as well as ST form retention in translating "green cleaning" were certainly the end product of the translation processes in which a decision to translate the term was made in consideration of extratextual features of the ST and TT (i.e., at the more global levels).

Perception of progress: Increased confidence and independence

Data from Interview 2 after the workshops showed that the students felt more confident while translating. Some students (including Students 7, 9, and 15) commented that the translation task was less difficult than before the workshops and that they found that their translations had improved. Student 9 said, "I noticed that compared with the first translation task, I could do better this time. I have made some improvements. For example, to guess word meanings, I read the task requirements and look at the pictures". This confidence certainly resulted from the student's increased focus on text features. The knowledge obtained from the text at hand forms part of extratextual or extralinguistic knowledge (in addition to background knowledge, specialized knowledge, and knowledge of the subject matter) (Tirrkonen-Condit 1992). According to Kim

(2006), students' extralinguistic knowledge can compensate for the lack of linguistic knowledge, enabling students to infer the meanings of ST items. Generally, the study results showed that the students' better-informed translation process, along with justified translation solutions and word choices, demonstrated engagement in their learning.

Conclusion

Summary

The study was to investigate how the use of the functional approach to Translation affects students' translation process. The study results obtained from the qualitative analysis of translation tasks and interviews before and after the workshops indicated that the pedagogical innovation students generally enhanced the translation process.

After the workshops, the students' translation process generally improved. They began to pay attention to translation problems and difficulties related to extratextual features and adopted a more diverse range of strategies considering various text features. Further, the students demonstrated a better understanding of accuracy, which does not always mean retaining ST meanings. They knew accuracy also involved adding information and/or sentence structure change. Accordingly, they endeavored to produce informed and functionally appropriate translations and generally demonstrated confidence and independence in Translation and learning.

The study suggests that a functional approach to Translation empowers students to enrich their translation process through informed steps such as problem identification, translation strategies, and reflection on Translation.

Implications

Given the demonstrated value of the functional approach to Translation in fostering the growth of students' translation skills, language programs should integrate elements of this approach into their translation courses. The activities conducted during the workshops can particularly be beneficial in the initial stages of translation teaching, aiding students in comprehending the intricacies of the translation process. Particularly, the functional approach to Translation promotes students' awareness of the nature of real-life practice and their greater skills and confidence in the burgeoning translation markets. This pedagogical approach must be implemented and further developed within the English program at UFL, similar programs in Vietnam, and other contexts.

Suggestions for Future Studies

This is a small-scale study conducted briefly involving a limited number of participants. Future studies could investigate the use of functional approaches to Translation on a larger scale and in lengthened periods to dictate its impact on students' translation ability. The validity of the teaching approach could be enhanced if students' translation solutions to other ST items and/or whole texts can be well-presented to show potential links between the translation process and translation product. The study findings may also have been influenced by applying the consciousness-raising principle employed during the workshops (Nguyen, 2023). Nevertheless, disentangling the impact of the functional approach to Translation from that of consciousness-raising presents a challenge.

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