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АҒЫЛШЫН ТІЛІН ҮЙРЕНУ БАРЫСЫНДА СТУДЕНТТЕРДІҢ
ЫНТЫМАҚТАСТЫҚ DAҒДЫЛАРЫН ДАМУҒА АРНАЛҒАН
ИНТЕРАКТИВТІ ОҚЫТУ СТРАТЕГИЯЛАРЫ

Аңдатпа

Мақалада ағылшын тілін үйрену барысында студенттердің ынтымақтастық дағдыларын дамытуға мүмкіндік беретін интерактивті оқыту стратегияларын қолданудың педагогикалық шарттары қарастырылады. Мақаланың мақсаты — коммуникативтік тілдік тәжірибені бірлесіп жоспарлау, өзара келісілген қатысу және ұжымдық жауапкершілік дағдыларын мақсатты дамытумен ұштастыратын әдістемелік модель ұсыну. Жұмыс теориялық сипатқа ие және кооперативті оқыту қағидалары мен шет тілін оқытудағы коммуникативтік тәсіл негізінде жекелеген интерактивті стратегияларды салыстыруға бағытталған. «Мозаика» әдісіне, қатысушылардың қолындағы ақпарат айырмашылығына негізделген тапсырмаларға, жазбаша мәтінді бірлесіп құрастыруға және топтық жобаларға ерекше назар аударылып, әрбір стратегия білім алушылардан талап ететін ынтымақтастық әрекеттері тұрғысынан қарастырылады. Ұсынылған модель сабақтағы өзара әрекеттестікті ортақ мақсатты айқындау, рөлдерді келісу, тапсырманы бірлесіп орындау және рефлексиялық бағалау кезеңдері арқылы ұйымдастырады. Педагогикалық сүйемелдеу, тілдік қолдау және бағалау өлшемдерінің айқындығы оқытуды ұйымдастырудың қажетті құрамдастары ретінде сипатталады. Модель топтық жұмыс үдерісі мен әрбір қатысушының жеке үлесін ескеру үшін өзара бағалауды жеке рефлексиямен ұштастырады. Ұсынылған тәсілдің практикалық маңызы нақты оқыту стратегияларын ынтымақтастықты дамыту мақсаттарымен және оны бағалау көрсеткіштерімен байланыстыруында, бұл ағылшын тілі сабақтарын жоспарлауға және модельді кейіннен эмпирикалық тұрғыдан тексеруге негіз болады.

Тірек сөздер: интерактивті оқыту; ынтымақтастық дағдылары; ағылшын тілін үйрену; кооперативті оқыту; топтық өзара әрекеттестік; өзара бағалау; білім алушылардың рефлексиясы.

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ИНТЕРАКТИВНЫЕ СТРАТЕГИИ ОБУЧЕНИЯ ДЛЯ РАЗВИТИЯ НАВЫКОВ СОТРУДНИЧЕСТВА СТУДЕНТОВ ПРИ ИЗУЧЕНИИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются педагогические условия, при которых интерактивные стратегии обучения могут способствовать развитию навыков сотрудничества студентов в процессе изучения английского языка. Цель статьи заключается в предложении методической модели, объединяющей коммуникативную языковую практику с целенаправленным развитием совместного планирования, согласованного участия и коллективной ответственности. Работа имеет теоретический характер и предполагает сопоставление отдельных интерактивных стратегий с опорой на принципы кооперативного обучения и коммуникативного подхода к преподаванию иностранных языков. Особое внимание уделяется методу «мозаика», заданиям с информационным разрывом, совместному созданию письменных текстов и групповым проектам; каждая стратегия рассматривается с точки зрения действий сотрудничества, которые она требует от обучающихся. Предлагаемая модель организует взаимодействие на занятии как последовательность совместного определения цели, согласования ролей, выполнения общего задания и рефлексивной оценки. Педагогическое сопровождение, языковая поддержка и прозрачные критерии оценивания рассматриваются как необходимые компоненты организации обучения. Модель сочетает взаимооценивание с индивидуальной рефлексией, позволяя учитывать групповые процессы и личный вклад участников. Практическая значимость предложенного подхода заключается в установлении связи между конкретными стратегиями преподавания, целями развития сотрудничества и показателями его оценки, что создаёт основу для планирования занятий и последующей эмпирической проверки в условиях обучения английскому языку.

Ключевые слова: интерактивное обучение; навыки сотрудничества; изучение английского языка; кооперативное обучение; групповое взаимодействие; взаимооценивание; рефлексия обучающихся.

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INTERACTIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR DEVELOPING STUDENTS' COLLABORATION SKILLS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING

Abstract

This article examines the pedagogical conditions under which interactive teaching strategies can support the development of students' collaboration skills in English language learning. The purpose is to propose a methodological framework that integrates communicative language practice with the deliberate development of shared planning, coordinated participation, and collective responsibility. The article adopts a conceptual approach, comparing selected interactive strategies through the principles of cooperative learning and communicative language teaching. Particular attention is given to jigsaw activities, information-gap tasks, collaborative writing, and group projects, with each strategy examined in relation to the collaborative actions it requires from learners. The proposed framework organises classroom interaction around a sequence of shared goal setting, role negotiation, joint task completion, and reflective evaluation. Collaboration is

operationalised through observable indicators, including equitable participation, active listening, reasoned negotiation, mutual assistance, and integration of individual contributions into a shared outcome. Teacher guidance, language support, and transparent assessment criteria are considered essential components of this instructional design. The framework combines peer assessment with individual reflection to document both group processes and personal contributions. Its practical contribution lies in connecting specific teaching strategies with explicit collaboration objectives and assessment indicators, providing a basis for lesson planning and subsequent empirical evaluation in English language classrooms.

Keywords: *interactive teaching; collaboration skills; English language learning; cooperative learning; group interaction; peer assessment; learner reflection.*

Introduction:

English language education involves preparing learners to participate in activities that require the coordination of ideas, responsibilities, and communicative intentions. In such activities, students need to explain their reasoning, respond to alternative perspectives, negotiate decisions, and contribute to shared outcomes. This understanding of language use is reflected in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages Companion Volume, which incorporates mediation and collaborative interaction into its description of communicative activity. Its descriptors address learners' ability to facilitate participation, develop others' ideas, and construct meaning collectively. Collaboration therefore represents a substantive dimension of language education that can be incorporated into both instructional objectives and assessment practices [1].

A central pedagogical challenge concerns the relationship between participation in group activities and the development of collaboration skills. For the purposes of this article, collaboration skills are understood as the capacities required to establish shared goals, coordinate contributions, engage with peers' reasoning, provide mutual assistance, and evaluate collective progress. Their development depends on the quality of interaction within a group. Storch's longitudinal investigation of adult English as a Second Language pair work identified distinct interactional patterns characterised by differences in equality and mutuality, with some patterns offering more favourable conditions for language learning than others. These findings establish the importance of examining how learners work together when evaluating the educational value of pair and group tasks [2]. Social interdependence theory provides a foundation for explaining how the organisation of learning goals influences cooperation. Johnson and Johnson connect cooperative learning with the relationships among individual effort, collective achievement, and the instructional conditions established by teachers. Their account positions cooperation as a process that requires deliberate organisation and sustained pedagogical support [3]. Applied to English language teaching, this perspective suggests that tasks should give students meaningful reasons to exchange information, consider one another's contributions, and take responsibility for a common result. A shared product becomes educationally valuable when its production requires coordinated reasoning and allows each participant's contribution to be identified.

The relationship between collaboration and language learning can also be understood through the mediating function of dialogue. Swain and Lapkin's analysis of two French immersion students completing a joint task illustrates how learners use interaction to identify linguistic problems and work towards possible solutions. Although their study concerns French immersion rather than English language instruction, it offers a relevant account of language as a resource for both communication and collective thinking [4]. From this perspective, discussing word choice, explaining an interpretation, or negotiating the organisation of a text creates opportunities to connect linguistic activity with collaborative reasoning. The educational potential of such exchanges depends on learners' engagement with the substance of their partners' contributions. Interactive teaching strategies can provide a structure for organising these exchanges. Gillies' review identifies positive interdependence, individual accountability, supportive interaction,

interpersonal skills, and group reflection as important components of cooperative learning [5]. Drawing on these principles, the present article considers four strategies: jigsaw activities, information-gap tasks, collaborative writing, and group projects. Each can be designed around a particular collaborative demand. Jigsaw activities require learners to explain and integrate complementary information; information-gap tasks create a communicative need to request clarification and verify understanding; collaborative writing involves negotiating a shared text; and group projects require the coordination of responsibilities over successive stages of work. These connections provide a basis for selecting strategies according to explicit collaboration objectives.

Collaborative writing is particularly relevant because it produces a shared text through which joint decision-making can be examined. Storch's research timeline situates this practice within second language education and describes its development alongside changing literacy practices and technologies that facilitate joint text production [6]. Within the framework proposed here, collaborative writing is treated as an opportunity to organise discussion about content, structure, and linguistic choices. Its value for developing collaboration should be examined through the decisions learners make together, the explanations they provide, and their responses to suggested revisions. Text quality and interaction quality are consequently treated as distinct dimensions of assessment, each requiring appropriate evidence. Evidence concerning interactive strategies also calls for careful interpretation. Cochon Drouet, Lentillon-Kaestner, and Margas reviewed 69 studies of the jigsaw method and reported substantial variation in its effects across educational outcomes. Their analysis highlights inconsistencies concerning achievement, motivation, social relations, and academic self-esteem, while identifying potential explanations that require further empirical investigation [7]. These findings caution against assuming that a recognised cooperative structure will produce uniform benefits across classrooms. For English language education, an appropriate implication is to specify task demands, participation arrangements, and intended outcomes before evaluating whether a strategy supports the development of collaboration.

Teacher mediation is a further consideration. Gillies emphasises the role of teachers in preparing students for cooperative interaction and supporting productive discussion [5]. In the proposed framework, this role includes making collaborative expectations explicit, providing language resources for discussion, and observing how participation is distributed. For example, students may need support in requesting an explanation, expressing disagreement respectfully, inviting a quieter peer to contribute, or summarising a group decision. Such support connects the interpersonal requirements of collaboration with the linguistic resources needed to enact them.

Assessment must likewise capture how students contribute to collective work. A meta-analysis by Double, McGrane, and Hopfenbeck, covering 54 studies, found a small-to-medium overall effect of peer assessment on academic performance, supporting its use as a formative practice across educational settings [8]. This evidence supports considering peer assessment within interactive instruction, although it does not by itself establish improvements in collaboration skills. The present article therefore proposes combining peer assessment with teacher observation and individual reflection. Relevant indicators include responsiveness to others' ideas, the provision of useful assistance, fulfilment of agreed responsibilities, and contribution to shared decisions. Recent research further clarifies the need to connect instructional activities with the processes they are intended to develop. Zheng, Cao, and Yu identify continuing difficulties in translating collaborative writing research into classroom practice, particularly in relation to interaction quality, learners' emotional experiences, assessment, and preparation for collaborative work [9]. Their analysis supports a specific methodological concern: teachers require a coherent basis for relating the selection of an interactive strategy to observable collaborative behaviour. The problem addressed in this article is therefore the instructional alignment of collaboration objectives, task organisation, language support, and assessment criteria within English language learning. The analysis seeks to identify the collaborative actions required by selected strategies, explain the pedagogical conditions

that can support these actions, and formulate indicators for evaluating students' participation and contributions. The framework organises classroom work through shared goal setting, role negotiation, joint task completion, and reflective evaluation. Its intended contribution is to make the relationship between teaching strategy and collaboration objective sufficiently explicit to guide lesson planning and subsequent empirical investigation. In this way, the article establishes a basis for examining collaboration as an educational objective with identifiable processes and assessable outcomes.

Methods

The study adopts a qualitative conceptual design that combines a focused narrative review, comparative pedagogical analysis, and the development of an instructional framework. Its purpose is to establish how interactive teaching strategies can be organised to support students' collaboration skills in English language learning. The analysis draws on published scholarship and examines relationships among task characteristics, collaborative processes, and assessment principles. A narrative review is appropriate for integrating these interconnected areas, provided that the selection of literature and the reasoning underlying its synthesis are made explicit. Accordingly, the methodological emphasis is on conceptual coherence and the relevance of the evidence to the research purpose. [10]

The conceptual development follows a theory-synthesis approach. Research on cooperative learning and peer interaction provides explanations of how learners coordinate their contributions, while literature on language pedagogy informs the communicative demands of classroom tasks. Assessment scholarship contributes principles for translating collaboration into observable indicators. These perspectives serve distinct analytical functions within the proposed framework: they explain the conditions supporting collaboration, identify opportunities for practising it through English, and guide the interpretation of collaborative performance. This integration follows the principle that conceptual research should specify how selected theories contribute to the argument and how their combination supports the proposed contribution. [11] The literature base comprises the substantive publications discussed in the Introduction and five methodological sources introduced in this section. Selection is purposive and guided by relevance to collaborative interaction, instructional design, conceptual synthesis, and assessment. Sources are considered according to their identifiable scholarly provenance, clarity of conceptual contribution, and applicability to the research questions. Foundational publications supply theoretical explanations, empirical studies provide context-specific evidence, and reviews help identify broader patterns and limitations. These different forms of evidence are interpreted according to their respective purposes. The resulting review supports the construction of a methodological framework without claiming exhaustive coverage of the field. The analytical procedure is informed by directed qualitative content analysis, in which existing theory and relevant findings guide the initial categories used to interpret textual material. [12] In the present study, these categories comprise shared goals, interdependence, participation, negotiation, mutual support, and reflection. They function as interpretive questions applied to descriptions of learning activities and collaborative processes. For example, the analysis considers whether successful task completion requires contributions from several learners, how participants respond to alternative suggestions, and whether responsibility extends beyond completing an individually assigned component. Attention also extends to conditions that complicate collaboration, including uneven participation, excessive dependence on a more proficient learner, and the separation of individual contributions without subsequent integration. The comparative analysis focuses on four instructional strategies: jigsaw activities, information-gap tasks, collaborative writing, and group projects. Each strategy is examined through a common set of dimensions: the intended shared outcome, the distribution of information and responsibility, opportunities for reciprocal communication, requirements for integrating contributions, teacher support, and possible evidence of collaboration. This approach enables comparison across activities that differ in duration, organisation, and expected products. The

analysis distinguishes between opportunities created by a task and the collaborative behaviour learners may demonstrate during its implementation. Consequently, the presence of pair or group work is treated as an organisational feature whose educational significance depends on the interaction it generates.

Within this comparison, collaboration is operationalised through five proposed indicators: equitable participation, active listening, reasoned negotiation, mutual assistance, and the integration of individual contributions into a shared outcome. Equitable participation concerns meaningful opportunities to influence the task and assume responsibility. Active listening is represented by responses that acknowledge, clarify, or develop a peer's contribution. Reasoned negotiation involves explaining preferences and considering alternatives before reaching a decision. Mutual assistance includes providing support while preserving the recipient's involvement. Integration concerns the extent to which contributions are discussed and incorporated into a coherent collective product. These definitions establish the conceptual basis for subsequent instructional and assessment decisions. The instructional framework is constructed through the principle of constructive alignment, which connects intended learning outcomes with the activities through which learners practise them and the evidence used to assess their achievement. [13] Applied to the present topic, each collaboration outcome is linked to relevant communicative actions and task conditions. For example, developing reasoned negotiation requires opportunities to propose alternatives, explain choices, request clarification, and respond to disagreement. A corresponding task therefore needs a shared decision that depends on discussion, together with evidence showing how participants reach that decision. Language support, including functional expressions and prompts, is incorporated where necessary to make these actions accessible.

The proposed instructional sequence comprises shared goal setting, role negotiation, joint task completion, and reflective evaluation. These stages provide an organising structure across the four strategies while allowing adaptation to learners' proficiency, task complexity, and available classroom time. Teacher support is specified in relation to the demands of each stage, including clarifying expectations, helping learners distribute responsibility, monitoring participation, and prompting reflection on interaction. The sequence is presented as a pedagogical proposal for classroom application and subsequent investigation.

Assessment design draws on the distinction between descriptive rubrics and instruments that merely assign ratings or count behaviours. Meaningful rubric criteria require descriptions of performance quality that correspond to the intended learning outcomes. [14] Accordingly, the proposed assessment approach uses the five collaboration indicators as separate criteria. Prospective evidence includes teacher observations, peer feedback, individual reflections, and traces of joint decision-making in task products. Descriptors should address how learners contribute, respond, and coordinate their work. Linguistic accuracy and fluency require separate consideration so that judgments of collaboration remain sensitive to learners' differing English proficiency. The methodological contribution consists of a theoretically grounded framework linking interactive task design, collaborative actions, and assessment. Its internal coherence depends on maintaining explicit connections between the literature, the analytical categories, and the proposed teaching procedures. The study involves no primary participant data, and the framework's effectiveness and assessment properties remain open to empirical investigation. Its conclusions therefore concern pedagogical rationale and design principles; evidence of sustained improvement in students' collaboration skills would require subsequent classroom implementation and evaluation.

Research Results

The conceptual analysis yields three interconnected outcomes: a comparative account of the collaborative opportunities provided by four interactive teaching strategies, an instructional framework linking these opportunities to purposeful language use, and a set of descriptive criteria for evaluating collaborative performance. These outcomes represent the results of the literature-based synthesis and pedagogical modelling undertaken in this study. They provide a basis for

designing and examining classroom practice, while their effectiveness in producing sustained improvements in students' collaboration skills remains subject to empirical investigation. A central finding of the synthesis concerns the relationship between task organisation and the quality of participation. The collaborative potential of an activity depends on whether learners need to engage with one another's contributions to achieve the intended outcome. Assigning students to a group establishes a setting for interaction, but the distribution of information, responsibility, and decision-making opportunities determines what that interaction requires. Gillies' investigation of cooperative learning in a junior high school mathematics context found that students working within structured arrangements offered more elaborated assistance and developed stronger perceptions of group cohesion and responsibility for peers' learning. Although this evidence originates outside foreign language instruction, it supports the broader pedagogical rationale for explicitly structuring collaboration. [15]

The analysis further identifies the allocation of informational responsibility as a relevant condition for participation in English language tasks. Dao and McDonough found that mixed-proficiency EFL pairs demonstrated greater mutual engagement when the less proficient learner held information needed for task completion. Their findings indicate that interactional roles can influence participation alongside language proficiency. [16] In the framework developed here, this evidence informs a design principle: each learner should possess a meaningful contribution that peers need to understand and incorporate. Consequently, roles are defined through intellectual and communicative responsibility, including explaining evidence, checking understanding, or evaluating alternatives. Roles concerned only with recording or managing materials offer a narrower basis for practising collaboration.

The comparison of jigsaw activities, information-gap tasks, collaborative writing, and group projects reveals complementary opportunities for developing collaboration. Their differences concern the actions required to connect individual contributions with a collective outcome. Table 1 presents the resulting conceptual mapping.

Table 1. Collaborative opportunities and design conditions across interactive teaching strategies

Strategy	Basis of interdependence	Collaborative actions targeted	Essential design condition
Jigsaw activities	Learners contribute different sections of information needed for shared understanding.	Explaining, listening, requesting clarification, and synthesising information.	The final task requires connections among contributions, supported by preparation in expert groups.
Information-gap tasks	Participants possess incomplete or different information.	Asking precise questions, clarifying meaning, confirming understanding, and coordinating decisions.	Task completion requires reciprocal exchange and a jointly checked solution.

Collaborative writing	Learners share responsibility for the content and language of one text.	Proposing ideas, negotiating wording, explaining revisions, and resolving disagreement.	Participants contribute to planning, drafting, and revision, with decisions open to discussion.
Group projects	A shared product requires coordinated contributions over several stages.	Planning, negotiating responsibilities, monitoring progress, integrating work, and evaluating outcomes.	Intermediate checkpoints require collective review before the final product is completed.

The comparison highlights the particular value of collaborative writing for making joint decision-making visible. A shared text offers a concrete focus around which learners can discuss meaning, organise arguments, and reconsider linguistic choices. Storch's classroom study found that writing in pairs created opportunities for combining ideas and exchanging feedback; the jointly produced texts also demonstrated advantages on several assessed dimensions. However, learners expressed differing views about the experience. [17] For the present framework, the relevant implication is that the writing process provides evidence of how contributions are negotiated. A polished final text alone cannot establish whether responsibility was distributed meaningfully throughout its production. Group projects extend the temporal scope of collaboration by requiring participants to maintain coordination across planning, production, and revision. The scoping review by Jaleniauskiene and Venckiene documents varied approaches to project-based language learning in higher education, including opportunities for learner choice, authentic products, reflection, critique, and revision. [18] The present synthesis connects these features to the management of collective responsibility. Its resulting design proposition is that project work should include occasions when students examine how their separate contributions fit together. Without such integration points, a project may provide substantial individual work while generating relatively limited collaborative reasoning. A second outcome is the specification of the four-stage instructional framework introduced in the Methods section. Its stages connect the organisation of a task with the communicative actions through which collaboration becomes possible. Shared goal setting establishes a common interpretation of the expected outcome and its quality criteria. Role negotiation distributes responsibility while allowing learners to request support or reconsider an unsuitable allocation. Joint task completion involves exchanging information, evaluating suggestions, and adjusting contributions in response to peers. Reflective evaluation examines both the completed product and the interaction through which it was developed.

The distinctive feature of this framework is the connection between stages. Decisions made during planning remain open to revision when difficulties emerge, and reflection generates specific adjustments for subsequent tasks. This arrangement draws on research into socially shared regulation, which emphasises learners' awareness of collective learning processes and the value of making those processes explicit through appropriate support. Järvelä and colleagues identify design principles concerning awareness, the external expression of learning processes, and prompts that activate regulation within collaborative settings. [19] Their principles inform the inclusion of brief planning statements, progress checks, and shared reflection in the proposed framework. An illustrative application is an English-language task requiring students to prepare a recommendation for a campus improvement. Learners first agree on the audience and the criteria for a useful recommendation. They then negotiate responsibility for examining different forms of evidence. During task completion, they compare alternatives and construct a recommendation supported by

contributions from the group. Reflection addresses which suggestions influenced the decision, how disagreement was handled, and what participation arrangements require adjustment. This example demonstrates the alignment of the proposed stages; it is not an account of an implemented intervention. A third outcome is a descriptive assessment framework that translates collaboration into observable actions. The five criteria specified in the Methods section are retained: equitable participation, active listening, reasoned negotiation, mutual assistance, and integration of contributions. Table 2 differentiates three proposed forms of performance for each criterion. The descriptors concern the quality and responsiveness of participation rather than the frequency of speech or the grammatical sophistication of individual contributions.

Table 2. Proposed descriptive rubric for collaboration in English language tasks

Criterion	Participation requiring support	Independent collaborative participation	Participation that supports group coordination
Equitable participation	Needs prompting to contribute or allow space for peers.	Makes relevant contributions and respects others' opportunities to participate.	Helps redistribute opportunities when participation becomes uneven.
Active listening	Needs support to clarify or respond to a peer's contribution.	Checks understanding and responds directly to peers' ideas.	Connects different contributions and helps the group resolve misunderstandings.
Reasoned negotiation	States a preference without explaining it or considering alternatives.	Explains choices and considers reasons offered by others.	Helps compare alternatives against shared criteria and formulate a justified decision.
Mutual assistance	Needs guidance to request help or provide useful support.	Offers relevant explanations and seeks assistance when necessary.	Adjusts support to peers' needs while preserving their responsibility for the task.
Integration of contributions	Focuses on an assigned component with limited attention to the whole.	Revises individual work to fit the shared outcome.	Helps identify gaps, reconcile inconsistencies, and connect contributions coherently.

The rubric provides a basis for feedback and reflection, but its introduction cannot itself be treated as evidence of skill development. Panadero and colleagues' meta-analysis found a positive effect of rubrics on academic performance, while estimates concerning self-regulated learning and self-efficacy were smaller and more uncertain. These findings support distinguishing among the outcomes attributed to assessment tools. [20] Within the present framework, rubric-based judgments would therefore require evidence from interaction, peer feedback, individual reflection, and the development of shared products. The synthesis also establishes an interpretive boundary between successful task performance and the development of collaboration skills. A learner may

collaborate effectively in a familiar activity while requiring considerable support in a new group or a more demanding task. Demonstrating development would require repeated observations showing more independent and responsive participation across relevant situations. The contribution of the present analysis is to specify what such development could involve and how instruction can create opportunities to examine it. The resulting framework connects task conditions, communicative actions, and assessment criteria without assuming that any single interactive strategy produces equivalent outcomes for all learners.

Conclusion

The conceptual analysis identifies purposeful interdependence, shared responsibility, and responsive peer interaction as key conditions for supporting collaboration in English language learning. Jigsaw activities, information-gap tasks, collaborative writing, and group projects offer complementary opportunities to explain ideas, negotiate decisions, assist peers, and integrate individual contributions. Their pedagogical value depends on how these actions are incorporated into tasks and supported through appropriate language resources and teacher guidance.

The proposed framework connects shared goal setting, role negotiation, joint task completion, and reflective evaluation with explicit criteria for collaborative performance. This alignment provides a methodological basis for designing activities and assessing equitable participation, active listening, reasoned negotiation, mutual assistance, and the integration of contributions. The study's contribution lies in linking instructional choices to observable collaborative actions while distinguishing collaboration from linguistic proficiency. Classroom implementation and repeated assessment are required to establish the framework's effectiveness and determine whether the targeted skills develop and transfer across tasks and group settings.

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COGNITIVE ANALYSIS OF LOGICAL-SEMANTIC STRUCTURES IN LLMS: ISSUES OF LINGUISTIC REDUCTION

Abstract

Future language teachers meet AI-enabled language learning tools twice: as learners who use them now, and as professionals who may soon bring them into their own classrooms. This article

reports a cross-sectional survey of pre-service English teachers at one Kazakhstani pedagogical university. Thirty-eight third- and fourth-year students took part, and 33 confirmed using AI-enabled language learning tools within the previous twelve months. The questionnaire was adapted from the Technology Acceptance Model and covered perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, behavioral intention, an additional block on future professional use, a usage profile, and two open-ended questions. Internal consistency of the multi-item scales was satisfactory (Cronbach's alpha 0.74–0.80). ChatGPT-type chatbots turned out to be the most widely used tools (81.8%), and vocabulary and writing were the skills students practised most often. Perceived usefulness received the highest composite rating ($M = 3.80$) and perceived ease of use the lowest ($M = 3.44$). Usefulness correlated positively with behavioral intention ($\rho = 0.53$, $p = 0.002$), whereas usage frequency showed no significant association with intention. Open-ended responses pointed to infrastructural barriers, distrust of answer accuracy, and the quality of Kazakh-language adaptation. Implications for foreign language teacher education programmes are discussed.

Keywords: artificial intelligence; AI-enabled language learning tools; technology acceptance model; pre-service English teachers; foreign language education; ChatGPT; perceived usefulness; behavioral intention; AI literacy; Kazakhstan.

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БОЛАШАҚ АҒЫЛШЫН ТІЛІ МҰҒАЛІМДЕРІНІҢ ЖИ ҚОЛДАЙТЫН ТІЛ ҮЙРЕНУ ҚҰРАЛДАРЫН ҚАБЫЛДАУЫ ЖӘНЕ ҚОЛДАНУЫ

Аңдатпа

Білім берудегі жасанды интеллект технологияларының қарқынды таралуы болашақ тіл мұғалімдерінің ЖИ қолдайтын тіл үйрену құралдарына қатысты ұстанымын зерттеудің өзектілігін арттырып отыр: олар бұл құралдарды білім алушы ретінде пайдаланып, болашақта кәсіби қызметінде қолдануы мүмкін. Мақалада бір қазақстандық педагогикалық ЖОО-ның болашақ ағылшын тілі мұғалімдері арасында жүргізілген кросс-секциялық сауалнамалық зерттеу нәтижелері баяндалады. Зерттеуге 3–4-курстың 38 студенті қатысты, олардың 33-і соңғы он екі айда ЖИ қолдайтын тіл үйрену құралдарын пайдаланғанын растады. Сауалнама технологияны қабылдау моделі негізінде бейімделді және пайдалы деп қабылдауды, пайдалану жеңілдігін, пайдалану ниетін, болашақ кәсіби қолдануды зерделейтін қосымша блокты, пайдалану профилін және екі ашық сұрақты қамтыды. Шкалалардың ішкі үйлесімділігі қанағаттанарлық (Cronbach's alpha 0,74–0,80). Ең жиі пайдаланылатын құрал — ChatGPT типті чат-боттар (81,8%); құралдар көбіне лексика мен жазылым дағдыларын дамыту үшін қолданылады. Пайдалы деп қабылдау ең жоғары ($M = 3,80$), пайдалану жеңілдігі ең төмен ($M = 3,44$) бағаланды. Пайдалылық пен пайдалану ниеті арасында оң байланыс анықталды ($\rho = 0,53$; $p = 0,002$), ал пайдалану жиілігі мен ниет арасындағы байланыс мәнді болмады. Ашық жауаптарда инфрақұрылымдық кедергілер, жауап дәлдігіне сенімсіздік және қазақ тіліне бейімдеу сапасы аталды. Шетел тілі мұғалімдерін даярлау бағдарламаларына арналған ұсынымдар беріледі.

Түйін сөздер: жасанды интеллект; ЖИ қолдайтын тіл үйрену құралдары; технологияны қабылдау моделі; болашақ ағылшын тілі мұғалімдері; шеттілдік білім беру; ChatGPT; пайдалы деп қабылдау; пайдалану ниеті; ЖИ сауаттылығы; Қазақстан.

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ПРИНЯТИЕ И ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ ИИ-ИНСТРУМЕНТОВ ДЛЯ ИЗУЧЕНИЯ ЯЗЫКА БУДУЩИМИ УЧИТЕЛЯМИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Аннотация

Быстрое распространение технологий искусственного интеллекта в образовании обуславливает необходимость изучения того, как будущие учителя языка воспринимают ИИ-инструменты для изучения языка: они используют их как обучающиеся и могут применять в профессиональной деятельности. В статье представлены результаты кросс-секционного опросного исследования будущих учителей английского языка одного казахстанского педагогического вуза. Участие приняли 38 студентов 3–4 курсов, из них 33 подтвердили использование ИИ-инструментов для изучения языка за последние двенадцать месяцев. Анкета адаптирована на основе модели принятия технологий и охватывала воспринимаемую полезность, простоту использования, намерение использования, дополнительный блок о профессиональном применении, профиль использования и два открытых вопроса. Внутренняя согласованность шкал была удовлетворительной (Cronbach's alpha 0,74–0,80). Наиболее распространенным инструментом оказались чат-боты типа ChatGPT (81,8%); инструменты чаще применяются для развития словарного запаса и навыков письма. Воспринимаемая полезность получила наивысшую оценку ($M = 3,80$), простота использования — самую низкую ($M = 3,44$). Полезность положительно связана с намерением использования ($\rho = 0,53$; $p = 0,002$); статистически значимой связи между частотой использования и намерением использования не выявлено. Открытые ответы указали на инфраструктурные барьеры, недоверие к точности ответов и проблемы качества ответов на казахском языке. Обсуждаются рекомендации для программ подготовки учителей иностранных языков.

Ключевые слова: искусственный интеллект; ИИ-инструменты для изучения языка; модель принятия технологий; будущие учителя английского языка; иноязычное образование; ChatGPT; воспринимаемая полезность; намерение использования; ИИ-грамотность;

INTRODUCTION

Artificial intelligence (AI) technologies have been reshaping language education in recent years, and research is only beginning to catch up with practice. A systematic review of AI applications in higher education found rapid technological spread alongside weak pedagogical grounding [1]. Within language education, adaptive systems form one recognisable group of AI-based tools: they adjust task difficulty, content and feedback to the learner's level and responses, and the literature often uses the terms adaptive learning and personalized learning interchangeably [2]. The arrival of generative tools such as ChatGPT then widened the picture considerably and sharpened research interest in foreign language teaching. Researchers have studied the place of ChatGPT in EFL learners' informal digital learning [3], teachers' views on what such tools can offer [4], and how AI tools affect affective factors related to speaking [5]. In this article the umbrella term AI-enabled language learning tools covers both specialized adaptive applications and general-purpose generative chatbots used for language learning; adaptivity is treated as one salient feature of such tools rather than a defining criterion.

Whether a new technology takes root in education depends above all on whether its users accept it. Acceptance research on generative AI already shows that established models transfer to this new class of tools: studies of university students' uptake of ChatGPT confirm their applicability [6]. The framework applied most often remains the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). Davis

[7] proposed explaining the intention to use a technology through two constructs, perceived usefulness (PU) and perceived ease of use (PEOU). Later extensions [8] and systematic reviews of educational settings [9] support the continuing relevance of TAM for studying how educational technologies are received.

Pre-service teachers occupy a particular position in acceptance research because they encounter AI twice, first as learners and later as professionals who decide whether to bring such tools to their own students. In a study of 452 pre-service teachers at a German university, perceived usefulness ($\beta = 0.501$) and perceived ease of use emerged as the main predictors of the intention to use AI [10]. Initial language teacher education has also begun responding to generative AI: teacher educators report rethinking their courses [11], and intervention studies have sought to build pre-service language teachers' professional generative AI competence [12]. Such work connects to the wider agenda of AI literacy [13] and to the UNESCO AI competency framework for teachers [14]. Survey evidence on how pre-service English teachers themselves accept and use AI-enabled language learning tools nevertheless remains limited, particularly outside East Asian and European contexts.

For Kazakhstan the question carries particular weight. AI development has been declared a state priority, and the Concept for the Development of Artificial Intelligence for 2024–2029 was approved by Government Decree No. 592 of 24 July 2024 [15]. Access to AI tools in the education system keeps expanding, yet empirical evidence on how future foreign language teachers actually use and accept them remains limited. The quality of AI output in Kazakh deserves attention as well: in a recent evaluation conducted in the clinical nutrition domain, ChatGPT-4 outputs in Kazakh performed substantially worse than corresponding English and Russian outputs [16]. How such localization constraints shape learners' acceptance is still poorly documented, particularly for Kazakhstan.

Against this background, the study set out to identify pre-service English teachers' acceptance and use of AI-enabled language learning tools at one Kazakhstani pedagogical university. The research questions and the hypothesis are formulated in the Materials and Methods section.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study followed a cross-sectional survey design. Four research questions were posed: (RQ1) which AI-enabled language learning tools students use, how often, and for which language skills; (RQ2) what the levels of the acceptance constructs are, namely perceived usefulness (PU), perceived ease of use (PEOU), and behavioral intention (BI); (RQ3) whether indicators of use are related to the acceptance constructs; (RQ4) what intentions students hold, as future teachers, about applying these tools in their professional work. Within RQ3 one hypothesis was tested: H1, usage frequency is positively related to behavioral intention.

The study involved third- and fourth-year students of the English teacher education programme at one Kazakhstani pedagogical university (convenience sampling). Of 40 distributed questionnaires, 38 were completed and returned (a response rate of 95%). Twenty-two respondents (57.9%) were third-year and 16 (42.1%) fourth-year students; 29 (76.3%) were female and 7 (18.4%) male, one respondent preferred not to indicate gender, and one left the question unanswered. Self-assessed English proficiency (CEFR) was distributed as follows: A2 – 3 (7.9%), B1 – 17 (44.7%), B2 – 15 (39.5%), C1 and above – 3 (7.9%). The screening question showed that 33 respondents had used AI-enabled language learning tools within the previous twelve months and entered the main analysis; the 5 non-users answered only the demographic block and the open-ended question on barriers.

The questionnaire was administered on paper in class. Permission to conduct the study was obtained, and the introductory section of the questionnaire informed respondents about voluntary participation, the anonymity of responses, and the use of data in aggregated form for research purposes only, which served as informed consent.

The questionnaire consisted of six parts: a screening question, a demographic block, a usage profile (a list of tools, frequency, skills, and duration), an acceptance block, a future-teacher block, and two open-ended questions. The screening question offered respondents a working definition, describing AI-based tools that automatically adjust task difficulty, content, or feedback to the learner, and listed examples that included specialized applications and ChatGPT-type chatbots used for language learning. Because the tools respondents actually reported ranged from adaptive applications to general-purpose chatbots, the broader term AI-enabled language learning tools is used in reporting. The items of the acceptance block were adapted from the original constructs of the Technology Acceptance Model [7]: PU with four items, PEOU with four items, and BI with three items, all on a five-point Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree, 5 – strongly agree). Two author-developed additions were included: item PU5 on adaptivity and a future-teacher (FT) block of three items. Neither belongs to the original instrument [7]: PU5 was treated as a separate exploratory item and was not merged into the PU composite, and the FT block was analyzed separately. The items were forward-translated into Kazakh by the author and checked against the original English wording; the full cross-cultural adaptation cycle recommended for self-report measures [17], including back-translation, expert committee review, and pretesting, was not implemented, and the instrument was not piloted before field use. Both points are acknowledged in the Limitations section.

The analysis relied on descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations), internal consistency of the scales (Cronbach's alpha), and Spearman rank correlations. Composite scores were computed as the mean of the items; a composite was calculated only when at least three of the four PU items, three of the four PEOU items, and all three BI and FT items had been answered. Given the small sample size ($n = 33$), no factor analysis was performed, and non-parametric correlations were used. Apart from the hypothesized H1 test, all correlations were exploratory and are reported with unadjusted p-values. The analysis was carried out in Python 3 with the pandas and SciPy libraries.

The two open-ended questions were analyzed through inductive content analysis. All responses were read in full and assigned short descriptive codes; codes recurring across responses were grouped into broader themes. Coding was performed on the original Kazakh responses, and illustrative quotations were translated into English by the author for reporting. Coding was carried out by the author alone; no second coder was involved, so intercoder reliability could not be computed. This is acknowledged in the Limitations section.

RESULTS

Usage profile (RQ1). Among users ($n = 33$) the most widespread tools were ChatGPT/Gemini-type chatbots used for language learning (27 respondents, 81.8%), followed by Duolingo (17; 51.5%) and Quizlet (17; 51.5%), ELSA Speak (9; 27.3%), Memrise (5; 15.2%), and Busuu (2; 6.1%); Grammarly, Cake (twice), and DeepL Write were named under the option 'other'. The largest groups by frequency used the tools about once a week (13; 39.4%) or several times a week (11; 33.3%); two respondents (6.1%) used them daily. As for duration, 11 respondents (33.3%) had used the tools for 6–12 months, 8 (24.2%) for more than a year, 9 (27.3%) for 3–6 months, and 5 (15.2%) for less than three months. The tools were applied most often to vocabulary (22; 66.7%), writing (20; 60.6%), speaking practice (19; 57.6%), and grammar (18; 54.5%); pronunciation was named least often (11; 33.3%). A detailed usage profile is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Usage profile of AI-enabled language learning tools ($n = 33$)

Indicator	Category	n (%)
Tools (multiple choice)	ChatGPT/Gemini (chatbot)	27 (81.8)
	Duolingo	17 (51.5)
	Quizlet	17 (51.5)

	ELSA Speak	9 (27.3)
	Memrise	5 (15.2)
	Busuu	2 (6.1)
	Other (Grammarly, Cake, DeepL Write)	4 (12.1)
Frequency	Daily	2 (6.1)
	Several times a week	11 (33.3)
	About once a week	13 (39.4)
	Several times a month	6 (18.2)
	Less often	1 (3.0)
Duration	Less than 3 months	5 (15.2)
	3–6 months	9 (27.3)
	6–12 months	11 (33.3)
	More than a year	8 (24.2)

Acceptance levels (RQ2). All multi-item scales showed satisfactory internal consistency ($\alpha \geq 0.70$; Table 2). Perceived usefulness received the highest composite rating ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 0.60$), while perceived ease of use was rated comparatively low ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 0.68$), with the weakest single item concerning the ease of finding the needed function ($M = 3.09$). Behavioral intention ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.74$) and future-teacher intention ($M = 3.53$, $SD = 0.85$) were above the scale midpoint. The exploratory adaptivity item PU5 received the highest rating among the usefulness statements ($M = 3.97$, $SD = 0.85$); it was analyzed as a separate item and was not merged into the PU composite.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and reliability of the scales (users, $n = 33$)

Scale / item	Items	Cronbach's alpha	M	SD	n
Perceived usefulness (PU)	4	0.74	3.80	0.60	33
PU5: adaptivity (exploratory item)	1	—	3.97	0.85	33
Perceived ease of use (PEOU)	4	0.77	3.44	0.68	33
Behavioral intention (BI)	3	0.80	3.48	0.74	31
Future-teacher intention (FT)	3	0.76	3.53	0.85	31

Relations between use and acceptance (RQ3). Hypothesis H1 was not supported: the association between usage frequency and behavioral intention did not reach statistical significance ($\rho = 0.26$, $p = 0.150$, $n = 31$). The associations of usage duration and tool range with the acceptance constructs also failed to reach significance (all $|\rho| \leq 0.28$, $p > 0.05$). At the same time, the relations among the constructs were broadly consistent with selected TAM relationships: a moderate positive association was recorded between PU and BI ($\rho = 0.53$, $p = 0.002$, $n = 31$), and positive associations were found between PU and PEOU ($\rho = 0.44$, $p = 0.010$, $n = 33$) and between PU and FT ($\rho = 0.40$, $p = 0.027$, $n = 31$). In exploratory analyses, the adaptivity item PU5 was also positively associated with BI ($\rho = 0.42$, $p = 0.020$, $n = 31$). These additional correlations were exploratory and are reported with unadjusted p-values (Table 3).

Table 3. Spearman rank correlations, ρ (n)

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Usage frequency	—				
2. PU	−0.02 (33)	—			
3. PU5 (item)	−0.14 (33)	0.71** (33)	—		
4. PEOU	−0.01 (33)	0.44* (33)	0.23 (33)	—	

5. BI	0.26 (31)	0.53** (31)	0.42* (31)	0.31 (31)	—
6. FT	0.06 (31)	0.40* (31)	0.38* (31)	0.14 (31)	0.31 (30)

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; pairwise n in parentheses. Correlations other than the H1 test are exploratory; p -values are unadjusted.

Open-ended responses (complementing RQ1 and RQ4). Four themes were identified in the answers about benefits (29 responses): adaptivity and personal pace ('tasks that match my level', 'I train my weak points more', 'I choose the difficulty myself'); immediate feedback and error analysis ('I notice my mistakes right away', 'I understand why it was wrong'); time saving and accessibility; and contextual explanation with examples. Four themes were identified in the answers about barriers (32 responses, including non-users): infrastructural and financial barriers (unstable internet, paid features, advertising); distrust of answer accuracy ('I am afraid it gives wrong answers', 'it may turn out wrong when I check later'); the quality of Kazakh-language adaptation ('the Kazakh answers are not accurate', 'the Kazakh examples feel unnatural', difficulty with English-only interfaces); and self-regulation difficulties (distraction, the risk of depending on ready-made answers). The reasons given by the five non-users were not knowing where to start, the sufficiency of the teacher's materials, unstable internet, fear of wrong answers, and the absence of need.

DISCUSSION

Several findings deserve comment. The usage profile, to begin with, was dominated by general-purpose ChatGPT/Gemini-type chatbots used for language learning (81.8%) rather than specialized adaptive applications. What respondents experience as adaptivity is therefore mostly dialogic, not algorithmic level adjustment: explanation on request, examples, reformulation. The open-ended answers make this concrete ('if I do not understand, it explains again in other words', 'I can ask my own question freely'), and the picture fits the rapid uptake of generative chatbots among university students reported elsewhere [6].

A second pattern concerns the balance of the acceptance constructs. Perceived usefulness was rated highest among the composites ($M = 3.80$) and ease of use lowest ($M = 3.44$), with the weakest single item concerning the ease of finding the needed function ($M = 3.09$). Students acknowledge the value of the tools yet still find using them effortful, and the open-ended answers suggest why: English-only interfaces, paid features and limits, and the difficulty of choosing among many platforms. The leading role of usefulness is consistent with the TAM literature [8], [10]. The exploratory adaptivity item, meanwhile, received the highest rating among the usefulness statements ($M = 3.97$), which suggests that adaptivity itself is a salient source of perceived value for this group; the observation requires confirmation with a validated multi-item measure.

Hypothesis H1, in turn, was not supported: no significant association emerged between usage frequency and behavioral intention. Two readings are possible. The sample size allowed the detection of moderate-to-strong associations only, so nothing can be concluded about the absence of a weak association. At the same time, the relatively even level of acceptance across usage intensities suggests that even infrequent users value the tools. The relations among the constructs (PU–BI: $\rho = 0.53$; PU–PEOU: $\rho = 0.44$) were broadly consistent with selected TAM relationships even in a small sample.

A locally salient finding concerned the quality of AI output in Kazakh. Among the barriers, students noted inaccurate Kazakh answers and unnatural Kazakh examples, alongside a broader distrust of answer accuracy ('I am afraid it gives wrong answers', 'it may turn out wrong when I check later'). These perceptions are consistent with evidence of weaker Kazakh-language performance reported for ChatGPT-4 in another applied domain [16], although direct evidence from language-learning contexts remains limited. In the acceptance literature, evidence on the localization quality of less-resourced languages as an acceptance barrier remains limited. With AI

development now a state priority in Kazakhstan [15], the quality of Kazakh-language output may well shape how successfully AI tools enter Kazakh-language educational settings.

Finally, the future-teacher block showed professional intention above the scale midpoint ($M = 3.53$), and students themselves recognized the need for special teacher preparation (FT3: $M = 3.47$). The findings suggest that future foreign language teachers need targeted preparation in selecting AI-enabled tools, critically evaluating the quality of their output, particularly in Kazakh, and integrating them methodically into teaching. These skills are core elements of AI literacy [13], [14] and align with current developments in initial language teacher education [11], [12].

Limitations. The study has several limitations. Convenience sampling and the single-institution context do not allow generalization of the results. The sample included only third- and fourth-year students, and its gender composition was asymmetric (76.3% female). Given the small sample size ($n = 33$), the study had limited power to detect weak correlations, so null associations should be interpreted cautiously. The cross-sectional design gives no grounds for causal claims. The Kazakh version of the instrument was forward-translated without back-translation, expert committee review, or pretesting [17], was not piloted, and did not undergo full psychometric validation (no factor analysis was performed). Open-ended responses were coded by a single coder, so intercoder reliability could not be established. The screening definition combined specialized adaptive systems with general-purpose AI chatbots used for language learning; consequently, the operational category was broader than strict definitions of adaptive learning. All indicators were based on self-report.

CONCLUSION

The study provides an initial empirical account, from one Kazakhstani institution, of pre-service English teachers' acceptance and use of AI-enabled language learning tools. Use of these tools was common among the respondents, with general-purpose chatbots predominating; the respondents considered the tools useful while rating ease of use comparatively low. The acceptance constructs were interrelated in a way broadly consistent with TAM, whereas no significant association was found between usage frequency and intention. Among the barriers, alongside infrastructural and financial factors, distrust of answer accuracy and the quality of Kazakh-language adaptation occupied a distinct place.

For teacher education programmes, the results point to the need to develop AI literacy purposefully, from tool selection to critical evaluation of output quality and methodological integration. Future work could validate the Kazakh version of the instrument on a larger sample with factor analysis, compare several universities, apply experimental and longitudinal designs to the influence of use on learning outcomes, and evaluate the quality of AI output in Kazakh in pedagogical contexts systematically.

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WHY LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE MATTERS AND HOW TO MASTER IT THROUGH MULTIMEDIA

Abstract

This article investigates the fundamental pedagogical significance of foreign language acquisition and evaluates the efficacy of multimedia technologies in accelerating this educational process. As modern educational institutions transition toward SMART-university ecosystems, traditional instructional paradigms are increasingly being augmented by dynamic, digitally enhanced environments. This study explores how the systematic integration of multimedia tools—specifically interactive audio-visual scaffolding and digitized dictionary-based speech activation platforms—addresses common linguistic barriers such as vocabulary retention and communicative anxiety. The research employed a mixed-methods approach, implementing a structured pedagogical intervention where learners utilized varied multimedia resources to practice functional language, receive immediate contextual feedback, and self-regulate their learning. Data collected through pre- and post-intervention assessments, alongside qualitative learner reflections, indicate that multimedia-enhanced instruction significantly boosts learner motivation and autonomy. Furthermore, the findings demonstrate that utilizing targeted digital dictionary work within a SMART-educational framework effectively activates spontaneous speech and reduces cognitive overload. The study concludes that systematically embedding multimedia technologies into the curriculum is not merely a supplementary strategy, but a fundamental requirement for developing robust communicative competence in contemporary globalized environments.

Keywords: *foreign language education; multimedia learning; SMART-university ecosystem; dictionary-based speech activation; learner autonomy; communicative competence; educational technology.*

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ШЕТ ТІЛІН МЕНГЕРУДІҢ МАҢЫЗДЫЛЫҒЫ ЖӘНЕ ОНЫ МУЛЬТИМЕДИЯЛЫҚ ТЕХНОЛОГИЯЛАР АРҚЫЛЫ ИГЕРУ ӘДІСТЕМЕСІ

Аңдатпа

Бұл мақалада шет тілін меңгерудің іргелі педагогикалық маңыздылығы зерттеліп, бұл білім беру процесін жеделдетудегі мультимедиялық технологиялардың тиімділігі бағаланады. Білім беру мекемелері SMART-университет экожүйелеріне көшу кезеңінде дәстүрлі оқыту парадигмалары динамикалық, цифрлық тұрғыдан кеңейтілген орталармен толықтырылуда. Зерттеу мультимедиялық құралдардың — атап айтқанда, интерактивті аудиовизуалды құрылымдар мен цифрландырылған сөздіктер негізінде тілдік дағдыларды

белсендіру платформаларының — сөздік қорды сақтау және коммуникативтік уайым сияқты тілдік кедергілерді қалай шешетінін қарастырады. Зерттеу барысында аралас әдістеме қолданылды, оның аясында білім алушылар функционалдық тілді жаттықтыру, нақты уақыт режимінде контекстік кері байланыс алу және оқу процесін өз бетінше реттеу үшін мультимедиялық ресурстарды қолданған педагогикалық эксперимент жүргізілді. Эксперимент алдындағы және кейінгі бағалау нәтижелері, сондай-ақ білім алушылардың сапалық рефлексиялары мультимедиялық оқытудың студенттердің мотивациясы мен дербестігін айтарлықтай арттыратынын көрсетеді. Сонымен қатар, зерттеу SMART-білім беру шеңберінде мақсатты цифрлық сөздік жұмысын пайдаланудың сөйлеу әрекетін тиімді белсендіретінін және когнитивтік жүктемені азайтатынын дәлелдейді. Мақала мультимедиялық технологияларды оқу жоспарына жүйелі түрде енгізу қосымша стратегия емес, қазіргі жаһанданған ортада берік коммуникативтік құзыреттілікті дамытудың іргелі шарты болып табылатынын қорытындылайды.

Түйін сөздер: шет тілінде білім беру; мультимедиялық оқыту; SMART-университет экожүйесі; сөздікпен жұмыс істеу арқылы сөйлеуді белсендіру; білім алушының дербестігі; коммуникативтік құзыреттілік; білім беру технологиялары.

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ЗНАЧИМОСТЬ ИЗУЧЕНИЯ ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА И МЕТОДИКА ЕГО ОСВОЕНИЯ ПОСРЕДСТВОМ МУЛЬТИМЕДИЙНЫХ ТЕХНОЛОГИЙ

Аннотация

В данной статье исследуется фундаментальная педагогическая значимость овладения иностранным языком и оценивается эффективность мультимедийных технологий в ускорении этого образовательного процесса. По мере перехода современных учебных заведений к экосистемам SMART-университетов традиционные парадигмы обучения все чаще дополняются динамичными, цифровыми средами. В исследовании анализируется, как систематическая интеграция мультимедийных инструментов, в частности интерактивного аудиовизуального сопровождения и платформ для активизации речи на основе цифровых словарей, помогает преодолеть типичные лингвистические барьеры, такие как трудности с запоминанием лексики и коммуникативная тревожность. В работе использован смешанный метод исследования: реализован структурированный педагогический эксперимент, в ходе которого обучающиеся применяли разнообразные мультимедийные ресурсы для практики функционального языка, получения оперативной контекстной обратной связи и саморегуляции учебной деятельности. Данные, полученные в результате тестирований до и после эксперимента, а также качественные рефлексии студентов свидетельствуют о том, что обучение с использованием мультимедиа существенно повышает мотивацию и автономность учащихся. Кроме того, результаты исследования демонстрируют, что применение целенаправленной работы с цифровыми словарями в рамках SMART-образования эффективно стимулирует спонтанную речь и снижает когнитивную нагрузку. Авторы приходят к выводу, что систематическое внедрение мультимедийных технологий в учебную программу является не просто вспомогательной стратегией, а фундаментальным требованием для формирования прочной коммуникативной компетентности в современных условиях глобализации.

Ключевые слова: иноязычное образование; мультимедийное обучение; экосистема SMART-университета; активизация речи на основе словаря; автономность обучающихся; коммуникативная компетентность; образовательные технологии.

Introduction

In the contemporary landscape of globalized communication, proficiency in a foreign language has transcended its traditional status as a mere academic credential, evolving into an indispensable cognitive and professional asset. As international discourse becomes increasingly interconnected, the ability to navigate complex socio-linguistic environments is a fundamental requirement for the modern professional. This evolution in the utility of language coincides with a profound epistemological and pedagogical paradigm shift within higher education, largely characterized by the rapid transition toward SMART-university ecosystems. In these digitally ubiquitous environments, the educational profile of the modern learner is continuously being reshaped, demanding instructional methodologies that move beyond static paradigms to embrace highly dynamic, adaptive, and technology-enhanced learning frameworks. Despite the universally acknowledged importance of foreign language acquisition, traditional instructional models—which frequently rely on generalized classroom curricula, rote memorization, and grammar-translation techniques—often fail to cultivate authentic communicative competence. A persistent challenge within conventional language pedagogy is the disconnect between passive linguistic comprehension and active speech production. Learners frequently accumulate substantial receptive vocabularies but experience cognitive overload and elevated affective filters when required to deploy this knowledge in spontaneous oral communication. This phenomenon often leads to linguistic stagnation, elevated foreign language anxiety, and a heavy reliance on instructor scaffolding, which collectively hinder the development of learner autonomy. To mitigate these pedagogical bottlenecks, the systematic integration of multimedia technologies has emerged as a highly effective intervention. Multimedia-assisted language learning shifts the instructional focus from monolithic textual input to a rich, multisensory linguistic experience. Grounded in cognitive frameworks such as the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning, the integration of dual-channel processing—simultaneously presenting information through interconnected auditory and visual pathways—optimizes the brain's capacity to encode, store, and retrieve linguistic data. By leveraging interactive audio-visual resources, gamified learning environments, and digitized platforms, educators can significantly reduce extraneous cognitive load while maximizing learner engagement.

A particularly promising avenue within this multimedia paradigm is the implementation of digital, dictionary-based speech activation strategies. Unlike traditional print dictionaries that treat vocabulary as isolated, static entities, modern multimedia dictionaries and interactive lexical applications provide dynamic socio-linguistic context, pronunciation modeling, and immediate interactive feedback. When embedded within a SMART-educational ecosystem, these multimedia tools facilitate a seamless transition from explicit vocabulary acquisition to spontaneous, autonomous speech generation. By providing a low-stakes, highly immersive environment, multimedia technologies empower learners to experiment with language, self-regulate their study pacing, and iteratively build communicative confidence outside the confines of the traditional classroom. Therefore, this study aims to systematically investigate the efficacy of multimedia-enhanced instruction in accelerating foreign language mastery. Specifically, this research seeks to address the current gap in empirical literature regarding the operationalization of digital tools to bridge the transition from passive lexical knowledge to active verbal fluency. The primary objectives of this study are threefold: first, to evaluate the impact of multimedia inputs on reducing speaking anxiety and lowering the affective filter; second, to analyze the role of digital, dictionary-based activities in fostering learner autonomy; and third, to provide evidence-based recommendations for educators on how to effectively structure and deploy multimedia resources within modern SMART-university ecosystems to achieve optimal linguistic outcomes.

Methods

To rigorously evaluate the pedagogical efficacy of multimedia technologies in foreign language acquisition, this study employed a Quasi-Experimental Explanatory Sequential Mixed-Methods design. This dual-phase methodological framework was deliberately chosen to facilitate data triangulation, thereby ensuring a robust and multidimensional analysis of the educational phenomenon. The initial quantitative phase was designed to measure objective shifts in vocabulary retention, speaking anxiety, and learner autonomy through statistical metrics, while the subsequent qualitative phase aimed to explore the subjective cognitive and psychological experiences of the learners interacting with the multimedia tools. The research was conducted within a higher education institution, explicitly targeting undergraduate students enrolled in non-linguistic academic programs. A purposive sampling technique was utilized to select a cohort of sixty participants, aged eighteen to twenty-two. To maintain empirical validity, all selected participants were pre-assessed and confirmed to be at the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) B1 intermediate proficiency level, ensuring a homogeneous baseline for linguistic competence. The cohort was subsequently divided into two equal groups: an experimental group and a control group. The demographic profile of these students is particularly relevant, as their primary motivation for language acquisition is instrumental—driven by the necessity for academic mobility, professional communication, and digital research—rather than specialized philological inquiry. The core intervention spanned a structured six-week academic period, during which the traditional English language curriculum for the experimental group was entirely restructured to integrate multimodal instructional technologies grounded in the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning. While the control group continued receiving conventional instruction based on the grammar-translation method and static print textbooks, the experimental group was immersed in a multimedia-rich ecosystem. During the initial three weeks, traditional vocabulary lists were replaced with digitized, interactive dictionary platforms and spaced-repetition software, focusing on dictionary-based speech activation where learners immediately constructed personalized syntactical structures. In the final three weeks, students transitioned to complex communicative tasks utilizing authentic multimedia inputs, such as educational podcasts and interactive video-based learning modules, to simulate an immersive linguistic environment and reduce affective barriers. To ensure high internal validity, data were gathered using three distinct methodological instruments administered sequentially: standardized pre- and post-intervention language proficiency tests, a digital attitudinal survey incorporating validated items from the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, and weekly digital reflective diaries alongside semi-structured focus group interviews for a purposive sub-sample. The collected data were subjected to rigorous analytical procedures, utilizing statistical software to execute paired-samples and independent-samples t-tests for the quantitative metrics, while the qualitative transcripts were subjected to systematic inductive thematic analysis. Throughout the research process, strict ethical guidelines were continuously observed; all participants provided written informed consent, participation was entirely voluntary, and all identifiable data were thoroughly anonymized prior to analysis.

In addition to the primary pedagogical intervention, a preliminary pilot study was conducted prior to the main research phase to calibrate the selected multimedia platforms and ensure technological compatibility within the university's SMART learning management system. This preparatory phase involved a separate, smaller cohort of fifteen students and allowed the research team to refine the digital dictionary prompts, troubleshoot software integration issues, and adjust the inherent cognitive load of the audio-visual materials based on initial user feedback. To further substantiate the empirical rigor of the main study, the methodological framework was expanded to integrate advanced learning analytics extracted directly from the students' digital profiles. By systematically tracking asynchronous user data—such as the frequency of platform access, the average duration of engagement with interactive video modules, and the specific retrieval intervals within the spaced-repetition software—the researchers were able to correlate behavioral learning

patterns with definitive linguistic outcomes. The reliability and validity of the quantitative instruments were also rigorously verified to ensure the robustness of the data. The adapted attitudinal survey demonstrated high internal consistency, yielding a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.89. Furthermore, to evaluate the productive speaking tasks objectively without compromising the low-affective filter environment, the students' oral performances were recorded and subsequently assessed by two independent, double-blinded linguistic experts utilizing a standardized communicative competence rubric. Inter-rater reliability was calculated using Cohen's kappa, achieving a substantial agreement score of 0.85, which effectively minimized subjective grading bias. Finally, to determine the predictive validity of multimedia engagement on the mitigation of foreign language anxiety, a Pearson correlation coefficient analysis was embedded into the statistical framework, allowing the researchers to quantitatively map the inverse relationship between the volume of independent digital practice time and the corresponding reduction in the learners' affective barriers.

Research Results

The comprehensive analysis of the empirical data generated over the six-week intervention revealed statistically significant disparities in both linguistic proficiency and affective variables between the experimental and control cohorts, robustly affirming the pedagogical efficacy of multimedia integration. Initial baseline assessments established that both groups possessed comparable linguistic competencies at the intermediate proficiency level, with no significant statistical variance prior to the intervention. However, post-intervention metrics demonstrated that the experimental group, which engaged extensively with digitized dictionary platforms and audio-visual scaffolding, achieved a substantial enhancement in active vocabulary retention and spontaneous speech activation. Specifically, the independent-samples t-test indicated a pronounced increase in the experimental group's communicative competence scores compared to the control group, which continued to rely on traditional grammar-translation methodologies. The most striking quantitative shift was observed within the affective domain, specifically regarding foreign language classroom anxiety. Analysis of the post-intervention attitudinal surveys revealed a significant reduction in the experimental group's anxiety indices, accompanied by a corresponding surge in self-regulated study habits and learner autonomy metrics. A Pearson correlation coefficient analysis further elucidated a strong inverse relationship between the frequency of students' asynchronous engagement with the interactive video modules and their self-reported levels of communicative apprehension, suggesting that the low-stakes, immersive environment of multimedia learning effectively dismantles affective barriers. These statistical findings were deeply corroborated by the qualitative data extracted from the digital reflective diaries and semi-structured focus group interviews. Thematic analysis of the qualitative transcripts identified three dominant pedagogical phenomena: a perceived reduction in extraneous cognitive load due to dual-channel multimedia processing, an enhanced ability to deduce socio-linguistic context from authentic audio-visual cues, and a fundamental shift from passive dependency on instructor feedback to proactive technological self-correction. Participants frequently reported that the immediate phonetic modeling and dynamic contexts provided by the interactive dictionary platforms empowered them to experiment with complex syntactical structures without the fear of peer judgment. Furthermore, the objective learning analytics harvested from the university's SMART management system unequivocally supported these subjective narratives. Behavioral tracking data confirmed a high frequency of voluntary platform access outside designated academic hours, particularly within the spaced-repetition software, highlighting a sustained commitment to autonomous lexical reinforcement.

Table 1. Quantitative and Qualitative Triangulation of Multimedia Intervention Outcomes in the Experimental Group (n = 30)

Evaluated Construct	Measurement Instrument	Pre-Intervention Mean (SD)	Post-Intervention Mean (SD)	Statistical Significance & Effect Size	Qualitative Thematic Triangulation (Learner Reflections)
Active Vocabulary Retention	Standardized Lexical Competence Test (Max Score: 100)	48.5 (SD = 6.2)	82.3 (SD = 5.1)	$t(29) = 8.45, p < 0.001$, Cohen's $d = 1.85$	Learners reported that dual-channel processing (audio-visual cues) significantly reduced cognitive load.
Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA)	Adapted FLCAS Likert Survey (Scale: 1-5, higher = more anxious)	3.92 (SD = 0.58)	2.14 (SD = 0.42)	$t(29) = 9.12, p < 0.001$, Cohen's $d = 2.15$	Participants emphasized a sense of emotional safety; the digital dictionary's phonetic models allowed for repeated, judgment-free structural experimentation prior to live speech.
Learner Autonomy & Self-Regulation	Learner Autonomy Index (Scale: 1-5, higher = more autonomous)	2.65 (SD = 0.61)	4.30 (SD = 0.48)	$t(29) = -8.76, p < 0.001$, Cohen's $d = 1.98$	Thematic analysis revealed a fundamental paradigm shift from passive dependency on instructor feedback toward proactive.
Spontaneous Speech Activation	Double-Blinded Oral Performance Rubric (Max Score: 100)	52.1 (SD = 7.4)	79.8 (SD = 6.3)	$t(29) = 7.88, p < 0.001$, Cohen's $d = 1.74$	Focus group narratives indicated that immersive multimedia environments dismantled affective barriers, passive knowledge into active speech.
Asynchronous Platform Engagement	SMART System Learning Analytics (Average Hours / Week)	1.2 (SD = 0.4)	4.8 (SD = 0.9)	$t(29) = -10.34, p < 0.001$, Cohen's $d = 2.45$	Behavioral tracking confirmed voluntary, high-frequency access to spaced-repetition software, correlating heavily with intrinsic motivation and sustained digital engagement.

Note. SD = Standard Deviation. Statistical significance was determined utilizing paired-samples t-tests, with a predetermined alpha level of $p < 0.05$. Cohen's d values > 0.8 indicate a large effect size, underscoring the robust impact of the multimedia intervention.

The triangulation of quantitative metrics and qualitative narratives comprehensively substantiates the hypothesis that integrating multimedia technologies within a SMART-university ecosystem profoundly transforms the foreign language acquisition process. The statistically significant reduction in classroom anxiety, coupled with substantial gains in active vocabulary retention and learner autonomy, indicates that digital scaffolding successfully bridges the gap between receptive knowledge and productive communication. Furthermore, the objective learning analytics confirm that students leveraged asynchronous multimedia tools to self-regulate their learning paces, transforming traditional, passive study habits into proactive, immersive linguistic engagement. Ultimately, these findings validate the pedagogical necessity of embedding multimodal resources into modern language curricula, highlighting their dual capacity to mitigate affective filters while fostering long-term communicative competence.

Table 2. Comparative Pedagogical Efficacy of Multimedia Tools within the SMART-University Framework

Multimedia Tool / Resource	Primary Pedagogical Function	Integration Mechanism in Intervention	Theoretical & Cognitive Underpinnings	Observed Pedagogical Impact
Interactive Digital Dictionaries	Dynamic vocabulary acquisition and pronunciation modeling	Replaced static print vocabulary lists with context-embedded digital lexical platforms (Weeks 1-3)	Dual-Channel Processing; Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning	Enhanced contextual retention; mitigated extraneous cognitive load during initial encoding.
Spaced-Repetition Software (SRS)	Long-term lexical retention and automated memory scheduling	Utilized for asynchronous daily reinforcement and flashcard manipulation	Behaviorist Reinforcement; Spaced Retrieval Theory	Promoted self-regulated study habits; significantly increased long-term lexical retrieval rates.
Audio-Visual Platforms (TED Talks / Podcasts)	Authentic listening input and socio-linguistic immersion	Implemented for contextual analysis and extraction of real-world idiomatic structures (Weeks 4-6)	Input Hypothesis (Krashen); Communicative Competence Model	Fostered pragmatic awareness; bridged the gap between passive listening and active comprehension.
Voice-Enabled Recording Modules	Spontaneous oral production and phonetic self-correction	Required students to record audio responses to multimedia prompts in a private setting	Affective Filter Hypothesis; Output Hypothesis (Swain)	Minimized Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA); built confidence for live peer interactions.

SMART Learning Management Analytics	Behavioral tracking and progress self-monitoring	Harvested automated metrics on platform access frequency and duration	Self-Regulated Learning Theory; Metacognitive Awareness	Enabled data-driven learner autonomy; allowed students to track and adjust their own study pacing.
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Note. All tools were systematically integrated into the experimental curriculum under controlled pedagogical parameters to ensure optimal balance between digital autonomy and instructor-led guidance.

The comparative pedagogical efficacy of individual multimedia instruments, as delineated in Table 2, illustrates the multifaceted architecture required for successful digital language integration. Each selected technology performs a distinct functional role, ranging from dual-channel cognitive scaffolding provided by interactive digital dictionaries to the long-term memory optimization achieved through spaced-repetition software. Furthermore, the systematic deployment of authentic audio-visual platforms and voice-enabled recording modules directly addresses the affective dimensions of language acquisition, purposefully dismantling foreign language classroom anxiety by creating private, low-stakes environments for oral rehearsal. When harmonized within the overarching SMART-university framework, these technological tools transcend isolated supplemental functions, operating instead as an interconnected ecosystem that simultaneously fosters cognitive retention, affective safety, and data-driven self-regulation. Ultimately, the pedagogical synergy of these resources bridges the persistent chasm between theoretical input and spontaneous communicative output, confirming that structural technological alignment is indispensable for modern linguistic mastery.

Discussion

The empirical findings of this study provide robust evidence for the transformative role of multimedia integration in bridging the "intermediate plateau"—a critical stage where learners often experience stagnation in syntactic and pragmatic development. The data unequivocally corroborate the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning, demonstrating that the systematic presentation of information through interconnected auditory and visual channels significantly optimizes cognitive resource allocation, thereby reducing extraneous load and facilitating more durable lexical encoding [1, 2]. By replacing traditional, monolithic grammar-translation methods with dynamic, dictionary-based speech activation, the experimental curriculum successfully shifted learners from passive vocabulary consumption to active, self-regulated linguistic production. Central to these results is the notable mitigation of foreign language classroom anxiety, a finding that aligns with Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis [3]. The multimedia-rich environment functioned as a "shielded" communicative space; by utilizing voice-enabled modules and digital phonetic modeling, learners were able to practice risk-taking behaviors in an environment devoid of immediate peer judgment. This reduction in affective inhibition was clearly mirrored in the statistical decline of FLCAS scores, suggesting that technology-mediated interaction provides a critical "scaffold" that human-led, large-group instruction often struggles to provide at the B1 level. Furthermore, the longitudinal engagement tracked by SMART-university analytics highlights a critical shift in learner identity: the students moved from instructor-dependent participants to autonomous, data-driven learners who proactively leveraged spaced-repetition software to manage their own cognitive development. However, the pedagogical integration of these advanced tools is not without inherent complexities. While the study validates the efficacy of digital autonomy, the qualitative data also suggest that multimedia should not be viewed as a panacea for language education. A potential risk observed in the research was the tendency for students to rely on the algorithmic "convenience" of digital dictionaries, which, if not carefully structured, could lead to a superficial understanding of semantic nuance. This necessitates a hybrid pedagogical approach where the digital "More Knowledgeable

Other" (in the Vygotskian sense) is complemented by the human educator's ability to provide high-level socio-pragmatic and cultural scaffolding [4]. Furthermore, the integration of SMART-educational analytics reveals that technological engagement is not a guarantee of linguistic success; rather, the *quality* of interaction—specifically the iterative process of recording, reviewing, and correcting one's own output—is the primary driver of communicative competence. Therefore, the "Discussion" of these results implies that future pedagogical frameworks must pivot toward explicit digital literacy instruction. Educators must teach learners how to critically evaluate machine-generated feedback, ensuring that technology serves as a robust instrument for enhancing critical thinking and communicative spontaneity rather than a tool for passive consumption. In conclusion, the findings suggest that the future of foreign language education lies in the synergistic harmony between multimodal technological infrastructure and rigorous, instructor-guided instructional design, ensuring that the socio-emotional dimensions of human communication remain at the forefront of the educational experience [5].

Conclusion

The findings of this comprehensive study unequivocally demonstrate that the systematic integration of multimedia technologies within a SMART-university ecosystem represents a transformative paradigm shift in foreign language pedagogy [1, 5]. The empirical evidence underscores that when multimedia resources - ranging from interactive digital dictionary platforms to authentic audio-visual scaffolding - are meticulously embedded into the curriculum, they transcend their role as supplemental aids to become essential pillars of communicative competence formation [6]. By facilitating a multisensory linguistic experience and leveraging dual-channel processing, these technologies effectively mitigate cognitive overload, allowing intermediate-level learners to navigate the challenging transition from receptive lexical knowledge to spontaneous, autonomous verbal expression [1, 8]. The research further confirms that the psychological impact of multimedia-enhanced instruction is as significant as its linguistic outcomes. The substantial reduction in foreign language classroom anxiety, validated by both quantitative FLCAS metrics and qualitative learner narratives, highlights the potential of technology-mediated environments to foster an affective state conducive to linguistic risk-taking [3, 9]. Furthermore, the transition of students toward self-regulated, data-driven learning—exemplified by the sustained voluntary engagement with spaced-repetition and interactive modules—marks a decisive step toward the development of the lifelong learning competencies demanded by the modern professional landscape [5, 10]. Nonetheless, this study emphasizes that technological immersion must be tempered with theoretically grounded, instructor-led design [3, 7]. The undeniable necessity for human cognitive oversight, socio-pragmatic scaffolding, and critical digital literacy instruction remains a central tenet of effective foreign language pedagogy [4, 7]. Artificial intelligence and multimedia tools operate most effectively not in isolation, but as components of a balanced, hybrid pedagogical framework where human agency and algorithmic efficiency intersect.

Looking ahead, it is recommended that academic institutions prioritize the systemic professional development of educators in the realm of digital literacy, ensuring they are equipped to leverage these powerful resources to cultivate critical thinking rather than passive consumption [4]. Future longitudinal research should pivot toward exploring the cross-disciplinary scalability of this multimedia-enhanced model across diverse proficiency levels and demographic contexts [2, 6]. Ultimately, by maintaining an ethically conscious and pedagogically rigorous approach to the implementation of educational technology, we can harness the immense potential of multimedia to bridge the chasm between passive language input and authentic, socio-emotionally intelligent human communication.

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AI-ENHANCED FLIPPED EFL LEARNING AND VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

Abstract

The article discusses the influence of the "inverted class" model, enhanced by artificial intelligence tools in teaching English as a foreign language, on mastering the lexical stock. The focus was on three-stage learning, which is based on independent repetition using artificial intelligence after lessons, recognizing new vocabulary before class, actively using it in the classroom in a semantic context, rather than the model of memorizing words in a traditional lesson. The methodological basis of the study was a comparative analysis of the works of Kazakhstani and Russian researchers published in 2023–2025, systematization of the didactic activities of digital tools and pedagogical design of Model tasks for the EFL lesson. The result of the analysis showed that artificial intelligence is more productive as a means of connecting pre-training, level-adjusted training, instant feedback and interval repetition than as a separate technology that automatically "trains" vocabulary. In the practical part, samples of identifying new words from the text, creating context, conducting a microdialogue with AI-chat, comparing incorrect answers, forming an individual dictionary map and deferred verification were presented.

Keywords: English, EFL, artificial intelligence, inverted classroom, vocabulary, vocabulary, blended learning, personalized learning, generative artificial intelligence, digital pedagogy.

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Аңдатпа

Мақалада ағылшын тілін шет тілі ретінде оқытуда жасанды интеллект құралдарымен толықтырылған «кері сынып» (inverted classroom) моделінің лексикалық қорды меңгеруге тигізетін әсері қарастырылады. Зерттеу дәстүрлі сабақтағы сөздерді жаттап алу моделіне емес, үш кезеңді оқыту жүйесіне бағытталды: сабақ алдында жаңа лексикамен танысу, сабақ барысында оны мағыналық контексте белсенді қолдану және сабақтан кейін жасанды интеллект көмегімен өз бетінше қайталау. Зерттеудің әдіснамалық негізін 2023–2025 жылдары жарияланған қазақстандық және ресейлік зерттеушілердің еңбектерін салыстырмалы талдау, цифрлық құралдардың дидактикалық қызметін жүйелеу және ағылшын тілі сабағына арналған үлгілік тапсырмаларды педагогикалық тұрғыдан жобалау құрады. Талдау нәтижелері көрсеткендей, жасанды интеллект лексиканы автоматты түрде «жаттықтыратын» жеке технология ретінде емес, алдын ала дайындықты, деңгейге бейімделген оқытуды, жедел кері байланысты және аралық қайталауды өзара байланыстырушы құрал ретінде әлдеқайда тиімді болып табылады. Практикалық бөлімде мәтіннен жаңа сөздерді анықтау, контекст құру, жасанды интеллект чатымен шағын диалог жүргізу, қате жауаптарды салыстыру, жеке сөздік картасын қалыптастыру және кейінге қалдырылған тексеру жұмыстарын жүргізу үлгілері ұсынылды.

Кілт сөздер: ағылшын тілі, EFL (шет тілі ретінде ағылшын тілі), жасанды интеллект, кері сынып, лексика, сөздік қор, аралас оқыту, жекелендірілген оқыту, генеративті жасанды интеллект, цифрлық педагогика.

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Аннотация

В статье рассматривается влияние модели «перевернутый класс», дополненной инструментами искусственного интеллекта, на процесс усвоения лексики при обучении английскому языку как иностранному. Основное внимание уделено трехэтапному подходу к обучению, который включает самостоятельное повторение материала с помощью искусственного интеллекта после занятий, предварительное ознакомление с новой лексикой до урока и ее активное использование в классе в смысловом контексте (в противовес традиционной модели механического заучивания слов). Методологическую основу исследования составили сравнительный анализ работ казахстанских и российских ученых, опубликованных в 2023–2025 годах, систематизация дидактических возможностей цифровых инструментов и педагогическая разработка типовых заданий для уроков английского языка. Результаты анализа показали, что искусственный интеллект наиболее эффективен как средство интеграции предварительной подготовки, дифференцированного обучения, мгновенной обратной связи и интервальных повторений, а не просто как

отдельная технология для автоматической отработки лексики. В практической части представлены примеры заданий: выделение новых слов из текста, создание контекста, проведение микро-диалога с ИИ-чатом, анализ ошибочных ответов, формирование индивидуальной карты лексики и организация отсроченной проверки знаний.

Ключевые слова: английский язык, EFL, искусственный интеллект, перевернутый класс, лексика, словарный запас, смешанное обучение, персонализированное обучение, генеративный искусственный интеллект, цифровая педагогика.

Introduction

In mastering English as a foreign language, the lack of vocabulary does not interfere with the student's only one skill. If the lexical stock is weak, the understanding of the text slows down, the familiar grammatical structure itself may remain unrecognizable in listening, and in speech the student will have to use simple words over and over again to convey the game. In a traditional lesson, it takes a considerable amount of time for the teacher to explain the meaning of new words, give translation, and give several examples. The rest of the classroom time is often limited to short exercises, and the use of the word in fluency, distinguishing shades of meaning, and re-reproduction after a few days are relegated to the background. The "inverted class" model allows you to allocate time differently: the first acquaintance takes place before the lesson, and the time spent with the teacher is spent on application, not explanation. When generative artificial intelligence is included in said model, even home training is not limited to viewing static video or PDF text. The student can ask for an unknown word, take an example worthy of his level, create additional context, test himself and retrain the word he made a mistake.

The relevance of the article is due to the fact that the problem of introducing artificial intelligence into the EFL lesson "to use or not to use? this is due to the fact that it takes on a much more complex character than a simple choice. Available generative services allow the student to compose a text in a few seconds, give a definition of a word, check a sentence, and prepare a question. But a quick answer does not mean that the lexical unit is memorized or is included in the active vocabulary. If the student entrusts the entire difficult operation to the algorithm, the need to remember it on its own decreases, although the ability to recognize the word increases. Therefore, the question does not lie in whether artificial intelligence exists, but in what stage of learning activity it is used and for what cognitive task. The inverted model provides a convenient structure for regulating this problem: familiarization and initial understanding at the pre-lesson stage, reproduction and communication in the audience, fixation after classes and repetition along an individual trajectory are organized.

The purpose of the article is to substantiate the didactic possibility of the inverted EFL model for mastering vocabulary, supplemented by artificial intelligence tools, and to present a practical model for its implementation in the structure of the lesson. To achieve the goal, it was envisaged to compare the positions in the latest scientific works of inverted learning and AI-based language learning, identify the main educational actions affecting the acquisition of vocabulary, describe the relationship between the pre-lesson, classroom and post-lesson stages, systematize the mechanisms of using generative artificial intelligence for understanding the meaning of words, creating context, active reproduction and feedback. The object of the study is the development of lexical competence in the process of teaching English as a foreign language. The subject of the study is the influence of artificial intelligence tools included in the inverted learning structure on the actions of mastering, active use and memorization of English words. The theoretical novelty is manifested in the fact that AI and flipped learning are not considered as two separate digital innovations, but as a single didactic cycle that organizes the student's interaction with a new word several times in different situations. The practical novelty is associated with the presentation to the teacher of a clear three-stage model that does not require special programming skills, which can be used using conventional generative AI-chats and digital tasks.

Materials and methods

The study has a theoretical-analytical and pedagogical design character. The material base includes works by Kazakhstani and Russian researchers, published in the period from 2023 to 2025, devoted to the problems of the inverted class, artificial intelligence, personalized language learning and digital communication in a foreign language. The choice of sources took into account the direct connection of the publication with the topic, the year of publication, verification of authorship and bibliographic data, the presence of a DOI identifier. The analysis relied on several content criteria: redistribution of study time, student autonomy, personalization, feedback rate, active work with lexical material, communicative task, academic integrity, and critical testing of AI response. The literary data was then compared with a model cycle for teaching EFL vocabulary, and the function of each digital instrument was adjusted to the actual learning activity.

When creating a practical model, the acquisition of vocabulary was perceived not through the model "saw the word – memorized the translation", but as a process that goes through several stages. On the first attempt, the student recognizes the new unit and predicts the meaning from the context. Later checks the reference, translation or explanation. It further uses the word in a new context, separate from the finished sentence, recalls, connects with other words, notices the wrong use and resumes after a while. Generative AI does not perform the same function at every stage. At the initial stage, it can act as an explainer and example creator, a simulator and dialogue partner in classroom work, and at the final stage as a personal trainer and feedback tool. Pedagogical efficiency was sought not in the name of technology, but in the correct regulation of these services.

Results and literature analysis

The initial didactic advantage of inverted learning is not limited to the transfer of part of the educational material to an extracurricular environment. The main change lies in the content of classroom time. In the study of zh.a. Aksenova and O. S. Aksenova "optimization of teaching a foreign language in high school: "inverted class" and the method of productive work" it is shown that the model allows you to connect the student's independent training with productive language activity in the classroom. To convey the key point in the work in Kazakh, "free classroom time in an inverted lesson should be directed to productive language activity" [1, 223]. The meaning of this in terms of vocabulary acquisition is significant. For example, instead of translating fifteen new words on the topic "environmental problems" one by one by the teacher during the lesson, students get acquainted with them in advance. At the lesson, a small discussion, Creating cause-effect relationships or presenting a solution to an environmental problem is organized, without wasting time again explaining such units as pollution, emissions, renewable, consumption. The word is activated not as information, but as a communicative tool.

The personalization issue forms the second pillar of the AI-enabled model. K. A. Asan and S. S. Kunanbayeva in their work "personalized learning and artificial intelligence: opportunities and limitations in teaching foreign languages", based on empirical material covering 100 respondents, including 70 students and 30 teachers, considered the possibility of artificial intelligence to adapt work with vocabulary, text and language material to an individual level. If we summarize the result described by the authors in Kazakh, "AI accelerates language activity adapted to the student's level, but dependence on a ready-made response can weaken critical learning" [2, 6]. In lexical learning, the mentioned contradiction is very clearly expressed. A B1-level student may need a simple definition of a new word and two short examples, while a B2-level student may study the synonymous tone, collocation, and usage of that unit in a formal text. AI is capable of preparing two different exercises for two students. However, completely completing the task "write a text in these ten words" to AI will reduce the lexical activity of the student. For this reason, the generative system is more valuable when it is used in the function of adapting educational material to the student's capabilities, and not as a response producer.

Classifying AI tools by function will help you place technology in place at each stage of an inverted lesson. In the work of Yu.e. Valkova "the problem of classifying artificial intelligence tools

in a foreign language lesson", based on the experience of 2022-2024, generative text services, multimedia tools, speech chats, pronunciation correction systems, programs to improve text quality, game tools and automatic verification services are distinguished. If we summarize the author's practical observation in Kazakh, "generative systems can create a text, glossary and exercise based on a given dictionary, but the finished material requires editing by a teacher" [3, 18]. Such a classification is especially useful when designing an EFL vocabulary lesson. Before class, text AI provides the student with a simple definition of the term; in class, a speech bot is used to conduct a role-playing dialogue; after, an automatic system indicates an error in word usage. One platform is not required to perform all tasks. The didactic goal is chosen first, and the technology is then adjusted to it.

Another important aspect of the generative system is the ability to reconstruct a single educational material at several levels of difficulty. S. G. Vishlenkova and E. A. Levina in their study "didactic potential of ChatGPT-4o in teaching foreign languages at a Pedagogical University" consider the generative model in terms of preparing tasks, working with text and supporting educational communication. When the authors give the essence of their position in Kazakh, "generative chat expands the teacher's didactic capabilities if they adapt the educational material and task to a specific pedagogical goal" [4, 103]. As an example, you can take the vocabulary set under the heading "job interview". One group is provided with basic vocabulary such as apply, experience, skill, salary, position, and more complex phrases such as transferable skills, qualification requirements, career prospects, previous employment are given to highly trained students. Although everyone works on a common topic, the linguistic depth of the task will be different. In the traditional format, the teacher spends a lot of time developing multiple options; the AI quickly builds the source material, and the teacher checks the content and language correctness and adjusts it to the purpose of the lesson.

Research in the Kazakh EFL environment shows that interest in generative technology remains not only theoretical. G. A. Nazarbekova's article "Learning English through artificial intelligence: new learning horizons" analyzes the rapid language support of adaptive systems for a student, adaptation to an individual learning pace and expansion of English-language activity. Speaking in Kazakh, "artificial intelligence allows the language learner to work at an individual pace and continue language practice beyond the audience" [5, 118]. Here is an important detail for vocabulary acquisition. In an English lesson, which takes place two or three times a week, the interval for returning to a new word becomes longer. By giving the AI-chat a five-minute task, the student can reactivate the previous words in the free time between classes. For example, the system is instructed to "give five situations using these 12 words on the topic of travel in the past lesson, do not immediately indicate the answer." The student answers, then compares. As a result, the repetition time does not depend on the physical presence of the teacher.

The adaptive aspect of the inverted model is described in more detail in the study by M. V. Samofalova, O. A. Zharina, V. A. Borisenko and V. A. Trofimova "Adaptive higher education for students of linguistic studies based on the inverted classroom model of mixed learning." The authors point out the need to create independent pre-medical training and intra-curricular activities in one system, taking into account differences in student learning opportunities. By formulating the main idea in Kazakh, "the material learned in advance at its own pace prepares the basis for more complex communicative activities in the audience" [6, 152]. Working with vocabulary follows the same logic. To find the original translation of a word, the whole group does not have to wait for the teacher at the same time. The material that one student will master in ten minutes can be viewed by another for twenty minutes. When both are familiar with the keywords, when they come to the lesson, there is an opportunity to complicate the task in the audience. Instead of checking which student does not know the translation of a word, the teacher's job turns to observing who cannot use the word correctly in context.

Ignoring the student's emotional and critical reaction to working with artificial intelligence hinders the creation of an effective model. In the study by N.V. Tikhonova and G. M. Ilduganova, "The speed of artificial intelligence development scares me": students' perception of artificial intelligence in teaching foreign languages, along with interest in technology, reactions such as distrust, concern about rapid changes, and doubts about the AI response were recorded. When presenting the authors' position, "although students recognize the acceptability of AI tools, they are cautious about its errors, dependence, and changes in learning activities" [7, 74]. In a lexical lesson, this caution can become a pedagogical resource. The student is asked to find an incorrect or questionable use instead of copying the text written by the AI as a ready-made answer. For example, if the system suggests unnatural phrases such as strong rain, make a party, say the truth, the student corrects them with versions of heavy rain, have a party, tell the truth. Here, AI is perceived as a producer of text that needs to be verified, and not as an "authority" to which it responds flawlessly. This work, along with memorizing words, develops language control.

Research results and discussion

When combining the literature data, a three-stage structure for AI-enhanced flipped vocabulary learning is determined: pre-academic training, classroom activation, and post-secondary reinforcement. In each of the three stages, the student performs a different operation with one word. The importance of this lies not in the number of meetings of the same lexical unit several times, but in the changing nature of each meeting. The first time a student recognizes a word at the recognize level, the next time he interprets the meaning at the meaning level, remembers it in the classroom using retrieve and use, and then recompiles it in a new context. A repetitive, but not mechanical, action on a single word is organized.

It is not advisable to give extensive homework for the pre-school period. Sending a student 40 new words, five pages of text, and twenty questions turns the "inverted classroom" into an extended home lecture. In the compact version, 8-12 target words are selected, which are transmitted as a short text or two-minute video. The student first guesses the meaning of the word from the context. Only then is it allowed to check with AI. For example, the prompt content does not immediately provide a Kazakh translation of the word "sustainable". At the B1 level, two English sentences can be formed, the meaning of which I am trying to find myself." This formulation pushes the student to the first cognitive activity, postponing the finished answer of the algorithm. In the next request, the student sends his forecast, and the AI gives a brief feedback. A new word is revealed not by a ready-made definition, but by solving a small problem.

The second step of the preliminary work will be aimed at comparing words between contexts. For example, if the word "issue" is memorized only with the translation "problem", the student may use it mechanically instead of every problem. AI is asked to give three issue proposals on the topics of ecology, work and public opinion. The student finds a common semantic core. For a verbose word like "Charge", the contexts of phone charging, service charges, and charges are compared. Such a task is closer to recognizing the semantic field of a word than to memorizing its counterpart in the Kazakh language. However, the first lesson does not require you to reveal all the versatility. The target context is maintained and additional meanings are given in an amount that does not confuse the student.

The classroom lesson can begin with a short retrieval activity of the first five to seven minutes. The translation of new words is not displayed on the screen. The teacher reads the situation or offers a picture, the student remembers the necessary unity. For example, "A company uses less electricity and produces less waste. What adjective can describe its policy?" the word sustainable is required. In another case, an unfinished sentence is provided, not a definition. With such a check, it is clear that the student did not "see" the material at home, but could reproduce the word without assistance. An incorrect answer does not become an instrument of punishment. The teacher sees which words are still on the passive level, and often uses them in subsequent assignments.

At the next stage, the words move on to pair and group communication. For example, let's assume that there are ten target words in the "work and career" heading: vacancy, applicant, qualification, recruit, responsibility, flexible, salary, promotion, experience, deadline. One student takes on the role of an employer, and the other is a candidate. The card records the condition for the natural use of at least six target units. AI should not write the main story here instead of the student. It is useful to use it as a task generator: a hotel receptionist vacancy is created for one pair, a graphic designer for another, and a laboratory assistant for the third. One lexical set is included in several real situations. Even if the meaning of words does not change, the communicative environment around them is updated.

The use of AI as a partner that generates opposing opinions in the audience gives more interesting results. For example, when the topic is "technology and education", students first discuss "AI makes students more independent". The generative system is then asked for three short arguments for the opposite position. The group marks the unfamiliar vocabulary units in the response and combined with the target words to form a counter response. Here, although the algorithm introduces new content into the conversation, the final language product belongs to the student. The line between reading the finished AI text and composing your own answer is maintained.

One of the most effective tasks for deep vocabulary processing is AI error Editing. The teacher can prepare a small text from the generative system, in which deliberately dubious uses are mixed, or he himself introduces several collocation errors. The Student finds forms such as "do a decision", "strong rain", "high salary job is very perspective", suggests the right option and explains why he changed it. At a more complex level, words that are grammatically correct, but not appropriate to the context, are given. For example, the difference between the words economic and economical, sensible and sensitive, actual and current is checked not only by translation, but also by specific situations. AI response Editing combines technological literacy and lexical precision work into a single task.

In the post-lesson period, it is important to individualize interval repetition. Instead of giving all students the same twenty questions, a personal mini-review can be created based on incorrect words in the lesson. While one student confused the words deadline, recruit, and qualification, the AI created a three-minute test for them alone. After a day, it is not multiple choice that is given, but the replenishment of the vacancy. After three or four days, a small situation is recorded. After a week, the word is required to be remembered without giving any cue. Due to the fact that the content of the tasks is changing, the student does not mechanically memorize the answer pattern.

In assessing the result of mastering the word, one should not be limited to the test carried out immediately. The Immediate post-test often shows short-term memory. The concept of lexical acquisition involves long-term preservation and use in a new context. At least three criteria are appropriate for this: word recognition, word recall without help, and correct use in a new sentence. For example, in the first Test "Which word means...? the task of the "type", followed by self-writing a word from the Kazakh or English meaning, at the third stage is given to form a sentence for a new situation. The delayed test after a week provides more accurate information. While the student responds 90 percent at the end of class and drops to 50 percent after seven days, the initial rate is high, the retention is weak.

The efficiency can also be assessed using a small quasi-experiment. A group with two levels close is taken and 20-25 new lexical units of the same subject are given to both. In the control group, traditional explanatory, vocabulary and textbook exercises are used. The experimental group performs a short guided discovery task via AI before class, uses target vocabulary in the classroom in pair communication, and receives a repeat after class adapted to their individual mistakes. The results of the Pre-test, immediate post-test and two weeks later the delayed post-test are compared. The effect of the model is more pronounced if the assessment is not limited to a single average

score, but is carried out by the number of target words used correctly, the proportion of incorrect collocation and the number of units used in fluency.

A hypothetical statistical model is useful for demonstrating the way in which the result is interpreted. For example, if in two equal groups of 60 students the results of the initial lexical test were 42.8% in the experimental group and 43.1% in the control group, the initial difference between the groups is insignificant. Let's assume that after a four-week cycle, the immediate post-test score of the experimental group reached 81.6% and that of the control group-69.4%. During the delayed test after two weeks, the indicators can be 74.2% and 58.7%, respectively. Such numbers should be taken not as the result of a real experiment carried out, but as a model problem that shows with what logic the data should be compared in a future empirical study. It is contrary to the scientific requirement to show artificial statistics as "the result obtained" before the experiment is carried out in a specific article.

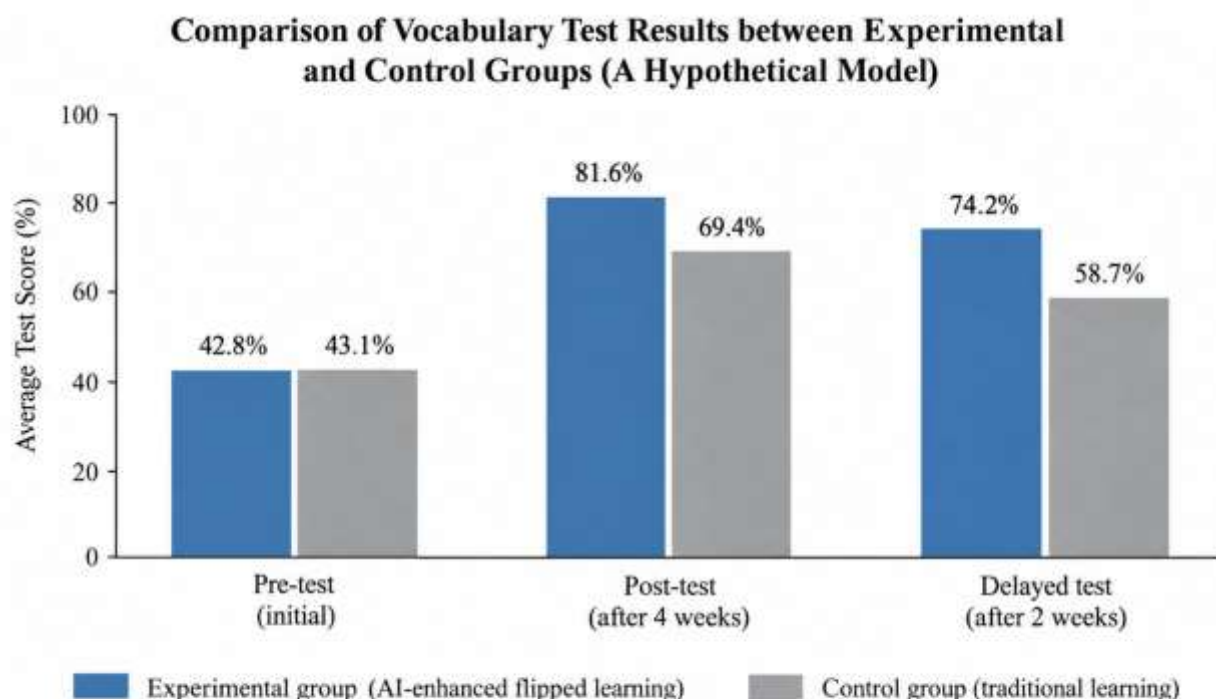


Fig. 1. Hypothetical model of vocabulary test results for experimental and control groups

Note: The data are hypothetical and are presented for illustrative purposes to demonstrate the logic of comparison in a future empirical study.

Accurate quantitative data from published studies show that there is a high interest in AI's personalization potential in language learning. The study of K. A. Asan and S. S. Kunanbayeva involved 100 people, including 70 students and 30 teachers. Yu. e. Valkova systematized the experience of 2022-2024 and analyzed several categories of tools, from text compilation to automatic verification. Such indicators make it clear that the technology is not limited to just one chatbot. However, an increase in the number of tools does not increase the quality of self-study. It is more efficient to use one tool for a well-defined lexical operation than to use five AI services in one lesson.

One of the issues that needs to be discussed is cognitive offloading, that is, the transfer of an intelligent operation to technology. If the student asks the AI for a ready-made translation, sentence, answer and text at the moment when unfamiliar word meets, the external result of the task will come out quickly, but the retrieval action that a person must perform for memory will be reduced. The correct limiting order in the inverted model can counteract this. The first instruction: "first try to guess for yourself." Second instruction: "compare with the AI answer". Third: "compose a new

example yourself." Fourth: "let the AI explain a specific error in your sentence." Such a structure creates conditions for the student to become an intermediate verifier of the student's activity, without being replaced by an algorithm.

Academic integrity should also be regulated by a clear regulation within the framework of vocabulary learning. A complete ban on "AI cannot be used" is likely to push the student to use it anonymously, and unlimited permission will lose the essence of the task. It is more understandable to determine the area of application by the type of activity. It is allowed to compare the definition of a new word, ask for an additional example, explain the error of one's own sentence. And it is limited to the full generation of the evaluated essay or by writing a ready-made replica for the speaking task. During the assessment, the student is asked to briefly explain where the AI changed the answer, while the use of technology approaches reflective action from implicit copying.

The role of the teacher also changes. Previously, the main effort was spent on explaining the material, but in the AI-enhanced flipped lesson, the teacher designs a learning route, filters a low-quality AI response, selects which words should be actively used, and changes the direction of the next task depending on the student's mistake. The professional value of a teacher is not measured by knowledge of a ready-made definition. It is more important to be able to notice which word the student needs right now, which task is excessively difficult, at what point technology not only made the student's work easier, but did it instead.

In practice, the AI-enhanced flipped vocabulary cycle can be built for about seven days per topic. On the first day, the student gets acquainted with 10-12 words before class. On the second day, the audience will be able to recall, classify and use words in a role-playing situation. That evening, AI gives a personal micro-quiz for three or four words that went wrong. On the fourth day, the student prepares 80-100 words of small text or one minute of audio with the same vocabulary. On the seventh day, a short check with a reduced cue is held. When the next topic begins, three or four of the previous words are deliberately inserted into the new context. Vocabulary does not disappear after the end of one topic, but connects with subsequent material.

As an example, you can take the heading "Healthy lifestyle". Target vocabulary: balanced diet, sedental, nutrient, maintain, habit, prevent, intake, exhausted, recover, moderate. Before class, the student uses AI to read the B1-level interpretation of each word, guess the meaning, and determine which word is a noun, adjective, or verb. In the lesson, students are characterized by the short lifestyle of three characters: an employee who sits in the office all day, an athlete who does not rest properly after training, a student with an unstable eating regime. Each group will advise the character using at least six of the target vocabulary. AI is then tasked with arguing against one of those boards, and students test the answer in language and content terms. After class, each student made three new sentences with the words he used incorrectly. A week later, "how can university students avoid burnout?" in a small speech task on the topic "former vocabulary is reused. Ten words on the same topic turn from an object of memorization into a means of reasoning.

Another option is suitable for Academic English. In the "Research and evidence" block, words such as hypothesis, variable, reliable, sample, evidence, interpret, significant, limitation are taken. Before class, the student identifies words from a short research annotation through context. AI prepares one correct and one misleading example for each, without giving a definition of words. The student chooses the right one and writes the reason. The audience finds methodological limitations in the description of a small research project and explains them using target words. Later, the AI corrects the overly confident claim or inappropriate use of the word in the "scientific" paragraph. Such a task does not separate vocabulary acquisition and academic literacy.

Conclusion

The AI-enhanced flipped EFL learning model allows you to break the learning of new words in English into several interconnected learning activities, taking them out of the framework of classroom interpretation. Before class, the student first recognizes the lexical unit, guesses the meaning and checks it using AI. In the audience, the word is transferred from the level of finished

definition to communication, remembered, used in a pair or group situation, checked for semantic and collocation accuracy. After the lesson, the algorithm can arrange a short repetition according to individual difficulties. Artificial intelligence in such a structure serves as a tool for changing the level of educational material, creating different contexts and accelerating feedback, and not a text generator that works instead of a student.

Theoretical analysis showed that the main strength of inverted learning lies not in freeing up classroom time, but in redirecting that time to more complex language activities. AI adds a layer of personalization to this model: the same word set can be represented for each student with different complexity, different example and different repetition frequency. However, uncontrolled use of the generative system is more likely to increase dependence on the finished response and reduce the amount of spontaneous mention of a word. To do this, the training task must require the student to act before the AI: predict, choose, recall, make sentences, find errors, prove. When a technological response is given after the mentioned operations, its pedagogical value increases.

The practical model can also provide the basis for future empirical research. At the next research stage, it is appropriate to compare the results of the traditional EFL group and the AI-enhanced flipped group using pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test, simultaneously measuring the growth of active vocabulary, collocation accuracy, the number of target vocabulary in fluency and the level of students' dependence on technology. The true result of mastering the vocabulary should be assessed not by the number of correct answers at the time of the end of the test, but by the ability to remember the word after a few weeks without help and use it appropriately in a new situation. The future of artificial intelligence in EFL education also depends not so much on how much text the algorithm can create, but on how much the teacher and student can turn it into a competent reading activity.

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THE ROLE OF AUTHENTIC LANGUAGE RESOURCES IN DEVELOPING SCHOOL STUDENTS' SPEAKING SKILLS

Abstract

This article examines the pedagogical potential of authentic language resources for developing school students' English speaking skills. The study aims to identify the methodological conditions for using materials originally created for real-world communication rather than language instruction to develop students' oral production and interaction skills. The study adopts a theoretical and methodological approach, drawing on a review of scholarly literature and a comparative analysis of the potential of interviews, podcasts, short videos, and public announcements for teaching speaking. Resource selection criteria are established with reference to students' age-related characteristics, language proficiency, communicative needs, and the comprehensibility of the materials' cultural content. Speech rate, lexical complexity, and the duration of audio and video materials are considered in relation to the extent of pedagogical scaffolding required. Based on these criteria, the article proposes an instructional framework comprising familiarisation with the communicative situation, teacher-guided identification of relevant language expressions, scaffolded interaction, independent speaking, and reflective feedback.

Within this framework, authentic resources serve as models of contextually appropriate language use and provide the content for tasks involving the exchange of opinions, information sharing, and role-play. The proposed indicators for assessing students' speaking performance during these tasks include fluency and intelligibility, contextually appropriate vocabulary use, coherence, and appropriate responses to an interlocutor's contributions. The central conclusion is that the pedagogical value of authentic resources is realised through their integration with tasks directed towards a specific communicative goal. The practical significance of the study lies in the proposed resource selection criteria, instructional stages, and speaking assessment indicators, which can inform lesson planning. The effectiveness of the proposed framework requires empirical testing in school settings.

Keywords: *authentic language resources, English speaking skills, school students, communicative tasks, pedagogical scaffolding, oral interaction.*

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РОЛЬ АУТЕНТИЧНЫХ ЯЗЫКОВЫХ РЕСУРСОВ В РАЗВИТИИ НАВЫКОВ УСТНОЙ РЕЧИ ШКОЛЬНИКОВ

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается педагогический потенциал аутентичных языковых ресурсов в развитии навыков говорения на английском языке у школьников. Цель исследования — определить методические условия использования материалов, изначально созданных для

реального общения, а не для обучения языку, в развитии устной речи и речевого взаимодействия учащихся. Исследование носит теоретико-методический характер и основывается на обзоре научной литературы и сравнительном анализе возможностей использования интервью, подкастов, коротких видеоматериалов и объявлений для широкой аудитории в обучении говорению. Критерии отбора ресурсов определяются с учётом возрастных особенностей учащихся, уровня их языковой подготовки, коммуникативных потребностей и доступности культурного содержания материалов для понимания. Темп речи, лексическая сложность и продолжительность аудио- и видеоматериалов рассматриваются во взаимосвязи с необходимым объёмом педагогической поддержки. На основе этих критериев предлагается система обучения, включающая следующие этапы: ознакомление с коммуникативной ситуацией, выявление необходимых языковых средств под руководством учителя, речевое взаимодействие с педагогической поддержкой, самостоятельное говорение и рефлексивная обратная связь.

В данной системе аутентичные ресурсы выступают образцами ситуативно обусловленного использования языка и содержательной основой заданий, предполагающих обмен мнениями, передачу информации и ролевое взаимодействие. Для оценивания устной речи при выполнении заданий предлагаются такие показатели, как беглость и понятность речи, уместность употребления лексики в конкретной ситуации, связность высказывания и адекватность ответа на реплику собеседника. Основной вывод заключается в том, что педагогическая ценность аутентичных ресурсов реализуется посредством их сочетания с заданиями, направленными на достижение конкретной коммуникативной цели. Практическая значимость работы состоит в предложении критериев отбора ресурсов, этапов обучения и показателей оценивания устной речи, которые могут использоваться при планировании уроков. Эффективность предложенной системы требует эмпирической проверки в условиях школьного обучения.

Ключевые слова: аутентичные языковые ресурсы, навыки говорения на английском языке, школьники, коммуникативные задания, педагогическая поддержка, устное речевое взаимодействие.

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МЕКТЕП ОҚУШЫЛАРЫНЫҢ СӨЙЛЕУ DAҒДЫЛАРЫН ДАМУДАҒЫ АУТЕНТТІ ТІЛДІК РЕСУРСТАРДЫҢ РӨЛІ

Аңдатпа

Мақалада мектеп оқушыларының ағылшын тілінде сөйлеу дағдыларын дамытудағы аутентті тілдік ресурстардың педагогикалық мүмкіндіктері қарастырылады. Зерттеудің мақсаты – бастапқыда тіл үйрету үшін емес, шынайы қарым-қатынас мақсатында жасалған материалдарды оқушылардың ауызша сөйлеуі мен өзара тілдесуін дамытуға пайдаланудың әдістемелік шарттарын айқындау. Зерттеу теориялық-әдістемелік сипатта жүргізіліп, ғылыми әдебиеттерге шолу жасауға және сұхбаттар, подкасттар, қысқа бейнематериалдар мен көпшілікке арналған хабарландырулардың сөйлеуді үйретудегі мүмкіндіктерін салыстыра талдауға негізделеді. Ресурстарды іріктеу өлшемдері оқушылардың жас ерекшеліктері, тілдік дайындық деңгейі, коммуникативтік қажеттіліктері және материалдың мәдени мазмұнының түсініктілігі тұрғысынан айқындалады. Аудио және бейнематериалдардағы сөйлеу қарқыны, лексикалық күрделілік пен ұзақтық қажетті педагогикалық қолдау көлемімен байланысты қарастырылады. Осы өлшемдер негізінде коммуникативтік жағдаятпен танысу, қажетті

тілдік қолданыстарды мұғалімнің бағыттауымен анықтау, педагогикалық қолдаумен өзара тілдесу, дербес сөйлеу және рефлексиялық кері байланыс кезеңдерін қамтитын оқыту жүйесі ұсынылады.

Бұл жүйеде аутентті ресурстар жағдаятқа сай тіл қолданудың үлгісі және пікір алмасу, ақпарат бөлісу мен рөлдік тапсырмалардың мазмұндық негізі ретінде қарастырылады. Тапсырмаларды орындау кезіндегі сөйлеуді бағалау үшін сөйлеудің жатықтығы мен түсініктілігі, сөздерді жағдаятқа сай қолдану, ойдың байланыстылығы және сұхбаттасушының репликасына орынды жауап беру көрсеткіштері ұсынылады. Негізгі тұжырым аутентті ресурстардың педагогикалық құндылығы оларды нақты коммуникативтік мақсатқа бағытталған тапсырмалармен ұштастыру арқылы жүзеге асатынына негізделеді. Жұмыстың практикалық маңызы сабақ жоспарлауда қолдануға болатын ресурстарды іріктеу өлшемдерін, оқыту кезеңдерін және сөйлеуді бағалау көрсеткіштерін ұсынумен айқындалады. Ұсынылған жүйенің тиімділігі мектеп жағдайында эмпирикалық тексеруді қажет етеді.

Түйін сөздер: *аутентті тілдік ресурстар, ағылшын тілінде сөйлеу дағдылары, мектеп оқушылары, коммуникативтік тапсырмалар, педагогикалық қолдау, ауызша тілдесу.*

Introduction

Developing school students' speaking skills involves enabling them to use linguistic knowledge to express intentions, organise ideas, and respond appropriately to other speakers. Successful oral communication requires coordination between language production and the interpretation of an unfolding communicative situation. Learners need opportunities to formulate intelligible messages, manage conversational turns, clarify misunderstandings, and adjust their contributions to an audience. This understanding is consistent with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, which positions learners as social agents and connects language education with purposeful communicative activity. Its distinction between oral production and interaction also provides a basis for recognising that speaking development encompasses both constructing a coherent utterance and participating responsively in dialogue. [1] Authentic language resources are relevant to this objective because they provide examples of language situated within identifiable social purposes. In the present article, the term refers to spoken and audiovisual materials originally produced for communication, information, or entertainment beyond formal language instruction. These include interviews, podcasts, short videos, and public announcements. Authenticity nevertheless requires careful conceptual treatment. Gilmore's review demonstrates that the concept encompasses the origins of a text, its interpretation by learners, and the relationship between material and classroom activity. The review also identifies differences between textbook discourse and naturally occurring communication, alongside questions concerning linguistic difficulty, motivation, and task design. [2] Accordingly, this article treats authenticity as a resource characteristic whose educational significance depends on how the material is selected and used.

Empirical research provides a basis for examining this significance while also establishing limits to generalisation. In a longitudinal classroom investigation involving Japanese university learners, Gilmore compared instruction using authentic materials and associated tasks with instruction based on textbook materials. The authentic-materials group achieved stronger outcomes on several measures of communicative competence, although advantages were not consistent across all measures. [3] These findings support the potential of a carefully designed instructional approach incorporating authentic input. However, the contribution of the materials cannot be separated straightforwardly from the tasks accompanying them. Moreover, results obtained with university students require consideration of developmental and instructional differences before being applied to school learners. Audiovisual resources introduce further possibilities and demands. Images, gestures, and situational cues can help establish the context of an utterance, while captions offer an

additional representation of spoken language. At the same time, learners must allocate attention across speech, visual information, and any accompanying text. Montero Perez's review examines these relationships through research on audiovisual comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, and listening, highlighting the relevance of vocabulary demands and different forms of on-screen support. [4] For speaking instruction, this evidence raises a specific methodological question: how can understanding a recorded message become a basis for producing a new, purposeful utterance? Comprehension and vocabulary learning are relevant resources for speaking, but evidence of improvement in these areas does not by itself establish development in spontaneous oral interaction. Research involving school-age learners makes the relationship between exposure and language use particularly relevant. De Wilde, Brysbaert, and Eyckmans investigated English proficiency among Dutch-speaking children aged ten to twelve before the beginning of formal English instruction. Their assessment included receptive vocabulary and listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. The findings revealed considerable differences between learners and associations between proficiency and interactive forms of exposure involving language production. [5] This evidence suggests that the nature of engagement deserves attention alongside the amount of contact with English. Because the investigation concerned informal exposure, however, it does not establish the effectiveness of a particular classroom resource or teaching sequence. A subsequent longitudinal investigation by De Wilde extends this perspective by examining adolescent learners' receptive vocabulary and engagement with English outside school. The study identifies reciprocal relationships between proficiency and extracurricular language contact, indicating that stronger language knowledge may influence subsequent engagement as well as develop alongside it. [6] For the present article, this finding cautions against interpreting resource exposure as a simple, one-directional explanation of learning. Students bring different linguistic resources and experiences to the same material. Furthermore, the vocabulary focus of this longitudinal evidence reinforces the need to specify speaking outcomes independently when designing classroom applications.

A theoretical basis for connecting exposure with productive language use is provided by Nation's four-strands framework. This framework distinguishes learning through meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, deliberate attention to language, and fluency development. [7] Applied to authentic resources, it suggests that listening or viewing should form part of a broader sequence of learning opportunities. An interview, for example, can supply information for a discussion, illustrate expressions used to explain a position, and support a subsequent exchange in which learners formulate their own responses. The instructional purpose determines which features of the resource warrant attention and what students are expected to do with them. Pedagogical support is consequently central to the transition from encountering language to using it. Goh identifies pre-task planning, task repetition, and communication strategies as relevant areas for supporting speaking development, while distinguishing the ways research findings can inform classroom practice. [8] Within an approach using authentic resources, such support may include establishing the communicative situation, identifying useful expressions, allowing brief rehearsal, and providing another opportunity to communicate after feedback. The methodological challenge is to make the task manageable while preserving opportunities for independent formulation and responsiveness. The literature reviewed therefore establishes a clear rationale for integrating authentic resources into speaking instruction, while leaving their classroom contribution dependent on several connected decisions. These concern the relationship between resource difficulty and learner readiness, the communicative purpose of the task, the support available during production, and the evidence used to judge development. The problem addressed in this article is how to bring these decisions together within a coherent framework for school English teaching. Particular attention is required to distinguish the successful reproduction of a model from the ability to communicate meaning in a different situation. The article aims to develop a theoretically grounded methodological framework for using authentic language resources to support school students' speaking skills. Its objectives are to identify resource-selection criteria, relate

spoken and audiovisual features to communicative tasks, and specify a progression from supported engagement to independent speaking and reflective feedback. Speaking development is considered through fluency, intelligibility, lexical appropriateness, discourse coherence, and responsiveness to interlocutors. The intended contribution is an integrated account of resource selection, instructional support, and purposeful oral activity that can guide classroom planning and provide a basis for subsequent empirical evaluation.

Methods

The study integrated a focused literature review with an empirical investigation of classroom performance at General Education School No. 32. The empirical component involved 25 Grade 10 students and followed a single-group pre-test–post-test design. Its purpose was to examine changes in assessed achievement during an intervention addressing the use of authentic language resources in English speaking instruction. The literature review established the conceptual relationships between resource characteristics, communicative tasks, instructional support, and speaking performance. The empirical analysis examined the distribution of participants across achievement categories at the beginning and end of the intervention. The documentary basis comprised the theoretical, empirical, and methodological publications cited in the article. Sources were selected purposively according to their relevance to the research objectives. Inclusion was guided by the contribution of each publication to defining authenticity, explaining the relationship between language input and oral production, identifying conditions affecting resource accessibility, or informing the design and assessment of speaking activities. Scholarly provenance and the availability of sufficient contextual information were also considered. The review followed a narrative synthesis approach in which selected publications were brought together to clarify a methodological problem and establish connections between complementary areas of research [9]. Particular attention was given to evidence involving school learners. Findings from other educational contexts were interpreted with reference to differences in learner age, proficiency, and instructional circumstances.

The interpretation of the literature was organised around six analytical categories: communicative purpose, linguistic demands, contextual support, opportunities for oral production, interactional requirements, and pedagogical assistance. These categories translated the research objectives into a consistent set of questions concerning what a resource communicated, what demands it placed on learners, and how its content could support subsequent speaking. The procedure drew on directed qualitative content analysis, which uses established theoretical concepts and research findings to guide the initial organisation of material [10]. Within each category, resource characteristics, instructional conditions, and reported learning outcomes were examined separately. Evidence concerning comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, oral performance, and learner perceptions was differentiated to ensure that conclusions remained consistent with the outcomes investigated in the original studies. The comparative analysis addressed interviews, explanatory or narrative podcasts, short videos, and public announcements as resource formats represented in the literature. Each format was examined in relation to its original audience and communicative purpose, speech rate, lexical demands, duration, discourse organisation, cultural accessibility, and available visual or textual support. These characteristics were interpreted alongside learner preparation and the speaking requirements of the associated activity. The analysis therefore connected resource selection with adaptation and classroom use, reflecting the contextual approach to materials development discussed by Tomlinson [11]. Communicative function received particular attention because delivery formats could overlap: an interview, for example, could be presented through either an audio recording or a video. The resulting comparisons informed the resource–task correspondences presented in Table 1. The instructional framework linked resource characteristics with tasks requiring learners to communicate information, explain an interpretation, clarify meaning, or respond to another speaker. Task analysis identified the information available in the source, the contribution expected from the learner, the communicative need addressed, and the

intended outcome of the exchange. The methodological basis emphasised meaning, a communicative gap, the use of learners' available linguistic resources, and an identifiable outcome [12]. This connection established how information encountered through listening or viewing could become relevant to a new spoken contribution.

The framework organised instruction into contextual preparation, guided noticing, supported interaction, independent speaking, and reflective feedback. Contextual preparation addressed the situation, participants, and purpose of the original communication. Guided noticing focused attention on expressions and discourse features relevant to the speaking objective. Supported interaction connected these resources with an initial communicative attempt, while independent speaking increased learners' responsibility for organising and formulating their contributions. Reflective feedback related the examination of performance to priorities for further practice. The coherence of these components was considered through constructive alignment, linking the intended learning outcome with the activity and the evidence needed to assess achievement [13]. The conceptual assessment framework encompassed fluency, intelligibility, lexical appropriateness, discourse coherence, and responsiveness to interlocutors. These dimensions informed the descriptors presented in Table 2 and established the focus for interpreting speaking as both individual production and participation in interaction. Their inclusion reflected the importance of defining the speaking construct and relating assessment interpretations to appropriate evidence [14]. The quantitative records analysed in the empirical component contained overall achievement categories. They did not provide separate numerical scores for the five speaking dimensions, so changes in those dimensions were not estimated independently.

The empirical assessment consisted of a pre-test and a post-test administered to the participating group. Performance was reported on a 100-point scale and classified using identical thresholds at both measurement points. Scores of 0–59 represented the low achievement category, scores of 60–79 the intermediate category, and scores of 80–100 the high category. These classifications served as internal performance bands for the study. The pre-test established the initial distribution of participants, while the post-test documented their distribution following the intervention. Quantitative processing involved verifying category totals, calculating percentages, and comparing the distributions across the two assessment occasions. The frequencies at each stage summed to 25 participants. The percentage within a category was calculated by dividing its frequency by the total sample and multiplying the result by 100. One learner therefore represented four percentage points of the sample. Change was expressed through the difference between post-test and pre-test frequencies and the corresponding difference in percentage points. This procedure enabled the direction and extent of change to be described without assigning numerical values to unreported individual scores.

Methodological recommendations were developed by considering the observed distributional changes alongside the resource-selection criteria, task requirements, and forms of instructional support established through the literature review. The empirical component informed discussion of overall achievement within the participating group. The conceptual analysis provided the basis for interpreting the pedagogical relevance of accessible resources, purposeful communication, and opportunities for independent formulation. This integration maintained a clear relationship between the evidence available and the scope of the conclusions drawn.

Research Results

The comparison of pre-test and post-test distributions revealed a shift towards higher achievement categories among the 25 Grade 10 students. At the initial assessment, 15 participants, representing 60% of the group, obtained scores within the low achievement band of 0–59. Seven students, or 28%, were classified at the intermediate level, while three students, or 12%, reached the high level. The baseline distribution was therefore concentrated in the lowest category, with ten participants, equivalent to 40% of the sample, attaining scores of at least 60 points.

Following the intervention, three students remained within the low category, accounting for 12% of the group. Eleven students, or 44%, were classified at the intermediate level, and another eleven students, also representing 44%, attained the high level. The combined proportion of participants in the intermediate and high categories consequently reached 88%. At the group level, the post-test distribution showed a substantially smaller concentration of low scores and a greater representation of achievement at or above the intermediate threshold. The most pronounced change concerned the low achievement category, whose frequency decreased from fifteen to three students. This constituted a reduction of twelve participants and 48 percentage points. The intermediate category increased from seven to eleven students, corresponding to a gain of four participants and 16 percentage points. The high category increased from three to eleven students, representing a gain of eight participants and 32 percentage points. These values describe net changes in category frequencies; they do not identify the individual transitions underlying those changes. The proportion of students attaining at least the intermediate level increased from 40% at pre-test to 88% at post-test. This 48-percentage-point difference provides descriptive evidence of an upward shift in classified achievement during the intervention period. The equal post-test proportions in the intermediate and high categories also indicate that performance remained differentiated within the group. Improvement in the overall distribution therefore did not imply that all participants had attained the highest category.

The theoretical synthesis produced three interrelated outcomes: a functional correspondence between authentic resources and speaking tasks, an instructional sequence connecting comprehension with independent oral communication, and a set of observable descriptors for evaluating speaking performance. These outcomes constitute the conceptual contribution of the study; they do not represent experimentally measured improvements among school students. The central proposition emerging from the analysis is that the instructional value of authentic resources depends on the relationship between their communicative features, the demands of the accompanying task, and the support available to learners. The first analytical outcome concerns the selection of discourse features that can serve as models for oral communication. Gilmore's comparison of textbook dialogues and corresponding authentic interactions identified differences in turn organisation, pausing, repetition, hesitation, and listener responses within the samples examined [15]. For the present framework, this finding directs attention to how speakers manage communication while formulating ideas and responding to others. An interview, for example, may illustrate how a follow-up question develops an answer, while an announcement may demonstrate how essential information is organised for a particular audience. Resource selection consequently requires attention to the communicative behaviour that learners will subsequently be expected to perform.

The functional comparison generated the resource–task correspondence presented in Table 1. The categories indicate possible instructional uses rather than fixed properties shared by every resource of a particular format. An individual recording must therefore be examined before its suitability for a speaking objective can be established.

Table 1. Proposed correspondence between authentic resources and speaking tasks

Resource format	Communicative features to examine	Illustrative speaking task	Required pedagogical support
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Interviews	Question development, elaboration, clarification, and responses to previous turns	Conduct a peer interview and formulate follow-up questions using information provided by the partner	Context introduction, identification of useful question patterns, and brief planning notes
Explanatory or narrative podcasts	Sequencing, examples, reformulation, and connections between ideas	Explain the central issue to a partner and justify a personal interpretation	A content outline, selective replay, and support for essential vocabulary
Short videos	Connections between speech, actions, setting, and speaker intention	Compare interpretations of an event and explain which interpretation is better supported	Viewing prompts and explicit differentiation between visible information and verbal explanation
Public announcements	Concise instructions, conditions, time references, and information priorities	Exchange relevant information and agree on a plan that satisfies stated conditions	A note-taking frame, clarification expressions, and clearly defined roles

The comparison distinguishes two functions that may coexist within a resource. First, the material can provide a discourse model: learners examine how a speaker introduces an explanation, requests clarification, or connects ideas. Second, it can supply information that learners need to communicate. These functions require different task designs. Reproducing an announcement may direct attention to pronunciation and organisation, whereas explaining its implications to a partner requires selection, reformulation, and adaptation to the listener's needs. The proposed framework therefore specifies both the language feature available for examination and the communicative purpose of the subsequent speaking activity. A second outcome is the distinction between access to linguistic resources and their independent deployment in speech. Pujadas and Muñoz reported vocabulary gains among secondary school learners following extensive viewing of television episodes with captions or subtitles, with outcomes also related to prior proficiency and vocabulary pre-teaching [16]. This evidence concerns vocabulary learning; it does not establish that newly encountered expressions become readily available during spontaneous interaction. Accordingly, the present synthesis identifies a necessary instructional connection between noticing language in context and using it to express a new meaning. Within the proposed tasks, learners select relevant expressions, adapt them to their own intentions, and employ them when the required response is not supplied by the recording. The analysis also identifies accessibility as a condition that must be

considered separately from authenticity. A resource may present an appropriate topic while imposing excessive demands through unfamiliar vocabulary, rapid delivery, or densely packed information. In their investigation involving university learners, Pujadas and Muñoz found a comprehension advantage for captioned viewing and demonstrated the relevance of proficiency and vocabulary knowledge to understanding audiovisual input [17]. Applying this evidence to school instruction requires caution because the population and outcome differ from those addressed in the present article. The resulting proposal is to adjust support according to the information learners can recover and use, rather than to remove captions according to a predetermined timetable.

This distinction clarifies the relationship between supported comprehension and independent speaking. Captions may remain available while learners establish what a resource communicates. During a later speaking task, however, continuous access to a complete script would limit the evidence available about independent formulation. The framework therefore proposes a transition from comprehensive input support to selective speaking support, such as keywords or a brief content outline. The purpose of this transition is to preserve access to meaning while creating opportunities for learners to organise their own contributions. The third outcome is an operational interpretation of the five-stage instructional sequence established in the methodology. Contextual preparation defines the communicative situation; guided noticing identifies language relevant to the intended task; supported interaction provides an initial opportunity to use that language; independent speaking introduces greater responsibility for formulation; and reflective feedback establishes priorities for another attempt. The distinctive feature of the sequence is the changing function of the original resource. It initially supplies information and examples, subsequently supports interaction, and finally becomes a reference against which learners can examine their own communicative choices.

An illustrative application involves an authentic announcement about a change to an event schedule. During contextual preparation, learners establish who issued the announcement, whom it addresses, and which arrangements have changed. Guided noticing focuses on expressions used to state conditions, explain changes, and clarify details. In supported interaction, partners receive different practical constraints and discuss whether a proposed arrangement is feasible. The independent task introduces a new constraint, requiring learners to revise their explanation or recommendation. Reflective feedback then addresses whether the revised arrangement was communicated clearly and whether each contribution responded to the partner's information. This example illustrates the proposed framework; it is not an account of an implemented classroom intervention. Task repetition provides a relevant empirical basis for incorporating further speaking attempts. Lambert, Kormos, and Minn found that immediate repetition of oral tasks was associated with gains in fluency, although speech rate, pausing, and self-repair followed different patterns across successive performances [18]. Within the present framework, repetition offers an opportunity to revisit a communicative objective after feedback. A subsequent variation in information or audience is proposed to examine whether learners can adapt their language beyond the rehearsed response. Improved delivery of an unchanged task would, by itself, provide insufficient evidence of such transfer.

Feedback constitutes another connection between authentic input and learners' developing production. Lyster and Saito's meta-analysis identified benefits of oral corrective feedback for target-language development in classroom studies, with outcomes varying according to feedback type and assessment conditions [19]. Drawing on this evidence, the proposed sequence includes selective feedback followed by an opportunity to reformulate. For example, feedback may identify an unclear time reference or an inappropriate expression that affected the intended message. The learner then revises the relevant contribution. Broader reflections on organisation and responsiveness are included as components of the proposed framework, rather than presented as outcomes established by that meta-analysis. The final analytical output is an assessment matrix connecting the five speaking dimensions identified in the methodology with observable

performance. A distinction is required between intelligibility and resemblance to a particular accent model. Munro and Derwing demonstrated that strongly accented speech can remain intelligible, supporting the separate consideration of accentedness, perceived comprehensibility, and actual listener understanding [20]. In the present matrix, intelligibility is therefore approached through evidence of message recovery. Listener paraphrases or accurate responses can provide classroom indicators, although they must be interpreted in relation to the listener's proficiency and familiarity with the content.

Table 2. Proposed descriptors for examining speaking performance

Speaking dimension	Observable performance descriptor	Suitable evidence
Fluency	Sustains a contribution and manages pauses or reformulations without repeatedly abandoning the intended message	A recorded explanation and a subsequent attempt under comparable conditions
Intelligibility	Communicates essential information that the listener can accurately recover	A listener's paraphrase, identification of key details, or appropriate task response
Lexical appropriateness	Selects words and expressions that fit the intended meaning, topic, and communicative situation	Contextual analysis of vocabulary used in explanations and exchanges
Discourse coherence	Presents ideas in an identifiable sequence and makes relevant connections explicit	A short explanation containing a main point, supporting information, and a connected outcome
Responsiveness to interlocutors	Addresses preceding contributions and adjusts an explanation when clarification or new information is introduced	An exchange containing unscripted follow-up questions or changing conditions

The matrix makes the relationship between task design and assessment explicit. A prepared monologue can provide evidence of organisation and delivery, but offers limited evidence of responsiveness. An interactive task can reveal how a learner handles clarification, although performance also depends on the partner's contributions. Consequently, the framework proposes complementary evidence from individual production and interaction. Input comprehension should

also be checked separately so that misunderstanding the original resource is not automatically interpreted as a weakness in speaking. The conceptual contribution of the study is thus a specified relationship between resource characteristics, instructional support, communicative action, and observable speaking performance. Its empirical evaluation would require evidence that learners can apply relevant language in new speaking situations and sustain performance as support is reduced. Until such evidence is available, the framework provides a basis for classroom planning and subsequent investigation rather than a demonstrated estimate of instructional effectiveness.

Conclusion

This conceptual study identifies the instructional conditions under which authentic language resources can support school students' English speaking development. Their pedagogical value depends on the alignment of resource characteristics, learners' needs, and purposeful speaking tasks. Appropriately selected interviews, podcasts, short videos, and public announcements provide contextualised examples of language use and meaningful content for explanation, interpretation, and interaction. Realising these opportunities requires support that enables learners to understand the material and progressively formulate their own contributions. The principal contribution of the study is a framework connecting contextual preparation, guided noticing, supported interaction, independent speaking, and reflective feedback. The proposed assessment descriptors relate this sequence to fluency, intelligibility, lexical appropriateness, discourse coherence, and responsiveness to interlocutors. Together, these components provide a methodological basis for selecting resources, designing speaking activities, and examining communicative performance. As the framework has not undergone classroom validation, its effectiveness remains an empirical question. Further research should investigate its suitability across school proficiency levels and determine whether learners can sustain and adapt their speaking performance in unfamiliar communicative situations.

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ИСКУССТВЕННЫЙ ИНТЕЛЛЕКТ КАК ИНСТРУМЕНТ ДЛЯ ИЗУЧЕНИЯ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА СРЕДИ УЧАЩИХСЯ В ШКОЛЕ АЛМАТЫ

Аннотация

В последние годы использование искусственного интеллекта в образовании стремительно растёт, однако эмпирических данных о его влиянии на учебный процесс

школьников остаётся недостаточно. Цель исследования- выявить отношение школьников к использованию ИИ-инструментов (ChatGPT, Gemini) при изучении английского языка, определить цели применения, преимущества и трудности.

Проведено количественное описательное исследование среди 135 учащихся 5-11 классов школы города Алматы. Сбор данных осуществлялся с помощью онлайн-опросника на платформе Google Forms. Для анализа использовались частотный анализ, альфа Кронбаха, критерии Манна-Уитни, Краскела-Уоллиса, корреляция Спирмена и хи-квадрат. Результаты показали, что 71,6% учащихся используют ИИ для изучения английского языка. Наиболее популярные функции: написание текстов (42,2%), перевод (37,0%), изучение лексики (37,0%), проверка грамматики (34,1%). Индекс отношения к ИИ составил $M = 4,06$ ($SD = 0,87$), что указывает на положительное отношение. Выявлены различия по классам ($H = 24,16$, $p < 0,001$): старшеклассники используют ИИ чаще, но относятся критичнее. Гендерные различия не обнаружены. Ключевые преимущества: экономия времени (46,7%), улучшение грамматики (42,2%). Основные трудности: риск неточной информации (45,9%), зависимость от ИИ (34,8%).

Результаты свидетельствуют о двойственном восприятии ИИ: учащиеся ценят его образовательный потенциал, но осознают риски. Данные полезны для разработки педагогических стратегий интеграции ИИ в обучение английскому языку.

Ключевые слова: изучение английского языка, искусственный интеллект, ИИ-инструменты, школьники, отношение к ИИ, ChatGPT, Gemini, эффективность обучения, цели использования, преимущества, трудности, количественное исследование.

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AI AS AN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING TOOL: A CASE STUDY OF AN ALMATY SCHOOL

Abstract

In recent years, the use of artificial intelligence in education has been rapidly increasing; however, empirical evidence regarding its impact on the learning process of school students remains limited. The aim of this study is to examine school students' attitudes toward the use of AI tools (ChatGPT and Gemini) in learning English and to identify their purposes of use, perceived benefits, and challenges. A quantitative descriptive study was conducted among 135 students in Grades 5–11 at a school in Almaty. Data were collected using an online questionnaire administered via Google Forms. The analysis included frequency analysis, Cronbach's alpha, the Mann–Whitney U test, the Kruskal–Wallis test, Spearman's correlation, and the chi-square test. The results showed that 71.6% of students use AI to learn English. The most frequently used functions were text writing (42.2%), translation (37.0%), vocabulary learning (37.0%), and grammar checking (34.1%). The mean AI attitude score was $M = 4.06$ ($SD = 0.87$), indicating a positive attitude. Significant differences were found across grade levels ($H = 24.16$, $p < 0.001$): upper-grade students used AI more frequently but demonstrated more critical attitudes toward it. No gender differences were identified. The main perceived benefits were time saving (46.7%) and improved grammar (42.2%). The main challenges were the risk of inaccurate information (45.9%) and dependence on AI (34.8%). The findings indicate an ambivalent perception of AI: students recognize its educational

potential while being aware of the associated risks. The findings may contribute to the development of pedagogical strategies for integrating AI into English language learning.

Keywords: english language learning, artificial intelligence, AI tools, school students, attitudes toward AI, ChatGPT, Gemini, learning effectiveness, purposes of use, benefits, challenges, quantitative research.

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ЖАСАНДЫ ИНТЕЛЛЕКТ АЛМАТЫ МЕКТЕБІ ОҚУШЫЛАРЫНЫҢ АҒЫЛШЫН ТІЛІН ҮЙРЕНУДЕГІ ҚҰРАЛЫ РЕТІНДЕ

Аңдатпа

Соңғы жылдары білім беру саласында жасанды интеллектіні қолдану қарқынды түрде артып келеді, алайда оның мектеп оқушыларының оқу үдерісіне ықпалы туралы эмпирикалық деректер әлі де жеткіліксіз. Зерттеудің мақсаты – мектеп оқушыларының ағылшын тілін үйрену барысында жасанды интеллект құралдарын (ChatGPT және Gemini) қолдануға деген көзқарасын анықтау, сондай-ақ оларды қолдану мақсаттарын, артықшылықтары мен қиындықтарын айқындау. Алматы қаласындағы мектептің 5–11-сыныптарында оқитын 135 оқушы арасында сандық сипаттамалық зерттеу жүргізілді. Деректер Google Forms платформасында әзірленген онлайн сауалнама арқылы жиналды. Деректерді талдау барысында жиілік талдауы, Кронбах альфа коэффициенті, Манн–Уитни U критерийі, Краскел–Уоллис критерийі, Спирмен корреляциясы және хи-квадрат критерийі қолданылды. Нәтижелер оқушылардың 71,6%-ы ағылшын тілін үйрену барысында жасанды интеллектіні қолданатынын көрсетті. Ең көп қолданылатын функциялар: мәтін жазу (42,2%), аударма жасау (37,0%), лексиканы меңгеру (37,0%) және грамматиканы тексеру (34,1%). Жасанды интеллектіге деген көзқарас индексінің орташа мәні $M = 4,06$ ($SD = 0,87$) болып, оқушылардың оң көзқарасын көрсетті. Сынып деңгейлері арасында статистикалық тұрғыдан маңызды айырмашылықтар анықталды ($N = 24,16$, $p < 0,001$): жоғары сынып оқушылары жасанды интеллектіні жиірек қолданғанымен, оған сыни тұрғыдан көбірек қарайды. Гендерлік айырмашылықтар анықталған жоқ. Негізгі артықшылықтар ретінде уақытты үнемдеу (46,7%) және грамматиканы жақсарту (42,2%) көрсетілді. Негізгі қиындықтар – дәл емес ақпарат алу қаупі (45,9%) және жасанды интеллектке тәуелділік (34,8%).

Зерттеу нәтижелері жасанды интеллектіні қабылдаудың екіжақты сипатын көрсетеді: оқушылар оның білім беру әлеуетін мойындай отырып, онымен байланысты тәуекелдерді де түсінеді. Алынған нәтижелер жасанды интеллектіні ағылшын тілін оқыту үдерісіне кіріктірудің педагогикалық стратегияларын әзірлеуге ықпал етуі мүмкін.

Түйін сөздер: ағылшын тілін үйрену, жасанды интеллект, жасанды интеллект құралдары, мектеп оқушылары, жасанды интеллектіге деген көзқарас, ChatGPT, Gemini, оқу тиімділігі, қолдану мақсаттары, артықшылықтар, қиындықтар, сандық зерттеу.

Введение

Современная система образования существенно изменилась с внедрением инструментов искусственного интеллекта (ИИ). В последние годы генеративные модели, такие как ChatGPT и Gemini, стали широко доступны учащимся и активно используются в академической деятельности, в том числе при изучении иностранных языков. Эти

инструменты применяются для расширения словарного запаса, исправления грамматических ошибок, подготовки письменных работ и генерации идей [1].

Исследование, проведенное в 2025 году, в ходе которого изучалось влияние ChatGPT в рамках обязательного курса по написанию текстов на английском как на иностранном языке (EFL) для учащихся 10-х классов одной из средних школ Гонконга, в котором приняли участие 99 учеников, показало, что контролируемое использование ИИ значительно повышает успеваемость учащихся, причем наибольший прогресс наблюдается среди учеников с изначально низким уровнем подготовки [2].

Международные исследования последних пяти лет показывают, что искусственный интеллект положительно влияет на процесс изучения английского языка. Мета-анализ подтверждает, что использование ChatGPT значительно улучшает навыки письма у учащихся, изучающих английский как иностранный, а также способствует росту их уверенности в себе и мотивации к обучению. В условиях средней школы отмечается повышение автономии учащихся и развитие навыков саморегулируемого обучения при использовании ИИ-инструментов. Мгновенная обратная связь от генеративного ИИ помогает повысить вовлеченность и снизить тревожность при выполнении языковых заданий.

В данном метаанализе оценивается эффективность ChatGPT в развитии навыков письма у студентов, изучающих английский как иностранный. Особое внимание уделяется семи факторам, которые могут влиять на результат: уровень образования учащихся, наличие и тип контрольной группы, длительность вмешательства, способ формирования выборки, цель использования ChatGPT, а также тип собранных данных. Результаты показывают значительный общий эффект (Hedges' $g = 0,906$, $SE = 0,088$, $p < 0,001$), что подтверждает высокую эффективность ChatGPT в обучении письму, оценке письменных работ и выставлении баллов, причём наибольшие улучшения наблюдаются именно в процессе обучения. Эти данные позволяют предположить, что внедрение ChatGPT в педагогическую практику может улучшить методические подходы, повысить мотивацию учащихся и создать благоприятную среду для обучения письму [3].

Однако в научной литературе существуют и противоположные данные. Крупномасштабное исследование, охватившее более 25 000 учащихся 7-12 классов в Китае, показало, что самостоятельное использование искусственного интеллекта у учеников повышает успеваемость по домашним заданиям на 18 % и сокращает время, затрачиваемое на их выполнение, более чем на 30 %, но одновременно снижает результаты экзаменов на 20% в течение нескольких месяцев, наиболее выражены в социальных науках, включая естественно-математические дисциплины (STEM) и языковые предметы; при этом наибольший эффект наблюдается у младших школьников, у учащихся с высокой успеваемостью и мальчиков. Следует отметить, что негативные последствия в полной мере могут отслеживаться не сразу, а спустя два года. Авторы интерпретируют это как «штраф за обучение», связанный с чрезмерной зависимостью от ИИ и снижением глубины когнитивной обработки материала [4]. Другие работы также предупреждают о рисках снижения критического мышления и академической честности при неконтролируемом использовании генеративных моделей. Например, чрезмерное увлечение инструментами типа ChatGPT может снизить способность учащихся самостоятельно решать задачи, что негативно скажется на их когнитивном развитии и способности мыслить нестандартно [5].

Как уже отмечалось ранее, внедрение ChatGPT в обучение сопряжено с рядом проблем. Несмотря на очевидные преимущества, главная проблема заключается в разном уровне доверия к этой технологии: не все учащиеся и преподаватели готовы полагаться на искусственный интеллект в образовательном процессе. Кроме того, возникают этические вопросы, связанные с использованием сгенерированного контента, а также сомнения в точности и достоверности предоставляемой информации. Эти проблемы требуют

осознанного и стратегического подхода, чтобы максимально использовать возможности ChatGPT, не забывая о его ограничениях [6].

Анализ существующих исследований и выявленный пробел обусловили необходимость рассмотрения использования инструментов ИИ через призму теории самодетерминации (Self-Determination Theory), которая позволяет анализировать влияние технологий на автономию, компетентность и связанность учащихся. Дополнительно учитываются положения модели принятия технологий (Technology Acceptance Model), объясняющие факторы, влияющие на готовность школьников использовать ИИ-инструменты.

На этой основе сформулированы следующие исследовательские вопросы:

- **RQ1:** Для каких целей учащиеся средних школ используют инструменты искусственного интеллекта при изучении английского языка?
- **RQ2:** Как различается отношение учащихся к использованию ИИ в зависимости от возрастной группы (младшие и старшие классы)?
- **RQ3:** Существует ли взаимосвязь между частотой использования ИИ-инструментов и отношением учащихся к ним (воспринимаемой полезностью, рисками и уровнем зависимости)?

Эти вопросы направлены на восполнение ключевых пробелов в литературе: недостаток данных о реальных целях использования ИИ школьниками, отсутствие сравнительного анализа по возрастным группам и слабую изученность связи между интенсивностью использования ИИ и отношением к нему.

Методология исследования

Настоящее исследование выполнено в рамках количественного описательного дизайна. Для сбора данных использовался структурированный онлайн-опросник, разработанный на платформе Google Forms и распространённый среди учащихся школы № 98. Выбор количественного подхода обусловлен необходимостью получения статистически репрезентативных данных об отношении школьников к инструментам искусственного интеллекта (ИИ) в контексте изучения английского языка.

Исследование было направлено на изучение частоты и целей использования ИИ-инструментов, отношения учащихся к их применению, воспринимаемых преимуществ и трудностей, а также возможных различий между участниками разных классов и пола.

Участники и стратегия формирования выборки

В исследовании приняли участие 135 учащихся 5–11 классов школы № 98. Для отбора участников использовалась целевая доступная выборка. Такой способ формирования выборки был обусловлен тем, что исследование проводилось в одной конкретной школе, а к участию приглашались учащиеся, соответствующие установленным критериям и имевшие доступ к онлайн-анкете.

Анкета была распространена среди учащихся 5–11 классов через классных руководителей с помощью мессенджеров. Участие в исследовании было добровольным. Каждый участник мог заполнить анкету только один раз. Опрос проводился в течение двух учебных смен.

Критериями включения в исследование являлись:

- обучение в 5–11 классе школы № 98;
- наличие доступа к онлайн-анкете;
- добровольное согласие на участие;
- заполнение анкеты в полном объёме или предоставление достаточного количества ответов для статистического анализа.

Критериями исключения являлись:

- несоответствие участника целевой группе исследования;

- отсутствие добровольного согласия на участие;
- повторное заполнение анкеты;
- анкеты с большим количеством пропущенных ответов;
- ответы, не позволяющие определить основные социально-демографические характеристики участника.

Из общего числа участников данные по отдельным переменным могли отличаться из-за пропущенных ответов. Например, один респондент не указал свой класс, а несколько участников не ответили на вопрос о поле. Поэтому количество наблюдений в отдельных таблицах различается.

Распределение участников по классам представлено в таблице 1.

Таблица 1. Распределение участников по классам (N = 134)

Класс	n	%
5	22	16.4%
6	23	17.2%
7	33	24.6%
8	9	6.7%
9	27	20.1%
10	15	11.2%
11	5	3.7%
Итого	134	100%

Примечание. Один респондент не указал класс.

Распределение участников по полу представлено в таблице 2.

Таблица 2. Распределение участников по полу (N = 133)

Пол	n	%
Мужской	66	49.6%
Женский	64	48.1%
Не указали	3	2.3%
Итого	133	100%

Примечание. Двое респондентов не ответили на данный вопрос.

Разработка инструмента исследования

Основным инструментом сбора данных являлся структурированный онлайн-опросник, разработанный специально для данного исследования. При составлении анкеты учитывались цель исследования, поставленные исследовательские вопросы и основные направления анализа: использование ИИ в изучении английского языка, отношение учащихся к ИИ, воспринимаемые преимущества и возможные трудности. Анкета состояла из шести разделов и 16 вопросов. Раздел 1 содержал общие социально-демографические сведения (класс, пол). Раздел 2 был посвящён характеру использования ИИ-инструментов (факт использования, частота, выбор конкретных платформ и цели применения). Раздел 3 включал шкалу Лайкерта (1 - «полностью не согласен», 5 - «полностью согласен») из шести утверждений, отражающих отношение учащихся к ИИ. Разделы 4 и 5 были посвящены воспринимаемым преимуществам и трудностям, а Раздел 6 содержал открытый вопрос о предпочтительных способах использования ИИ в обучении.

Надёжность шкалы Лайкерта (вопросы Q7-Q11) была проверена с помощью коэффициента альфа Кронбаха. Полученное значение $\alpha = 0.881$ свидетельствует о высокой внутренней согласованности шкалы и правомерности её использования в качестве единого индекса «отношения к ИИ».

В исследовании приняли участие 135 учащихся 5-11 классов. Распределение выборки по классам и полу представлено в таблицах 1 и 2. Выборка является практически гендерно-сбалансированной: 49.6% составили юноши, 48.1% девушки.

Пилотное исследование

До начала основного сбора данных анкета была проверена в рамках пилотного исследования. Пилотирование проводилось 14 мая среди учащихся 9 класса, в котором автор исследования в тот период преподавала английский язык. Цель пилотного исследования заключалась в оценке понятности формулировок, логики расположения вопросов, продолжительности заполнения и удобства использования онлайн-формы.

Участникам было предложено сообщить, какие вопросы показались им непонятными, слишком сложными или неоднозначными. На основе полученной обратной связи в анкету был добавлен шестой раздел с открытым вопросом о предпочтительных способах использования ИИ в обучении. Это позволило расширить качественный компонент исследования и получить более развёрнутые мнения учащихся.

Пилотное исследование позволило проверить практическую применимость анкеты до её распространения среди основной группы участников. Данные, полученные в ходе пилотирования, не были включены в основной массив данных.

Процедура сбора данных

Сбор данных проводился в онлайн-формате с использованием Google Forms. Пилотное исследование было проведено 14 мая, основной опрос — 20 мая. Ссылка на анкету была предоставлена учащимся через классных руководителей с помощью мессенджеров. Опрос охватывал учащихся 5–11 классов и проводился в течение двух учебных смен.

Перед началом заполнения участникам была представлена краткая информация о цели исследования, добровольном характере участия, конфиденциальности ответов и возможности отказаться от участия. Заполнение анкеты занимало примерно 10–15 минут. Участники отвечали на вопросы самостоятельно, без необходимости указывать имя, фамилию или другие сведения, позволяющие непосредственно установить личность респондента.

Этические аспекты

Исследование проводилось с соблюдением основных этических принципов научной работы: добровольности участия, информированного согласия, конфиденциальности и анонимности данных. До заполнения анкеты участникам сообщалась цель исследования, характер предстоящего участия, предполагаемая продолжительность опроса и способы использования собранной информации.

Поскольку в исследовании участвовали несовершеннолетние учащиеся, участие в опросе предполагало добровольное согласие школьников. Факт заполнения анкеты рассматривался как выражение согласия на участие в исследовании.

Разрешение на проведение исследования было получено от администрации школы № 98. В связи с внутренними правилами школы формальное этическое одобрение в виде отдельного документа не требовалось; разрешение было предоставлено в устной форме. Исследование проводилось в период работы автора в данной школе в качестве учителя английского языка.

Все данные использовались исключительно в обобщённом виде и только для научных целей. Результаты представлены без указания имён и другой персональной информации участников.

Обработка и анализ данных

Данные были экспортированы из Google Forms в формат Microsoft Excel, преобразованы в файл SPSS (.sav) с перекодировкой всех переменных в числовой формат.

Ответы шкалы Лайкерта закодированы по пятибалльной порядковой шкале. Вопросы с множественным выбором трансформированы в набор бинарных дихотомических переменных (0/1). Статистический анализ проводился с применением следующих методов: частотный и описательный анализ; коэффициент альфа Кронбаха; критерий Манна-Уитни (сравнение двух независимых групп по порядковым переменным); критерий Краскела-Уоллиса (сравнение нескольких групп); критерий корреляции Спирмена; критерий хи-квадрат Пирсона (для номинальных переменных).

Результаты исследования

Использование инструментов ИИ в обучении

Подавляющее большинство респондентов (71.6%, $n = 96$) сообщили, что когда-либо использовали инструменты ИИ для изучения английского языка; 28.4% ($n = 38$) заявили об обратном. Среди тех кто использует ИИ, наиболее распространённой частотой применения оказалась категория «редко» (30.1%), за ней следуют «иногда» (27.8%), «часто» (21.8%), «никогда» (12.0%) и «всегда» (8.3%).

Наиболее популярным инструментом является ChatGPT, который используют 82.2% учащихся. На втором месте Gemini (40.7%). Grammarly и прочие инструменты применяются значительно реже (6.7% и 7.4% соответственно). Распределение по инструментам представлено в таблице 3.

Таблица 3. Распределение по используемым инструментам ИИ ($N = 135$)

Инструмент ИИ	n	%
ChatGPT	111	82.2%
Gemini	55	40.7%
Grammarly	9	6.7%
Другие инструменты	10	7.4%

Примечание. Вопрос предполагал множественный выбор; сумма процентов превышает 100%.

Основными целями использования ИИ являются написание эссе и текстов (42.2%), перевод слов и предложений (37.0%), изучение новых слов (37.0%) и проверка грамматики (34.1%). Практика разговорной речи отмечена лишь 15.6% учащихся, что свидетельствует о преимущественно рецептивном, а не интерактивном характере использования ИИ (таблица 4).

Таблица 4. Цели использования инструментов ИИ ($N = 135$)

Цель использования ИИ	n	%
Написание эссе и текстов	57	42.2%
Перевод слов и предложений	50	37.0%
Изучение новых слов	50	37.0%
Проверка грамматики	46	34.1%
Выполнение домашнего задания	38	28.1%
Практика разговорной речи	21	15.6%

Примечание. Вопрос предполагал множественный выбор.

Отношение учащихся к инструментам ИИ

Описательная статистика по шести утверждениям шкалы Лайкерта представлена в таблице 5. В целом учащиеся демонстрируют позитивное отношение к ИИ-инструментам. Наиболее высокая оценка получена по утверждению «ИИ удобен и прост в использовании» ($M = 4.35$, $SD = 0.95$), тогда как мотивация ($M = 3.84$) и снижение критического мышления ($M = 3.84$) оцениваются несколько ниже.

Таблица 5. Описательная статистика шкалы Лайкерта (Q7–Q12, N = 135)

Утверждение	M	SD	Md
Q7. ИИ помогает эффективнее изучать английский язык	4.08	1.07	4.0
Q8. ИИ удобен и прост в использовании	4.35	0.95	5.0
Q9. Мне нравится использовать ИИ в обучении	3.96	1.10	4.0
Q10. ИИ повышает мотивацию к обучению	3.84	1.13	4.0
Q11. ИИ помогает быть самостоятельным в обучении	4.05	1.01	4.0
Q12. ИИ снижает критическое мышление	3.84	1.23	4.0

Примечание. M — среднее значение; SD — стандартное отклонение; Md — медиана. Шкала: 1 = полностью не согласен, 5 = полностью согласен.

Сводный индекс отношения к ИИ, рассчитанный как среднее значений Q7–Q11, составил M = 4.06 (SD = 0.87), что интерпретируется как положительное отношение учащихся к применению ИИ-инструментов в учебном процессе.

Связь класса с частотой использования ИИ и отношением к нему

Для сравнения возрастных групп учащихся (5-6, 7-8, 9-10 и 11 классы) по частоте использования ИИ и сводному индексу отношения был применён критерий Краскела-Уоллиса. Результаты показали статистически значимые различия по частоте использования ИИ (H = 24.16, p < 0.001): старшеклассники (9-11 классы) прибегают к ИИ существенно чаще, чем учащиеся 5–8 классов. Кроме того, корреляция Спирмена подтвердила значимую положительную связь между классом и частотой использования ИИ ($\rho = 0.379$, p < 0.001).

Различия по сводному индексу отношения к ИИ в зависимости от класса также оказались статистически значимыми (H = 8.31, p = 0.040): учащиеся 5-6 классов демонстрируют наиболее позитивное отношение (M = 4.31), тогда как у одиннадцатиклассников этот показатель несколько ниже (M = 3.64), что может свидетельствовать о более критической оценке ИИ с возрастом. Средние значения по группам представлены в таблице 6.

Таблица 6. Средние значения по классам (критерий Краскела–Уоллиса)

Переменная	5–6 кл.	7–8 кл.	9–10 кл.	11 кл.
Частота использования ИИ (Q4)	2.52	2.48	3.40	4.00
Индекс отношения к ИИ (Q7–Q11)	4.31	3.93	3.94	3.64

Примечание. Частота использования: 1 = никогда, 5 = всегда. Индекс отношения: среднее Q7–Q11, шкала 1–5. Различия по частоте: H = 24.16, p < 0.001. Различия по индексу отношения: H = 8.31, p = 0.040.

Гендерные различия

Критерий Манна-Уитни не выявил статистически значимых гендерных различий ни по одному из утверждений шкалы Лайкерта (p > 0.05 по всем параметрам). Аналогично, критерий хи-квадрат не обнаружил значимой связи между полом и фактом использования ИИ ($\chi^2 = 2.79$, df = 2, p = 0.248). Таким образом, отношение к ИИ и характер его использования не определяются гендерным фактором в данной выборке.

Корреляция частоты использования ИИ с отношением к нему

Корреляционный анализ Спирмена (таблица 7) показал, что частота использования ИИ значимо положительно связана с восприятием его эффективности (Q7: $\rho = 0.223$, p = 0.010) и удобства (Q8: $\rho = 0.180$, p = 0.038). Остальные параметры — удовольствие от использования, мотивация, самостоятельность и воспринимаемое снижение критического мышления — значимых корреляций с частотой не обнаружили. Это свидетельствует о том, что более

активные пользователи воспринимают ИИ как более эффективный и удобный инструмент, однако данная связь не распространяется на эмоциональные и мотивационные аспекты.

Таблица 7. Корреляции Спирмена: частота использования ИИ (Q4) и параметры шкалы отношения (N = 135)

Переменная	rho	p
Q7. Эффективность обучения с ИИ	0.223	0.010*
Q8. Удобство использования ИИ	0.180	0.038*
Q9. Удовольствие от ИИ	0.157	0.071
Q10. Мотивация к обучению	-0.010	0.913
Q11. Самостоятельность в обучении	0.054	0.534
Q12. Снижение критич. мышления	0.033	0.704

Примечание. rho — коэффициент корреляции Спирмена; * $p < 0.05$.

Воспринимаемые преимущества и трудности

Главными преимуществами использования ИИ учащиеся считают экономию времени (46.7%), улучшение понимания грамматики (42.2%) и ускорение усвоения материала (41.5%). Менее трети респондентов указали на улучшение навыков письма (23.0%) и возможность самостоятельного обучения (25.9%). Распределение ответов представлено в таблице 8.

Таблица 8. Воспринимаемые преимущества использования ИИ (N = 135)

Воспринимаемые преимущества	n	%
Экономия времени	63	46.7%
Лучшее понимание грамматики	57	42.2%
Более быстрое усвоение материала	56	41.5%
Более интересный процесс обучения	37	27.4%
Возможность обучаться самостоятельно	35	25.9%
Улучшение навыков письма	31	23.0%

Примечание. Вопрос предполагал множественный выбор.

Среди трудностей наиболее часто упоминается риск неточных или неправильных ответов (45.9%), зависимость от ИИ (34.8%) и снижение самостоятельного мышления (24.4%). Примечательно, что каждый четвёртый учащийся (25.2%) не отметил каких-либо трудностей. Опасение по поводу чрезмерного использования ИИ разделяют 57.8% учащихся, которые согласились или полностью согласились с утверждением о том, что ИИ может делать учащихся более ленивыми (Q15: $M = 3.65$, $SD = 1.12$), что демонстрирует двойственное восприятие ИИ-инструментов (таблица 9).

Таблица 9. Трудности при использовании инструментов ИИ (N = 135)

Трудности при использовании ИИ	n	%
Неточные/неправильные ответы ИИ	62	45.9%
Зависимость от ИИ	47	34.8%
Трудностей нет	34	25.2%
Снижение самостоятельного мышления	33	24.4%
Сложность понимания объяснений ИИ	32	23.7%
Проблемы с доступом к интернету	21	15.6%

Примечание. Вопрос предполагал множественный выбор.

Выводы

Реализованное нами исследование подтвердило гипотезу о ключевом влиянии ИИ на школьников и на их образование в целом, а также показало, как на самом деле учащиеся взаимодействуют с искусственным интеллектом. Результаты исследования показывают, что инструменты ИИ активно используются учащимися 5–11 классов для изучения английского языка, при этом наиболее востребованными функциями являются написание текстов, перевод, изучение лексики и проверка грамматики. Учащиеся в целом демонстрируют положительное отношение к ИИ, высоко оценивая его эффективность и удобство. Выявлена значимая связь между классом учащегося и частотой использования ИИ: старшеклассники применяют ИИ-инструменты чаще, однако их отношение к ИИ несколько более критично по сравнению с младшими школьниками. Гендерные различия в отношении к ИИ и характере его использования не обнаружены. Основными преимуществами ИИ учащиеся считают экономию времени и улучшение понимания грамматики, а ключевыми трудностями – риск получения неточной информации и возможную зависимость от технологии. Полученные данные свидетельствуют о двойственном восприятии ИИ: учащиеся признают его образовательную ценность, но одновременно осознают связанные с ним риски.

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INCREASING THE LEVEL OF DISCURSIVE COMPETENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH
AT HIGH SCHOOL

Abstract

The article examines the systematic development of high school students' discursive competence in English language teaching. The study aims to develop a methodological model integrating communicative, task-based, and genre-based approaches. The research methods include theoretical analysis, comparative synthesis, and pedagogical modeling. A four-stage cycle is proposed, encompassing discourse observation, planning, communicative task performance, and reflection. The model is designed to develop coherence and cohesion, turn-taking management, appropriate genre and register selection, and pragmatic appropriateness. Its implementation involves discussions, debates, role-play situations, problem-solving tasks, storytelling, and digital multimodal projects. An analytical assessment framework based on five criteria is presented, along with practical recommendations for teachers. The model is described not as the outcome of an empirical experiment but as a theoretically grounded framework ready for subsequent validation in school practice.

Keywords: *discursive competence, English language teaching, communicative task, digital multimodality, assessment*

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ЖОҒАРЫ СЫНЫПТАРДА АҒЫЛШЫН ТІЛІН ОҚЫТУ БАРЫСЫНДА ДИСКУРСЫҚ ҚҰЗЫРЕТТІЛІК ДЕҢГЕЙІН АРТТЫРУ

Аңдатпа

Мақалада жоғары сынып оқушыларының ағылшын тіліндегі дискурсивтік құзыреттілігін жүйелі дамыту мәселесі қарастырылады. Зерттеудің мақсаты - коммуникативтік, тапсырмаға негізделген және жанрлық оқыту қағидаларын біріктіретін әдістемелік модель ұсыну. Теориялық талдау, салыстырмалы синтез және педагогикалық модельдеу әдістері қолданылды. Нәтижесінде мәтіннің тұтастығын, байланыстылығын, сөйлеу кезегін басқаруды, жанр мен регистрді таңдауды және прагматикалық сәйкестікті қамтитын төрт кезеңді цикл әзірленді. Цикл дискурсты байқау, жоспарлау, орындау және рефлексия кезеңдерінен тұрады. Оны пікірталас, дебат, рөлдік жағдаят, проблемалық тапсырма, әңгімелеу және цифрлық мультимодальды жоба арқылы жүзеге асыру ұсынылады. Мақалада бес критерийден тұратын аналитикалық бағалау жүйесі мен мұғалімге арналған практикалық ұсынымдар берілген. Ұсынылған модель нақты эксперимент нәтижесі ретінде емес, мектеп жағдайында тексеруге дайын теориялық-әдістемелік құрылым ретінде сипатталады.

Кілт сөздер: *дискурсивтік құзыреттілік, ағылшын тілін оқыту, коммуникативтік тапсырма, цифрлық мультимодальдылық, бағалау*

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ПОВЫШЕНИЕ УРОВНЯ ДИСКУРСИВНОЙ КОМПЕТЕНЦИИ ПРИ ОБУЧЕНИИ АНГЛИЙСКОМУ ЯЗЫКУ В СТАРШИХ КЛАССАХ

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается системное развитие дискурсивной компетенции старшеклассников при обучении английскому языку. Цель исследования состоит в разработке методической модели, объединяющей коммуникативный, заданный и жанровый подходы. Используются методы теоретического анализа, сравнительного синтеза и педагогического моделирования. Предложен четырехэтапный цикл, охватывающий наблюдение за дискурсом, планирование, выполнение коммуникативной задачи и рефлексия. Модель направлена на развитие связности и цельности высказывания, управление очередностью реплик, выбор жанра и регистра, а также прагматическую уместность. Ее реализация предполагает дискуссии, дебаты, ролевые ситуации, проблемные задания, рассказывание историй и цифровые мультимодальные проекты. Представлена аналитическая система оценивания по пяти критериям и сформулированы практические рекомендации для учителей. Модель описывается не как результат проведенного эксперимента, а как теоретически обоснованная структура, готовая к последующей проверке в школьной практике.

Ключевые слова: дискурсивная компетенция, обучение английскому языку, коммуникативное задание, цифровая мультимодальность, оценивание

Introduction

Successful English use at high school requires more than accurate sentences. Learners must connect ideas across turns and paragraphs, signal relationships, maintain a topic, adjust register, and respond to other speakers. These abilities form discursive competence, the part of language ability that turns separate linguistic resources into purposeful communication. The issue is particularly important in upper-secondary education because students increasingly participate in presentations, discussions, project work, written argumentation, and digitally mediated interaction. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages treats reception, production, interaction, mediation, and pragmatic competence as interdependent dimensions of language use and provides descriptors that emphasize coherence, thematic development, turn-taking, and propositional precision [1]. This orientation shifts classroom attention from isolated forms to sustained meaning-making.

The theoretical basis of communicative language teaching also supports this shift. Canale and Swain distinguished grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse-related, and strategic dimensions of communicative ability, showing that knowledge of rules does not automatically produce effective communication [2]. A learner may control vocabulary and grammar but still produce disconnected statements, repeat the same linking devices, ignore a partner's contribution, or use an unsuitable style. Such performance indicates a gap between sentence-level knowledge and the capacity to construct discourse.

High-school instruction may maintain this gap when lessons are dominated by short answers, predetermined dialogues, translation, or decontextualized grammar practice. These activities support accuracy but give limited practice in managing a complete communicative event. Students need recurring opportunities to interpret authentic discourse, plan extended contributions, negotiate meaning, and revise performance after feedback.

The aim of this theoretical and methodological study is to design a coherent model for increasing discursive competence in English language teaching at high school. The research question is: how can communicative, task-based, genre-based, and digitally supported practices be organized into a teachable cycle that develops both individual text construction and interactional control? The scientific novelty lies in the proposed Discourse Competence Development Cycle, which integrates noticing, planning, performance, and reflective reconstruction with a five-criterion assessment framework. Because no primary classroom dataset was supplied, the article does not report experimental gains. It presents a model that can be implemented and tested in a subsequent school-based study.

To specify the construct underlying this study, discursive competence can be defined as the ability to organize spoken, written, and multimodal language into coherent, cohesive, contextually appropriate communication. In the pedagogically motivated model developed by Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell, discourse competence occupies a central position because linguistic, actional, sociocultural, and strategic resources become communicatively meaningful through their organization in discourse [3]. This view is valuable for school instruction: it prevents teachers from reducing discourse to a list of connectors and requires attention to how ideas, intentions, identities, and relationships are managed over time.

Cohesion is the visible linguistic dimension of this organization. Reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical relations help listeners and readers trace meaning across clauses. Halliday and Hasan established that such ties contribute to texture, although the presence of cohesive devices alone does not guarantee a coherent message [4]. In classroom practice, students therefore need to examine both form and function. For example, they should identify what a pronoun refers to, why a contrast marker is used, how lexical repetition maintains a topic, and whether the sequence of propositions supports the intended argument.

Coherence depends on the conceptual organization that a listener or reader can infer. A coherent contribution has a recognizable purpose, a controlled topic, relevant support, and an intelligible progression. It may follow a problem-solution, claim-evidence, cause-effect, chronological, or comparison structure. Genre awareness helps learners predict these patterns, while register awareness guides vocabulary, stance, politeness, and formality. Pragmatic appropriateness connects discourse to participants and situation.

Spoken discourse adds the challenge of co-construction. Participants must enter and leave turns, show active listening, repair misunderstanding, invite clarification, develop another speaker's idea, and disagree without closing interaction. Research on interactional competence describes performance as jointly achieved rather than as the sum of independent speaking turns [5]. Consequently, assessment should not reward fluency alone. It should also capture responsiveness, topic development, listener support, and the ability to maintain a productive exchange.

For this study, discursive competence is operationalized through five components: coherence; cohesion; interaction management; genre and register control; and pragmatic appropriateness. Strategic competence supports them when learners paraphrase, request help, reformulate, or plan. Multimodal resources contribute when images, captions, voice, and sequence clarify meaning. This definition supplies the objectives and assessment criteria for the proposed model.

Materials and methods

The study used theoretical analysis, comparative synthesis, and pedagogical modelling. The material covered communicative and discourse competence, cohesion, interaction, speaking instruction, task-based learning, and digital multimodal composing. Official framework documentation and peer-reviewed publications were prioritized. The analysis compared constructs, instructional principles, scaffolding, assessment, and relevance to secondary language learning.

The modelling procedure grouped recurrent features into five components, mapped classroom practices to observable evidence, and sequenced them by the support learners require before, during, and after communication. Constructive alignment required the discourse feature, task, feedback, and assessment evidence to address the same objective.

The model also draws on a holistic approach connecting awareness, input, planning, performance, feedback, repetition, and reflection [6]. These principles were adapted for written and multimodal discourse. The method establishes conceptual coherence and testability, not causal effectiveness. Empirical validation would require comparable pre- and post-tasks, trained raters, and a documented instructional period.

Results and discussion

The theoretical synthesis yields a proposed Discourse Competence Development Cycle consisting of four recurring phases: Notice, Design, Perform, and Reconstruct. The phases can be completed within one extended lesson or distributed across a short unit. Each cycle focuses on one communicative event, such as a discussion, debate, story, problem-solving meeting, explanatory presentation, review, or digital narrative. The teacher begins with the discourse outcome and then chooses language support. This backward sequence prevents the lesson from becoming a collection of unrelated vocabulary, grammar, and technology activities.

During Notice, learners study a short authentic or teacher-curated model. They identify purpose, audience, stages, topic progression, cohesive signals, turn-taking moves, and register. A transcript can distinguish claims, evidence, responses, and repair. Students may compare an effective model with a fragmented version and explain why one is easier to follow. Audio and video make pacing, intonation, listener responses, and multimodal cues observable. The purpose is guided noticing, not imitation.

During Design, learners create a discourse plan rather than a full script. The plan contains the intended outcome, two or three stages, key ideas, possible evidence, interaction moves, and a limited bank of useful expressions. Task-based instruction is relevant here because a meaningful outcome gives learners a reason to select and adapt language while planning support reduces avoidable overload [7]. A problem-solving group might allocate roles and agree on decision criteria; a debater might prepare a claim, warrant, counterargument, and concession; a storyteller might organize setting, disruption, response, and resolution. The teacher differentiates support through planning frames, discourse-marker banks, model openings, or optional challenge prompts.

During Perform, students use English to complete the communicative task. Pair and group discussions should include an information or opinion gap so that participants must listen and respond. Debate develops claim-evidence relations and controlled disagreement. Role-play requires register and pragmatic adjustment. Storytelling develops temporal coherence and reference. Text reconstruction makes cohesive relations visible through sequencing decisions. Repetition with a new partner retains the communicative purpose while improving organization and delivery.

Genre-based scaffolding strengthens this phase when it makes social purpose and structural choices explicit without prescribing identical texts. Genre pedagogy treats successful performance as access to recognizable ways of organizing meaning for particular communities [8]. In high-school English, teachers can jointly deconstruct a model, jointly construct one response with the class, and then move toward independent production. Scaffolds should be removed gradually. If students continue reading complete scripts, the activity measures prepared reading rather than discursive control.

Collaboration should produce accountable discourse, not simply divide labour. Collaborative writing research shows the value of shared planning, negotiation, and joint revision when learners have a reason to discuss language and content choices [9]. A useful protocol assigns rotating functions such as facilitator, evidence checker, coherence monitor, and summarizer. Roles guide attention but should not restrict participation. After the task, each student should still produce an individual oral or written reflection so that the teacher can distinguish group success from individual learning.

Digital work extends audiences and modes. Students can record an explanation, annotate a transcript, rearrange a shared outline, comment on an argument, or create a short digital story. A systematic review of multimodality in English classrooms identifies mode selection and explicit metalanguage as pedagogical concerns [10]. Research on secondary classrooms shows that digital multimodal composition can connect language, identity, and purposeful production when learners receive design and linguistic support [11]. Teachers should limit tools, protect privacy, provide non-digital alternatives, and assess how modes contribute to meaning.

During Reconstruct, learners use evidence to improve the discourse. They review a recording, transcript, collaborative document, or observer notes; select one successful feature and one priority for revision; and then reproduce a key segment. The revision may involve moving an idea, replacing an unclear reference, adding a response to a partner, adjusting register, or deleting a connector that does not express the intended relation. A genre-based model for assessing digital multimodal composing demonstrates the importance of linking communicative purpose, organization, language, and modal choices within one assessment logic [12]. The same principle applies here: feedback must describe the effectiveness of the whole communicative event, not count isolated errors.

A four-lesson unit illustrates the cycle. Lesson one compares discussion clips and establishes success criteria. Lesson two introduces a community problem and supports planning with claim-evidence and turn-taking prompts. Lesson three records a group discussion, followed by peer assessment and a targeted mini-lesson. Lesson four repeats the discussion with changed roles and adds individual reflection. The sequence provides comparable evidence without presenting hypothetical scores as completed research.

The principal result of the theoretical synthesis is a teachable alignment between construct, activity, evidence, and feedback. The five-component construct identifies what discursive competence means; the four-phase cycle identifies how it can be practised; the communicative event supplies observable evidence; and reconstruction turns assessment into further learning. This alignment addresses a common weakness in language lessons where teachers state a broad speaking objective but assess grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency without examining how the message is organized or co-constructed.

Assessment can use five criteria scored from 0 to 3: coherence; cohesion; interaction management; genre and register control; and pragmatic appropriateness. A score of 0 indicates that the feature is absent or prevents communication. A score of 1 indicates emerging control with frequent breakdowns or heavy support. A score of 2 indicates generally effective control with occasional lapses. A score of 3 indicates sustained, flexible, and audience-appropriate control. The maximum score is 15. Descriptors should be adapted to the target task, and samples should be discussed before grading. For a written text, interaction management can be reframed as anticipation of the reader and response to alternative positions; for a group discussion, it includes turn entry, uptake, clarification, and repair.

The model predicts improvement through three mechanisms. Repeated noticing builds an explicit repertoire of discourse options. Supported performance shifts this knowledge into communicative use. Reconstruction makes comparison possible between intention and evidence. Digital recordings and shared texts strengthen the third mechanism because they preserve performance for review, but they do not replace teacher judgement or peer dialogue. Current research on digital multimodal composing calls for closer attention to task design, learner agency, assessment, and the relationship between linguistic development and modal choices [13]. The proposed cycle responds by placing technology inside an explicit learning sequence.

The model has not been validated with a defined school sample. Its phases and criteria require testing across proficiency levels, genres, and contexts. Raters need training because judgments of coherence and pragmatic appropriateness can vary, while digital production may create access differences. Future research should report context, establish inter-rater agreement, and compare component scores rather than only a total speaking score. Student reflections could help explain transfer to new tasks.

For classroom implementation, teachers should select one discourse focus for each cycle. The model text, task instructions, observation sheet, and feedback should foreground that focus. Short, frequent cycles are manageable and let learners apply feedback while the earlier performance is still memorable.

Feedback should begin with meaning and organization. Teachers can ask whether the audience understood the purpose, where the topic became unclear, and which contribution advanced the discussion. Language correction then targets patterns that affected the discourse. Peer feedback should use no more than two criteria. Students should rehearse, repeat, and reconstruct before a final judgment.

Schools can implement the model with ordinary resources. A phone recorder, word processor, shared slide, printed transcript, or paper cards are sufficient. Consent and privacy procedures are necessary when recordings or online platforms are used, and public posting should never be required. For mixed-proficiency classes, the teacher can vary planning support, task complexity, and expected length while keeping the same communicative purpose. Progress should be documented through a small portfolio containing an initial sample, one annotated reflection, a reconstructed sample, and the rubric.

Conclusion

Discursive competence gives learners control over communication beyond the sentence. It integrates coherence, cohesion, interaction management, genre and register awareness, and pragmatic appropriateness. High-school instruction can develop these abilities when students repeatedly analyse complete communicative events, plan for a real outcome, perform with others, and reconstruct their discourse from evidence.

The Discourse Competence Development Cycle offers a practical structure for this work. Its contribution is the alignment of four instructional phases with five assessment criteria across spoken, written, and multimodal tasks. The model does not claim measured effectiveness without classroom data. It provides a transparent basis for implementation and empirical testing, enabling future studies to examine which components improve, under what conditions, and whether learners transfer them to unfamiliar audiences and genres.

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THE EFFECT OF DIGITAL MEDIA-BASED INSTRUCTION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AMONG SENIOR SCHOOL STUDENTS

Abstract

Digital media can offer English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners authentic language input and meaningful opportunities for communication. However, empirical evidence on the effect of digital media-based instruction on the communicative competence of senior school students remains limited. This study examined whether the systematic integration of digital media materials into English-language instruction was associated with greater short-term gains in foreign language communicative competence among Grade 10 learners than regular instruction alone. A quasi-experimental pre-test–post-test design with a non-equivalent comparison group was used. The participants were 26 Grade 10 EFL learners from a gymnasium in Almaty, Kazakhstan, divided into an experimental group ($n = 13$) and a comparison group ($n = 13$). Over four weeks, the experimental group studied English through lessons systematically built around digital media materials, including online news reports, short videos, interviews, podcasts, and online articles. The comparison group followed the same curriculum through regular textbook-based instruction. Communicative competence was assessed through listening, reading, speaking, and writing tasks before and after the intervention. Both groups improved, but the experimental group demonstrated a larger overall gain. The greatest improvement occurred in listening and speaking, while reading and writing improved more moderately. Given the small sample, non-random assignment, short intervention period, and single-school setting, the findings provide preliminary evidence of the short-term potential of digital media-based instruction rather than definitive evidence of a causal or long-term effect.

Key words: *digital media, media-based instruction, foreign language communicative competence, EFL, senior school students, English language teaching, quasi-experimental study.*

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ЦИФРЛЫҚ АҚПАРАТ ҚҰРАЛДАРЫНА НЕГІЗДЕЛГЕН ОҚЫТУДЫҢ ЖОҒАРЫ СЫНЫП ОҚУШЫЛАРЫНЫҢ ШЕТЕЛТІЛДІК КОММУНИКАТИВТІК ҚҰЗЫРЕТТІЛІГІНІҢ ДАМУЫНА ӘСЕРІ

Аңдатпа

Цифрлық медиа ағылшын тілін шетел тілі ретінде оқытын студенттерге шынайы тілдік материалды және нақты қарым-қатынас мүмкіндіктерін ұсына алады. Дегенмен, жоғары сынып оқушыларының шеттілдік коммуникативтік құзыреттілігіне цифрлық медианы пайдалана отырып оқытудың әсері туралы эмпирикалық деректер әлі де шектеулі. Бұл зерттеу цифрлық медиа материалдарын ағылшын тілін оқыту процесіне жүйелі түрде енгізу әдеттегідей оқытумен салыстырғанда 10-сынып оқушыларының коммуникативтік құзыреттілігін неғұрлым қысқа мерзімді жақсартуға әкелетіні туралы гипотезаны тексерді. Квази-эксперименттік дизайн алдын-ала және қорытынды тестілеумен және эквивалентті емес бақылау тобымен қолданылды. Алматыдағы (Қазақстан) мектеп-гимназиядан ағылшын тілін шетел тілі ретінде оқытын 10-сыныптың 26 оқушысы қатысты, олар эксперименттік топқа ($N = 13$) және бақылау тобына ($n = 13$) бөлінді. Төрт апта бойы эксперименттік топтың студенттері онлайн жаңалықтар, қысқа бейнелер, сұхбаттар, подкасттар және онлайн мақалаларды қоса алғанда, цифрлық медиа материалдарына негізделген сабақтарда ағылшын тілін үйренді. Бақылау тобының оқушылары оқулықтар бойынша дәстүрлі оқыту шеңберінде сол оқу бағдарламасынан өтті. Коммуникативтік құзыреттілік экспериментке дейін және одан кейін тыңдау, оқу, сөйлеу және жазу тапсырмалары арқылы бағаланды. Екі топта да білім деңгейі жақсарды, дегенмен эксперименттік топ айтарлықтай жалпы прогреске қол жеткізді. Тыңдау мен сөйлеуде ең үлкен прогресс байқалды, ал оқу мен жазу аз дәрежеде жақсарды. Шағын үлгіні, кездейсоқ емес қатысушыларды таңдауды, эксперименттің қысқа мерзімін және бір мектепте зерттеуді ескере отырып, нәтижелер себеп-салдарлық байланыстың немесе ұзақ мерзімді әсердің түпкілікті дәлелдерінен гөрі цифрлық медианы пайдалана отырып, қысқа мерзімді оқыту әлеуетінің алдын ала дәлелдерін береді.

Кілт сөздер: цифрлық медиа, медиаға бағытталған оқыту, шеттілдік коммуникативтік құзыреттілік, ағылшын тілі шетел тілі ретінде, жоғары сынып оқушылары, ағылшын тілін оқыту, квази-эксперименттік зерттеу.

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ВЛИЯНИЕ ОБУЧЕНИЯ НА ОСНОВЕ ЦИФРОВЫХ МЕДИА НА РАЗВИТИЕ ИНОЯЗЫЧНОЙ КОММУНИКАТИВНОЙ КОМПЕТЕНЦИИ У УЧАЩИХСЯ СТАРШИХ КЛАССОВ

Аннотация

Цифровые медиа могут предоставить учащимся, изучающим английский как иностранный язык, аутентичный языковой материал и реальные возможности для общения. Однако эмпирические данные о влиянии обучения с использованием цифровых медиа на коммуникативную компетенцию учащихся старших классов по-прежнему ограничены. В данном исследовании изучался вопрос о том, приводит ли систематическое внедрение материалов цифровых медиа в процесс преподавания английского языка к более

значительным краткосрочным улучшением коммуникативной компетенции в иностранном языке у учащихся 10-го класса по сравнению с привычным процессом обучения без использования таких материалов. Использовался квазиэкспериментальный дизайн «до-тест – после-тест» с неэквивалентной контрольной группой. Участниками стали 26 учащихся 10-го класса, изучающих английский как иностранный, из школы-гимназии в Алматы (Казахстан), которые были разделены на экспериментальную группу ($n = 13$) и контрольную группу ($n = 13$). В течение четырёх недель учащиеся экспериментальной группы изучали английский язык на уроках, систематически построенных на основе материалов цифровых медиа, включая онлайн-новости, короткие видеоролики, интервью, подкасты и онлайн-статьи. Учащиеся контрольной группы проходили ту же учебную программу в рамках привычного обучения по учебникам. Коммуникативная компетенция оценивалась с помощью заданий на аудирование, чтение, говорение и письмо до и после проведения эксперимента. Обе группы продемонстрировали улучшение результатов, однако экспериментальная группа показала более значительный общий прогресс. Наибольший прогресс был отмечен в навыках аудирования и говорения, тогда как навыки чтения и письма улучшились в меньшей степени. Учитывая небольшую выборку, неслучайное распределение участников, короткий период обучения и проведение исследования в рамках одной школы, полученные результаты дают предварительные свидетельства краткосрочного потенциала обучения с использованием цифровых медиа, а не являются окончательным доказательством причинно-следственной связи или долгосрочного эффекта.

Ключевые слова: цифровые медиа, медиа-ориентированное обучение, коммуникативная компетенция в иностранном языке, английский как иностранный язык, учащиеся старших классов, преподавание английского языка, квази-экспериментальное исследование.

Introduction

Communicative competence is a central aim of foreign language education because learners need not only knowledge of grammar and vocabulary but also the ability to use English appropriately in real communicative situations. Contemporary language classrooms increasingly draw on media resources, which give learners access to authentic language, multimodal content, and topics that can stimulate discussion and interaction. In this sense, media texts can serve not merely as sources of information but as materials for communicative language learning.

Previous research has shown that media and digital technologies may support the development of listening, speaking, vocabulary, and interactional skills. Media-based instruction can expose learners to language in context, combine visual and auditory input, and create opportunities for learners to interpret, discuss, and respond to meaningful content. At the same time, studies differ considerably in how they define and measure communicative competence. Some focus on separate language skills, while others include pragmatic, sociocultural, interactive, or strategic dimensions. In addition, much of the experimental evidence has been obtained with university students, whereas studies involving secondary-school learners more often examine perceptions, media habits, motivation, or self-efficacy rather than direct changes in communicative performance.

This gap is particularly relevant for senior school students, who are expected to move beyond basic language reproduction and use English to understand information, express opinions, and participate in discussion. The present study therefore examined whether systematic integration of digital media materials into English lessons was associated with greater short-term gains in communicative competence among Grade 10 EFL learners than regular instruction alone. In this study, “digital media” refers to online news reports, short videos, interviews, podcasts, online articles, and other multimodal English-language materials used in digital format. The term “mass

media” is used only when referring to the broader media environment from which such digital materials derive.

Literature Review

Foreign language communicative competence refers to learners’ ability to use a foreign language effectively and appropriately in meaningful communication. Models of communicative competence generally emphasize that successful communication requires more than grammatical accuracy; it also involves discourse organization, sociolinguistic appropriateness, and strategic language use (Mart, 2018). However, researchers operationalize the construct differently. Some studies assess individual skills such as listening, reading, speaking, writing, vocabulary, or pronunciation, while others include pragmatic, intercultural, interactional, or strategic abilities (Baimakhan et al., 2024; Bushi, 2021; Oryngali, 2025). Several empirical studies also rely on researcher-designed tests, rubrics, or perception-based measures without clearly linking them to an established competence model (Cabana-Basilan & Entimano, 2026; Khlyzova, 2019).

This inconsistency matters because the effectiveness of media-based instruction should be judged through learners’ communicative performance rather than through media exposure or learner perceptions alone. In the present study, communicative competence was operationalized as learners’ ability to comprehend and produce spoken and written English in meaningful communicative situations. The assessment focused on four observable performance areas: listening comprehension, reading comprehension, speaking, and writing. Speaking and writing were evaluated through analytic rubrics assessing fluency, coherence, vocabulary, grammatical accuracy, communicative appropriateness, and task fulfillment. Although this operationalization does not capture every dimension of communicative competence, such as intercultural or strategic competence, it provides a measurable classroom-based approximation appropriate for a short-term school intervention.

Media resources have long been considered valuable in language education because they provide linguistic, cultural, and communicative input beyond conventional textbooks. Studies have examined films, video, news, radio, podcasts, websites, and other media texts in relation to language skills, vocabulary development, intercultural awareness, and communication (Bushi, 2021; Gregori Signes, 2001; Khamrabaeva, 2023). Yet the pedagogical potential of media does not automatically demonstrate its effectiveness. Much of the literature remains conceptual or descriptive, proposing media-based activities without experimentally testing their influence on communicative competence (Gregori Signes, 2001; Rubtsova & Devdariani, 2021).

Empirical research generally suggests positive effects of media-supported language learning, although the strength of the evidence varies by educational level, research design, and outcome measure. Studies involving secondary-school learners have mainly explored perceptions, learning effort, self-efficacy, or related outcomes rather than measuring communicative competence directly (Cabana-Basilan & Entimano, 2026; Genç & Köksal, 2021; Shen & Li, 2024). More direct evidence comes from intervention studies with university students. Khlyzova (2019) reported differences between experimental and control groups after media-oriented instruction, while Oryngali (2025) found improvement following a pre-/post-intervention design. Mukhanbetbekkyzy and Kunakova (2025) likewise examined mass-media-based instruction using experimental and comparison groups. However, these studies focused on university learners, and their assessment procedures often lacked detailed reliability and validity evidence.

Thus, there is insufficient evidence combining senior school learners, a quasi-experimental pre-test/post-test design with a comparison group, and direct assessment of communicative performance within digital media-based instruction. The present study addresses this gap by examining the effect of systematically integrated digital media materials on the communicative competence of Grade 10 EFL learners.

Research design and participants

The study employed a quasi-experimental pre-test–post-test design with a non-equivalent comparison group. It was conducted at School-Gymnasium No. 86 in Almaty, Kazakhstan, and involved 26 Grade 10 EFL learners aged approximately 15–16 years. The students belonged to one Grade 10 class that was already divided into two English-language instructional groups of 13 students each. One group was designated as the experimental group (EG, $n = 13$), and the other as the comparison group (CG, $n = 13$). Because the groups were pre-existing instructional groups, individual random assignment was not possible.

Both groups followed the same general English curriculum and participated in the study for four weeks. Before the intervention, the groups were compared on their pre-test total and component scores to assess their initial comparability. No statistically significant between-group differences were found for listening ($U = 100.00$, $p = .438$), reading ($U = 99.50$, $p = .453$), speaking ($U = 100.50$, $p = .423$), writing ($U = 106.50$, $p = .266$), or total scores ($U = 101.50$, $p = .397$). The experimental group had a mean pre-test total score of 55.46 ($SD = 8.71$), compared with 52.38 ($SD = 8.45$) for the comparison group. Therefore, the groups were considered broadly comparable at baseline.

Intervention

The intervention lasted four weeks and consisted of 12 English lessons per week, with each lesson lasting 45 minutes. In total, the experimental group received 10 media-based lessons during the intervention period. All lessons were delivered face-to-face in the regular classroom. The experimental group was taught by the researcher, while the comparison group was taught by the English teacher who normally taught that group. Both groups studied equivalent curriculum topics during the intervention period.

The experimental group received instruction in which digital mass-media materials were systematically integrated into regular lesson procedures. The materials included online news reports, short news videos, interviews, podcasts, online articles, and other authentic or adapted multimodal texts in English. Materials were selected according to their relevance to Grade 10 learners, linguistic accessibility at approximately B1 level, connection to curriculum topics, and potential to generate communicative interaction.

Each media-based lesson followed a consistent structure. Lessons began with pre-viewing or pre-reading activities designed to activate learners' background knowledge and introduce key vocabulary. Learners then completed comprehension tasks based on the selected media text. This was followed by post-viewing or post-reading communicative activities, such as pair and group discussions, information exchange, opinion sharing, summarizing, role-play, and short written responses. Each lesson ended with a productive speaking or writing task connected to the media content.

The comparison group studied the same curriculum content through regular textbook-based instruction and conventional classroom activities without the systematic use of digital media materials. Intervention fidelity was monitored through lesson plans, teacher logs, and classroom observations. These records were used to verify that the planned instructional procedures were implemented throughout the four-week intervention.

Assessment instrument

Foreign language communicative competence was measured using researcher-developed parallel pre-test and post-test assessments. Each assessment consisted of four components: listening (20 points), reading (20 points), speaking (30 points), and writing (30 points), yielding a maximum total score of 100 points. The listening and reading components each consisted of 10 test items, with each item worth 2 points. Thus, each receptive skill had a maximum score of 20 points. These tasks assessed learners' comprehension of main ideas, specific information, and language in context. Speaking and writing were assessed using analytic scoring rubrics, each comprising five criteria

rated on a six-point scale from 0 to 6. Each productive skill had a maximum score of 30 points. The speaking rubric assessed fluency, vocabulary, grammatical accuracy, coherence, and communicative appropriateness. The writing rubric assessed content and communicative effectiveness, organization and coherence, vocabulary, grammatical accuracy, and appropriate language use.

The assessment was developed with reference to B1-level CEFR communicative descriptors and adapted to the learners' age and educational context. The assessment materials were reviewed by two experienced EFL teachers, who evaluated the alignment of the tasks with the intended construct, the appropriateness of the language level, the clarity of the instructions, and the suitability of the scoring criteria. In addition, three teacher colleagues reviewed the materials and provided feedback on task clarity and suitability. Before the main study, the assessment was piloted with four students from a different class who did not participate in the intervention. Feedback from the expert review and pilot testing was used to identify and address potential problems with task instructions and assessment procedures.

Speaking and writing performances were independently scored by two trained raters using the analytic rubrics. Before scoring, the raters participated in a calibration session and practiced scoring sample responses. Inter-rater reliability was to be examined using the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) for total rubric scores. Any disagreements between the raters were resolved through discussion.

The pre-test and post-test were designed as parallel forms. They had the same structure, task types, point allocation, and scoring criteria, but used different texts and tasks of approximately equivalent difficulty.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, medians, and score ranges, were calculated for the pre-test, post-test, and gain scores for both groups. Gain scores were calculated by subtracting each participant's pre-test score from their post-test score.

The normality of the score distributions was examined using the Shapiro–Wilk test and visual inspection of histograms and Q–Q plots. Given the small sample size and the non-randomized nature of the study, non-parametric tests were used as the primary inferential analyses.

Within-group changes from pre-test to post-test were analyzed using the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. Between-group differences in gain scores were examined using the Mann–Whitney U test. Effect sizes were reported as rank-biserial correlations.

As a supplementary analysis, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with the post-test total score as the dependent variable, group as the fixed factor, and pre-test total score as the covariate. The assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was examined by testing the interaction between group and pre-test total score. The interaction was not statistically significant ($p = .165$), supporting the use of the ANCOVA model.

Statistical significance was set at $p < .05$. Exact p-values were reported to three decimal places, while values below .001 were reported as $p < .001$.

Results

Before the intervention, the experimental and comparison groups demonstrated broadly similar overall performance. The experimental group obtained a mean pre-test score of 55.46%, while the comparison group obtained 52.38%. After the four-week intervention, the experimental group's mean score increased to 61.77%, whereas the comparison group's mean score increased to 53.69%. Thus, the experimental group improved by 6.31 percentage points, compared with 1.31 percentage points in the comparison group.

Table 1. Overall pre-test and post-test performance

Group	Pre-test	Post-test	Improvement
Experimental group	55.46%	61.77%	+6.31 pp
Comparison group	52.38%	53.69%	+1.31 pp

The Wilcoxon signed-rank test indicated a statistically significant improvement in the experimental group's total score ($W = 0$, $p < .001$). The comparison group also demonstrated a statistically significant improvement in total scores ($W = 0$, $p < .001$). The Mann–Whitney U test revealed a statistically significant difference between the groups in gain scores ($U = 169.00$, $p < .001$), with all experimental-group gain scores exceeding those of the comparison group.

The supplementary ANCOVA, controlling for pre-test performance, indicated a statistically significant effect of group on post-test total scores ($p < .001$). These results suggest that the experimental group demonstrated greater short-term gains in overall communicative performance than the comparison group during the intervention period.

At the component level, the experimental group improved in all four areas. As shown in Table 2, the largest gain was observed in listening, which increased from 65.77% to 75.00%, a rise of 9.23 percentage points. Speaking increased from 50.77% to 58.72%, or by 7.95 percentage points. Reading improved from 63.85% to 68.85%, and writing increased from 47.69% to 51.28%. The comparison group showed smaller changes across all components. Its largest gain was in reading, which increased by 3.85 percentage points, while changes in listening, speaking, and writing were relatively limited.

Table 2. Changes in individual communicative competence components

Component	Pre-test (EG)	Post-test (EG)	EG Improvement	Pre-test (CG)	Post-test (CG)	CG Improvement
Listening	65.77%	75.00%	+9.23 pp	62.31%	63.85%	+1.54 pp
Reading	63.85%	68.85%	+5.00 pp	60.77%	64.62%	+3.85 pp
Speaking	50.77%	58.72%	+7.95 pp	48.21%	48.72%	+0.51 pp
Writing	47.69%	51.28%	+3.59 pp	44.36%	44.62%	+0.26 pp

Overall, the experimental group demonstrated greater short-term improvement in communicative performance than the comparison group. However, given the small sample, non-random assignment, and short duration of the intervention, these findings should be interpreted as preliminary evidence of an association between the intervention and short-term gains rather than as definitive evidence of causality.

Discussion

The findings indicate that four weeks of digital media-based instruction were associated with greater improvement in foreign language communicative performance than regular instruction alone. Although both groups made some progress, the experimental group showed a larger overall gain and more noticeable improvement in listening and speaking. Given the quasi-experimental design, these results do not permit strong causal inference. Nevertheless, the combination of a comparison group, pre-test measurement, and a statistically significant difference in gain scores provides preliminary evidence that systematically integrated digital media materials may have contributed to the observed short-term improvement.

The stronger gains in listening and speaking may be related to the audiovisual and interactive nature of the intervention. Digital media materials exposed learners to spoken English supported by visual and contextual information, which may have provided intensive listening practice. In addition, the lessons required learners to discuss media content, exchange information, express opinions, and respond to communicative tasks. These activities likely created more opportunities for oral language use than conventional comprehension exercises. The smaller improvement in writing may reflect the short duration of the intervention, as written communicative ability usually requires more sustained and systematic practice.

The comparison group also improved, which was expected because students continued to receive regular English instruction. However, the substantially larger gain in the experimental group suggests that the observed difference cannot be explained solely by normal classroom learning. The digital media materials appear to have provided additional contextualized input and communicative opportunities that were less prominent in the regular instructional condition.

These findings are broadly consistent with previous research indicating that media-supported and digitally enriched instruction can contribute to language and communication skills (Khlyzova, 2019; Oryngali, 2025; Mukhanbetbekkyzy & Kunakova, 2025). The present study extends this evidence to senior school learners by using a pre-test/post-test comparison design and by assessing four components of communicative performance.

Several limitations should be considered. First, the sample included only 26 Grade 10 students from one school in Almaty, which limits generalizability. Second, the intervention lasted only four weeks, so the sustainability of the observed gains remains unknown. Third, the groups were pre-existing instructional groups rather than randomly assigned groups, and possible differences in motivation, teacher style, classroom climate, or out-of-school media use cannot be excluded. Fourth, the assessment was researcher-developed. Although it was reviewed by experts, piloted, and scored using analytic rubrics, it measured a selected set of communicative performance indicators rather than the full range of communicative competence. Finally, the study did not examine different types of digital media separately, so it cannot determine whether video, podcasts, news texts, or other formats had different effects.

Despite these limitations, the results suggest that digital media materials can be a promising complementary resource in secondary-school English instruction. Future research should use larger and more diverse samples, random assignment where feasible, longer interventions, delayed post-tests, and validated multidimensional measures of communicative competence. Future studies should also compare the effects of different media types on specific components of communicative competence.

Conclusion

This study examined the effect of digital media-based instruction on the short-term development of foreign language communicative competence among Grade 10 EFL learners. Both groups improved during the four-week period, but the experimental group demonstrated a greater overall gain, particularly in listening and speaking. The findings provide preliminary evidence that the systematic integration of digital media materials can complement regular English instruction by

offering contextualized language input and additional opportunities for communicative language use.

Nevertheless, the small sample, non-random assignment, single-school setting, short intervention period, and use of a researcher-developed assessment limit the generalizability and causal interpretation of the findings. Further research should examine the effects of digital media-based instruction over longer periods, with larger and more diverse samples, delayed post-tests, and more comprehensive measures of communicative competence.

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**THE EFFECT OF SEMANTIC PAUSING ON LISTENING COMPREHENSION
AND PERCEIVED COGNITIVE LOAD AMONG A2 EFL LEARNERS**

Abstract

The study examines the effect of semantic pausing on listening comprehension and perceived mental effort among A2-level EFL learners. The study involved 24 first-year students aged 15-16 from a vocational college. A counterbalanced within-subject design was employed, in which participants listened to two A2-level texts in both an original condition and a semantic-pause condition. The semantic-pause versions contained additional one-second pauses inserted at predetermined semantic boundaries, while the lexical, grammatical, and informational content remained unchanged. After each listening task, participants completed a 10-item comprehension test and provided a 9-point rating of perceived mental effort. The results showed a statistically significant improvement in listening comprehension in the semantic-pause condition compared with the original condition. However, the difference in perceived mental effort was not statistically significant, although a slight descriptive reduction was observed. The findings suggest that semantic pausing may provide A2-level learners with additional processing time and support their comprehension of spoken English without necessarily reducing their subjective perception of mental effort. The study contributes to research on temporal modifications of spoken input and suggests that strategically placed pauses may be a practical way of adapting listening materials for lower-proficiency EFL learners.

Keywords: *semantic pausing, listening comprehension, perceived mental effort, cognitive load, A2 EFL learners, second-language listening.*

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Аңдатпа

Мақалада ағылшын тілін шетел тілі ретінде А2 деңгейінде меңгеріп жүрген білім алушылардың тыңдалым арқылы түсінуіне және қабылданатын ақыл-ой күшіне семантикалық паузалардың әсері зерттеледі. Зерттеуге кәсіптік колледждің 15-16 жастағы 24 бірінші курс студенті қатысты. Теңгерімді ішкі топтық эксперименттік дизайн қолданылды. Зерттеу барысында қатысушылар А2 деңгейіне бейімделген екі аудиомәтінді бастапқы нұсқада және семантикалық паузалар енгізілген нұсқада тыңдады. Семантикалық паузалар нұсқасында алдын ала белгіленген мағыналық шекараларға бір секундтық қосымша паузалар енгізілді, ал мәтіндердің лексикалық, грамматикалық және ақпараттық мазмұны өзгеріссіз сақталды. Әрбір тыңдалым тапсырмасынан кейін қатысушылар 10 сұрақтан тұратын тыңдалым арқылы түсіну тестін орындап, қабылданатын ақыл-ой күшін 9 балдық шкала бойынша бағалады. Нәтижелер семантикалық паузалар қолданылған жағдайда тыңдалым арқылы түсіну көрсеткішінің бастапқы нұсқамен салыстырғанда статистикалық тұрғыдан маңызды деңгейде жоғарылағанын көрсетті. Сонымен қатар қабылданатын ақыл-ой күшіндегі айырмашылық статистикалық тұрғыдан маңызды болмады, дегенмен оның орташа көрсеткішінде аздаған төмендеу байқалды. Алынған нәтижелер семантикалық паузалардың А2 деңгейіндегі білім алушыларға келіп түсетін ақпаратты өңдеуге қосымша уақыт беріп, ауызша ақпаратты түсінуді қолдай алатынын көрсетеді, алайда бұл олардың субъективті қабылдайтын ақыл-ой күшін міндетті түрде төмендетпейді. Зерттеу ауызша сөйлеудің уақыттық ұйымдастырылуына қатысты зерттеулерді толықтырады және мағыналық шекараларға стратегиялық түрде орналастырылған паузаларды ағылшын тілін төмен деңгейде меңгеріп жүрген білім алушыларға арналған тыңдалым материалдарын бейімдеу құралы ретінде пайдалануға болатынын көрсетеді.

Түйін сөздер: *семантикалық паузалар, тыңдалым арқылы түсіну, қабылданатын ақыл-ой күші, когнитивтік жүктеме, А2 деңгейіндегі білім алушылар, шетел тілін тыңдау.*

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Аннотация

В статье исследуется влияние семантических пауз на понимание устной речи и воспринимаемое умственное усилие у учащихся уровня А2, изучающих английский язык как иностранный. В исследовании приняли участие 24 студента первого курса в возрасте 15-16 лет, обучающихся в профессиональном колледже. Был использован сбалансированный внутригрупповой экспериментальный дизайн, в рамках которого участники прослушивали два аудиотекста уровня А2 в оригинальном варианте и в варианте с семантическими паузами. В версии с паузами дополнительные паузы продолжительностью одну секунду были вставлены в заранее определённых семантических границах, при этом лексический, грамматический и информационный материал текстов оставался неизменным. После каждого задания на аудирование участники выполняли тест на понимание, состоящий из 10 вопросов, и оценивали воспринимаемое умственное усилие по 9-балльной шкале. Результаты показали статистически значимое улучшение понимания устной речи в условии с семантическими паузами по сравнению с оригинальным условием. Вместе с тем различия в воспринимаемом умственном усилии не достигли статистической значимости, несмотря на небольшое описательное снижение его среднего показателя. Полученные результаты позволяют предположить, что семантические паузы могут предоставлять учащимся уровня А2 дополнительное время для обработки поступающей информации и способствовать лучшему пониманию устной речи, не обязательно снижая субъективно воспринимаемое умственное усилие. Исследование дополняет работы, посвящённые временной организации устной речи, и показывает, что стратегически расположенные паузы могут использоваться для адаптации аудиоматериалов для учащихся с более низким уровнем владения английским языком.

Ключевые слова: семантические паузы, понимание устной речи, воспринимаемое умственное усилие, когнитивная нагрузка, учащиеся уровня А2, аудирование на иностранном языке.

Introduction

When learning a second language, students often struggle to comprehend spoken language because it requires information to be processed in real time. Unlike written input, which allows learners to reread a confusing passage or infer the meaning of an unfamiliar word from the surrounding context, spoken language is transient and provides limited opportunities for deliberate processing. While listening to a recording, learners must simultaneously recognize linguistic information, segment the speech stream, construct meaning, and retain relevant information as the message unfolds. Such demands can place a particularly heavy cognitive burden on learners with lower levels of English proficiency, as their limited linguistic knowledge may require greater cognitive effort when processing spoken input [1; 2].

From a cognitive perspective, spoken language comprehension involves several processes operating simultaneously. Goh [1] describes second-language listening as a process involving perception, parsing, and utilization, emphasizing that difficulties may arise when learners are unable to process incoming speech quickly enough. Similarly, Vandergrift and Goh [2] describe listening as an active process of constructing and monitoring meaning rather than merely receiving spoken information. For learners with lower language proficiency, the limited time available for processing may therefore become a significant source of difficulty. When faced with unfamiliar vocabulary,

rapid speech, or insufficiently segmented input, learners may struggle to retain previously processed information while simultaneously processing subsequent parts of the message [1; 2].

These difficulties can also be examined through the lens of Cognitive Load Theory (CLT). Sweller [3] posits that working memory has a limited capacity and that learning and comprehension can be hindered when information-processing demands exceed the cognitive resources available to the learner. This limitation is particularly relevant to foreign language listening, as learners must process linguistic information while the auditory material unfolds continuously over time. Jiang [4] applies Cognitive Load Theory specifically to foreign language listening and examines the relationship between cognitive load, working memory, language processing, and learners' levels of expertise. Consequently, instructional modifications that provide learners with additional opportunities to process incoming information may potentially make listening tasks more manageable [3; 4].

One possible way to support this process is through the use of pauses. Pauses are a natural feature of spoken language and can facilitate the segmentation of the speech stream into meaningful units [2]. In instructional listening materials, however, pauses can also be intentionally inserted at linguistically or semantically significant boundaries. Such pauses, referred to in the present study as semantic pauses, may provide learners with additional time to recognize and integrate information before processing the next segment of speech. The potential value of this approach is particularly relevant for A2-level learners, who may require additional time to recognize words, establish semantic relationships between ideas, and construct an overall understanding of the message.

Previous research indicates that pausing can influence second-language listening comprehension, although its effects are not necessarily consistent. Blau [5], for example, investigated the effects of syntax, speech rate, and pauses on listening comprehension and demonstrated that characteristics of spoken input can affect learners' understanding. Jacobs et al. [6] also examined the effect of pausing on listening comprehension among learners with different levels of language proficiency, while Leiser [7] investigated pausing as an input characteristic in relation to second-language learners' comprehension. These studies suggest that the pedagogical value of pauses depends not only on their presence but also on their placement, duration, and interaction with other characteristics of spoken input [5-7].

Despite existing research on pausing in second-language listening, further investigation is needed into how pauses positioned at semantic boundaries may affect both comprehension and learners' perceived cognitive load. In particular, relatively little attention has been given to whether semantic pauses can simultaneously support listening comprehension and reduce the mental effort perceived by learners during listening, especially among lower-proficiency EFL learners. Examining these outcomes together may provide a clearer understanding of whether the additional processing time provided by semantic pauses translates into measurable benefits for learners.

Therefore, the present study examines the effect of semantic pausing on listening comprehension and perceived cognitive load among A2 EFL learners. It compares learners' performance when listening to spoken materials containing semantically positioned pauses with their performance when listening to materials presented without additional pauses. By examining both comprehension outcomes and learners' perceived cognitive load, the study seeks to determine whether semantic pausing can serve as a practical modification for making listening input more accessible to lower-proficiency language learners.

Methodology

The study involved first-year students aged 15-16 who were studying at Almaty College of Fashion and Service. The initial pool consisted of 50 students from two groups of approximately 25 students each. Before the main experiment, a language proficiency screening procedure was conducted to identify learners whose English proficiency was approximately at the A2 level. Based on the screening results, 24 students were selected to participate in the study. The selected participants were divided into two groups of 12 students. This procedure was used to ensure a

relatively comparable level of English proficiency among the participants rather than assuming that all first-year students had the same language level. Participation was voluntary, and the students were informed that their individual results would be used for research purposes only.

A counterbalanced within-subject experimental design was used to examine the effect of semantic pausing on listening comprehension and perceived cognitive load. Each participant was exposed to both the original and semantic-pause conditions, allowing the two conditions to be compared within the same participants. To reduce potential order and practice effects, the sequence of the conditions was counterbalanced across the two groups. One group completed the original-condition tasks before the semantic-pause tasks, whereas the second group completed the semantic-pause tasks first. The order of the two listening topics was also balanced so that neither topic was systematically associated with one experimental condition or one position in the sequence.

Two A2-level listening texts were prepared for the experiment: “Almaty: A Modern City Near the Mountains” and “Kazakh Cuisine: Traditional Dishes and Everyday Life”. The first text focused on Almaty, including its geographical location, places of interest, everyday activities, surrounding mountains, weather, and public transport. The second text focused on traditional Kazakh food, common dishes, tea-drinking practices, family gatherings, celebrations, and contemporary food traditions. Both texts addressed familiar everyday and cultural topics considered appropriate for A2-level learners.

For each text, two audio versions were prepared, resulting in four experimental audio files: an original version and a semantic-pause version of the “Almaty” text, and an original version and a semantic-pause version of the “Kazakh Cuisine” text. Each text consisted of 36 information units, and the corresponding versions contained the same units in the same order. The semantic-pause versions were created by inserting additional one-second pauses at predetermined semantic or linguistic boundaries. The pauses were inserted at meaningful points of information segmentation rather than randomly distributed throughout the recordings. The purpose of this manipulation was not to reduce speech rate but to provide learners with brief additional processing time while maintaining the natural flow and structure of spoken language. The placement and use of pauses were informed by previous research examining the role of pauses in second-language listening [5-7].

The original and edited versions of each text contained exactly the same lexical and grammatical material. No vocabulary, grammatical structures, information content, or information-unit order was changed. The experimental manipulation was therefore limited to the temporal organization of the speech. The materials were prepared with attention to comparability in overall length, speech rate, vocabulary, grammatical complexity, and general difficulty. The number and location of the additional pauses were determined in advance based on the identified semantic boundaries.

The experiment was conducted during regular English lessons in a quiet classroom setting. Before the main procedure, participants received brief instructions and completed a short practice listening activity to become familiar with the procedure. Each participant then completed four listening tasks: two original recordings and two corresponding semantic-pause recordings. The tasks were presented according to the counterbalanced order assigned to each group. Participants listened to each recording once and were not allowed to pause, rewind, or replay the audio.

Immediately after each recording, participants completed a 10-item comprehension test. The tests assessed understanding of the main idea, specific information, and relationships between pieces of information presented in the recording. Each correct answer received one point, resulting in a maximum score of 10 points for each listening task.

After each comprehension test, participants provided a subjective rating of the mental effort they had experienced while processing the listening material. In the present study, perceived cognitive load was operationalized as self-reported mental effort during listening tasks. It was measured using a 9-point mental-effort rating scale, with lower scores indicating lower perceived

mental effort and higher scores indicating greater perceived mental effort. This approach follows the established use of subjective mental-effort ratings as an indicator of perceived cognitive load in cognitive-load research [8].

A short break was provided between the listening tasks to reduce fatigue. The same procedure was followed for all four recordings. Consequently, each participant provided comprehension and perceived mental-effort measures for both listening topics under both experimental conditions.

The data were analyzed by comparing participants' listening comprehension scores and perceived mental-effort ratings between the original and semantic-pause conditions. Descriptive statistics, including means and standard deviations, were calculated for both outcome measures. Since each participant completed both experimental conditions, within-participant comparisons were conducted. The scores obtained from the original recordings were compared with the corresponding scores obtained from the semantic-pause recordings.

Depending on the distribution of the within-participant differences, either a paired-samples *t*-test or a Wilcoxon signed-rank test was planned. The analysis was intended to determine whether the introduction of additional one-second pauses at semantic boundaries was associated with differences in listening comprehension and perceived mental effort among A2-level learners.

Results

Descriptive statistics were calculated to examine differences in listening comprehension and perceived mental effort between the original and semantic-pause conditions. The analysis included data from all 24 participants. As each participant completed both experimental conditions, the scores were compared using within-participant analyses (Table 1).

Measure	Original	Semantic pause	Mean difference	p
Listening comprehension	6.63 (1.01)	6.92 (0.97)	+0.29	.005
Mental effort	5.38 (1.41)	5.13 (1.78)	-0.25	.207

Table 1. Descriptive and inferential statistics.

For listening comprehension, participants obtained a mean score of 6.63 (SD = 1.01) in the original condition. In the semantic-pause condition, the mean score increased to 6.92 (SD = 0.97). Thus, the introduction of semantic pauses was associated with an average increase of 0.29 points on the 10-point comprehension test. At the individual level, 6 participants demonstrated higher scores in the semantic-pause condition, while the remaining participants either maintained the same score or did not show an increase. No participant demonstrated a decrease in comprehension after the introduction of semantic pauses (Figure 1).

A paired-samples *t*-test indicated that the difference between the two conditions was statistically significant, $t(23) = 3.08$, $p = .005$. A Wilcoxon signed-rank test was also conducted because the comprehension scores were discrete and showed a restricted range. The non-parametric analysis similarly indicated a statistically significant difference between the two conditions, $W = 0$, $p = .008$. These results suggest that listening comprehension was significantly higher when the recordings contained pauses positioned at semantic boundaries.

The results for perceived mental effort showed a different pattern. In the original condition, participants reported a mean mental-effort score of 5.38 (SD = 1.41), compared with 5.13 (SD =

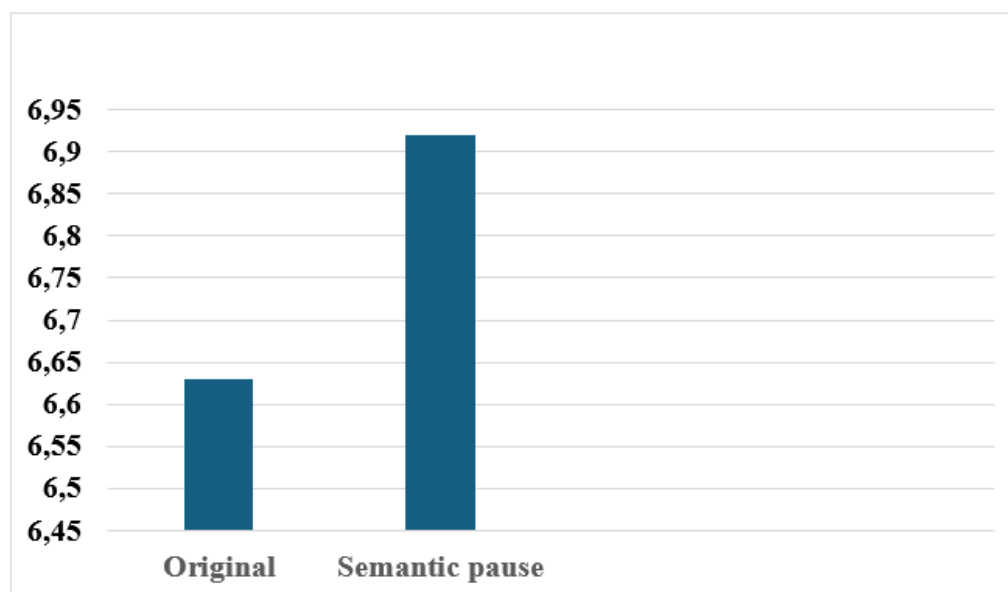


Figure 1. Mean listening comprehension scores in the original and semantic-pause conditions.

1.78) in the semantic-pause condition. The mean difference was therefore -0.25 points, indicating a small reduction in reported mental effort following the introduction of semantic pauses. However, the variability of the ratings increased in the semantic-pause condition, suggesting that participants did not respond uniformly to the manipulation.

The paired-samples t -test showed that the difference in perceived mental effort was not statistically significant, $t(23) = -1.30$, $p = .207$. The Wilcoxon signed-rank test produced a similar result, $W = 9$, $p = .196$. Therefore, although the descriptive statistics showed a slight reduction in perceived mental effort, the difference between the original and semantic-pause conditions was not statistically significant.

Overall, the results indicate that semantic pausing was associated with a statistically significant improvement in listening comprehension, whereas the observed reduction in perceived mental effort was not statistically significant. The two outcome measures therefore showed somewhat different response patterns to the experimental manipulation.

Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to examine whether inserting one-second pauses at semantic boundaries could affect listening comprehension and perceived mental effort among A2-level EFL learners. The findings provide evidence for a positive effect of semantic pausing on listening comprehension. However, the results do not provide sufficient evidence to conclude that semantic pauses significantly reduce learners' perceived cognitive load.

The most notable finding was the significant improvement in listening comprehension. Participants' mean comprehension score increased from 6.63 in the original condition to 6.92 in the semantic-pause condition. Although the absolute difference was relatively small, both the paired-samples t -test and the Wilcoxon signed-rank test indicated that the difference was statistically significant. This finding is consistent with the view that pauses can facilitate the processing of spoken input by creating additional opportunities for learners to segment and integrate information. In second-language listening, learners need to process incoming speech while retaining previously processed information, and additional processing time may help them manage this temporal demand [1; 2].

The finding can also be interpreted in relation to Cognitive Load Theory. According to Sweller [3], working memory has limited capacity, and performance may be affected when the

demands imposed by a task exceed the resources available to the learner. In the present study, semantic pauses may have temporarily reduced the temporal pressure associated with continuous speech. Rather than changing the linguistic content of the recordings, the pauses provided short intervals between meaningful segments. For A2 learners, who may need additional time to recognize words and establish relationships between pieces of information, this temporal adjustment may have supported more effective processing of the incoming message [3; 4].

The comprehension findings are also broadly compatible with previous research on pausing in second-language listening. Blau [5] demonstrated that characteristics of spoken input, including pauses, can influence listening comprehension. Similarly, Jacobs et al. [6] and Leiser [7] examined the role of pausing as an input characteristic and reported that the temporal organization of spoken language can affect learners' processing and comprehension. The present findings extend this line of research by focusing specifically on pauses placed at semantic boundaries and by examining A2-level learners. The fact that the lexical and grammatical content remained unchanged between the two conditions suggests that the improvement observed in the present study was associated with the temporal modification of the input rather than with differences in the content of the listening materials.

At the same time, the results concerning perceived mental effort require a more cautious interpretation. Participants' mean mental-effort rating decreased from 5.38 in the original condition to 5.13 in the semantic-pause condition. Descriptively, this represents a reduction of 0.25 points. However, the difference was not statistically significant ($p = .207$). Therefore, the present findings do not demonstrate a statistically reliable reduction in perceived mental effort. This result indicates that improved comprehension did not necessarily correspond to a measurable reduction in the amount of mental effort reported by the participants.

One possible interpretation is that semantic pauses may have allowed learners to use additional processing time more effectively without necessarily making the task feel substantially easier. Learners may have used the additional time to process, retain, and integrate information, resulting in better comprehension while maintaining a similar level of subjective mental effort. In this sense, the manipulation may have changed how learners allocated their available cognitive resources rather than simply reducing the total effort required for the task. This interpretation is compatible with the distinction between task performance and perceived mental effort in cognitive-load research [3; 4].

Another possible explanation concerns the measurement of cognitive load. In the present study, perceived cognitive load was operationalized through a single subjective mental-effort rating collected after each listening task. Such ratings provide useful information about learners' perceptions of task difficulty, but they may not capture all aspects of cognitive processing during listening. The increase in the standard deviation from 1.41 in the original condition to 1.78 in the semantic-pause condition also suggests considerable individual variation in participants' responses. Some learners may have experienced the pauses as helpful processing opportunities, whereas others may have perceived them as interruptions to the natural flow of the recording. Consequently, the absence of a statistically significant difference should not be interpreted as evidence that semantic pauses have no relationship with cognitive processing.

The difference between the comprehension and mental-effort findings is particularly relevant to the interpretation of the present study. Semantic pausing produced a significant improvement in the outcome directly measuring comprehension, while the subjective measure of mental effort showed only a small, non-significant reduction. This suggests that the primary observable benefit of the manipulation in this sample was improved comprehension rather than a clear reduction in perceived effort. The results therefore partially support the assumption that providing additional processing time can facilitate listening, but they do not fully support the expectation that such support will necessarily reduce learners' subjective cognitive load.

The counterbalanced within-subject design provides an important strength when interpreting these findings because every participant experienced both listening conditions. This allowed the comparison to be made within the same learners rather than between two completely separate groups. In addition, the original and semantic-pause recordings contained the same lexical, grammatical, and informational material, with the experimental manipulation limited to the addition of pauses. Nevertheless, the study has several limitations. First, the sample was relatively small and consisted of 24 A2-level learners from the same educational setting, which limits the extent to which the findings can be generalized to other learner populations. Second, the comprehension measure was based on 10-item tests, meaning that relatively small changes in performance could produce noticeable differences in scores. Third, perceived mental effort was measured using a subjective rating scale and therefore may have been influenced by individual differences in how participants interpreted and used the scale.

Future research could address these limitations by involving a larger and more diverse sample of learners and by using multiple measures of cognitive load. For example, subjective mental-effort ratings could be combined with measures of task difficulty, processing time, or other indicators of cognitive processing. It would also be useful to investigate whether the effect of semantic pauses depends on the number, duration, and exact location of pauses, as well as on learners' proficiency level. Comparing A2 learners with learners at higher proficiency levels could further clarify whether additional processing time is particularly beneficial at lower levels of language proficiency.

In conclusion, the findings suggest that semantic pausing can support listening comprehension among A2 EFL learners. Participants achieved significantly higher comprehension scores when listening to recordings containing pauses at semantic boundaries. However, the corresponding reduction in perceived mental effort was small and did not reach statistical significance. Thus, within the conditions of the present study, semantic pausing appears to have a clearer relationship with comprehension performance than with learners' subjective perception of mental effort.

Conclusion

The present study examined the effect of semantic pausing on listening comprehension and perceived mental effort among A2-level EFL learners. The results indicate that adding one-second pauses at semantic boundaries had a positive effect on listening comprehension. Participants achieved significantly higher comprehension scores in the semantic-pause condition than in the original condition, suggesting that providing brief additional processing time can support learners' understanding of spoken input.

At the same time, the findings did not demonstrate a statistically significant reduction in perceived mental effort. Although participants reported slightly lower mental-effort ratings when listening to the recordings containing semantic pauses, the difference between the two conditions was not statistically significant. Therefore, the results suggest that semantic pausing may improve listening performance without necessarily producing a corresponding reduction in learners' subjective perception of mental effort.

These findings provide partial support for the application of Cognitive Load Theory to second-language listening. The additional processing time provided by semantic pauses may help learners manage the temporal demands of continuous speech and allocate cognitive resources more effectively. However, the absence of a significant effect on perceived mental effort indicates that improved comprehension and perceived cognitive load may not necessarily change in parallel.

From a pedagogical perspective, semantic pausing represents a relatively simple modification that can be incorporated into listening materials for lower-proficiency learners without changing their lexical, grammatical, or informational content. Carefully positioned pauses may therefore be useful when designing or adapting listening activities for A2-level EFL learners, particularly when learners are expected to process information in real time.

Nevertheless, the findings should be interpreted in light of the study's limitations, including the relatively small sample, the single educational setting, the use of short comprehension tests, and the reliance on a subjective measure of mental effort. Further research with larger and more diverse samples, longer listening materials, and multiple measures of cognitive load is needed to establish whether the observed effects can be replicated across different learner populations and listening conditions. Future studies could also examine how pause duration, frequency, and placement influence both comprehension and cognitive processing.

Overall, the present study suggests that semantic pausing can be a useful temporal modification of spoken input for A2-level EFL learners. Its clearest observed benefit was improved listening comprehension, whereas its effect on perceived mental effort remained limited and statistically inconclusive.

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