Social Sciences

Volume 1 / **Issue 1**

E-ISSN: 2744-2454

mapub.org/mapss

MAP Social Sciences

JOURNAL
MAP Social Sciences
Volume 1 / Issue 1

PUBLISHER
MAP - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing*

EDITOR-IN-CHIEF
Vildana Dubravac, PhD, *International Burch University, Bosnia and Herzegovina*

EDITORIAL BOARD
Seid Masnica, *PhD, University Džemal Bijedić, Bosnia and Herzegovina*
Irena Zavrl, *PhD, University of Applied Sciences, FH Burgenland, Austria*
Ešref Kenan Rašidagić, *PhD, University of Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina*
Adis Maksić, *PhD, International Burch University, Bosnia and Herzegovina*
Violeta Janusheva, *PhD, University "St. Kliment Ohridski", Bitola, North Macedonia*
Manal Sabbah, *PhD, Gulf University for Science and Technology, Kuwait*
Mladen Mrdalj, PhD, *Webster University*
Adisa Imamović, *PhD, University of Tuzla, Bosnia and Herzegovina*
Rita Brdar-Szabó, *PhD, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest*
Mario Brdar, *PhD, Josip Juraj Strossmayer University, Croatia*

E-MAIL
mapss@mapub.org

© 2021 | MAP - Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing. All Rights Reserved.

Social Sciences

Volume 1 / **Issue 1**

E-ISSN: **2744-2454**

CONTENTS

1 **TEACHING LEXICAL CHUNKS IN THE ONLINE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM THROUGH LEARNING MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS**
Marie Deissl-O'Meara and Isabella Tinkel

13 **TWICE-EXCEPTIONAL, HALF-NOTICED: THE RECOGNITION ISSUES OF GIFTED STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES**
Uma Hamzić and Senad Bećirović

23 **THE ROLE OF READING IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS**
Aldiana Laličić and Vildana Dubravac

37 **TO SPEAK OR NOT TO SPEAK? THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE**
Emina Kahrimanović

48 **POJEDINAC I DRŽAVA U 21. STOLJEĆU: KRIZA IDENTITETA KAO POKRETAČ NAPRETKA U GLOBALIZIRANOM SVIJETU**
Adem Olovčić and Vaso Mijanović

mapub.org/mapss

Social Sciences

Volume 1 / Issue 1

MAP Social Sciences (MAPSS) is an international, multi-disciplinary, peer-reviewed journal published two times a year by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.* The journal is a platform for publication of advanced academic research in the field of social sciences.

E-ISSN: **2744-2454**

ORIGINAL RESEARCH PAPER

TEACHING LEXICAL CHUNKS IN THE ONLINE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOM THROUGH LEARNING MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Marie Deissl-O'Meara[1], **Isabella Tinkel**[2]

[1] ***University of Applied Sciences Burgenland***, *Eisenstadt, Austria*
[2] ***University of Applied Sciences Burgenland***, *Eisenstadt, Austria*

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Isabella Tinkel, University of Applied Sciences Burgenland, Eisenstadt, Austria. E-mail: isabella.tinkel@epic-training.at

ABSTRACT

Current educational trends, globalization and the global Covid-19 pandemic have forced institutions of higher education (HEI) worldwide to accelerate the changes already in progress in teaching and learning approaches incorporating more technological enhanced learning. Among the wide range of information-communication-technology tools, the focus here is on Learning Management Systems (LMS), which play a major role in teaching and learning pedagogy, and can help HEIs to achieve more effective learning outcomes. This exploratory research examines the usage of Learning Management Systems to support the teaching of lexical chunks in the online English language classroom at HEIs. The investigation will focus on Moodle and will identify the factors that support students' interaction with language content and input in this digital learning environment, by looking at the use of Moodle features and activities to teach and practice lexical chunks. Findings suggest that Moodle proves of great value for online English language teaching and the practice of lexical chunks, whereby quiz activities can be used to great effect, producing motivation to engage with lexical chunks among students.

Keywords: English language learning, lexical approach, digital learning environment, learning management systems, learner autonomy

MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES

Volume 1 / Issue 1

ISSN: 2744-2454/ © 2021 The Authors. Published by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.*

Article Submitted: **01 August 2021**
Article Accepted: **20 August 2021**
Article Published: **03 September 2021**

Publisher's Note: **MAP** *stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.*

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.1

MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES Volume 1 / Issue 1

© The Author(s). 2021 **Open Access Article**

Creative Commons CC BY: This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made.

OPEN ACCESS ARTICLE

Introduction

The purpose of this exploratory research is to examine the yet rather unexplored topic of whether the usage of Moodle activities can support the teaching of lexical chunks in the English language teaching and learning environment. There have been studies exploring the possibilities information-communication-technology (ICT) offers for learning vocabulary (e.g. Savuran & Elibol, 2015) but little research (e.g. Seesink, 2007) has yet been done on lexical chunks specifically.

Covid-19 brought monumental challenges for higher education worldwide and, thus, online learning through Learning Management Systems (LMS), such as Moodle, has become an indispensable tool for teachers and students alike (Gonzalez-Vera, 2016). Although not originally designed for language teaching, Moodle has been found to show several clear advantages. It boosts student-centered learning and increases autonomy since the platform is available to the student at any time and from virtually any location. Moreover, the current generation of students at Universities of Applied Sciences is already very tech-savvy and well familiar with online learning platforms as the vast majority of these students belongs to the e-generation which is defined as a group of students who has "spent their entire lives surrounded by and using computers, videogames, digital music players, video cams, cell phones, and all the other toys and tools of the digital age" (Prensky, 2001, p. 1 as cited in Gonzalez-Vera, 2016, p. 52). This, in turn, benefits teachers who play a pivotal role in producing content, designing didactic activities and implementing different technological tools (Gramp, 2013) that have the potential to increase student engagement in activities inside and outside classroom time compared to traditional classroom settings (Suppasetseree & Dennis, 2010). It is this creation of online tasks suitable for the teaching of lexical chunks that will be explored by focusing on the following research questions:

1. Can the use of Moodle activities support the teaching of lexical chunks?
2. Which activity types are most suitable for teaching lexical chunks?

Literature review

The Importance of Lexical Chunks for Language Learning

Lexical chunks are word pairs or entire phrases that co-occur frequently, e.g. 'empirical research' or 'conduct a study'. They are a concept originating from the Lexical Approach which was established by Michael Lewis' in 1993 and belongs to the category of functional language teaching approaches. All approaches subsumed in this category place emphasis on meeting the needs of the language learner through providing "pieces" of language – or chunks – that fulfill specific linguistic and communicative purposes. This was the primary goal of Wilkins' (1972) notional syllabus. Extending this idea, Task-based Language Teaching is designed to give learners a concrete situation and the need to use certain language chunks to achieve a communicative goal (Larsen-Freeman & Marti, 2014). Successful communication is also at the heart of the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983) which emphasizes the importance of learners' understanding of the phrases and sentences of the target language in order to engage in meaningful verbal exchanges. All these concepts place lexis at the core of successful language learning, as does the Lexical Approach whose main idea is that language is composed of more or less fixed prefabricated chunks of language (Lewis, 1997).

It is as Wilkins (1972, p.111f) stated, "while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed". Thus, the most crucial part in learning a language is establishing a solid vocabulary base. That is why lexical competence is often automatically associated with how many words a learner knows. However, learners' size of vocabulary (the number of words) has been found to be an insufficient indicator for any assessment of lexical proficiency. This is the case because knowledge of the existence of a word does, by no means, end with that isolated item. On the contrary, it extends far beyond that and, thus, a much better indicator for lexical and linguistic competence is the scope (or depth) of vocabulary a learner has. It is crucial to be aware of the context and co-text a given word exists in, as well as its numerous possible meanings depending on such context and co-text (Supasiraprapa, 2019). The more lexical chunks – i.e. a word including its co-text and context – learners know, the more they will use the language in an authentic and accurate fashion, including correct grammar. In fact, Lewis states that "a central element of language teaching is raising students' awareness of, and developing their ability to 'chunk' language successfully" (Lewis, 2012, p. vi). This idea has been supported by educator Barbara Oakley who is convinced that chunking any kind of information is one of the most valuable skills to improve learning in general. By chunking information it becomes possible for learners to increase memorization and recall prefabricated chunks more easily (Exeter, 2016).

Apart from the more obvious benefit of knowing as many lexical items as possible in a given language, lexical chunks are even more crucial than isolated vocabulary items. This is, in part, due to the facilitative nature of chunks when it comes to information retention and recall (Exeter, 2016) , as mentioned above, but also because lexical chunks provide language learners with a variety of ready-made language items which accelerates language learning (Dervić & Bećirović, 2020). Moreover, especially lower level learners might experience more enjoyment and less stress if they have fixed lexical chunks at their disposal and so not have to worry about making mistakes as much as they might otherwise (Rizvić & Bećirović, 2017). Yet, language learners are often not used to viewing language in this way – as chunks. They are used to the well-established division of vocabulary and grammar (Kovačević et al., 2018), often with a focus on the latter. However, a shift in learners' mindset towards the value of lexical chunks is crucial in order to give them the tools to discover linguistic patterns and meaning more fully and independently (Lewis, 2012; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992). Conveying the existence and usefulness of lexical chunks to learners can yield a multitude of other benefits apart from reducing potential frustration with those collocations or (fixed) expressions which do not seem logical when viewed through the lens of the learner's mother tongue (Kryszewska, 2003). By shifting learners' focus from isolated vocabulary items to common prefabricated chunks of language their active and passive command of the target language can be enhanced. This can be done by exposing learners to receptive as well as productive collocation-focused tasks as demonstrated in research by Falahi and Moinzadeh (2012) and Webb and Kagimoto (2009). Both studies showed a significant improvement in lexical chunks knowledge in the experimental group. Other studies highlight the positive effects of teaching collocations/lexical chunks. Abdellah (2015) found that university students in Egypt who were exposed to a teaching program with a focus on the teaching of collocations outperformed their colleagues in the control group significantly. In the same vein, it was found that teaching collocations improves writing skills (Zhou & Dai, 2016). It has also been proven that learners benefit from being explicitly taught about the nature of collocations in addition to being taught the collocations themselves. Fan (2005) discovered that learners' increased level of attention explicitly paid to verb-noun collocations is related to better performance in the areas of recall, production and detection of collocations. Likewise Seesink (2007) confirmed that the explicit teaching of collocations does help learners improve their skills – in her specific study, writing skills. Similarly, studies conducted among Algerian freshmen (Debabi & Guerroud, 2018) and Iraqi college students (Abdulqader et al., 2017) revealed that using teaching programs that focus on raising awareness of collocations contributed to accuracy of collocations in students' writing.

While the majority of these studies were done in face-to-face settings and with more traditional offline teaching tools – except Seesink's (2007) – the paper at hand focuses on the teaching of lexical chunks in a 100% online English course necessitated by the Covid-19 pandemic.

Digitalization Acceleration and Challenges for Higher Education in the Covid-19 Crisis

Digitalization of modern education has received even more attention and become even more ubiquitous due to the transition to emergency remote teaching, instigated by the Covid-19 crisis, affecting universities worldwide and leading to significant challenges for the global higher education community. Jandrić (2020) emphasizes that digitalization, as experienced during the pandemic, is a form of forced digitalization of both teaching and learning, and is clearly a topic of paramount importance. Great interest has been placed on the use of technology during the past few years and in a study conducted by the Times Higher Education (Matthews, 2018), in spring 2018, the results showed that 19% of the interviewees believe that by 2030 digital technology will have replaced traditional classroom instruction. However, of the 200 respondents, all of whom were rectors from the top 1000 universities, 65% disagreed claiming that physical lectures still have a bright future despite the surge of digital disruption. The respondents from 45 countries and from across six continents were skeptical about the role digital learning will play in the future. On the other hand, 63% contended that traditional and esteemed universities will be offering online degrees by 2030, compared with just 19% who will not. 24% believed that degree courses offered online will be more popular than courses taught on campus, while 53% disagreed. In spring 2018, at the time of the survey there were only a few distance-learning universities. Most European universities were traditional non-distance universities, offering face-to-face teaching. The respondents did not believe that online teaching will be able to match the quality offered in face-to-face teaching and in spring 2018 still saw it as a quirk that every now and then receives more attention. Nevertheless, there was some consensus on the traditional lecture being outdated, claiming that online teaching facilitates a better learning experience. There is very little evidence to support the view that face-to-face teaching is superior and in a meta-analysis carried out by Bernard et al., (2014) it is stated that from a learning perspective there is no empirical evidence to show that the learning achievement of students is better in a classroom-based learning setting, compared to alternatives. This was contrary to the widespread belief of educators who had been convinced that online courses must be of poorer quality. In fact one of the conclusions drawn by Bernard et al. (2014) was that the medium is far less important that the quality of the pedagogy. Hoskins describes the difference between traditional face-to-face learning and online learning as "The way the content is delivered" (Hoskins, 2010, p. 4 as cited in Alhothli, 2015, p. 5). He then adds that the "new norm" will be online education (Hoskins, 2010, p. 4 as cited in Alhothli, 2015, p. 5). Thus, the goal of educational institutions must be to capture and challenge the imagination, based on learners' pre-existing knowledge – that is what works, whether it is in the classroom or online.

As has been pointed out above, in early 2020 the Covid-19 crisis raised significant challenges for higher education (HE) worldwide. As an outcome of measures taken by educational institutions, the education of more than 1.5 billion students of all ages in countries all over the world was interrupted. Thus, 90% of the global student population was forced into some form of emergency remote education (UNESCO, 2020b, 2020a; UNICEF, 2020). The term emergency remote education (ERE) was coined as an umbrella term to include distance education, e-learning, online education, homeschooling etc. According to Bozkurt (2020), all of these terms derive from the term distance education, but it is pointed out that the main distinction between distance education and emergency remote education is that the latter refers to an obligation, whereas the former refers to an option. Emergency remote education is, as the term suggests, a survival strategy adopted at the beginning of the pandemic in an attempt to ensure the continuity of education. Distance learning, in contrast, is planned and put into practice on the basis of both theoretical and practical knowledge, in a specific field, whereas emergency remote education does, per se, not have a pedagogical concept, which is a major challenge (Bozkurt, 2020).

As stated earlier, the onslaught of Covid-19 saw many universities concentrating on shifting content to an online environment, but very often without an explicit online pedagogy. Crawford et al., (2020) carried out a Covid-19 intra-period study by means of a desktop analysis, using both university and government sources (n=172) to present responses of higher education intuitions to Covid-19. The analysis examining the different approaches of HE in 20 countries highlights the responses and different approaches. Countries were chosen from the six regions defined by the World Health Organization (2020 as cited in Crawford et al., 2020), in order to achieve equality, with at least two countries being chosen from each region. The countries selected are shown below.

Table 1:
Selected regions acc. to the WHO

Region	Countries
African region	Nigeria, South Africa
Eastern Mediterranean region	Egypt, Jordan, United Arab Emirates
European region	Germany, Ireland, Italy, United Kingdom
Region of the Americas	Brazil, Chile, United States of America
South-East Asia region	India, Indonesia
Western Pacific region	Australia, China, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Republic of Korea (South Korea), Singapore

As a result of this analysis it is clear that HE institutions reacted in very different ways, ranging from some institutions showing no response to the pandemic, whereas others implemented social isolation strategies, or even adapted the curriculum to facilitate online teaching. However, the researchers also highlight the lack of information on the pedagogical approaches behind the measures taken and suggest that exploring this aspect could provide scope for more "flexible and innovative digital methods of education" (Crawford et al., 2020, p. 12). One such digital method that is highly useful in exploring these new ways of teaching are Learning Management Systems (LMS).

Learning Management Systems (LMS) and English Foreign Language Teaching

A Learning Management System (LMS) can either be a web-based or cloud based software program whose purpose is to support the teaching and learning process. Popular examples of LMSs are Moodle, Canvas, Blackboard, Edmodo, Google Classroom, etc. Technically defined, a Learning Management System is "a software application that automates the administration, documentation, tracking, reporting" and "facilitates the delivery of e-learning education courses or training programs" (Ellis, 2009, p. 2). In transitioning to online emergency remote education, UASs, pedagogical universities, public and private universities alike have relied heavily on LMSs (e.g., Moodle, Canvas, Blackboard, Edmodo, Google Classroom, etc.), synchronous communication, conferencing tools (e.g., Zoom, Microsoft Teams, Google Meet, Webex, etc.) and live broadcasting features of social networking sites (e.g., Facebook Live, Instagram Live, YouTube etc.) to counteract teaching disruptions (Bozkurt, 2020).

Moodle is one of the LMS systems that has been gaining increasing worldwide popularity. The word Moodle is an acronym for Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment which was first released in 2002. The mastermind behind Moodle is its founder and CEO Martin Dougiamas, who himself learned by distance education through radio. Based on his experience he saw the need for an online platform for educators to assist them in creating personalized learning environments. Today Moodle is an open source e-learning platform and its modular design allows content experts to develop additional functionalities. One of the great advantages of Moodle, as an open source product, is that it is not only free to be used, but can also be modified. The aim of Moodle is to assist those in the educational profession to design courses, which can be taught online, in a non-traditional teaching environment, but are based on traditional classroom-like interactions, while having a strong focus in the creation of collaborative content. It offers multiple opportunities for interaction and it provides the opportunity for both student-student and student-teacher interaction. Recent Moodle statistics show that Moodle now has over 200 million users from 247 countries, with currently a total number of 37 million courses. In March 2020, 50,000 additional new sites were registered (Moodle, n.d.). With a global market share of 14% Moodle is not the most frequently used LMS software – that would be Google Classroom with 39% (Sadler, 2021) - but it is the most dominant software used in Austrian Universities of Applied Sciences with 19 of 21 using it and 1,384 registered Moodle sites within the country (Moodle, n.d.). Regarding the general experience with e-learning, a study carried out at the Graz University of Technology (TU Graz) found that Universities of Applied Sciences in Austria had already been using learning management systems by 2015 (Ebner et al., 2020). 50% of UASs had had experience with e-learning for more than ten years at that point and 40% of UASs had employed e-learning for six to ten years. Only the remaining 10% had had experience of only one to five years.

Moodle was not explicitly designed for language instruction, however, it does lend itself to both EFL teaching and learning. Based on a constructivist approach it empowers active and flexible learning and facilitates a collaborative learning process which makes it possible for students and teachers to incorporate collaborative activities into the teaching-learning process (Coicaud, 2016; Silva, Fernández, & Astudillo, 2014; Silva et al., 2016 as cited in Cabero-Almenara et al., 2019, p. 27). Some of the tools open for use on Moodle are forums, live chats, student quizzes, wikis, surveys, student workshops, questionnaires, glossaries, databases, feedback tools, and tools for providing asynchronous interactive content. Many instructors may use further tools such as the game-based tool Kahoot, or indeed mindmaps, blogs, YouTube videos, etc. Additional statistics taken from Moodle Statistics, which are publicly available and updated in real time, show that in the months May and June 2021

- one new country has registered their first ever Moodle site
- eight million forum posts have been made
- nine million new resources have been added
- three million new users have joined registered Moodle sites
- thirty million new enrolments have taken place
- one million new courses have been added to Moodle sites.

One particularly interesting finding for the paper at hand is the worldwide increase in the number of quiz questions being added to Moodle on

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.1

a daily basis assisting educators to find alternative forms of assessment during the pandemic. Current figures show that the global Moodle Community and Moodle HQ now have 1,524,867,487 quiz questions hosted in all registered Moodle sites worldwide (Moodle, n.d.).

As mentioned before, Moodle was originally designed for distance learning but not specifically for EFL teaching. However, it can offer helpful and motivating tools for teaching language. It offers many benefits for tutors and students alike in a distant learning environment. The advantages of using Moodle for distant learning are akin to the advantages of using it for EFL teaching. One of the primary pros is flexibility which mirrors the developments in education providing permanent access to learning materials, as is in keeping with the anytime-anywhere principle. This allows students to learn when they want, what they want, how they want and where they want. Communication between peers and tutors is flexible and gives students time to prepare their ideas or thoughts before they engage in forum discussions. Anonymity can also be an incentive for students to get involved in discussions. A further key advantage of Moodle in EFL is the access to multimedia tools and applications such as images, sounds and animations enabling students to practice all four language skills, both the receptive skills (listening and reading) and the active skills (speaking and writing). An additional valuable function of Moodle is synchronous and asynchronous teacher-student and student-student communication, which may take place in the form of chats and forums. Integrated quizzes, which can be used for formative assessment give students immediate feedback on their performance, but can also be used to great effect for language input and practice, which is the focus of the next section.

Teaching and Learning Lexical Chunks through Moodle

As far as could be detected, not much research has yet been done on the teaching and learning of lexical chunks supported by Moodle. Generally, however, in a 2010 study it was found that out of 213 students involved in an English language teaching course supported by Moodle 93% found that the integration of Moodle activities generally had a beneficial effect on their language learning experience (Suppasetseree & Dennis). A study conducted at the Aleksandras Stulginskis University in Lithuania (Urbonienė & Koverienė, 2013) examined, among other topics, students' opinions on the usefulness of several Moodle activities used in a blended-learning course teaching the basics of business English. After two semesters students were asked to evaluate the course. Firstly, and more generally, 73% found that Moodle was helpful for language learning overall and 77% stated that Moodle had met their needs and that they would recommend it to other students. In terms of activities used, the researchers discovered that, among the selection of modules used, providing resources (67%), assignments (59%) and quizzes (57%) scored the highest, whereas tools such as forums (28%) and chats (21%) received the lowest ratings. In an earlier study (Suppasetseree & Dennis, 2010) in Thai tertiary education it was revealed that teachers tended to use Moodle first and foremost for administrative purposes such as the provision of learning materials and an overview of grades. Yet, they also used the quiz, journal and assignment functions in their courses. Moreover, the glossary was regarded as especially important for creating a vocabulary collection that all students could benefit from. In a 2016 study of 200 Spanish freshmen native speaker students learning English in a course supported by Moodle it was found that all of these students, who were part of the e-generation, already had some experience with e-learning platforms before the experiment and 64% were using some forms of English activities on the web to improve their language skills. Also, 75% reported that they preferred computer-based tasks to the exclusive use of traditional classroom exercises. After administration of the treatment, 70% of participants rated Moodle as helpful for their language learning. Moreover, all four skills saw an overall improvement after supporting students with Moodle. However, it must be pointed out that this perceived improvement was based on participants' self-assessment and that the institutional assessment in the form of end-of-term tests was yet outstanding at the time the research was published. The exact nature of the Moodle tasks used in the study also remains unknown (Gonzalez-Vera, 2016) but the general approval of e-learning and technology use by participants is certainly an indication that LMSs can contribute positively to language learning. Moodle was also used successfully by Seesink (2007) who used the LMS to support the study of collocation with focus on writing. Results showed that students' writing included more collocations after the course. Yet, when asked to evaluate the blended-learning format of the course, students stated that they preferred the face-to-face classes and would rather use Moodle for review purposes. In 2015 Savuran and Elibol examined the effectiveness of using Moodle as a supplementary source to support vocabulary learning. The study included B1-level students aged 18-24 from the preparatory classes at the School of Foreign Languages at Ankara University. The experimental group received tuition supported my Moodle activities while the control group did not work with online resources. Data on vocabulary knowledge was collected by administering a multiple choice test consisting of 105 questions based on vocabulary items from several units of the course book in use. Data analysis yielded that students who were taught with additional Moodle input reached a mean score of 58.7667 and, thus, performed significantly better on the vocabulary test than those who did not receive such input with a mean score of 45.7923.

As can be seen Moodle has been shown to offer significant advantages concerning English language teaching. Among those is the fact that it allows for student-centered learning which means that students can practice anytime and anywhere once the learning materials and resources have been made available. For teachers, Moodle also facilitates administration and, in the present research, greatly facilitated the practice of lexical chunks compared to what could have been done in the face-to-face classroom sessions. Additionally, teachers can maintain an overview of the activities students have completed as well as the scores achieved (Suppasetseree & Dennis, 2010). Naturally, using Moodle for language teaching entails some possible disadvantages as well. Among those that have been identified are the issues of technical competence or lack of confidence and knowledge regarding working with technology on the part of the teacher as well as the student (Saptopramono et al., 2018). Rapanta et al., (2020) warn about the dangers of a 'tool-based' approach and highlight that it does not provide the educator with any indication about how, when and why certain tools should be used. Thus, through the lack of a common, widely understood pedagogical framework for online teaching and learning, it remains generally unclear what additional pedagogical dimensions need to be considered in an online situation (Picciano, 2017). Research has been carried out that concludes that there is indeed greater use of LMS platforms but that there is no generalized evidence of a change in pedagogical practice (Brown, 2008; Browne et al., 2006; Kinchin, 2012), where teachers tend to use it more to transmit knowledge than to develop, invent and create knowledge (Fariña et al., 2013). In addition research shows that many teachers only use a minimum of LMS's possibilities (Browne et al., 2010; Rienties, 2012). Hence, this paper examines one option of how to achieve the pedagogical goal of teaching lexical chunks using Moodle as a knowledge transfer and development tool to support students' long-term language learning process. However, it is clear that using Moodle and its activities efficiently and competently takes considerable training and competence on the part of the teacher to strengthen pedagogical and technological knowledge (Mishra & Koehler, 2008) and also requires some explanation to the students (Rymanova et al., 2015; Suppasetseree & Dennis, 2010) as the quality of the materials provided as well as the mentoring of students is a crucial success factor in online-assisted language learning (Pareja-Lora et al., 2016). However, students involved in the present research were already used to working with Moodle to a certain extent and, hence did not require extensive introductions or explanations in order to use the platform in the English class.

Methodology

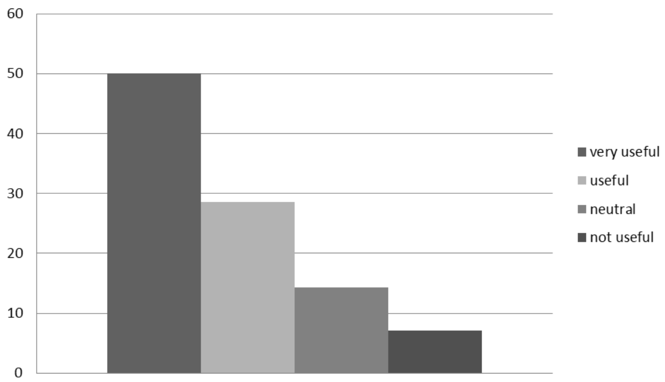
Data was gathered in the summer semester of 2021 from three Business English courses of the same teacher working with three different groups of students (n=39) at a University of Applied Sciences in Austria. All students were taught exclusively online and were given an introduction to the nature and usefulness of lexical chunks for their own language learning at the outset of the semester. Subsequently, Moodle was used extensively to support the detection and practice of lexical chunks from numerous topic areas in a variety of ways. Moodle activity types used by the teacher were recorded. Moreover, written and oral feedback regarding students' opinion of the suitability and usability of the Moodle tasks used to teach lexical chunks was obtained through questionnaires and interviews from a number of students.

Results and discussion

Research Question 1: Can the Use of Moodle Activities Support the Teaching of Lexical Chunks?

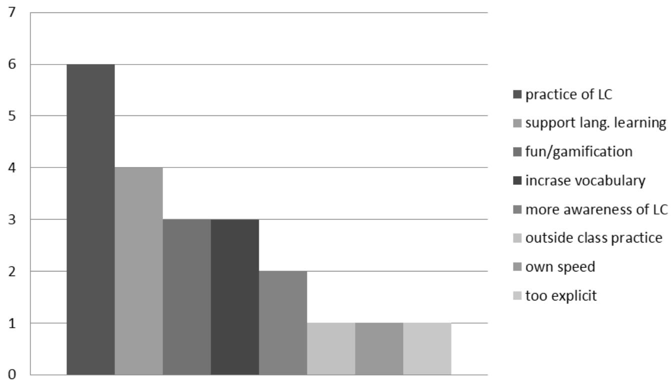
Results (figure 1) show that, overall, 78.57% of respondents regarded the Moodle tasks used to convey knowledge about and practice lexical chunks as (very) useful. This aligns with Urbonienė and Koverienė's (2013) finding that their participants rated Moodle profitable for language learning in general. 14.29% regarded the tasks' usefulness as neutral and 7.14% said the Moodle activities were not useful.

Figure 1:
General usefulness of Moodle activities in %



When analyzing the written statements regarding the ways in which the Moodle activities were useful or not in general, several categories emerged (figure 2). The most salient observation was that most respondents found that the Moodle activities employed were very helpful in practicing lexical chunks after having been introduced to the concept at the beginning of the semester. Several students stated that the Moodle exercises were generally supportive of language learning and also said that the game-like nature of the tasks was appealing. They also reported that these activities helped them extend the size and scope of their vocabulary – something that is crucial to improving language competence. Becoming more aware of lexical chunks through the Moodle tasks and the option to repeat tasks and practice outside class at their own speed were also rated as advantages. It was also pointed out that such explicit focus on lexical chunks and repeated practice of detecting them might actually diminish the actual value or the exercises. However, it is presumed that the one student who made this statement was referring to the fact that, due to their very high level of English proficiency, many lexical chunks were already known and it was easy for them to pick up new language anyway.

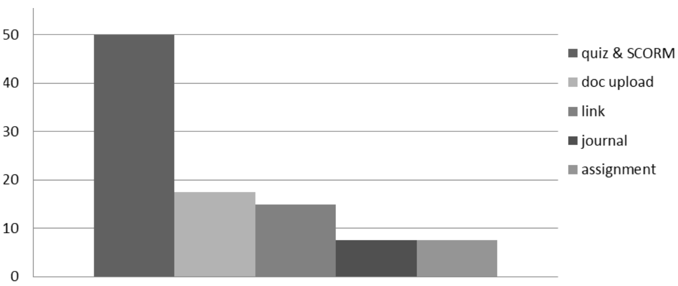
Figure 2:
Areas of perceived usefulness of Moodle activities (absolute numbers/participants)



Research Question 2: Which Activity Types are Most Suitable for Teaching Lexical Chunks?

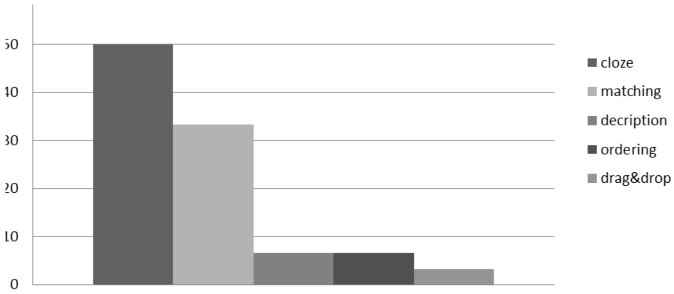
Over the course of the semester Moodle activities were used to teach lexical chunks primarily inside but also outside synchronous online English sessions. The activity type that proved most useful during lessons from the teacher's point of view was the quiz. This is due to the vast array of different subtasks this activity offers – some of which lend themselves perfectly to teaching and practicing lexical chunks. Similarly, the teacher used SCORM packages to integrate exercises designed in a different online application into the Moodle course. These exercises could be equated with the quiz function as they mostly feature the same subtasks used in the quiz. Therefore, quiz and SCORM packages have been subsumed under one category in figure 3, making up 50% of all lexical chunk-related Moodle activities used in and outside class. As will be seen in the next section presenting the detailed analysis of the task types used, students were very appreciative of these tasks. This coincides with Suppasetseree and Dennis (2010) who measured that 97% of their participants found it helpful for language learning to complete Moodle quizzes as well as with Gonzalez-Vera (2016) who reported that 90% of participants liked the self-assessment quizzes offered through Moodle. The teacher also made frequent use of the document upload function to provide students with information on lexical chunks or a summary of chunks collected together in the session. Similar in nature is the option to share a link via Moodle and this was employed to give students direct and easy access to online collocations dictionaries. This was perceived as very helpful because students were given an additional resource to detect new word combinations themselves. Again Suppasetseree and Dennis, (2010) found that 93% of their students perceived the provision and download of information via Moodle as useful. Outside the sessions students were occasionally asked to complete several quiz tasks related to lexical chunks. Their main task was, however, to keep a lexical chunk journal through the journal activity available in Moodle. This was a compulsory component of the course and was well received by most students. The majority generated extensive lists of high-quality lexical chunks taken from the sessions or from other sources of input. One student specifically stated that they found this lexical chunk journal very important for the retention and constant practice of detecting lexical chunks because only if there is a certain extent of pressure to engage with this new view on language, can it be internalized successfully. Moreover, that same student very much appreciated the feedback the teacher gave on the lexical chunk journals at the end of each month. This allowed for everyone to know whether they were selecting good lexical chunks and where there was room for improvement. Another activity type used to give students practice outside class time was the assignment. This was used to provide instructions for writing short texts based on either students' own opinion or an audio file. In order to engage with lexical chunks, instructions either included certain node words that needed to be used in a correct lexical chunk in the text to be written or students had to highlight the lexical chunks they used in their texts on a specific topic. Such highlighting was also perceived as useful by students as it increased their awareness of new lexical chunks as well as of chunks they already knew.

Figure 3:
All activity types used in % (inside and outside class)



As the quiz and SCORM activity together amount to 50% of the tasks used (figure 4), a closer look was taken at which subtasks seem to be most useful from the teacher's point of view and what students' opinions were. It must be pointed out, however, that the majority of the task types mentioned here was used in the quiz activity. It was found that 50% of all tasks types were cloze exercises. These are generally comparable with traditional gap-fill exercises but, because of the interactive nature of Moodle, can be combined with video and audio material as well. This was done in class several times, along with cloze exercises that focused on the skill of reading and students expressed satisfaction with the interactive use of media. The aim of all tasks was to build students ability to recognize lexical chunks and isolate them correctly. Similarly useful was the task type of matching, accounting for 33.33 % of all subtasks used. This is a more game-like engagement with lexical chunks and, as mentioned before, students enjoyed the part-gamification of language because it increased their enthusiasm and supported their learning, making working with lexical chunks easier as time passed. The subtask type titled 'description' (6.67%) was used only to provide instructions for more self-directed engagement with lexical chunks such as giving node words and then students had to consult a collocation dictionary (alone or in small groups) to find useful and appropriate lexical chunks. Further subtasks used were drag and drop into image (3.33%), which is comparable to matching in many aspects, and ordering (6.67%), which was combined with videos and students were asked to focus on specific lexical chunks and to put them into the order that they occurred in the video.

Figure 4:
Activity subtypes used in %



https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.1

Conclusion

The study presented found that Moodle activities are perceived as useful for the teaching and learning of lexical chunks by the teacher as well as by students. Learners reported that they profited most from the Moodle activities in four main areas – practicing lexical chunks, general feeling of support for language learning, increased motivation and engagement through gamification and the opportunity to increase their vocabulary size and scope. Additionally, some of the most suitable activity types were examined and the most frequently used quiz and SCORM activities were also rated as helpful by students. Within the quiz activity, the teacher found the cloze and matching subtasks most useful. Outside the classroom the journal activity proved of great value to maintain students' engagement with lexical chunks.

With reference to the perceived usefulness of glossaries by teachers in the study by Suppasetseree and Dennis (2010) it would surely be worth trying to integrate this activity in the next version of a Lexical Approach-based teaching program. Moreover, being able to track students' task completion and scores in Moodle could offer some interesting indications as to whether such a Lexical Approach-based teaching program shows the desired improvement in students who complete all activities with solid results. Savuran and Elibol (2015) found, in their study on the usefulness of supporting vocabulary learning through Moodle, that those students who scored highest on the vocabulary test were also those who logged into Moodle most frequently, while those who did not make regular use of the Moodle activities scored lowest on the vocabulary test. Moreover, continued use of Moodle activities in the language teaching classroom in general and especially to teach lexical chunks will improve teachers' ability to choose and use suitable resources and activities to achieve optimum outcome.

Conflict of interest: Marie Deissl-O'Meara and Isabella Tinkel declare that they have no conflict of interest.

References

Abdellah, A. S. (2015). The Effect of a Program Based on the Lexical Approach on Developing English Majors' Use of Collocations. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *6*(4), 766. https://doi.org/10.17507/jltr.0604.08

Abdulqader, H. B., Murad, I. H., & Abdulghani, M. I. (2017). The Impact of the Application of Lexical Approach on Developing Students' Writing Skills at a University Level. *European Scientific Journal, ESJ*, *13*(32), 130. https://doi.org/10.19044/esj.2017.v13n32p130

Alhothli, N. (2015). *Investigating the impact of using moodle as and e-learning tool for students in an English language institute*. University of Montana.

Bernard, R. M., Borokhovski, E., Schmid, R. F., Tamim, R. M., & Abrami, P. C. (2014). A meta-analysis of blended learning and technology use in higher education: From the general to the applied. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*, *26*(1), 87–122. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12528-013-9077-3

Bozkurt, A. (2020). Educational Technology Research Patterns in the Realm of the Digital Knowledge Age. *Journal of Interactive Media in Education*, *2020*(1), 18. https://doi.org/10.5334/jime.570

Brown, S. (2008). From VLEs to Learning Webs- The Implications of Web 2. *Interactive Learning Environments*, *18*(1), 1–10.

Browne, T., Hewitt, R., Jenkins, M., Voce, J., Walker, R., & Yip, H. (2010). *UCISA Survey: 2010 Survey of Technology Enhanced Learning for higher education in the UK*. *2011*(15 February), Online. http://www.ucisa.ac.uk/groups/ssg/surveys.aspx

Browne, T., Jenkins, M., & Walker, R. (2006). A longitudinal perspective regarding the use of VLEs by higher education institutions in the United Kingdom. *Interactive Learning Environments*, *14*(2), 177–192. https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820600852795

Cabero-Almenara, J., Arancibia, M. L., & Del Prete, A. (2019). Technical and didactic knowledge of the moodle LMS in higher education. Beyond functional use. *Journal of New Approaches in Educational Research*, *8*(1), 25–33. https://doi.org/10.7821/naer.2019.1.327

Crawford, J., Henderson, K. B., Rudolph, J., Malkawi, B., Glowatz, M., Burton, R., Magni, P. A., & Lam, S. (2020). COVID-19 : 20 countries ' higher education intra-period digital pedagogy responses. *Journal of Applied Learning & Teaching*, *3*(1), 1–20.

Debabi, M., & Guerroud, N. j. (2018). The Lexical Approach in Action: Evidence of Collocational Accuracy and the Idiom Principle in the Writing of EFL Intermediate Students. *Arab World English Journal*, *9*(3), 176–187. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol9no3.12

Dervić, M., & Bećirović, S. (2020). Prerogative of the Lexical Approach in Communicative Language Teaching. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 7(3), 1-13. https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3748039

Ebner, M., Schön, S., Braun, C., Ebner, M., Grigoriadis, Y., Haas, M., Leitner, P., & Taraghi, B. (2020). COVID-19 epidemic as E-learning boost? Chronological development and effects at an Austrian university against the background of the concept of "E-learning readiness." *Future Internet*, *12*(6). https://doi.org/10.3390/FI12060094

Ellis, R. K. (2009). *A field guide to Learning Management Systems*.

Exeter, J. A. (2016). *Session with Barbara Oakley*. Quora. https://writingsessions.quora.com/Session-with-Barbara-Oakley

Falahi, M., & Moinzadeh, A. (2012). Effects of Receptive and Productive Tasks on Iranian EFL Students' Learning of Verb-noun Collocations. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*. https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.3.5.953-960

Fan, Y. (2005). *Differential effects of attention in second language acquisition of verb-noun collocations*. Michigan State University.

Fariña, E., González, C. S., & Area, M. (2013). ¿Qué uso hacen de las aulas virtuales los docentes universitarios? *RED, Revista de Educación a Distancia*, *35*.

Gonzalez-Vera, P. (2016). The e-generation: the use of technology for foreign language learning. In A. Pareja-Lora, C. Calle-Martínez, & P. Rodríguez-Aracón (Eds.), *New perspectives on teaching and working with languages in the digital era* (pp. 51–61).

Gramp, J. (2013). Beyond the baseline: working with e-learning champions to transform e-learning at a research-led university. *2nd Moodle Research Conference*, *2007*(October 2013), 24–32. http://research.moodle.net/mod/data/view.php?d=7&rid=123

Jandrić, P. (2020). Postdigital Research in the Time of Covid-19. *Postdigital Science and Education*, *2*(2), 233–238. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42438-020-00113-8

Kinchin, I. (2012). Avoiding technology-enhanced non-learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, *43*(2), 43–48. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8535.2011.01264.x

Kovačević, F., Amna, B.-Č., & Bećirović, S. (2018). Opportunities and Challenges Facing Bosnian High-School EFL Learners. *European Researcher*, *9*(4), 298–307. https://doi.org/10.13187/er.2018.4.298

Krashen, S., & Terrell, T. (1983). *The Natural Approach. Language Acquisition in the Clasroom*. Prentice Hall Europe.

Kryszewska, H. (2003). Why I won't say goodbye to the lexical approach. *Humanising Language Teaching*, *5*(2), 1–11.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Marti, A. (2014). *Techniques & Principles in Language Teaching* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Lewis, M. (1997). *Implementing the Lexical Approach: Putting Theory Into Practice*. Heinle Cengage Learning. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781107415324.004

Lewis, M. (2012). *The lexical approach: The state of ELT and a way forward*. Cengage Learning.

Matthews, D. (2018). *How will technology reshape universitiy by 2030?* Times Higher Education. https://www.timeshighereducation.com/features/how-will-technology-reshape-university-2030

Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. J. (2008). Introducing Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge. *The Language of Science Education*, *January*, 106–106. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-6209-497-0_95

Moodle. (n.d.). *Moodle Statistics*. https://stats.moodle.org

Nattinger, J. R., & DeCarrico, J. S. (1992). Lexical Phrases and Language Teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587319

Pareja-Lora, A., Calle-Martínez, C., & Rodríguez-Aracón, P. (2016). New perspectives on teaching and working with languages in the digital era. In *New perspectives on teaching and working with languages in the digital era*. Reasearch-publishing.net. https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2016.tislid2014.427

Picciano, A. G. (2017). Theories and frameworks for online education: Seeking an integrated model. *Online Learning Journal*, *21*(3), 166–190. https://doi.org/10.24059/olj.v21i3.1225

Rapanta, C., Botturi, L., Goodyear, P., Guàrdia, L., & Koole, M. (2020). Online University Teaching During and After the Covid-19 Crisis: Refocusing Teacher Presence and Learning Activity. *Postdigital Science and Education*, *2*(3), 923–945. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42438-020-00155-y

Rienties, B. (2012). Integrating ICT in business education: Using TPACK to reflect on two course redesigns. In P. Van den Bossche, W. H. Gijselaers, & R. G. Milter (Eds.), *Learning at the Crossroads of Theory and Practice: Research on Innovative Learning Practices* (Vol. 4, Issue March, pp. 1–249). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-2846-2

Rizvić, E., & Bećirović, S. (2017). Willingness to Communicate in English as a Foreign Language in Bosnian-Herzegovinian EFL Context. *European Researcher*, *8*(3), 224–235. https://doi.org/10.13187/er.2017.3.224

Rymanova, I., Baryshnikov, N., & Grishaeva, A. (2015). E-course Based on the LMS Moodle for English Language Teaching: Development and Implementation of Results. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *206*(November), 236–240. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.10.016

Sadler, M. (2021). *49 LMS Statistics and Trends for a Post-COVID World*. TrustRadius. https://www.trustradius.com/vendor-blog/lms-statistics-trends

Saptopramono, H., Zaim, M., Ramadhan, S., & Agustina, A. (2018). *Practical Utilization of ICT in Adult Language Learning: Challenges and Barriers*. *May 2020*. https://doi.org/10.2991/iclle-18.2018.12

Savuran, Y., & Elibol, H. (2015). Teaching Vocabulary Items Using Moodle: Do They Learn Better? *Journal of Media & Mass Communication*, *1*(1), 84–89. https://doi.org/10.12720/jmmc.1.2.84-89

Seesink, T. (2007). Using blended instruction to teach academic vocabulary collocations: A case study. *ProQuest Dissertations and Theses*, 216. http://search.proquest.com/docview/304799775?accountid=13042%5Cnhttp://oxfordsfx.hosted.exlibrisgroup.com/oxford?url_ver=Z39.88-2004&rft_val_fmt=info:ofi/

mapub.org/mapss

MAP Social Sciences

Volume 1 / Issue 1

MAP Social Sciences (MAPSS) is an international, multi-disciplinary, peer-reviewed journal published two times a year by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.* The journal is a platform for publication of advanced academic research in the field of social sciences.

E-ISSN: **2744-2454**

REVIEW PAPER

TWICE-EXCEPTIONAL, HALF-NOTICED: THE RECOGNITION ISSUES OF GIFTED STUDENTS WITH LEARNING DISABILITIES

Uma Hamzić[1], Senad Bećirović[2]

[1] ***International Burch University**, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina*
[2] ***International Burch University**, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina*

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Uma Hamzić, International Burch University, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina. E-mail: uma.hamzic@stu.ibu.edu.ba and Senad Bećirović, International Burch University, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina. E-mail: senad.becirovic@ibu.edu.ba

ABSTRACT

Gifted children with learning disabilities are known as twice-exceptional. Both the identification and the classification of twice-exceptional children are a matter for practical ingenuity, as these children tend to fall upon extremes of a scale, resulting in either the child with both obvious giftedness and a learning disability or in the child where the giftedness effectively masks the disability. The latter results in a child that tests as average upon surface-level assessments. In this article, a new direction of the identification of twice-exceptional students is proposed in terms of specific learning disabilities, specifically in terms of the latter form of students who go through education undiagnosed. In addition to this direction, we provide a condensed understanding of both giftedness and specific learning disabilities in students, as well as how they interact in twice-exceptionality, and how teachers might best navigate the issue of masking within the classroom.

Keywords: gifted, talented, specific learning disability, twice-exceptional, masking

MAP Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing

MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES

Volume 1 / Issue 1

ISSN: 2744-2454/ © 2021 The Authors. Published by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.*

Article Submitted: **05 August 2021**
Article Accepted: **20 August 2021**
Article Published: **03 September 2021**

Publisher's Note: **MAP** *stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.*

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.13

MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES Volume 1 / Issue 1

© The Author(s). 2021 **Open Access Article**

Creative Commons CC BY: This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made.

OPEN ACCESS ARTICLE

Introduction

A crucial form of gifted students is their inherent vulnerability (Bećirović & Polz, 2021; Lyudmila & Maria, 2014; Roedell, 1984; Winner, 1996). A gifted student is forced to be somewhat imbalanced, either with poor social and emotional skills (Bećirović & Polz, 2021) or with an unequal academic ability (Winner, 1996). However, Winner (1996) goes on to describe the latter with the example of a gifted student who is uneven to the point of severe disbalance, upon which this disequilibrium can even be classified as a learning disability.

This idea of a gifted student with a learning disability goes as far back as 1981, but the specific term of twice-exceptionality to denote these specific children only came into use around 2004 (Buică-Belciu & Popovici, 2014; Coleman et al., 2005). In doing so, the field of education has since delved deep into the issues of classification and identification of twice-exceptional students (Brody & Mills, 1997; Buică-Belciu & Popovici, 2014; Flanagan & Alfonso, 2011; Fletcher et al., 2003; Reis et al., 2014; King, 2005).

This article intends to provide a wider range of understanding of both what it means to be classified as gifted and as specific learning disabled, especially in terms of how to use that knowledge to better understand the classification and assessment of twice-exceptional students. It will also question the practical application of these classifications within the classroom, specifically drawing upon King's (2005) division and the issue of comorbidity (Reis et al., 2014).

Definitions of "Gifted" and "Learning Disabled"

When it comes to the assessment and incorporation of exceptional students, be it "academically gifted" or "learning disabled", the key problem upon which both the processes of assessment and incorporation hinge is agreeing upon a definition. VanderStoep and Johnston (2009) argue the need for consistency and clarity in operational definitions in terms of allowing researchers and readers to reach a consensus on the data shown, as well as replication studies.

The opposing problem is the lack of knowledge and agreement around definitions outside of the specialized educational community (Bećirović & Polz, 2021). Educational institutions and communities might resist investing in differentiated instructions or an IEP (Individualized Educational Program) unless a student fits their specific operational definition of gifted or disabled; this can be anything from doing well on tests or assignments to being committed and creative (Matthews & Foster, 2005). If a teacher uses a biased operational definition, then their assessments and modifications to the curriculum will follow that same bias.

Both the academically gifted and the learning-disabled terms have multiple definitions, which change and evolve with educational progress, and the operational definitions stated below have been chosen either for their recent creation or for their connections to other, cited sources.

The first definition is distinguishing the terms of giftedness and talentness. Bećirović and Polz (2021) allows for this distinction by understanding the inherent contextual and culture differences; where some authors argue that giftedness and talent are true synonyms in the psychological field, others go as far as to say the field of giftedness is so broad that no one theory can accurately cover it (Gojkov, 1999). However, it can be said that the true difference lies within whether the advanced skill in question is due to a natural aptitude or not. If so, this natural aptitude results in a talent, which is also more likely to result in an advanced level of a practical skill. Upon that reasoning, giftedness is more likely to result in an academic skill through exceptional capacity; a student with this ability in an art form or athletic use is therefore talented (Matthews & Foster, 2005).

When it comes to learning disabilities, there is a division between specific learning disabilities and general learning disabilities. The Learning Disabilities Association of America (2021) defines learning disabilities as "average abilities essential for thinking and/or reasoning (…) distinct from global intellectual deficiency". The key point is that these general learning disabilities do not affect only learning processes; rather, they affect all processes, one of which may be learning. Therefore, for the purpose of this paper, one might say that a general learning disability can be defined as an overall reduction of abilities.

On the other hand, a specific learning disability (or: SLD) is not all-encompassing; it affects a particular aspect within a learning process, which mutates into a difficulty. A more detailed definition can be found within the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (2004) and goes as follows:

The term "specific learning disability" means a disorder in 1 or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which disorder may manifest itself in the imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations. Such term includes such conditions as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. Such term does not include a learning problem that is primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor disabilities, of intellectual disabilities, of emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage (Specific Learning Disabilities, 2004)

Within this given definition, specific learning disabilities are confined to those processes, primarily psychological, affecting the basic skills and abilities one uses to acquire new information. Due to such categorization, this paper will not concern itself with so-called perceptual disabilities, nor motor. It will also avoid socio-economic processes entirely.

In summary, a gifted student is one who shows an exceptional skill not born of aptitude in an academic field, resulting in an *unexpected overachievement*. Conversely, a student with a specific learning disability is one who has their basic learning processes affected through psychological means, resulting in an *unexpected underachievement* (Flanagan & Alfonso, 2011). It would be a logical assumption to say a twice-exceptional student would be one who shows an unexpected skill level in an academic field, while also having their primary processes of acquiring and understanding new information psychologically hindered, and without the necessity of these academic fields being the same. However, the issue of defining twice-exceptional students is more complicated; defining each of the parts does not equate to the whole.

While the concept of gifted students having learning disabilities can be seen in academic texts as early as 1996 (Winner, 1996), the specific term *twice-exceptional* being used to denote academically-gifted students with specific learning disabilities was first used by Gallagher (2004). The term has started to gain momentum, with more research being invested into what is being described as "puzzling patterns of behavior" (Buică-Belciu & Popovici, 2014, p. 519); twice-exceptional students may, for example, have a high level of vocabulary and advanced intellectual skills, but also show a low level of reading and writing abilities. These conundrums make assessments even more difficult, as well as even more essential.

According to Reis et al. (2014) twice-exceptional students have the ability for high or creative achievements in one or more domains, while also manifesting one or more disabilities as defined by locational criteria.

Assessment versus Test

Before tackling the issue of assessing twice-exceptional students, there is a need to differentiate assessment from test, as well as covering the basic forms of assessment.

Matthews and Foster (2005) differentiate the two by defining a test as a specific instrument, while an assessment is "more comprehensive than any one test and includes several different measures, maybe of which may be tests" (p. 47). A singular test will not be enough to uncover and analyze an intricate mask; we must use several tests of varied purposes to construct a series of measures upon which conclusions may be drawn.

Matthews and Foster (2005, p. 47) also exemplify specific tests for assessing giftedness, such as the *Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children* or the *Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale*. Meanwhile, their version of an assessment, specifically a "full psychoeducational assessment", will consist of at least one academic achievement test, a measure of learning style and self-concept as defined by Woolfolk (2016), an occasional intelligence test, and a consideration of the child's overall functioning ability in social settings. This last point is important, as a skill disbalance between academic strengths and emotional strengths was one of the symptoms leading to a gifted assessment.

For applied assessment within a classroom time and setting, the issue of masking results in twice-exceptional students being portrayed as underachievers, and not failing students (Buică-Belciu & Popovici, 2014). However, Brody and Mills (1997) pinpointed three criteria used to identify gifted students with learning disabilities: (a) evidence of an outstanding talent or ability, (b) ev-

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.13

idence of a discrepancy between expected and actual achievement, and (c) evidence of a processing deficit.

In order to classify sections (b) and (c), two primary methodologies currently exist to identify possible learning disabilities; problem-solving and intra-individual (Weiss et al., 2016). These approaches are also known as instructional and cognitive. A problem-solving or instructional approach relies on tools, such as a curriculum-based assessment, to provide an already-identified low-achieving student with a corresponding intervention. On the other hand, an intra-individual or cognitive approach focuses on cognitive explanations for the perceived learning difficulty, such as phonological processing (a sub-issue of low reading skills) or working memory.

The differences between the instructional and cognitive approach to LD identification is in the desired result. An instructional approach does not seek to resolve an idea of classification; it only searches for the available tools in each scenario which could be used to support a struggling student. Meanwhile, a cognitive approach focuses on the perceived discrepancy between "intact and deficient abilities" (Kaufman, 2008) as the reason for unexpected underachievement, previously defined as a sole central factor of a learning disability.

However, according to Fletcher et al. (2003), identification of a learning disability relies on the categorical framework upon which it can be further classified into subtypes. Fletcher continues by defining his three main approaches to identifying the correct subtype of LD; achievement subtypes, clinical inferential (or rational) subtypes, and empirically based subtypes.

Finally, King (2005) defines three subtypes of twice-exceptional students; those who identify as gifted with a low-affecting disability, those who are unidentified, and those who identify as both.

The first of these three, those who identify as gifted, have easily-identifiable gifted skill levels while having subtle specific learning disabilities that are easy to mislabel. This group is most likely to achieve grade-level or expected results on testing tools, meaning they are also the most likely to have their specific learning disabilities overlooked (King, 2005).

The second group, those who are unidentified, have their gifted side and their specific learning disability side in constant battle with each other. This results in a perfect mask, with their gifted abilities compensating for their specific learning disabilities, which will be seen as a completely average participation or achievement in the classroom. In reality, these students are functioning at a lower level than their potential might allow, and means the second group is most likely to go completely unidentified. It also means the second group is the most likely to suffer from mild depression later in life (King, 2005).

The third group, those who identify as both, have the highest chances of being given the specific academic and social setting they need in order to achieve their full potential. Because of their high level of ability, any potential learning difficulties can be noticed much more easily. This has the unfortunate side effect of students ultimately being noticed and defined by their disability, and this group will become acutely aware of their perceived failures, resulting in a low self-concept (King, 2005).

Academic and Social Needs

Yet another scope of twice-exceptional children is what a positive and practical assessment would require. The reasoning behind the theoretical background of both academically gifted and specific learning-disabled students is summarized by Reis et al. (2014): "Identification, when possible, should be conducted by professionals from both disciplines and when at all possible, by those with knowledge about twice exceptionality" (p. 222). Twice-exceptional students have unique needs in all fields, not just academic, and even a correct assessment might not resolve the quality of these needs being met. Bećirović and Polz (2021) state that gifted students need support from all probable fields where a relationship may form, and not just the school itself. Similarly, disabled students will still require accommodation outside of the classroom, even as a student diagnosed with a specific learning disability.

A mainstream model used globally to support students with special education needs is some kind of special treatment or IEP (Bećirović & Akbarov, 2016; Jones & Jones, 1995). An Individualized Education Plan has been in active use in education since the 1970s (Pretti-Frontczak and Bricker, 2000) and originated specifically as a methodology of assessing modifications and accommodations for disabled students; however, it is now a core belief of differentiated education that students work best within individualized settings.

Any programs attempting to allow for specialized educational needs function on three key assumptions; (a) that students need to be challenged to fulfill their potential, (b) that the need for differentiated instruction rises with the level on unexpected ability, negative or otherwise, and (c), that students require coursework on their level and capabilities (Brody, 2001).

The preferred methodology of special education students varies within all countries with any public interest in the field. Where Russian psychology in the 1960s was dominated by the belief of nurture over nature resulting in gifted students, Austrian students were allowed to self-isolate to focus on their skilled fields (Bećirović & Polz, 2021). This structure can still be seen in Bosnia and Herzegovina, where gifted students are encouraged into competing on the national level with the ability to have unrelated subjects excused; most commonly, the arts.

This structure might also be directly connected to the continued disbalance between educational and social capacities. Winner (2001) states that a rule of gifted ability is *unevenness*; a student cannot show both verbal and mathematical exceptionality, and when empirically researched, this was confirmed by showing a higher probability of finding an individual with a high mathematical ability with a corresponding low verbal ability as long as they had a high IQ. The same disparity could not be found within low IQ individuals (Winner, 2001).

However, this unevenness may not be limited to academic forms. Bećirović and Polz (2021) show this same disparity between general academic skills and social and emotional skills. It is this disparity which might cause complications in the everyday classroom, as special education students are more likely to be isolated from their peers. While parents and teachers promote differentiation, the same information can be used to mock or ridicule.

Furthermore, because of this insistence on unusual capabilities, gifted students will develop unusually high expectations of their achievements, resulting in a critical fear of failure. Twice-exceptional children, however, will experience failure at much higher levels than a purely gifted child, which will then make the fear of failure into a much higher level as well. This fear can then branch off into performance anxiety, procrastination, aggressiveness, an inherently problematic perfectionist outlook, and impulsive behavior (Ahmetović et al., 2020; King, 2005).

Connected research has linked the self-placed expectations of twice-exceptional students and a poor self-concept (Want & Neihart, 2015). Bong and Skaalvik (2003) described the idea of "academic self-concept" as the perception one has about themselves when placed in academic situations, and is developed alongside the internal comparison of the students' abilities in various domains, as well as the external comparison of the student against their peers. This academic self-concept will affect engagement and effort, alongside academic achievement, and research has also shown a positive correlation between academic achievement and peer status in the classroom (Mašić et al., 2020; Plucker & Stocking, 2001).

Discussion: the Identification of Twice-Exceptional Students

According to Cvetković-Lay and Sekulić-Majurec (1998) some of the following symptoms upon which a gifted diagnosis may be argued has been compiled below:

- above-average reasoning, understanding and acquisition of abstract concepts, generalizing, understanding meaning, and perceiving relationships,
- great intellectual curiosity,
- quick and easy learning,
- wide range of interests,
- (...) ability to work independently,
- (...) demonstrating initiative and originality in cognitive activities, especially in learning and problem solving,
- (...) perfectionist approach to all activities, aversion to error--notices them and develops negative feelings to them,
- (...) preference of adult over peer company.

The same list cannot be compiled for specific learning disorders. Flanagan and Alfonso (2011) argue that for one to understand the meaning of a "specific learning disability" term, one must also understand the concept of classification in applied psychology. In short, a classification is a hypothetical collection of categorical concepts. In practice, a classification is simply a step closer to the goal of *identification,* which represents a method of organizing the perceived symptoms within a case to some kind of inherent structure and using said structure to provide a diagnosis.

The classification of specific learning disabilities functions under the expectation that the observer will be able to compile a set of criteria, which can then be used to classify the case to a particular subgroup. Each subgroup will have a unique range of signs. Following this line of reasoning, to try and collect a master-list of symptoms to look for with specific learning disabilities isn't possible; each subgroup under the umbrella classification of specific learning disability will manifest in different ways, and therefore, will have different kinds of symptoms.

However, Flanagan and Alfonso (2011) do share a common theme; as previously mentioned, the "critical aspect of SLD that serves to differentiate it from other academic problems, (…) is *unexpected underachievement*" (p. 116). Current Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (2004) regulations require some form of assessment showing that a case child does not function on the expected level in any one of the eight fields related to manifesting language (reading, writing, listening, or speaking), as well as proof that the child in question has "received appropriate instruction in regular education settings and (…) data-based documentation of repeated assessments of student progress" (Fletcher et al., 2011, p. 125).

For comprehensive purposes, some of the most frequent symptoms within their specific categories have been compiled. Reading disorders will most often manifest as developmental dyslexia, the mathematical variant of which is dyscalculia; poor handwriting and spelling scores can be a symptom of a writing disorder when not connected to poor motor control; and oral communication may be influenced both by intrapersonal and interpersonal disorders, both of which lead to poor linguistic skills of comprehension and social communication (Flanagan & Alfonso, 2011).

What this understanding can lead to is a comprehensive approach towards strengths and weaknesses of twice-exceptional students. Research shows that such students may have above-average abilities within higher-order or abstract thinking skills, as well as a self-awareness of advanced problem-solving and cognitive skills (Bećirović et. al.; Hannah & Shore, 2008; Munro, 2002). Simultaneously, the same students might have below-average levels in working memory and processing speed, as well as in general socialization and communication skills (Assouline et al., 2010; Wood & Estrada-Hernández, 2009). Reviewing student records to observe a change in performance or analyzing discrepant scores is one such way for a teacher to attempt identifying a twice-exceptional student (Baldwin et al., 2015).

The primary issue of assessment in terms of definitions is one that has been well-argued, especially with the issue of masking. In the field of twice exceptionality, masking is defined as a compensatory strategy in which a gift may counteract with or minimize the outwardly influence of a disability; or, the opposing reaction, in which a disability counteracts or minimizes a gift (Ottone-Cross et al., 2016; Silverman, 2003). Using the previously-given example of a twice-exceptional student with a high level of vocabulary but a low level of reading skill might focus on their speaking abilities instead. Another, similar example given by Ottone-Cross et al. (2018) gives the example of a student compensating for poor decoding skills with a superior sight word vocabulary.

Through these cases, we can see that masking can influence both the gifted and the disabled aspect of a student. Unless specific assessment is done, neither of these spheres are likely to be recognized, leaving the student without any kind of special education services. It should also be noted that assessment of this is required, not testing, which is a distinction explained in a later section.

Another, crucial issue is one of comorbidity. Feinstein (1970) defined this term as "any distinct additional, clinical entity that has coexisted or that may occur during the clinical course of a patient" (p. 456-457) and is often called upon within the occurrence of two or more different mental disorders. An addiction may follow chemical treatments for anxiety or depression, for example, and this addiction must be treated within its own right as a disorder and *not* as a side effect.

This paper lists some of the researched and empirically-backed lists of so-called symptoms of both giftedness and disability. Reis et al. (2014) argue that individuals who have such co-occurring disorders must be considered as "distinct from either syndrome occurring alone" (p. 220). In other words, teachers or educational specialists attempting a twice-exceptional assessment must *not* simply compare lists of symptoms and try to pick out several that match. We see this mentality echoed in Ottone-Cross et al. (2016) which openly states the need for future research on twice-exceptional students to track specifically such comorbid effects.

Reis et al. (2014) also continue this need by circling back to their own definition, as seen in the introduction section, by emphasizing both masking and comorbidity as a possible reason for individual, comprehensive assessment in *both* areas, as "one does not preclude the other" (p. 222).

A well-known fact of disability services is that not every special-needs student will be placed into special education. Even if the parents agree and support the assessment, the IEP answers all needs concisely and clearly, and the student admits to the difficulty in question, there is still a chance for the service administrators to label the disability as "reasonable", and therefore, unnecessary for the redirection of allocated resources (Jones & Jones, 1995). Specific learning disabilities are especially circumnavigated in this situation, both because of the difficulty in assessment and because of the end results when a Response to Intervention is incorporated.

The Centers for Disease Control put forth their estimation of the percentage of children with learning disabilities being anywhere from 5% to 10% of the population (Silver, 1989). When it comes to actual studies providing these estimations, it is statistically estimated that 30% of gifted students have some level of a learning disability, while up to 10% of high-IQ children will be assessed as having below-average reading skills, going as far as being up to two grades below their expected level (Little, 2001; Winner, 1996).

It is necessary to revisit these statistics. While we have these estimations of how many gifted students have a specific learning disability, it is most specifically the research of King (2005) that shows a foundational need to revisit our estimations of hidden twice-exceptional students.

If we look specifically to the gifted students who perform in an unexpected way outside of their achievements or exceptional potential, then we are more likely to be sensitive towards specific characteristics that would in turn help us to designate disability diagnosis. The place to look for twice-exceptional students is not within the gifted population. Nor is the place to search in the learning-disabled population. To accurately gain information and assessment on what being twice-exceptional entails, we must try to find Williams King's *second* group of students; those twice-exceptional students that have their gifted side and their specific learning disability side in contrast to each other, and identify as neither.

In this group of students, masking occurs so well that one side compensates for the other. This is in direct contrast with the issue of comorbidity. The crucial understanding of the definition of twice-exceptionality is not that students are likely to exhibit behaviors of both. Rather, it is that the two distinct diagnoses will work together to create a third list of symptoms, which we can then use to classify the individual. Putting this into contrast with how the everyday teacher (with little to no special education training or services) approaches a twice-exceptional analysis, a conclusion can be drawn that Williams King's second group of students is perpetually being overlooked. While studies such as that by Reis (1995) take a closer look into the percentage of twice-exceptional students in primarily gifted or primarily learning-disabled population, new studies are required that assess the possibility for twice-exceptionality in groups of students that test consistently *average* on a surface level.

In effect, students that mask so well that standardized assessment does not pick up on fluctuations in their expected potential can be argued to be the most balanced form of twice-exceptional students and therefore gifted students in general. This group of students, if given the proper academic foundation to understand and work with their learning profile, could result in a well-rounded child with both the exceptional potential that can be called upon and the known risks or weaknesses that can be circumnavigated.

The characteristics of twice exceptionality that may be uncovered within this form of research has the distinct possibility of being an assessable variant. If so, this variant would also have the distinct possibility to provide new perceptions of masking and comorbidity in twice exceptionality. Therefore, the direction of research in terms of replication studies in the fields of Little and Reis (2001; 1995) should incorporate the factor of assessing observed average groups of students and making case studies out of any twice-exceptional students that may be found in those groups.

Conclusion

The foundation of assessment and intervention of twice-exceptional children has been the identification and definition of the unrecognized students (Crepeau-Hobson & Bianco, 2010; Baldwin et al., 2015; Finn, 2000; McCoach et al., 2001; Reis et al., 2014). This issue of identification is two-pronged, as it lies both within the lack of definitional understanding outside the specialized community as well as the ever-changing operational definitions of the "academically gifted" and "specific learning disabled" terms (Bećirović & Polz, 2021; VanderStoep & Johnston, 2009).

However, these operational definitions and the studies committed to analyzing the data thereof are primarily focused on pre-existing communities with a "gifted" or "disabled" label. As the majority of unrecognized twice-exceptional students suffer from extreme masking (Ottone-Cross et al., 2016; Silverman, 2003), the focus of identification ought to be on what King (2005) defines as the second of three groups; the students that are recorded as average upon surface-level assessment, but are in reality twice-exceptional with near-perfect masks. Furthermore, it is within this specific group of students that the effects of comorbidity may be better understood, as the characteristics of twice-exceptionality are distinct from the individual sides of giftedness and learning disability and require specific research (Ottone-Cross et al., 2016; Reis et al., 2014).

If the body of data we use to identify twice-exceptional students primarily arrives from test groups with pre-assessed labels, researchers will continue to rely on those labels for future assessments. Future research has the potential to further investigate comorbid characteristics within supposedly-average groups of students, in order to determine whether a statistically significant percentage of twice-exceptional students exists. If so, there is also the potential to incorporate case studies of those students, to attempt a compilation of distinguishing features of this specific group.

References

Ahmetović, E., Bećirović, S., & Dubravac, V. (2020). *Motivation, Anxiety and Students' Performance*. *9*(2), 271–289. https://doi.org/10.13187/ejced.2020.2.271

Assouline, S., Foley Nicpon, M., & Whiteman, C. (2010). Cognitive and Psychosocial Characteristics of Gifted Students With Written Language Disability. Gifted Child Quarterly, 54(2), 102-115. https://doi.org/10.1177/0016986209355974

Baldwin, L., Omdal, S. and Pereles, D. (2015). Beyond Stereotypes: Understanding, Recognizing, and Working With Twice-Exceptional Learners. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, 47(4), p.216-225

Bećirović, S., & Akbarov, A. (2016). Talent development through familial environment. *International Journal of Social and Educational Innovation (IJSEIro),* 3(5), 7-24.

Bećirović, S., Brdarević-Čeljo, A., & Dubravac, V., (2018). The Effect of Nationality, Gender, and GPA on the Use of Reading Strategies Among EFL University Students. *Sage Open*, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018809286

Bećirović, S., & Polz, E. (2021). *Fostering Giftedness: Challenges and Opportunities*. Nova Science Publishers.

Berninger, V. and Dunn, M. (2012). Brain and Behavioral Response to Intervention for Specific Reading, Writing, and Math Disabilities: What Works for Whom?. In: B. Wong and D. Butler, ed., *Learning about Learning Disabilities*, 4th ed. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Academic Press, pp. 59-88.

Bong, M., & Skaalvik, E. (2003). Academic Self-Concept and Self-Efficacy: How Different are They Really?. *Educational Psychology Review*, *15*(1), 1-40. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1021302408382

Brody, L. (2001). The Talent Search Model for Meeting the Academic Needs of Gifted and Talented Students. *Gifted and Talented International*, 16(2), pp. 99-102.

Brody, L., & Mills, C. (1997). Gifted Children with Learning Disabilities: A Review of the Issues. *Journal Of Learning Disabilities*, *30*(3), pp. 282-296. https://doi.org/10.1177/002221949703000304

Buică-Belciu, C. and Popovici, D. (2014). Being Twice Exceptional: Gifted Students with Learning Disabilities. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 127, pp. 519-523.

Coleman, M., Harradine, C., & King, E. (2005). Meeting the Needs of Students who are Twice Exceptional. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, *38*(1), 5-7. doi: 10.1177/004005990503800101

Crepeau-Hobson, F., & Bianco, M. (2010). Identification of gifted students with learning disabilities in a Response-to-Intervention era. *Psychology In The Schools*, *48*(2), 102-109. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.20528

Cvetković-Lay, J., & Sekulić-Majurec, A. (1998). *Darovito je,* što ću s *njim? Priručnik za odgoj i obrazovanje darovite djece predškolske dobi. [It's gifted, what am I going to do with it? A handbook for raising and educating gifted preschoolers.]* (1st ed.). Alinea.

Feinstein, A. (1970). The pre-therapeutic classification of co-morbidity in chronic disease. *Journal Of Chronic Diseases*, *23*(7), pp. 455-468. https://doi.org/10.1016/0021-9681(70)90054-8

Flanagan, D. and Alfonso, V. (2011). *Essentials of Specific Learning Disability Identification*. 1st ed. Hoboken, New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Fletcher, J., Barth, A., & Stuebing, K. (2011). A Response to Intervention (RTI); Approach to SLD Identification. In D. Flanagan & V. Alfonso, *Essentials of Specific Learning Disability Identification* (1st ed., pp. 115-144). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Gallagher, J. (2004). *Public policy in gifted education* (1st ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

G. Weiss, L., H. Saklofske, D., A. Holdnack, J. and Prifitera, A. (2016). *WISC-V Assessment and Interpretation*. 1st ed. San Diego, California: Academic Press, pp. 237-268.

Gojkov, G. (1999). Rana identifikacija darovitosti [Early identification of giftedness]. *Viša* Škola *Za Obrazovanje Vaspitača [Higher School For Teacher Education]*, *5*(1).

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 20 U.S.C. § 1401 (2004).

Jones, V., & Jones, L. (1995). *Comprehensive classroom management*. Allyn & Bacon.

Hannah, C., & Shore, B. (2008). Twice-Exceptional Students' Use of Metacognitive Skills on a Comprehension Monitoring Task. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, *52*(1), pp. 3-18. https://doi.org/10.1177/0016986207311156

Kaufman, A. S. (2008). Neuropsychology and specific learning disabilities: Lessons from the past as a guide to present controversies and future practice. In E. Fletcher-Janzen & C. R. Reynolds, *Neuropsychological perspectives on learning disabilities in the era of RTI: Recommendations for diagnosis and intervention* (pp. 1-13). Hoboken, NJ, US: John Wiley & Sons.

Little, C. (2001). A Closer Look at Gifted Children with Disabilities. *Gifted Child Today*, *24*(3), 46-64. https://doi.org/10.4219/gct-2001-537

Lyudmila, P., & Maria, R. (2014). Gifted children and their Problems. *Austrian Journal Of Humanities And Social Sciences*, *1*(1), pp. 297-301.

Mašić, A., Polz, E., & Bećirović, S. (2020). The Relationship between Learning Styles, GPA, School Level and Gender. *European Researcher*, *11*(1), 51–60. https://doi.org/10.13187/er.2020.1.51

Matthews, D. and Foster, J. (2005). *Being Smart about Gifted Children*. 1st ed. Scottsdale, Arizona: Great Potential Press.

McCoach, D., Kehle, T., Bray, M., & Siegle, D. (2001). Best practices in the identification of gifted students with learning disabilities. *Psychology In The Schools*, *38*(5), 403-411. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.1029

Munro, J. (2002). Gifted learning disabled students. *Australian Journal Of Learning Disabilities*, *7*(2), 20-30. https://doi.org/10.1080/19404150209546698

Ottone-Cross, K., Dulong-Langley, S., Root, M., Gelbar, N., Bray, M., Luria, S., Choi, D., Kaufman, J., Courville, T. and Pan, X. (2016). Beyond the Mask: Analysis of Error Patterns on the KTEA-3 for Students With Giftedness and Learning Disabilities. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 35(1-2), pp. 74-93.

Ottone-Cross, K., Gelbar, N., Dulong-Langley, S., Root, M., Avitia, M., Bray, M., Courville, T. and Pan, X. (2018). Gifted and learning-disabled: A study of strengths and weaknesses in higher-order processing. *International Journal of School & Educational Psychology*, 7(1), pp. 173-181.

Pretti-Frontczak, K. and Bricker, D. (2000). Enhancing the Quality of Individualized Education Plan (IEP) Goals and Objectives. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 23(2), pp. 92-105.

Reis, S., Baum, S. and Burke, E. (2014). An Operational Definition of Twice-Exceptional Learners. *Gifted Child Quarterly*, 58(3), pp. 217-230.

Reis, S., Neu, T., & McGuire, J. (1997). Case Studies of High-Ability Students with Learning Disabilities Who Have Achieved. *Exceptional Children*, *63*(4), pp. 463-479. https://doi.org/10.1177/001440299706300403

Roedell, W. (1984). Vulnerabilities of highly gifted children. *Roeper Review*, *6*(3), 127-130. doi: 10.1080/02783198409552782

Silver, L. (1989). Learning disabilities: Introduction. *Journal Of The American Academy Of Child And Adolescent Psych*, *28*(1), pp. 309-313.

Silverman, L. (2003). Gifted children with learning disabilities. In N. Colan-gelo & G. Davis, *Handbook on Gifted Education* (3rd ed., pp. 533–543). Allyn & Bacon.

Swanson, H., Harris, K., & Graham, S. (2021). *Handbook of Learning Disabilities* (2nd ed., pp. 30-56). Guilford Press.

VanderStoep, S. and Johnston, D. (2009). *Research Methods for Everyday Life*. 1st ed. San Francisco, California: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Wang, C. and Neihart, M. (2015). Academic Self-Concept and Academic Self-Efficacy: Self-Beliefs Enable Academic Achievement of Twice-Exceptional Students. *Roeper Review*, 37(2), pp. 63-73.

Williams King, E. (2005). Addressing the Social and Emotional Needs of Twice-Exceptional Students. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, 38(1), pp. 16-20.

Winner, E. (1996). *Gifted Children: Myths And Realities* (1st ed.). Basic Books.

Wood, S., & Estrada-Hernández, N. (2009). Psychosocial Characteristics of Twice-exceptional Individuals: Implications for Rehabilitation Practice. *Journal Of Applied Rehabilitation Counseling*, *40*(3), 11-18. https://doi.org/10.1891/0047-2220.40.3.11

Woolfolk, A. (2016). *Educational Psychology* (13th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

mapub.org/mapss

Social Sciences

Volume 1 / Issue 1

MAP Social Sciences (MAPSS) is an international, multi-disciplinary, peer-reviewed journal published two times a year by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.* The journal is a platform for publication of advanced academic research in the field of social sciences.

E-ISSN: **2744-2454**

ORIGINAL RESEARCH PAPER

THE ROLE OF READING IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

Aldiana Laličić[1], Vildana Dubravac[2]

[1] ***International Burch University***, *Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina*
[2] ***International Burch University***, *Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina*

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Aldiana Laličić, International Burch University, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina. E-mail: aldiana.lalicic@stu.ibu.edu.ba and Vildana Dubravac, International Burch University, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina. E-mail: vildana.dubravac@ibu.edu.ba

ABSTRACT

Being able to read well is crucially important for language learners. Successful performance at elementary and high school level, as well as on higher levels of academic education, is partly dependent on the ability to read. It is believed that good learners are those who are proficient in reading. However, building such a connection between a reader and the written information is complex for both English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) students, and requires the application of various reading strategies. The present study aimed to investigate EFL Bosnian learners' awareness of the use of various reading strategies. Furthermore, the study investigated students' reading habits, favorite reading materials, and the purpose of reading. It was conducted among fifty-seven ninth grade elementary school students. The findings proved that these students are aware of the importance of reading and development of reading skills, as well as of the importance of using appropriate reading strategies in order to be proficient readers and eventually to be more successful in the overall process of learning.

Keywords: reading, reading comprehension, reading strategies, reading habits, reading interests, language learning

MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES

Volume 1 / Issue 1

ISSN: 2744-2454/ © 2021 The Authors. Published by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.*

Article Submitted: **28 July 2021**
Article Accepted: **15 August 2021**
Article Published: **03 September 2021**

Publisher's Note: **MAP** *stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.*

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.23

MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES Volume 1 / Issue 1

© The Author(s). 2021 **Open Access Article**

Creative Commons CC BY: This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made.

OPEN ACCESS ARTICLE

Introduction

In the process of acquiring a new language reading is considered an important part of the learning process (Akabuike & Asika, 2012; Carter et al, 2010; Nel, Dreyer & Kopper 2004; Floris & Dvina, 2015; Palani, 2012; Pretorius, 2000; Tien, 2015). As a means of seeking knowledge, information or entertainment through the written words (Rwanda Book Development Initiative, 2011), the activity of reading, which starts with the beginning of school age and continues throughout students' lifetime, is the basic tool of learning. Actually, the ability to read is acknowledged as the most stable and durable of the second-language (L2) skills (Bernhardt, 1991). Krashen (2004) stated that spending much time on reading is more fruitful and beneficial for students than the time spent on teaching or learning vocabulary. He explained that spending time on reading motivates students more than spending time on retelling texts or learning new words by rote memorization. Palani (2012, p. 91) stated that "effective reading is the most important avenue of effective learning as the achievement of academic success requires successful reading". It helps learners develop other related skills such as grammar, vocabulary and writing (Koch, 1974). Thus, being a good reader is not a luxury in the 21st century, but a necessary life skill. In fact, it can be argued that reading is the essence of all formal education as "literacy in academic settings exists within the content of a massive amount of print information" (Grabe, 1991, p. 89) and students primarily access this information through reading.

However, understanding of the text cannot be acquired automatically by ESL/ EFL learners, but gradually developed using reading strategies (Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo & Sinanović, 2017). They should be introduced at the very early stages of language learning, eventually leading to the development of independent and successful learners (Anderson, 1985; Afflerbach et al, 2008: Chamot, 2005; Oxford, 1990; Paris & Jacobs, 1984; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Reading strategies are defined as an action or series of actions employed in order to construct meaning (Garner, 1987). In other words, they present learning techniques, behaviors, problem-solving or study skills which make learning more effective and efficient (Oxford & Crookall, 1989). One significant type of reading strategies are metacognitive reading strategies, i.e. "intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading" (Sheorey & Mokhtari 2001, 436), further classified into global referring to reading methods used intentionally and unintentionally by readers to monitor reading (e.g. previewing, predicting, skimming, and scanning the text), problem solving entailing methods and actions used by readers to facilitate and better process reading the difficult text (e.g. include guessing the meaning of words, visualizing the reading materials, adjusting reading pace, and reading slowly) and support strategies used to help readers increase their comprehension of the text (e.g. taking notes while reading, paraphrasing the text, using related materials, asking questions, summarizing) (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). As such, strategies are an instrument that allows learners to become self-directed, and they bring about better self-confidence, which contributes to more effective learning and enhancement of communicative competence (Oxford, 1990).

Exactly effective learning and developed communicative competence is what EFL learners strive to achieve worldwide, including Bosnia and Herzegovina (B&H) (Dedović-Atilla & Dubravac, 2017; Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo, & Dubravac, 2018; Dubravac, 2016; Dubravac & Latić, 2019; Dubravac & Skopljak, 2020; Skopljak & Dubravac, 2019; Dubravac, Brdarević-Čeljo, & Bećirović, 2018; Tankosić & Dubravac, 2016), English becoming necessary in order to meet different academic and job requirements, but also in terms of everyday life activities. In order to reach the above-mentioned requirements, it is necessary to emphasize the importance of reading strategies since their application leads to better academic and overall outcomes. Therefore, the current study aimed to explore students' awareness of metacognitive reading strategies among the Bosnian EFL ninth-grade elementary school students. In order to provide further insight into the issue in this rather unexplored EFL learning context, apart from reading strategies, the present study also investigated students' reading habits and interests, the frequency of reading, favorite reading materials and the purpose of reading. The results are expected to give educators reliable and helpful guidelines for organizing EFL classes, in particular those devoted to the development of reading skills.

Literature review

There are numerous studies investigating the role and significance of reading (e.g. Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo, & Dubravac, 2018; Chege, 2012;

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.23

Grimm, 2008; Keskin, 2013; Koda, 2007; Lerkkanen et al., 2005; Snow, 2002) which have revealed that learners who read effectively and use reading strategies are more proficient and achieve better academic results. Reading improves learners' spelling abilities and enriches their vocabulary storage (Carson, 2000; Kolawole, 2009), it facilitates the development of literacy skills that everyone needs for effective communication in different contexts. Although the importance of reading in terms of L2 knowledge development has been recognized (Aharony & Bar-Ilan, 2018; Bouchamma et al., 2013; Cahyaningati & Lestari, 2018; Eutsler & Trotter, 2020; Hussain & Munshi, 2011; Shonfeld & Meishar-Tal, 2016), it still poses a challenge to many language learners. It is believed that students read not because they want to read, but because they have to read. Students perceive reading as a task that they have to undertake in order to excel academically. Interestingly, Kaur and Thivagarajah (1999) revealed that Malaysian students preferred to watch television and videos compared to reading for pleasure and as a result they read very little. Likewise, Yilmaz (2000) discovered that the majority of the students (77.8%) do not possess any reading habits, wherein (8.5%), which is the smallest percentage are heavy readers. Hastings and Henry (2006) in Loan (2012) observed that more than half of the students, i.e. (56%), spend less than half an hour a day on reading and (13%) are non-readers. Also, the downward trend of reading habits of college students was witnessed in United States of America by research carried out by National Endowment for the Arts (NEA) in 2008, when it was (51.7%) compared to 1982 when it was (59.8%). Therefore, students' reading preferences should be widely investigated to find a proper way of motivating them to read more.

In fact, Maro, Gusdian and Safitri (2020) conducted a study among 35 third semester students of the English Language Education Department, and identified several benefits of taking into account student's own preference in reading, namely easier comprehension of the content of the reading material; greater interest in reading; broader knowledge, and greater focus on the text. Their findings showed that novels are most preferred as their reading material (54.2%). When it comes to the preferred genre 31.4% preferred fiction. A similar study was conducted by Johari et al. (2013) in the context of Malaysia. The findings indicated that students read to gain information and knowledge, though many chose reading as a hobby as their last choice in explaining their motives of reading. Besides, they preferred non-academic reading materials, mainly lighter forms reading materials such as comics, story books and magazines. Another research by Bataineh and Al-Barakat (2005) investigated students' reading interests, the source of reading materials, and students' attitude toward reading. They found students' top preference are stories and picture books/magazines.

With the development of new technology and different kinds of media, electronic materials have become of great importance. However, there are research studies which have demonstrated that the experience of reading e-books is not equivalent to reading textbooks. Thus, Woody, Daniel and Baker (2010) tried to examine factors influencing preference for e-books as well as reported use of e-book content. Their findings revealed that students did not prefer e-books over textbooks regardless of their gender. No significant correlations existed between the number of e-books previously used and overall preference of e-books: Participants who had previously used an e-book still preferred print texts for learning. Despite the ability to easily access content through e-books via hyperlinks and other features, students were more likely to use print books than e-books. Chaudhry and Al-Adwani (2019) conducted a questionnaire-based survey on students' reading practices,in the English Department of the College of Basic Education, in Kuwait among 410 participants. It was found that students read mainly for entertainment, and reading did not appear to be a popular activity among students. Fiction, fashion, and best sellers were the three main types of reading, indicating that academic reading was not a priority. Only a small proportion of students used e-books, although they perceived e-books very useful because of their portability and ability to store more information. Actually, many researchers pointed out that younger users seem to prefer e-books to print-based learning resources, that e-book capabilities will continually improve, and that their costs will likely decrease in the future (Chang & Ley, 2006; Li Liew, Foo, & Chennupati, 2000; Temple, Kemp, & Benson, 2006), contributing to their popularity. However, it seems that students enjoy much more reading other material available online. For instance, Huang, Capps, Blacklock, and Garza (2014) in their study pointed out that college students were reading materials from social media sites far more than from books, and in particular about twice as much material from social media sites as from leisure books. They noted that books for pleasure were being supplanted by Facebook

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.23

and Twitter posts. We indeed witness immense popularity of social media among our students, particularly those younger ones.

It has been confirmed that reading preferences indeed differ with regard to age levels. Mellon (1990) surveyed the leisure reading choices of rural teenagers and found that their reasons for leisure reading were for entertainment and for acquiring information. Magazines and newspapers were found to be the most preferred reading materials of teenagers. It was also shown that informational reading was the main purpose for adult reading and their most popular books were: adventure, crime, social problems, novels, politics, and sports in ranking sequence. Platt (1986) reviewed several selected studies on reading preferences of adolescents, and concluded that adolescents read extensively books, periodicals, and newspapers. Graduate and undergraduate students' reading behaviors slightly vary. Hall (1989) examined 285 freshmen at a large southern urban university. Over 70% of all students favored reading magazines and newspapers most and novels least, and half of the students read the sports, entertainment and front-page sections of the newspaper regularly. In addition, graduate ESL students spent more time reading academic materials than did their undergraduate counterparts (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 1994).

However, whatever kind of material is read, the process will be more fruitful if suitable strategies are applied. In this context, the significance of the metacognitive strategies cannot be neglected (Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Kolic-Vehovec, 2006; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Pazzaglia, De Beni & Cristiante, 1994; Snow, 2002; Young & Fry, 2008). Generally, EFL learners seem to demonstrate moderate to high awareness of reading strategies, while they tend to resort to problem solving strategies most, followed by global and support strategies (Anderson, 2002; Malcolm, 2009; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004; Zare & Maftoon, 2014). Similarly, investigating the metacognitive reading strategies used by undergraduate students while reading academic texts, Rajab, Rahman, Wahab, Nor, Zakaria and Rajim (2017) found out that when students have difficulties in comprehending academic texts they tend to use more problem-solving reading strategies than global or support reading strategies. The findings indicated that students are not focusing on knowing the most effective strategies, but rather on how to use strategies effectively and appropriately.

When it comes to the context of the present study, there have been some studies conducted in order to investigate reading strategy use by Bosnian EFL learners (Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo, & Sinanović, 2017; Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo, & Dubravac, 2018). In their study, Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo and Sinanović (2017) investigated the overall usage of different types of metacognitive reading strategies by non-native English language speakers at International Burch University. They used the Metacognitive Reading Strategies Questionnaire (MRSQ) and the research sample was composed of 140 university-level students studying in two different fields, namely the field of English Language and Literature and Management. The analysis revealed that gender, grade level and study field had a significant effect on the use of metacognitive reading strategies, whereas the effect of nationality on the overall use of metacognitive reading strategies as well as on both of their subtypes was insignificant. Furthemore, Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo and Dubravac (2018) conveyed a study among 228 students studying at three different universities in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The aims of the study were to find out how gender, nationality, and grade point average affect the frequency of the usage of different types of reading strategies among Bosnian university students. The analysis revealed moderate to high awareness of reading strategies, the problem-solving strategies being most frequently used. A three-way ANOVA showed a significant main effect of gender as well as a significant interaction effect of Nationality × Grade Point Average on The Survey of Reading Strategies questionnaire. Moreover, a three-way MANOVA revealed that gender had a significant main effect on the combined variables (global, support, and problem-solving reading strategies). Similarly, the interaction effect of Nationality × Grade Point Average was significant on the three combined variables, while the interaction effects of Grade Point Average × Gender and Grade Point Average × Nationality proved significant only on the Problem-Solving subscale. However, further research investigating the role of reading in general and reading strategies should be done in Bosnian EFL context in order to provide us with a deeper insight into the subject matter. It would certainly contribute to better understanding of the reading strategies and it would help learners and teachers to recognize the importance of their use in FL classrooms. Thus, for the purpose of the study the following four research questions were introduced:

1. What is the purpose of students' reading?

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.23

2. Which print sources do students prefer to read?
3. What are the students' reading habits?
4. Which metacognitive strategies do they use most frequently?

Methodology

Participants

The present study was carried out among students in elementary school in Sarajevo, B&H. The research sample consisted of 57 ninth-graders, aged 14/15. There were 33 (57.90%) female and 24 (42.10%) male participants. The participants voluntarily completed the questionnaire. Figure 1 shows that at the time of completing the questionnaire the most participants had been studying English for seven years, i.e., from the third grade, while some of them had been studying English for ten years probably because they had been attending some private preschool language courses.

Figure 1: The length of studying English

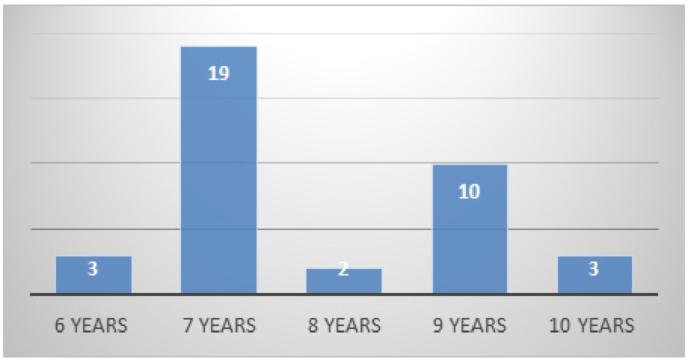
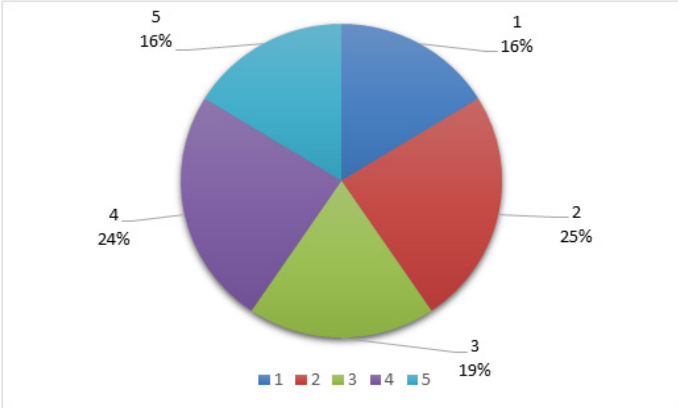


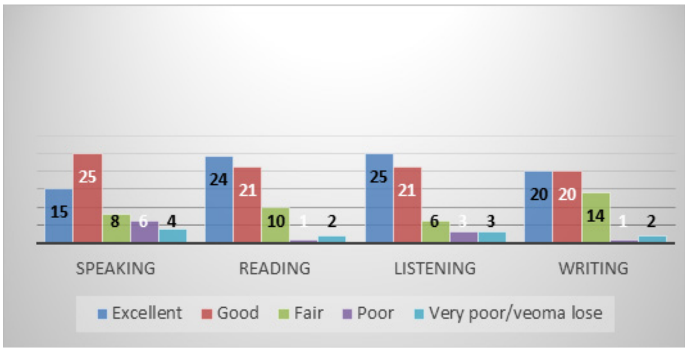
Figure 2 shows the students' last average English grade (ranging from 1 to 5). Taking into consideration that 1 is the lowest grade in Bosnian elementary schools and that 5 is the highest, we can see that 16% of the students had grade 5, 24% of them grade 4, 19% grade 3. However, 25% of students had grade 2 and 16% of them had the lowest grade, the percent (41%) with two lowest grades being an indicator that there is a lot of space for improvement and that teachers, educator, students and parents need to do their best in helping students to achieve better academic results and to analyze what could and should be changed and improved.

Figure 2: Students' last grade in English language course



The next Figure shows the level of students' proficiency when it comes to four language skills. The greatest number of the students stated that they had excellent listening and then reading skills. The results indicate that the majority of students rated these four skills as good, which again implies that there is room for improvement.

Figure 3: Level of four language skills' proficiency



Instrument and procedure

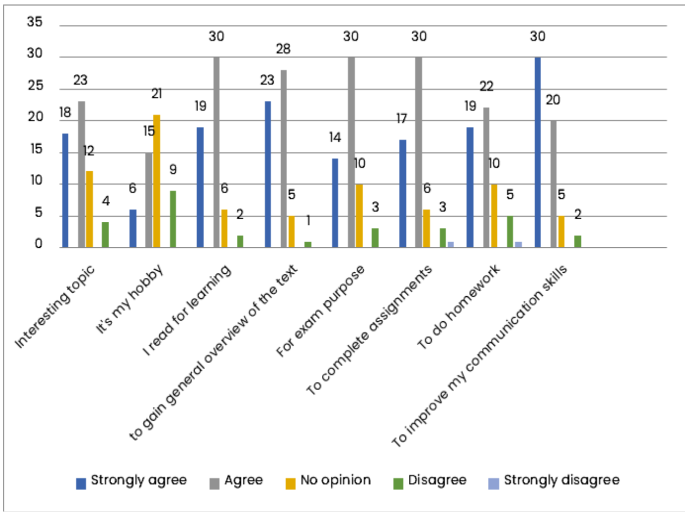
The present study employed a quantitative research design. The instrument used to collect data was a questionnaire utilized by Maasum and Maarof (2012) but originally designed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2000) who developed Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) in order to assess adolescents' and adult students' awareness and use of reading strategies while reading academic or school-related materials. The questionnaire comprised twenty-seven statements related to the students' approach to reading strategies. The students were asked to rate each statement on a 4 – point Likert Scale (e.g. I never use this strategy, I almost never use this strategy, I always use this strategy, I almost always use this strategy).

The statements in the questionnaire were categorized into three groups of strategies: Global strategies (e.g. I have a purpose in mind when I read), problem-solving strategies (I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading) and support strategies (When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I am reading). Besides using MARSI and in order to get an insight in students' achievement their last average English grade, ranging from 1 to 5 (1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest grade) was taken into consideration. The participants were also asked how long they had been learning English and to rate their level of four language skills proficiency. Moreover, they were asked to answer questions concerning the purpose of reading, what types of reading materials they use, their reading habits and interests in reading. Before the questionnaire was distributed to the students, an informed consent from the school's administration was obtained. The students were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality and they had the opportunity not to be part of the research if they did not feel comfortable. The instrument was administered during a regular class period. To make sure that all students understood the questions and statements, the questionnaire was translated into Bosnian and they were given all the necessary information on how to fulfill the questionnaire. They were also ensured that their responses would not affect their grades. The participants were also asked to read each statement carefully and to complete the questionnaire as honestly as possible, since there were no right or wrong answers.

Results

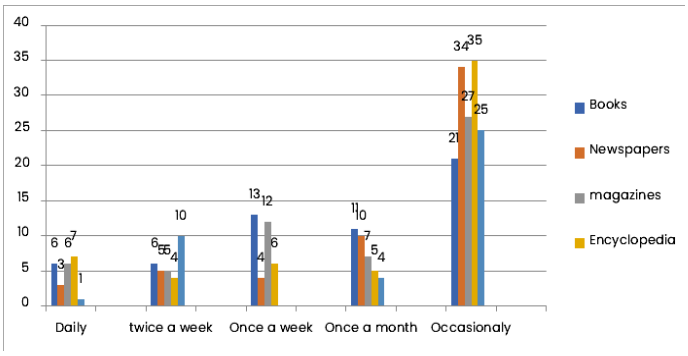
According to the results presented in Figure 4, 30 (52.63%) students strongly agree that they read to improve their communicative skills, and the same number of students (52.63%) agree that they read for learning purposes, exams and to complete the assignments. Since these are elementary level students and their main goal is to get a better grade, reading is mostly related to school and school tasks. However, more than 20 students (36.84%) said that reading is their hobby and this result is not to be underestimated. What students strongly agreed upon is that improving their reading skills would help them to improve their communicative skills.

Figure 4: Purpose of reading in English



Various print sources preferred for reading are presented in Figure 5 as well as the frequency of students' reading. According to their answers, the students like to read encyclopedias (61.40%), newspapers (59.64%), magazines (45.51%) and other print sources (43.85%). However, the results show that books are the least preferred in comparison to all other print sources mentioned above, with only 36.84% of students who stated they prefer books. What else can be seen from the chart is that no matter which print source we refer to, students read them occasionally.

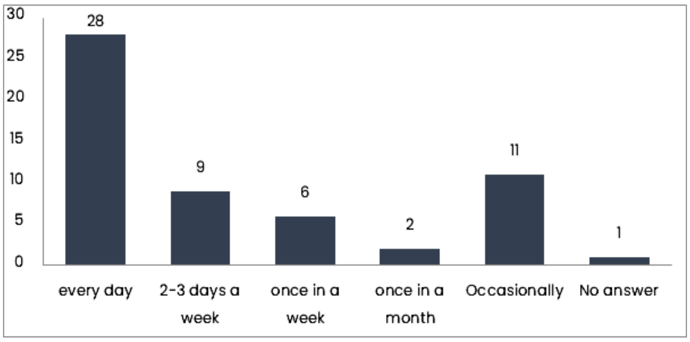
Figure 5: The use of various print sources.



When it comes to students' reading habits, the results presented in Figure 6 show that elementary students' reading habits are quite good and as it can be seen the majority of students, 28 of them (49.12 %) read every day and only 2 students stated that they read in English only once in a month.

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.23

Figure 6: Students' reading habits



The last part of the questionnaire consisted of 27 statements referring to students' opinion about different metacognitive strategies used in improving their reading skills. The results are shown in percentages. The results on metacognitive strategies suggest that students are fully aware of them and that they use them regularly while reading. When considering subtypes of reading strategies, namely global, support and problem-solving reading strategies, the following results were obtained: students use global reading strategies and 40.35% use strategies two, four and ten, followed by strategies six and seven. Regarding global metacognitive reading strategies, it could be noticed that students do not prefer strategy number five, they do not use this strategy at all (26.32%) or almost never (38.60%). Referring to support metacognitive reading strategies, students prefer strategy number seven (40.35%), followed by strategies six and one. However, the majority of students stated that they never (35.09%) or almost never (26.32 %) use strategy number five. Finally, we have problem-solving strategies, where we can see that students prefer strategies number one (43.86 %) and 3 (40.35 %).

Table 1. The participants' responses regarding the use of specific reading strategies

METACOGNITIVE READING STRATEGIES	1. I never use this strategy	2. I almost never use this strategy	3. I always use this strategy	4. I almost always use his strategy
GLOBAL READING STRATEGIES				
1. I have a purpose in mind when I read.	7.02	19.30	38.60	35.09
2. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	7.02	19.30	40.35	33.33
3. I take an overall view of the text to see what it is about before reading	8.77	28.07	29.82	33.33

Discussion

The study aimed at exploring the role of reading among 9th grade students in elementary school in B&H. The results showed that most students have positive reading attitudes and very good reading habits. Moreover, students use metacognitive reading strategies in the process of learning, and it could be somewhat surprising that students use all three subtypes of metacognitive reading strategies almost equally.

In terms of the major purpose of reading, 52.63% students strongly agree that they read to improve their communicative skills. This is in line with the studies conducted by Grabe and Stroller (2011), Carson (2000), and Kolawole (2009). However, the same number of students agreed that they also read for learning purposes, exams and to complete the assignments; i.e., for better academic results and achievements which is aligned with the results reported by Bright and McGregor (1978), Grim (2008), Hijazi (2018), Keskin, (2013), Lerkkanen, et.al (2005), Reed, Petscher and Truckenmiller (2016), Tsai et al. (2001), and Yildiz (2013). Thus, students seem to be aware of a twofold importance of learning English, namely the importance visible in academic success, but also the importance visible in the use of English not only within the classes, but outside of them as well, where its strong presence has been acknowledged (Dedović-Atilla & Dubravac, 2017; Bećirović, Brdarević-Čeljo, & Dubravac, 2018; Dubravac, 2016; Dubravac, Brdarević-Čeljo, & Bećirović, 2018; Dubravac & Latić, 2019; Dubravac & Skopljak, 2020; Skopljak & Dubravac, 2019)

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.23

4. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	14.04	22.81	40.35	22.81
5. I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	26.32	38.60	14.04	21.05
6. When reading, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	12.28	28.07	38.60	21.05
7. I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	10.53	28.07	38.60	22.81
8. I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	17.54	35.09	28.07	19.30
9. I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	31.58	29.82	22.81	15.79
10. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	19.30	22.81	40.35	17.54
11. I check my understanding when I come across new information.	10.53	31.58	31.58	26.32
SUPPORT READING STRATEGIES				
1. When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.	12.28	22.81	35.09	29.82
2. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	24.56	22.81	29.82	22.81
3. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	22.81	22.81	28.07	26.32
4. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	22.81	22.81	35.09	19.30
5. I use reference materials (e.g. dictionary) to help me understand what I read	35.09	26.32	21.05	17.54
6. When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading	10.53	17.54	36.84	22.81
7. When reading, I translate from English into my native language	12.28	14.04	40.35	33.33
8. When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue	12.28	28.07	29.82	29.82

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.23

PROBLEM-SOLVING READING STRATEGIES				
1.I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading	8.77	21.05	43.86	26.32
2. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration	10.53	21.05	36.84	31.58
3. I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading	15.79	17.54	40.35	26.32
4. I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading	12.28	22.81	38.60	26.32
5. I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read	22.81	17.54	31.58	28.07
6. When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases	14.04	17.54	36.84	31.58

When it comes to the most common print source students prefer to use while reading, the findings revealed those are books. Although the results showed that students read various print materials, the highest percentage of them stated that they preferred encyclopedias, followed by newspapers and magazines. Books are the least preferred reading materials for the participants, which is similar to the results of other studies (Bataineh & Al – Barakat, 2005; Johari, Tom, Morni & Sahari, 2013). In other words, students prefer shorter texts, magazine and newspaper articles, encyclopedia entries over longer texts presented in books. One way to improve this is to make books more attractive to this population, and that might be done through e-book. In fact, many researchers pointed out that younger users seem to prefer e-books to print-based learning resources, that e-book capabilities will continually improve, and that their costs will likely decrease in the future (Chang & Ley, 2006; Li Liew, Foo, & Chennupati, 2000; Temple, Kemp, & Benson, 2006). Hernon et al. (2007) pointed out that e-book reading in higher education has numerous advantages, particularly the access it affords to a wide variety of reading sources and to up-to-date reading material. Although students are nowadays presented with various types of reading materials whether print or internet materials, some students still do not have developed reading skills or strategies, and the reason is the lack of good reading habits and interests. It is important for all those involved in the educational process to continue working and improving students' reading habits, since reading is currently recognized as one of the most significant sources of input for L2 and FL acquisition (Dupuy, Tse & Cook, 1996; Kim & Krashen, 1997; Gove & Cvelich, 2010)

With reference to students reading habits, the outcomes of the study revealed that participants actually read quite often. This is not surprising since they need to read in order to fulfil their school duties. However, students nowadays, including the good ones, do not read for pleasure (Safiah, 1990). It is believed that students read not because they want to read, but because they have to read. Students perceive reading as a task that they have to undertake in order to achieve better academic results. This is an aspect that needs improvement. Parents and teachers can do much to promote reading for pleasure from an early age, and thus give in the children's hands a very useful tool for success in various domains of life. In addition to promoting reading for pleasure, we can help learners teaching them various reading strategies and emphasizing the importance of the awareness of their use.

In fact, the present study participant are generally aware of reading strategy use. Among global strategies they most often critically analyze the content, have a purpose while reading, rely on their pre-knowledge while reading, and think whether the content fits the purpose. However, the greatest number of the participants never or almost never rely on the following strategies: use context clues, review the text before reading it carefully, use typographical features to identify key information. Among support strategies the most common seems to be translation into L1, rereading the text, and paying closer attention to it. On the other hand, much can be done in terms of the following strategies: taking notes, reading aloud and using reference materials. In terms of problem-solving strategies, they most frequently resort to reading slowly and carefully, adjusting the reading speed, stopping from time to time to think about the content and guessing the meaning of unknown phrases. These tendences probably mirror the classroom practice of their teachers. Thus, teachers can do much to help their learners in developing other not so popular strategies incorporating their use in everyday practice. It is definitely worth the effort, as reading strategies can lead to a competent and independent reader who will be able to achieve better academic success (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Conclusion

The appropriate use of reading strategies helps students in improving their reading abilities, with a potential of leading to improvement in their overall English proficiency. We cannot avoid the fact that reading is a very complex process and that even today, with all the technological advancements in our everyday lives as well as in the education, some learners face difficulties with reading. The main reason is that students spend little time to improve their reading skills, then we have inappropriate reading strategies, reading materials and the classroom settings are also challenging issues. Teachers play an important role in teaching students reading strategies. There is no ideal strategy for all students and all English classes but reading activities should be arranged from basic to more complex ones as the learners gain their confidence in acquiring the English language.

There are some limitations to this study as for the number of the participants could have been larger in order to obtain more relevant data. The study was conducted only with elementary level students and for the future research high school and maybe university students should be involved as well. Teachers' points of view would be also of great importance.

References

Afflerbach, P., Pearson, P. D., & Paris, S. G. (2008). Clarifying differences between reading skills and reading strategies. *The reading teacher*, *61*(5), 364-373.

Aharony, N., & Bar-Ilan, J. (2018). Students' academic reading preferences: An exploratory study. *Journal of Librarianship and Information Science*, *50*(1), 3-13.

Akabuike, I. G., & Asika, I. E. (2012). Reading habits of undergraduates and their academic performances: Issues and perspectives. *African Research Review*, *6*(2), 246-257.

Anderson, N.J. (1985). *Cognitive* Psychology and Its Implications. New York.

Anderson, N. J. (2002). The Role of Metacognition in Second/Foreign Language Teaching and Learning. ERIC Digest. Washington DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics.

Bataineh, R. F., & Al-Barakat, A. A. (2005). The Reading Interests of Jordanian First-, Second and Third-Grade Pupils and the Obstacles Limiting these Interests. *Journal of Educational & Psychological Sciences*, *6*(03), 107-133.

Bećirović, S, Brdarević-Čeljo, A., & Dubravac, V. (2018). The effects of nationality, gender, and GPA on the use of reading strategies among EFL university students. *SAGE Open*, *8*(4), 1 -12. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018809286

Bećirović, S., Brdarević-Čeljo, A., & Sinanović, J. (2017). The use of metacognitive reading strategies among students at international Burch university: A case study. *European Journal of Contemporary Education*, *6*(4), 645-655.

Bernhardt, E. (1991). *Reading development in a second language*: *Theoretical, empirical, and classroom perspectives*. Norwoord, NJ: Ablex.

Bouchamma, Y., Poulin, V., Basque, M., & Ruel, C. (2013). Impact of students' reading preferences on reading achievement. *Creative Education*, *4*(08), 484.

Bright, J.A., & McGregor, G.P. (1970). *Teaching English as a second language.* London: Longman

Cahyaningati, D. T., & Lestari, L. A. (2018). The use of multimodal text in enhancing engineering students' reading skill. International Journal of Language Education, *2*(2), 65–73. doi:10.26858/ijole.v2i2.6360

Cantrell, S. C., Almasi, J. F., Carter, J. C., Rintamaa, M., & Madden, A. (2010). The impact of a strategy-based intervention on the comprehension and strategy use of struggling adolescent readers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *102*(2), 257.

Carson, J. & Leki, I. (1993). *Reading in the composition classroom*: *Second language perspective*. Heinle & Heinle, Boston.

Chamot, A. U. (2005). Language learning strategy instruction: Current issues and research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *25*, 112-130

Chang, S. L., & Ley, K. (2006). A learning strategy to compensate for cognitive overload in online learning: Learner use of printed online materials. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, *5*(1), 104-117.

Chaudhry, A. S., & Al-Adwani, A. (2019). Reading practices of EFL students: A survey of Kuwaiti college students. *English language teaching*, *12*(5), 130-144.

Chege, E. W. (2012). Reading comprehension and its relationship with academic performance among standard eight pupils in rural Machakos (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, Kenyatta University).

Dedović-Atilla, E., & Dubravac, V. (2017). From EFL to ELF: The new kid on the block. *Zbornik radova Islamskog pedagoškog fakulteta u Zenici* 15, 257-277.

Dubravac, V., & Latić, E. (2019). The plasticity of students' language learning beliefs: The interplay of gender, grade and educational level. *Journal of Language and Education*, 5(4), 36-53. doi: https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2019.9732

Dubravac, V., & Skopljak, N. (2020). Foreign and multilingual language play on social sites as an identity marker. *Journal of Multicultural Discourses,* 15(1), 61-79. doi: https://doi.org/10.1080/17447143.2019.1701678

Dubravac, V. (2016). The impact of English on language use in the Bosnian press. In L. Buckingham (Ed.), *The status of English in Bosnia and Herzegovina* (pp. 203-227). Bristol, Buffalo: Multilingual Matters.

Dubravac, V., Brdarević-Čeljo, A., & Bećirović, S. (2018). The English of Bosnia and Herzegovina. *World Englishes*, *37* (4), 635-652. doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12347

Dupuy, B., Tse, L., & Cook, T. (1996). Bringing books into the classroom: First steps in turning college-level ESL students into readers. *TESOL Journal, 5*, 10-15.

Eutsler, L., & Trotter, J. (2020). Print or iPad? Young Children's Text Type Shared Reading Preference and Behaviors in Comparison to Parent Predictions and At-home Practices. *Literacy Research and Instruction*, *59*(4), 324-345.

Floris, F., & Dvina, M. (2009). Study on the Reading Skills of EFL University Students. *TEFLN Journal*, 20(1), 37-471

Garner, R. (1987). Metacognition and reading comprehension. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing.

Gove, A., & Cvelich, P. (2010). Early reading: Igniting education for all: A report by the Early Grade Learning Community of Practice (Rev. ed.). *Research Triangle Park, NC*: *RTI*.

Grabe, W. (1991). Current developments in second language reading research. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, 375–406.

Grabe, W., & Stoller, F (2011). *Teaching and Researching Reading*. Longman/Pearson. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781405198431.wbeal1174

Hernon, P., Hopper, R., Leach, M. R., Saunders, L. L., & Zhang, J. (2007). E-book use by students: Undergraduates in economics, literature, and nursing. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*, *33*(1), 3-13.

Grim, F. (2008). Integrating Focus on Form in L2 Content-Enriched Instruction Lessons. *Foreign Language Annals*, *41*(2), 321-346.

Hall, W. S. (1989). *Reading comprehension* (Vol. 44, No. 2, p. 157). American Psychological Association.

Hastings, C., & Henry, J. (2006). Reading is a closed book to today's children. *Telegraph.*

Henk, W. A., Helfeldt, J. P., & Platt, J. M. (1986). Developing reading fluency in learning disabled students. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, *18*(3), 202-206.

Hijazi, D. (2012). Difficulties Jordanian non-English major university students face while learning English as a foreign language: A student perspective. *Journal of the College of Education, Aswan University*, *26*, 29-54.

Huang, S., Capps, M., Blacklock, J., & Garza, M. (2014). Reading habits of college students in the United States. *Reading Psychology*, *35*(5), 437-467.

Hussain, I., & Munshi, P. (2011). Identifying reading preferences of secondary school students. *Creative Education*, *2*(05), 429.

Johari, A., Tom, A. A., Morni, A., & Sahari, S. H. (2013). Students' reading practices and environments. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *3*(1), 17-28.

Kaur, S., & Thivagarajah, R. (1999). The Reading Habits of ELLS Students in University Science Malaysia. Universiti Sains Malaysia.

Keskin, H. K. (2013). Impacts of reading metacognitive strategies and reading attitudes on school success. *International Journal of Academic Research*, *5*(5), 312-317.

Kim, H., & Krashen, S. (1997). Why don't language acquirers take advantage of the power of reading. *TESOL Journal*, *6*(3), 26-29.

Koch, R. E. (1974). *Relationships between reading interests and reading comprehension among fourth-grade and sixth-grade students*. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Koda, K. (2005). *Insights into second language reading: A cross-linguistic approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Kolawole, C. O. O. (2009). The state of reading in selected secondary schools in Oyo State, Nigeria. *An International Multi-Disciplinary Journal*, *3*(1), 388-398.

Kolić-Vehovec, S., & Bajšanski, I. (2006). Metacognitive strategies and reading comprehension in elementary-school students. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, *21*(4), 439-451.

Krashen, S. (2004). *The Power of Reading* (2nd Ed.). Englewood, CO: Libraries Unlimited.

Lerkkanen, M. K., Rasku-Puttonen, H., Aunola, K., & Nurmi, J. E. (2005). Mathematical performance predicts progress in reading comprehension among 7-year olds. *European Journal of Psychology of Education (EJPE, Instituto Superior de Psicologia Aplicada), 20*(2), 121-137.

Li Liew, C., Foo, S., & Chennupati, K. R. (2000). A study of graduate student end-users' use and perception of electronic journals. *Online Information Review, 24*(4), 302-315.

Malcolm, D. (2009). Reading strategy awareness of Arabic-speaking medical students studying in English. *System*, *37*(4), 640-651. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.09.008

Maro, R. K., Gusdian, R. I., & Safitri, B. F. (2020). Investigating English language education students' reading preferences. English Review: Journal of English Education, 8(2), 323- 328. doi: 10.25134/erjee.v8i2.3029

Maasum, T., & N. Maarof. 2012. "Empowering ESL Readers with Metacognitive Reading Strategies." *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences 69*: 1250-1258. doi:10.1016/j. sbspro.2012.12.58.

Mellon, C. A. (1990). Leisure Reading Choices of Rural Teens. *School Library Media Quarterly*, *18*(4), 223-28.

Mokhtari, K., & Reichard, C. A. (2002). Assessing students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of educational psychology*, *94*(2), 249

Mokhtari, K., & Sheorey, R. (2002). Measuring ESL Students' Awareness of Reading Strategies. *Journal of Developmental Education, 25 (3),* 2-10.

Nel, C., Dreyer, C., & Klopper, M. (2004). An analysis of reading profiles of first-year students at Potchefstroom University: a cross-sectional study and a case study. *South African Journal of Education*, *24*(1), 95-103.

O'Malley, J. & Chamot, A. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R.L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston,MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Oxford, R., & Crookall, D. (1989). Research on language learning strategies: Methods, findings, and instructional issues. *The modern language Journal*, *73*(4), 404-419.

Palani, K.K. (2012). Promising reading habits are creating literate society. *International Reference Research Journal, 2(1)*, 91-98.

Paris, S. G., & Jacobs, J. E. (1984). The benefits of informed instruction for children's reading awareness and comprehension skills. *Child development*, 2083-2093.

Pazzaglia, F., De Beni, R., & Cristante, F. (1994). *Prova di metacomprensione* [Metacomprehension test]. Firenze, Italia: Organizzazioni Speciali.

Pressley, M., & Afflerbach, P. (1995). *Verbal protocols of reading: The nature of constructively responsive reading. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.*

Pretorius, E. J. (2000). Reading and the Unisa student: Is academic performance related to reading ability? *Progressio*, *22*(2), 35-48.

Rajab, A., Rahman, H. A., Wahab, S. R. A., Nor, F. M., Zakaria, W. Z., & Rajim, W. Z. (2017). Metacognitive reading strategies among undergraduates. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology, 7*(7), 548-551.

Reed, D. K., Petscher, Y., & Truckenmiller, A. J. (2016). The contribution of general reading ability to science achievement. *Reading Research Quarterly, 52(2),* 253-266. doi: 10.1002/rrq.158

Rwanda Book Development Initiative. (2011). Importance and challenges of reading culture in Rwanda. https://www.newtimes.co.rw/section/read/83420

Safiah O. (1990). *Membaca: Satu Pengenalan*. Kuala Lumpur: Berita Publishing Sdn. Bhd.

Shonfeld, M., & Meishar-Tal, H. (2016). Writing and reading preferences for student learning in a paperless classroom. In *Society for Information Technology & Teacher Education International Conference (pp. 787-792).* Association for the Advancement of Computing in Education (AACE).

Sheorey, R., & Mokhtari, K. (2001). Differences in the metacognitive awareness of reading strategies among native and non-native readers. *System*, *29*(4), 431-449.

Skopljak, N. & Dubravac, V. (2019). The impact of English on the Bosnian language and the use of English words in Bosnian. *HUM,* 14 (22), 138-156.

Snow, C. (2002). Reading for understanding: Toward an R&D program in reading comprehension. Sanata Monica Rand Corporation.

Tankosić, A., & Dubravac, V. (2016). The assessment of Bosnian EFL learners' knowledge by two different measures: test and writing assignment. ExELL, *4*(1), 41-57. doi: https://doi.org/10.1515/exell-2017-0006

Temple, N. J., Kemp, W. C., & Benson, W. A. (2006). Computer technology and student preferences in a nutrition course. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning*, *21*(1), 71-77.

Tien, C. Y. (2015). A large-scale study on extensive reading program for non-English majors: Factors and attitudes. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, *4*(4), 46-54.

Tsai, J. L., Lee, C. Y., Tzeng, O. J., Hung, D. L., & Yen, N. S. (2004). Use of phonological codes for Chinese characters: Evidence from processing of parafoveal preview when reading sentences. *Brain and language*, *91*(2), 235-244.

Woody, W. D., Daniel, D. B., & Baker, C. A. (2010). E-books or textbooks: Students prefer textbooks. *Computers & education*, *55*(3), 945-948.

Yildiz, M. (2013) Adaptation of the motivation to read profile to Turkish. *International Journal of Academic Research, Part B, 5(4),* 196-199.

Yilmaz, B. (2000). Reading and library usage habits of the students whose mother tongue is Turkish in Vienna, Austria. Retrieved on July 2, 2021. from http://www.ifla.org/IV/ifla66/papers/084-152e.htm

Young, A., & Fry, J. D. (2008). Metacognitive awareness and academic achievement in college students. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, *8*(2), 1-10.

Zare. J., & Maftoon, P. (2014). Reading strategy use and field of study: A mixed-methods study. *Iranian Journal of Applied Language Studies, 7*(1), 171-196

mapub.org/mapss

Social Sciences

Volume 1 / Issue 1

MAP Social Sciences (MAPSS) is an international, multi-disciplinary, peer-reviewed journal published two times a year by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.* The journal is a platform for publication of advanced academic research in the field of social sciences.

E-ISSN: **2744-2454**

ORIGINAL RESEARCH PAPER

TO SPEAK OR NOT TO SPEAK? THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

Emina Kahrimanović

***International Burch University**, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina*

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Emina Kahrimanović, International Burch University, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina. E-mail:

ABSTRACT

The decision of a speaker whether to communicate in a specific situation or not, assuming they have the right to choose, has been identified in the current literature as the speaker's willingness to communicate (WTC). In recent times, with the communication becoming the backbone of successful professional and private lives and the role of world languages ever increasing, the importance of willingness to communicate in one of the world languages (English, French, German, etc.) comes to the fore. Therefore, many authors have embarked on a journey to prove why willingness to communicate shall be put under the spotlight and why should language instructors set the engendering of WTC as one of the main aims of language instruction. Among the abundance of reasons, it is often argued that willingness to communicate may facilitate language learning itself. This paper represents a theoretical framework of research conducted on the subject of willingness to communicate over the past several decades, with emphasis on WTC in language learning.

Keywords: willingness to communicate, unwillingness to communicate, variables influencing WTC

MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES

Volume 1 / Issue 1

ISSN: 2744-2454/ © 2021 The Authors. Published by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.*

Article Submitted: **30 July 2021**
Article Accepted: **18 August 2021**
Article Published: **03 September 2021**

Publisher's Note: **MAP** *stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.*

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.37

© The Author(s). 2021 **Open Access Article**

Creative Commons CC BY: This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made.

OPEN ACCESS ARTICLE

1. Introduction

Global village. It is a term used nowadays to describe the world in which people come closer together through increased contact and communication, creating a single global system in which developments in one part of the world influence individuals and communities elsewhere in the world. This process of globalization has been the major driver of change in societies, and it all starts with – communication. Therefore, in order to become a part of this village, the willingness to communicate (WTC) with others around us has become somewhat of an unwritten rule. However, being willing to communicate does not necessarily open all the doors. One of the key characteristics of this global world is prevalence of several major world languages in communication, such as English, French, and Spanish. Therefore, learning one of those languages is of utmost importance.

The term *willingness to communicate* first appeared in 1992, when McCroskey (1992) coined it as a reference to a person who chooses to approach or avoid communication under certain circumstances, assuming that they can choose freely whether to communicate or not. It is especially important in the field of language learning. Many authors have hypothesized and confirmed that language learners with high communicative disposition will actively seek opportunities to engage in communicative behavior, thus improving communicative competence and achieving better overall learning outcomes (Bećirović et. al, 2021).

This article explains the concepts of willingness to communicate and unwillingness to communicate and provides an overview of variables influencing WTC in language learners. Finally, specific advice on how to engender WTC in language learners is provided, which may help teachers and policy makers create curricula that prepares the students for the society of the present.

2. Discussion

Unwillingness to communicate

The harbinger of the concept of willingness to communicate is the concept of *unwillingness to communicate*, introduced by Burgoon (1976). Burgoon (1976) stated that individuals who are reserved towards communication tend to be unwilling to communicate. Unwillingness to communicate is described as a chronic tendency of an individual to avoid communication and to view the communication situation as something that is relatively unrewarding (Burgoon, 1976).

Some of the most prominent sociological and psychological variables that are said to have an impact on unwillingness to communicate are *communication apprehension, low self-esteem, lack of communicative competence, anomia, alienation, introversion*, etc. Some of the factors will be described in more detail below.

Communication apprehension. The ability to communicate is generally described as the trait that defines us as human beings and distinguishes us from the rest of the environment we live in. The importance of communication process can never be overemphasized (Bećirović et al., 2020). Effective communication is crucial for being a valuable member of a society. However, communication itself is not enough. We must understand what others are saying in order to make use of the information we receive. Unfortunately, sometimes barriers exist that hinder our understanding of others. Communication apprehension is one of them (Warner, 1997).

Communication apprehension is a broad term that refers to an individual's fear or anxiety that is associated with real or expected communication with another individual or individuals (McCroskey, 2001). Many factors influence communication anxiety to different extents. Some of those factors are the degree of evaluation, the perceived relationship between the speaker and their audience, the feeling of prominence of the speaker, degree of unpredictability of the situation, memories, communication skills that the speaker possesses or lacks, etc.

Regarding the degree of evaluation, it is well known in teaching practice that students feel more relaxed and confident when they are not being evaluated and that they often get confused and anxious when it comes to evaluation. The more serious and important the evaluation is, their anxiety increases and thus affects their WTC in a negative way (Ahmetović, Bećirović & Dubravac, 2020). Furthermore, the relationship between the language learner and the person they are speaking to is also very important. Results of many previous studies such as the one conducted by MacIntyre et al. (1998), as well as the present study, indicate that language learners are most willing to communicate with people whom they feel close connection with and people who they encounter frequently. Consequently, WTC is lower in cases of weak relationships between the learner and the person or persons they speak to. These two are probably one of the most frequent causes of communication anxiety.

Furthermore, a speaker is likely to suffer from communication anxiety if their perception is that a lot is at stake in a certain communication act, if they feel inferior in relation to their audience, if they are not prominent by nature, if they perceive the situation to be too unpredictable, if they remember prior experiences of communicative acts, whether failures or successes, and if they conclude that they lack certain communication skills required by the given situation (Dervić & Bećirović, 2020).

Many methods of treatment of communication anxiety exist. The study by Warner (1997) provides a thorough explanation of a method that is found to be the most effective and efficient. In the study, Warner states that "systematic desensitization, also known as reciprocal inhibition, is based on the idea that when one reflex dominates another, the symptoms from the dominated reflex disappear" (Warner, 1997, p. 27).

The initial reflex of speakers who suffer from communication anxiety is to develop symptoms of fear and anxiety (Ahmetović, Bećirović & Dubravac, 2020). However, through systematic desensitization that reflex is substituted with the reflex of relaxation. Once the speaker makes the reflex of relaxation automatic, the initially dominant reflex of fear becomes the dominated reflex that disappears (Warner, 1997).

Self-esteem. In general, it is considered that people with low self-esteem have developed fewer communication skills than people with high self-esteem. Also, studies found that they are more susceptible to conformity and persuasion, as well as defensive behaviors. One of the possible explanations for these findings is that people with low self-esteem usually do not have confidence in their own opinion and tend to conform to the opinion of the majority. Also, other people easily persuade them into believing the opposite of what they initially believed.

Brown (2000) defined self-esteem as the most pervasive aspect of any human behavior. In 2002, Richards and Schmidt (2002) conceptualized self-esteem as a concept describing an individual's judgment of their own worth on the basis of their perceived feeling of efficacy. In L2 contexts, self-esteem is often positively correlated with achievement – the higher L2 achievement is, the higher learner's self-esteem is.

Anomia. Anomia is an equivalent of a type of neurosis called anomie. Anomie occurs when an individual's bonds with society are broken, resulting in fragmentation of social identity. The instability of individuals in this case results from the lack of purpose in an individual's life.

Emile Durkheim (1983) was the first to introduce the term *anomie*, conceptualized as *a lack of norms*, and he characterized the modern individual as insufficiently integrated into society. According to Durkheim (1983), when these bonds weaken, individuals are left to exist on their own and this breakdown of moral guidance leads to deviance, social unrest, unhappiness, and stress.

Anomics fail to internalize societal norms, they develop insecurity, powerlessness, social isolation, and they perceive life as valueless and meaningless (Burgoon, 1976). The negative attitudes towards communication lead to the lack of trust and eventually withdrawal from any form of communication.

Introversion. According to dictionary definition, introversion is the state of being predominantly interested in one's own mental self. Introverts are generally perceived as shy, timid, reserved towards other people. They prefer reflection of one's own personality over communication with other people and are likely to engage in solitary activities like reading and writing.

Introversion is often considered a counterpart of shyness. However, that view is entirely mistaken. Introverts do not necessarily feel anxious about communication like shy people do. They simply avoid communication as they find it to be a process that wastes their mental and physical energy. For these reasons, introversion is more related to realistic and investigative occupations and extroversion is more related to social and enterprising occupations (Broday and Sedgwick, 1991).

Another important point to mention is that introverted persons do not necessarily resent every form of communication. In specific situations, such as when they are genuinely interested in the topic and when they feel they are confident enough to participate in communication, there is a chance that they will not avoid communication. It is all a matter of their interest and their judgment whether a specific topic or a specific person is worth the energy they would put into communication (Broday and Sedgwick, 1991).

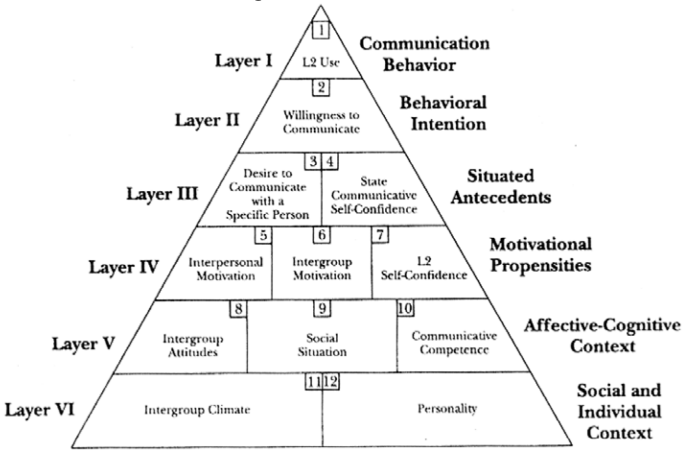
Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC

Despite the fact that willingness to communicate has mostly been reduced down to a trait-like variable, MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998) argued that it should not necessarily be limited within the borders of such description. In their view, willingness to communicate is also a situational variable that comprises some impermanent and some permanent variables (Zarrinabadi and Abdi, 2011). In the context of second language (L2) learning, which will be specifically addressed in this paper, WTC was described as "*a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2*" (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, Noels, 1998, p. 547).

Additionally, MacIntyre et al. (1998) established a heuristic model of those variables that are believed to have the most significant effect on willingness to communicate. This pyramid model is presented in Figure 1 and has six layers. The first three layers comprise those impermanent variables, the ones specific to a certain situation or context, whereas the remaining six layers comprise those permanent variables, those with an abiding influence on willingness to communicate. The pyramid consists of twelve constructs in total.

It should be kept in mind that the competence in the target language is not the only important predictor of target language use (Rizvić & Bećirović, 2017). Just knowing how good the student's command of the target language is and what language skills and systems the student has acquired is not enough to conclude that this particular student will be willing to contribute to communication at a certain point. This communication rather depends on a complex mixture of different psychological, social and educational factors as well, in addition to the linguistic knowledge. This heuristic model shows some of the interactions between these different factors (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2016). Observing from the first to the last layers, it is possible to note how the focus shifts from the immediate, impermanent influences to those more permanent ones. (Modirkhameneh and Firouzmand, 2014).

Figure 1: Heuristic model of variables influencing WTC



Source: P.D. MacIntyre, R. Clement, Z. Dörnyei & K. Noels, 1998

The first layer in the pyramid is the actual use of the second or foreign language, including activities that are based on authentic material and information. In other words, the use of the L2 is marked as communication behavior of the speaker. Second language can be used in many different ways in a language classroom. In terms of language skills, language can be used through reading authentic texts such as newspaper articles, letters, emails, etc. in writing, language instructors can also ask the students to write a letter to a friend or describe an event from their past, thus producing authentic information. Similar activities can be done in the speaking part, where students can engage in role-play activities, for instance. Through all these activities, language learners exhibit their communication behaviors and enable the language instructor to create a profile for each and every student.

In the next, second layer, willingness to communicate is presented as the behavioral intention of the L2 speaker. These top layers reflect the intention of a speaker to communicate with a specific person at a specific time. Therefore, this is the logical continuation of the sequence. Since all learners have certain communication behaviors – ways in which they communicate – now it is their behavioral intention that determines whether they want to communicate or not, and this intention differs from one person to another and from one situation to another.

The third layer is slightly more complicated and it comprises two constructs: the first one being the desire to communicate with a specific person and the second one being the state communicative self-confidence as antecedents of communication in L2, where state communicative self-confidence depicts how an individual feels regarding their competence to communicate in a certain language in a certain situation, with a specific collocutor. It was stated by MacIntyre et al. (1998) that people are more willing to communicate with the people who they find physically closer to them, those who they have the opportunity to encounter more often, those people who they find to be physically attractive, or in simple terms with people who they consider similar to themselves in many different ways.

Variables in the remaining three layers of the pyramid have an enduring influence on WTC and are mostly predictable in almost every situation. They strive to explain why one individual would choose to communicate in a situation when another one would choose not to (Compton, 2007).

The fourth layer of the pyramid presents the motivational propensities – interpersonal motivation, intergroup motivation, and L2 self-confidence. In fact, interpersonal motivation and intergroup motivation are the basic factors that affect individual's desire to communicate with specific persons (Zarrinabadi and Abdi, 2011). Interpersonal motivation is defined as motivation directed towards other people, and it is actually the way in which people see themselves in comparison with others – for example, this concept can be used as a psychological answer in case when a learner asks themselves why their classmates are behaving in a strange way around them. Intergroup motivation is a concept similar to interpersonal motivation, only expanded to cover group contexts (Bećirović & Hurić - Bećirović, 2017). Regarding the L2 self-confidence, this concept was covered previously in the text.

Although MacIntyre and Charos (1996) found that motivation did not have a significant impact on WTC, some studies in specific contexts such as Hashimoto's (2002) in Japan proved opposite results in some replications. Three motivational propensities that influence WTC according to MacIntyre et al. (1998) are described in Table 1, where each motivational propensity is linked to individual's communication intention – whether an individual wants to take control over a group or affiliate with a group.

Table 1: Description of motivational propensities (adapted from Compton, 2007)

Motivational Propensities	Purpose	Description
Interpersonal motivation	Control	Motivation for communication is to exercise social role and maintain control over a certain task.
	Affiliation	Motivation for communication is to establish a relationship with others.
Inter-group motivation	Control	Motivation for communication is to maintain and reinforce social positions in a group setting.
	Affiliation	Motivation for communication is to establish or maintain rapport with members in a group.
L2 confidence	Competence	L2 confidence increases if mastery of L2 skills is high and vice versa.
	Anxiety	L2 confidence decreases if one experiences high levels of discomfort when using L2 and vice versa.

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.37

In the fifth layer of the model, MacIntyre et al. (1998) presented variables that are found in the affective and cognitive context, including intergroup attitude, social situation, and communicative competence. There are some quite firm links between these variables and the variables mentioned in the previous layers. For instance, high levels of motivation to learn L2 in order to communicate and integrate within a group can actually promote positive attitudes towards that group and thus increase WTC. Willingness to communicate also increases when an individual is familiar with the social context and when an individual feels as their linguistic or sociocultural competence is sufficient for communication.

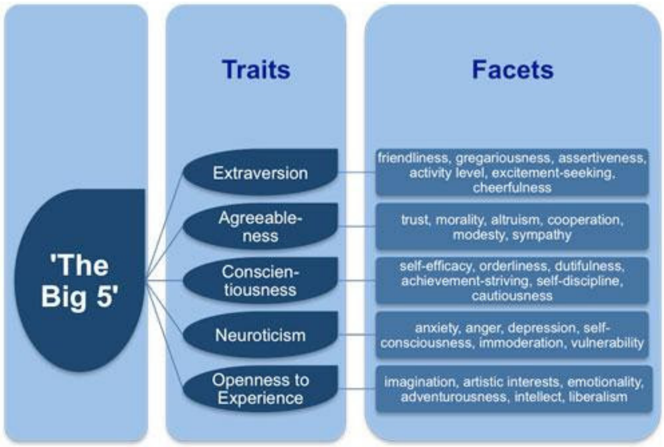
Finally, the sixth layer of the pyramid is the layer of social and individual context – social context comprising the intergroup climate and individual context comprising personality variables. Thanks to this situational perspective on WTC researchers managed to draw a conclusion that willingness to communicate is also contingent on certain situational variables, not only the personality ones (Baker and MacIntyre 2000; Clement et al. 2003; MacIntyre et al. 2001). MacIntyre et al. (1998) explain that L2 societies with relative socioeconomic power have a high ethno-linguistic vitality that encourages the use of L2. Compton (2007, p. 3) explains it as "*the adaptation to the host culture would likely correspond with the benefits including social acceptance and economic advancement*".

When it comes to individual differences, researchers believe that the "big five" traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and openness to experience) contribute to the motivation for language learning willingness to communicate (Goldberg, 1993; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). Additionally, they note that individual differences can also be explained in broader societal terms in that certain groups may have similar traits. For instance, they cite Aida (1994) who wrote in their study how an average American language learner is more likely to be extraverted than an average Japanese learner.

Willingness to communicate in the first and second language

Originally, the concept of WTC was hypothesized as a personality trait that accounts for individual differences in communication in first language (L1) contexts (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). Hence, WTC in L1 context was first described through personality traits before it moved toward situational variables. Willingness to communicate in the first language largely depends on underlying traits that make up an individual's own personality. Those traits are openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism. Their facets as identified by Costa and McCrae (1992) are presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2: The "Big Five" personality traits



Source: Costa & McCrae, 1992

Openness includes characteristics such as insightfulness, imagination, a wide range of interests, etc. Extraverted persons like to engage in interaction with other people and are generally energetic, communicative and assertive. Individuals that possess the agreeableness trait are friendly, cooperative and compassionate, mostly kind and sympathetic. Neuroticism refers to emotional stability and the degree of negative emotions. Individuals that exert high levels of openness, extraversion, conscientiousness and agreeableness and low levels of neuroticism are considered to be more willing to communicate in L1. In fact, the Big Five personality dimensions test is frequently used by human resources professionals when hiring employees for certain positions that need to be taken by communicative people.

Studies found that WTC contingent on personality traits may potentially affect people in all communication settings in L1 contexts. However, MacIntyre (1994) proposed that researchers combine personality traits with situational ones in order to measure WTC in L2 settings. His suggestion resulted in the heuristic model of transient and enduring influences on WTC and that model has a significant impact on WTC research in the second language.

Engendering WTC

Regardless of all the factors that are found to influence willingness to communicate, from the very beginning of language instruction some students are willing to communicate and some are not, depending to a large extent on their personality, as well as on the conditions in a specific communication context both in physical sense and in terms of collocutors. However, quality input and output are of great importance for successful L2 learning. Considering this, it can be said that the endmost goal of L2 learning should be to increase the willingness to communicate in language learners (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998).

Some studies found that willingness to communicate can best be engendered through the inclusion of technologies in the language learning process (Yaman & Bećirović, 2016) in approaches such as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL). Chotipaktanasook (2014) emphasized the importance of technologies in language learning process, highlighting the need for language educators to adapt to the conditions of the 21st century. The role of certain technological devices in language instruction has not been fully elaborated on yet, but some technologies, especially those related to social media, "have been the central concern of a number of educators and teachers and been welcomed as indispensable tools to be utilized for educational purposes" (Chotipaktanasook, 2014, p. 17).

It has already been stated that students need both input and output in order to learn an L2. The ultimate pedagogical aim of language instructors should be to enhance the students' willingness to communicate in L2. They must not only be able to use the second or foreign language, but they also must be willing to engage in L2 communication (Dörnyei, 2005). Consequently, language instruction aimed at improving communicative competence should be combined with activities aimed at enhancing willingness to communicate in general (Chotipaktanasook, 2014).

Willingness to communicate is seen by many as the final step before the use of second or foreign language in real world. Thus, when evaluating language instruction programs great importance should be given to the aspects of the program that deal with engendering WTC in students. Many researchers have proposed different ways of enhancing WTC.

Noon-ura (2008) stated that students should be familiar with the target language culture in order to develop interest in a certain language, which will in turn be beneficial when it comes to engendering their WTC in a certain target language. Furthermore, a safe environment where students do not feel anxious and afraid to speak is also one of the preconditions for high WTC. Students should have sufficient knowledge of the target language and they should be allowed to work in pairs or small groups before working with the entire class, as this contributes to lower levels of anxiety and "stage fright" (Chotipaktanasook, 2014).

Characteristics of teachers can also have a huge impact on willingness to communicate. When teachers give constructive feedback to students, when they prompt students to do better and when they do all of that in an anxiety-free environment, then students' WTC can be enhanced (Pattapong, 2010). Cao (2006) stated that teachers can also intentionally choose activities that foster willingness to communicate and motivate students to engage in L2 communication. According to Dörnyei and Kormos (2000), teachers must work on developing positive attitudes of students towards activities and tasks they are expected to complete.

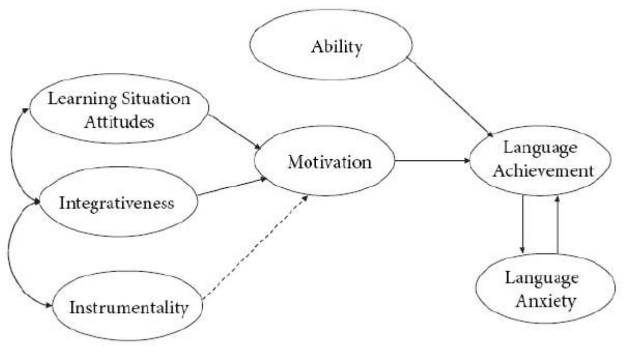
Khatibi and Zakeri (2014, p. 7) stated that in order to make students willing to communicate in an L2 teachers ought to "provide the factors facilitating WTC as much as possible, instead of focusing on one factor at the expense of other facilitating factors". Further studies showed that some of the areas that teachers should take into consideration are cultivating group cohesiveness, lowering anxiety, creating an interesting and relevant lesson plan, instilling an international posture in students, and increasing motivation (Mašić et al, 2020; Aubrey, 2010). Of the aforementioned areas, motivation is usually the most important and therefore the following section will deal with findings regarding motivation in language learning.

Gardner's Socio-Educational Model

In 1959, Gardner and Lambert (1959) developed an approach to motivation that established a distinction between integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. According to their approach, integrative motivation encompasses all the positive attitudes that a learner has regarding the target language culture and individual's willingness to become a part of the target language community. Instrumental motivation is seen as a type of motivation that is evoked by practical reasons behind learning a foreign language, such as employment, social recognition, etc.

Many years later, Gardner (1985) established a socio-educational model of motivation in second language learning. It concerns the role of a range of differences in the process of L2 learning. According to this model, integrativeness or the desire to become a part of the target language community and attitudes towards the learning situation contribute to learner's motivation. Gardner (2001) later extended this integrativeness concept to encompass the individual's openness to other cultural groups, as well as respect for them, and different ways of life, without being necessarily driven to fully integrate into the target community (Peng, 2007).

Figure 3: Gardner's socio-educational model



Source: Gardner (2001)

As can be seen from the Figure 3, integrativeness together with instrumentality or instrumental motivation, as well as with attitudes towards the learning situation, affects learner's motivation. Another emphasized aspect is the language ability of learners. Also noticeable is the mutual effect that language achievement and language anxiety have on each other.

In order to assess these variables, Gardner developed the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), whose adaptations have been used by many researchers such as Baker & MacIntyre (2000), Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft & Evers (1987), Gardner & MacIntyre (1993), Tremblay & Gardner (1995), etc. The AMTB comprises more than 130 items whose reliability and validity are in the satisfactory range.

Gardner's AMTB consists of 11 "subtests" grouped into five categories (Gardner, 2001). Three of those subtests have been mentioned above (integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation). The remaining two are instrumental orientation, referring to the instrumental motivation for learning the language for practical reasons, and language anxiety, involving anxiety during the times when L2 is supposed to be used in communication.

Many researchers were influenced by this socio-educational model proposed by Gardner. MacIntyre combined his model with Gardner's in order to investigate the vital variables in L2 WTC, concluding that WTC significantly influences the frequency of communication in the second language, and that in turn the WTC was influenced by perceived L2 competence, motivation, and anxiety (Hashimoto, 2002). In review of this model, Peng (2007, p. 6) went on to conclude that *"this model suggests that learners who are attitudinally affiliated with the L2 community will be more motivated to persevere in learning the L2 in both formal and informal situations"*. However, Gardner (2001) kept the reservation regarding the limits of the applicability of this model. Despite the fact that the proposed model focuses on motivation, primarily integrative, Gardner (2001) goes on to suggest that there might be some other factors that directly influence language achievement, proposing among others the language learning strategies, language anxiety, and self-confidence in language learning (Gardner, 2001).

3. Conclusion

Considering how important the concept of willingness to communicate is in the process of integrating into the society and learning another language, it is crucial for language instructors to understand the range of variables that might exert some influence on WTC, including both situational and personal variables. With that knowledge, it is easier for them to set pedagogical aims and organize their classroom as to utilize the willingness to communicate to its maximum capacity for facilitating language learning process (Kim, 2004). It is very important to design language classes so that they contain a lot of authentic information, a lot of opportunities for students to communicate, and a lot of activities that will require all of them to do so. Students with high WTC are more likely to use L2 in authentic communication contexts and function as autonomous learners by making independent efforts to learn language. Furthermore, students with high WTC will have more opportunities to use language and become involved in learning activities both inside and outside classrooms. Consequently, it could be suggested that such learners achieve more in language classes.

Nowadays it is not only of educational, but also of pragmatic importance to learn at least one world language. Considering all the doors that the knowledge of even one world language opens to those who can speak it, learning it is definitely worth the effort (Sinanović & Bećirović, 2016).

References

Ahmetović, E., Bećirović, S., & Dubravac, V. (2020). Motivation, anxiety and students' performance. *European Journal of Contemporary Education*, 9(2), 271-289. https://doi.org/10.13187/ejced.2020.2.271

Aubrey, S. (2010). Influences on Japanese students' willingness to communicate across three different sized EFL classes (Master's thesis). Asian EFL Journal. Retrieved from www.asian-efl-journal.com/Thesis/Thesis-Aubrey.pdf

Baker, S. C. & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000).The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning*, 50(2), 311-341. https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00119

Bećirović, S., Brdarević-Čeljo, A., & Polz, E. (2021). Exploring the relationship between language learning strategies, academic achievement, grade level, and gender. *Journal of Language and Education*, 7(2), 93-106. https://doi.org/10.17323/jle.2021.10771

Bećirović, S., Dubravac, V., & Laličić, A. (2020). The interconnection between vocabulary learning strategies and EFL learning outcomes. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 7(12), 106-129. https://doi.org/10.46827/ejes.v7i12.3402

Bećirović S., Hurić - Bećirović, R., (2017), The role of age in students' motivation and achievement in learning English as a second language, *JoLIE – Journal of Linguistic and Intercultural Education,* 10(1), 23-36. DOI: https://doi.org/10.29302/jolie.2017.10.1.2

Broday, S., & Sedgewick, C. (1991). The relationship between the SCII introversion-extroversion scale and occupational scales. *SAGE Journals*, 51(1), 175-179. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164491511017

Brown, J. D. (2001). Using surveys in language programs. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Burgoon, J. K. (1976). The unwillingness-to-communicate scale: Development and validation. *Communication Monographs*, 43, 60-69. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637757609375916

Cao, Y. (2006). Temporal fluctuations in situational willingness to communicate in a second language classroom. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics*, 12(2), 1-16.

Chotipaktanasook, N. (2014). Using social media to improve learners' willingness to communicate in English. Paper presented at the Tokyo International Conference on Social Sciences (TICSS 2014), Tokyo, Japan, 17-19 December 2014.

Clément, R., Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2003). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The effects of context, norms, and vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 22, 190–209. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X03022002003

Compton, L. (2007). The impact of content and context on international teaching assistants' willingness to communicate in the language classroom. *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, 10(4). Retrieved from http://tesl-ej.org/wordpress/

Costa, P. T. Jr., & McRae, R. R. (1992). Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) professional manual. Odessa, Florida: Psychological Assessment Resources, Inc.

Dervić, M., & Bećirović, S. (2020). Prerogative of the Lexical Approach in Communicative Language Teaching, *European Journal of Education Studies,* 7(3), 1-13. doi: 10.5281/zenodo.3748039

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). The psychology of language learner. Hillsdale, NJ.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Dörnyei, Z., & Kormos, J. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 275-300. doi:10.1177/136216880000400305

Durkheim, E. (1983). Pragmatism and sociology. Cambridge University Press.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation. London: Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), Motivation and second language acquisition (Technical Report #23, pp. 422-459). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Gardner, R. C., & Macintyre, P. D. (1993). On the measurement of affective variables in second language learning. *Language Learning*, 43(2), 157-194. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1992.tb00714.x

Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. N., Moorcroft, R., & Evers, F. T. (1987). Second language attrition: The role of motivation and use. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 6, 29-47. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X8700600102

Goldberg, Lewis. (1993). The structure of phenotypic personality traits. *American Psychologist*. 48. 26-34. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.48.1.26

Hashimoto, Y. (2002) Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of reported L2 use: The Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies*, 20(2):29–70.

Khatibi, M. B., & Zakeri, J. (2014). Iranian EFL learners' willingness to communicate across different context- and receiver-types. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 932-939. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.502

Kim, S. J. (2004). Exploring willingness to communicate (WTC) in English among Korean EFL students in Korea: WTC as a predictor of success in second language acquisition. Unpublished PhD thesis, Ohio State University. http://rave.ohiolink.edu/etdc/view?acc_num=osu1101267838

MacIntyre, P. D. & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 15(1), 3-26. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X960151001

MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Variables underlying willingness to communicate: a causal analysis. *Communication Research Reports*, 11, 135-142. https://doi.org/10.1080/08824099409359951

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 23, 369-388. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X03022002003

MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clément, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: Situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(4), 545-562. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb05543.x

Mašić A., Polz, E. & Bećirovic, S., (2020) The Relationship between Learning Styles, GPA, School Level and Gender. *European Researcher. Series A*, 11(1), 51-60. doi: 10.13187/er.2020.1.51

McCroskey, J. C. (1992). Reliability and validity of the willingness to communicate scale. *Communication Quarterly*, 40(1), 16-25. https://doi.org/10.1080/01463379209369817

McCroskey, J. C. (2001). An introduction to rhetorical communication. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon, 40.

McCroskey, J. C., & Baer, J. E. (1985). Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement. Paper presented at the annual convention of the Speech Communication Association, Denver, Colorado.

Modirkhameneh, S., & Firouzmand, A. (2014). Iranian EFL learners' willingness to communicate and language learning orientations. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1134-1139. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.526

Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A., & Pawlak, M. (2016). Designing a tool for measuring the interrelationships between L2 WTC, confidence, beliefs, motivation, and context. *Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 19-37. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-30373-4_2

Noon-ura, S. (2008). Teaching listening speaking skills to Thai students with low English proficiency. *Asian EFL journal*, 10(4), 173-192.

Pattapong, K. (2010). Willingness to communicate in a second language: A qualitative study of issues affecting Thai EFL learners from students' and teachers' point of view. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. The University of Sydney, Sydney, New South Wales.

Peng, J. E. (2007). Willingness to communicate in an L2 and integrative motivation among college students in an intensive English language program in China. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, 2, 33-59.

Richards, J.C. and Schmidt, R. (2002). Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics (3rd edition). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Rizvić E., & Bećirović, S., (2017). Willingness to Communicate in English as a Foreign Language in Bosnian-Herzegovinian EFL Context. *European Researcher*, 8(3), 224-235. doi: 10.13187/er.2017.3.224

Sinanović, J., & Bećirović S. (2016). The Determinants of Lifelong Learning. *European researcher*, 103(2), 107-118. doi: 10.13187/er.2016.103.107

Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The Modern Language Journal*, 79, 505-518. https://doi.org/10.2307/330002

Warner, E. D. (1997). A description of the approaches to communication apprehension. *Communication Theses*, 6. Retrieved from https://digitalcommons.brockport.edu/cmc_theses/6

Yaman, A. & Bećirović, S. (2016). Learning English and Media Literacy. *Imperial Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (IJIR)*, 2(6), 660-663.

mapub.org/mapss
Social Sciences
Volume 1 / Issue 1
MAP Social Sciences (MAPSS) is an international, multi-disciplinary, peer-reviewed journal published two times a year by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.* The journal is a platform for publication of advanced academic research in the field of social sciences.
E-ISSN: **2744-2454**

PREGLEDNI RAD

POJEDINAC I DRŽAVA U 21. STOLJEĆU: KRIZA IDENTITETA KAO POKRETAČ NAPRETKA U GLOBALIZIRANOM SVIJETU

Adem Olovčić[1], Vaso Mijanović[2]

[1] ***International Burch University***, *Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina*
[2] ***International Burch University***, *Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina*

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Adem Olovčić, International Burch University, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina. E-mail: adem.olovcic@ibu.edu.ba and Vaso Mijanović, International Burch University, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina. E-mail: vaso.mijanovic@stu.ibu.edu.ba

SAŽETAK

Cilj ovoga rada je da rasvijetli odnos pojedinca i države u okolnostima globaliziranog svijeta, u kome se kao bitnim pojavljuje pitanje krize identiteta i njenog utjecaja na ukupne društvene promjene. Polazeći od dominantnih teorijskih paradigmi politologije: teorija političkog realizma i liberalizma, rad tematizira navedeni odnos, čime se dotiče vrlo značajnih koncepcija društvenog ugovora i ljudskih prava. U zbilji utemeljenoj na realističkoj paradigmi, gdje su nacija – država i identitet jedno, iskorak iz društveno etablirane matrice, nepoželjan je. U tom se smislu, globalizacija kao proces sve veće povezanosti između nacija pojavljuje kao mogućnost navedenog iskoraka, odnosno, kao pokretačka snaga ka promjenama, koje, u rastućoj međuovisnosti svijeta otvaraju niz mogućnosti i bitne su za opstanak u 21. stoljeću, kako na individualnom, tako i na kolektivnom nivou.

Ključne riječi: globalizacija, identitet, pojedinac, država, politički realizam, liberalizam

MAP Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing

MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES

Volume 1 / Issue 1

ISSN: 2744-2454/ © 2021 The Authors. Published by **MAP** - *Multidisciplinary Academic Publishing.*

Article Submitted: 05 August 2021
Article Accepted: 18 August 2021
Article Published: 03 September 2021

Publisher's Note: ***MAP*** *stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.*

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.48
MAP SOCIAL SCIENCES Volume 1 / Issue 1

© The Author(s). 2021 **Open Access Article**
Creative Commons CC BY: This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made.
OPEN ACCESS ARTICLE

Uvod

Političku stvarnost, veoma često, posmatramo kao odvojenu od naše vlastite, što se potvrđuje u činjenici da će nemali broj ljudi danas, sebe kazati da je „apolitično". Ipak, navedena se stvarnost ne može posmatrati odvojeno od individualne stvarnosti, jer društvo i, posebno politika kojom se navedeno vodi kreiraju identitet svakoga pojedinca. Pored moći i vlasti, odnos pojedinca i države najtrajniji je odnos u domeni politike. Još je antički tragičar Sofokle ovaj odnos opisao u čuvenoj tragediji Antigona, dok su ga starogrčki filozofi Platon i Aristotel uveli u političku teoriju kroz pitanja pravičnosti i pravednosti (Platon, 2002), odnosno morala i etike (Aristotel, 2013).

Da politika konstruira identitete svojih građana, teza je koju je prije gotovo pola stoljeća iznio francuski povjesničar ideja Michel Foucault. (Fuko, 2007) Upravo se kroz to konstruiranje ostvaruje navedena trajnost odnosa pojedinca i države, jer pojedinci, živeći politički iskonstruiranu zbilju, održavaju i usmjeravaju postojeće odnose moći. Da li i koliko će ti odnosi opstati, zavisi ne samo od pojedinaca, već i od promjena kojima su društva u svojoj dinamici podložna. Utjecajem na pojedince, navedene promjene ostvaruju se i u društvima, mijenjajući nerijetko ne samo prirodu političkog režima, već i cjelokupnu društvenu strukturu.

Vrijeme u kojem živimo svjedoči konstantnim promjenama, koje su postale gotovo integralni element svjetskog sistema i društava koja se u tim sistemima nalaze zahvaljujući globalizaciji, kao procesu rastuće međuovisnosti država i društava, ali i stalne promjenljivosti njihove prirode. Navedena međuovisnost je toliko izražena, da se svijet već odavno imenuje „globalnim selom" (McLuhan et al., 1995), u kome su tisućljetni sistemi znanja i politike dovedeni u pitanje, a s njima i reaktualiziran pojam identiteta.

Slijedeći navedeno, kao bitnim čini se potreba da se uhvatimo u koštac sa dominantnim političkim paradigmama, u prvom redu političkim realizmom i liberalizmom i njihovim odnosu spram navedenog pitanja. Kako je osnovna značajka identiteta ta da se on kreira u određenom kolektivitetu, kao određujuće, nameće se pitanje odnosa pojedinca i države. Ovaj odnos, u sebi subsumira čitav set različitih ali istovremeno bitnih aspekata, koje ćemo u konačnici iskušati u pokušaju odgovora na navedeno pitanje. Najzad, šta uopće predstavlja pojam identiteta i kako nastupa stanje koje dio teoretičara naziva krizom identiteta, te da li je i u kojoj mjeri navedena kriza nastala kao posljedica globalizacije, i kakve mogućnosti otvara, pitanja su koja na koja ćemo također pokušati dati odgovore u ovom radu. Sve navedeno, čini se krucijalnim za razumijevanje socijalne i političke zbilje, ali i međunarodnih odnosa, jer, kao što ćemo vidjeti, koncepti koje tematiziramo, međusobno su isprepleteni, i stoga razumijevanje svakoga od njih nudi izglede za buduća tematiziranja u oblasti društvenih nauka, u prvom redu sociologije i politologije.

Globalizacija kao polazišna tačka

Na početku 21. stoljeća, gotovo je nemoguće govoriti o političkoj i društvenoj zbilji, a da se prethodno ne osvrnemo na proces globalizacije, naročito ukoliko imamo u vidu činjenicu da globalizacija, onako kako ju je shvatio A. Giddens intenzivira društvene odnose na svjetskom planu, povezujući udaljena mjesta na takav način da lokalna zbivanja uobličavaju događaji koji su se odigrali kilometrima daleko. U tom smislu on piše: „Nekoliko generacija čovječanstva unatrag neposredni su svjedoci velikih revolucionarnih promjena kakve dotad nisu zabilježene. Bilo to dobro ili loše, upadamo u jedan globalni poredak koji niko u potpunosti ne razume, ali čije posledice osećamo svi" (Gidens, 2005, p. 33) To je dijalektički proces, posebno ako se uzme u obzir da lokalna zbivanja mogu da dobiju različit tok u odnosu na vrlo udaljene odnose koji ih oblikuju.

Obzirom na višeznačnost ali i sveobuhvatnost navedenog koncepta, u literaturi su prisutne različite definicije globalizacije i različiti pristupi ovoj pojavi poput ekonomskih, kulturnih, političkih, socijalnih, vojnih itd. Ipak, na ovom mjestu, najprikladnijom se čini definicija koju je dao Dž. Hatibović u svom članku *O globalizaciji još jednom*, a po kojoj je globalizacija „splet svih procesa kojima se povezuju pojedinci, skupine, organizacije, ustanove, kompanije, narodi, regioni, države i civilizacije, koji su odvijaju u raznim oblastima i vremenima i različitim brzinama i koji su imali ili imaju tendenciju da obuhvate cio svijet, kao i širenje i intenzifikacija onih procesa koji su već obuhvatili cijeli svijet". (Hatibović, 2002, p. 29)

S pravom se može tvrditi da je globalizacija izrazito značajan proces kojeg smo sudionici svakodnevno, no on zasigurno nije jedini. Posmatrajući fenomen života i razvoja svijeta, možemo primjetiti više različitih procesa koji se odvijaju u isto vrijeme.

Dostupno online na
https://mapub.org/mapss/1-1/pojedinac-i-drzava-u-21-stoljecu-kriza-identiteta-kao-pokretac-napretka-u-globaliziranom-svijetu/
https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.48

Naime, dok s jedne strane, imamo proces globalizacije koji sa sobom nosi i proces integracije, s druge strane u isto vrijeme svijet prolazi kroz procese partikularizma i fragmentacije. Broj suverenih država se nakon drugog svjetskog rata i dekolonizacije rapidno povećao, a drugi talas uspostavljanja novih država dogodio se nakon završetka hladnog rata i raspada socijalističkih država. Pristup ovom procesu u mnogome zavisi od teorijske i/ili empirijske pozicije koja se zauzima prilikom njenog definiranja, a što se, opet, u kontekstu svjetske politike oslanja u mnogome na klasične teorije realizma i liberalizma i njihove pristupe navedenom pitanju. U konačnici, te nas teorije vraćaju na mjesto razumijevanja temeljnog odnosa određujućeg za koncept identiteta, a to je odnos čovjek-društvo, odnosno pojedinac-država.

Pojedinac i država u realističkoj i liberalnoj paradigmi

Iako svoje korijene nalazi u Tukididovom opisu Peloponeskog rata iz 4. stoljeća prije Krista (Tukidid, 2009) teorija klasičnog realizma svoju reafirmaciju i puni zamah doživljava na krilima socijalnih promjena novovjekovlja i nastanka koncepta suverenih država, nakon Westfalskog mira, u 17. stoljeću. Načelo suvereniteta, pratili su i svi ostali benefiti poput samostalne vojske, valute, institucija, kao i prava na samoopredijeljenje i nemješanja u unutrašnja pitanja drugih država. Štoviše, Westfalski sporazum, zametak je jednog novog procesa koji je ostao u sjenci svih gore navedenih momenata, a to je sekularizacija i slabljenje moći religije, a koji će svoj vrhunac dosegnuti u kasnijim stoljećima, nakon Francuske revolucije.

Reafirmatorom teorije klasičnog realizma smatra se engleski filozof Thomas Hobbes, koji je svojim djelom *Levijatan*, postavio temelje klasične realističke paradigme. Nakon Hobbesa, čitava plejada mislilaca pojavljuje se kao zagovornici ove teorijske paradigme. Machiavelli, Hume, Wattel, Genz, te polovinom dvadesetog stoljeća Hans Morgenthau formirali su osnove pravca u čijoj osnovi stoje tri principa: fokus na državi, samoodržanje i samopomoć (Baylis & Smith, 2001, pp. 150-152). Osnovna karakteristika međunarodne politike je 'anarhija', a države ne biraju sredstva da bi obezbijedile opstanak i sopstveno preživljavanje u sistemu bez vlasti. Oslanjajući se na prirodu čovjeka, koja je egostična, vođena željom za uvećanjem moći i ne birajući način na koji će ostvariti taj cilj, teorija klasičnog realizma države posmatra na isti način. S druge strane, za očuvanje mira neophodan je balans snaga među državama, a s obzirom da je međunarodni sistem 'anarhičan', država treba da se osloni na sopstvene kapacitete i samopomoć kako bi opstala u nesigurnom svijetu. Jačanjem sile, snage i maksimiziranjem svih oblika moći, država može da obezbijedi 'samoodržanje' i zaštiti nacionalni interes i bezbjednost svojih građana.

Ukoliko ovakvu paradigmu primjenimo na individuu, posmatrajući sa stanovišta psihologije navedeni pristup, može se kazati da u realizmu preovladava sve ono što bi u savremenoj psihologiji okarakterizirali kao nezdravi ego. Taj nezdravi ego uvijek želi više, i nikada ne uživa u onome što je postigao i što jeste. Otuda i želja države u stalnom gomilanju moći, vrlo često i bez osnova. U stvari tu državu najčešće vodi neosnovani strah, koji je osnov ponašanja. Nezdravi ego uvijek stavlja fokus na sebe bez bilo kakvog osjećaja za druge, što je ustvari realistički koncept ponašanja država, jer je interes preživljavanje, makar i po cijenu uništenja svih drugih. Najčešća reakcija ovog tipa država su jednake individui sa nezdravim egom i prisutni su manjak poštovanja, želja za takmičenjem i pobjedom, i spremnost na sukob i konflikte. Osnov nezdravog ega individualca i realističke države je strah. Najveći realistički strah individue je strah od smrti, a realističke države strah od nestanka.

Kod individue, strah već od trenutka rođenja kreiraju roditelji, društvo, država i to vrlo često iz najboljih namjera, ili iz naučenog i stečenog znanja, trudeći se da budu bolji roditelji od svojih roditelja. Država opet svoj strah razvija na bazi nekih historijskih činjenica koje se prihvataju onako kako se tumače, te na osnovu interpretacija odnosa sa drugim državama i potencijalnim prijetnjama po bezbjednost i suverenitet. Slijedeći makijavelističku tezu po kojoj je „sigurnije da te se plaše, nego da te vole, kad već ne može oboje." (Makijaveli, 1982, p. 59), država određenim mjerama i koristeći određene metode proizvodi strah kao sredstvo kontrole svojih građana i vladavine nad njima. Operativni mehanizam za sprovođenje su državne institucije. Prisustvo straha onemogućava podjednako i državu i pojedinca da napravi bilo kakav iskorak. Zato je strah uvijek u službi države, kao i kontrola – na taj način je i kontrola nad pojedincima u državnim rukama. Na ovom tragu će američki teoretičar spoljne politike David Campbell, kazati da je identitet pojedinca nedvojbeno vezan za koncept sigurnosne politike države, koja stoji u uskoj vezi s proizvodnjom kolektivnog subjektiviteta. Drugim riječima, sigurnosni diskurs države uvijek podrazumijeva eksplicitno ili implicitno pozivanje na određeni identitet. Zato Campbell naglašava da je odgovor na pitanje 'tko smo?' neodvojiv od odgovora na pitanje 'čega se bojimo?' (Campbell, 2008, p. 73).

Osnov za ponašanje države teorijsko utemeljenje nalazi u koncepciji društvenog ugovora. Okarakteriziran kao zamišljeni, odnosno fiktivni ugovor, prema općeprihvaćenoj definiciji, „društveni ugovor, u političkoj filozofiji, je stvarni ili hipotetički sporazum između onih nad kojima se vlada i njihovih vladara, a koji definira prava i dužnosti svakog" ("social contract | Definition, Examples, Hobbes, Locke, & Rousseau", 2021) u sebi subsumira dobrovoljni pristanak svakog pojedinca u svrhu ostvarivanja jednakosti svih i pravičnosti koju garantuje država. Prema ovome, sve strane imaju korist, kao i jasno definirana prava i obaveze. Thomas Hobbes je i kod teorije društvenog ugovora u potpunosti imao realistički pristup. Prema Hobbesu pojedinci dobrovoljno pristaju na ograničenje svoje slobode i prenose svoja prava na državu, koja onda postaje biblijska, mitska zvijer, Levijatan, oličenje tiranina koji isključuje bilo kakvu individualnost na uštrb kolektiviteta u liku države. Zbog prirode svakog pojedinca, Hobbes nalazi da je jedini izbor koji pojedinac može da napravi je da se stavi na raspolaganje državi i vladaru. (Hobbes, 2004)

Za razliku od Hobbesa, drugi kontraktualni teoretičar, francuski prosvjetiteljski filozof Jean-Jacques Rousseau, polazi sa liberalne pozicije, po kojoj su ljudi po prirodi dobri, ali da je čovjek u državi, iako po prirodi slobodan, zapravo „posvuda u okovima" (Rousseau, 1978, p. 94). Iako se u načelu odnosa države prema pojedincu slaže sa Hobbesom, po Rousseau prvi zakon pojedinca jeste zakon samoodržanja, a jedina briga staranje o samom sebi. U tom smislu, razloge za uspostavljanje društvenog ugovora on vidi u problemu pronalaska onog oblika udruživanja koji će braniti i štititi pojedinca i njegova dobra i u kojem će se svaki pojedinac, iako se udružuje u zajednicu sa drugima ipak u i toj zajednici ostati slobodan kao prije. Prema Rousseau, ovaj problem rješava upravo društveni ugovor. (Rousseau, 1978, p. 100).

Društvenim ugovorom pojedinac se odriče svoje individualnosti, dobija 'opću ličnost', a uvezivanjem svih pojedinaca na taj način formira se država, kao vrhovni kolektivitet. Sam Rousseau na tom tragu ističe sljedeće: „Svatko od nas ujedinjuje svoju osobnost i svu svoju moć pod vrhovnom upravom opće volje, i primamo u društvo svakog člana kao neodvojivi dio cjeline" (Rousseau, 1978, p. 101). Navedeni ugovor podrazumijeva ponašanje pojedinca u skladu sa moralnim i pravnim normama, običajima i slično. Reguliranje društvenih odnosa i pravila ponašanja je isključiva nadležnost države. Nekada su moralne norme i običaji definirani od strane religija odnosno religijskih autoriteta, a danas sistem pravnih normi formira, regulira i sprovodi država odnosno vlade kroz sistem institucija. Da li je pojedinac po svojoj prirodi moralno biće, ili bi on bio divlji i neobuzdan da ne postoji sistem društvenih procesa koji ga kreira vječito je pitanje mnogobrojnih filozofa, sociologija i, u krajnjoj liniji, teoretičara političkih nauka.

Model društvenog ugovora, teorijski je idealno-tipski, i funkcionirao bi odlično ako bi bio proveden baš onako kako je zamišljen, odnosno bez bilo kakvih zloupotreba. Međutim, obzirom da je društvo složena i kompleksna pojava, procesi koji se odvijaju na nivou društva gotovo uvijek su različiti od svojih idealno-tipskih, odnosno teorijskih formulacija koje ga pokušavaju obuhvatiti i odrediti. U tom je smislu u društvenim naukama prisutno postojanje različitih, veoma često, suprotstavljenih teorijskih pozicija koje konvergiraju u temeljnom pitanju odnosa čovjek-društvo, odnosno pojedinac-država. Jedna od tih je i liberalna teorija, čijim se pionirima smatraju filozofi Bodin, Grotius, Locke i Montesquieu i Kant.

Za razliku od realista kod kojih je država središnji akter političkih odnosa, za liberalne teoretičare to je pojedinac, dok je država je u kontekstu ove teorije samo izraz volje pojedinačne prirode i, kao takva, treba da biti na usluzi toj prirodi. To je moguće zbog miroljubive prirode čovjeka, te dostojanstva, uvažavanja, jednakosti, sloboda kao suštine te prirode. Takvi pojedinci formiraju državu, a onda i odnose između država, koje dovode do mira i prosperiteta. Države kroz liberalizaciju ekonomskih odnosa i povezivanje uspostavljaju saradnju u vidu međunarodnih institucija, na zadovoljstvo svih strana, a u konačnici i svih svojih građana. U slučaju da dođe do nekih neplaniranih sukoba ili konflikata, međunarodne institucije će kroz moralne i pravne norme međunarodnog prava regulisati sve sporne situacije i sačuvati mir. Liberali zastupaju model idealnog društva u kojem svijet funkcionira na bazi povjerenja i razumijevanja. Liberalni pristup je u teoriji poznat kao „idealistički" (Dimitrijević & Stojanović, 1996, p. 31) i stoga utopistički. Odgovor na dio pitanja koje smo postavili na početku zavisi od pripadnosti autora jednom od klasičnih teoretskih pravaca. Teoretičari koju su bliskiji pravcu realizma u globalizaciji vide ozbiljnu prijetnju osnovnim temeljima države, dok su liberali skloniji tezi da globalizacija donosi opći napredak društva, stvara međuzavisnost i saradnju koja donosi globalni mir i prosperitet.

Kao proces stalne promjenjivosti, globalizacija pruža nove prilike i mogućnosti za razvoj, kroz dostupnost većini informacijaa. Ako se sve te mogućnosti prepoznaju i upotrijebe u pozitivnu svrhu, definitivno će donijeti napredak i prosperitet, kako države tako i pojedinca. Samo je promijena konstanta, a svako ko nije spreman da se mijenja i razvija, odbija i ne prihvata nove procese, osuđen je na dekadenciju, a u konačnici i propast. Kada su u pitanju realisti i liberali, čini se da ni jedni ni drugi ne pogađaju bit globaliziranog svijeta i da je istina negdje između pesimističke realnosti i liberalnog ideologiziranja. Baš kao što po Immanuelu Kantu ne postoji 'stvar po sebi' (Kant, 2012), tako ni individua po sebi nije ni dobra ni loša, već njeno djelovanje ovisi od čitavog niza faktora koji je oblikuju, a koji su društveno odnosno politički uvjetovani i vidljivi u nebrojenom mnoštvu identiteta kroz koje je svaka individua okarakterizirana veći dio svoga života.

Artikuliranje identiteta kroz odnos individua-društvo

U društvenim naukama krajem 20. stoljeća ponovno je aktualizirana tema identiteta. Navedeni pojam u sociologiju i politologiju preuzet je iz matematike, kao koncept jednakosti sa samim sobom, odatle je i sam naziv usvojen iz latinskog jezika, od riječi *identitatas*-istovjetnost. Većina autora društvenih nauka, navedeni pojam tretira s obzirom na osjećaj pripadnosti nekoj društvenoj skupini. U tom smislu A. Smith ističe: „Otprve se, na primer, pojam 'identiteta' shvatao kao 'istovetnost'. Pripadnici određene grupe isti su baš u onome po čemu se razlikuju od njenih nepripadnika. Pripadnici se odevaju i jedu na sličan način i govore istim jezikom; po svemu tome razlikuju se od nepripadnika, koji se drugačije odevaju, jedu i govore. Taj obrazac sličnosti uz nesličnost čini jedno značenje nacionalnog identiteta." (Smit, 1998, p. 120).

Iako je reaktualiziran s krajem 20. stoljeća, ovaj pojam tematizirali su još već pomenuti antički mislioci Platon i Aristotel, i on je tokom stoljeća svoje utočište našao u gotovo svim društvenim disciplinama poput sociologije, psihologije i političkih nauka. Razlog za navedeno nesumnjivo je u činjenici da je navedeni pojam višeznačan i da ima mnogo sinonima koji se koriste u svakodnevnom životu. Autor James D. Fearon, koncept identiteta u svom djelu *Šta je identitet*? definira kao „(a) društvenu kategoriju, određenu pravilima pripadnosti društvu i navodno karakterističnim atributima ili očekivanim ponašanjem, (b) društveno razlikovnu značajku na koju je osoba posebno ponosna ili je smatra nepromjenjivom, ali društveno-uzrokovanom ili, naravno, i (a) i (b) odjednom" (Fearon, 1999, p. 36). Veliki doprinos definiranju pojma identiteta na polju individualne psihologije dao je Erik Homburger Erikson. Kako navodi autor Justin T. Sokol, „Erikson je vjerovao da individua ne može biti shvaćena odvojeno od društvenog konteksta. Individua i društvo su zamršeno utkani, dinamički povezani u stalnim promjenama. " (Sokol, 2009, p. 140)

Vidimo, dakle, kako su individualni i kolektivni identitet neodvojivi, jer se individualni identitet konstruira u društvu, a nikako individualno, i to najčešće po principu negacije. Naime, identitet je određen uvijek u razlici spram drugih ljudi, bez koje nema ni identiteta. Razlike, uz jednakosti, konstituiraju identitet, koji je, stoga, naš individualni, pripadan samo nama, ali istovremeno i kolektivni-oblikovan od strane zajednice u kojoj smo stasali. Kada je u pitanju ovaj potonji, on se, kako to ističe akademik Ivan Cvitković, „zasniva na zajedničkoj prošlosti iz koje su isključeni 'nepripadnici' i na predstavi o zajedničkoj budućnosti koju ne mogu dijeliti 'nepripadnici'" (Cvitković, 2001, p. 93). Sa pozicije odnosa države i pojedinca, ovaj se identitet posljednjih stoljeća pretvorio u nacionalni identitet, pojačan zajedničkim simbolima (grb, zastava i himna) i težnjom za samoodržanjem i opstankom takve zajednice na određenoj teritoriji, što nazivamo 'nacionalna država'. Navedeni je identitet, u kontekstu globalizacije i rastuće međuovisnosti, čini se, najpodložniji promjenama.

Individalni i kolektivni identitet su u odnosu međuzavisnosti, jer je čovjek društveno biće i prirodno je da funkcionira u nekom obliku zajednice, baš kako je to Aristotel primjetio, odredivši čovjeka kao 'društveno biće', odnosno 'biće zajednice' (Aristotel, 1988). Već od trenutka rođenja, koji je društveni čin, pojedinac formira svoje identitete na osnovu društveno nametnutih normi, kroz proces socijalizacije. Samim činom rođenja neovisno od uticaja drugih aktera ili društva, stiču se određeni elementi kao što su spol, majka i mjesto rođenja, a nauka kaže da rođenjem stičemo i dva straha: strah od jakih zvukova i strah od gubitka tla pod nogama (Kalaš & Mavrak, 2007, p. 97). Sve ostalo što individua u svom razvoju i životu stiče posljedica je aktivnosti drugih. Iako nesvjesna i bez mogućnosti izbora, jer te izbore u njegovo ime čini porodica, društvo i država, individui biva nametnuto čitavo mnoštvo različitih identiteta. To najprije čini porodica, kao kolijevka ličnosti, koja kreira određeni sistem vrijednosti, a nakon toga država i društvo, koje individuu određuju nacionalno, etnički, religijski, historijski, kulturno i politički, dodjeljujući joj tako različite identitete.

Slijedeći navedeno, s pravom se može pitati, šta je konkretno individualni identitet, i koliko je prostora u tom svekupnom utjecaju na pojedinca individui ostavljeno da napravi bilo kakav izbor ili promjenu, a da navedena ne bude isključujuća za nju ili pogubna za zajednicu u kojoj stasava. Jer, pojedinac ima potrebu za pripadanjem, a zavisno od osjećaja pripadnosti određenoj zajednici, zavisit će i aktivnost pojedinca u okviru te zajednice. Ukoliko zajednica posjeduje određeni senzibilitet kojeg manifestira kroz poštovanje individue i razvija kolektivni osjećaj pripadnosti i zajedništva kod svojih pripadnika, onda je to put definitivnog stapanja individualnog u kolektivni identitet. Interes svih zajednica je apsolutna inkorporacija pojedinca kroz primjenu socijalizacije već od rođenja. Kroz kontinuirane i *ad hoc* usmjerene aktivnosti, taj se pojedinac nastoji zadržati u sastavu zajednice, naročito ako se radi o najkorisnijem pojedincu, onom članu zajednice od kojih zajednica ima interes. Ukratko, da bi država trajala i da bi obezbijedila lojalnost svojih građana ona mora jasno definisati određeni kolektivni identitet stanovništva. Taj identitet jeste nacionalni identitet. Slijedeći navedeno, jasno je da taj identitet počiva na nacionalnoj svijesti, pri čemu je ona ništa drugo do oblik grupne svijesti koju čine uvjerenja i osjećaji koji pojedinca vezuju za grupu.

Pojam nacije, nacionalnog identiteta, proizvod je moderne i stvaranja prvih nacionalnih država. Veza između države i nacije nije jednostavna. Prema autoru Barry Buzanu (1983), postoji nekoliko veza između države i nacije. Prvi model je onaj po kojem je nacija prethodnik države, a veza je duboka i formira se snažni međunarodni identitet i domaći legitimitet; naredni model je model po kojem država stvara naciju i karakterističan je za države koje su nastajale naseljavanjem nove teritorije poput USA; treći model je onaj po kojem se nacije dijele na dvije ili više država, a stanovništvo isključivo čine pripadnici tih nacija; konačno, četvrti model je model multinacionalne države. U ovom modelu, u pitanju su države koje u svom sastavu imaju dvije ili više kompletnih nacija, a ovaj oblik ima i dvije podvrste, a to su: federativna država i imperijalna država. Federativne države su one koje ne nameću vještačku novu naciju, već je nacijama u sastavu države omogućeno da razvijaju svoj identitet, a država se brine o ravnomjernoj zastupljenosti svih nacija bez mogućnosti dominacije jedne od njih. (Buzan, 1983, pp. 45-48)

Na ovoj ravni, odnos politike i identiteta postaje osnov za funkcionisanje države i vlasti. Razni oblici identiteta se formiraju poput političkih, kulturnih, jezičkih, historijskih i drugih, koji obezbijeđuju funkcionisanje države i formiraju stabilne unutrašnje temelje države i institucija. Država kroz razne mehanizme poput obrazovanja, književnost kulturu i različite vrste masovnih medija medija potencira poželjni model ponašanja i kreira identitet građana. „Uvjeriti ljude da su jedno; da čine ograničenu, osebujnu, solidarnu skupinu; da njihove unutarnje razlike nisu bitne, barem za tu svrhu – to je normalan i nužan dio politike, a ne samo onoga što se obično okarakterizira kao 'politika identiteta'". (Brubaker & Cooper, 2000, p. 45) Sticanjem državljanstva pojedinac stiče i pripadnost određenoj naciji, odnosno nacionalni identitet. U tom trenutku pred individuom se otvaraju prava i mogućnosti, ali i dugačka lista obaveza koje valja ispoštovati. Država time individuu stavlja pod kišobran kolektivne zaštite svih svojih građana, a zauzvrat, zakoni na kojima ta država počiva, obavezujući su za pojedince.

Sama država posjeduje identitet koji počiva upravo na ovom odnosu 'pojedinac-država-zakoni' i njena pozicija u međunarodnom sistemu zavisi od tog identiteta. Štoviše, kao i pojedinci u državi, tako i država u međunarodnom sistemu stupa u suodnos sa drugim državama artikulirajući na taj način svoj identitet. Spoljna, a naročito sigurnosna politika država, uvijek se oblikuje i opravdava spram određenog identiteta koji ne postoji neovisno o sigurnosnm diskursu, već se njime konstituira. Tako naprimjer, već citirani autor Campbell ističe da je državni identitet Sjedinjenih Američkih država u Hladnom ratu stvoren kroz razliku od opasnog Drugog, u konkretnom slučaju, SSSR, „kroz ideologiju, simboliku i mitologiju, koji su, iako apstraktni koncepti, predstavljali materijalnu praksu obuhvaćenu vanjskom politikom SAD -a" (Campbell, 2008, p. 158). Vraćanje identiteta pojedincu nastalo je u trenutku oslobađanja od religijskih dogmi, sa nastupanjem perioda humanizma i rensesanse. Država je od religijskih organizacija i religijskog vodstva preuzela

https://doi.org/10.53880/2744-2454.2021.1.1.48

primat nad oblikovanjem kolektivnog identiteta. Ali od tada do danas poimanje indentiteta luta zavisno od naučnog pristupa na relaciji pojedinac – kolektiv. Liberalne demokratije su bliže pojedincu, dok su kod realista država i identitet jedno.

Kriza identiteta kao spiritus movens napretka

„'Granice' između politike i osobnog identiteta formirane obiteljskim životom, etničkom pripadnošću, životnim orijentacijama i nizom drugih čimbenika koji se odnose na našu 'subjektivnost' ili osjećaj za sebe toliko su porozne da uopće ne predstavljaju granice.", istakao je prije tri desetljeća Colin Mercer u svom tekstu *Kriza identiteta.* (1990, p. 20) Navedena konstatacija poslužit će nam da u nastavku odgovorimo na pitanje da li u kontekstu odnosa društvo-čovjek, odnosno, država-pojedinac, može uopće da se govori o krizi identiteta, ako imamo u vidu sve ono što smo prethodno naveli, a po čemu pojedinca neminovno oblikuju društvo odnosno zajednica. Njemačko-američki razvojni psiholog Erik H. Erikson je vjerovao da se identitet mijenja i razvija tokom života. Nova iskustva, izazovi i saznanja koja individua stiče tokom života utječu na identitet. Prema njemu, kriza identiteta je gotovo izvjesna, jer će individua prije ili kasnije istraživati i analizirati sebe samoga i svoje sopstvo. Naime, slijedeći teoriju klasičnog njemačkog filozofa Immanuela Kanta, po kojoj, ljudski um konstantno ima potrebu da razmiče granice sopstvenog saznanja, Erikson će konstatirati da takvom spoznajom individua kreira i osjećaj sopstva, konstruirajući na taj način nove identitete.

No, da li je takva promjena pozitivna ili negativna za pojedinca u kontekstu njegovog odnosa s državom? Za realističku državu je sigurno negativna, jer se sa bilo kakvim iskorakom ka sebi trgamo od nametnutog identiteta i izlazimo iz zone komfora koja je stvorena na osnovu konstrukata društva. Sa razvojem individualnog identiteta na gubitku su i tradicionalne zajednice. Za državu je ovakva individua devijantna, jer ona više ne vjeruje u bilo kakve dogme koje se isključivo zasnivaju na svjedočenju određenih uvjerenja, koja tradiraju sa koljena na koljeno. Autor Eckhart Tolle dogme definira kao „kolektivne konceptualne zatvore, ističući kako je čudna stvar to „što ljudi vole svoje zatvorske ćelije", zbog toga „jer im pružaju osjećaj sigurnosti i lažni osjećaj 'znam'". U konačnici, kako i sam autor ističe, „Ništa nije nanijelo više patnje čovječanstvu od njegovih dogmi." (Tolle, 2003, pp. 11-17)

Ipak, globalizacija je donekle dokinula dogmatsko naslijeđe društava i donijela nove mogućnosti u kontekstu re-izgradnje pojedinačnih identiteta. Nove tehnologije i mogućnost komunikacije uklonile su sa sa očiju pojedinca koprenu nametnutih društvenih konstrukata, apsolutne istine i aksiomatske utemeljenosti individualne zbilje. Napredak čovječanstva je društvima omogućio povezivanje, informacije i kontakt sa ljudima iz drugih zajednica. Brzi protok ljudi, dobara i usluga, a s njima i običaja, znanja i nepreglednog mnoštva iskustava doveo je do oslobađanja individue od rusoovskih „okova" Mogućnosti su neslućene, a ipak, svjedočimo da postoje i takve države koje nemaju još uvijek ne posjeduju kapacitet i koje su nerazvijene. U njima i dalje najveći dio pojedinaca ostaje limitiran „okovima društva", bez mogućnosti da ih se jednom za svagda oslobodi. Kako je istakao i sam Machiavelli, "No, čovjek se često ne smatra dovoljno obazrivim da zna kako se prilagoditi promjeni, zato što ne može odstupiti od onoga na što ga priroda naginje, i zato što, budući da je uspio na neki način, ne može ga se uveriti da je dobro napustiti ga, pa stoga čovek, koji je oprezan, kad dođe vreme za avanturističko ponašanje ne zna kako to učiniti, pa je upropašten. " (Makijaveli, 1982, pp. 84-87)

U kojoj će mjeri inidividua moći da formira svoj lični identitet zavisi i od toga koliko je spremna da kroz ulaganje u sebe i rad na sebi napravi iskorak i iskreira svoj put. Rad na sebi bilo fizički, duhovni ili intelektualni zahtjeva napore. Lakše se pustiti i prihvatiti kolektivni identitet kao jedini izbor i pronaći 'krivca' za sve nedaće u zajednici. Ipak, 'globalizirano selo' nudi neslućene mogućnosti. One se ogledaju, ne samo u novim spoznajama, već i u promicanju granica vlastite slobode i iskoraka iz realistički iskonstruiranih identiteta. No, može li individua u 21. stoljeću jasno da izrazi svoj identitet, koliko je zagarantirano i zaštićeno njeno pravo na navedeno, ako imamo u vidu dominirajuću realističku paradigmu u ponašanjima država, pokušat ćemo ispitati na u nastavku.

Razvoj ljudskih prava u kontekstu identiteta i socijalnih normi

Napredak društva u različitim segmentima definitivno je donio i napredak ljudskih prava. Ovaj napredak, puni zamah doživio je nakon Francuske građanske revolucije i raskida sa tradicionalnim društvenim uređenjima, po kojima je država, odnosno despotska vlast bila glavni arbitar društvenih, političkih odluka. Na krilima već pomenute revolucije, a potaknuto globalnim promjenama, mnogi akteri, pored države, poput nevladinih organizacija, međunarodnih institucija, raznih interesnih grupa i zajednica su dobili su mogućnost djelovanja i mjesto u globalnom sistemu. Ljudska prava su dobila na značaju sa razvojem međunarodne saradnje i interakcije. Osnov za određena prava u okviru države definiran je pravnim normamama, koje često imaju osnov u moralnim normama i običajnosti. "Moral i zakon ne pokrivaju uvijek isto tlo. U društvima s određenim odvajanjem između svetog i svjetovnog, sam zakon ne bi bio dovoljan za održavanje kohezije društva: moralni su propisi bitni. Neki postupci koji se općenito smatraju moralnim ili nemoralnim izvan su područja primjene zakona. Općenito, zakon se bavi ekstremnijim primjerima onoga što ne treba činiti, dok moral naglašava i svakodnevne pogrešne postupke i ono što treba učiniti." (Hinde, 2007, p. 65)

Međutim, i sama ljudska prava, dovedena su u pitanje, posebno ukoliko imamo u vidu dvije vrlo bitne činjenice. Prva činjenica, oslanja se na tradicijski utemeljenu opstojnost i kontinuitet političkog realizma, kojom teorijom se većina država i danas vodi, a koja, kao teorija i doktrina politike „...smatra da se moralne norme ne primjenjuju na ponašanje države, koje treba da budu vođene isključivo brigom za nacionalni interes" (Mejhen, 2004, p. 550). Druga je činjenica ta da veliki broj država u svijetu danas uopće nema demokratsko uređenje, liberalan pristup, pa čak ni definiranu vladavinu prava. U tim državama ljudska prava se nalaze na ozbiljnom ispitu. Te države su najčešće i na nižem nivou razvoja, ne samo ekonomskog već i obrazovnog, kao i nivoa svjesti stanovništva. U takvim državama indvidue koje su različite od većine, nalaze se pod određenim pritiskom ili stigmom. Svako ponašanje koje nije dio kolektivnog identiteta i prihvaćenih nametnutih etičkih normi se osuđuje. Iako individua svojim ponašanjem ne nanosi štetu bilo kome, konzervativan stav zajednice ne dozvoljava 'druge' i 'drugačije'. Pripadnici takve zajednice uslijed straha od nepoznatog, koji proizlazi iz socijalno-iskonstruisane, kruto etablirane zbilje, osuđuju različitosti, izuzimaju drugačije individue iz društva, osuđuju ih i ocjenjuju kao društveno nepodobne.

S druge strane, smatra se da liberalne države imaju mnogo kompletniji set ljudskih prava. Na definiranje određenih modela ponašanja, a samim tim i mogućnosti iskazivanja individualnog identiteta utiče društveni stav, i da li je neka pojava prihvatljiva ili ne. Moralne norme koje formiraju svijest ljudi proističu iz odgoja u krugu porodice, religije, tradicije i naravno države i politike koja se u njoj vodi. Ljudska prava su univerzalna kategorija, a kao o osnovna prava individuee prisutna su od početka civilizacije. A i sve pojave su takođe postojale i ranije, samo u modernom dobu kroz napredak civilizacije, imenovane su i dobile su oblik javnosti. Univerzalna deklaracija o ljudskim pravima je deklaracija Generalne skupštine Ujedinjenih nacija kojom su na univerzalnom nivou svim ljudima garantirana prava. (Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948)

Ipak, historijski posmatrano, razvoj i utemeljenje određenih ljudskih prava, naročito određenih grupa, rezultat je ozbiljne i dugotrajne borbe za ostvarenje tih prava. U prvom redu, tu se misli na prava radnika, prava žena, te drugih marginaliziranih skupina. Svijest o ovim pravima, u 'globalnom selu', postala je izraženija i proširena u sve dijelove svijeta. Na taj je način globalizacija još jednom potvrdila da u kontekstu identiteta igra važnu ulogu, jer raskriva mogućnosti, ne samo za spoznaju i konstruiranje novih identiteta, već i za njihovo konačno institucionalno potvrđivanje. Globalizacija nas uči, kako je to istakao Klaus Metscher, da se „očuvanje ljudskih prava, koje se transformira u suvremenom svijetu u svjetski ethos ili globalnu etiku, očituje u ukidanju pakla koji nameće egzistenciju socijalnih i političkih sadista, o prevladavanju – putem normi – svih formi mučenja i tlačenja" (Šarčević, 2000, p. 25).

Zaključak

Da li je globalizacija prilika ili ranjivost, i kakva je situacija sa identitetom u tom sveprožimajućem procesu promjenljivosti koji je zahvatio gotovo sva društva? Na prethodnim stranicama, navedeno nas je pitanje odvelo u razmatranje nekoliko koncepcija koje konvergiraju oko zajedničke problematike na relaciji individua-društvo, a s ciljem mogućeg pronalaženja odgovora. Historijske promjene i velike revolucije novovjekovlja, prekinule su sve veze sa tradicionalnim despotskim režimima, otvorivši tako mogućnost da se o pojedincu, ali i o državi može govoriti sa stanovišta njihovog identiteta, kako u kontekstu njihovih međuodnosa, tako i u odnosu spram drugosti. Slijedeći navedeno, u ovom radu smo, kroz pozicije realizma i liberalizma, najprije, pokušali ispitati identitet države i odnos države i pojedinca, a koji svoj vrhunac dostiže u kontekstu nacionalne države.

Da li su, i u kojoj mjeri, društva nacionalnih država, svojim mehanizmima socijalizacije dokinula identitet individue, te kako taj identitet stoji u globaliziranom svijetu, pitanje je, koje se u konačnici pojavilo kao određujuće za razumijevanje problematike koju tematiziramo. Iako identitet ne bi smio poricati, potiskivati i ugrožavati drugost, razlike i jedinstvenost, čini se da je kroz tradiranje *ethosa* unutar nacionalnih država takav odnos potiskivanja sveprisutan. Razlog za ovo, kako smo vidjeli leži u činjenici da većina nacija – država počiva na realističkoj paradigmi, prema kojoj su nacija – država i identitet jedno, Ipak, globalizacija je dokinula ovakav odnos, pokazujući mogućnost da se iz društvenih i političkih identiteta iskorači i da se oni, u sveukupnoj međuovisnosti dovedu u pitanje. Kriza identiteta, u tom smislu, pojavljuje se kao mogućnost navedenog iskoraka, odnosno, kao pokretačka snaga ka promjenama, koje, u globaliziranom svijetu, otvaraju niz mogućnosti. Da bi, pak, navedeno bilo moguće, jamac su ljudska prava i njihova institucionalna utemeljenost u sve većem broju država. Globalizacija se time pokazuje kao mogućnost, ali i nužnost, imajući u vidu brzinu događanja procesa u savremenom svijetu.

Literatura

Aristotel (2013). *Nikomahova etika.* IK Zorana Stojanovića

Aristotel. (1988). *Politika*. Globus, Zagreb.

Baylis, J., & Smith, S. (2001). *The globalization of world politics*. Oxford University Press.

Brubaker, R., & Cooper, F. (2000). Beyond “identity”. *Theory and Society*, *29*(1), 1-47.

Buzan, B. (1983). *People, States and Fear – The national security problems in international relations.* Wheatsheaf books Ltd.

Campbell, D. (2008). *Writing security*. University of Minnesota Press.

Cvitković, I. (2001). *Sociologija spoznaje.* DES, Sarajevo.

Dimitrijević, V. & R. Stojanović. (1996). *Međunarodni odnosi.* Službeni list SRJ.

Džemal Hatibović. (2002). *Globalizacija, tržište, Evropska zajednica – O globalizaciji još jednom*, MP 1-2.

Fearon, J. (1999). *What is identity?* Stanford University Press.

Fuko, M. (2007). *Poredak diskursa: pristupno predavanje na Kolež de Fransu (1970).* Karpos, Loznica.

Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and Self-Identity: Self and Society in the Late Modern Age*. Polity Press, Cambridge.

Gidens, E. (2005). *Odbegli svet.* Stubovi kulture, Beograd.

Hinde, R. A. (2007). *Bending the Rules, Morality in the Modern World – From Relationships to Politics and War.* Oxford University Press Inc.

Hobbes, T. (2004). *Levijatan ili građa, oblik i moć crkvene i građanske države.* Jesenski i Turk.

Kalaš, Dž. & Mavrak, M. (2007). *Psihologija sa pedagogijom.* Naklada „Zoro“, Sarajevo.

Kant, I. (2012). *Kritika čistoga uma.* Dereta, Beograd.

Makijaveli, N. (1982). *Vladalac.* Izdavačko preduzeće „Rad“, Beograd.

McLuhan, M., Powers, B., Leonhardt, C., & Baacke, D. (1995). *The Global Village*. Junfermann.

Mejhen, Dž. M. (2004). Rat i mir. *Uvod u etiku.* Singer, P. (Ed.). IK Zorana Stojanovića.

Mercer, C. (1990). Identity Crisis. *Australian Left Review.* Vol. 1. No. 119.

Platon. (2002). *Država.* Beogradski izdavački grafički zavod-BIGZ.

Rousseau, J. J. (1978). *Rasprava o porijeklu i osnovama nejednakosti među ljudima / Društveni ugovor.* Školska knjiga, Zagreb.

Smit, A. (1998). *Nacionalni identitet.* „XX vek“, Beograd.

Social contract | Definition, Examples, Hobbes, Locke, & Rousseau. Encyclopedia Britannica. (2021). Retrieved 29 August 2021, from https://www.britannica.com/topic/social-contract.

Sokol, J. T. (2009). Identity Development Throughout the Lifetime: An Examination of Eriksonian Theory. *Graduate Journal of Counseling Psychology.* Vol. 1. Issue 2.

Šarčević, A. (2000). *Odvažnost slobode: etika ljudskih prava*. Pravni centar Fond otvoreno društvo BiH.

Tolle, E. (2003). *Stillness Speaks.* New World Library.

Tukidid. (2009). *Povijest Peloponeskog rata.* Matica hrvatska, Zagreb.

United Nations. (1948). *Universal Declaration of Human Rights | United Nations*. United Nations. Retrieved 30 August 2021, from https://www.un.org/en/about-us/universal-declaration-of-human-rights.