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EID is an international, periodical scientific journal publishing original research which is of general significance to the education research community and which comes from a wide range of areas of education research and related disciplines.
This journal operates a blind review process. All contributions are typically sent to a minimum of two independent expert reviewers to assess the scientific quality of the paper. Every peer-reviewed research article appearing in this journal will be published open access. The journal is indexed in ERIH PLUS, DOAJ, CrosRef, WordCat.

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PREFACE

Dear authors and readers,

I am delighted to present the new issue of the scientific e-journal "Education. Innovation. Diversity" (EID). The journal is the result of scientific cooperation between several universities - Rezekne Academy of Technologies (Latvia), Liepaja University (Latvia), Palacký University Olomouc (Czech Republic), Riga Stradins University (Latvia), University of Niš (Serbia) and Vytautas Magnus University (Lithuania). EID aims to make major research and new findings of broad importance widely accessible.

It is a real pleasure that the number of countries where the journal is being read and from where we receive messages is increasing with each issue. I hope that this issue will be of interest to many readers. Many thanks to each of the authors from Latvia, South Africa, Germany, and Philippines for entrusting their research to our journal! Thanks to the reviewers; it would not have been possible to publish this issue without their input and evaluation. We hope that the research published in the journal will be encouraging for readers. We also invite other authors to submit papers for publication in the e-journal EID. We have started working on the creation of the 7th issue

Themes:

- **Teaching and Learning** (curriculum development and innovation at all levels, approaches to accommodating national and state standards within the context of effective instruction and assessment, teacher development and mentoring, diversity in the classroom and augmented/virtual reality in education, etc.)
- **Language and Literacy Education** (theoretical perspectives on language or literacy that address teaching and learning; research-validated approaches to instruction and assessment or curriculum development and refinement for general education learners, second language learners, or those with particular needs; learner identity; social justice in literacy and language teaching and learning; accommodating national and state standards within the context of effective instruction and assessment; digitally-mediated learning, etc.)
- **Diversity in Education** (education and multicultural society today, intercultural communication, human rights and anti-racist education, pluralism and diversity in a democratic framework, pluralism in post-communist and in post-colonial countries, migration and indigenous minority issues, refugee issues, language policy issues, etc.)
- **Health and Sport Education** (interventions related to primary prevention of chronic disease from a social ecological perspective that conceptualized the effect of individual, interpersonal, institutional, community and policy factors on lifestyle behaviour, advancement of sport/exercise/health sciences, health promotion, health education, social rehabilitation, physical exercise and health, adapted physical activity).
- **Engineering Education** (engineering education at all levels, innovation in engineering education strategies, course and curriculum design, teaching, and assessment within and outside of the classroom, etc.)

- **Personality Development in the Educational Environment** (professional school counselling, bullying and bullying prevention, social emotional learning, college or career readiness, multicultural counselling and development, performance psychology, etc.)

We invite authors to submit papers to the journal's website http://journals.rta.lv/index.php/EID We hope that together we will be able to create a high-quality e-journal on research in education.

Responsible for the publication
Dr.paed. Svetlana Usca

ADVERSE CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES IN PSYCHOACTIVE SUBSTANCE USE DISORDERS: A STRUCTURED LITERATURE REVIEW

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Abstract. *Adverse childhood experiences include psychological, physical, and sexual forms of abuse, as well as dysfunction in the home, including substance abuse among family members, and mental health problems in the family. These experiences are among the most intense and frequent sources of stress that children can experience early in life, and they also increase their risk of various behavioural disorders and substance abuse. Aim: The study aimed to investigate the prevalence and potential impact of childhood adverse experiences in connection to alcohol and other psychoactive substance abuse and addiction. Methods: A structured literature review was conducted, and an electronic search of the PubMed database was performed. The review process initially identified 653 articles, of which 11 were included in the review. Results: Smokers and alcohol users are more likely to report an adverse childhood experience compared to people who do not report harmful habits. Parental divorce was one of the most common negative experiences that affected 17-59.5% of the respondents. The results of the Adverse Childhood Experiences Survey are a potentially significant predictor of risky behaviour.*
Keywords: *Adverse childhood experience, alcohol use, mental health, psychoactive drug use, substance use*

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Introduction

Adverse childhood experience (ACE) includes psychological, physical, and sexual forms of abuse, as well as dysfunction in the household, including having a family member with a substance use disorder or mental health problem. These experiences can put the person at risk of various behavioural disorders and substance misuse (Chang, Jiang, Mkandarwire, Shen, 2019; Shin, McDonald, Conley, 2018; Hughes et al., 2019).

There is growing evidence that adverse childhood experiences are associated with negative mental and physical health outcomes, unhealthy and risky behaviours, increased healthcare use and even premature death (Almuneef, ElChoueiry, Saleheen, Al-Eissa, 2017; Musa, Peek-Asa, Jovanović, Selimović, 2018). These experiences are also one of the factors that can negatively affect an overall person's self-efficacy (Berent, Podgórski, Kokoszka, 2018). ACE such as substance-abusing parents, emotional neglect, and physical and sexual abuse are associated with opioid dependence and the earlier age of onset of injecting drugs (Stein et al., 2017).

Socio-economic changes in the country may contribute to an increased incidence of adverse childhood experiences. Studies are showing that housing insecurity, defined by a severe rent burden, was associated with increasing trends in child abuse and neglect during the COVID-19 pandemic (Barboza, Schiamberg, Pachl, 2021).

This article aimed to explore, through a structured review of the literature, the prevalence and potential impact of adverse childhood experiences in the general population and both inpatients and outpatients with the use and addiction of alcohol and other psychoactive substances.

In March 2022, an electronic search of publications was performed using Endnote software, and articles were selected from the PubMed database. Publications published in the last five years (2017-2022) were reviewed. Criteria for inclusion of publications: Adults (age 18+), includes people with alcohol and other psychoactive substance abuse and addiction, includes adverse childhood experiences, primary publications, publications in English, publications issued in the last five years, full text available.

Methodology

The systematic review of the literature in this study was based on PRISMA 2020, and the diagram (Figure 1) is intended to represent the selection of articles and the flow of information throughout the review (Page et al., 2021).

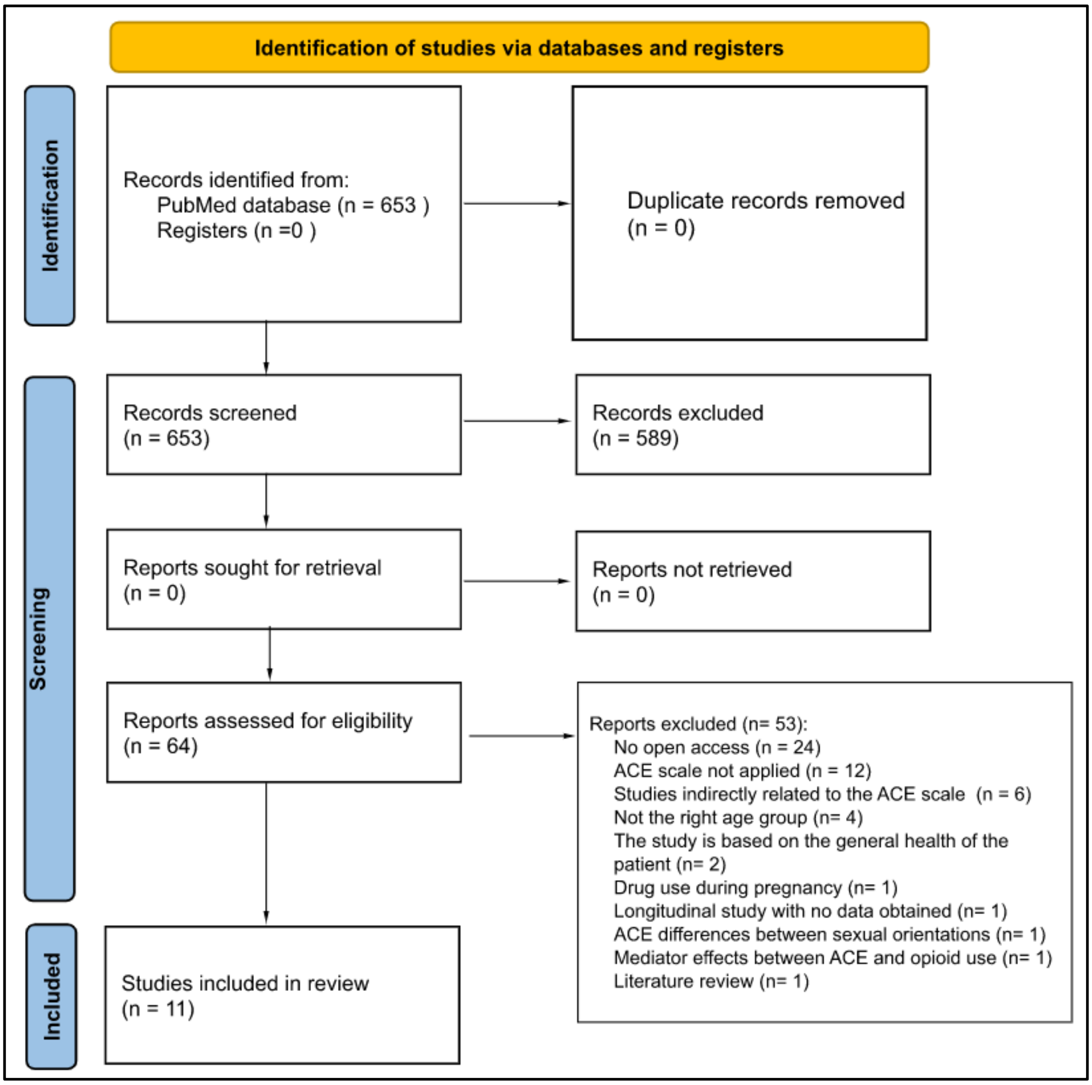

Figure 1 ***Selection of publications based on PRISMA 2020*** *(Page et al., 2021)*

The search engine was searched using the keywords 'Adverse childhood experience' OR 'ACE' AND 'substance use' OR 'substance abuse' OR 'alcohol use' OR 'alcohol dependence' OR 'psychoactive drug use' OR 'psychoactive substance abuse' OR 'drug addiction' OR 'opioid use' OR 'opioid addiction' OR 'mental health'. Since the PubMed database begins the selection of adults aged 19 years, in order not to lose data on patients aged 18 years, additional criteria were used: Adult: 19+ years, Adolescent: 13-18 years.

The literature review process identified 653 articles; no duplicates were found. After checking titles and abstracts, 589 articles were excluded. 64 articles were considered eligible, of which 53 were further excluded based on the inclusion criteria. Some of the reasons for exclusion were lack of open access (n= 24), use of other scales in adverse event analysis (n= 12), and indirect use of the ACE scale (n= 6). 11 articles from peer-reviewed journals were included in the qualitative analysis (Table 1).

Table 1 ***Countries of origin and population sizes of publications***

Author	Country	Population considered	Count (N)
Almuneef et al. (2017)	Saudi Arabia	General population	10 156
Berent et al. (2018)	Poland	Hospitalised patients	196
Chang et al. (2019)	China	General population	1501
Fernandes et al. (2021)	India	General population	9010
Hughes et al. (2019)	10 European countries (Romania, Moldova, Russia, Poland, Serbia, Lithuania, Montenegro, Czech Republic, Ukraine, Macedonia)	General population	14 661
Jung et al. (2020)	USA	General population and Outpatients	25 552 and 1303
Kiburi et al. (2018)	Kenya	Hospitalised patients	134
Merrick et al. (2017)	USA	Outpatients	7465
Musa et al. (2018)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	Outpatients	400
Shin et al. (2018)	USA	General population	336
Stein et al. (2017)	USA	Hospitalised patients	457

Results

Adverse childhood experiences (ACE) scales

In the 10-question analysed studies, the Adverse Childhood Experiences questionnaire was used to describe experiences (some studies looked at additional events), as was used a questionnaire developed by the World Health Organisation (WHO).

Four studies - Almuneef et al., 2017, Fernandes et al., 2021, Chang et al., 2019, Kiburi, Molebatsi, Obondo, Kuria, 2018 - used the ACE-IQ (Adverse Childhood Experience International Questionnaire), which was designed by WHO and included 43 questions on adverse childhood experiences, including questions on ethnicity and sociodemographic. The WHO questionnaire divides the questions on adverse childhood experiences into domains. Alumneef et al. (2017) had one domain of adverse experiences as one item in their work.

Four other studies - Hughes et al., 2019, Jung et al., 2020, Musa et al., 2018, Stein et al., 2017 - used the 10-question ACE survey as a baseline. In these cases, one question is one point, and the score was analysed in the context of addiction or other mental health disorders.

Two studies (Chang et al., 2019; Fernandes et al., 2021) categorised adverse childhood experiences into specific categories or levels, where more than one experience could fall under. Fernandes et al. (2021) categorised adverse experiences according to a socio-ecological model: at an individual level (child maltreatment), microsystem (family) level, exosystemic (community) level, and macrosystem (collective) level. Chang et al. (2019) grouped experiences into negligence (physical or emotional), abuse (physical, emotional, or sexual), family dysfunction (parents separated or divorced, substance and mental health problems in the family, criminal activities in the family), collective violence (stalking, domestic violence, witnessing violence).

Three studies (Berent et al., 2018; Merrick et al., 2017; Shin et al., 2018) added additional questions on traumatic events that occurred before the age of 18, e.g., Berent et al. (2018) asked whether the respondent witnessed a family member's suicide attempt, experienced the death of a family member, or witnessed the death of a stranger. A study by Merrick et al. (2017) asked an additional question about experiencing spanking. Shin et al. (2018) The added events were caregiver verbal abuse of the caregiver, property crime and gang violence, and they created four classes that included the likelihood of adverse experiences: low ACE class (Class 1), dysfunction in home/community violence (Class 2), emotional ACE (Class 3), high/multiple ACE (Class 4). Shin et al. (2018), the first class was the control group, and the other classes were compared to it.

As the literature review included studies representing a sufficiently broad and diverse range of people, it was possible to observe that the number of ACE scores varied between the respondent groups. Data on the frequency of ACE points can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2 ***Frequency of ACE in the populations covered in the articles***

Author	Country	ACE points
Almuneef et al. (2017)	Saudi Arabia	≥ 1 (80%) ≥ 4 (29%)
Berent et al. (2018)	Poland	3 to 10 (median 3)
Chang et al. (2019)	China	≥ 1 (66,2%) ≥ 4 (5,93%)
Hughes et al. (2019)	10 European countries (Romania, Moldova, Russia, Poland, Serbia, Lithuania, Montenegro, Czech Republic, Ukraine, Macedonia)	≥ 1 (46,2%) ≥ 4 (5,6%)
Kiburi et al. (2018)	Kenya	≥ 1 (92,5%)
Merrick et al. (2017)	USA	≥ 1 (>80%)
Musa et al. (2018)	Bosnia and Herzegovina	3 (8,4%) ≥ 4 (15%)
Stein et al. (2017)	USA	1-3 (36,8%) ≥ 4 (48,6%)

Common adverse childhood experiences

Of the 11 studies reviewed, 7 provided specific data on the most common adverse experiences (Figure 2). In the remaining studies, adverse experiences were assessed within groups or by sex, therefore, no single event was identified within a population.

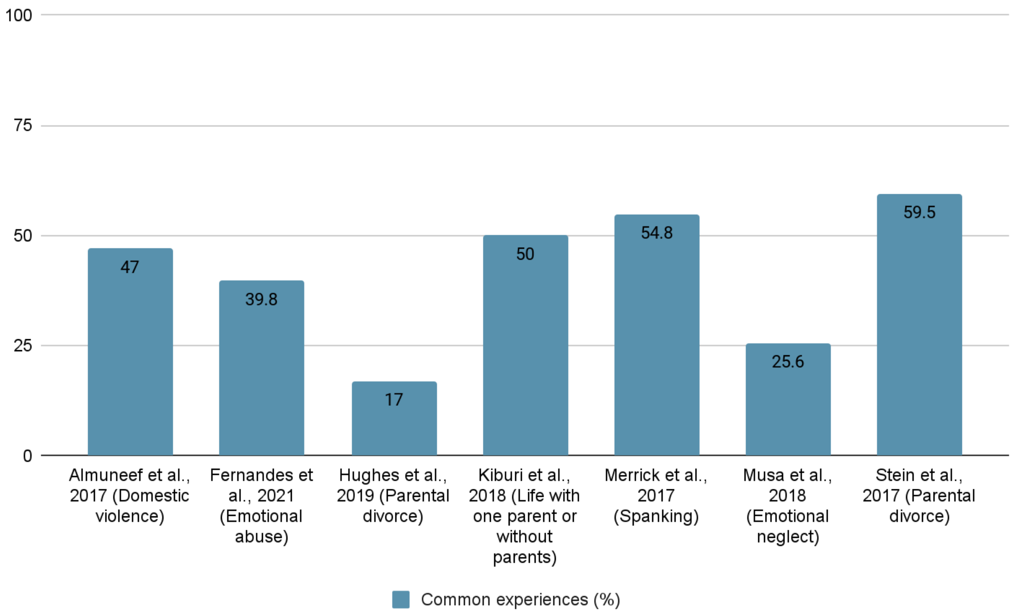

Figure 2 ***Common adverse childhood experiences in the reviewed populations***

Musa et al. (2018), the most common ACEs were emotional abuse, reported by 24.5% of respondents, and emotional child neglect, reported by 25.6%, as well as physical abuse, reported by 10.3%, and physical neglect, reported by 11% of respondents.

Kiburi et al. (2018), living with one or no parents was the most common adverse experience (50%), affecting 46.6% of men and 75% of women. Domestic violence was the next most common experience (49%).

Berent et al. (2018), where the study population was alcohol-dependent hospitalised patients admitted to a psychiatric ward for psychotherapy or treatment of alcohol withdrawal syndrome, the most common adverse experience was the use of alcohol and/or drugs in the household. This ACE item was reported by 60% of female patients and 42% of male patients. The next most frequent ACE item for women was psychological abuse, which 50% of women. For men, the next most frequent experience was estrangement from parents, with 36% (Berent et al., 2018).

Hughes et al. (2019), parental divorce was the most common adverse experience, reported by 17% of respondents. The study highlighted the interconnectedness of negative experiences, emotional abuse co-occurred the majority of the time with physical abuse, while 4 out of 10 respondents who experienced domestic abuse typically coexisted with alcohol abuse, at home, physical abuse and parental divorce (Hughes et al., 2019).

Stein et al. (2017), parental divorce remained the most common adverse childhood experience, supported by 59.5%. Living with someone who uses alcohol and/or drugs was the next most common experience (51.4%), and 47.5% of patients experienced being frequently cursed at or humiliated.

Fernandes et al. (2021) observed that in the general population, the prevalence of adverse childhood experiences among young adults was 39.8% emotional abuse, 28.4% physical abuse, and 3.1% sexual abuse.

Merrick et al. (2017), the most common adverse childhood experience was spanking, reported by 54.8%. The next most frequent experience, out of the core questions, was using alcohol, drugs, or both in the household, which was noted by 28.3% (Merrick et al., 2017).

The association of adverse childhood experiences with psychoactive substance use and mental health problems

Musa et al. (2018) indicated that patients with adverse childhood experiences are more likely to engage in risky behaviours (early sexual initiation, alcohol and drug use, and relationship violence) compared to patients without such experiences. According to Hughes et al. (2019), more men than women reported current smoking, early drinking, problematic drinking and drug use. On the contrary, there were more reports of suicide attempts among women (Hughes et al., 2019). To Fernades et al. (2021), women were more likely than men to report ACE at the child, family and community levels, and substance use (tobacco, alcohol, cannabis) was reported more frequently by men than women (86.78% vs. 13.22%). Kiburi et al. (2018) observed that polysubstance use existed among the patients surveyed, 26.9% indicated that they used 4 different substances over a three-month period.

Chang et al. (2019) reported that higher ACE scores are associated with more frequent lifetime drinking, chronic diseases, depression, and the development of posttraumatic stress disorder in adulthood. A study by Merrick et al. (2017) suggests that there is a graded dose-response relationship between ACE and the probability of experiencing drug use and moderate or heavy alcohol use. The risk of multiple events will exceed the risk from a single adverse childhood experience (Merrick et al., 2017).

Alcohol use disorders and adverse childhood experiences: The study by Jung et al. (2020) analysed data from two independent surveys, NESARC-III (National Epidemiological Survey on Alcohol and Related Conditions-III) and NIAAA (National Institute on Alcohol Abuse and Alcoholism). The study looked at the impact of ACE on high-intensity binge drinking. Jung et al. (2020), the prevalence of ACE in the NESARC-III section ranged from 1.3 to 1.5 times more frequent in high-intensity drinkers compared with non-excessive drinkers. In the NIAAA section, the frequency of adverse childhood experiences increased similarly across all levels of alcohol use, varying from 2 to 5 times more frequently for extremely high-intensity drinking. Jung et al. (2020) the results for ACE were split. In NESARC-III experiences from non-binge level to high-intensity drinking: verbal abuse ranged from 26.57% to 38.59%, emotional neglect from 29.16% to 34.17%, physical abuse from 18.87% to 29.04%, physical abuse from 18.68% to 26.26%, and sexual abuse from 5.71% to 7.44%. In the NIAAA, from non-binge level to high-intensity drinking: emotional neglect from 19.19% to 42.69%, emotional abuse from 16.08% to 39.73%, physical abuse from 5.53% to 28.69%, sexual abuse from 5.03% to 19.19% and physical neglect from 3.54% to 18.40%.

According to Almuneef et al. (2017), the likelihood of substance use differed between genders, with 12% of men and 5% of women reporting regular alcohol use. Men with 4 or more points compared to those with 0 points had a 9.2-fold higher risk of heavy drinking, and women had a 3.9-fold higher risk of heavy drinking (Almuneef et al., 2017).

Chang et al. (2019), current alcohol users were more likely to report domestic violence compared to non-users, and psychiatric disorders in the family were associated with a 2.78-fold higher risk of lifetime alcohol use. Participants who reported experiencing parental divorce had a 2.4 times greater risk of engaging in alcohol use. The risk of alcohol use was 9.2 times higher for respondents who reported 4 or more ACE items than for those who reported 0 items (Musa et al., 2018).

Merrick et al. (2017), heavy drinking was associated with all adverse events except having an incarcerated family member and parental divorce, and patients with 6 or more ACE scores were 2.84 times more likely to report moderate to heavy drinking. A study by Hughes et al. (2019) published that individuals with 4 or more ACE scores compared to individuals without adverse experiences were 4 times as likely to report problematic drinking.

Shin et al. (2018) observed that compared to a low ACE class, a high/multiple ACE class was associated with increased drinking problems. A study by Berent et al. (2018) revealed neglect, trauma, physical, and psychological abuse, and witnessing someone's death play a significant role in the development of harmful habits in patients with alcohol dependence. Kiburi et al. (2018), alcohol was the most used substance, reported by 82.1% of respondents; experiencing violence in a household increased the lifetime risk of alcohol use.

Substance use disorders and adverse childhood experiences: According to Musa et al. (2018), emotional abuse was associated with a 2.8-fold increased risk of drug use, and emotional neglect was associated with a 3.4-fold increased risk, and by comparing respondents, those with 4 or more ACE scores were associated with 15.9 times the risk of drug use than those with 0 scores.

Almuneef et al. (2017) observed that men are more likely to use illicit substances; 11% of men and 5% of women reported using drugs. Women who reported 4 or more ACE items were 3.8 times more likely to use drugs than women who reported 0 items. For men, the risk of drug use was 9.7 times higher for those with 4 or more ACE scores (Almuneef et al., 2017).

According to Merrick et al. (2017), compared to patients who did not report adverse experiences, individuals with 6 or more ACE scores were at a 3.73 times higher risk of drug use.

Opioid use disorder and adverse childhood experiences: Stein et al. (2017) study observed that a one-point increase was associated with a 1.10-fold increased lifetime risk of opioid overdose and a 1.11-fold increased likelihood of recent drug injection. For people with opioid use, the number of confirmed ACEs was correlated with 3 components of opioid use: age of onset, continuous use of injecting drugs and lifetime overdose (Stein et al., 2017).

Tobacco use and adverse childhood experiences: Smokers, compared to non-smokers, reported physical abuse, physical neglect, and childhood sexual abuse (Chang et al., 2019). Almuneef et al. (2017), 37% of the respondents reported tobacco use, of whom more than half remained men, although the risk of smoking is lower compared to alcohol or drug use.

Kiburi et al. (2018), childhood emotional abuse increased the lifetime risk of tobacco use by 22.8 times and the current risk of tobacco use by 5.3 times. Living in a household where someone has a mental health disorder increased the risk of tobacco use by 5 times (Kiburi et al., 2018).

Other mental health problems and adverse childhood experiences: A study by Musa et al. (2018) observed that patients who experienced emotional neglect were at a 2.6 times greater risk of experiencing relationship violence, and those who experienced emotional abuse were at a 2.3 times greater risk. According to Merrick et al. (2017), individuals who reported experiencing emotional abuse as a child had a 5.59 times higher risk of attempting suicide. In a study by Almuneef et al. (2017), compared to women who reported 0 ACE, women with 4 or more points had a 7-fold increased risk of developing depression, while this risk increased 3.1 times among men. In the Chang et al. (2019) study, participants who reported 4 or more ACE scores were at a 5.4 times higher risk of developing depression compared to participants who did not have adverse experiences. The study by Hughes et al. (2019) observed that individuals with higher ACE scores were 17 times more likely to report suicide attempts compared to participants without adverse experiences.

Kiburi et al. (2018) observed that sedative use was associated with experiencing physical abuse, emotional abuse and living with someone with a known mental health disorder. Patients who had 5 or more ACE were 15 times more likely to use sedatives compared to patients without adverse experiences (Kiburi et al., 2018).

Discussion

The studies observed both the impact of a single adverse childhood experience and the impact of a combination of events on adult mental health. Similarly, to Merrick et al. (2017) and other studies, Shin et al. (2018) speculated that the presence of multiple adverse childhood experiences is a more important predictor of substance use risk than the presence of a specific experience. This finding suggests that the burden of multiple events is heavy and complex, making a person susceptible to mental health disorders, risky behaviours, and substance use.

Domestic violence and parental divorce were among the most common risk factors for alcohol use. Such events in childhood are emotionally difficult if the child does not have a support system to cope with the experience. Alcohol and other substance use can be thought to be linked to possible self-medication due to anxiety or emotional disturbance. The study by Musa et al. (2018) and Merrick et al. (2017) observed that the risk of drug use increased with experiencing emotional abuse. Experienced parental substance use is also a risk factor for substance use; children were exposed not only to an adverse situation but also to a negative role model, which they perceived as the norm as they grew up and thus remained susceptible to starting harmful habits.

Although the risk of smoking was lower compared to other disorders, it was associated with a sufficiently high score for adverse childhood experiences. Events associated with smoking included emotional abuse, living with someone with a mental health disorder (Kiburi et al., 2018), and physical abuse (Chang et al., 2019).

Women (Almuneef et al., 2017) were more likely to report a mental health disorder and were at higher risk of developing depression, while men were more likely to report substance use because of adverse experiences. This suggests that men use substances to cope with emotional burdens, whereas women internalise their experiences more, which may contribute to the development of anxiety and depression. A study by Hughes et al. (2019) observed that women were more likely to have attempted suicide than men. Reviewed studies suggest that societal gender expectations should be taken into consideration; in some cultures, substance use, or smoking could be acceptable among men but not women. Fernandes et al. (2021) and Almuneef et al. (2017) pointed to possible differences in responses to experiences, and women might choose not to report experiences or not to acknowledge substance use.

Practical relevance: The problem of substance use is widespread throughout the world, and studies have observed the impact of ACE on substance abuse, pointing out the need to screen for these adverse events, further identifying risk factors, and mitigating their impact on people's mental health (Kiburi et al., 2018). Assessing adverse experiences can help facilitate patient-centred treatment, as understanding at least some of the causes of the patient's condition can help to think about new or different therapeutic approaches.

Supportive relationships in childhood are seen as a key foundation for resilience that can help to prevent the impact of ACE in later life. Children exposed to traumatic events can benefit from support from extended family, communities, and social services (Hughes et al., 2019). The role of schools in protecting children was seen during the COVID-19 pandemic. Some studies concluded that child abuse decreased during the homestay period due to less contact with educational institutions and other people. Schools were closed and school staff were less likely to observe the impact of negative events on children (Platt, Guedert, Coelho, 2020; Tierolf, Geurts, Steketee, 2021).

Limitations and recommendations: The results of this study must be seen in light of some limitations. First, publication bias should be considered. Only the PubMed database, one of the largest research databases in healthcare, was used to identify articles, and other sources, including grey literature, were not used. Authors of unavailable articles were not approached, which makes the data less informative. After article selection, fewer than 20 articles were available for the literature review, which is a notable limitation as the data pool remains relatively small.

Second, the literature review had sufficiently broad inclusion criteria, hence the heterogeneity of the data analysed. The general population was represented in about half of the studies, so data on hospitalised patients are less representative, and the patient populations considered were heterogeneous, which may have affected the reliability of the results.

Third, the studies used both the WHO questionnaire and the 10 core ACE questions, and added questions to the core questions; for this reason, it cannot be excluded that the value and reliability of the results may be undermined.

An important limitation of the study was the lack of patient interviews. Further research on adverse childhood experiences will require patient interviews and analysis of experiences, and research in this area in Latvia would be welcome, as it is not correct to generalise data from studies in other countries.

Studies have observed cultural differences in the frequency of ACE and substance use, as well as in the willingness to report these events. The significance of the results of this research may be diminished in different cultures.

Conclusions

The review of the literature suggests that there is a link between adverse childhood experiences and alcohol and other psychoactive substance addiction. Adverse experiences are also associated with other mental health disorders and negative physical health outcomes. Smokers, alcohol users, and sedative and opioid users are more likely to report an adverse childhood experience than non-smokers or non-users. The results of the ACE questionnaire are a potentially important predictor of risky behaviour that should be considered in the treatment of addictions and other mental disorders, as well as in the prevention of these events.

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TRANSLINGUALISM ACROSS LANGUAGES: A TEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGES INTERACTION

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Abstract. *The myth of a pure form of language is so deep-rooted in many people that, even though they accept the existence of different languages, they cannot accept the reality that there is no language that is fully independent of other languages. People believe that there is language contamination across languages and most of the time it is their own language contaminated by others. This confirms the colonial principle of compartmentalization or distribution of languages. Even in the post-colonial era, language isolation remains a serious challenge, especially in bi/multilingual classroom settings, where learners are discouraged to translanguage or code-mesh languages. It is against this background that this paper examines adaptation of several vocabularies and concepts from other languages in developing a language, usually through merging of cultures or colonization. This study looks at examples in Southern Africa and the Philippines of existing fusion that has taken place between those languages and other surrounding languages. Therefore, this study argues that boundaries between languages are fluid - not fixed. The boundaries do not exist. They are therefore uncalled for because they destabilize the fluidity between languages, yet there is autonomous fusion between languages. We further argue that indigenization of languages can work well in translanguaged classrooms where learners are allowed to utilize indigenized versions of loan words to express ideas and concepts. This can encourage a more liberal use of language and self-expression in formal classroom settings.*
Keywords*: code-meshing; colonization; fluidity; language; multilingualism; translanguage.*

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Introduction

The world has become a single global continent due to free movement that exists within and across countries. This, as a result, has influenced the linguistic boundaries that have been created within or between nations. A body of research has, therefore, questioned the existence of these boundaries that have been created between languages and argue that there is fluidity and flexible movement of languages (Wei, 2018). This means there is flexibility among languages used by people of different cultures and identities. The more people become in contact with other, the more there is cultural and language interactions (Hoffer, 2002), which will eventually give rise to new vocabularies and new cultures. This flexible movement between languages is regarded as translanguaging (Garcia, 2014). Translanguaging, therefore, implies an approach that allows natural interaction and overlap of languages "inclusive of all communication styles, registers, and repertoires that characterize multilingual communication" (Makalela, 2015, p. 202) to fit different contexts. However, there has always been a belief to some people that there is a linguistic purism (Baioud & Khuanuudt, 2022). This ideology is a deeply rooted belief/myth in some people that there is a pure form of language which has not borrowed words from other languages. In support with this view, Schneider (2007, p. 21) argues that "while some branches of linguistics, in particular historical linguistics in models like the family tree, have emphasized the purity and homogeneity of languages, the ubiquity of language contact in almost all cultures around the globe has recently been recognized and established, and language contact theory has come to be a growing sub-discipline of linguistics".

There are many people who, while accepting the existence of different languages, cannot accept the "contamination"/fusion of their language with others (Wei, 2018). This is brought up by the different interpretations that is given to a language as an entity that can be isolated or given a particular name and demarcated from others, not considering its functions and characteristics. Chomsky refers to language as "the inherent capability of the native speakers to understand and form grammatical sentences," and further considers "the sentence as the basis of language" (Chomsky, 2000). His definition portrays the structure of a language not what a language is. This shows how difficult it is to define a language and why people tend to look at the structures of the language more than what is meant to be (Winkler, 2015). On the other hand, Lyons (1981) perceives languages as being the system of communication among human being in a particular society or context in which they belong. These could involve people of the same or different language backgrounds. This definition highlights language as the system that is used by human beings for communication purposes, and it implies the contextual use of a language to fit different context. It confirms that language should not be looked from the lens of its structures but what people do with it (Makalela, 2015).

Researchers, in the 21st century, further describe language within the lens of translingualism, as a dynamic process (Garcia & Wei, 2014) and a non-linguistic means of communication, which involves interaction between human beings to express ideas/thoughts. For this study, translingualism is therefore viewed as a strategic practice of mixing different language varieties or registers (Gevers, 2018). This practice allows fluidity among different languages and encourages drawing from all the languages for the purpose of effective communication. Verbal communication, whether spoken or written, entails the ability to express concepts or ideas utilising the structure of a language. Some linguists argue that language is an ongoing process of languaging which "is shaped by people as they interact in specific social, cultural, and political contexts" (Mazak & Herbas-Donoso, 2015, p. 700). The descriptions given to language in the 21st century,' therefore, go beyond considering language as an isolated code but a process which is determined by the interaction among people, free from the linguistic boundaries that were originally created between nations, people, and also within nations there may be (perceived) boundaries.

From these explanations, it can be concluded that language is basically a dynamic process for making meaning (Wei, 2018) and a major tool for communication determined by the needs and social context in which it is used. These could be based on daily social communication, job related issues, social mobility, health, or education needs. All these may determine the choice and use of language which, in turn, will require understanding.

The choice and use of language are pivotal to people's definition of themselves in relation to the whole world. Consequently, language has forever been at the center of multiple contending social forces in the post-colonial Global South (wa Thiong'o, 1986). However, colonialism viewed language in a different perspective because language was then used by some nations as a tool of ascendance, and colonization to consolidate power and create governable, submissive subjects. During colonization, white minority governments have wielded language policy in education, business, and government as an instrument of political maneuvering, and this is key to the transformation agenda of former colonies in general and the Global South in particular. Thus, several post-colonial scholars are of the view that the colonial practice of imposing the former colonizers' languages onto their respective former colonies, even forbidding the use of the colonized people's native languages has serious ramifications on the people's true freedom and constitutionalism (Lovesey, 2012). Thus, in *Decolonising the Mind*, Ngũgĩ wa Thiong'o sees language as the enabling condition of human consciousness, advancement, and freedom and thereby advocates for linguistic decolonization in the work and education spaces (wa Thiong'o, 1993) where language overlap is allowed and not compartmentalized.

In his pedagogical model of Critical Pedagogy, Paulo Freire whose work on language was hugely influenced by existentialism, held the experiential conviction that people ought to draw lessons from their past to determine their future and create human values (Freire, 2007). Based on this view, a reflection of the past shows that some communities within the Global South are multilingual characterized by complex and rich linguistic repertoires, which are very much intertwined. However, the coming of colonial rule witnessed dilution of local languages with those of the colonizers, which were regarded as prestigious and not to be "contaminated" with the local languages (Makalela, 2017). Makalela further argues that, in addition to diluting local languages, colonialism separated those local languages and isolated them into compartments that were believed to be completely disconnected from the idea of making those languages independent and exclusive. Thus, language was not considered as a process of communication which permeates across the so-named linguistic compartments (2017).

A language is a product of adoptions of words, vocabularies, concepts, and thought processes from other languages, usually through acculturation and colonization. For example, the English language is a product of many foreign vocabularies, loan words, word formations through combinations of affixes (Hellenic, Romance, and other language families) thereby creating words we now consider as English. A similar phenomenon is evident in other languages in the world, in colonized countries. For example, in those countries that were colonized by European countries, they adopted European languages' terms. The adopted vocabulary was modified to suit usage in their own culture/context, and nativized/indigenized them, embracing the borrowed term as their own. This nativization or indigenization is evident, for instance, in the change in spelling and pronunciation, although the meaning is similar to its original source. This indigenization of languages automatically works in a translingual environment where people utilize indigenized versions of words from other languages as tools for communication and self-expression.

Languages in various pre-colonised countries have been developed and used for communication purposes within and across people or countries regardless of the demarcations that were created. The development of vocabulary in these languages have been influenced by different factors such as colonial languages or languages from neighboring countries. This is normally seen from the phonological similarities in words that have evolved in those languages. It becomes difficult to imagine a particular language being independent without borrowing or using words from another language. Colonization is partly responsible for the emergence of new vocabulary in a language that evolved from the interactions between the native languages and the colonizers' language. In the same way, the interaction of different cultures resulted to the borrowing, adopting, and exchange of new words and vocabulary nuances. These processes have rendered languages as culturally inclusive, diverting from what could be its pure form. This paper, therefore, intends to identify translingualism that took place among neighboring languages. In analyzing this translingualism, the paper looks at adoption of several vocabularies and concepts among languages through colonization, borrowing and merging of cultures. The focus was on some languages in the Philippines, South Africa, and Zimbabwe as purposively selected examples of existing fusion of languages that has taken place between different languages or among surrounding language demarcated areas.

Origins and Influences of the Filipino Language

In the Philippines, Tagalog now known as Filipino, is the official language taught in schools and understood and spoken by more than 60 million people. The other language used as medium of instruction in schools is English. In 2012, the Department of Education implemented the Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) policy which mandates the use of "local mother tongues as the language of instruction in Kindergarten to year three (K -3), with the official languages, Filipino and English, being introduced as the language of instruction after grade three" (Assessment, Curriculum and Technology Research Centre,https://actrc.org/projects/understanding-best-practices-in-mtb-mle-in-the-philippines/). After the third grade, the Philippine learners are taught English and Filipino. Both languages become the medium of instruction up to the higher education levels. Like English, Filipino is recognized as the formal language for education and business in the country. "The origins of this language date back to more than 1,000 years ago. It is an Austronesian language belonging to the Malayo-Polynesian subfamily, with outside influences from Malay and Chinese, and later from both Spanish and American English through several centuries of colonial rule" (Jelinek, Merialdo, Roukos & Strauss, 1991). They point out that the current form, structure, and most especially the vocabulary of this language is the result of the intermingling of several nations that resided in the Philippines. This shows that this language is not exclusive but built up of several languages. To further explain how the Filipino language came into existence, Panganiban (1952, p. 58) indicates that:

> *The modernization of the Filipino language may be said to have begun during the time of the Spaniards, when Spanish friars engaged in missionary work in the islands supplanted the old Tagalog characters with the Roman letters presumably to facilitate their work of evangelization… Loan words, from the other Philippine dialects, from the Malay and Sanskrit, and from the Spanish and the English, have found their way into the Tagalog vocabulary either through the natural process of assimilation or through purposeful adoption.*

The Filipino language adopted words from other languages, such as Spanish, English, and Japanese, nations who have colonized and occupied the Philippines for many years, even centuries in the case of Spain. Colonization paved the way to the borrowing of words from the colonizers' vocabulary. This phenomenon of borrowing and adopting foreign vocabulary into the indigenous language such as Tagalog became a contributing factor to the development of the Filipino language. For instance, some Spanish words were integrated into the Filipino language with modifications in spelling and pronunciation. The same can be said with English and Japanese words.

Languages in South Africa

In South Africa, there are eleven official languages and several other non-official languages which were historically used by the people, not necessarily separated through their demarcated settlements in the country. It was only during the Apartheid era that those settlements were created to separate people in their different languages. History presents two factors in the separation of people according to their languages which led to people being placed according to their so named compartments of different languages. These two are the missionary linguists who put the languages into writing as early as the 1820s and the Apartheid policy of separate development legislated in the twentieth century (Makalela, 2015).

The rise of Afrikaner nationalism in South Africa in the year 1948 saw the missionary linguistic separation entrenched in tandem with the Apartheid government's adoption of a separate development ideology which ensured that Black Africans were separated into homeland reserves based on perceived language differences (Landsberg, Krüger, & Swart, 2011). This was broad about by the implementation of what was regarded as the 'separate development policy. This policy was meant "to divide Black South Africans along tribal lines in order to reduce their political power. The African (Bantu) groups were separated into homelands, or Bantustans, consigned there to become separate 'nations''(SAHO.2019). This perpetuated and ensured that South Africans who spoke different languages stay in separate quarters resulting in the legal division of the languages into ten homelands: Sepedi (Leboa), Xitsonga (GaZankulu), Venda (Republic of Venda), Setswana (Republic of Bophuthatswana), isiNdebele (KwaNdebele), isiZulu (Zululand), isiXhosa (Ciskei and Transkei), SiSwati (Kangwane), and Sesotho (QwaQwa) (Butler, Rotberg, & Adams, 1978). This complexity of several languages in South Africa resulted in having eleven official languages of which English and Afrikaans became the most dominant languages in official settings more than the other languages.

The separation of different languages served the interests of the colonists and the Apartheid era, and their understanding was that there will not be any interaction or mixing between the languages, possibly between the speakers of the languages. However, the vocabulary status quo in the different languages proves that there has been overlaps among the languages and there is more overlap of the English and Afrikaans languages on the indigenous languages as there is among the indigenous languages themselves. Despite the separation among the people, there are some words that remained the same or similar in the different indigenous language varieties and Afrikaans and English, which are normally used as medium of instructions in schools and official languages in the workplace. This implies that it is not only in the education sector where indigenous languages overlap with the colonial languages but even at the workspace. Wherever there is a need of communication among people in different languages' 'boundaries', there is always a diffusion between those languages.

Schneider (2007, p. 23) points out that "the diffusion of these linguistic forms proceeds through ''imperfect replication,'' i.e. speakers potentially copy each other's' linguistic choices (if these are found to be communicatively successful); in so doing they reproduce, transmit, and at the same time continuously recreate and ''appropriate'' elements of a language variety. This replication operates not only vertically (i.e. with an offspring generation copying their parent generation's usage) but also horizontally (with speakers who interact with each other continuously influencing each other)". The more the people interact in their different languages and communicated with other, the more the overlap/diffusion emerged. This supports the argument that there are no created boundaries in languages as languages are what they are used for and not only the structures within them.

Among the eleven official languages, there are three languages which belong to the Sotho cluster. These are Southern Sotho (Sesotho), Western Sotho (Setswana) and Northern Sotho (Sepedi). "These languages were separated by the Apartheid government and codified by different missionaries despite their high degrees of mutual intelligibility" (Sefotho & Makalela, 2017, p. 42). Disconnected work among various missionary groups from different European countries resulted in the Roman Catholic missionaries working in the southern part of South Africa, the London missionaries in the west and the Lutherans in the north. These missionaries created different orthographic systems that were consequently conceived as representing three distinct Sotho languages namely Sepedi, known as Northern Sotho (by the German Lutheran missionaries), Setswana as the Western Sotho (by the London English missionaries) and Sesotho, normally referred to as Southern Sotho (by the Roman Catholic missionaries). However, the focus language for this study is purposively Sesotho in the Southern part of South Africa.

Languages in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe was colonized by Britain in the 1880s and became Southern Rhodesia. Other kingdoms that made up Southern Rhodesia include the Mapungubwe, Mutapa, Rozvi and the

Ndebele kingdoms. The inhabitants spoke Shona and Ndebele, two of the many Bantu languages found in the region. The Bantu language family contains many langauges spoken by the Bantu peoples throughout sub-Saharan Africa. The coming of missionaries and colonizers saw the introduction of foreign languages in the country. Historically, a minority of white Zimbabweans spoke Afrikaans, Greek, Italian, Polish, English, and Portuguese, among other languages, while Gujarati and Hindi could be found among the country's Indian population. The country's local languages were not spared dilution by the colonizers' languages. This resulted in the establishment of several language varieties. Since the adoption of its 2013 Constitution, Zimbabwe has sixteen official languages and more than 20 minority languages. The official languages are Chewa, Chibarwe, English, Kalanga, Khoisan, Nambya, Ndau, Ndebele, Shangani, Shona, Sign Language, Sotho, Tonga, Tswana, Venda, and Xhosa. The country's main languages are Shona, spoken by roughly 70% of the population, and Ndebele, spoken by roughly 20% (Charamba, 2020). Like most countries in the region, English is the country's lingua franca, used in government and business and as the main medium of instruction in institutions of education. It is not surprising that it has an influence on the vocabulary of some of the local languages.

The brief discussions showed the permeable and flexible movement and overlap of languages among people which most develop into new vocabularies in the languages - translingual between languages. Translanguaging theory challenges the monoglossic language ideology and separation/boundaries among languages. When one looks at the term translanguaging, it is a combination of two words, 'trans' which means movement and 'languaging' which refers to language practices (Sefotho, 2019). This signifies the relationship between the language that is used and the social practices of the language users in using such a language or languages (Makoni & Pennycook, 2007). The explanation indicates a flexible movement between languages which is determined by the way/ways language users employ linguistic practices for communication purposes in different contexts. Therefore, this study is underpinned by translanguaging theory which views language not as an isolated entity but a complex interrelated discursive practice, or a resource that is used by people for communication and that cannot be assigned to one or another traditional definition of a language (Wei, 2018). Language is no longer viewed as an isolated entity or separate codes that were historically structured according to different areas/ nations, but as part of language users' practices in effective communication in different contexts.

"Translanguaging theory advocates for a transglossic or dynamic processes of using languages and allowing integration between languages without any created boundaries to enhance understanding … and furthermore, building their conceptual and linguistic knowledge" (Garcia, 2009, p. 291). Translanguaging shows that the mingling and fusion between languages do not dilute what is named as a particular language, but it enriches one another with innovation and creativity of new vocabulary. Researchers argue that the use of more than one language is needed to give a complete meaning and one language is not enough (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Makalela, 2015) and, therefore, question the idea of linguistic boundaries that were socially and politically created (Wei, 2018; Makalela, 2015). They also argue that the use of languages is fluid and cannot be separated into compartments. It is, therefore, a fact that the integration will involve invention of new terms or vocabulary that is understood by people using the language and this also allows fluid movement between the languages. This movement is what researchers refer to as translanguaging which accommodates the mingling of all linguistic resources that one has. It is a theory that advocates for interconnectivity and interdependence among languages and not language isolation (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019).

In addition, Mazak and Herbas-Donoso (2015) challenge the monoglossic ideology of languages being viewed as having boundaries and claim that languaging practices between languages are fluid, interconnected, and dynamic during the process of communication between the users. Thus, the set of practices used by people of different cultures and linguistic background result in invention of new vocabulary that reflects fluidity between languages and close integration of the languages, and this results in development of new borrowed or intermingled vocabulary in languages (Kim, 2015). The issue of language integration is supported by what Makalela (2019) emphasises when talking about the blurred boundaries between languages; he says languaging is what people do with the language not looking at what languages are. He points out that language is not an entity but a representation of the society.

The names that are given to what we refer to as languages are just "labels assigned by linguists to sets of structures that they have identified" (Wei, 2018, p. 19). As such, there is no speech community that can claim to own certain words, as those were formed by social and cultural practices in communication beyond the issue of boundaries among languages. Wei (2018) further indicates that, contact between people of different backgrounds and cultures allows language users to penetrate through their languages' codes and form new coordinated and meaningful structures that allow them to engage meaningfully in effective communication with the people they are in contact with. Furthermore, Schneider, (2017, p. 22) acknowledges the idea that "Language evolution, and the emergence of contact-induced varieties, can be regarded as speakers making selections from a pool of linguistic variants available to them in a contact setting. This ''feature pool'' consists of the sum total of the individual forms and variants that each of the speakers involved, with different language backgrounds and varying linguistic experiences, brings to the contact situation".

Innovation and creativity of new or socially constructed words evolve from the interaction between people in contact and for communication purposes. This is supported by language in contact framework which was originally proposed by Thomason (2001). She indicates that where there is contact among people, there is normally an indirect correlation between their extralinguistic causes and linguistic consequences (Schneider, 2007). People communicating with each other, eventually adopts each other's language and this results into a contact language (Wheeler, 2015), that is suitable and understood by the communities involved for ease of communication. Language in contact "is … the contact of one community with another, and the effect that contact has on their respective language behaviour" (Wheeler, 2015, p. 76). The translingual situation among languages is the confirmation of interdependency and a rejection of the purity of languages. This becomes an indication that the socially and politically defined boundaries (Otheguy et al., 2015) do not really make sense or meaning where people of different cultures mingle or get in contact with each other. This is reflected in different context in the world, globally.

Methodology

The study follows a qualitative research design, relying on textual analysis on the available literature through the influence of foreign languages on three named languages: Sotho, Shona and Filipino. Textual analysis is a methodology that involves understanding a language, respective symbols, and/or pictures present in the analyzed texts in order for one to gain information regarding how people communicate life and life experiences. It entails the rhetorical concepts that are used to analyze the features of given texts. Visual, written, or spoken messages provide cues to how the message may be understood among speakers (Hawkins, 2017). Often, the relayed messages are understood as influenced by and reflective of larger social structures. There are four major approaches to textual analysis: rhetorical criticism, content analysis, interaction analysis, and performance studies. To explore the sense-making phenomenon more fully under investigation, textual analysis and ethnography were combined in which use was made of observations and listening as respective speakers conversed, noting similarities in the languages.

“Tagalizing” Foreign Loan Words in the Philippines

The Philippines shares a colonial past with the Southern African countries. Three countries colonized and occupied the Philippines influencing its culture, including the development of its language. From 1565 to 1898, the country was a colony of Spain. The United States then came to colonize the country after it won the Spanish-American war in 1898. Masanga (2021) pointed out that “the main goal of the United States in the Philippines was to turn the country into a self-sufficient capitalistic democracy.” This new colonizer, who controlled the country from 1898-1941, created infrastructure “that would improve the literacy and economy of the country. As a result, literacy doubled to about half by the 1930s and a fourth of the educated population could speak English. This was a massive influence for the Filipino culture, as English became the dominant language alongside the official Filipino language of Tagalog.” Masanga (2021, p.3) further noted that “Once World War II hit, the plans for the Philippines to finally gain independence went downhill as Japan invaded the Philippines and took control. There isn’t nearly as much cultural influence that the Japanese occupation had on the Philippines as Spain, or the United States had. This is because Japan did not offer any support to the Philippines during the short time they occupied the Philippines during the war, as these were times of conflict”. The Filipino language incorporated Spanish loanwords as a result of almost half a century of contact with the Spanish colonizers and the language they speak. In their review of a Pilipino-English dictionary, Llamzon and Thorpe (1972) point out that 33% of word roots are of Spanish origin.

In a presentation during the 11th International Austronesian and Papuan Languages and Linguistics Conference, Baklanova (2019) shared her findings “that Spanish-derived words constitute 20% of the lexicon used” in Filipino. She gave an example in the sentence below in which Spanish–derived words are in italics (original in parentheses):

> Tagalog: "*Puwede* (Puede) ba akóng umupô sa *silya* (silla) sa tabi ng *bintana* (ventana) hábang nása *biyahe* (viaje) táyo sa *eroplano* (aeroplano)?"
>
> Translation in English: ("May I sit on the chair near the window during our voyage in the aeroplane?")

She further pointed out that, “The adoption of the Abakada alphabet in 1940 changed the spelling of most of the Spanish loanwords present in the Filipino language. The loanwords derived from the Spanish language have their original spellings indigenized according to the rules of the Abakada alphabet.” This is an indigenised Latin alphabet used by the Filipinos.

Table 1 shows some loan words from the Spanish language. These are among the common words in the Filipino language:

Table 1 ***Filipino words derived from the Spanish language***

Filipino/Tagalog	Spanish	English
Agila	Aguila	Eagle
Asukal	Azukar	Sugar
Barako	Verraco	Manly
Biyahe	Viaje	Journey
Bisita	Visita	Visitor
Disgrasya	Desgracia	Misfortune
Diyaryo	Diario	Newspaper
Engkanto	Encanto	Fairies
Estudyante	Estudiante	Student
Kabayo	Caballo	Horse
Keso	Queso	Cheese
Kutsara	Cuchara	Spoon
Kuwarto	Cuarto	Room
Kuwento	Cuento	Story
Mantika	Mantieca	Oil
Meryenda	Merienda	Snack
Pila	Fila	Queue
Sinturon	Centuron	Belt
Sibuyas	Cebolla	Onion
Trabaho	Trabajo	Job

Aside from Spanish loan words, the Filipino language assimilated English vocabulary and adopted the words into the language, again using the Abakada alphabet. Because the United States made the development of the educational system a priority in the Philippines, the teaching and learning of the English became an important part of the new curriculum. Filipino became more enriched by the English vocabulary it adopted. Here are some examples:

Table 2 ***Common English loan words in Filipino***

Filipino/Tagalog	English
abnormal	abnormal
aborsiyon	abortion
adik	addict
babay	bye
badyet	budget
bayolente	violent
bertdey	birthday
boksing	boxing
boykot	boycott
dyipni	jeepney
gimik	gimmick
iskolar	scholar
iskwater	squatter
isnab	snob
tambay	Stand by
isyu	issue
kulto	cult
peke	fake
trapik	traffic
tsansa	chance

Aside from Spanish and English, the Filipino language also adopted words from Japanese. Despite the short period of its occupation in the Philippines, the Japanese have also influenced Philippine culture. One of these evident influences is the adoption of Japanese words in Filipino.

Table 3 ***Common Japanese loan words in Filipino***

Tagalog/Filipino	**Japanese**	**English**
Dahan–dahan	だんだん dandan	Slowly, gradually
Haba	幅 haba	Width or breadth
Kaban– Sack of rice	鞄 kaban	Bag, satchel
Kampay	乾杯 kanpai	Cheers!
Katol	蚊取線香 katori-senkou	Mosquito coil
Jack-en-poy	じゃんけんぽん jankenpon	Rock-paper-scissors
Tamang-tama	偶々 tama-tama	Coincidentally
Toto	おとうと otōto	Younger brother
Karaoke	カラオケ karaoke	A form of musical entertainment. Usually social in nature for Filipinos

Source:http://filipiniana101.blogspot.com/2014/03/list-of-japanese-loan-words-in-tagalog.html.

This nativisation/indigenisation of foreign vocabulary in Filipino is evident in the change in spelling and pronunciation, although the meaning is similar to its original source. Spanish, American English, and Japanese have enriched the Filipino language. Despite being the language of the colonizers, these languages have become nativized and indigenized, making them Filipino. The diffusion of languages is noticed in other parts of the world.

This study also discusses evolution of words in the Sesotho language in South Africa through linguistic diffusion with other languages based on people's interaction.

The Evolution of some words in the Sesotho Language – Lesotho/South Africa

As has been mentioned earlier, regardless of the separation of people in their respective languages, the need to communicate effectively remained an important aspect in peoples' lives. Separation of languages, therefore, was not an issue and people had to find means of communication through adoption of words from the different involved languages, of which we refer to as a 'translingual' approach. Translingual approach is a term that "perceives a synergy between languages which generates new grammars and meanings (Canagarajah, 2015:5). This resulted in diffusion between the languages for ease of understanding, communication and meaning making. The following are examples of words that were formed from the mingling of the Basotho people working in the farms or in the mines with Afrikaans speaking people. They are found in a corpus that we classify as "No-man's language", that is, neither Sesotho, Afrikaans, nor English words but words that show diffusion among languages; not necessarily forming a new language but mingling of all the languages for ease of communication and understanding.

Table 4 **Adoption of Afrikaans and English words to Sotho**

Sotho	Afrikaans	English
Buka	Boek	Book
Fariki	Vark	Pig
Haraka	Hark	Rake
Hempe	Hemp	Shirt
Keiti/ heke	Hek	Gate
Kereke	Kerk	Church
Kharafu	Graaf	Spade
Kichene	Kombuis	Kitchen
Lebenkele	Winkel	Shop
Letamo	Dam	Dam
Pene	Pen	Pen
Pere	Perd	Horse
Sekolo	Skool	School
Sepekere	Spyker	Nail
Setulo	Stoel	Stool
Sopho	Sop	Soup
Tafole	Tafel	Table
Tapole	Aartappel	Potato
Tonki	Donkie	Donkey
Tsoekere	Suiker	sugar

The above selection of words shows the similarities in the vocabulary of the words between, Afrikaans, English and Sesotho. This is due to the interaction that took place between people who were native speakers of the languages. The end results would be the invention of new vocabulary words deriving from these interactions or communication through borrowing. This linguistic fusion has not happened only in the South African region but even in other countries. Zimbabwe is one of such countries that was considered in this study and the focus was on the Shona language.

Features of the Shona language - Zimbabwe

African languages are classified into four major linguistic families or phyla, which are Afro-Asiatic, Nile Saharan, Niger-Congo and Khoisan. Historically, the Bantu languages are closely related and have a unique feature in the harmonic concord (Wentzel, 1981). While Indo-European languages usually show gender differences, number differences (singular or plural), and agreement by means of suffixes, Bantu languages use prefixes and the harmonic concord, for example the root word for a person is *ntu* (Wentzel, 1981). In Zimbabwe in general, language is constantly a dominant question in postcolonial studies and a lot of campaigns have been held with efforts to advocate for the promotion of a multilingual approach that promotes inclusivity of languages.

Most studies that deliberate on colonialism tend to concentrate on Europe’s economic exploitation of Africa and its resources leaving out other aspects. It is crucial that when studying colonialism scholars zero in on aspects such as cultural and linguistic practices that were brought by the advent of colonialism. Colonialism in Zimbabwe gave birth to linguistic and cultural hierarchies. The language of the colonizer became the formal and official language of communication, thus it was used in all administrative purposes as well as medium of instruction ahead of indigenous languages (Charamba, 2019), and these are used for instructional purposes in the first and second grades only.

In these different indigenous languages, there is a high degree of similarity, including the grammar and structure, and a substantial sharing of root words, especially if one takes account of simple sound shifts. For example:

Table 5 ***Similarities between Shona and Venda***

Shona	**Venda**	**English**
Nyama	Nama	Meat
Mwana	Ṅwana	Child, baby
Madekwana	Madekwana	Evening
Mutsvuku	Mutswuku	Red one
Mwedzi	Ṅwedzi	Month
Rufu	Lufu	Death
Mbiri	Mbili	Two
Chikoro	Tshikolo	School
Zvikukwana	Zwikukwana	Chicks
Musikana	Musidzana	Girl
Tenga	Renga	Buy

Source: Wentzel, 1981.

The history of the Venda starts from the Kingdom of Mapungubwe that stretched from the Soutpansberg in the south (South Africa), across the Limpopo River to the Matopos in the north (Zimbabwe). At a very early stage in the study of the Bantu language situation pointed towards an affinity of Venda with Shona as is clear from the examples given. Looking at examples in the table above, one can see the similarities between some of the words. For example, *mutsvuku* (Shona) and *mutswuku* (Venda); *mbiri* (Shona) and *mbili* (Venda); or *rufu* (Shona) and *lufu* (Venda). In some cases, though the orthographies differ, the phonetic sounds and meanings are the same. For example, *tshikukwana* (Venda) and *chikukwana* (Shona) referring to a chick. In Venda, for instance, a language owing much of its parentage to Shona, valorization in the case of bilabial consonants occurs.

Venda is spoken in the northern part of South Africa around Mesina whereas in Zimbabwe, it is common in the southern area of the Limpopo River where Shona is also dominant. To the north of the Limpopo where Venda is spoken, mainly in the Beitbridge district of Zimbabwe, there is also daily contact with Shona dialects. Evidently, Venda and Shona share linguistic features and there has been some influence on these languages from the Nguni languages.

Conclusions

Findings show that there is fluid fusion between languages especially from neighboring languages. Some words that have emerged from the selected languages show identities and origins from other languages and how those words became part of the new languages. This is an indication that there is no independent language, but one language is being built from other surrounding languages. Therefore, this paper argues that boundaries between languages are fluid, not fixed and they, actually, do not exist. This indigenization of language can work well in multilingual and multicultural communities, workplaces, and classrooms where multilinguals are allowed to utilize indigenized versions of loan words such as English words to express ideas and concepts. This will encourage a more liberal use of languages as tools for communication and self-expression in an otherwise formal settings such as classroom and communal settings.

In the Global South context, translingual practices have always been observed presenting a case for use of translingual communication that blurs boundaries between different languages (Charamba, 2020). The Global South with more than 1,500 languages is one of the most linguistically complex regions in the world. While many studies on multilingual and multicultural practices have critiqued monolingual bias in the Global South classrooms (Kiramba & Smith 2019), very few frameworks have been developed to account for ontological, epistemological, and methodological framing of these practices (Monteagudo & Muniain, 2019; Paquet & Levasseur, 2019). Through an analysis of Southern Africa's historical past, Makalela (2017) makes a case for Ubuntu ('I am because you are' and 'you are because I am') translanguaging as an alternative conceptual framework to understand the linguistic diversity of the Global South, and how it can be used as a pedagogic strategy to increase access to knowledge among multilingual and multicultural students. This translanguaging model based on Ubuntu principles shifts the gaze from language divisions to complex repertoires that are fluid in everyday meaning-making instructional and societal practices.

Recommendations

There is a need for more involvement and acceptance of what has traditionally been viewed as non-linguistic means and urges us to overcome the "lingua bias" of communication. Language should be used as a resource for communication. Educators should also accept the "contamination" among the languages and stop arguing about the ownership of a language. Institutions of education should consider developing multilingual and multicultural teaching resources and assessments in which students will be allowed to use their full linguistic repertoire in education as one language does not exist in isolation from the other, thus typifying the "*ubuntuness*" of languages (Makalela, 2017). The implementation of multilingual and multicultural pedagogy, however, requires language policies that clearly show how multilingualism will be promoted in their institutional environment and their teaching and learning programs (Mazak and Carroll, 2016), and this can then help us to envision the true decolonization of education.

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VALUES OF EDUCATION IN EUROPE AFTER WORLD WAR I IN NEWLY CREATED COUNTRIES – EXAMPLE OF LATVIA

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Abstract. *The First World War (1914 - 1918) strengthened the idea of self-determination of nations in Europe, while the end of the war created favourable conditions for the creation of new states, including the proclamation of the Republic of Latvia on November 18, 1918. The creation of an independent Latvia State for the first time gave an opportunity to create an education system based on national interests. As a result, the Latvia education system during the period from 1919 to 1934 was transformed according to socioeconomic and political changes, creating for the first time a national education system based on the innovative pedagogical ideas of the given era. Basically, during the period of Latvia's first free state, in the democratic regime, the education system, in compliance with trends in Europe, was dominated by reform pedagogy. The purpose of the article is, based on the content analysis of periodicals and historical sources, to identify the existing values of Latvia education (school pedagogy) during the democratic period from 1919 to 1934, in the context of European educational values. As a result of the theoretical research, based on the content analysis of periodicals and historical sources, the following educational values have been identified as the most important: creativity; discipline; obedience of students; kindness; humility; individualization; personality of the teacher; professional mastery of the teacher; love of the fatherland.*
Keywords: *educational system, history, school, students, teacher, values.*

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Introduction

The period of the first free state of the Republic of Latvia can be considered as a time of change in education, it is the time of the creation of a new national state, when the foundations of the state system and including the education system were laid. International trends in education, ideas of local intellectuals and pride in the creation of an independent country change the public attitude towards the education sector as a whole, emphasizing the need for society to get involved in the formation of education policy in order to jointly build a democratic, European and developed country. During the first decades of the 20th century, a considerable amount of new pedagogic trends emerge, which are positioned against the existing education system - the pedagogical process in the concept of existing education is not centred around the human individuality and development of consciousness, therefore the newly introduced trends are considered suitable for the era and recognized as the only scientific ones (Anspaks, 2003). It should be noted that the higher education sector also experienced a rapid boom, with an increase in the number of students, which was proportionally one of the highest indicators in Europe, higher educational establishments and classical universities of various specializations were founded, allocating significant state funding to higher education and science (Zids, 2019). Moreover, the rapid growth of democracy was stopped by the coup d'état organized by Karlis Ulmanis on May 15, 1934, when as a result the parliamentary state system collapsed and the democratic value system was replaced by the features characteristic of an authoritarian regime, including changing educational values (Jurs & Pelnena, 2022). Along with the era, educational values also change, they transform according to socio-economic and political changes, thus educational values and their transformation are a topical and important prerequisite for the development of the country. The purpose of the article is, based on theoretical research - analysis of periodicals and historical sources, to identify the existing values of Latvia education (school pedagogy) in the democratic regime during the period from 1919 to 1934.

Existing Educational Values in Student Learning

The First World War, along with the geopolitical and military results, created a peculiar and unique ideological atmosphere in the world, placing the peoples' right to self-determination in the centre of attention, it has influenced the destinies of multiple nations and created conditions for the foundation of new countries in Europe, including the solemn proclamation of the Republic of Latvia on November 18, 1918 (Bleiere, 2005). The territory of Latvia also suffered significantly due to the war. However, paradoxically, the devastating war gave the peoples of Eastern Europe hope for a better future (National History Museum of Latvia, 2023). Even though the initial stage of the formation of Latvia was still very complicated (during the period from 1918 to 1920 the Freedom Struggle took place), shortly after the proclamation, on December 8, 1919, the law on Latvian educational institutions was adopted, which determined the general compulsory free education in the mother tongue (Compendium of Laws and Ordinances, 1919). The importance and value of education at this stage is valued very highly, indicating that industry in post-war Latvia will not reach a high level for a long time, therefore a human being is considered as the direct source of Latvia's prosperity (Dreimanis, 1921). Nevertheless, at the same time, the school attendance in the first years of the country's existence was often difficult for children and their parents, since the shortage caused by the war, as well as the need for children to do various jobs on their parents' or others' farms, prevented the possibility of successfully combining it with school attendance. Even though there was a threat of punishment for deliberately not sending children to school, sanctions against parents were hardly ever implemented (Staris & Usins, 2000).

The formation of the Latvia state for the first time provided an opportunity to create an education system that is based on national interests and rich in progressive pedagogic knowledge. As P. Dreimanis emotionally states in the monthly newsletter of the Ministry of Education: "The future of a free Latvia is in its youth. It is our duty to find a way for the youth's development, to organize such a unit school where it could find the most useful material for its own activities - upbringing. Self-activity has been the basis of what the Latvian people have achieved so far, self-activity in schools will ensure successful development in the future: citizens will grow up, capable of self-determination, creating an independent life" (Dreimanis, 1921, 120). Describing the educational values of the previous period, i.e., the period of the Russian Empire, A. Dauge points out that until now, at the end of school, the youth were basically required to have acquired a certain amount of knowledge and that the students had certain skills to perform mechanical work. The following were mentioned as the tasks of the school in relation to the students: (I) help the new generation adapt to the natural and cultural conditions of the surroundings; (II) learn the cultural performances of previous generations; (III) implemented the ideals of society in life (Zalitis, 1920). In the learning process, individualization is strengthened as one of the most important educational values. In the context of upbringing and pedagogy, the uniqueness of each personality is actively emphasized (Students, 1998 (1933)), and as the basis of quality upbringing and pedagogy, the absorption into the personality of each child and young person is mentioned: "We must not carelessly measure all children with one measure (..) we must study the individuality of each" (Barbins, 1926, 12). In this context, the importance of working with students who have learning and behavioural difficulties is also highlighted: “At school, not all children are equally well-educated. Some are more organized than others. Some are more attentive, more obedient, quickly perceive everything, do their work neatly and with their behaviour seemingly help the teacher; while the others are even difficult to deal with (..) It is natural that the teacher's affinities are on the first side, while with the others the teacher leads a constant battle, even applying all kinds of punishments, which understandably help little and make the guilty even worse” (Zigure, 1926, 3).

Values such as obedience, kindness, humility and love are described as important in the development of a child's personality, citing as the main argument that children are extremely important for the development of the country and society. The age period between 13 and 20 years, which is characterized as a time of preparation for the adulthood, is highlighted as particularly relevant. At this stage, parenting work is encouraged to be given special importance. At this stage, young people are generally characterized as reckless and with a tendency to dream and fantasize about their future, while when faced with difficulties during the implementation of these dreams, educators are encouraged to pay special attention to signs of hard-heartedness and sentimentality. When describing each of the genders, it is indicated that young men are characterized by audacity, impudence, focus on their ideals, striving for admiration. On the other hand, young women start to show their pride, they try to become more loved, admired, but they often turn out to be lazy and sloppy in their tasks (Barbins, 1926). The involvement of society and family in school life is also assessed as a value, indicating that so far school and education issues have not been popular in society, while parents' interests have been more utilitarian (Ozolina, 1922). Thus, respectful cooperation becomes one of the cornerstones of pedagogy, which is mutual, creating closer cooperation among the school, students and their parents.

Discourse of educational values in the pedagogical process

In order to implement the values of the new education system in life, the importance of the school as the implementer of these values is highlighted. The school is characterized as a place where strict order prevails and is oriented towards eternal values, based on objective norms and a high pedagogical idea. However, at the same time, it is emphasized that the school can no longer be a place where unnecessary severity, external formalism and pedantry prevail, even though emphasizing that students who do not want or cannot meet the school's requirements, should not be in school (Dauge, 1924). Describing the pedagogical task of the school, A. Zvaigzne states: “The task of the school is to give children knowledge, or rather, to teach them to acquire the knowledge and train these children to apply this knowledge in life” (Zvaigzne, 1926, 3). It should be noted that the law at that time stipulated that compulsory education is for children between 6 and 16 years of age. It should be noted that the law at that time stipulated that compulsory education is for children between 6 and 16 years of age. Although there was an important emphasis on the individualization of the personality, the recognition of the essential importance of the collective in the growth of the personality also remained. The upbringing process is described as a process in which assimilation takes place through the collective, so the mutual influence of individualization and socialization on the development of personality can be observed. Here, as an essential guarantor of a high-quality socialization process in the classroom, high-quality classroom management is mentioned, which is based on the teacher's ability to provide support for all levels of students' abilities, including support in the development of talents. In the learning process of socialization, the main benefits are described as the opportunity to view and analyse problems from different aspects, because the discovery of knowledge takes place from different directions, as well as new aspects of problems that have not been analysed before are highlighted in discussions and cooperation (Dauge, 1928). At the same time, the ideal of pedagogical activity is characterized as a learning process in which the student actively participates, demonstrating the skills of analysis, comparison and combination. Such a learning process and skill development is described as the cornerstone of a harmoniously developed personality (Dreimanis, 1921).

The main goal of the teacher's pedagogical activity, in relation to the student, is the development of a harmonious and useful personality for society. The teacher's own personality is given little importance in the periodicals of this period of history, the main emphasis is on the teacher's ability to achieve all the above-mentioned results of teaching and upbringing. However, it is pointed out that in order for a teacher to achieve the goal of their pedagogical activity, they themselves must be experienced personalities, ones who have something to give to their students. A. Dauge describes the teacher: “In order for the activity to take place in this direction, new teachers are needed for this - those who themselves would be seekers, researchers, creative spirits. People whose knowledge, insights, and convictions would not have been mechanically appropriated, but primarily grown organically from their deep personal experiences” (Dauge, 1920). Teachers themselves must possess all the thinking and life skills they wish to develop in their students. The teacher is expected to be an original, independent and autonomous personality. Only in this case will the teacher be able to serve as a role model for his students (Dauge, 1920).

The importance of the teacher's motivation is emphasized as important, stating that the teacher must be interested in their pedagogical activity, constantly observe their students and determine their development needs (Zvaigzne, 1926), follow up on current pedagogic and educational findings in their field (Petersons, 1928). The teacher must be flexible and in development (Liepins, 1922a). In order for the teacher to be able to implement the pedagogical process in a high-quality way, psychology must also be among their interests. Even though it is pointed out that knowledge of psychology does not yet guarantee pedagogical ability, however, for teachers who are recognized as endowed with pedagogical skills, the knowledge and application of psychology are considered as a valuable additional skill (Dauge, 1928). Mutual relations between teachers and students are considered to be an essential component of a quality learning process (Liepins, 1922b).

Taking into account that the Latvia State was newly formed and did not have its own experience as a national and independent state, very different ideological and political affiliations of teachers were observed, which was noticeable and also affected their daily work. As A. Greber points out: “When transforming the school on new, national foundations, lots of things also change in the mutual relations among teachers (..) Much to our regret and misfortune for our schools, these relations are often hostile. It often happens that teachers are divided into two hostile groups, where they fight each other. The reasons for this are the material conditions and the diversity of worldviews” (Grebers, 1922, 107). Already at that time, the issue of the disproportionate workload of teachers was brought up, especially when talking about rural schoolteachers. According to E. Miller, the workload of teachers consists of both work with children and preliminary preparation for lessons, various action plans and reviews, discussions and conferences, emphasizing also the large amount of extracurricular activities, which results in teacher overload and health problems (Miller, 1926).

It should be noted that due to the lack of funding and human resources, the education system was unable to implement the set political goals for a long time after the adoption of the Education Law. The lack of materials was also due to the fact that there was no textbook that corresponded to the new teaching methods, ignorance of the language and the lack of materials in Latvian were also an obstacle. L. Ausejs also wrote about it in the monthly newsletter of the Ministry of Education: “Knowledge of German and English was also insufficient to be able to use teaching materials created in the languages of the respective countries in the learning process, so it was necessary to create them in Latvian" (Ausejs, 1923, 424). Teachers of Latvia studied the historical experience at home, gained inspiration for pedagogical ideas abroad, mainly in Germany and Russia. The main authorities who influenced the development of pedagogical thought in Latvia were G. Kersensteiner, H. Gauding, J. H. Pestalocijs, F. A. Distervegs., K. Usinskis, L. Tolstoy, etc. (Zukovs, 1999, 263.) The most prominent teachers of European countries, H. Gaudings, A. Bogens, O. Zeinings, gave lectures and led open classes in Latvia, introducing local teachers to new methods (Kestere, 2005, 78). The pedagogical thought in Latvia was developed by analysing foreign theory and practice, as well as the experience of local schools. In the monthly newsletter of the Ministry of Education, in the article *"How German Teachers Work"*, the author J. Broka mentions: "Relatively there are not many new teachers. They are hardly noticeable in the classroom: they ask little, tell little, sometimes only suggest, reprimand, help. All the work is done by students; therefore, here in the classroom there is life, joy, knowledge gained through work. But the number of these "new" teachers is constantly growing, as the old school staff are also trying to settle in and practice the new ways of working" (Broca, 1923, 1220). It should be noted that basically during the period of Latvia's first free state, in the democratic regime, the education system, in compliance with trends in Europe, was dominated by the reform pedagogy, whose theoretical founder is considered to be J. Dewey, who especially emphasizes that nature is the volume and interaction of various objects in time and space, while the goal of education is to create a unified set of knowledge and skills that correlates with the existence of each individual - self-awareness both individually and as part of a common entirety (Dewey, 1897).

Conclusions

1 The first half of the 20th century is a period full of challenges, changes, in which innovative ideas are encountered that face conservative resistance. Especially in the post-war period the growth and emergence of new ideas can be seen in the education system as a whole. In schools, a student-centred learning approach is emphasized, while the teacher is the leader of the learning process and a support provider for the student.

2 Based on the available and analysed historical sources, the following educational values can be identified during the first independence period of the Latvia State in the democratic regime: (I) creativity as a value of teaching and learning, which allows to develop the individual characteristics of the student; (II) discipline as a learning value, which was later also reflected in the student's evaluations, thus the students' behaviour was assessed formatively; (III) individualization as a value of teaching and learning, being aware of the importance of the needs of the collective, thus the student was perceived as an individual of society, who, through a professionally implemented upbringing and learning process, can contribute to the growth of the collective and thus society; (IV) the teacher's personality and professional mastery as an essential prerequisite for the learning process provision; (V) students' obedience, kindness, humility and love of the fatherland as the value of education and a prerequisite for personal growth; (VI) cooperation as a value of teaching and learning, which is formed on respectful relationships, increasing the participation of parents in the growth of the school and the learning process improvement.

3 Teachers and other developers of pedagogical thought learned from the good practices of other countries, trying to adapt the methods to schools in Latvia, were invited to experience exchange events outside Latvia, and hosted foreign teachers, thus the Latvia State and employees of its education sector were actively involved in the exchange of

international experience and implementation of progressive pedagogical ideas.

4 When the state of Latvia was founded, minority schools were also opened, which were financed from the state budget, thus preserving and promoting the culture of minority communities. The number of students and the number of higher educational establishments also increased rapidly, which was possible thanks to the increase in the state funding from the state budget for higher education and science.

5 Despite the socio-economic and demographic consequences of the First World War, as well as the pronounced lack of material, technical and human capital, the newly established Latvia State created its own education system, being aware of the innovative pedagogical approaches of the given era.

Acknowledgements

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A NEW DEVELOPMENT MODEL OF SUSTAINABLE COMMUNICATION FOR HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

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Abstract. *Higher education institutions are the important chain in provision of the inter-connections between the workforce (school graduates, youth, or adults), representatives from different economic sectors, experts from research and innovation development organisations, and all the interested contributors. The research purpose is to build a new development model of sustainable communication for higher education institutions. This research is qualitative as it aims at constructing a new model. The research integrates the use of theoretical analysis, comparative analysis of existing models, theoretical modelling, model creation, summarising analysis. Very often the researchers think of the process of communication as a one-way process. The present work allowed for the establishment of the inter-connections between the development of the system of the external and internal perspectives, on the one hand, and the implementation of the process of sustainable communication, on the other hand. The novel contribution of this research is that the sender and the receiver of the information in the sustainable communication process act at the same time, their information meets and exchanges, thereby promoting information interaction or quasi-knowledge creation. Future research intends to include the empirical methods of research. Collection of quantitative data is a future research direction, too.*
Keywords*: data, higher education institutions, information, knowledge, model, sustainable communication, sustainability.*

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Introduction

Higher education institutions are the important chain in provision of the inter-connections between the workforce (school graduates, youth, or adults), representatives from different economic sectors, experts from research and innovation development organisations, and all the interested contributors. In these terms, higher education institutions are principle players that link all these stakeholders. The significance of higher education institutions is emphasized by their widely acknowledged main functions: education, research and innovation. Thereby, modern higher education institutions, being the linking chain between different actors interested in cooperation with higher education sector, play an important role in strengthening regional development as well as economics (Ahrens, Zaščerinska, Amanzholova, Aleksejeva, Zaščerinskis, Aleksejeva, Gukovica, & Abjalkiene, 2021).

The means for linking higher education institutions and their stakeholders from different regional domains and economic sectors is well accepted to be sustainable communication as it refers to each single activity in any life sphere being it a task implementation or opinion exchange.

Sustainable communication is considered to be of great significance as sustainable communication helps solving many issues. For example, strengthening sustainable competitiveness, as set out in the European Green Deal (Fetting, 2020), or ensuring social fairness by putting into practice the first principle of the European Pillar of Social Rights

(European Commission, 2018), or building society resilience to react to crises, based on the lessons of the COVID-19 pandemic.

The research purpose is to build a new development model of sustainable communication for higher education institutions.

This research is qualitative as it aims at constructing a new model. The research integrates the use of theoretical analysis, comparative analysis of existing models, theoretical modelling, model creation, summarising analysis.

Methodology of the Model Creation

The methodology of a model creation implies a range of logical and sequential steps. In Step 1, the term "model" is defined. This also would need the comparison of model definitions, structures, and procedures. Afterwards, in Step 2, scientific literature on sustainable communication is reviewed and analysed. We analyse the terms "sustainability and "communication" first separately and, later, "sustainable communication" as one unit of analysis. We found out that sustainable communication is closely related to the terms "data", "information", and "knowledge". Then, in Step 3, a new development model of sustainable communication for higher education institutions will be shown and explained in detail.

It should be pointed that the methodology of this research is not a linear process. If Step 2 does not give the expected results, then the researchers return to Step 1 and revise the implemented work. The same refers to Step 3: if the results of the research in Step 3 are not satisfactory, the researchers re-consider the work done in Step 2.

Research Results

Before we start the creation of a model, it would be great to understand what a model means. Thus, our search reveals that there are some definitions of the term "model" exist. Some definitions refer to a model from the point of view of mathematics or engineering as well as other scientific disciplines. However, we looked for a more general definition of the term "model". The notion of the term "model" was identified by Kühne (2004) as a description of something. We found this definition to be not complete as there was no indication on whose description it should be. Secondly, the use of 'something" does not sound as a very scientific term. Due to these, in our work, we rely on the model definition as a pattern of individual's or individuals' interpretation of a phenomenon (Ahrens, Purvinis, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2015). Models can be described verbally, digitally, graphically, in a video format, and in other forms (Ahrens, Purvinis, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2015). Features of a model have to be provided (Ahrens, Purvinis, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2016), too. The features of a model are highlighted by parameters (Ahrens, Purvinis, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2016) or, in other words, indicators. Summarising these ideas, we can say that a model means a pattern of individual's or individuals' interpretation of a phenomenon in a variety of formats (visual, graphical, computer, etc) that is characterised by indicators.

The present work considers a definition of a phenomenon to be a model. Definition means the statement of the phenomenon notion, elements and process (Ahrens, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2013).

Consequently, this work will focus on giving a definition of sustainable communication. The definition to be created will disclose the notion, elements and procedural aspects of sustainable communication, thereby creating a new development model of sustainable communication.

Sustainability is often connected with stability (Emas, 2015). Stability is understood as the process that proceeds without significant changes. This leads us to the need for two-sided sustainability (Ahrens, Zascerinska, & Aleksejeva, 2021):

- sustainable communication, and
- sustainability communication.

In this work, we differentiate these two terms in this way (Ahrens, Zascerinska, & Aleksejeva, 2021):

- Sustainable communication refers to the sustainable process of communication or, in other words, the sustainable process of information exchange (Elving, 2020), and
- Sustainability communication means communication for sustainable development or, in other words, individual's knowledge, skills and attitudes to sustainable development.

Sustainability can be external and internal (Ahrens, Zascerinska, & Aleksejeva, 2021). Table 1 shows the relationships between the external and internal perspectives as well as sustainable communication and sustainability communication.

Table 1 ***The inter-relations between the external and internal perspectives as well as sustainable communication and sustainability communication*** (the authors)

The system of the external and internal perspectives	
External perspective	***Internal perspective***
Sustainable communication	Sustainability communication

Consequently, individuals transform information into knowledge. Individuals' knowledge, skills and attitude are the results of information processing.

Here, the relationships between information and knowledge have to be highlighted. Conventionally, when discussing the relationships between information and knowledge, the term "data" is also referred. Table 2 demonstrates the relationships between data, information and knowledge.

Table 2 ***Relationships between data, information and knowledge*** *(the authors)*

Term	**Data**	**Information**	**Knowledge**
A short definition	Symbol	Facts	Definition
A short description	Code, numbers, sign, text, audio record, or images, etc (Kemp, Butler-Henderson, Allen, & Ayton, 2021).	Event statement (Zelinkis, 2020; Kalpana & Kumar, 2020)	Statement of the phenomenon notion, elements and process (Ahrens, Zaščerinska, & Andreeva, 2013)
Relationships between the terms	Data contain new facts (Lasmanis, Sporāne, Pakalne, Kalniņa, Mukāne, Hofmane, & Mauliņa, 2008)	Information is processed, analysed and interpreted data (Sedkaoui, 2019).	Knowledge is the processed information (Ferreira, 2008)

It can be identified that

- data are the basis of information,
- information stems from data and lays the ground for knowledge, and
- knowledge is the processed information rooted in data.

From the relationships between data, information and knowledge, we can discover the directions of movement between data, information and knowledge:

- from data
- through information
- to knowledge.

Organisation of an efficienct process of sustainable communication is an issue in many fields of our life as it allows for the increase of its results.

Conventionally, the communication process is regarded as a one direction linear process as depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1 ***The phases of the communication process*** (the authors)

We consider the process of communication to be activity (Tiļļa, 2003). Accordingly, the Activity Theory by Leontyev (Leont'ev, 1978) is applicable to the design of the process of communication. It should be pointed that the activity concept originated with Vygotsky (Blunden, 2009), although Activity Theory is associated with the name of Leontyev rather than Vygostky: Leontyev made a distinction between the individual action, and the social activity of which it is a part (Leont'ev, 1978) and which gives it meaning (Blunden, 2009).

Law of Development or, in other words, interiorization (Sitarov, 2004) defined by Vygotsky as transformation of the external culture into the individual internal (Wells, 1994) means that any function in the individual cultural development appears twice or on two planes (Wells, 1994):

- first on the social level (the external perspective), and
- later, on the individual level (the internal perspective).

It means that the process of sustainable communication consists of two phases:

- Social activity in Phase 1, and
- Individual action in Phase 2.

Later, the process of interiorization was widened by one more phase, namely the unity of external and internal perspectives (Zaščerinska, 2013). Figure 2 reflects the advanced process of interiorization.

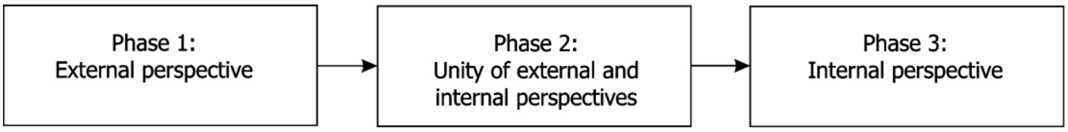

Figure 2 ***Phases of the development of the system of external and internal perspectives*** *(Ahrens & Zaščerinska, 2012)*

The advanced process of interiorization allows assuming that the communication process is not the information exchange, as it is widely accepted, but information interaction. It means that any information is not transferred in one way, namely from the sender to the receiver. Opposite, the sender and the receiver communicate with each other at the same time as illustrated in Figure 3. These individuals' information meets, interacts, and enriches each other, thereby contributing to the creation of new knowledge.

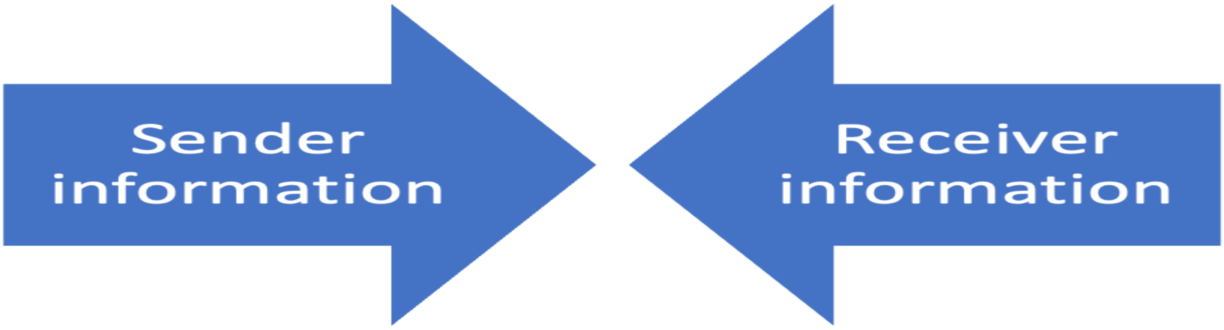

Figure 3 ***The relationships between the sender and received information in the process of communications*** *(the authors)*

It should be noted that we imply that there exist the relationships between the process of sustainable communications and the results of this process as shown in Figure 4.

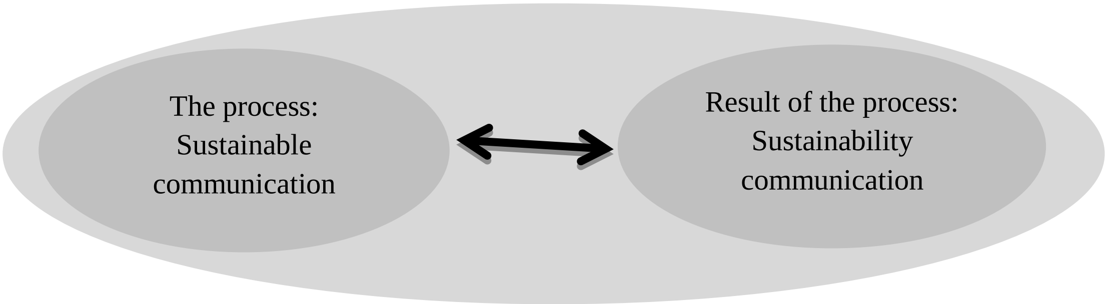

Figure 4 ***The relationships between the process of sustainable communications and the results of this process*** *(the authors)*

The process of sustainable communication refers to the process of information exchange (Elving, 2020) while sustainability communication means individual's knowledge, skills and attitudes to sustainable development.

We define the process of sustainable communication to be (Ahrens, Zaščerinska, Lange, & Aļeksejeva, 2021)

- a cyclic process as it can be repeated,
- of social nature as it changes within and by society,
- of bi-module nature as it includes both external and internal perspectives.

Based on these findings, we propose that the process of sustainable communication, on the basis of the relationships between information and knowledge, proceeds in three phases as revealed in Figure 5.

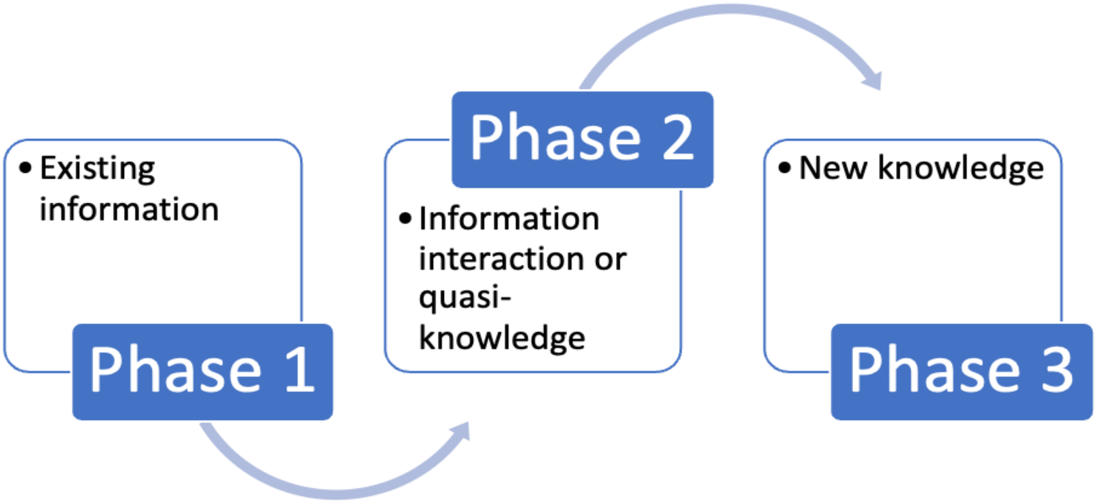

Figure 5 ***The phases of the process of sustainable communication*** *(the authors)*

From the relationships between information and knowledge, we can discover the directions of the movement between information and knowledge:

- from existing information in Phase 1
- through information interaction or, in other words, quasi-knowledge, in Phase 2
- to new knowledge in Phase 3.

From our point of view, the process of sustainable communication oriented to new knowledge creation has to undergo through all the three phases as each phase of the process of sustainable communication is built on the previous one. Here the recommendation is that the next phase of the process of sustainable communication is not initiated till the present phase of the process of sustainable communication is completed.

Discussion

A point for a discussion is the establishment of the inter-connections between the term "model" and "definition". This research result allows for the finding that definition is a model. However, in comparison to the definition serving as a model, models can be represented by a variety of formats: visual, graphical, computer, etc. The comparative analysis of definition of the term "model" provided by other researchers contributed to the identification of the definition of the term "model" formulated in the present work. This work offered a new perspective on what the term "model" is. In comparison to the definitions of model proposed by other researchers, the present work outlines that

- interpretation of a model belongs to an individual or individuals,
- model has to be characterised,
- model has to be featured by indicators.

Another issue to be considered by the scientific community as well as teachers is that very often the researchers think of the process of communication as a one-way process, despite they call it interactive, as shown in Figure 6. For example, the communication process is conventionally described like that: "The sender receives a stimulus and encodes a message for the receiver. The receiver interprets the message and returns feedback to the first point" (Llopis-Lorente, Díez, Sánchez, Marcos, Sancenón, Martínez-Ruiz, Villalonga, & Martínez-Máñez, 2017, p. 3). According to these researchers (Llopis-Lorente, Díez, Sánchez, Marcos, Sancenón, Martínez-Ruiz, Villalonga, & Martínez-Máñez, 2017), afterwards, the sender and the receiver change their roles, and the cycle starts from the beginning.

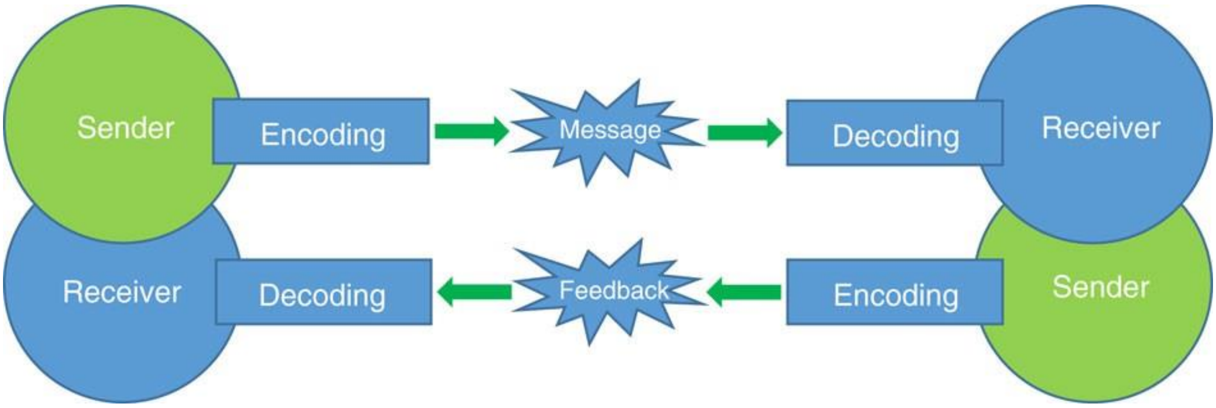

Figure 6 ***Interactive model of communication*** *(Llopis-Lorente, Díez, Sánchez, Marcos, Sancenón, Martínez-Ruiz, Villalonga, & Martínez-Máñez, 2017)*

From our point of view, if two people are communicating, for example, one of them is talking about something. The second person can already react to the words of the speaking person by his/her face expressions or body language. This reaction is also communication as the speaking person based on the reaction of the listener can change

- the focus of his talk,
- the speed of delivery,
- the topic of the discussions, etc.

Thereby we support the finding that any activity is communication (Zaščerinska, 2013). Communication can be a movement of hand, facial expression, gesture, spoken words, and many others ways of information exchange.

Consequently, the connections between the external and internal perspectives assisted in finding that individuals do not communicate in a sequential way but they interact with each other at the same time. This is the novel contribution of this work.

Conclusions

The present work allowed for the establishment of the inter-connections between the development of the system of the external and internal perspectives, on the one hand, and the implementation of the process of sustainable communication, on the other hand.

The novel contribution of this research is that the inter-connections between the sender of the information and the receiver of the information in the sustainable communication process act at the same time, their information meets and exchanges, thereby promoting information interaction or quasi-knowledge creation. Information interaction or quasi-knowledge creation can be determined as a new phase in sustainable communication. The phase of information interaction or quasi-knowledge creation is found between Phase 1 Existing information and Phase 3 New knowledge.

The theoretical analysis of the terms "sustainability", "sustainable", and "communication" within the frame of the external and internal perspectives promoted the finding that sustainable communication is the process, and sustainability communication is the result of this process. The research results also reveal the phases of the sustainable communication process aimed at new knowledge development, thereby these phases are being considered as the new development model.

Implications for the implementation of sustainable communication imply that

- Sustainable communication is only one perspective, namely the external perspective, of the whole when referring to the relationship between sustainability and communication.
- Sustainable communication should be analysed in relationship to sustainability communication as both are intertwined.
- Sustainable communication is fully implemented when sustainability communication is complete, too.
- Sustainable communication promotes the enrichment of individual's knowledge, skills and attitude.
- If sustainable communication ends without a positive increase in sustainability communication, sustainable communication should be repeated.

The present research is limited by the established inter-connections between the development of the system of the external and internal perspectives, on the one hand, and the implementation of the process of sustainable communication. Another limitation is that the research was only qualitative. A limitation is also that only theoretical methods were deployed in the present work.

The main concern in future research is the analysis of factors impacting Phase 2 Information interaction or quasi-knowledge creation in sustainable communication. Investigation of cultural aspects of information interaction or quasi-knowledge creation requires research efforts to be devoted to.

In regard to the use of methods, further research intends to widen the use of research methods from only theoretical to empirical ones. Collection of quantitative data is a future research direction, too. For this, an online survey could be carried out. The sample might engage higher education institutions' academic staff, management members, and students, on the one hand, and, on the hand, companies' representatives, governmental staff members, and other interested stakeholders. Interview and, specifically, focus group interviews could enrich the quantitative data to be collected from the online survey. The comparative analysis of answers obtained from different groups of respondents also deserves researchers' attention to be implemented.

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THE POTENTIAL OF THE ESSAY IN FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT: LITERATURE REVIEW

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Abstract. *This scientific research explores the potential of using essays as a formative assessment tool in the context of the competencies approach. The competencies approach emphasises the importance of focusing on learning progress and needs to promote successful learning, thus formative assessment plays a pivotal role in facilitating effective learning. The study highlights the significance of essay writing in promoting critical thinking, problem-solving, and self-directed learning. However, students often perceive essays solely as a means of summative assessment, lacking a comprehensive understanding of the assessment criteria. To address this issue, the research emphasizes the importance of involving students in the learning process by collectively defining outcomes, establishing assessment criteria, and providing constructive feedback. Clear objectives and feedback are crucial in fostering self-regulated learning and lifelong learning. The study highlights the need for student-teacher collaboration to enhance students' attitudes towards learning. Challenges in implementing formative assessment, such as providing quality feedback to each student, are acknowledged. In the context of foreign language learning, essays serve as valuable tools for formative assessment, providing insights into students' learning achievements. Furthermore, the development of criteria for self-assessment and self-regulated learning skills is essential for effective formative assessment.*
Keywords: *essay writing, foreign language learning, formative assessment, writing skills.*

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Introduction

Formative assessment, which involves clearly articulating outcomes, discussing and identifying levels of performance, and providing feedback, has become relevant in the context of the competence approach. Achieving the learning objective requires a focus on both learning progress and learning needs, thus facilitating the most successful and effective learning. Čakāne (2018) emphasizes the importance of finding new solutions to facilitate and improve formative assessment. Nagowah & Nagowah (2009) highlight the essay as one of the formative assessment methods, as students analyse, synthesise, and critically evaluate information when writing an essay. Essay writing is particularly conducive to:

- **critical thinking and problem-solving**, involving the precise formulation of questions; critical evaluation, exploration, and analysis of complex situations, including ideas and multiple contexts; synthesising and interpreting information; reasoning and drawing valid conclusions; articulating the problem, justifying the need for solutions, proposing solutions, and applying the findings in a different context; using problem-solving strategies. Writing an essay is an effective way to promote critical thinking. Marni, Silvia, & Titik's (2019) research indicates that critical thinking in an argumentative essay is expressed through analytical thinking, in which a situation is analysed, and evidence and reasons are sought to point to solutions through the knowledge and information provided to the student. Writing an argument is a process of problem-solving, which in turn promotes self-regulation in order to achieve goals.
- **self-directed learning** in which the learner regularly sets goals, develops a plan for achieving goals, formulates criteria, and uses them to evaluate performance, plan, and improve goal achievement; independently analyses their own behavior and emotions and seeks ways to manage them; independently selects, adapts and develops their own

thinking strategies in complex situations; independently uses criteria to help monitor and improve their work, evaluates, summarises and purposefully uses gained experience in the future (Ministru kabinets, 2019).

The professional experience of the author shows that students often associate essay writing with a summative assessment, do not always fully understand the criteria for essay writing, and do not always receive feedback, for example, due to time constraints. The observations of the author also show that, when writing an essay, students are aware of what exactly they have learned in the context of the essay topic. Also, a study of theoretical sources of knowledge reveals that assessment needs to focus primarily on formative assessment, even when the work is assessed by summative assessment (Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009). There are also situations in which students or their parents feel that summative assessment is more important than formative assessment. Sasser (2018) also highlights that a point score's summative assessment outcome can be considered the most important assessment outcome. Achieving the learning goal requires a focus on both learning progress and learning needs, thus facilitating the student's ability to learn most successfully and efficiently. Learning to write involves a variety of activities such as generating and organizing ideas, analysing texts in different genres, summarising information, and refining texts (Chen, 2022). West, Malcolm, Keywood, and Hill (2019) emphasize not only problem posing, source exploration, analysis, and synthesis, but also drafting, essay development, self-reflection, and feedback as tools for essay development. Thus, the focus is on opportunities for essay development, clarifying questions, and improving students' self-directed learning skills. The criteria sheet, which is available to students during the essay writing process, is also becoming relevant. Flaksa (2021) points out that students need to have clear achievable results for formative assessment to be of high quality. When writing an essay, it is important for the student to be aware of current affairs in the context of different areas and events in society. The aim of this publication is to analyse the scientific knowledge of the essay as a method of formative assessment and to describe the potential of the essay in formative assessment. The analysis of pedagogical and psychological literature provides a comprehensive overview of the potential of essays in promoting student learning and educational quality.

Current affairs of formative assessment in the context of the competence approach

Changes in the curriculum also mean changes in the assessment system, which fundamentally changes the role of assessment. Formative assessment is widely brought up to date and in a competence-oriented approach to learning content. Formative assessment is widely actualized and used in a competence-based approach to learning for learning the curriculum. *Assessment for learning* turns everyday assessment into a learning process (Stiggins, 2011). To achieve this, Čakāne (2018) and Stiggins (2011) argue that it is necessary to involve students in their own learning process, in which outcomes are jointly defined and criteria are created, and students are involved in analysing their final results, leading to the definition of new outcomes. An essential part of formative assessment is the provision of feedback between the student and the teacher or between students. This type of assessment helps to better understand what the student knows or does not know and what needs to be improved. Schools and teachers are looking at how to implement formative assessment - how to check whether the intended outcome has been achieved and how to provide constructive feedback to students (Čakāne, 2018). The foreign language curriculum also emphasizes the setting of clear objectives while providing feedback. Formative assessment encourages students to engage more actively in the learning process and promotes self-regulated learning, which in turn will lead to more successful lifelong learning (Bullock, n.d.).

Essay writing has different purposes, such as improving writing skills, communication, learning, expressing an opinion, etc. (Graham & Harris, 2019). Stikute (2006) emphasizes that writing an essay is a useful method for students' self-assessment and consciousness-raising at the level of knowledge, skills, and emotions because by writing an essay, students reveal their thoughts, feelings, experiences, and opinions, which are formed through evaluation, analysis, comparison: students form their views on a particular topic.

In order to improve student learning and the quality of education, the use of formative assessment is emphasised, stressing that teachers need to facilitate changes in students' attitudes towards learning, but this cannot be achieved without student-teacher collaboration (Gaybullaevna, 2021). Bērziņš (2020) notes the importance of an individual approach, including individual discussion for feedback using a criteria sheet, emphasizing the need to develop a criteria sheet for self-assessment and self-skills development. Dunn and Mulvenon (2009) also emphasize that in evaluation it is very important to focus on formative assessment, even if the work is evaluated with summative assessment.

Black and William (2005) point out that a challenge in formative assessment can be the inadequate provision of quality feedback to every student in the classroom. If formative assessment is not implemented appropriately, it does not provide information on learning progress and needs, then the purpose of formative assessment is not achieved (Akram, Siddiga, Nami, Shahzad, & Rashid, 2020). Black and William (2015) emphasize that students need to be actively engaged in both the learning and formative assessment process, but motivation also becomes important. Čakāne (2018) emphasizes that the lack of clear criteria, feedback, and constructive collaboration between teachers and students, as well as the lack of awareness of the formulated objectives, are obstacles to qualitative formative assessment. Dodge (2009) and Akram, Siddiqa, Nami, Shahzad, & Rashid (2020) also believe that teachers often do not have time to provide feedback to the student during the lesson because teachers often try to proceed faster with the learning content. Sasser (2018), on the other hand, argues that formative assessment may not be taken seriously if the summative assessment outcome value in points can be taken as a more meaningful assessment outcome. This helps to identify complicating factors that could have a negative impact on the implementation of formative assessment:

- lack of motivation;
- lack of time and opportunity in lessons to give individual attention to each student;
- lack of appropriate methodological material for formative assessment;
- insufficient understanding of formative assessment for both teacher and students;
- negative attitudes of parents and students towards learning and changes in the learning process.

Therefore, the essay becomes an important assessment tool because, firstly, it provides important information about the learning achievement of the student himself. At the same time, however, the development of a set of criteria for students' self-assessment and self-regulated learning skills becomes necessary.

Analysis of Formative Assessment Opportunities in Students' Essays

Andrade (2019) defines *self-assessment* as the process of monitoring one's actions in order to make adjustments that improve learning and performance. Self-assessment is an essential part of self-regulated learning, through which learners critically evaluate their own learning (Lam, 2010). Self-regulated learning occurs when the learner sets goals, monitors, and controls their emotions and actions to achieve the goals (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011). As Lam (2010) points out, self-assessment in writing tasks promotes metacognitive skills, including the ability to evaluate the content, set goals, and develop learning strategies and their effectiveness. Yan and Brown (2017) point out that self-esteem also depends on psychological factors such as self-worth, self-efficacy, and motivation, as well as psychological factors of interpersonal relationships- relationships with peers, parents, mentors, etc. However, it is also important to recognize that the successful implementation and accuracy of self-assessment depends on the learner's autonomy in foreign language learning (Jamrus & Razali, 2019). Graham and Harris (2019) point out that students become better writers by learning to evaluate their own work and giving feedback to classmates. Fung and Mei (2015), on the other hand, in their study show that vocabulary, language use, organization, maturity of thinking, and awareness of mistakes improve after self-assessment. Fahimi and Rahimi (2015) in their study reveal that self-assessment provides knowledge on how to plan and review an essay. Therefore, self-assessment of the essay before it is submitted to the teacher for summative assessment is very important (West, Malcolm, Keywood, & Hill, 2019). A schematic representation of the factors and benefits influencing the effectiveness of self-assessment in the context of formative evaluation is presented in Figure 1.

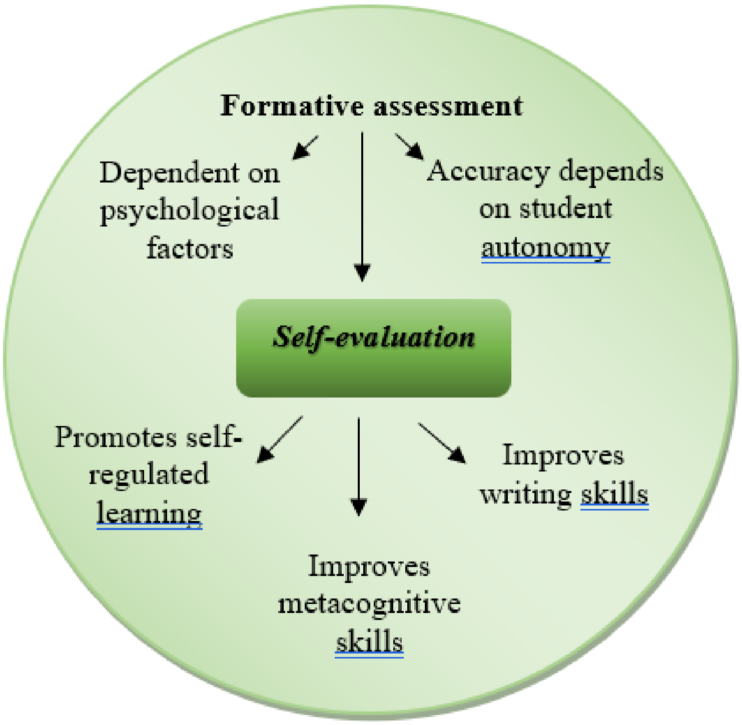

Figure 1 ***Schematic representation of the factors and benefits influencing the effectiveness of self-assessment in the context of formative assessment*** *(Fung & Mei, 2015; Graham & Harris, 2019; Jamrus & Razali, 2019; Lam, 2020; Yan & Brown, 2017; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011)*

Dodge (2009) and Akram, Siddiqa, Nami, Shahzad, and Rashid (2020) highlight that it is essays and other types of writing that take more time to implement formative assessment. The 4 types of formative assessment strategies mentioned by Dodge (2009) can be implemented when writing an essay:

- **summarising and reflecting** – students reflect on and make sense of what they have heard or read, relating it to their own learning experiences;
- **organization using lists, charts, and graphic organisers** – students organize information, make connections, and indicate understanding using graphic organizers;
- **expressing information** – students use words and/or pictures to make connections and enhance memory, making it easier to recall information;
- **collaborative group activities** – students are given the opportunity to interact with other classmates to develop and demonstrate their conception of knowledge.

As Graham and Harris (2019), Lam (2010), and Fung and Mei (2010) point out, students' collaboration leads to a better understanding of the topic and motivates them to strive to improve their performance.

Promoting mastery learning is important for every student. Mastery learning is defined as a strategy based on each student achieving a desired goal or competency, linked to formative assessment: students acquire knowledge, skills, and attitudes, do formative assessment of what they have learned and, if they achieve the desired result, have the opportunity to do more in-depth, creative tasks, while students who do not achieve the desired result improve and retest (Winget & Persky, 2022).

Conclusions

In the competencies approach, the main purpose of assessment is to promote learning. However, for assessment to be successful, it is essential to involve learners in their own learning process, in which they collectively define the outcomes to be achieved and set criteria for achieving the objectives, while being involved in analysing their own final results, leading to the definition of new outcomes. Formative assessment encourages students to actively engage in their learning, developing self-regulated learning skills and thus more successfully continuing their learning throughout their lives.

To improve student learning and the quality of education, it is important to promote changes in students' attitudes to learning, which cannot be achieved without student-teacher cooperation. A challenge in the context of formative assessment may be the lack of quality feedback for each student.

In foreign language learning at secondary school, the essay becomes an important formative assessment tool, as it provides important information about the student's own learning achievements. At the same time, however, the development of a set of criteria for students' self-assessment and self-regulated learning skills becomes necessary.

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