



[Review Article]
**Curriculum and classroom challenges in teaching
viewing comprehension skills to high school students**

Nadia Santos & Razel S. Paglinawan

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Corresponding author

Nadia Santos

Philippine Normal University,

the Philippines

santos.ne@pnu.edu.ph

Razel S. Paglinawan

Philippine Normal University,

the Philippines

Additional information is
available at the end of the
article

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Department of English,

University of Santo Tomas

Manila, The Philippines

Abstract

Viewing comprehension skills are essential and macro elements of second language learning. However, the connoted passivity of viewing activities has resulted in the lack of research and contextualized curriculum, pedagogical strategies, materials, assessments, and training programs in viewing comprehension skills. Hence, despite its relevance in instructional languages, research on and teaching viewing comprehension skills are inclined to focus only on viewing activities that promote recalling or remembering-level competencies. Moreover, most viewing tasks are perceived and used as mere springboards to learn other language skills, despite the essence of viewing skills in today's multimodal learning. In most studies, viewing skills are often overlapped with listening and reading skills. Thus, this qualitative meta-analysis aims to examine relevant studies to analyze curriculum and classroom challenges in teaching viewing comprehension skills to identify methods and materials that will emphasize productive, appropriate, and differentiated viewing comprehension skills teaching.

Keywords: viewing comprehension skills, multimodal learning, challenges, language curriculum

1. Introduction

Education 4.0, a contemporary educational approach that applies industrialized learning through digital technologies and learning settings (Himmetoglu et al., 2020), advocates mobile and individualized learning, flexible and customized curriculum, and hands-on and practical application of knowledge (Ramirez-Montoya et al., 2021). On the other hand, 21st Century Education is an educational perspective which suggests that graduates need a set of skills to perform well in their work and be real-world-ready (Tight, 2020), and that promotes collaboration, creativity, communication, and critical thinking skills, emphasizing learning in a globalized environment where school systems continually change due to dynamic teaching-learning contexts and needs (van Laar, 2020).

The teaching-learning processes and practices that we have today, which attempt to adhere to the features of the aforementioned educational perspectives, are struggling to keep up with educational technology trends—all the more so because schools constantly encounter difficulties brought by the offline-to-online learning environment. Because of this, teachers must adjust their pedagogical strategies to adapt to the evolving teaching-learning setup. Moreover, as teachers' digital competence appears to be a prerequisite in today's digital learning (Smestad et al., 2023), various aspects of their methods, such as materials development, should be altered to consider mobile learning and foster students' critical thinking skills (Tarrayo et al., 2023); assessment and design should cover multimedia content to acquire multimodal literacy (Lim & Tan-Chia, 2023) and language pedagogical objectives should integrate opportunities for students to be exposed to and interact with different cultures as part of their language learning (e.g., intercultural communication) (Kim, 2020). For instance, in terms of English as a second language (ESL) learning, teachers face difficulties in ensuring that students' language learning integrates authentic experiences (Richards, 2017) and targets active learning (Mayer, 2017).

More specifically, in teaching language skills, such as the 'fifth' macro skill—viewing skills—teachers, like students, are urged to learn how to view and represent (Faloye et al., 2021). However, this challenge is further complicated by the fact that viewing comprehension is regarded as secondary to the 'Cinderella skill' (i.e., listening) since it is disregarded and only perceived as an enrichment to learn other language skills because the skill is considered "intuitive" (Lim & Tan-Chia, 2023). People watch many things face-to-face and online daily, making them perceive that viewing is not something that needs to be learned explicitly or directly in school. Another relevant factor is that receptive skills are commonly seen as implicitly acquired by learners due to exposure to day-to-day activities (Schmitt & Celce-Murcia, 2020), requiring them to listen or read without direct instruction, which creates the impression that receptive skills, unlike productive skills need not be taught. However, this misconception that L2 learners seem to develop receptive skills due to their independent learning should be revisited because of reported difficulties, specifically in grammar, even after formal skills training (Schmitt & Celce-Murcia, 2020). Consequently, this connotation that viewing skills are only passive and innate skills results in the bereft research on instructional languages and affordances of instructional materials relative to viewing skills (Smith et al., 2020) devaluing the crucial part of acquiring viewing comprehension skills which are essential in today's multimodality learning (Enoch et al., 2023). The current multimodal teaching-learning setup, brought upon by educational technological advances, exposes students to more multimedia, visual texts/sources, and activities where they need to understand content from different modes or media (Donaghy, 2020) highlighting the essence of teaching multimodality literacy and acquisition of viewing comprehension skills.

Several studies focused on how educators perceive viewing skills (Candelaria, 2023), use instructional strategies and materials and the extent of such utilization in the classroom (Carolino & Queroda, 2019), incorporate viewing skills as a springboard to learn a different skill (e.g., viewing skills are used to learn 21st-literature) (Dalagan, 2019), while some highlighted the potential of extensive viewing in improving language learning

(Pujadas & Muñoz, 2019) and viewing skills' relevance and relationship with incidental language learning (Dang et al., 2021) and explicit vocabulary acquisition (Durbhan et al., 2020; Feng & Webb, 2020). However, few studies stressed its curriculum gaps and explicit viewing comprehension skills–focused and –targeted teaching strategies (Yang, 2023; Enoch et al., 2023; Hadison et al., 2020; Wen & Yi, 2022), such as the possible effectiveness of extensive viewing in enhancing second language receptive skills (Avello & Muñoz, 2023). Thus, research on the practices and challenges in teaching viewing comprehension skills and the pedagogical potentials relevant to the skill remains understudied. To address this gap, this qualitative meta-analysis aims to synthesize current scholarship toward addressing the question: What are the classroom and curriculum challenges in teaching viewing comprehension skills in the second language classroom?

2. Methodology

Qualitative meta-analysis was utilized to analyze the curriculum and classroom challenges in teaching viewing comprehension skills among secondary students. Meta-analysis is a method used to represent and scrutinize the outcome of multiple empirical research studies, and it offers a systematic approach to combine and summarize information regarding the features and results of successful programs (Lipsey, 2016). Curriculum and classroom challenges in teaching viewing comprehension skills were identified and analyzed through direct content analysis of collected relevant literature and studies on teaching viewing comprehension skills among secondary students. Directed content analysis refers to a methodical and organized strategy employed to examine pre-existing data, such as documents, interviews, or other textual materials. This approach involves utilizing predetermined sets of categories or codes derived from existing theories (Delve, 2023).

This study's theoretical framework draws from Mayer and Moreno's (1997) Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML). According to Rudolph (2017), CTML can enhance the efficacy of instructional multimedia. Moreno's (1999) research suggests that learners benefit most when verbal and visual information are presented in close proximity, with verbal information being spoken aloud. Mayer (2005) elucidates CTML's core principles, which include leveraging both visual and verbal channels and encouraging active cognitive engagement. Finally, Wylie's (2021) investigation into multimedia learning emphasizes the importance of self-explanation. Taken together, these papers affirm the significance of CTML in terms of information processing and self-directed learning.

Data Sources

For this study, the researchers utilized literature and studies published between 2016 and 2023 to examine the topic of viewing skills. The primary goal was to ensure that the discussions on this topic were relevant and up to date. The study covers essential issues in teaching and learning viewing skills in the context of 21st-century learning, with emphasis on viewing

skills in the K to 12 curricula, as well as the challenges faced by teachers while teaching viewing skills. The researchers selected both local and international literature and studies to ensure a comprehensive understanding of how viewing skills are integrated into the second language classroom and curriculum, considering the persistent multimodal teaching-learning environment.

3. Results and discussion

Understanding the bigger picture: Why are viewing comprehension skills vital?

Education 4.0 aims to equip students with knowledge and skills for the real world (IGI Global, 2021) by amplifying technology-enhanced learning (World Economic Forum, 2021). Due to the demands of technological changes in education, teachers and teacher education institutions encounter issues while adapting to educational trends (Montealegre, 2019). For instance, teachers and school leaders are not too adept in using online learning tools, struggle with developing and sustaining students' skills, and are unprepared to complement students' needs, given that students are in a global learning environment, which allows them to learn everywhere and anytime in the delivery mode they prefer, make them responsible for their learning, and involve them in conceptualizing and enhancing the curriculum (Alda et al., 2020). Hence, it is not just the students who need to be ready with 21st-century skills but also the teachers. Specifically, language teachers are expected to exhibit 21st-century *digital* skills (van Laar et al., 2020) to guide students' skills acquisition efficiently. In instructional languages, this conventional-to-digital teaching-learning situation results in teachers extemporizing strategies to meet students' digital and language learning needs, which also calls for reviewing and revising the language curriculum to integrate multiliteracies (Lim, 2021). Integrating multiliteracies in the literacy/language curriculum is essential to adapt to the worldwide educational shift to multimodal learning. Specifically, identifying how different stakeholders of the teaching-learning process, such as researchers and educators, can collaborate to stipulate curricular evaluation and reforms is even more critical. Lim (2022), for example, conducted a research project based on design-based research to test how such an approach can help teachers build confidence, create lesson exemplars, and develop design principles for teaching multiliteracies.

Language learning is becoming more digital and visual. Conversely, learners are provided with multimodal teaching methods and references to meet their and the changing learning environment's needs. Thus, teachers are challenged to acquire the visual literacy skills that they expect students to gain. Schoonover (2021) investigated how K to 12 teachers' visual literacy skills and dispositions changed after participating in online professional training for visual literacy. The research attempted to determine the selected veteran teachers' experiences during the museum-sponsored online visual literacy course and their dispositions when promoting visual literacy in the classrooms. The results emphasize some challenges in navigating the online platform and using the viewing material. However, they discovered

innovative means to perceive art and personalize learning and techniques for students' visual literacy. Indeed, identifying how educators learn the skills they teach and foster to the students is essential in ensuring that the teachers are well-equipped to teach the necessary competencies for the target language skill.

Viewing is a processing skill where students make meaning based on viewed media. Since viewing skills use digital tools and activities and multimedia platforms (e.g., video, social media), it also requires “multiliteracy skills” and other language skills, such as reading and listening (Zhang, 2016, p. 128). In the Philippine Department of Education K to 12 Integrated Language Arts Curriculum, ‘viewing’ means to “demonstrate critical understanding and interpretation of visual media.” (Department of Education, 2016, p. 16)

Visual literacy allows students to comprehend, analyze, converse, and contribute to the culture. “Viewing success” can be attained by examining the contributing factors—“text characteristics, viewers’ characteristics, and social context” (Zhang, 2016, p. 132)—to a student’s skill development. All these features imply that instructional strategies should be changed accordingly and appropriately to adhere to the learning materials’ qualities and the students’ diversities. Additionally, the fast-paced technology demands educators in developed and developing countries to rev up and stretch their knowledge and experiences in educational technology and in teaching students how to learn, given various modes and media for learning (Zhang, 2016).

Viewing skills are perceived as ‘receptive’ or ‘passive’ skills (Surkamp & Yearwood, 2018) but are actually contextually scaffolding skills that can be considered independent and active or productive skills once directly taught. Viewing comprehension should be intentionally taught because students are presented with multimedia. In addition, the extent of teaching the micro-skills (e.g., “organize information from a material viewed (EN7VC-I-g-9): determine the meaning of words and expressions that reflect the local culture by noting context clues (EN8V-Ig-6); agree or disagree with the ideas presented in the material viewed (EN9VC-IIe-22); and assess one’s viewing behavior (EN10VC-IVe-30” ([DepEd, 2016]) of the macro skill—viewing comprehension skill—should be expanded. In line with this, Lim-Fei & Tan (2017) proposed that for learners to acquire critical viewing competencies, teachers should assist students’ viewing process, share materials they can use to comprehend visual texts, and “cultivate the dispositions and attitudes towards these media texts” (p. 5).

Hence, language learners are also expected to learn media and visual literacies, and instructors are then challenged to be adept at pedagogical strategies for viewing skills. However, teachers experience complications in teaching viewing skills, like their problems in teaching other common macro skills because of several factors (Carolino & Queroda, 2019), such as lack of research and coaching on the explicit teaching of viewing skills, access to and usage of appropriate and localized learning and teaching resources, skills-specific training (Barrot, 2018), and incidental or implied instruction on viewing skills as a result of curriculum gaps (Lim-Fei & Tan, 2017).

Curriculum design and alignment

The Philippines follows a K to 12 curriculum framework, which consists of a Kindergarten program, six years of elementary education, and six years of secondary education. The curriculum framework is governed by the Department of Education (DepEd) and focuses on holistic development, ensuring that students acquire essential skills, including viewing comprehension skills. Viewing comprehension skills are integrated into the language macro skills with the implementation of the K to 12 Curriculum in the school year 2013-2014.

This shift was further prompted by the widespread use of multimedia technology in education. As a result, there is a growing recognition of the importance of teaching learners how to select, validate, and interpret visual images effectively, making it a crucial element of the curriculum (Gabinete, 2017).

The guiding principles of the English K to 12 Curriculum Guide specify that effective language acquisition encompasses viewing, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Thus, language instruction should encompass various approaches and exercises aimed at assisting students in balancing comprehension and precision.

Table 1

K to 12 Basic Education English Curriculum Guide: Alignment of the Language and Literacy Domain with the Five Sub-strands

Integrated Language Arts Domains	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Viewing
1. Oral Language	✓	✓			
2. Phonological Awareness	✓				
3. Book and Print Knowledge			✓		
4. Alphabet Knowledge	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
5. Phonics and Word Recognition	✓		✓	✓	
6. Fluency		✓	✓		
7. Spelling			✓	✓	
8. Writing and Composition	✓	✓	✓	✓	
9. Grammar Awareness & Structure	✓	✓	✓	✓	
10. Vocabulary Development	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 1 continued...

Integrated Language Arts Domains	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Viewing
11. Reading Comprehension 11.1 schema & prior knowledge 11.2 strategies 11.3 narrative text 11.4 informational text			✓	✓	✓
12. Listening Comprehension	✓	✓			
13. Attitudes towards language, literacy and literature	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
14. Study Strategies	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Adapted from: Department of Education. (2016). K to 12 Curriculum Guide ENGLISH (Grades 1-10). p. 11. Retrieved September 19, 2023, from <https://www.deped.gov.ph/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/English-CG.pdf>

As reflected in the English K to 12 Basic Education Curriculum Matrix, language, and literacy macro skills—listening, speaking, reading, writing, and viewing—are encompassed in language art domains.

Eleven out of 14 language arts domains include *listening skills*, 9 out of 14 integrate *speaking skills*, 11 consider *reading skills*, and 9 employ *writing skills*. Conversely, the viewing comprehension skills are only applied in four language arts domains in the curriculum. This implies that regardless of the relationship and relevance of viewing comprehension skills in most language domains, such as book and print knowledge and fluency (Weninger, 2020) and listening comprehension (Feng & Webb, 2020; Zhang, 2016), the skills are unevenly distributed.

According to Lim and Tan (2018), in an era enriched by digital advancements, literacy practices have shifted from traditional print reading to the involvement of multimodal texts. These texts utilize a combination of language, images, animation, and music to communicate meaning, signifying a noteworthy transformation in information processing and comprehension. Additionally, Gabinete (2017) underscores the importance of nurturing viewing comprehension skills in elementary education to address the requirements of the 21st century. Shalikiani-Skhireli (2021) emphasized the pivotal role of critical thinking in the cultivation of viewing skills. The author recommends approaching comprehension by posing questions from various perspectives to enrich understanding. Additionally, Pace (2021) contributes to this discourse by highlighting the demand for learner-centered language courses that are not only practically oriented but also tailored to address specific vocational needs, particularly in the realm of enhancing viewing skills. These studies suggest that viewing comprehension skills be well represented in the curriculum to cater to students' viewing competency needs.

How viewing skills are viewed in research

Various studies explored how viewing skills helped develop language acquisition, particularly vocabulary (Peters & Webb, 2018) but posed challenges and essential aspects that should be investigated in advocating viewing comprehension skills teaching.

The study of Pujadas and Muñoz (2019) determined the following: (1) the scope in which second language vocabulary, specifically its form and meaning, can be learned through extensive television series viewing; (2) the effects of (a) the diction used in an on-screen text, (b) teaching strategy, and (c) students' proficiency level on second language vocabulary through television viewing. The findings revealed that the: (1) student-respondents acquired L2 vocabulary based on the extensive viewing activity, and they are more proficient in recalling 'form' than 'meaning' and (2) teaching strategy and students' proficiency level significantly affect the learners' vocabulary learning through television viewing. Finally, the study concluded that teachers are interested in the findings based on students' beliefs, illustrating their "positive and appreciative" (p. 492) attitude toward exposure to authentic English materials. Also, the learners were focused on the input and were motivated to learn, and the entertainment brought by the media appears to be more beneficial than disadvantageous to them. Peters and Webb (2018) conducted a similar study where an experimental group was exposed to a full-length television program to determine if learners would acquire vocabulary, given such input. Based on the experiment, television viewing is crucially related to students' acquisition of meaning through recall and recognition. Also, students' vocabulary knowledge or background, frequency of usage, and 'cognateness' have relevant repercussions on their vocabulary acquisition (Peters & Webb, 2018, p. 549). The research findings of Perez (2022) promoted using audiovisual materials in the first stage of vocabulary acquisition because these materials are equivalent to written materials, considering the learning benefits. Durbahn et al. (2020) also explored vocabulary learning through viewing. The results of their study suggested benefits in language pedagogy since the findings highlighted the significance of direct attention to developing students' vocabulary so they can view programs independently and effectively. Moreover, the research illustrated the demand to distinguish listening and viewing skills because of the conventional notion that the skills are similar. Hence, the cited studies suggested that materials and strategies vary according to the learner and the learning context. Zhang (2016) purported that text features, which differ depending on the types of text that learners know, the learners' characteristics, and the situational contexts are essential elements in second language learning.

Reading lengthy texts is only enjoyable for some students. While some prefer learning by doing or reading, many learn by viewing. Hence, instructional materials that incorporate visuals or supplement texts or lessons with pictures, illustrations, and the like are pervasive in the academe and in research to consider visual learners' needs. For instance, Liono et al. (2020) reviewed literature justifying that learning with visuals, specifically through augmented reality, assists students' learning. The research indicated that utilizing AR guides students' learning in particular courses through visualizing concepts into concrete 3D images. The findings revealed that the visual learning tool motivated students and improved their retention.

Further, Berger et al. (2023) conducted a study titled “E-comics: Pictorial Learning Media to Train Students’ Viewing Skills,” which provides compelling evidence that e-comic learning media has a positive impact on students’ viewing comprehension skills. The results revealed that 70% of students agreed and 29% strongly agreed that e-comics are highly beneficial for honing their viewing skills. The findings also indicate that e-comics make learning materials more accessible and understandable, with 64% agreeing and 29% strongly agreeing on this aspect. The study suggests that mobile-based e-comic media enhances attractiveness and motivation in learning, while being easy to use, as evidenced by the unanimous consensus among respondents, which was 99% combined. These results affirm the relevance of e-comics as an effective tool in cultivating interest in learning and improving students’ ability to comprehend and engage with visual content, thereby enhancing their overall viewing comprehension skills.

De Hart’s (2020) ethnographic study explored how rural secondary teachers use films in teaching. The study showed that films used as supplementary materials in teaching science and history concepts help students learn better and reflect on how the concepts taught in the subject can be authentic or applied in real-life settings through films’ stories. While most studies (Durbhan et al., 2020; Feng & Webb, 2020; Peters & Webb, 2018) use film for vocabulary acquisition, in De Hart (2020), the respondents held that a film is used as stimuli for teaching other content areas such as history; hence, stressing out teaching *using* viewing materials and not teaching *about* the viewing materials.

Studies on teachers’ perspectives on using visual materials, such as films, in secondary language classrooms are limited for most research examined students’ perceptions, regardless of the teachers’ focal role in the teaching-learning setup (Sánchez-Auñón & Férrez-Mora, 2021). Lim et al. (2021b), for example, studied students’ experiences and reflections on multiliteracy learning, considering the unavoidable multimodal sources and methods implemented to keep up with educational technology changes, but research on teachers’ points of view regarding the matter remains underexplored. Indeed, further research exploring educators’ perceptions of viewing materials and multiliteracies is necessary to analyze current pedagogical practices and concerns and develop materials or strategies to address such issues.

One caveat of the lack of research on viewing comprehension skills is that it is limited if not repetitive strategies in teaching viewing comprehension skills. Hence, as reflected in several studies, teachers are revved up in developing strategies for teaching viewing skills. In Carolino and Queroda (2019), for instance, most of the interviewed secondary English teachers often use writing strategies for individualized strategies and song, singles, and rap for pair/per/group strategies in teaching viewing. In terms of materials, the highest mean score for the level of utilization showed the prominence of “gadgets (laptops, smartphones, televisions)” among the instructional materials for viewing skills. Although the findings support the principle that viewing skills are learned when integrated with other macro skills and vice versa (Rodgers, 2016; Salengga & Baltazar, 2022) (i.e., note-taking appears to be paired with teaching viewing), the study did not specify the actual writing strategies applied by the respondents. Moreover, the result regarding the most utilized instructional materials

seems vague since gadgets serve as the medium used in teaching but are not the materials that teach viewing skills. Here, the research failed to determine the scope or exemplify content or actual teaching strategies that used gadgets. If the paper had cited digital instructional materials such as animations, slide presentations, videos, and online articles (Rice & Ortiz, 2021), the scope of the IMs could have been clearer. This study implies further research on strategies for teaching viewing comprehension skills to determine and compare teaching techniques and tools and eventually develop actual instructional materials that will support the direct teaching of the skill.

Challenges in teaching viewing comprehension skills

Indeed, teachers encounter difficulties in creating materials, activities, and programs that will completely envelop the learners' needs, lacks, and wants. To illustrate, identifying if the authentic television show suits students' levels is also challenging since the learners view appropriateness if they concurrently understand and enjoy watching a program (Rodgers, 2018). On the other hand, more than the suitability of viewing materials, the techniques or interventions applied using the materials should also be studied, mainly because most post-viewing tests are limited to recalling or memorizing concepts from the material viewed (Lim & Tan, 2018) and do not improve students' reflective and critical thinking. More importantly, since the nature of teaching, that is, how English or the skill is taught, is supported by localization, teachers should focus on reexamining and modifying their means of teaching, which applies to how students learn and where they are learning (Tupas, 2018). Teaching methods influence learners' reading and viewing processes and strategies. Consequently, from an educational standpoint, instructors' direct presentation with adequate support is vital in assisting students' development "in learning to read/view and in reading to learn/view both in an L1 and an L2" (Zhang, 2016, p. 133). Accordingly, in addition to the variables relative to the 'viewability' of a material, the learners' and the teachers' roles and behaviors in the emphasized language learning through viewing should be specified to detail the nature of teaching-learning practices that will be employed in the face-to-face or online classroom, and even in non-academic learning settings.

Teachers serve as curriculum developers, researchers, trainers, facilitators, leaders, and material and test developers to successfully teach viewing skills. For example, in an exploratory research conducted in Europe to track teachers' perceptions of their roles and responsibilities in the classroom, all the 75 teacher-educator respondents from a Dutch university of applied sciences considered that they somewhat serve distinct "roles and functions" than other teachers in high school and vocational education. In terms of the "six professional roles of educators, namely (1) teachers of teachers, (2) researchers, (3) mentors or tutors, (4) gatekeepers to the teaching profession, (5) brokers or facilitators of the learning community, and (6) curriculum developers," (Lunenberget al., 2013 in Bouckaert & Kools, 2017, p. 2) the respondents regard themselves as "teachers of teachers or role models." Therefore, the role of teachers as trainers or teacher-educators seems to be one of the teachers' primary roles in the academe. Similarly, in Gabinete's (2017) study which aims

to identify language teachers' perceptions of visual literacy, how their beliefs are reflected in the classroom, and how they assess learners' viewing skills, it can be gleaned that the interplay of training and assessment synthesizes the major expectations from teachers in teaching viewing skills. Opposite of the extensive research on teachers' beliefs that show their roles in the classroom, studies on students' strategies, techniques, behaviors, and roles in viewing activities remain underexplored (List & Ballinger, 2019).

The materials, instruction, roles, and learning environment are vital facets of teaching and learning viewing comprehension skills that should be holistically tapped to improve students' and teachers' skills. Nevertheless, despite the availability of research on the effectiveness of viewing activities in enriching students' vocabulary and the complexities faced in terms of viewing materials and contexts, there are very few studies on classroom practices, teaching techniques (Guieb & Ortega-Dela Cruz, 2017), learners' roles in the viewing process (List & Ballinger, 2019), and contextualized language training programs (Richards, 2017) that will change conventional viewing activities and resolve the complications in curriculum and classroom practice.

4. Conclusion

A thorough analysis of multiple studies on viewing comprehension skills in the K to 12 curriculum consistently highlights a pivotal issue—these skills often receive insufficient prioritization within the curriculum. Despite their integral role in comprehending both print and nonprint materials (Weninger, 2020), they frequently take a backseat to other language macro skills. Enhancing students' proficiency in viewing is indispensable in the context of multimodal education. Consequently, targeted interventions are essential, necessitating the attention of policymakers, curriculum developers, and teachers to overcome challenges such as early education, teacher training, and resource availability. Conducting a comprehensive curriculum review is imperative, emphasizing the integration of viewing skills across various language arts domains.

A notable gap exists in teachers' awareness regarding the specific aspects of multimodal text to teach and assess. Furthermore, the majority of language teachers lack training in imparting visual literacy concepts to learners (Barrot, 2018; Richards, 2017), despite the critical role of specialized training programs dedicated to teaching viewing skills and enhancing students' proficiency in this area. Equipping educators with the necessary tools and methodologies for nurturing viewing comprehension empowers them to create a more enriching and engaging learning environment.

The allocation of adequate resources proves integral in fostering the development of viewing comprehension skills. Ensuring that classrooms are well-equipped, from technical infrastructure to instructional materials, facilitates the seamless integration of visual literacy into the educational experience.

The imperative for further research on viewing comprehension skills underscores an enduring commitment to understanding and refining training techniques. Therefore, sustained

exploration of this domain promises valuable insights into how educators can approach and enhance students' viewing comprehension skills.

Teaching viewing skills is crucial in today's world. Neglecting them can hinder critical competencies needed for effective communication and comprehension. Addressing this issue can better prepare students for success in the visually driven 21st century landscape. Hence, to improve visual comprehension skills, training teachers, allocating resources, and fostering ongoing research are recommended.

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Nadia Santos is an English teacher, editor, and content developer. She is finishing her master's degree in English Language Education at the Philippine Normal University. Her research interest includes curriculum development and instructional languages.

Razel S. Paglinawan is an English Instructor at Systems Plus College Foundation. She is currently pursuing a master's degree in English Language Education at the Philippine Normal University.