

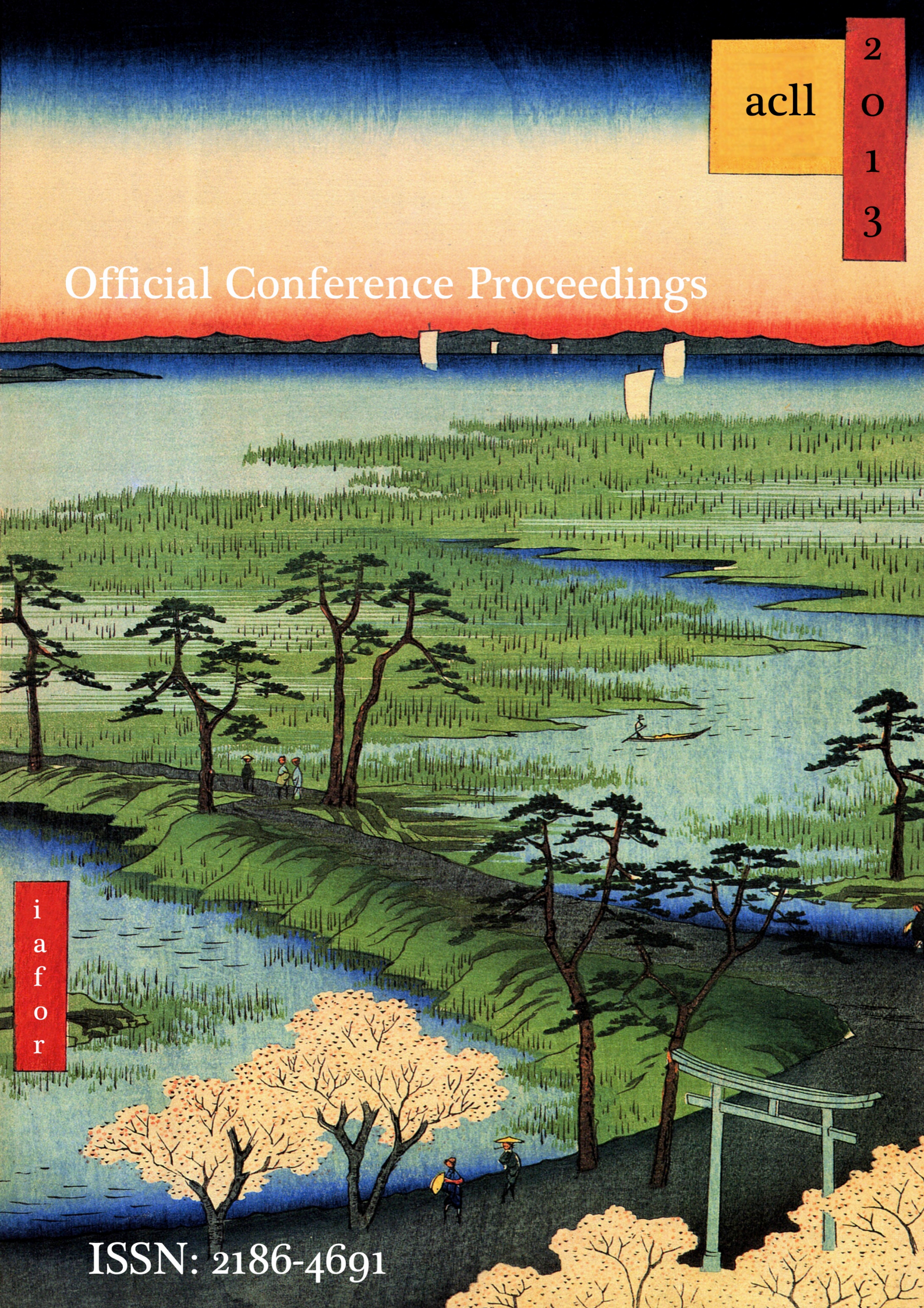
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*Trends and Concerns of Teacher Trainees in using Language Game Strategy to
Improve Speaking in a Rural/Remote Primary School*

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Universiti Malaysia Sabah, Malaysia

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Abstract

This study reports on the trends and concerns of ESL teacher trainees in using game strategy to improve speaking skill in a rural and remote primary school. This study was conducted over three weeks with five remote areas primary schools pupils, age ranges from 9 -11 years old, located in Malubang, Pitas in Sabah. It was under Malubang Outreach Program organized by Rural Education Research Unit from 4 – 7 April, 2012. This study involved 22 TESL (Teaching of English as A Second Language) education undergraduates in the School of Education and Social Development at University of Malaysia Sabah, Malaysia. Teacher trainees used game strategy throughout to effect pupils' oral skills. The teacher trainees engaged children in meaningful games involving task based teaching. Data were collected through observation, questionnaires, and reflective essay. In sum, this study revealed the trends of teacher trainees using game strategy comprised of restructuring teacher trainees' instructional techniques based on the following: The internal and external environment conditions that influenced the effectiveness of various language games used, for example, instructional setting; group dynamics; communication patterns and modes; organization, cultural factors and distance/time factors and management of the learning environment and technology. Pupils were able to use the games to enhance their oral production albeit some classroom management difficulties and language barriers as they participated in games. The result also showed teacher trainees becoming better, free and confident when they conducted game strategy.

Key words: speaking skills, games, motivation, strategy, teacher trainee, pupils

Introduction

"English has become the medium of all relevant social interactions and the ability to use English effectively is considered an absolute essential for honorable existence."
Anon.

Many teachers in Malaysia are faced with the challenge of teaching students to be proficient in English when the students have a few mother tongues that are not English and they are not yet proficient in them, too. There is a gap in effective strategies used to date that could address the gap as teachers are only exposed to training rather than developing the students in English. In Malaysia, we have been using and practicing English language since before we achieved our independent. English is a compulsory subject in all primary and secondary schools curriculum in line with its status as a second language in Malaysia. The Cabinet Committee Report on the Review of the Implementation of the Education Policy 1979 states that the teaching of English is to enable all school-leavers to use English in certain everyday situations and work situations. It is also to allow pupils to pursue higher education in the medium of English. In Malaysia, learners in rural areas achieved a lower score in the English subject, and oral proficiency in English is still at its lowest especially among pupils in the remote or interior schools. The educational system under MOE (Ministry of Education), requires that from the age of 6, the pupils are engaged in English from pre-school level encompassing learning vocabulary and simple sentence structure. Then at the age of 7 to 11, they start their primary 1 until primary 6 and teacher will teach the formal structure, vocabulary, making sentences and short essay at varying levels using various delivery systems. Then they will sit for a test named UPSR (Primary School Achievement Test). However, MOE reported that "the effectiveness of the program and the quality of teachers teaching the language in rural schools is still a big question" (Anon, 2008: 19). A high percentage of school-leavers leave the precincts of the school as ignorant of English usage as they were when they entered the school first. Many years of learning English leads most of our school goers nowhere. Teaching of English in our schools is in a chaotic state today. Pupils are taught English for about six periods per week for six years. But it has been estimated that they hardly know few words by the time they join a University. This means that they have hardly been able to learn English words at the rate of one word per period. They do not know how to use the commonest structures of English.

The mistake is in our Educational system itself.

This is because the command of English language in rural schools, namely oral proficiency, is still poor. In addition, a teacher's target to "prepare" his students for the examination and not to make his pupils competent in the use of the language they are learning (Bala Subramanian, 1985, P. 56). In reality neither the student nor the teacher is anxious to learn or to teach English. For such an examination, students require no thinking, no originality, no imagination and no skill, though the vital aspect of language learning is integrated skill. Hence an average teacher tends to teach nothing more than what the examiner is likely to require. So the student is nervous only about his success in the examination and the teacher's sole problem is to see that the pass percentage does not go down. Therefore, ESL teacher's roles should be given the emancipated role in developing the learners, both intellectually and emotionally via language games. As we know, English plays a very important role in Malaysia.

However, there seems to be problems when it comes to teaching and learning English. Pupils tend to lack interest in learning the language which effect proficiency. In order to counter this issue, many English scholars have tried to come out with different ideas on how to promote interest in learning the language. One of the alternatives that are suggested and that will be the focus of this study is learning the language through games.

Background of Study

Thompson (2004), reviewed the current research related to quality literacy instruction for English learners, concludes that classroom teachers urgently need to know more about effective strategies for teaching English learners. In this study, as part of the effort to learn more about quality instruction for English learners, we have looked at the gap in current instructional practices in term of learners' belief and socio-cultural by using language game for learning English especially in the remote/rural areas. We focused as suggested by (Clarke, 2001; Alexander, 2000), on the way, the way knowledge is communicated to students, and the way teachers interacted verbally with their learners. Commonly, every language has two kinds of skills. The first one is the receptive skill which involves two aspects: understanding and reading; and the second one are the productive skill, which involves writing and speaking. Teaching speaking to second language learner is not an easy task as most non-native learners face difficulties in coping with it. According to Bygate (1987), the problem in teaching a foreign language or a second language is to prepare the pupils to use the language. Indeed, it is a demanding task for language teachers to provide sufficient inputs for pupils to be competent speakers of English. Usually, pupils feel insecure about their level of English and they face problems communicating as well as expressing themselves in the target language. As a result, they rather remain silent as they are in fear of making mistakes and do not show active participation in speaking lessons.

Bygate (1987) stressed that "speaking is a skill which deserves attention as much as the literary skills in both native and foreign languages". When pupils speak in a confident and comfortable way, they can interact better in real daily situations. Being in a classroom learning a language is essentially a social experience and should be memorable. In part, this is because of the relationship forged during a time of being and learning together. In fluency work, our aim was to make learners less conscious of their vulnerability in the target language by challenging them to become interested in participating.

Kayi (2006) emphasised that speaking is a crucial part of second language learning and teaching. Despite its importance, for many years, teaching speaking has been undervalued and English language teachers have continued to teach speaking just as a repetition of drills or memorization of dialogues (Kayi, 2006). Teacher tends to place the pupils in a drilling class where speaking is learned by memorization of certain sentences where they use it in certain condition or situation. This has cause pupils unable to speak the language or understand the message in English beside what they have been exposed. Along this line, Byrne stated that "The main goal in teaching the productive skill of speaking will be oral fluency: the ability to express oneself intelligibly, reasonably, accurately and without undue hesitation (1984, p. 9)". Because of this, the purpose of this project was to encourage teacher trainees to develop their pupils' fluency in spoken English. Developing fluency implies taking

risks by using language in a relaxed, friendly atmosphere –an atmosphere of trust and support. Speaking fluently, of course, involves speaking easily and appropriately with others.

This project will focus on particular aspects on teaching namely, the environment, learning process, teacher, learner, and content to fit the remote local context using language games. A ‘language game’ is ‘considered to be an activity designed to stimulate and to sustain interest while affording the learner practice in listening and/or speaking for purposes of language acquisition’ (Cortez, 1978:204). In game-playing, stressful situations and the pressure of expectations are removed: the child can experiment without having to dread the consequences of its actions. Choices can be made which would not be acceptable under the functional pressure to achieve. Play serves "as a preparation for the technical-social life that constitutes human culture" (Bruner 1983, 45). It is within these games that more complex procedures are first tried and tested, and later become accepted practice. The use of games in class is frequently advocated and defended by writers on such grounds as their provision of conditions for authentic language use, and their ability to motivate learners and permit them a degree of independence.

According to Ersoz (2000), games are highly motivating because they are amusing and interesting. They can be used to give practice in all language skills and be used to practice many types of communication. The justification for using games in the classroom has been well demonstrated as benefiting pupils in a variety of ways. The use of games in class is frequently advocated and defended by writers on such grounds as their provision of conditions for authentic language use, and their ability to motivate learners and permit them a degree of independence (Hunter, 2009). These benefits range from cognitive aspects of language learning to more co-operative group dynamics. Lee (1993) stated that, “There is a common perception that all learning should be serious and solemn in nature and that if one is having fun and there is hilarity and laughter, then it is not really learning. This is a misconception. It is possible to learn a language as well as enjoy oneself at the same time. One of the best ways of doing this is through games (p.13).” Games are already well known in educational field as one of the techniques in teaching language.

However, not all the teachers take games seriously and often games are only seen and treated as a side activities and used to fill up any empty slots. Teachers need to consider games as one of the essential technique applicable to pupils with different language ability. Saricoban and Metin (2000) found that games which are task-based and have a purpose beyond the production of correct speech, serves as excellent communicative activities.

Research Questions

In this study, questions were constructed to reveal not only the instructional practices but also to learn teachers' beliefs and gain insight into which principles guided their decision making. The following questions provide a more precise statement of the research problem:

1. What is the impact of language game strategy on pupils’ oral production in remote/rural schools?

2. What is the trend of teacher trainees' language game strategy on pupils' oral skills in remote/rural school?

Theoretical Framework

Teachers must never stop learning if teacher education is to be a dynamic process. The learning process for teachers must be about their practice, must be built on experiences derived from their practice and, therefore, the learning cycle of experience followed by reflection, learning and experimentation (Kolb, 1984) is applicable as much to a teacher, as learner, as to a pupil. Generally, the aim of language game in this study is to provide teacher trainees with challenges related to the main task so that experiential learning is possible. The theoretical framework adopted for this study considered Littlewood (1992) Natural learning Model's that insisted the three basic conditions of natural learning are exposure to the language, interaction with other people and the need to communicate. The effect of these conditions is facilitated or hindered by the learner's attitudes towards English and to the learning experiences. Internal mechanisms process the language input in order to find regularities and build up a mental representation of the language.

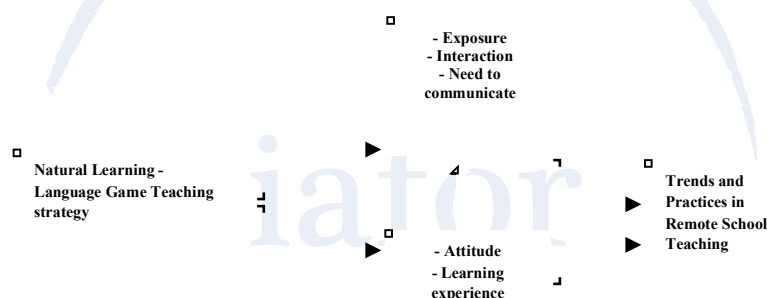


Figure 1. Theoretical framework for Natural Learning language game teaching strategy.

Methodology

This qualitative case study is exploratory and its research design includes the above focusing questions which guided data collection and analysis. Decisions concerning purposive sampling; using observation, questionnaires (students') and reflective essays were related to the purpose of the study (Burns, 2000).

Qualitative

A qualitative research design was adopted to identify the perceptions, feelings and attitudes of participants and to interpret their meanings and intentions (Crotty, 1998). This design "accepts, from the beginning, the perspectival nature of human experience" (Pollio & Thompson, 1997, p. 28). The views expressed by each individual represent their perceptions of reality. This was an innovative and action research project because, as Markee (1997, p. 46) concluded, curricular innovation is "a managed process of development whose principal products are teaching(and/or) testing materials, methodological skills, and pedagogical values that are perceived as new by potential adopters". From this point of view, the project we described here was an action research project because it consisted of the implementation of activities

focused on game strategy for promoting the development of methodological as well as pupils' speaking skills. We can also say that this kind of project that never been carried out in this remote school, and in that way it was an innovation.

Participants

This research focused on the perspectives of a small group of TESL (Teaching of English as A Second Language) education undergraduates in the School of Education and Social Development at University of Malaysia Sabah, Malaysia. These 22 teacher trainees who participated in the study were in their final year TESL Education course. They were 20 females, and only two of the participants were male. The age of participants ranged from 22 to 26. Prior to the project, they attended five weeks of lecture. They were inducted into teaching using games as well as on issues in teaching English in the rural and remote teaching. They will be termed as teacher trainees throughout this report. While, five primary schools' pupils (75), ages ranging from 9 -11 years old from a remote school located in Malubang, Pitas in Sabah were the participants in the program. The majority of the children entered school lacking the basic home literacy experiences that parents provide to their children.

Context

This methodological journey into the remote school in Pitas, Sabah, Malaysia for the project leads us towards a coastal village called Kampung Malubang. It took us almost three hours from Pitas town junction to reach the village using four-wheel vehicle travelling on a mud track for about 20 kilometres. There are 20 families in this village, they are basically fishermen. The basic amenities are lacking, no clean water source, no electricity except those generated by generator from 6pm till 10pm. Upon reaching there, we met with its village committee and the head teacher who then brought us to visit the school, which is near to the sea. It's a single story wooden building. The school compound is full of holes of varying sizes. It is how the village got its name 'Malubang – many holes'. Kg Malubang is very scenic and there are a number of natural monuments and landmarks located around this serene village. One of the landmarks in this area is Sipirik Island, a giant rock formation that is said to resemble a large ship. The trip by boat to the island is graced with the clean, clear, crisp seawater, its divine.

Steps to Conduct the Project

Some procedures mentioned by Byrne, which were taken into account in planning and followed in implementation when using games strategy are outlined below:

- *First, choose games on the basis of pupils' language level.*
- *Second, prepare the games carefully beforehand.*
- *Third, explain to the pupils the purpose of and rules for the games.*
- *Fourth, give pupils one or more opportunities to practice before the games are played.*
- *Fifth, involve as many pupils as possible, dividing the class into teams.*
- *Sixth, if games are played in teams, points should be awarded for each correct answer and the scores written up on the board. (1984, p. 100)*

Procedures: Data collection

Data were collected through participants and non-participants observation notes, students' questionnaires, and reflective essays to do what Fetterman (1998) and Shank (2002) both describe as qualitative method that provides sufficient detail for thick description. The researchers spent all day at the school site for this one week project, starting at 9:00am and ending at 1:00pm when the day program ended. Each day was carefully planned so that lessons are conducted as scheduled in the daylight as night time is reserved for activities that don't require good lighting (The area is without direct electricity supply). Each day had a minimum of four game sessions. Field notes of observations provided descriptive data and recording of the teacher trainees' exact words, as well as dialogue between teacher and pupils.

Observation

One of the teacher trainees acts as a non-participant observer to increase the reliability of the observation. The pupils were not intimidated by the presence of the teacher trainees, as they have conducted ice breaking sessions before starting the games. A diary and a video/audio tape were used to record the games strategy in session between students and teacher trainees. The focus was on the first day on responses provided by students. During the first day of the study, the teacher trainees were not observed in order to allow them to get used to the new environment. Starting from the second day, each teacher trainee was observed for two to three times by their pairs.

Teacher trainees' reflections

The second instrument for collecting data was the analysis of teacher trainees' writings that took the form of response journals. About journals, Wallace (1998, p. 62) argues that "they have been written to be read as public documents". Journals must have a process of composition and can be written during or after the teaching activity is over. The trainee teacher's journal shows impressions, descriptions and processes in pupils' work while the research activities are being carried out. Thus, we used the trainee teacher's journals in order to register the details related to our research questions.

Pupils' Questionnaires

The third instrument was a short questionnaire. We used questionnaires so that we could learn in a written way how pupils felt before and after the game strategy, and in which games they felt more confident and free to speak with fluency.

Data Analysis

The analysis was guided by the initial research objective, questions and design. Data Analysis/Reduction is as follows:

- a. Narrate: Meaning units
- b. Analyse: code and categorise
- c. Thematised: Linking concepts

Pattern matching showed consistency in the data obtained by the different instruments. Coding is "an integral part of the analysis, involving sifting through the data, making sense of it, and categorizing it in various ways" (Darlington & Scott, 2002, p.145).

Therefore, in this study, the analysis involved searching for basic themes for meaning-making in the collected data (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The research questions guided the selection of games techniques that are discussed, but did not limit the reporting of what was observed and what teacher trainees reported. In most cases the game strategy that is reported is told as it was delivered by one teacher trainee. In a few instances the strategy reported is a combination of what two or more teacher trainees did. When this occurs, it is noted. Explanation is given about variation or adaptations. Because the purpose of the investigation was descriptive, the report is on the trend of using game strategy in enhancing ESL oral skills, it does not make comparisons between levels or groups of pupils related to effectiveness or perceived effectiveness.

Legitimation

Legitimation refers to the trustworthiness, credibility, dependability, confirmability, and/or transferability of the inferences made (Guba, 1981; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007b). Using multiple qualitative data analysis tools can help researchers to address what Denzin and Lincoln (2005b) refer to as the crisis of legitimation, namely, the difficulty in assessing qualitative findings. As has been illustrated in this article, by using multiple types of analyses, the qualitative data analysis process will become more rigorous.

Ethical issues

We asked for permission from the three schools headmasters' with a consent form; the pupils and too, were informed about the nature and the purpose of the study. The name of the school was not disclosed, and the names of the pupils were changed for anonymity. In this way, the evidences from these pupils could be collected and analysed.

Results

The impact of game strategy on pupils' oral production in remote/rural schools?

First part of the survey results administered to the pupils showed the main obstacles impeding the development of oral skills of the target pupils in Malubang school project are as follows: lack of L2 use in the school as well as the environment, and secondly, the linguistics problem in vocabulary content, thirdly, the attitudinal factor i.e. shyness and fear of English.

In the second part of the survey, pupils were asked about their feelings and to give suggestions to improve the activities. Pupils said that they like all the games, although some of the games were difficult. They liked the games which required them to communicate and cooperate with their friends (100% said "Yes, because it is fun"). Some things the pupils did not like about playing games were the high noise level, pupils' quarrelling with each other and uncooperative teammates.

Most of all, they did not like the feeling of losing at the games. Pupils suggested that they could play more games so that the teacher could help them to communicate better with one another (100% said "while playing games") and the chance to speak during the English class.

On the other hand, pupils liked the concrete examples, like bottles, sweets, etc., which were used in the game. However, they found it difficult to come up with vocabulary words associated with the topics, which they needed to use for communication purposes. The pupils actually agreed to the question that, ‘Games encourage participation during the class?’ They felt playing games help them communicate better to which they gave a 100% “Yes” especially in term of cooperation.

Table 1 to 4 present the survey results administered to the pupils before they embarked on using games activities conducted by the teacher trainees to help them improve their oral English communication skills.

Table 1. Pupils’ responses to the question “Which language skills do you consider difficult to put into practice?”

Skill	Pupils	Percentage
Listening	26	27.96
Speaking	23	24.73
Reading	24	25.8
Writing	20	21.5
No answer	0	0

Taking into account pupils’ opinions about difficulties with regard to the English as A Second language skills, we asked them which English language skills they considered difficult to put into practice and why. The results are shown in Table 1. As the results show, the majority of the pupils considered that listening, speaking, reading and writing as the four most difficult skills to develop. In essence, oral skill (52.7%) is considered the most difficult skill to develop.

Table 2. Pupils’ responses to the question, “How often do you speak English during the class?”

Item	Pupils	Percentage
Always	1	1.67
Almost always	2	3.33
Sometimes	39	65
Never	18	30

From the results shown in Table 2 we could infer that the majority of the pupils normally sometimes spoke English, and an important number of pupils never participated or spoke English during the class. This is the usual ESL phenomenon faced by teachers in remote/rural schools.

Table 3. Pupils’ responses to the question, “What interfered in your oral skills and made it difficult to speak during the English class?”

Item	Pupils	Percentage
Fear of humiliation	14	22.95
Lack of vocabulary	27	44.26
Shyness	18	29.5
Put it in practice	2	3.28
Didn’t answer	0	0

According to the table above, we could see that there were three important causes which interfered or hampered pupils’ oral participation. These were the lack of vocabulary, shyness, and fear of being humiliated. Then, we administered a questionnaire in which we asked pupils about the activities they preferred to carry out in the English class.

Table 4. Strategies Preferred by Pupils in the English Class

Item	Pupils	Percentage
a. Classes in which teacher is the person who speaks most	1	2.77
b. Individual workshops	4	11.11
c. Work in groups	21	58.33
d. Games	10	27.77

It should be noted that in the diagnostic questionnaire, when we asked pupils about their preferred strategies when learning English in the classroom, 58% of the pupils expressed that they preferred to work in groups and highlighted advantages of playing games.

The post observation of the game sessions

The classroom observations revealed that students when given the opportunity to use the target language were able to use it when engaged in the game session:

Extract 1...giving the pupils opportunity to use the language...different level of proficiency so for those who are good with the language tend to be more active than the others are...using bilingual; Malay and English while conducting the activity because these pupils do not have the same level of proficiency...write down their sentences, thus we have to prompt them and give them clues...-we have helped the weaker pupils to make their own sentences, we asked them to read aloud and they were more motivated to participate after that...controlled practice where we guide and help the pupils throughout the activity ...The pupils are actually good with this language but they are just too passive and afraid to open their mouth...We make it as a competition and the group with high points will be given ‘rewards’. Surprisingly, the pupils get almost all correct...pupils are able to act out and guess the words from the cards and pupils will be able to spell the words with at least 80% accuracy...modified lesson plan to adjust with the pupils’ proficiency level and to increase the pupils’ participations in the

game...pupils' participations in both sessions were a quite low and some pupils were not participating at all... (RE 1, 5, 7, 12, 14, 16, 22)

The trend of teacher trainees' game strategy on pupils' oral skills in remote/rural schools?

The trend of teacher trainees' game strategy on pupils' oral skills in remote/rural schools employed various means such rewards, using bilingualism, background information and re-organising games.

- a. Employing bilingualism*
 - b. Element of rewards*
 - c. Use background or previously known information.*
 - d. Use of music to attract attention*
 - f. Lesson re-organization*
- Using pair work*
Interactive type

Firstly, restructuring game to fit the learners' proficiency involved employing bilingualism in the game instruction, giving rewards, use of music and students' background. Slavin and Cheung's (2004) review of the research found that literacy instructional programs that use the ELL child's native language or paired bilingual strategies for early reading instruction were deemed more effective in the majority of the studies examined.

Extract 2. *However, for session 3, the pupils (from Kumpulan Limau) actively participated in the games and they were also brave enough to come out in front and speak English. We found that it was very heart-warming to watch the pupils enjoyed themselves while playing the game in English...success - involved the participations of all the pupils and also because of the willingness of the pupils to participate...a part of the game and they were not left out...the right method and interesting games...by using games in English, the pupils feel more relaxed and they are able to work together in groups – in which, it helps to reduce their anxiety and shyness in speaking English. Besides, by using games, it makes the class atmosphere livelier as the pupils learn to enjoy while they are learning...song 'If you happy and you know it'. Most of the pupils participated in the session...majority of the pupils said that they feel shy to speak in English and also said that they did not dare to ask their English teacher when it comes to difficult words. Therefore, they say they have limited vocabulary and most of the time they do not know the meanings of the words. They did admit that they like to learn English...quite smart and willing to learn especially the girls. There were two groups of boys whom find it hard to participate because they were not familiar with the names of body parts and they just kept staring at the picture...We explained twice but it was not understood. We demonstrated the task to make it easier for them...we found it hard for the groups to compete since they are lack of confidence and they seem to panic when the other groups are done with their spelling. We found that they were shy to speak English in front of their group members, so we*

said word by word with them...We started the game the animal game. They also could not understand the instructions given and we had to demonstrate to them the procedure of the game. We wanted to mix the boys and girls in their groups because the boys are very noisy when they were with their friends. Unfortunately, it was hard because the girls and boys despised each other. They were very noisy during the game and started to mix with the other groups. The game took quite some time to be completed as they were noisy and they were not serious...We also demonstrated the game to them. They were excited in playing the game. Most of them could spell well. A minority of boys were unable to complete the spelling. (RE 3,5,6,8,9,18,19,21)

a. Employing bilingualism

Extract 3. *... student on the team does not use English during the games session with us. We talked to some of the pupils and they do not use English during their English class...passive but they still respond... using bilingual (TT 1, line 5).*

Extract 4. *...the proficiency level of the pupils were very low (they were not able to understand our instructions in English, so we had to use Bahasa Malaysia to help them to understand) (TT2, line 6).*

b. Element of rewards

Extract 5. *... competition and the group with high points will be given 'rewards'. Surprisingly, the pupils get almost all correct...Some of them are very hyperactive*

c. Use background or previously known information.

Extract 6. *... we changed the game into an activity of making sentences...Pupils seemed to enjoy it...really shy to speak out...more relaxing...a relaxed environment of games...more challenging...game was still effective...very effective practice...game was as interesting...learners enjoyed...they were really cooperative*

d. Use of music to attract attention

Extract 7. *... we used this game because music attracts the learners' attention...effective to get the learners' attention to listening to the questions posed, as there was only one learner posing a question at one time...the learners really were excited to move around the classroom and work with other group members...familiarise themselves...learners enjoyed the game and they were really cooperative with each other...did feedback by checking the lists with the learners...this game was as interesting to this group of learners.*

f. Lesson re-organization

Using pair work

Extract 8. *...to encourage the learners' participation and attention...paired up during the activity... this game was replaced with the "Cat and Mouse" game. This is because there were not enough sweets to be circulated around.*

Interactive type

Extract 9. *... lessons were selected because of the interactive features and the opportunities both lessons provide in maximizing the use of the language among the learners...problem: lack of resources as we had only prepared enough material for one time use of each lessons.*

Secondly, there were other factors that caused anxiety for the teacher trainees in the first encounter such as game constraints, lesson planning and managing students, tasks and time.

To elaborate more, the teacher trainees felt anxious when they had to select and design activities to serve all aspects of the students. For example, when the teachers designed a game activity for high proficient students but the activity was ineffective for the low proficient ones. The present findings seem to be consistent with other research which found that the teachers sometimes designed activities beyond the ability of students (Huimin, 2008). Moreover, the teacher trainees were concerned about managing the tasks for the students in the class. This finding is in agreement with Merç's (2011) findings which show the teacher trainees had anxiety when they had to manage the tasks for pair work and group work as revealed in the categories below:

a. Voice loudness in interaction

Extract 11. *...voice of the learners. Hence, the facilitator had to go around each learner to help them construct questions. However, this made the process time consuming, making the rest of the learners to get restless. To counter this problem, two facilitators went around the circle while the other facilitator controls the class*

b. Getting attention through music

Extract 12. *...very soft...limited with authentic.. sing the action song (What Can You Do?) to get their attentions as they were starting to become restless...*

c. Group arrangement during games

Extract 13. *... smaller circles for these reasons:*

- 1. Classroom control*
- 2. Better attention in smaller groups*
- 3. Higher chances for everyone to use the language*

d. Game constraint - Lack of English Language exposure

Extract 14. - *Since most of the pupils live in remote area, they are not using English that much...modify the lesson...environment of the classroom was not suitable...*

e. Shyness leading to passivity

Extract 15. ... *the pupils were passive and some of them were really shy to come out in front when it was time to play the game. Due to these factors, we made a drastic decision to change our game plans...From the game "Pass the Ball!", we decided to change it to "Pass the Bottle!" as using bottle was the easiest material to be found at Malubang, Pitas.*

Extract 16. ...*very shy to use the language...more challenging...group was harder to be controlled...game was still effective...very effective practice...game was as interesting...learners enjoyed...they were really cooperative...to encourage the learners' participation and attention...*

f. Supplying the words

Extract 17. ...*change it to teaching nouns to the pupils...able to understand it and they were also able to orally give us many examples of nouns when we asked them.*

g. Naughty students

Extract 18. ... *game was not suitable...many naughty learners...difficult to be controlled and refused to obey instruction...play around...group was harder to be controlled*

h. Lack of materials

Extract 19. ...*not enough tic tac toe forms*

Finally, the games strategy portrayed in this study revealed that the discovery by teacher trainees of the ways that could be used effectively if students were prepared and given the opportunity to figure out the meaning of words on their own by relying on picture clues. Such opportunities help children build strategies that they can use when they engage in games.

Extract 10.

- *preparing the pupils with a song with actions is a very good choice. Pupils will be more motivated and encouraged to participate in the lesson.*
- *taught the pupils about different kinds of animals. We asked the pupils to identify the pictures of the animals on the manila cards. Then, we asked the pupils to read aloud the spellings of the animals together and also asked them the characteristics of the animals.*
- *"Felix Says". This game required the pupils to move around, rearrange the spellings of the animals and they will be asked to speak after that.*

- *taught the English language to the pupils through the basic routines that we do every day.*
- *We showed the pictures to the pupils and asked them to read aloud and spell the verb phrases together.*

Discussion

Firstly, the results show that the language games did help more than half of the pupils improve their speaking skills in the Second Language. The pupils cited in their perception that they enjoyed their activities more. This is in contrast to the result of the questionnaire administered before the program which showed that 53% of the pupils felt that they were not able to communicate better before the program. This could be due to various reasons, one of which was the lack of appropriate vocabularies which was remedied through the pre-task activities conducted before the game activities. The observations revealed the concerns much about the type of interactions occurring in the game activities conducted.

Secondly, the current study found that the teacher trainees had anxiety when confronted with the complexity in implementing the lesson plan for the first class. A possible explanation for this might be that when the teacher trainees could not follow lesson plan procedures, they totally went off track. Besides, the anxiety of teacher trainees increased when they had to change the plan immediately to survive in the first class. This finding is in agreement with Merç's (2011) findings which showed that teaching procedures were a significant category of EFL pre-service teachers' anxiety, since there were various factors that the teachers would take into account before teaching. For example, the reason for the teachers to change their original lesson plan was to adapt such a plan to fit into unexpected situations in the classroom. Moreover, the teacher trainees felt anxious about teacher-student interactions, especially in the first class. These results are consistent with other studies and suggest that the teacher trainees were concerned a great deal about teacher student interactions in the class (Kim & Kim, 2004). Due to the importance of teacher-student interactions, the interactions played a very important role in classroom teaching and such interactions were a reliable indicator of the victorious class as well. Next important concern of these teacher trainees is in lesson organization namely, the effect of using games on student performance, accommodation of the learning process at the various levels of Bloom's taxonomy, learner assessment, attention/motivational factors; learning activities; interaction among learners and teacher trainees, and guidance and structuring activities.

Next, what the teacher trainees and pupils described when they spoke of "*bilingual*" would seem to fit more logically with what teacher educators in Malaysia refer to as an "eclectic approach." The term *eclectic* reflects the changes in instructional delivery from an earlier time when teaching of English was primarily grammar translation, stressing of pronunciation and the teaching of receptive skills of listening and reading. The merging of the task based approach and game strategy form an eclectic approach. This approach, while not ignoring formal instruction in grammar and language structure, 1) provides immersion in oral language, 2) is contextualized in true to life situations, and 3) attends to appropriate interactions in social context (Thirumalai, 2002). The modification of the games led to active participation and they seemed to enjoy the lesson more.

Emergent game pedagogy

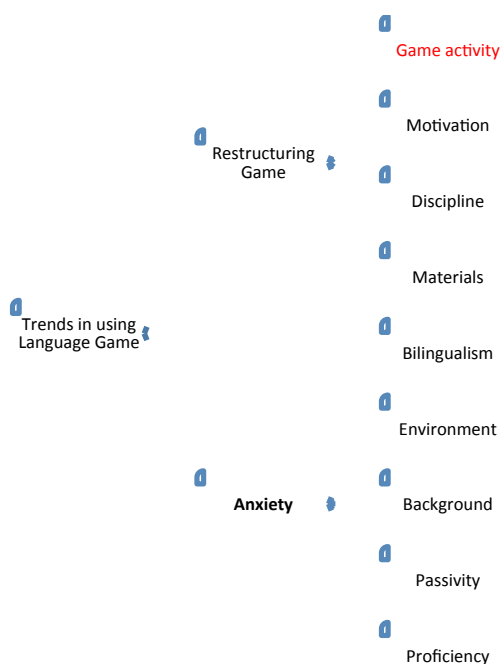
Finally, the trend in using games strategy revealed that the discovery emergent game pedagogy by teacher trainees of the ways that could be used effectively if students were prepared and given the opportunity to figure out the meaning of words on their own by relying on picture clues. Such opportunities help children build strategies that they can use when they engage in games. Although games can lead to informal learning as well, we consider games a form of intentional learning, because they are designed with a specific educational purpose. Intentional learning, according to Anderson et al. (2001) is structured around four organizing questions:

1. *The learning question.* What should the learner learn?
2. *The instruction question.* How should instruction be delivered in order to provide high levels of learning?
3. *The assessment question.* How should accurate assessment instruments be designed or selected?
4. *The alignment question.* How should learning, instruction, and assessment be balanced with one another?

In this study, these four organizing questions act as the lens through which we synthesized the emergent game pedagogy as revealed by the teacher trainees in their game teaching design. The emergent game pedagogy that addressed the four questions above is as follows:

- Prepare pupils with a song with actions to motivate and encourage them to participate in the lesson.
- Activate pupils' knowledge using pictures, read aloud the spellings of the words and describe the characteristics of the target topic/thing - show the pictures to the pupils and asked them to read aloud and spell the verb phrases together.
- Get the pupils to move around.
- Coach the pupils the daily basic routines using English language to the pupils.

Figure 2. The trend of teacher trainees' game strategy on pupils' oral skills in remote/rural schools



In sum, this study revealed the trends of teacher trainees using game strategy that teacher trainees instructional techniques were based on the following: The internal and external environment conditions that influenced the effectiveness of various language games used, for example, instructional setting; group dynamics; communication patterns and modes; organization, cultural factors and distance/time factors and management of the learning environment and technology. These are then related to the pupils' performance and/or achievement level are affected by the delivery system. Other relevant variables included their cognitive style, attitude, personality profile, and other various learner demographic variables.

Conclusions

Games have been and will always be an important part of learning a second or foreign language. We have pointed out the importance of using games in the English learning process. Games are motivating and exciting experiences for pupils to develop the speaking skills in a fun and comfortable way. Besides, we noticed that games helped pupils to believe in themselves, thanks to the creation of a good atmosphere inside the classroom.

Through this innovative and research project, games incorporating caring-sharing, guessing and speculative games and a story were implemented successfully. These encouraged pupils to communicate orally and to gain confidence in speaking. In addition, during the process of implementation, pupils overcame their fear of making mistakes and perceived speaking as a natural process when they were playing. The majority of pupils could express and communicate orally without the pressure of time or constant evaluation. In our research questions, we aimed at describing what happened with pupils' oral production when engaged in games. We discovered that pupils took part in the activities in a free, comfortable and motivating way.

Consequently as postulated by Littlewood (1994), the language exposure in term of more vocabulary, short sentences, and pronunciation, increase interaction, and the need to communicate bore its fruit. They managed to get the messages across while playing, though in some cases pupils mixed Malay and English expressions to communicate their ideas or feelings. Furthermore, the teacher trainees witnessed in reality, how their pupils learned language, interact and develop communicative skills simultaneously in remote area school setting.

Recommendations

This study has several implications for educators of second language learners especially those learning a second language aside a few other languages. Thus, it is recommended that game strategy be conducted on daily basis to become a main activity in a ESL curriculum. Furthermore, teachers need to be aware of the appropriate ways to implement such a strategy, plan for each game session, decide on the vocabulary to be introduced, and think about ways to engage learners in the game. In fact, games have multiple rewards, so teachers need to carefully select the games to be used, explain difficult words or scaffold learners to figure out the meanings of words by themselves. Teachers must also ask challenging questions to trigger learners' thinking and lead them to construct meaning through analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating ideas with the teacher's support.

Limitations

The study addressed the two research questions, but some limitations could be detected. The duration of the study should have been longer than 10 weeks in order to observe more classroom interactions and collect more data about the types of responses. Furthermore, this study does not check the long term effects of the game strategy in the primary schools; its results are confined to a limited period of time. Another limitation is the lack of comparison data against which to judge whether it is the game strategy which is resulting in the observed processes of teaching and learning. Furthermore, the researchers are aware that although they believe that the findings are the characteristic of using the game strategy in the classroom, further research is yet needed to make sure that using more 'traditional' methods will not lead to the same results. Similar studies have used multiple-choice tests to collect data, while this research employed questionnaires, observations, and teacher trainees' written responses.

Implications

Special attention must be given to using games in teaching and learning English as A Second/Foreign Language classroom. Learners enjoying and understanding of language are not inborn skills. Learners build such strategies through skillful interactions. Games must be a main component of ESL curricula along with other reading and writing strategies. This strategy must also be carried out in the primary grades to ensure constant gains in vocabulary and constant learners' engagement in critical and logical thinking.

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The logo for the International Association for Foreign Language Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, hand-drawn style arcs. The upper arc is light blue and the lower arc is light red, creating a partial circular frame around the text.

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Diversity in Teaching in the Classroom

Vijaya Supriya Sam

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DIVERSITY IN TEACHING IN THE CLASSROOM

Being a good teacher involves having a variety of skills, from being able to connect with students to classroom management, organization, understanding learning styles, providing engaging activities, and much more. When all of these things come together, they can create a fun and effective learning atmosphere. One of the most rewarding parts of teaching is connecting with the students. It's not as difficult as it might sound. Trust can be slowly built by engaging students in simple small talk and remembering what they say. It's also important to have a positive attitude in the classroom. Be fair, consistent, and avoid playing favourites, because failing to do these things is one of the fastest paths to alienating students. Classroom management is another big concern, especially for newer teachers. It's impossible to facilitate learning when there is constant disruptive behaviour. There is a fine line, though, between being too permissive and overly authoritarian. Discipline is actually closely related to trust, because students misbehave less when they have a connection with their teacher.

Connecting with Students

Give each participant the handout and explain to them that the purpose of this opening activity(KWL) is to trigger prior knowledge. It serves as a model for active thinking during reading where students can apply higher-order thinking strategies which help them make meaning and help them monitor their progress toward their goals. The three column form can be modified from “we” to “I”.

With all participants, come up with ideas and record them either on the white board or newsprint. Complete each column (K – what you already know; W – what you want to know).

Stress to participants that they need to re-examine this sheet in order to complete the third column (L – what I learned) at the end of the session. Make sure you don't skip this step in the process even if there is only time to share one significant learning experience.

Generally they know what they want and where they are going. Although just because some of them may know what they want out of a career, doesn't mean that they know how to act in the “new” classroom where the shift has gone from teaching to learning. Instructors act as a facilitator rather than the presenter of learning. The adult learner's previous experience was probably teacher-directed and now we are expecting them do much more of the learning themselves. The “new” classroom strategies consist of active learning, cooperative learning, blended learning and flipped classroom activities, which may need to be explained to adult learners because this is not the way they are used to learning.

Most adult students are not in the classroom to compete, are there to succeed and improve themselves. Therefore, as an instructor of adults, minimize competition and

increase cooperation to promote student success. New adult learners may experience apprehension as they pursue a certificate or degree in higher education. As an effective teacher, it is important to cultivate trust and openness because without proper support, this anxiety may underestimate the student's ability to succeed. Focus on their needs and when in doubt, ask them. A caring teacher connects with students. Characteristics of caring include qualities such as patience, trust, honesty and courage. Be sure to point out whether or not the group came up with some of these qualities in the previous brainstorming activity. An effective teacher establishes rapport and credibility with students by emphasizing, modeling and practicing fairness and respect. Point out to participants the importance of modeling expected behaviour. Effective teachers consistently behave in a friendly and personal manner while maintaining appropriate teacher-student role structure. Teachers who are considered effective allow students to participate in decision making. Ask participants for examples. You may want to suggest having a class meeting to discuss issues that may arise during the course. Effective teachers have a good sense of humor and are willing to be self-revealing.

(Rogers, Ludington, Graham 1997, p.2) wrote "The struggle is not in how to motivate students to learn. The struggle is in creating lessons and classroom environments that focus and attract students' intrinsic motivation; thus increasing the likelihood students will actively engage in the learning." Focus is on what is current in education now, ie. creating a positive, safe environment for learning.

The more the pressure placed upon the student, the more they begin to doubt their abilities and their motivation and determination to succeed tends to decrease. Extrinsic rewards will overpower intrinsic for a short period of time, or as long as the extrinsic is perceived to be more powerful or desirable. The intrinsic motivator will always be more powerful in the long run. Extrinsic rewards do reduce risk-taking because they are focused on the grade and they don't want to be creative or think "outside the box" if they fear they will be marked down for it. Intrinsic motivators are often what pull students through the most difficult classes, the ones that they don't think they will pass but that they work hardest to pass. Not every student can tap into this kind of motivation all the time.

Introduce brainstorming as a way to tell new instructors what not to do in a classroom. After the five minutes are up, have participants create a positive for every negative.
Negative Ways for Instructors to Impact Student Motivation:

Sarcasm, insincere listening, failure to meet basic needs, vague or infrequent feedback, failure to account for learning styles, failure to provide accurate examples or models, bribes, content and tasks that are ill-defined or repetitive, "busy" work.

College teachers in many disciplines argue that a lecture approach is key for learning. Teachers worry that if they do not lecture, students will leave at the end of the semester without a notebook full of key concepts and up-to-date information. It is *not* being suggested that lecture should be tossed out the window, rather it should be used with a greater variety of teaching strategies so that students will share in the work of teaching and learning. During lecture...

- Students are not attending to what is being said 40% of the time (Pollio 1984)

- Students retain 70% of the information in the first 10 minutes, 20% in the last 10 minutes (McKeachie 1986)

Now that we have talked about motivating and de-motivating behaviours that can occur in the classroom, let's talk about things that instructors can do to engage learners, enhance motivation, and use higher order thinking skills.

Active learning is understood to stand in contrast to traditional classroom styles where teachers do most of the work and students remain passive. The focus has now shifted from a teaching-centric approach to a learning-centric approach. This shift calls for a rethinking of the traditional classroom replacing the standard lecture with a blend of pedagogical approaches that more regularly involve the student in the learning process. Under a learning-centered approach, the instructor retains "control" of the classroom, but thought is regularly given to: (a) how well students will learn the material presented, and (b) the variety of pedagogically sound methods that may be employed to help the students better understand the core information to be learned. Research shows that active learning seeks to engage a greater range of students in effective learning. Furthermore, it positively affects the attitude of students toward self and peers in the learning process. Active learning develops social experiences between students and between teacher and students. It can build community within the classroom. Teachers give up their centralized role as "expert," "group leader," "source of authority and control." For many teachers, giving up authority and control of the teaching situation challenges a model they have lived with throughout their academic careers. College students have expectations of the role of teacher and their role as students. Active learning challenges these expectations.

In active learning, students solve problems, answer questions, formulate questions of their own, discuss, explain, debate, or brainstorm during class; **cooperative learning**, in which students work in teams on problems and projects under conditions that assure both positive interdependence and individual accountability; and **inductive teaching and learning**, in which students are first presented with challenges (questions or problems) and learn the course material in the context of addressing the challenges. Inductive methods include *inquiry-based learning*, *case-based instruction*, *problem-based learning*, *project-based learning*, *discovery learning*, and *just-in-time teaching*. Student-centered methods have repeatedly been shown to be superior to the traditional teacher-centered approach to instruction, a conclusion that applies whether the assessed outcome is short-term mastery, long-term retention, or depth of understanding of course material, acquisition of critical thinking or creative problem-solving skills, formation of positive attitudes toward the subject being taught, or level of confidence in knowledge or skills.

WHAT IS ACTIVE LEARNING AND WHY IS IT IMPORTANT?

The term "active learning" has been more understood intuitively than defined in commonly accepted terms. As a result many educators say that all learning is active. Are not students actively involved while listening to lectures or presentations in the classroom? Research however, suggests that students **must** do more than just listen: They must read, write, discuss or be engaged in solving problems (Chickering and Gamson 1987). Further, students must be engaged in such higher-order thinking tasks as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, to be actively involved. Thus strategies promoting **activities that involve students in doing things and thinking about what they are doing** may be called **active learning**. Use of these techniques in the classroom is vital because of their powerful impact upon students' learning. Studies

have shown that students prefer strategies promoting active learning to traditional lectures. Other research studies evaluating students' achievement have demonstrated that many strategies promoting active learning are comparable to lectures in promoting the mastery of content but superior to lectures in promoting the development of students' skills in thinking and writing. Some cognitive research has shown that a large number of individuals have learning styles that are best approached using pedagogical techniques other than lecturing.

Active learning stands in contrast to "standard" modes of instruction in which teachers do most of the talking and students are passive. *When you have learned something you have changed your brain physically.* Active learning refers to techniques where students do more than simply listen to a lecture. Students are DOING something including discovering, processing, and applying information. Active learning "derives from two basic assumptions:

(1) that learning is by nature an active endeavour and

(2) that different people learn in different ways"

(Meyers and Jones, 1993).

It is important to remember, however, that lecture does have its place and that active learning cannot happen without content or objectives. research has made it abundantly clear that the quality of teaching and learning is improved when students have enough **opportunities to clarify, question, apply, and consolidate new knowledge**. There are many teaching strategies that can be employed to actively engage students in the learning process. Some of these are group discussions, problem solving, case studies, role plays, journal writing, and structured learning groups. The benefits of using such activities include improved critical thinking skills, increased retention and absorption of new information, increased motivation, and improved interpersonal skills. However, research also indicates that by re-organising or adapting the ways they present material to students, instructors can create an environment in which knowledge retention is significantly increased; of course, such situations require the cooperation of the students themselves. One of the best methods is to implement so-called *active learning*.

Active learning is involving students directly and actively in the learning process itself. This means that instead of simply receiving information verbally and visually, students are receiving, participating **and** doing. Thus *active learning* is:

- *engaging students in doing something other than listening to a lecture and taking notes*

- *students may be involved in talking and listening to one another,*

- *or writing, reading and reflecting individually or in small groups*

Small group activities are educationally sound as long as they are carefully designed with realism and learn from each other. With the group, brainstorm ideas on what makes small groups an effective teaching and learning strategy—what are some basic considerations for positive results? Record these ideas on the whiteboard. After brainstorming ideas, provide participants with handout of small group guidelines.

WHAT ARE THE ELEMENTS OF ACTIVE LEARNING METHODOLOGIES IN THE CLASSROOM?

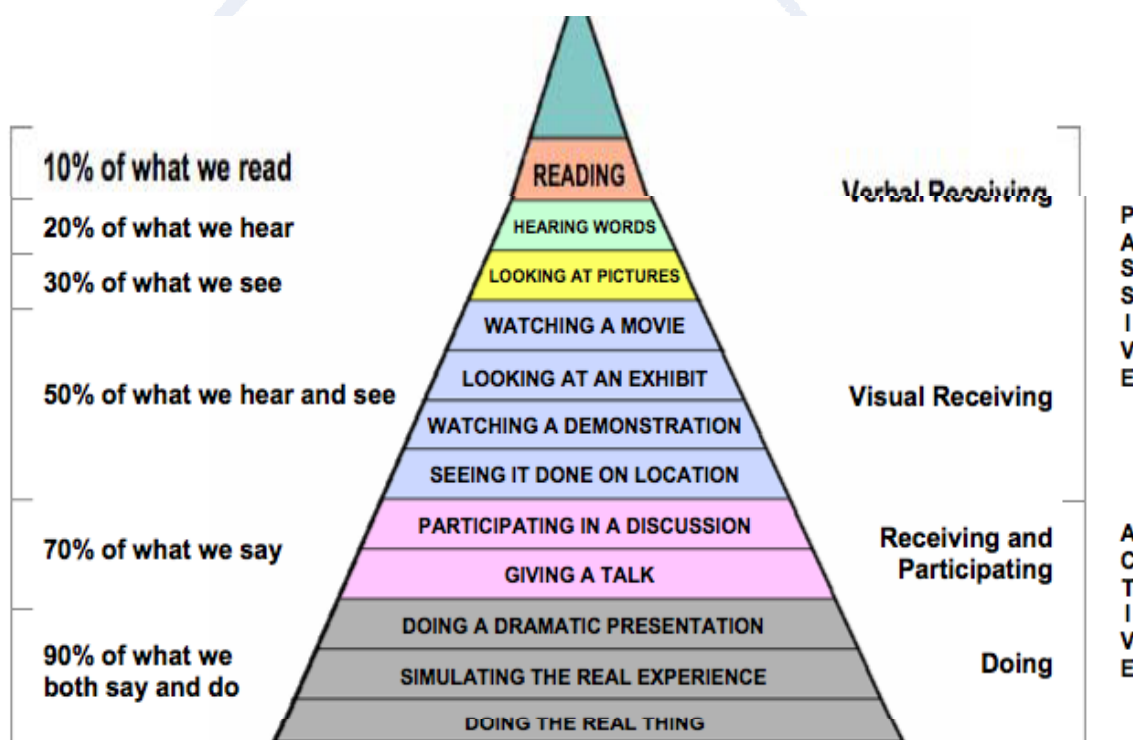
Active learning methodologies necessitate that the student must find opportunities to meaningfully talk and listen, write, read, and reflect on the content, ideas, issues, and concerns of an academic subject. (Meyers & Jones, 1993). Bonwell and Eison (1991) state that some merits of active learning are:

- Students are involved in more than listening,
 - less emphasis is placed on transmitting information and
 - greater emphasis on developing students' skills,
 - students are involved in higher-order thinking (analysis, synthesis, evaluation),
 - students are engaged in activities (e.g., reading discussing, writing), and
 - greater emphasis is placed on students' exploration of their own attitudes and values.
- “Active learning shifts the focus from the teacher to the student and from delivery of subject content by teacher to active engagement with the material by the student. Through appropriate inputs from the teacher, students learn and practice how to apprehend knowledge and use them meaningfully.”

CONE OF LEARNING

WE TEND TO REMEMBER OUR LEVEL OF INVOLVEMENT

(developed and revised by Bruce Hyland from material by Edgar Dale)



Edgar Dale, *Audio-Visual Methods in Teaching* (3rd Edition). Holt, Rinehart, and Winston (1969).

Well if Active Learning works, why don't more teachers use it?

- We tend to teach the way we were taught ourselves, rather than in the way that work best.
- We know too much, and rather enjoy explaining. So when one sets activities, listen carefully to learners as they work, this can be even more enjoyable and less hard work than explaining, and the feedback is very informative.

I. In the context of the college classroom, what are the major characteristics associated with active learning?

A. Some of the major characteristics associated with active learning strategies include:

1. Students are involved in more than passive listening
2. Students are engaged in activities (e.g., reading, discussing, writing)
3. There is less emphasis placed on information transmission and greater emphasis placed on developing student skills.
4. There is greater emphasis placed on the exploration of attitudes and values.
5. Student motivation is increased (especially for adult learners).
6. Students can receive immediate feedback from their instructor.
7. Students are involved in higher order thinking (analysis, synthesis, evaluation).

B. In summary, *in the context of the college classroom, active learning involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing.*

C. A conceptual framework encompassing active learning might be a continuum that moves from simple tasks on one end to complex tasks on the other. This is of course, an artificial, oversimplified construct, but it does provide both visual and conceptual model that is useful for designing courses that maximize students' intellectual engagement. Neither end of the continuum is considered to be "better" or more "desirable" than the other. Simple tasks are defined as short and relatively unstructured, while complex tasks are of longer duration-- perhaps the whole class period or longer-- and are carefully planned and structured.

Figure 1

Simple tasks ----- Complex tasks
The Active Learning Continuum

Why is active learning important?

A. The amount of information retained by students declines substantially after ten minutes (Thomas 1972).

B. Research comparing lecture versus discussion techniques was summarized in the report *Teaching and Learning in the Classroom: A Review of the Research Literature* prepared by the National Center for Research to Improve Postsecondary Teaching and Learning (McKeachie et. al., 1987). The review concluded that In those experiments involving measures of retention of information after the end of a course, measures of problem solving, thinking, attitude change, or motivation for further learning, the results tend to show differences favouring discussion methods over lecture. (p. 70)

C. Numerous researchers and national reports also discussed the use of active learning strategies in the classroom. Consider the following statements:

All genuine learning is active, not passive. It is a process of discovery in which the student is the main agent, not the teacher.

(Adler 1982)

Students learn what they care about and remember what they understand.

(Ericksen 1984, p. 51)

Learning is not a spectator sport. Students do not learn much just by sitting in class listening to teachers, memorizing pre-packaged assignments, and spitting out answers. They must talk about what they are learning, write about it, relate it to past experiences, apply it to their daily lives. They must make what they learn part of themselves.

What obstacles or barriers prevent faculty from using active learning strategies?

Six commonly mentioned obstacles to using active learning strategies include:

- A. You cannot cover as much course content in the time available;
- B. Devising active learning strategies takes too much pre-class preparation;
- C. Large class sizes prevents implementation of active learning strategies;
- D. Most instructors think of themselves as being good lecturers;
- E. There is a lack of materials or equipment needed to support active learning approaches;
- F. Students resist non-lecture approaches.

IV. How can these barriers be overcome?

A. We believe that there are two primary sets of obstacles that prevent faculty from using active learning strategies in the classroom: (1) the six potential obstacles noted above, and (2) the fact that using active learning strategies involves risk

B. With respect to the six commonly reported obstacles, the following should be noted:

1. The use of active learning strategies reduces the amount of available lecture time that can be devoted to content coverage. Faculty who regularly use active learning strategies typically find other ways to ensure that students learn assigned course content (e.g., using reading and writing assignments, through their classroom examinations, etc.)

2. The amount of pre-class preparation time needed to implement active learning strategies will be greater than that needed to "recycle old lectures;" it will not necessarily take any more time than that needed to create thorough and thoughtful new lectures.

3. Large class size may restrict the use of certain active learning strategies (e.g., it is difficult to involve all students in discussion in groups larger than 40) but certainly not all. For example, large classes can be divided into small groups for discussion activities, writing assignments can be read and critiqued by students instead of the instructor, etc.. See (Weimer 1987) for several excellent articles on how this can be done.

4. Most instructors see themselves as good lecturers and therefore see no reason to change. Though lecturing is potentially a useful means of transmitting information, teaching does not equal learning; this can be seen clearly in the painful disparity between what we think we have effectively taught, and what students indicate they have learned on the examination papers that we grade.

5. The lack of materials or equipment needed to support active learning can be a barrier to the use of some active learning strategies but certainly not all.

For example, asking students to summarize in writing the material they have read or to form pairs to evaluate statements or assertions does not require any equipment.

6. Students resist non-lecturing approaches because active learning alternatives provide a sharp contrast to the very familiar passive listening role to which they have become accustomed. With explicit instruction in how to actively participate and learn in less-traditional modes, students soon come to favor the new approaches.

AN ACTIVE LEARNING MODULE

Please read the instructions given below. After fully reading the instruction sheet you may ask any questions you have.

Instructions:

INDIVIDUAL WORK

1. Take 20 minutes over the following exercise.
2. Please read the above passage (Eg. refer book page 45, 2nd para to page 47, 3rd para.)
3. As you read underline the words you find difficult to understand.
4. Check the meaning of the words you underlined using the dictionary.
5. Would you like to read the passage again? Please do so if you do not understand
6. Please answer the following questions:

1. What are some questions that come to your mind when you read this passage?
2. What are some important ideas in this passage?
3. Connect these ideas in your note book as a mind map.
4. What is the most important idea/ fact here?
5. Why do you think so?
7. What is your feeling about this piece of writing?
 1. Does it connect to your life in any way?
 2. Would you like to change the beginning? / ending?
8. What do you feel like doing now? (This question is to help you understand yourself. You may or not be able to do what you feel like.)
9. Please end this part of the exercise when the bell rings. It is time for some discussion

1. SMALL GROUP

10. Now sit in small groups. Class wise, not more than 5 to a group. Take 15 minutes for this part of the exercise.

1. Share answers to the question 6d and 6e.
2. Discuss - What is the author trying to say?
11. End when the bell rings.

1. LARGE GROUP

12. Gather together as a class and discuss your questions with the teacher and also listen to her views. The teacher begins by asking questions for each group to answer

1. Is there any question you wish to share with the whole class?
2. Say one sentence about the manner in which your small group discussion went
 1. Did People listen to each other?
 2. Was it interesting?
 3. Did everyone participate?
13. What would you like to do next to take your learning forward? An experiment, more reading, more discussion, making a model?

Cooperative

Learning


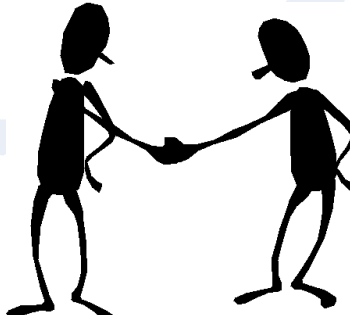


Cooperative learning is a successful teaching strategy in which small teams, each with students of different levels of ability, use a variety of learning activities to improve their understanding of a subject. Each member of a team is responsible not only for learning what is taught but also for helping teammates learn, thus creating an atmosphere of achievement. Students work through the assignment until all group members successfully understand and complete it.

Elements of Cooperative Learning

It is only under certain conditions that cooperative efforts may be expected to be more productive than competitive and individualistic efforts. Those conditions are:

<p>1. Positive Interdependence (sink or swim together)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Each group member's efforts are required and indispensable for group success • Each group member has a unique contribution to make to the joint effort because of his or her resources and/or role and task responsibilities 	
<p>2. Face-to-Face Interaction (promote each other's success)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orally explaining how to solve problems • Teaching one's knowledge to other • Checking for understanding 	

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Discussing concepts being learned• Connecting present with past learning	
<p>3. Individual & Group Accountability (no hitchhiking! no social loafing)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Keeping the size of the group small. The smaller the size of the group, the greater the individual accountability may be.• Giving an individual test to each student.• Randomly examining students orally by calling on one student to present his or her group's work to the teacher (in the presence of the group) or to the entire class.• Observing each group and recording the frequency with which each member-contributes to the group's work.• Assigning one student in each group the role of checker. The checker asks other group members to explain the reasoning and rationale underlying group answers.• Having students teach what they learned to someone else.	
<p>4. Interpersonal & Small-Group Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Social skills must be taught:<ul style="list-style-type: none">○ Leadership○ Decision-making○ Trust-building○ Communication○ Conflict-management skills	

5. Group Processing

- Group members discuss how well they are achieving their goals and maintaining effective working relationships
- Describe what member actions are helpful and not helpful
- Make decisions about what behaviors to continue or change



Why use Cooperative Learning?

Research has shown that cooperative learning techniques:

- promote student learning and academic achievement
- increase student retention
- enhance student satisfaction with their learning experience
- help students develop skills in oral communication
- develop students' social skills
- promote student self-esteem
- help to promote positive race relations

Class Activities that use Cooperative Learning

Dr. Spencer Kagan / Kagan Publishing and Professional Development.
www.KaganOnline.com

1. **Jigsaw** - Groups with five students are set up. Each group member is assigned some unique material to learn and then to teach to his group members. To help in the learning students across the class working on the same sub-section get together to decide what is important and how to teach it. After practice in these "expert" groups the original groups reform and students teach each other. (Wood, p. 17) Tests or assessment follows.

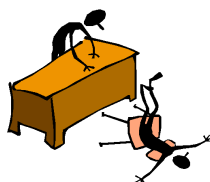


2. **Think-Pair-Share** - Involves a three step cooperative structure. During the first step individuals think silently about a question posed by the instructor. Individuals pair up during the second step and exchange thoughts. In the third step, the pairs

share their responses with other pairs, other teams, or the entire group.



3. Three-Step Interview (Kagan) - Each member of a team chooses another member to be a partner. During the first step individuals interview their partners by asking clarifying questions. During the second step partners reverse the roles. For the final step, members share their partner's response with the team.



4. RoundRobin Brainstorming (Kagan)- Class is divided into small groups (4 to 6) with one person appointed as the recorder. A question is posed with many answers and students are given time to think about answers. After the "think time," members of the team share responses with one another round robin style. The recorder writes down the answers of the group members. The person next to the recorder starts and each person in the group in order gives an answer until time is called.

Blended Learning

A blended learning approach combines face to face classroom methods with computer-mediated activities to form an integrated instructional approach. For example, a blended approach to a traditional, face to face course might mean that the class meets once per week instead of the usual three-session format. Learning activities that otherwise would have taken place during classroom time can be moved online.

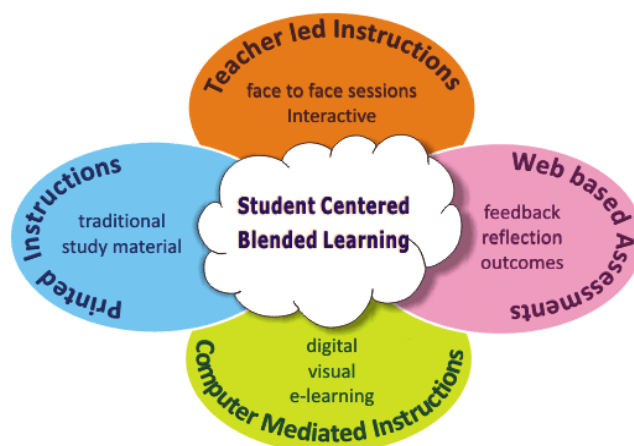
Why Blend?

The goal of a blended approach is to join the best aspects of both face to face and online instruction. Classroom time can be used to engage students in advanced interactive experiences. Meanwhile, the online portion of the course can provide students with multimedia-rich content at any time of day, anywhere the student has internet access. This allows for an increase in scheduling flexibility for students.

How to Blend?

There are no rules in place to prescribe what the ideal blend might be (Bonk reference). The term "blended" encompasses a broad continuum, and can include any integration of face to face and online instructional content. The blend of face to face

and online materials will vary depending on the content, the needs of the students, and the preferences of the instructor.



Flipped classroom

Flip teaching (or flipped classroom) is a form of blended learning which encompasses any use of technology to leverage the learning in a classroom, so a teacher can spend more time interacting with students instead of lecturing. This is most commonly being done using teacher-created videos that students view outside of class time. It is also known as **backwards classroom**, **reverse instruction**, **flipping the classroom**, and **reverse teaching**.

The traditional pattern of teaching has been to assign students to read a section of a textbook after-school, which will then be discussed the next day in class. Students would then be assigned an assessment for homework to demonstrate their mastery of the topic. In flip teaching, the student first studies the topic by himself, typically using video lessons created by the instructor or shared by another educator, such as those provided by the Khan Academy. In the classroom, the pupil then tries to apply the knowledge by solving problems and doing practical work. The role of the classroom teacher is then to tutor the student when they become stuck, rather than to impart the initial lesson. This allows time inside the class to be used for additional learning-based activities, including use of differentiated instruction and project-based learning.

Flip teaching allows more hands-on time with the instructor guiding the students, allowing them to assist the students when they are assimilating information and creating new ideas (upper end of Bloom's Taxonomy). Flipping the classroom has also proved to lessen the drop out rate among students, and an increase in the amount of information that the students learn. Many people speculate that flipping the classroom would be harmful to students who do not have access to the internet outside of school. However, many teachers have found ways around this by burning CDs, and giving out thumb drives with the videos on it.

Credits:

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Inputs on Blended learning and Flipped classroom from Wikipedia and notes given to me by

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What is my Learning Style Preference?

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The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2013

Official Conference Proceedings 2013

A large, faint watermark of the iafor logo is centered on the page. It consists of two overlapping circular arcs, one in light blue and one in light red, with the lowercase text 'iafor' in a light blue serif font positioned in the center of the overlapping area.

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Introduction

It is important to understand the way students learn because it helps to improve their performance. A course that is compatible to the ways students like to learn can be developed if students' learning style preferences are identified. Students' different abilities in comprehending matters make them different from each other. Their different background, strengths and weaknesses, interests and ambitions, sense of responsibility, level of motivation, and approaches in learning further distinguish them. Some students may easily lose interest in a lesson if the teachers do all the talking (one-way interaction), and some may even prefer this kind of approach because they only need to listen to what the teachers going to teach in class. In addition, teaching methods also vary---some teachers mainly lecture, some focus more on hands-on-activities, some emphasize on memory, while others more on understanding. When there is a mismatch between students' learning style and teachers' teaching style, students will do poorly in examinations, become inattentive in class, lose interest on the course and in the worst case scenario, students can even drop out from school (Felder, 1996). Thus, it is very crucial for teachers to understand their students' learning style preferences before asking them to do any course.

Learning style preference (LSP) is defined as a set of cognitive features, affective and physiological factors that stabilize students' perceptions, interests and responses to the learning environment (Keefe, 1979). It is an instructive condition that students are most likely to learn (Stewart & Felicatti, 1992). It also refers to how students prefer to learn. Most of students are uninformed about their LSP, and if they are not given the chance to identify their LSP, they are most likely fail to start learning in new approaches (Merrill, 2000). By knowing their LSP, students will become aware of their strengths and weaknesses in learning which then can be used to overcome problems encountered in learning (Coffield, Moseley, Hall & Ecclestone, 2004). It is also very essential for instructors or lecturers to reveal their students' learning style so that they are aware of it (Pask, 1976). Thus, LSP plays an important role in the learning of a language.

There are various perspectives on LSP that can be generalized into these three general categories, namely information processing, personality patterns and social interaction (Conner, 2004). Information processing refers to how students sense, think, solve problem and remember information. Kolb's Learning Style Inventory and Gregorc's Mind Styles Model are two LSP models/perspectives that are commonly describe information processing in detailed. Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (Kolb, 1984) includes the followings:

Learning Style	Description
<i>Feeling and Watching (Diverging)</i>	Students are able to work in situations requiring ideas-generation, e.g. brainstorming because they have infinite cultural interests and love to gather information. They love people; they are imaginative and emotional, and also are good in arts. They perform better in groups, have an open mind and prefer to receive personal comments.
<i>Watching and Thinking (Assimilating)</i>	Students prefer a concise and logical approach. For them, ideas and concepts are more essential than people. In formal learning situations, these students prefer readings, lectures, investigating analytical models and having time to think.
<i>Doing and Thinking (Converging)</i>	Students prefer technical tasks and are less focused on people. They use their learning to find solutions to practical issues. They can decide and solve problems as well as experiment new ideas.
<i>Doing and Feeling (Accommodating)</i>	Students prefer to take a practical, experimental approach. They prefer to work in groups and perform better in tasks involving actions and initiatives.

Figure 1: Kolb's Learning Style Inventory

Mind Styles Model classifies four major learning types (Gregorc, 1985), i.e. (a) *Concrete Sequential*: Students with this learning style prefer order, logical sequence, following directions, certainty and getting facts. They perform best in a structured learning environment, relying on others and applying ideas in pragmatic ways. They cannot work well in groups, (b) *Abstract Random*: This group of students performs best in a personalized environment and able to work in groups, and they cannot learn in stressful environment and accept criticism even though it is a constructive criticism, (c) *Abstract Sequential*: Students with this learning style like people to listen to their points; they prefer to analyze situations before making decision and prefer logic explanations. These students can work alone because they cannot work with people of differing opinions and easily feel bored with repetitive tasks, and (d) *Concrete Random*: This group of students experiments to find answers; they take risks and use their intuition to solve problem. They learn best in competitive and autonomous learning environment.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and Keirsey Temperament Sorter are among the most popular personality patterns analyses that refer to attention, emotion and values. The analyses predict the way students react and feel about different situations. The

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator categorizes students according to their preference, namely (a) introversion- interest on concepts and ideas, (b) extroversion- interest on actions, objects and people, (c) sensing- perceive quick, real, practical facts of experience and life, (d) intuition- perceive possibilities, relationships, and meanings of experiences, (e) thinking- make decisions objectively and impersonally, (f) feeling- make decisions subjectively and personally, (g) judging- act in a planned and decisive way, and (h) perceiving- act in spontaneous and flexible way. Students with different type of preferences are likely to respond differently in different teaching styles. For example, extroverts prefer to work in groups, whereas introverts prefer working alone; sensors prefer concrete learning experiences and clearly defined objectives and they dislike theories; intuitors prefer instructions based on understanding concepts, and they dislike memorization of facts, rote substitution and repetitive calculations; thinkers prefer logical and organized presentations of course material and feedback related to their work; feelers enjoy being with people who have a good relationship with them and those who appreciate their efforts; judges, on the other hand, prefer well-structured instructions with clear goals and objectives; whereas perceivers prefer to have choice and flexibility in their tasks and dislike rigid timelines (Felder, Felder & Dietz, 2002).

Keirsey Temperament Sorter groups students' characteristics (Keirsey, 1998, as cited in Putintseva, 2006) into:

- (a) *Idealists*: Students can sometime become leaders, and often speak according to their imaginations.
- (b) *Guardians*: Students carry out tasks and actions with caution and careful preparation. They believe in rules and regulations.
- (c) *Rational*: Students are able to organize and plan, invent and configure operations. They are capable and practical.
- (d) *Artisans*: Students have natural talent for all the arts, e.g. fine arts, dramatic, athletic, military, political and financial arts. They make free, spontaneous actions for quick and effective results.

In addition, McCarthy and Gardner McCarthy (1990) categorized four learning styles, namely innovative learners (they enjoy social interaction, work as a team and want to make the world a better place), analytic learners (they develop intellectuality while learning, are tolerant and thoughtful), common sense learners (they prefer finding solutions, value useful things, are kinesthetic, practical and undemanding), and dynamic learners (they process information from different sources, and are enthusiastic and adventurous). Gardner's model identifies three types of LSP (Gardner, 1985), namely visual learners---need to see teachers' body language and facial expression to grasp fully the content of the lesson, prefer visual displays and will take detailed notes to understand information, auditory learners---prefer verbal lectures, discussion, and listen to what others have to say, and tactile/kinesthetic learners---learn best through a hands-on-approach, and have the difficulty to focus for long periods and can get easily bored.

Social interaction is another category of LSP. It deals with students' attitudes, habits, and strategies in doing their work, participation in learning environment. For this category, the Reichmann-Grasha model is one of the models used to identify students' LSP. It focuses on students' attitudes toward learning, classroom activities, teachers and peers (Reichmann & Grasha, 1974). This model identifies students as in Figure 2. :

Learning Style	Description
<i>Avoidant students</i>	This group of students is likely to perform badly in learning because they have high absenteeism, organize their work poorly and are irresponsible towards their learning.
<i>Participative students</i>	The students are accountable to self-learning and relate well to their peers.
<i>Competitive students</i>	The students love to compete for rewards and recognitions.
<i>Collaborative students</i>	This group of students loves to work harmoniously with their peers.
<i>Dependent students</i>	This group of students loves attention and will become frustrated whenever they are not directly addressed in the classroom
<i>Independent students</i>	These students enjoy working alone and require little assistance from the teachers.

Figure 2: Reichmann-Grasha Model

The list of LSP models continues because teachers or people involved in education realize the importance of learning style in learning environment. Various findings also support the evolution of these models because the studies show that matching LSP and teaching styles can profoundly enhance academic achievement, students' attitudes and behaviours at any level of education, be it in primary or secondary school level (Griggs & Dunn, 1984; Smith & Renzulli, 1984), at the tertiary level (Brown, 1978; Charkins, OToole & Wetzel, 1985), and significantly in foreign or second language classrooms (Oxford, Ehrman & Lavine, 1991; Wallace & Oxford, 1992). It is also found that students will feel stress, frustration and burnout if their LSP is inconsistent with the teaching style (Smith & Renzulli, 1984). Yet, when the mode of teaching style applied in a classroom is varied, students will learn more information (Stice, 1987). Still, to achieve effective foreign and second language learning, instructional methods used in the classroom should be balanced, and this can only be achieved by structuring the classroom according to students' LSP (Oxford, 1990). Thus, it is very vital for teachers to identify students' LSP before they design a course.

As discussed in earlier paragraphs, there are many perspectives of LSP that teachers can use to describe their students' LSP. However, for this study, Reid's Perceptual Learning-Style Preferences will be used to describe the foreign and second language learners in Universiti Malaysia Sabah. Reid (1987) has proposed six LSP that is elicited in the Perceptual Learning-Style Preferences Questionnaire, namely *Individual Major LSP*, *Kinesthetic Major LSP*, *Group Major LSP*, *Visual Major LSP*,

Auditory Major LSP, and *Tactile Major LSP*. This questionnaire is designed to identify the ways students learn the best. Reid (1987) described *Individual Major LSP* refers to students who will learn best when they are not in group. They can perform positively by themselves without the help of their peers, whereas students with *Group Major LSP* need to work in a group or at least with one other student because they prefer group interaction and class work with other students, and they remember information better when they work in a group because the stimulation they get from the group work helps them to learn and understand information better. *Kinesthetic Major LSP*, on the other hand, refers to students who will learn best by involving physically in classroom activities. These students will remember and learn well when they actively participate in activities, field trips, and role-playing in the classroom. Then students with *Visual Major LSP* will learn best when they see words; they prefer more to read than to listen as they understand better when they see words--whether the words in books, on the whiteboards or workbooks. They prefer note-taking. Another LSP proposed by Reid is *Auditory Major LSP*. Unlike the *Visual Major LSP*, *Auditory Major LSP* refers to students who learn best through listening. They learn from hearing words of spoken or oral explanations. They learn best through discussion and will remember best when they read-aloud the information. Next, *Tactile Major LSP* is another LSP proposed by Reid. Students with *Tactile Major LSP* will learn best when they have the opportunity to do 'hands-on' activities. Any physical involvement-related-activities in the classroom will help these students to understand better new information and writing-notes and instructions help them to remember information better. Also, Reid (1987) did a study on the learning style preferences of ESL students in the United States (U.S.) and found that these students preferred *Kinesthetic* and *Tactile* learning styles. The majority of them illustrated a negative preference for *Group* learning style. The students' different learning style preferences were related to their gender, length of time studying in the U.S., field of study, educational background, TOEFL score and age.

In addition, Mulalic, Shah and Ahmad (1985) did a study of the learning style of the ESL students in University Tenaga Nasional (UNITEN) and they established the notion of the importance of determining students' learning styles and making sure students are aware of the different methods of learning. They also suggested that a variety of teaching materials should be implemented in the classroom in order to cater the students' different learning styles. According to them students' attitude and achievement can also be influenced by their learning styles.

In conclusion, LSP is very much a significant factor in learning environment because it facilitates teachers to incorporate teaching styles suited for their students. Discovering the students learning style preference will let students know their weaknesses and strengths, and any problems encountered in learning can perhaps be managed and more successful learners can be produced with the key attention given to identifying their LSP.

The Background of the Study

Internal or external factors are always highlighted as the causes for students' failure to perform in the foreign and second language classroom---mainly affect students'

motivation to learn the languages. However, between the two, external factors, such as learning environment, materials used, teachers' teaching styles play a major role as they are the determinants for the ups and downs of the internal factors (Bandura, 1993; Graham, 1994; Dornyei, 2001). In designing a course, teachers, or in this study, lecturers, rely solely on the general guidelines given to them that normally conforms to the real-working environment. A course is designed to suit the basic skills needed for the undergraduates to survive in the working world---the skills are speaking, writing, listening and reading. These skills are carefully employed in a course, and sometimes literally taught in its own specific course. For example, in Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS), for the English Language, the skills are focused in an individual course or level which only focuses on one or two specific skills, e.g. Level 3 of the English Language course focuses on reading and writing skills, whereas Level 2 of the language course focuses on speaking skill. The foreign language courses, on the other hand, incorporate all the four skills into a level---all the three courses or levels of a foreign language course has all these four basic skills, i.e. reading, writing, speaking and listening. For instance, the Spanish Language course features all the four basic skills in each level of their course---there are three levels of the Spanish Language course, i.e. Spanish Levels 1, 2 and 3.

About 130 students doing the Spanish Language Level 2 (70 students) and the English Language Level 3 (60 students) of Centre for the Promotion of Knowledge and Language Learning (PPIB), Universiti Malaysia Sabah, were selected for this study. All of the students were selected based on convenience sampling as they are the only groups available at the time the study was conducted. The Spanish Language Level 2 focuses on the four basic skills, i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking, and all these skills are applied in the assessments as well as in the teaching techniques. The lecturer of this language course uses a lot of written and oral approaches, where every lesson taught is either found in the textbook they use or written on the whiteboard, and explanations of these lessons are done orally in order to enhance students' understanding. She also applies a lot of group work activities in class, such as role-play and interview, in order to improve students' speaking skill. However, most of the teaching techniques rely on written works. As for the English Language Level 2, the focus of this level would be the reading and writing skills. Unlike the Spanish Language lecturer, the lecturer of the English Language seldom uses the textbook for she would like the students to read the lesson in the textbook first before coming to class. In the classroom, the lecturer will teach and explain the lessons in the textbook verbally and seldom refer to the textbook. The students are also encouraged to ask questions.

Reid's Perceptual Learning Style Preference questionnaire (PLSP) (1987) is used to collect the data for this study because it is designed to identify students' learning style preference (LSP) and there are six variables or LSP proposed by Reid (1984), namely the *Individual Major LSP*, *Kinesthetic Major LSP*, *Group Major LSP*, *Visual Major LSP*, *Auditory Major LSP*, and *Tactile Major LSP*. PLSP has 30 items, i.e. five items for each LSP..

As discussed earlier, the design of the language courses in Universiti Malaysia Sabah (UMS) is based on the skills needed for the undergraduates to perform well in their work, and none of these courses are tailored according to students' needs, which perhaps become to be one of the falling factors for the question why students cannot perform in the language courses. In addition, students' different background may also contribute to the difficulty of designing a course that suits everybody. Thus, it is very important for lecturers designing the language course to identify students' learning style preference (LSP). When students' LSP is identified, an effective course can be developed because relevant teaching techniques related to students' LSP can be adopted in the course. As it is, the current language courses are designed based on the requirements set by the lecturers following on the assumptions that students can master all the skills effectively. In reality, this is not what has happened. Students still fail to perform in the languages and something should be done in order to curb this problem. Therefore, this study is essential as it can be used as a platform for language lecturers to design a course that suits students' LSP.

This study attempts to answer these following questions, i.e. (1) What is the students' LSP? And (2) Which of the LSP is the most prevalence among the students? Thus, the objectives of this study are to identify the students' LSP and to determine which of the learning style preference is the most prevalent among the students.

Although this study tries to determine whether or not LSP should be taken into consideration in the designing of a language course, it only focuses on two specific groups, i.e. 70 students doing the Spanish Language Level 2 and 60 students doing the English Language Level 3. Thus, the findings of this study cannot be generalized to other groups.

THE DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Reid's Perceptual Learning Style Preferences Questionnaire (PLSPQ) (see Appendix 1) was adopted in this study. The questionnaire has 30 multiple-choice items where students need to indicate their responses by choosing a point along a Likert Scale that best corresponded to their feelings. Items 1, 7, 9, 17 and 20 elicit the *Auditory* LSP; items 6, 10, 12, 24, 29 elicit the *Visual* LSP; items 11, 14, 16, 22 and 25 elicit the *Tactile* LSP; items 3, 4, 5, 21 and 23 elicit the *Group* LSP; items 2, 8, 15, 19 and 26 elicit the *Kinesthetic* LSP; and items 13, 18, 27, 28 and 30 elicit the *Individual* LSP.

Next, the questionnaire was given to 130 students, where all were then collected to be analyzed. The data were analyzed according to the frequency count of each point of the Likert Scale used in the questionnaire. Reid (1984) assigned a numerical index score for each point of the Likert Scale, i.e. 5 for *strongly agree*, 4 for *agree*, 3 for *undecided*, 2 for *disagree* and 1 for *strongly disagree*. The students' scores for each item in the questionnaire were added up and the total scores were used to determine the students' LSP. The scores were then divided into three categories which are *major learning style preference*, *minor learning style preference* and *negligible learning style preference*.

Based on the fact that there are five items of each LSP and the frequency of LSP of each item was identified by a five-point Likert Scale, the total cumulative score ranges from 5 (the minimum cumulative score, 1 X 5) to 25 (the maximum cumulative score, 5 X 5). To get the range of scores for each scale, the minimum score of each scale was subtracted from the maximum cumulative score of each scale, i.e. 25 – 5. Therefore, the score range for each scale is 20. This range of 20 (25 – 5) was then divided into three categories, namely *major learning style preference*, *minor learning style preference* and *negligible learning style preference*, i.e. the range of score for the scale (20) was divided by these three categories (20 ÷ 3). Thus, the range of score for each category is 7. Based on this range, it was determined that the students' LSP is *negligible learning style preference* if the score is 0 to 6, *minor learning style preference* if the score is 7 to 13, and *major learning style preference* if the score is 14 to 20 (see Table 1).

Table 1: Range of Scores for the Students' Learning Style Preference

Category	Score
<i>Major learning style preference</i>	14 – 20
<i>Minor learning style preference</i>	7 – 13
<i>Negligible learning style preference</i>	0 – 6

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Tables 2(a) and (b) illustrate the findings of this study.

Table 2 (a): The English Language Students' Learning Style Preference

Category	Learning Style (LS)
<i>Major learning style preference</i>	<i>Group & Visual</i>
<i>Minor learning style preference</i>	<i>Kinesthetic, Auditory & Tactile</i>
<i>Negligible learning style preference</i>	<i>Individual</i>

Table 2 (b): The Spanish Language Students' Learning Style Preference

Category	Learning Style Preference (LS)
<i>Major learning style preference</i>	<i>Group, Kinesthetic & Tactile</i>
<i>Minor learning style preference</i>	<i>Visual & Auditory</i>
<i>Negligible learning style preference</i>	<i>Individual</i>

Tables 2 (a) and (b) show the students' learning style preference where the major learning style preferences for the students doing the English Language are *Group LS* and *Visual LS*, and for students doing the Spanish Language, their major learning style preferences are *Group LS*, *Kinesthetic LS* and *Tactile LS*. Both groups of students prefer *Group LS* and this is true because from the researchers' observation, it is found that the students perform better in group work activities than individual. Perhaps this is due to the ideas that they can teach each other, share knowledge, and learn from each other without feeling any anxiety because they are comfortable with each other. Also, the idea to discuss or ask lecturers for any doubts or questions regarding the lessons makes group work activities less pressured and looked forward by the students as they can freely discuss and clear any doubts or questions relating to the lessons with their peers.

Other major learning style preferences of these two groups of students are *Visual LS*, *Kinesthetic LS* and *Tactile LS*. *Visual LS* is the most preferred learning style preference of the English Language students. This explains why many of the students have problems to understand the lesson taught in class because the English Language lecturer seldom refers to the textbook and she also seldom writes notes on the whiteboard. Most of the time, the lecturer explains the lessons verbally in class with the idea that the students had read the textbook before coming to class. Students with *Visual LS* rely on words, be it in the textbook or on the whiteboard, to comprehend the lesson taught verbally in class. They can learn and understand best if the verbal explanations are also shown in words. The Spanish Language students, on the other hand, prefer *Kinesthetic LS* and *Tactile LS*. Students with these learning style preferences learn best if they can get involved or participate actively in any activities in the classroom. They need to practise what they have learnt in order to have maximum understanding of the lessons. The active participation from the students in communicative activities in the Spanish Language class, e.g. pair works and group works, supports their learning styles, i.e. *Kinesthetic LS* and *Tactile LS*. Perhaps this explains why *Group LS* is one of their major learning style preferences.

Next, Tables (a) and (b) also show that the minor learning style preferences of the students doing the English Language are *Kinesthetic LS*, *Auditory LS* and *Tactile LS*, whereas the minor learning style preferences of the Spanish Language students are *Visual LS* and *Auditory LS*. For the researchers, *Kinesthetic LS* and *Tactile LS* are less preferred by the English Language students because of the nature of the course itself which focuses on reading and writing. Writing essays and the answers for the comprehension part of reading individually has somehow affected the students' choice of learning style preferences. This perhaps due to the fact that they have to do the writings during class time, and this results in pressured environment for them because they have to submit the writings at the end of the class whether they can or cannot write. The researchers realize that the English Language students prefer to do the writings at home (not during class time) because they can have their writings checked by peers who have a good command in the English Language before submitting them to the lecturer. Also, by doing the writings at home, they can find examples of the writings online. These are the strategies that the students do in order to reduce mistakes in their writings, and this will surely help them to get better grades. All these reasons/strategies perhaps cause ₄₆ *Kinesthetic LS* and *Tactile LS* to become

less preferred by the English Language students. On the contrary, the Spanish Language students prefer more the *Kinesthetic LS* and *Tactile LS*, and it is *the Auditory LS* and *Visual LS* that are less preferred by the Spanish Language students. The researchers feel that these two learning style preferences are less preferred because unlike English, Spanish is a language that the students can only learn and practise in class with other peers; it is not a language that is widely spoken or used outside of the classroom, unlike English, where the language is extensively spoken and used in or outside the classrooms. So it is very difficult for students to find a setting where they can use the language widely. Moreover, the students show less interest in listening activities as they find it difficult to understand the pronunciation of the native speakers. The lecturer also has the difficulty to get suitable audio activities for the teaching material. Therefore, it is very important for students to practise (*Kinesthetic LS* and *Tactile LS*) the language in class; listening (*Auditory*) to the explanations of the lessons in class and seeing (*Visual*) the words in the textbooks or whiteboard do not really help the students to improve their proficiency and fluency in the language. It may help them in their foundation, i.e. vocabulary and grammar, but to actually becoming proficient and fluent in the language, the students need to apply what they have learnt in class into practise, and this can be done in activities involving ‘hands-on’ events or physical responses such as a group project or a drama (role-play).

Also, Tables 2 (a) and (b) show that the students of both languages are not interested in *Individual LS*. Perhaps this is due to the fact that learning the language by themselves without anybody’s help will only result in poor fluency and proficiency of the languages---there will never be a corrective feedback from peers; they cannot share their language problems; they cannot practise the language, to name a few. Based on the researchers’ observation while teaching these students, working in a group that involves ‘hands-on’ activities and physical responses does influence students performance in the language, and this does not only refer to the language performance but also the students’ self-esteem. They become more confident and comfortable with their ability in the language---they do not feel shy to accept their weaknesses and work more on enhancing their strengths in the languages. Maybe the peers’ support as well as the lecturers’ openness in sharing and giving positive feedback influences the students’ motivation to learn the languages more positively.

Finally, this study has given some insights on why some students perform, while others fail to perform. It can be concluded that the students’ LSP influence their performance in the language class, as well as their involvement in the class activities. The study found that the students of both languages prefer more the *Group*, *Kinesthetic*, *Visual* and *Tactile* learning styles than the *Auditory* and *Individual* learning styles. Therefore, it is very important to apply suitable language-teaching techniques for these students. However, since the most prevalent LSP of the students is the *Group* learning style (see Tables 2 (a) & (b)), the language-teaching techniques should emphasize more on group work activities such as games, role-pay and simulations, drama, projects, interview, brainstorming, information gap, jigsaw and opinion exchange (Brown, 2001).

Felder and Henriques (1995) suggested that teachers should implement these language-teaching techniques in the classroom:

- a. Motivate learning by providing more new authentic materials relevant to the students;
- b. Assign some repetitive drill exercises for basic vocabulary and grammar practices;
- c. Balance the concrete information of the lessons taught in class;
- d. Balance structured teaching approaches that focus more on conversation and cultural contexts of the target language;
- e. Make liberal use of visuals;
- f. Give instruction in the language taught to facilitate language acquisition and develop speaking skill in the course materials; provide explicit instruction in syntax and semantics to facilitate formal language learning and develop writing and interpretation skills in the course material;
- g. Avoid excessive lecturing and writing on the board; encourage questions and problem-solving activities in class; and
- h. Give students the option of cooperation on at least some homework assignments.

Felder and Henrique's suggestions may seem like a 'mission impossible' to apply in the English Language classroom in UMS because to really apply all the suggestions will require additional time for the materials used in the teaching techniques. As it is, all language courses in UMS are only assigned to a 3-hour slot per week, and there are only 14 weeks in a semester! Besides trying to cover the syllabus of the course, the lecturers need to make sure that students understand the lessons taught in class, and this is really taxing. Therefore, applying the ones that are suitable is very essential. Of course, it will involve trial and error---the lecturers will need to try the techniques on occasional basis; keep the ones that are working and disregard those that do not work with the students---but the result will hopefully help the students to perform well in the language. All these efforts will eventually pay off as students and lecturers begin to understand their weaknesses and strengths and try to work on it more for better results.

CONCLUSION

The study illustrates that the students of the English and Spanish Languages prefer *Group Learning Style*. The finding supports the students' positive participation in any group-related-activities conducted in the classroom, and their less participation in some of the *one-man-show* activities held in the classroom. Therefore, it can be concluded that knowing students' learning style preferences will equip language instructors, which in this case, the lecturers, on better preparations and teaching techniques that will help to enhance not only students' performance but also their self-esteem and motivation in learning the language. Not only that, it also helps language instructors to design a more effective module or course for students.

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APPENDIX 1

LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCE QUESTIONNAIRE BY JOY REID

Kindly respond to the statements below. Your answers are confidential and will only be used for the purpose of this study. Thank you for your co-operation.

For statement 1-30, kindly tick (/) an answer from the scale below. There is no right or wrong answer for this section.

SA-strongly agree A-agree U-undecided D-disagree
SD-strongly disagree

Statement	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. When the teacher tells me the instructions I understand better.					

2. I prefer to learn by doing something in class.					
3. I get more work done when I work with others.					
4. I learn more when I study with a group.					
5. In class, I learn best when I work with others.					
6. I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.					
7. When someone tells me how to do something in class, I learn it better.					
8. When I do things in class, I learn better.					
9. I remember things I have heard in class better than things I have read.					
10. When I read instructions, I remember them better.					
11. I learn more when I can make a model of something.					
12. I understand better when I read instructions.					
13. When I study alone, I remember things better.					
14. I learn more when I make something for a class project.					
15. I enjoy learning in class by doing experiments.					
16. I learn better when I make drawings as I study.					
17. I learn better in class when the teacher gives a lecture.					

18. When I work alone, I learn better.					
19. I understand things better in class when I participate in role-playing.					
20. I learn better in class when I listen to someone.					
21. I enjoy working on an assignment with two or three classmates.					
22. When I build something, I remember what I have learned better.					
23. I prefer to study with others.					
24. I learn better by reading than by listening to someone.					
25. I enjoy making something for a class project.					
26. I learn best in class when I can participate in related activities.					
27. In class, I work better when I work alone.					
28. I prefer working on projects by myself.					
29. I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.					
30. I prefer to work by myself					

Critiquing of Higher Education policy in Saudi Arabia: A Neoliberalism Approach

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0029

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Abstract

In this paper, we aim to step back in time and speak more broadly on the aspect of higher education policy in Saudi Arabia. We will argue that the post 9/11 context of education in Saudi Arabia has brought into a new paradigm of thinking away from what McCarthy *et al.* (2009) call “safe harbors” in schooling and education. This new phenomena has merged to adopt a neoliberalism paradigm in many local Saudi schools and educators alike. Therefore, this new trend may prove to be affecting the new reform policy of education in general; and higher education in particular. We will try to identify the dominant complex of relations now affecting Saudi schools as neoliberal re-articulation and transformations between the link of education and economy. In this particular context of neoliberal hegemony and moral and cultural leadership itself and its relationship to what Michael Foucault has called government that we must examine in order to better understand the specific impact of current political, cultural, and economic forces on education, understand the specific impact of the public good (McCarthy *et al.*, 2009). Consequently, we will start by defining neoliberalism and discussing its relationship to the globalization of Saudi Higher education system. Second, we will discuss how neoliberalism has drawn a new paradigm of Saudi Arabian higher education in order to move it toward the wheel of globalization. While this might be a modest attempt to hypothesize a link between neoliberalism and educational reforms in Saudi Arabia, the paper suggests that a new understanding of the most current debates on this new phenomena in the history of educational in Saudi Arabia.

Keywords: Higher Education policy, Saudi Arabia, Neoliberalism, Globalization, Michael Foucault

Invoking the opposition between movement and stasis in modern life, Dennis Carlson, in his book Leaving Safe Harbors admonishes to move out of the “safe harbors” of settled educational practices and philosophies in order to better address the challenges posed to schooling by the dynamics associated with globalization and multiplicity.

(McCarthy *et al.*, 2009.)

Theoretical Framework: Neoliberalism

According to McCarthy *et al.* (2009) one way of talking about neoliberalism as it has arisen in the social and political science literatures of the last two decades has been defined in its terms of universalisation of the enterprise ethic. This is to see its logics in the context of multinational capital’s strategic translation of globalization and corresponding withdrawal and disengagement of the state in a broad range of economic and political affairs. Within this framework, neoliberalism can be broadly understood as a new form of liberalism which integrates eighteenth and nineteenth century notions of free market and laissez-faire into, potentially, all aspect of contemporary life. However, neoliberalism has also come into wide use in “cultural studies to describe prevailing ideological paradigm that leads to social, cultural, and political practices and policies that use the language markets. ...to shift risk from government and corporations onto individuals and to extend this kind of market logic into the realm of social and affective relationships” (Ong, 2006).

As we build upon Foucault’s argument of the neoliberalism forms of government, Thomas Lemke contends that neoliberalism is not merely an economic theory, but a political rationality that defines the true aspect of our educational practices and where does this lead us toward new mind-sets of our daily life. This exact notion of educational neoliberalism under the new political climate post 9/11 in the context of Saudi Arabia (hereafter KSA) is the main focus of this paper. This movement, we argue has opened Pandora’s box of the Saudi society, and most importantly Saudi students’ thirst for knowledge and the need to network in our modern times to expand our new demands economically and intellectually. In this context, a need of neoliberalism and glocalization of education to intertwine in order to form a new paradigm may prove a tool for neo-liberal education policy makers in KSA. This tendency of neoliberalism may possibly indeed, “comprise educational institutions and practices” (McCarthy *et al.*, 2009).

Rethinking of the Educational Paradigm in Saudi Arabia post 9/11

Where did it start? In recent years, many authors in the West and East have claimed that the Saudi Educational system has been under scrutiny by different organizations and political spheres in the world after 9/11 (See Rugh, 2002; Karmani, 2005, Pennycook, 2007; Elyas, 2008). This event has sparked a keen interest in the educational system in KSA and the ideological imbedded political and religious regimes which may single out its unique educational paradigm. Many Arabic scholars have dealt with the different aspects of education, especially in higher education to investigate the different features which may spark a sharp unique framework of education in the context of KSA in comparison to the other different paradigms.

Saudi Tertiary Education System

We will start this paper with describing the main contrast of education in KSA to the rest of the world. There are some essential features distinguishing the tertiary education system in KSA from other education systems around the world. One of these is that the tertiary education in KSA is free for all students," (Alankary, 1998, p.4) and in some rare cases even the expatriates' family members. The government also assists students who are studying at private colleges by subsidizing half of their tuition fees. In contradistinction to many universities internationally, the tertiary education system in KSA provides free on-campus accommodation to students who come from remote areas, and as a further motivation to undertake tertiary studies, the government awards all students a small monthly allowance.

Another difference is that the tertiary education system in KSA is strictly segregated between males and females, with different campuses for each, except for the new King Abdullah Science Co-ed University which just opened recently in 2009 under a heat of social and political debates. This vision of the loved king of KSA has sparked a great hope for the country's future and a first step towards an actual globalization.

In different to King Abdullah Science University, these benefits notwithstanding, KSA exercises its power as a theocracy to make compulsory the dissemination among students the tenets of Islamic faith, culture and history. However, the KSA educational policy has come under much more intense and critical scrutiny by critics, who observe that "In the aftermath of 11th September, 2001, KSA's religious education system has become the target of widespread criticism" (Prokop, 2003, p.77). The fact that 15 of the 19 terrorists involved in 9/11 were from KSA has "sparked a fundamental debate both in the West and within the Muslim world regarding the link between these acts and the teaching of Islam" (Bar, 2004, cited in Elyas, 2008, p. 7). Also, Elyas (2008) claims that the Saudi education system has been viewed as partly responsible for producing Islamic extremists; therefore, "the relationship between the US and Riyadh has been fraught with tension since 9/11 and with Muslims representing 22% of the world's population" (p.8).

Education and Embracing Neoliberalism Needs

Since these above controversial accusations of the Educational system in KSA, a need to reform the curriculum and lessen the international pressure on KSA government became an imperative decision. The political implications of 9/11 notwithstanding, curriculum reform in KSA is considered essential by many experts in order "to meet demands of the employment market, reform initiatives so far have largely shied away from controversial issues such as reducing the overall percentage of religious education" (Aarts & Nonneman, 2005, p79). Curriculum reform advocates, many from abroad, but mostly from within KSA, such as (Al-Attas, 1979; Al-Ajroursh, 1980; Zaid, 1994; Al-Hazmi, 2003; Elyas, 2008, Elyas & Picard 2010; Almoziny, 2010) have advocated for an urgent action to reform the education before it is too late. For example, Alessa (BBC) argues that "the education system in the Kingdom needs to be encouraged to implement a new educational philosophy based on the balance between faith and ethics" (p104). This issue of the "save harbors" and

of the legitimacy of education lead to questioning the philosophy and policy of education in KSA which have encountered some opposition from intellectuals in KSA. Elyas & Picard (2010) for example, has criticized the education system in KSA where he argues for the necessity to amend the philosophical approach and education policy in KSA. Almozini also claims that “the Saudi methods of education inculcate in students a culture of death for which they have little use in their daily lives,” (p.50) a hollow cry which has been called for many years in the past.

In fact, in order to benefit Saudi students and concomitantly, society in general, Al-Essa (2009) advocates a reform of the curricula which would “incorporate the teaching of human rights,” (p.104) and respect for diverse opinions (Aarts & Nonneman, 2005, p.79) where these issues have never been introduced to any extent before in the curricula; as well as an emphasis on critical and creative thinking—a term that is foreign in the KSA curricula. In addition, Rugh (2002) demands rooting out any “pedagogical approach such as rote learning, memorisation as well as the centralised control of the government over classroom materials and the very few textbooks that traditionally characterise Saudi education in practice” (p. 50). Others have made similar criticisms of the Saudi education system, citing the inordinate amount of the curriculum devoted to the study of religion (Aarts & Nonneman, 2005; Weston, 2008, Elyas; Elyas & Picard, 2010 Almozini, 2010). These elements are cited as impediments to creativity and independent thinking, which is important for economic prosperity of the country.

This latter aspect is of paramount concern as the lack of necessary skills and training in Saudi students fails to meet the demands of a rapidly expanding work-force sector, in both qualitative and quantitative terms (Al-Hazmi, 2003). Citing unemployment and the needs of industry as a rationale for reforms, Alkhazim (2003) notes that “unemployment rates among Saudi nationals is between 13-15%, which he claims “raises the question of how confident the labour market is in the output of local higher education institutions” (p.483). In the same vein, Syed (2003, cited in Al-Hazmi, 2003) calls for “a need shift from this quantitative to the qualitative development of teacher who can better serve changing student’s needs,” (p. 350) where students are seeking an alternative method to gain knowledge outside the classroom. In another study on the students’ motivation to gain knowledge outside the classroom Elyas & Picard (2010) notice that the students were seeking help from outside the controlled walls of their own educational institutions and ideological constraints they are facing (see Fig 1.) Clearly, the students were tired of the old-fashioned way of teaching by controlling who knows what and what is being taught in the classroom. This new trend has helped feeding new emerging scholars to shed some light on the new phenomena in KSA educational system.

Indeed, education as Molnar points out, has been colonized by marketization; school reforms are being discussed in commercial terms such as “future consumers,” “future technology,” “future sciences” are being used in reference to children and school youth. Nowadays, Arts & Nonneman (2005) stresses that education is seen “as a product to be evaluated for its economic utility and as a commodity to be bought and

sold like anything else in the ‘free market’” (p.111). Positively, neoliberalism in the labour market has a critical cultural agenda: “It involves radically changing how we think of ourselves and what the goals of schooling should be” (Apple, 2006, p.23). As has been demonstrated in (Fig. 1), new streams of students are being created to re-introduce themselves as new human capitals. Indeed, in the neoliberal culture, “individuals are encouraged to behave according to the ideal of the entrepreneur, a person capable of rationally choosing the optimal course of action to maximize his/her interests. That is under neoliberalism the individual is no longer merely a rational optimizer but conceived as an autonomous entrepreneur responsible for his or her own self, progress, or position” (McCarthy *et al.* 2009, p. 40). Under liberalism, theretofore, educational institutions in Saudi Arabia are expected to cater for the new market and to create a more competitive market for the students to flourish their creativity.

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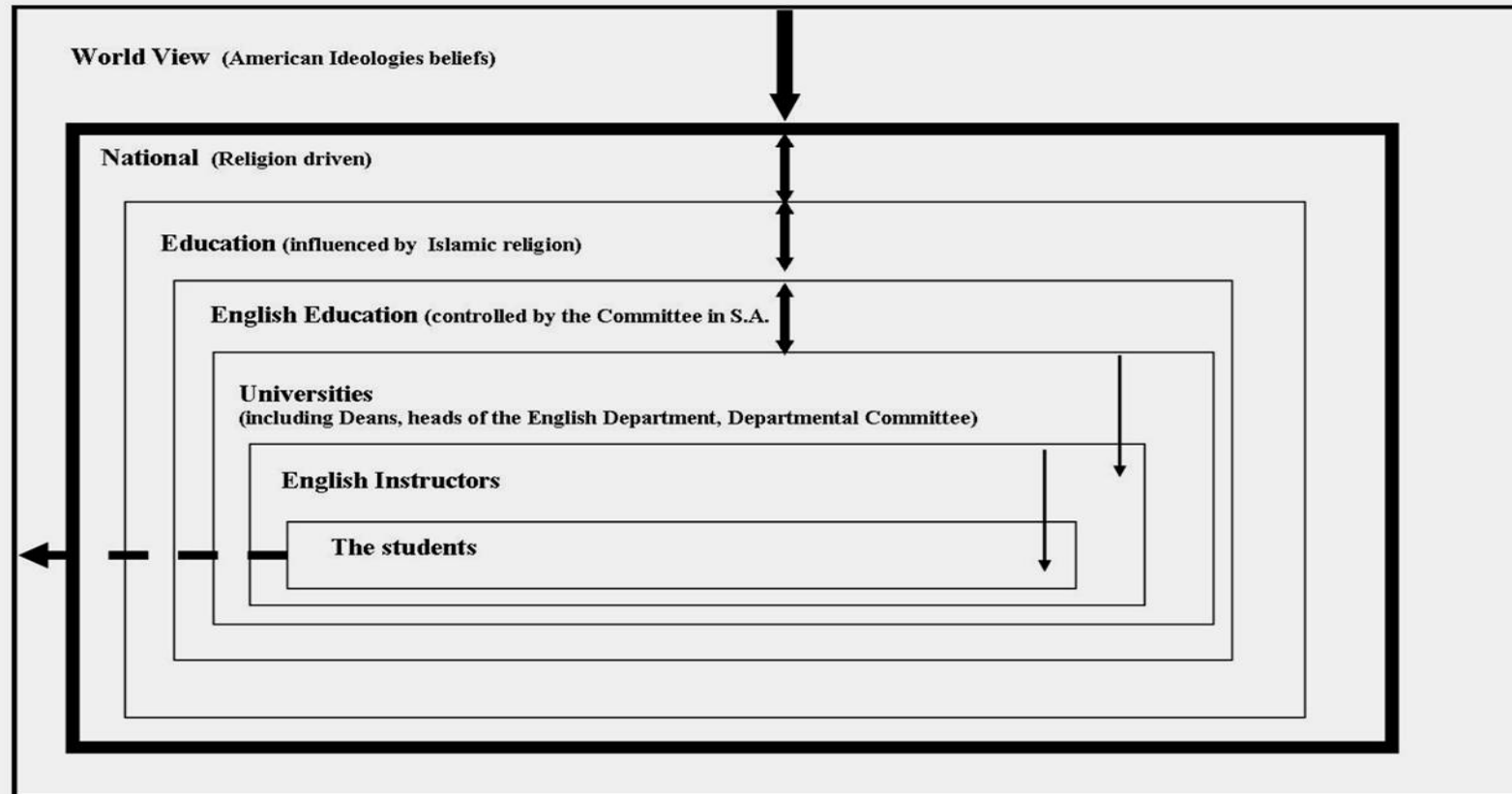


Figure 1 Elyas (2010) concept of power and Knowledge.

The Need to Reform the Curricula

These issues of lack of critical thinking and qualitative development of the education stems from the fact that the education systems promote more drills and repetition based on the rote learning due to the ideological underpinning of the base of the Islamic education in early KSA where the form of *Kuttab*s and *Medrassas* where the only methods of teaching. This methods of teaching still echoes in modern education as Alkhazim (2003) argues that “the higher education system in Saudi overproduces in some areas such as the social and religious studies, but it is far from producing similar numbers in areas critically needed by the country such as the health and engineering professions” (p.483). Although that the higher education in the country did not reflect the development in early history of KSA, there are traces of these rooted pedagogy in modern day KSA, and in this case even in the higher education (Elyas & Picard, 2010).

Hence, KSA’s tertiary education system has been the subject of much debate and discussion regarding its competitiveness in the global economy as well as “its ability to meet the needs of contemporary society” (Alotabi, 2005, p.22). Some aspects of the Saudi tertiary education system attracting criticism include the government’s control, through the Ministry of Higher education, of the tertiary curricula which its main task is ensuring that the universities function according to the country’s laws and ideology (see Fig.1). The problem with assuming such control over the curricula is that students’ freedom to conduct out research is circumscribed, thereby limiting the purview of inquiry. The main issue rely on the mere fact of the scrutiny of control the flow of information and the source of the knowledge in order for the country to protect its national and Islamic identity as the cradle of Islam where changes are not encouraged per se. Here, in this case changes are regarded as a threat to the security of the notion of unity and strength in controlled way of thinking. Hence, the “save harbour” concept of education has been served to be the country’s shield towards unfamiliar territory.

Educational Reform in Saudi Arabia: The beginning

Hence, these above issues attributes to the idea of reform to bring the country into the wheel of modernization and into the 21st century have been welcome by many scholars. Some scholars such as Bremmer (2004) and Elyas & Picard (2010) advocate that reforms are necessary to counter the bigotry, intolerance and extremism which are the outcome of a centrally controlled rigid, and narrow curriculum. Bremmer (2004) states that “a new Saudi curriculum should strengthen critical thinking skills that are plainly not encouraged by a system that re-lies on rote memorization of religious texts and authoritarian teaching methods” (p.28). These limitations imposed on academic inquiry raise the question of why such control is necessary and whether it is, in effect, antithetical to the needs of contemporary Saudi Arabian society which is its own identity is rooted heavily into the early stages of education practices. Nevertheless, these reforms are indubitable, yet the paradox of educating and training students in disciplines that have been hitherto inaccessible and in some cases, antithetical to the requirements of a theocratic and insular society is fraught with tension. For example, on the one hand, many economics and scholars

have indicated these reforms are necessary for Saudi's economy in a more globalized world, yet on the other hand, the subversive potential of introducing critical and independent thought into Saudi classrooms that will impact upon generations to come is a factor that has not gone unnoticed.

In the same line of thinking, Gharba-former president of the American University of Kuwait and the author of 'Studying the American Way: An Assessment of American-Style Higher Education in Arab Countries, equates a 'culture of openness' with elevated educational standards and says of the reforms "they won't be able to limit this new state of mind to the classroom. ... KSA is one of the places where people are starting to question more, particularly under a reform-oriented king, so reforming their education system will be like opening a Pandora's box" (Krieger, 2007, p.6).

These criticisms have been considered by the Saudi government which has recently launched the project '*Tatweer*'¹ for the development of general education in the Saudi kingdom. This ambitious project, which began in 2007 and is forecast to end in 2013 "has been allocated \$293 million," (Al-Degether, 2009, p.112) to bring the wheel of modernization into the country and take it forward. This project is comprised of four targets: 1) enhancing teachers' skills; 2) improving curricula; 3) developing school activities; and 4) improving school facilities and infrastructure. The primary objective of this program will be to focus on the quality of education to ensure that students of public education in the Saudi Kingdom are equipped with the necessary skills to participate in an increasingly globalised society and engage with the complex and myriad problems that globalisation brings while simultaneously preserving the values and ideology underpinning Saudi society (Tatweer, 2010)²

One of the important functions of this project, as stated by Al-Degether (2009) is in the field of pedagogy, he calls for "the instruction of teachers to increase their knowledge of critical thinking through providing workshops on how to teach critical thinking to student" (p.112). The mere idea of critical thinking has been dealt with (after being buried under the sands) by the more demands of the country's economical needs and non-applicable traditional way of education. This giant step has promoted the country to establish a link with The National Centre for Teaching and Thinking (NCTT)³ organisation to undertake this formidable task.

Although the projects' objectives and perspectives are highly practical and useful, three years after its implementation there has not been much evident improvement in the Saudi education system. According to Al-Essa (2010) "the main reasons for the projects failure to get under way are: 1) the lack of political vision will; 2) lack of

¹ Tatweer is Arabic expression that means the 'the development of oneself'.

² King Abdullah Project for developing education, 2010." Tatweer"

<http://www.tatweer.edu.sa/Pages/home.aspx>

³ NCTT is a US organisation and is led by critical thinking theorist Robert Swarts

new policy for education; 3) too much bureaucracy for the development of education” (pp.72-91).

The other Spectrum of the Issue

Although, the previous paragraphs have dealt with some of the problems and disadvantages of the influence of the early practices of pedagogy in the Education in KSA, there are some advantages as well. For, instance, the philosophy and policy in education in KSA has some useful aspects such as the teaching of ethics and Islamic values and culture as well as Arabic language. However, these aspects of education need to be reevaluated in order to equip students to keep abreast of accelerating technological changes, scientific discoveries, globalised production and economy, and an increasingly integrated. In other words, there is a need to co-exist or interlink between the old and the new. That a step toward the glocalization of education in KSA has become an imperative action to be taken critically by the different educational institutions in the country. In fact, global society, all of which serve to undermine the tenets of the Saudi education system. As Rugh notes it is difficult to provide a workforce capable of assimilating and adapting to the rapid change of global developments when there are virtually no educational institutions that teach business or political science. Another notable aspect of the Saudi education system is the lack of colleges that teach the art of critical thinking. These disciplines are where critical and independent thought are encouraged and the absence of a citizenry educated in these fields is also believed to have broader implications for the Saudi economy.

Conclusion

As we have shown above, Saudi Arabian educational philosophy and policy needs to be amended to take advantage of, and benefit from global developments and should strive to raise the level of scientific research and development as well as the level of professionalism in all spheres of education. Al-Essa, (2010) argues that “an essential component of these reforms should be the encouragement of democratic rights and a culture of dialogue and openness, which are not necessarily incompatible with Islamic faith and philosophy” (pp104-105). As have been argued previously, in order to accomplish and complement these objectives, the teaching of critical thinking and problem solving is a vital and essential aspect of education reforms in KSA. However, it is very clear that the country needs to look critically in its own education system if it needs to accompany other nations in such globalized world and to improve the well-being of its citizens to lead them into a more creative world that produces critical thinkers and worldly educators. Thus, neoliberal efforts in education aim at reorganizing schooling so the needs of the local and global economy are met by producing human capitals. Also, new definition of neoliberalism to transform the educational institutions to merge with the political, economical, cultural need may be served as a new template for higher education in more modern KSA. Therefore, our need to move beyond conventionalism and the “safe harbors” approach of institutional practices are our only hope for better well-equipped society.

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*Motivation and Attitudes Towards Learning and Using English Outside the
Classroom Environment: A Study of the Library and Information Science
Undergraduates at the University of Tsukuba*

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Abstract

This purpose of this study is to investigate the different social and cultural factors related to Japanese university students' motivation and attitudes towards speaking English outside the formal classroom environment. A self-constructed questionnaire was administrated to a group of third- and fourth-year undergraduate students in June 2012. These Japanese students were learning English as a foreign language, and they were all majoring in library and information science at the University of Tsukuba in Japan. The questionnaire asked a total number of 112 students across their proficiency levels, their preferences and attitudes towards speaking English, as well as their self-confidence in interacting with the native English speakers, based on their daily-life experiences.

The survey results indicated that although many of them had learned English for minimum 8 years, a large number of them experienced anxiety and lacked the necessary self-confidence while speaking English outside the classroom environment. In fact, owing to their fear and lack of self-confidence, a majority of them tended to shy away from English-speaking situations, i.e., to avoid as much as possible to have any direct interactions with other foreigners. This study also reflected that the student respondents in general had very limited exposure to English outside of the classroom. It was the unique cultural differences, as well as the other social predispositions that often resulted in these Japanese students' reluctance in using English more often for daily communication needs.

INTRODUCTION

Rationale of the Study

- *“Why do my students become so shy and nervous when they need to speak English, both in and outside of the classroom?”*
- *“How can I help these students overcome their anxiety, and help them find English speaking a more enjoyable experience?”*
- *“Why are the Japanese students so passive, in their way of learning? Why are they so unwilling to take part in discussions?”*

These are some questions and challenges that I have been constantly facing as a teaching staff of the English-language library science programme at a university in Japan. I have been trying to find ways to motivate the students, to help them take part more actively in basic discussions, or even just to ‘chit chat’ with other foreign students on campus, without feeling embarrassed or being fearful of making mistakes in front of others. However, before such solutions are identified, I need to first find out the root causes of their ‘problems’, i.e., what attitudes they have towards the learning, as well as the daily use of the English language outside the formal learning environment. What are the social and culture factors behind such attitudes and their reluctance?

Background & Research Questions

English language learning and teaching are never separated from its social and cultural and educational contexts. Careful investigation of students’ attitudes and the root causes will help clarify the ways in which English education can be best adapted to suit the students’ needs and requirements. This study aims to contribute new information on the Japanese university students’ attitudes towards using English for daily communication purposes, via identifying different cultural and educational factors that are hindering students’ language proficiency and self-confidence. The following are the research questions of this study:

- (1) What are the relationships between self-confidence and their level of oral English proficiency amongst the student participants?
- (2) To what extent did the Japanese students experience the English-speaking culture or opportunities in their daily life outside the university?
- (3) How did students’ attitudes and perceptions affect the students’ motivation and attitudes towards English learning?

RESEARCH POPULATION

The participants of this study were third and fourth-year undergraduate students at the University of Tsukuba in Japan. These Japanese students were learning English as a foreign language, and they were all majoring in library and information science. A printed questionnaire (with both open and close-ended questions) was developed, and administered to the participants in June 2011 during their classes. The questionnaires were administered anonymously, with students not being required to identify themselves on the instrument. In all, a total number of 112 questionnaires were received, representing 24% of the entire undergraduate population at the Faculty of Library, Information and Media Science. Out of all 112 students surveyed, 60% were female, while the remaining 40% were male, with age ranging from 21 to 23 years. They all spent at least 8 to 10 years learning English in Japan. In fact, a majority of them (75.7%) have been learning English since junior high school (see Table 1).

Learning English Since:	No. of Respondents	%
Senior high school	2	1.8%
Junior high school	84	75.7%
Elementary school	21	18.9%
Kindergarten	2	1.8%
Unknown	2	1.8%

FINDINGS

Students' Perceptions of the English Language & English Learning

A large number of the student respondents found English to be a difficult language, but being important at the same time, especially for their future employment (see Tables 2 & 3). Meanwhile, many of them agreed to treat English as the international language, since English is so widely spoken outside Japan (see Table 4). Such results indicated that students viewed English being an increasingly important job skill in Japan that is facing increasing demands of internationalization. No doubt, with globalization and the role of Japan plays in the international market, English proficiency is naturally viewed as a desirable skill that will lead to better job opportunities after graduating from university. In fact, the results reflected that a majority of the Japanese students who have studied English for at least 8 years in Japan still have a difficult time in carrying out simple conversations with native English speakers. Reasons behind students' language difficulties and their lack of self-confidence will be discussed in the following sections (see Tables 2, 3 & 4).

(Table 2)			
Q. 6. Do you think English is important?			
<i>(multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)</i>			
	Male	Female	Total
Yes, I think English is very important.	27	34	61
Yes, I think English is only important for my future work.	11	16	27
Yes, I think English is only important in school & university.	3	9	12

(Table 3)			
Q. 7. What do you think of the English language?			
<i>(multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)</i>			
	Male	Female	Total
I think English is a very difficult language.	13	31	44
I think English is important for my future job/career.	13	20	33
I dislike/hate learning English, but I have to for my current area of study at university. And I will CONTINUE learning English even after university.	10	17	27

(Table 4)			
Q. 13. What do you think about English as the international language?			
<i>(multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)</i>			
	Male	Female	Total
I think it is logical to make English the international language, since English is so widely spoken in many parts of the world.	22	27	49
This is why I want learning English so much.	9	14	23
No comment.	8	12	20

English Learning Outside the University

Given the current education system is not performing adequately in Japan, and students in general lacked the necessary confidence and initiatives to converse directly with foreigners, a majority of them did not see the benefits and the need of attending a private language school outside the university. In fact, the results indicated that many students actually saw such private and small-class English teaching as a waste of time and money, as well as being too expensive (see Tables 5 & 6). Such results are supportive to Seki's finding (2004), indicating that, a majority of the Japanese students did not attend a private language school.¹ Seki further explained that the high tuition fees are probably the main reason why a majority of the students chose not to attend these private language schools 'more often'.²

¹ SEKI, Taeko. (2004) *Attitudes to and Motivation for Learning English in Japan: with Special Reference to First-Year University Students*. Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation. Institute of Education, University of Stirling, pp. 139.

² Ibid.

(Table 5) Q. 10. Apart from your University seminars & lectures, how often you speak English in a week? (n = 108)			
	Male	Female	Total
Not so often. Because I am NOT so confident to speak English.	22	35 ³	57 (52.8%)
Never! I just dislike/hate speaking English.	6 ⁴	11	17 (15.7%)
Not so often. Because I feel embarrassed & worry that other Japanese people might laugh at me.	7	4	11 (10.2%)
Never! Because of other reasons.	2 ⁵	8 ⁶	10 (9.3%)
Not so often. Because I feel embarrassed & worry that other native English speakers/foreigners might laugh at me.	2	5	7 (6.5%)
Very often, almost every week.	3	3	6 (5.6%)

(Table 6) Q. 9. Are you currently taking any private English lessons (outside the University)? (multiple answers are accepted, only the top 4 most chosen responses are presented)			
	Male	Female	Total
No, I don't want to waste my time & money for private English lessons.	23	30	53
I want to take private English lessons, but I am already too busy with university assignments.	10	12	22
I want to take private English lessons, but private lessons are too expensive.	5	17	22
I think the English lessons/classes offered by the University are already good enough. There are no needs for extra lessons.	6	10	16

Difficulties in Learning English Faced by Japanese Students

In terms of difficulties faced by the Japanese students, not surprisingly, “Listening & conversation” was the most common response amongst the respondents (see Table 7). At the same time, most students indicated their desire for the ability to communicate effectively with the native speakers, i.e., including being able to engage in basic conversations, as well as having the ability to understand and be understood amongst foreigners. Unfortunately, results indicated that students lacked the necessary language proficiency, as well as the self-confidence to do so. According to Adachi (2009), *“it is not so common for Japanese people to communicate in any foreign language on the street. Japanese students also seldom have any personal intercultural contacts with foreigners, experts for their foreign teachers.”*⁷ Gudykunst

³ Although not required, one of the female respondents gave reason why she did not need to speak English, *“Almost all people whom I met are Japanese, so I do have the opportunity to speak English.”*

⁴ Although not required, one male respondent also gave reason explaining why he did not need to speak English, in addition to disliking the language, i.e., *“I don't have to”*.

⁵ One male respondent gave reason for not having to speak English, i.e., because he had *“NO opportunity”* to do so.

⁶ Some of the female respondents provided reasons for *“Never”* having to speak English outside of the university lectures, and they are as follows:

- *“I don't have to speak English, because my friends are Japanese.”*
- *“I don't have opportunity.”*
- *“Because I do not have the opportunity.”*
- *“There are not the opportunities.”*
- *“I'm learning English in class.”*
- *“I'm busy with job finding.”*
- *“時間がないから = Because I have no time.”*

⁷ ADACHI, Rie. (2009) “Motivation of English Learning and Intercultural Communication: a Case of Japanese College Students.” *Bulletin of Universities and Institutes*, Vol. 37, pp. 123. (119-143).

(1998) further explains that the Japanese have a collective culture and use high-context communication, and they have a comparatively homogeneous community.⁸ That leads them to use Japanese style communication strategies most of the time, and they end up having difficulties making people from other cultures understand.⁹ Another reason for their lack of self-confidence could be a result of a lack of practice. Pease (2006) explains that students memorize English vocabulary, learn grammar, and translate passages from the textbook in much the same ways as ancient Latin text was studied¹⁰ (see Tables 7, 8 & 9). As highlighted by Ohtaka (1996), the need for English phonetic training is not actually practiced in the classrooms in Japan for the following reasons:

- (1) grammar translation instruction is emphasized for entrance examination;
- (2) actual opportunities of speaking outside of the classroom are not increasing;
- (3) Japanese English educators have low confidence in their own English pronunciation;
- (4) English instructional theory is underdeveloped.¹¹

(Table 7)			
Q. 15. Which is/are the most DIFFICULT aspect(s) of the English language? (multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)			
	Male	Female	Total
Listening & conversation.	25	29	54
Grammar vocabulary.	14	28	42
Writing.	15	14	29
(Table 8)			
Q. 16. Which is/are the most IMPORTANT aspect(s) of the English language to you? (multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)			
	Male	Female	Total
I want the native speakers & other foreigners to understand me well, without causing confusions.	19	34	53
Basic pronunciation & correct accent is important, but correct pronunciation is almost impossible.	17	22	39
Pronunciation & the correct accent are very important to me & I think I could achieve that by hard work.	7	12	19
(Table 9)			
Q. 17. What is/are most important English task(s) for you? (multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)			
	Male	Female	Total
Basic able to listen & understand English native speakers & other foreigners.	21	30	51
Basic conversations with English native speakers & other foreigners.	17	32	49
Being able to read newspapers & academic journals.	17	20	37

Students' Desire in Studying Aboard

The survey results also reflected that for most students, studying abroad is not something they would likely consider in their near future. Only a very small number of the respondents (mostly male) indicated that they planned to go overseas to further their studies. According to the *Japan Times Weekly* (2011), the number of Japanese

⁸ GUDYKUNST, W.B. (1998) *Bridging Differences: Effective Intergroup Communication*. (3rd ed.) Newbury Park, Calif.: Sage.

⁹ KNOWER, R. (2002) "Japanese Communication in Intercultural Encounters: the Barrier of Status-Related Behavior." *The International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol. 26, pp. 339-361.

¹⁰ PEASE, Eleanor J. (2006) *The Role of Affect in Japanese Adolescents Learning English*. Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation Walden University, pp. 56.

¹¹ OHTAKA, H. (1996) "English Speech Sounds Education in Japan – Its History and a Prospect." *K.G. Studies in English*, Vol. 25, pp. 87-111.

students studying abroad has been falling.¹² The results also indicated that in terms of planning to study overseas, male students seemed to outnumber their female counterparts (see Table 10). According to the explanations provided by Nishio (2001), both Japanese male and female students were equally concerned about the lack of language proficiency, but female students tended to have more concerns than males, and could be related to indeterminateness. According to Nishio (2001), the issues concerning the female students, especially among single female students with financial support from their parents, were whether they would marry and their parents' continued well-being and happiness. In addition, the age concern also worsened their worries about whether they would find a job, and whether they would be able to have children later.¹³

(Table 10) Q. 26. Do you plan to continue your education in an English speaking country, e.g., America, Australia, New Zealand, USA or Canada? (n = 107)			
	Male	Female	Total
No, I don't. If I want to continue my education, it will be in Japan.	18	42	60 (56%)
Yes, I have thought about it, but don't know exactly when.	6	11	17 (15.9%)
I don't know.	8	8	16 (15%)
Yes, I am planning to go very soon	4	0	4 (3.7%)
Yes, I plan to go in a few years	7	3	10 (9.3%)

Japanese Students & Their Anxiety in Speaking English

The results indicated that a majority (59%) of them (and mostly female) only got to speak English a few times a year. On the other hand, 26% of them said that they would only talk to Japanese-speaking people. Meanwhile, 9.9% of them said that when foreigners wanted to talk to them, they would pretend “not understanding English”. The results also indicated that the female students apparently had more contacts with the native-English speakers in comparison to the male students. Not surprisingly, only a small number of them got to speak English on a weekly or daily basis. According to Nitta (2004), her description of Japanese young people attending a Japanese school stated that they study all subjects in Japanese with Japanese teachers dispatched by the Japanese government, speak Japanese at home with their parents, and socialize primarily with other Japanese outside of school¹⁴ (see Table 5). Such results further verify the notion that students' language deficiency and their lack of self-confidence were a result of a lack of practice (see Tables 5 & 11).

Shyness and Discomfort in Speaking English in Public Places

¹² “Fear of Studying Abroad.” (8th January, 2011) *The Japan Times Weekly*. Available at: <http://weekly.japantimes.co.jp/ed/fear-of-studying-abroad>

¹³ NISHIO, A. (2001) *Issues Facing Japanese Postgraduate Students Studying at the University of London with Special Reference to Gender*. Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation. London: Institute of Education, University of London.

¹⁴ NITTA, K. (2004) *Developing Communicative Competence in Japanese Fourth-Grade English Language Learners*. Dissertation Abstracts International. (UMI NO. 9315947), pp. 111.

(Table 11) Q. 20. Have you ever talked with the native English speakers or foreigners outside the classroom? (n = 111)			
	Male	Female	Total
Yes, but only a few times a year.	3	63	66 (59.4%)
Never, I prefer to only to talk to people who can speak Japanese.	1	28	29 (26.1%)
Never, when native speakers or foreigners want to talk to me, I pretend that I do NOT understand English.	8	3	11 (9.9%)
Yes, I talk to every week	3	1	4 (3.6%)
Yes, very often, almost everyday	1	0	1 (0.9%)

Not surprisingly, the results indicated that students in general felt uncomfortable (embarrassed) and lacked the necessary self-confidence in speaking English in public places. Despite of that, a large number of them indicated that they would still ‘give it a try to help’, even though they did feel not so confident. Meanwhile, a small group of them indicated that would only speak English when they are not amongst Japanese friends. 3 respondents indicated that they did not have the opportunity to speak English in public places (see Tables 5 & 12). Hayashi and Cherry (2004) also reported similar risk-avoidance tendency amongst the Japanese students.¹⁵ According to them, Japanese students tend to show a more ‘authority-oriented’ method of learning, and may be because they are more familiar with this ‘traditional’ style of learning. The teacher is considered the source of knowledge in Confucian heritage, thus, students strongly rely on the teacher’s instructions and beliefs. In other words, instead of initiating their own learning activities, Japanese students would rather wait passively for the teacher to provide the answers. *“This may be explained in cultural terms as Japanese collectivism, or a general shyness and unwillingness among Japanese students to take risks. The reluctance to be more active, particularly during speaking activities, has been reported by researchers, and is clearly at odds with the communicative approach”*.¹⁶

(Table 12) Q. 22 Have you ever talked English at the public places? (n = 105)			
	Male	Female	Total
No, I’m not confident to speak English at public places, when I see foreigners in public, I try to walk away.	15	19	34 (32.4%)
Yes, when foreigners ask me for directions or other information, I speak English to them, although I am not confident.	14	19	33 (31.3%)
No, I feel embarrassed to speak English at public places, I only speak English in public, when I am not amongst Japanese friends.	4	13	17 (16.2%)
Yes, I feel confident in talking English in public places. I only talk to foreigners when they come to talk to me first.	7	7	14 (13.3%)
Yes, I feel confident talking English in public places. When I see a foreigner in public places, I go to them & ask if they need any help.	2	2	4 (3.8%)
Others	0	3 ¹⁷	3 (2.9%)

¹⁵ HAYASHI, Masato & Donald CHERRY. (2004) “Japanese Students’ Learning Style Preferences in the EFL Classroom.” *Bulletin of Hokuriku University*, Vol. 28, pp. 83-93.

¹⁶ Ibid., pp. 90.

¹⁷ Others:

- (1) “NO opportunity to do so.”
- (2) “NO, I haven’t had such a chance.”
- (3) “I have never been to public places, where I must speak English.”

Reasons Behind Students' Anxiety When Speaking English

With reference to students' anxiety and embarrassment when facing English-speaking situations, the most common response was that they were "afraid to make mistakes in public when speaking English. Japanese students do not want to make mistakes & cause confusions in public..... In Japan, it is rude to leave someone in confusion & not being able to answer their questions". The second and the third most common responses were that students were "too shy to speak English" and they worry "that other English native speakers & foreigners will laugh at them" (see Table 13). According to Horwitz et al. (1986), speaking publicly in the target language is extremely anxiety-provoking'.¹⁸ McCoy (1979) also mentioned that, "students frequently enter the second language classroom with fears and anxieties".^{19 20} Horwitz et al. (1986) explained that anxious students tend to fear making mistakes while speaking and feel frustrated about their inability to present their ideas and express themselves in the target language.²¹ In addition to risk avoidance, Price (1991) also pointed out that, "their fear of being laughed at" or "making fools of themselves" were the major factors that made students anxious. Price (1991) also reported that students worry about their non-native accent and making pronunciation errors.²² According to Hayashi and Cherry (2004), "the face that making mistakes in front of others is considered to be especially embarrassing in Japanese culture may at least partly account for this concern with accuracy".²³ Both Horwitz (1986) and Price (1991) also reported that Japanese students in general tend to suffer from a high level of anxiety - as they first need to translate ideas and construct sentences in English within a limited time is a significant factor in inducing anxiety.^{24 25} Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) further explained that foreign-language anxiety is closely associated with the inability to present one's idea and opinions, which can undermine self-esteem and threaten one's self-image.²⁶ In addition, such inability to pronounce words correctly or use correct grammar can lead to negative evaluation by others, and the inability to comprehend spoken questions can lead to confusion and embarrassment about how to respond or act.^{27 28 29}

¹⁸ HORWITZ, E., HORWITZ, M. & COPE, J. (1986) "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety." *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 70, No. 2, pp. 125-132.

¹⁹ DONLEY, P. (1999) "Language Anxiety and How to Manage it: What Educators Need to Know." *Mosaic*, Vol. 6, No. 3, pp. 3-9.

²⁰ MCCOY, I. (1879) "Means to Overcome the Anxieties of Second Language Learner." *Foreign Language Annals*, Vol. 12, No. 3, pp. 185.

²¹ HORWITZ, E., HORWITZ, M. & COPE, J. (1986) "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety." *Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 70, No. 2, pp. 125-132.

²² PRICE, M. (1991) "The Subjective Experience of Foreign Language Anxiety: Interviews with Highly Anxious Students." In E. HORWITZ & D. YOUNG (Eds.) *Language Anxiety*. Englewood, Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, pp. 101-108.

²³ HAYASHI, Masato & Donald CHERRY. (2004) "Japanese Students' Learning Style Preferences in the EFL Classroom." *Bulletin of Hokuriku University*, Vol. 28, pp. 85. (83-93)

²⁴ HORWITZ, E.K., M.B. HORWITZ & Jo Ann COPE. (1986) "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 70, No. 2, pp. 125-132.

²⁵ PRICE, M. (1991) "The Subjective Experience of Foreign Language Anxiety: Interviews with Highly Anxious Students." In E. HORWITZ & D. YOUNG (Eds.) *Language Anxiety*. Englewood, Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, pp. 101-108.

²⁶ HORWITZ, E.K., M.B. HORWITZ & Jo Ann COPE. (1986) "Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety." *The Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 70, No. 2, pp. 125-132.

²⁷ HORWITZ, E.K. & D. YOUNG. (Ed.) (1991) *Language Anxiety: from Theory and Research to Classroom Implications*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

(Table 13)			
Q. 28. Why do you think so many Japanese university students are so afraid OR become very nervous to speak English both in & outside of classroom? (multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)			
	Male	Female	Total
Because they are afraid to make mistakes in public when speaking English. Japanese people do NOT want to make mistakes & cause confusions in public.			
Because for Japanese people to say something to someone, they have to ensure that everything has to be correct including regardless it is English or Japanese.	13	27	40
In Japan, it is rude to leave someone in confusion & not being able to answer their questions.			
Because they are too shy to speak English.	13	18	31
Because they worry that other English native speakers & foreigners will laugh at them.	10	15	25

According to Koba et al. (2000), Japanese students tend to have anxiety about speaking in front of other students, and they are likely to be afraid of ‘taking risks’. They often do not speak until they are called on.³⁰

Methods of Self-Learning Preferred Amongst Student Respondents

When students were asked what learning activities they undertook for improving their English skills on their own, a majority preferred a more passive and non-communicative style of learning, i.e., reading books and magazines in English. By contrast, out of all 112 respondents, only 4 of them would choose to converse directly with the native English-speaking foreigners for enhancing their oral skills (see Table 14). Koba (2000) also pointed out that English teaching in Japan still focuses on grammar and translation exercises, although there is an increasing demand to improve communicative competence. Given the historical and social contexts, if interactions are not fostered and encouraged within the classroom, it will rarely occur outside the classroom.³¹

(Table 14)			
Q. 21. What are you doing to improve your English skills? (multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)			
	Male	Female	Total
Read English books, newspapers & magazines.	18	31	49
Watching English movies OR TV programmes.	12	19	31
Do nothing. I'm too lazy to learn English.	8	16	24
Converse with native English speakers or foreigners	1	3	4

²⁸ HORIWITZ, E.K. (2001) “Language Anxiety and Achievement.” *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 21, pp. 112-126.

²⁹ YOUNG, D.J. (1999) *Affect in Foreign Language and Second Language Learning: a Practical Guide to Creating a Low-Anxiety Classroom Atmosphere*. Boston, Mass.: McGraw-Hill College.

³⁰ Koba, N., N. OGAWA & D. WILKINSON. (2000) “Using the Community Language Learning Approach to Cope with Language Anxiety.” *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. 6, No. 11, pp. 1-5. Available at: <http://iteslj.org/articles/koba-CLL.html>

³¹ Ibid.

(Table 15)			
Q. 29. What do you think could help Japanese university students to overcome their fear to speak English? (multiple answers are accepted, only the top 3 most chosen responses are presented)			
	Male	Female	Total
Students should find their own ways to learn since everyone's learning style, pace & interests are different.	10	21	31
Japanese schools/university should hire more native English teachers to help students (one-to-one or small group) with their English skills.	11	18	29
Don't know & don't care.	8	10	18

SUMMARY & DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

Parallel to McConnell's statement (1999), the results highlighted that students felt nervous and embarrassed when they had to speak English in public places, as they worried about making mistakes in the presence of others. In addition to their fear of being ridiculed, Japanese people often face difficulties in expressing their opinions. In fact, many researchers pointed out that Japanese people in general are not used to people or things which are different from the homogenous Japanese norm. Japanese people are also not comfortable with uncertainty.³² As explained by Aiga (1990), expressing one's opinions or ideas or participating in group discussions is not common in Japan. It is believed that this is closely related to the Japanese culture, where it is not the custom to express one's opinion. For example, the old Japanese proverb says "go along with others"³³, and they especially will not express their opinion to someone of higher status, e.g., their teachers.^{34,35} Based on Hayashi's study (1997), when the Japanese students were asked what made a good student, they responded that good students do not interrupt the procedure of the class and should be quiet.³⁶ Kindaichi (1978) also reported similar findings, i.e., Japan's linguistic homogeneity, and group oriented culture could make foreign language learning difficult. Japanese people are reluctant to offer opinions, debate, or stand out for either making a mistake or being more capable than their peers, even in their mother tongue, let alone in a foreign language.³⁷

³² PEASE, Eleanor J. (2006) *The Role of Affect in Japanese Adolescents Learning English*. Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation. Walden University, pp. 39.

³³ AIGA, Y. (1990) "Is Japanese English Education Changing?" *Cross Currents*, Vol. 40, No. 3, pp. 139-146.

³⁴ HALL, E. (1959) *The Silent Language*. New York, N.Y.: Doubleday.

³⁵ GUDYKUNST, W.B. (1997) "Cultural Variability in Communication." *Communication Research*, Vol. 24, No. 4, pp. 327-349.

³⁶ HAYASHI, M. (1997) "Cross-Cultural Conflicts in the EFL Classrooms in Japan." *Bulletin of Hokuriku University*, Vol. 21, pp. 151-159.

³⁷ On one occasion (in May, 2012), I asked a third-year female student why Japanese students are so reluctant to speak out in class, and she gave the following explanation in her own words:

- "Firstly, Japanese tend to reserve from stating their opinion till they think that they understand 100%. We tend to aim to perfect in public (I mean, in front of another person). So, if foreigners speak to us in English, most of the time we would remain silent because we are left in confusion. Secondly, we are raised with telling, "You shouldn't do things that spoil the harmony among the members" or "Stand out from the crowd and you just invite trouble for yourself." So most Japanese dislike to stand out. That's why they don't tell voluntarily. Thirdly, people tend to extremely dislike being humiliated (we think making mistakes in front of another person is typical of that) in the cultural climate of Japan. We become extremely frightened because of that fear. Fourthly, I'm in this case, they might have small vocabulary or cannot find relevant words to express something they want to say, and we are left in confusion. As stated above, we tend to aim at perfection. So we become very nervous because we think of ourselves as

With reference to their language-learning environment, access to proficient English users outside the university is often found difficult. Many did not have an opportunity to study or to use English outside the classroom environment, as most of these Japanese students are living in an entirely Japanese-speaking context, and they rarely get to meet English speakers on a daily basis (see Tables 5 & 11).

With reference to the regular learning mode amongst the Japanese students, Seki (2004) explained that the teaching of more communicative skills, such as speaking and listening, and more student-oriented learning, such as group study and creative work is indeed very rare in Japan. In addition, a majority of the English teachers are Japanese. Though this varies with the university, smaller and more communicative classes (usually taught by native English speakers) are usually optional and accept only limited numbers of students in any year.³⁸ Consequently, Japanese students tend to speak and understand English based on this Japanese communication patterns (i.e., including their different choice of vocabularies, sentence structures and pronunciation, etc.)³⁹ – all these are causing difficulties for the Japanese people to communicate with any non-Japanese speakers. As the survey results indicated that the biggest problems with English for these Japanese students are listening and conversation, followed by grammar and vocabulary (see Table 7).

For most Japanese students, using English could be an intimidating experience, which they felt, with discomfort, high anxiety and low confidence, embarrassment, as well as a lack of initiatives for direct oral communications with foreigners. And self-confidence is related to self-esteem, self-efficacy, and even anxiety.⁴⁰ In addition, their fear of negative reactions, loss of face, and feelings of incompetence and helplessness amongst their peers are the other compelling reasons for the students to remain silent or to shy away from any English-speaking situations.

imperfect.

³⁸ SEKI, Taeko. (2004) *Attitudes to and Motivation for Learning English in Japan*. Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation. Institute of Education, University of Stirling, pp. 157.

³⁹ KATSUMATA, Eriko. (2003) *Re-Contextualizing English as a Foreign Language Instruction: the Case of English Instruction in Japan*. Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation. Faculty of Claremont Graduate University and San Diego State University.

⁴⁰ PEASE, Eleanor J. (2006) *The Role of Affect in Japanese Adolescents Learning English*. Doctor of Philosophy Dissertation. Walden University, pp. 62.

CONCLUSION

The current results are in parallel to findings of other studies that were carried out 10 to 20 years ago, meaning that no significant changes have been made by the Japanese Government for improving the situations in the past decades. The Japanese education policy has proven to be ineffective, because it still merely includes basic grammar, inadequate, and rarely includes conversation. Implications for the students are that they seriously need to increase their contacts with both the English language and especially with native speakers outside the classroom. Because the English language is an essential tool to communicate with other people around the world and obtain information over the Internet. Avoiding English entirely is not a realistic option for these Japanese students, because English language competency is essential to the Japanese, as both the economic globalization and international trade will no doubt continue to expand. Such fearful attitudes about speaking English amongst the Japanese students need to be changed.

The logo for iafor, consisting of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is centered within a large, stylized circular graphic composed of two overlapping, thick, brush-stroke-like arcs. The upper arc is light blue and the lower arc is light red, creating a circular frame around the text.

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(Appendix I)

**Questionnaire on Attitudes Towards English Learning
 Amongst Japanese University Students**

Questionnaire Designed by: Patrick LO
Date: 14th June, 2012

Notes:

- You may write your answers in either Japanese or English.

Questionnaire	
1.	I am: 1. Male 2. Female
2.	Year Group – I am a: 1. First-Year Student 2. Second-Year Student 3. Third-Year Student 4. Fourth-Year Student 5. Others: _____
3.	Age: I am _____ years old
4.	I have learnt English for _____ years.
5.	I have been learning English since: 1. Kindergarten 2. Elementary school 3. Junior high school 4. Senior high school
6.	Do you think English is important? (multiple answers are accepted) 1. Yes, I think English is very important 2. No, I don't think English is important at all 3. Yes, I think English is only important in school & university 4. Yes, I think English is only important for my future work 5. Yes, I think English is important for our daily life 6. I don't know & don't care 7. No comment

7.	<p>What do you think of the English language? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. I think English is a very difficult language2. I think English is easy to learn3. I think learning English is fun4. I dislike/hate learning English, but I have to for my current area of study at university. And I will CONTINUE learning English even after university5. I dislike/hate learning English, but I have to for my current area of study at university. And I will STOP learning English as soon as I graduate from university6. I think English is only important at school/university, but I will never get to use English once I graduate7. I think English is important for my future job/career
8.	<p>Why do you want to learn English? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Because learning English is fun & I enjoy it2. Because I want to participate in English-speaking circles/clubs at the University3. Because the University force me to learn English, otherwise, I cannot graduate4. Because I want to be able to understand English TV & movies5. Because I want to be able to read English novels & newspapers6. Because I want to be able to participate in classes taught in English7. Because I want to be able to give presentations & ask questions in English8. Because I want to be able to write reports & articles in English9. Because I want to be able to understand, talk to & interact with the native English speakers & other foreigners10. Because my professor CANNOT speak Japanese, hence, I have to speak English to him/her11. Because my friends/boyfriend/girlfriend do not speak Japanese, hence, I have to speak English to him/her

	<p>12. Because I want to go to summer schools/international internship in overseas</p> <p>13. Because I want to go to graduate schools (masters/PhD) in overseas</p> <p>14. Because all my friends & classmates are learning English, I am just following the trend</p> <p>15. Because other people say English is important, so I learn it. If people say Chinese is important, I would learn Chinese also</p> <p>16. Because English is very important for my future job/career</p> <p>17. Because I want to teach my own children English</p> <p>18. I want to learn, but I don't know why</p> <p>19. Other reasons: _____ _____ (You may give your answer in either Japanese OR English)</p>
<p>9.</p>	<p>Are you currently taking any private English lessons (outside the University) (multiple answers are accepted)</p> <p>1. Yes, & I am now paying \$ _____ yen / month for private lessons</p> <p>2. Yes, I am, but my English lessons are FREE of charge</p> <p>3. No, I don't want to waste my time & money for private English lessons</p> <p>4. I want to take private English lessons, but I cannot find the right teacher & the right school</p> <p>5. I want to take private English lessons, but I am already too busy with university assignments</p> <p>6. I want to take private English lessons, but private lessons are too expensive</p> <p>7. I think the English lessons/classes offered by the University are already good enough. There are no needs for extra lessons</p> <p>8. I think the English courses taught by the local Japanese lecturers/professors here are already enough. There are no needs for extra lessons</p>
<p>10.</p>	<p>Apart from your University seminars & lectures, how often you speak English in a week?</p> <p>1. Very often, almost every week</p>

	<p>2. Not so often. Because I am NOT so confident to speak English</p> <p>3. Not so often. Because I feel embarrassed & worry that other Japanese people might laugh at me</p> <p>4. Not so often. Because I feel embarrassed & worry that other native English speakers/foreigners might laugh at me</p> <p>5. Never! I just dislike/hate speaking English</p> <p>6. Never! Because of other reasons, e.g.:</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____ (You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</p>
11.	<p>Do you think learning English is fun?</p> <p>1. NO! I think learning English is boring</p> <p>2. NO! I think learning English is frustrating</p> <p>3. Yes, I think learning English is fun & interesting</p> <p>4. I think learning English is sometimes fun, but could be boring at times</p> <p>5. I think learning English is sometimes fun, but could be difficult at times</p> <p>6. I think learning English is sometimes fun, but could be frustrating at times</p> <p>7. I don't know</p> <p>8. Other thoughts:</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____ (You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</p>

12.	<p>Do you think learn English is important for your future? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. I don't think English is important for my future, because I do NOT want to live or study outside of Japan2. Yes, English is important for my future, because English is the second language in Japan3. Yes, English is important for my future, because I want to continue my education in overseas4. Yes, English is important for my future, because I want to work in overseas5. Yes, English is important for my future, because I want to marry/fall in love with a foreigner, perhaps, a British or American person6. Yes, English is important for my future, because of: _____ <i>(You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</i>7. I don't know & I don't care
13.	<p>What do you think about English as the international language?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. I think it is logical to make English the international language, since English is so widely spoken in many parts of the world2. I think they should make Japanese the international language instead. Everyone outside of Japan should also learn to speak Japanese3. This is why I want learning English so much4. This is why I HATE learning English so much5. No comment6. Other _____ thoughts: _____ <i>(You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</i>
14.	<p>Which is/are the most INTERESTING aspect(s) of the English language? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Grammar & vocabulary2. Listening & conversation3. Reading

	<p>4. Writing</p> <p>5. Being able to understand & talk to native English speakers or other foreigners is most interesting</p> <p>6. I do NOT think English is interesting at all</p> <p>7. I don't know & don't care</p>
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15.	<p>Which is/are the most DIFFICULT aspect(s) of the English language? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <p>1. Grammar & vocabulary</p> <p>2. Listening & conversation</p> <p>3. Writing</p> <p>4. Reading</p> <p>5. Being able understand & talk to native English speakers is most difficult</p> <p>6. No, I think English is very easy</p> <p>7. I think grammar, vocabulary, wiring listening, conversation & talking to native speakers are all very difficult</p> <p>8. All of aspects listed above</p> <p>9. I don't know & don't care</p>
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16.	<p>Which is/are the most IMPORTANT aspect(s) of the English language to you? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <p>1. Basic pronunciation & correct accent is important, but correct pronunciation is almost impossible</p> <p>2. Pronunciation & the correct accent are very important to me & I think I could achieve that by hard work</p> <p>3. I want the native speakers & other foreigners to understand me well, without causing confusions</p> <p>4. Pronunciation is not important. I only need to understand & write English well</p> <p>5. It is NOT important at all. I will stop learning English completely once I finish university</p> <p>6. Other _____ aspects:</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>(You may give your answer in Japanese or English)</i></p>
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17.	<p>What is/are the most important English task(s) for you? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <p>1. Being able to listen & understand English native speakers & other foreigners</p> <p>2. Basic conversations with English native speakers & other foreigners</p> <p>3. Being able to write long essays in English</p>
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	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Being able to read newspapers & academic journals 5. Being able to write short & clear emails to your professors & other non-Japanese students without causing confusions 6. Being able to understand the basic things (e.g., new vocabularies) in English 7. Being able to understand English movies & TV. 8. Being able to understand classes taught in English 9. Others: _____ <p style="text-align: right;"><i>(You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</i></p>
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18.	<p>Which statement best expresses your opinion about English?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I need to learn how to socialize with my overseas classmates 2. I need to communicate my teachers/professors, because some of them do NOT speak Japanese 3. It is important for my current university education 4. Just a lesson that fills my time 5. Learning English is fun, and it can help me find a good job once I graduate 6. Learning English is important, as I want to work for an international company in future 7. Learning English is important, as I want to find a job in overseas in future 8. Learning English is frustrating, but really useful for my current university studies 9. Learning English is frustrating, but really useful for my future career 10. Don't know & don't care 11. Others: _____ <p style="text-align: right;"><i>(You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</i></p>
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19.	<p>Have you ever been to any English-speaking countries, e.g., America/USA, Canada, UK, or Australia?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, I have been to _____ for _____ times 2. Not yet, but plan to in the future 3. Never & not interested. I prefer to stay in Japan 4. Never, I prefer to go to other Asian countries
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20.	<p>Have you ever talked with the English native speakers or foreigners outside the classroom?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, very often, almost every day 2. Yes, but only a few times a year
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	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Never, I prefer to only to talk to people who can speak Japanese 4. Yes, I talk with them almost every week 5. Never, when native speakers or foreigners want to talk to me, I pretend that I do NOT understand English
21.	<p>What are you doing to improve your English skills? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Using online English Website sites, do online chatting with the native speakers or foreigner via Internet, etc. 2. Use online English learning resources (e.g., BBC English Learning Website) 3. Read English books, newspapers & magazines 4. Listen to English radio programmes 5. Watching English movies or TV programmes 6. Converse with English native speakers or foreigners 7. Do nothing. I'm too lazy to learn English 8. Others: _____ <p style="text-align: center;"><i>(You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</i></p>
22.	<p>Have you ever talked English at the public places?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, I feel confident talking English in public places. When I see foreigners in public places, I away go to them & ask if they need any help 2. Yes, I feel confident talking English in public places. I only talk to foreigners when they come to talk to me first 3. Yes, when foreigners ask me for directions or other information, I speak English to them, although I am not confident 4. No, I'm not confident to speak English at public places, when I see foreigners in public, I try to walk away 5. No, I feel embarrassed to speak English at public places, I only speak English in public, when I am not amongst Japanese friends 6. Others: _____ <p style="text-align: center;"><i>(You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</i></p>
23.	<p>Do you have friends/relative living who can only speak English? (including friends living outside of Japan)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, I have friends/relatives who can speak English only & I contact them regularly 2. Yes, I have friends/relatives who can speak English only, but I never I contact them 3. No, all my friends & relatives can speak Japanese 4. I don't know
24.	<p>Do you like listen to foreign (e.g., American or British or Australia) songs/music?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, I always listen to English songs, although I do NOT understand the lyrics in

	<p>English</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Yes, I always listen to English songs, because I can understand the English lyrics well 3. Sometimes 4. Yes, but I still prefer Japanese songs 5. No, I only listen to Japanese songs
25.	<p>Do you like watching English-language movies or TV programmes?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, I like watching English movies/TV, but they have to be dubbed in Japanese 2. Yes, I like watch movies/TV in original English language, but it has to have Japanese subtitles 3. Yes, I like watching movies/TV in original English language, even without Japanese subtitle 4. Yes, but I still prefer Japanese movies/TV 5. No, I only watch Japanese movies/TV
26.	<p>Do you plan to continue your education in an English speaking country, e.g., America, Australia, New Zealand, USA or Canada?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, I am planning to go very soon 2. Yes, I plan to go in a few years 3. Yes, I have thought about it, but don't know exactly when 4. No, I don't. If I want to continue my education, it will be in Japan 5. I don't know

27.	<p>Would you want to marry people, which can only speak English to you?</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Yes, if he is the right person, language barrier is not a problem for me 2. This foreigner will have to learn to speak Japanese first 3. I don't know 4. No, I don't want. I only want to marry someone who can speak Japanese
28.	<p>Why do you think so many Japanese university students are so afraid or become very nervous to speak English both in & outside of classroom? (multiple answers are accepted)</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Because they worry that other Japanese people will laugh at them 2. Because they worry that other English native speakers & foreigners will laugh at them 3. Because they worry that both Japanese people & also English native speakers/foreigners will laugh at them 4. Because they are afraid to make mistakes in public when speaking English. Japanese people do NOT want to make mistakes & cause confusions in public. Because for Japanese people to say something to someone, they have to ensure that everything has to be correct including regardless it is English or Japanese. In Japan, it is rude to leave

	<p>someone in confusion & not being able to answer their questions</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">5. Because their English pronunciation is very poor, & English native speakers/foreigners might NOT understand them. Japanese students are unable to clarify themselves if confusions are caused6. Because they are too shy to speak English7. Because they are too embarrassed to speak English8. Don't know9. Other reasons: <hr/> <p><i>(You may give your answer in Japanese OR English)</i></p>
29.	<p>What do you think could help Japanese university students to overcome their fear to speak English? <i>(multiple answers are accepted)</i></p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Students should take private English lessons to make improvements on their own2. Japanese schools/university should hire more native English teachers to help students (one-to-one or small group) with their English skills3. The university/libraries should buy more English learning resources (e.g., books, CDs, AV, etc.) for students to learn on their own4. Students should make efforts to go to English-speaking clubs to learn from other foreign students5. Students should find their own ways to learn since everyone's learning style, pace & interests are different6. Don't know & don't care7. No comment

Multilingualism as A Fact, a Right and a Resource for Developing Intercultural Awareness and Honoring Diversity in International Baccalaureate Programmes

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Abstract

Recent rapid globalization has resulted in a shift in classroom demographics; increasingly, a community of learners consists of students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds and often many of them must access the curriculum in a language other than their mother tongue. In some contexts this has been construed as a problem. However, recognizing the fact of multilingualism, valorizing it as a right, and embracing it as a resource in fostering intercultural awareness can transform the context into a positive environment for learning. Such a response to multilingualism is integral to an International Baccalaureate (IB) education.

The IB offers high quality programmes of international educational to a worldwide community of schools. There are more than 900,000 IB students in over 140 countries. The programmes, since their inception, have placed a central value on language learning. The latest IB stance document on language and learning, *Language and learning in IB programmes* (IBO 2011), describes multilingualism as a fact, a right and a resource. All IB teachers have some pedagogical responsibility for students' development of multilingualism and intercultural understanding. As part of informing teachers' understandings of their role in relation to these aspects of an IB education, the stance document and subsequent professional development resources examine the concept of multilingualism and identify six language domains as being significant for nurturing the successful growth of both language(s) and intercultural awareness.

Introduction

This paper, based on a power point presentation given at the ACLL conference on language learning (Osaka 2013), will briefly describe how the IB interprets the idea of intercultural understanding and then go into more detail on the concept of multilingualism; it will then describe the six identified language domains relevant to developing multilingualism and their link to the effective development of intercultural awareness.

1. Intercultural understanding in an IB context

The development of intercultural understanding is central to the IB mission. It involves developing the ability of students to be able to think critically while investigating possible interpretations of communications so as make informed choices on how to act. Intercultural awareness and understanding is fostered when there are conflicting viewpoints. This can occur when someone is learning a new language and is exposed to new world views and alternative perspectives. By actively responding to conflicting viewpoints and considering other ways of relating to the environment, students learn to engage in dialogical or critical thinking and begin to question their own assumptions. With increased critical awareness and understanding learners are able to become more and more decentred from embedded unilateral assumptions and thus question, and if appropriate transform, the borders of their identities,

In taking a different perspective, language learners of any age or disposition can be brought to a greater critical awareness of themselves and others and thereby become more adequately educated for an international world.

Byram 2008:18

2. Multilingualism in an IB context

The publication, *What is an IB education* (IBO 2012) describes the connection between multilingualism and the development of intercultural understanding. Various historical factors have influenced the choice of the term multilingualism for describing the important language focus of an IB education. These will be described here as they have been important in the evolution of thinking about the development of intercultural understanding in the IB.

2a. Contexts for subtractive bilingualism

The learning of more than one language has not always been viewed as an asset. In fact, monolingualism has been, and is still, encouraged in some cultures where language is recognized as a powerful tool for socialization in developing a singular

sense of group identity and cultural membership. Gradol (2006:18) describes how in the nineteenth century, nation states promoted their particular language(s) as the standard and symbol of national affiliation while other languages (and associated cultures) were marginalised or repressed. When the USA immigrant population was expanding after world war two, English was seen as the language associated with successful assimilation into the new culture promising the ‘American dream.’ Consequently, immigrants were encouraged to, and often willingly participated in, abandoning their former languages and cultures. This created a context for what has subsequently been identified as *subtractive bilingualism* (Cummins 1994) which is a situation where a person’s mother tongue¹ is devalued and ceases to develop or be maintained to its maximum potential. It is instead replaced with a second language which is weakened in development because there is no active transfer of skills and knowledge from the mother tongue. Such understandings were not, however, in place in early assimilatory situations in the US and when the immigrant students tested poorly in standardized tests it was concluded that the cause was bilingualism with negative interference from a mother tongue. In reality, the norms of the tests had been ascertained for monolingual English speakers and were therefore inappropriate for second language learners. The misinterpretation of the results, projecting the outcomes of a subtractive bilingual context, set up a vicious cycle in which stricter repression of a mother tongue and its culture was presumed to be the best cure.

Multilingualism – a shifting concept

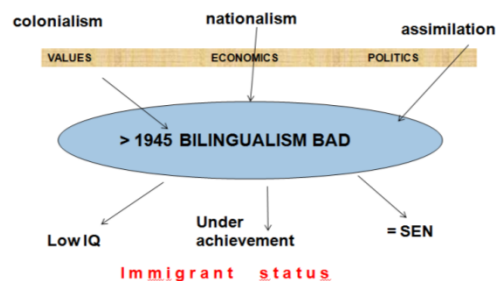


Fig 1: Slide illustrating context creating negative bilingualism

2b. Contexts for additive bilingualism

As nationalism weakened after world war two and as claims for human rights increased, views and ideas on language learning were subject to scrutiny and began to change. The links between language, political power and economic status were examined and discussed in academia as the field of linguistics expanded. Certain kinds of bilingualism came to be valued and promoted. Whereas subtractive bilingualism usually results in the replacement of students’ home languages with the

¹ The term *mother tongue* is used in research literature in various ways. It may denote the first language learner, the strongest language or the language as identified with a ‘native speaker’. In IB documents the term includes all these definitions.

language of the most powerful group, *additive bilingualism* (Cummins 1994) becomes the case when a mother tongue is valued, maintained and developed along with a second language so that knowledge and skills can be transferred. In fact, since the 1990s, a growing evidence base has pointed to the enhanced academic achievement of bilinguals in additive situations compared to monolinguals.

It was within this context of recognizing the value of bilingualism that the IB diploma programme took shape and established itself as a leader in international education partly because of its focus on developing international mindedness and intercultural awareness through requiring students to learn at least two languages. However, despite initial intentions not to limit the languages offered, the organizational structure of the programme came to reflect lingering modernist power structures, associations and assumptions about language. The development of what was considered successful bilingualism became constricted by a model which requires a discrete language A (which may or may not be the mother tongue) plus another discrete language B, within a curriculum where the language of instruction became predominantly English (with some Spanish and French). Consequently, many students for whom English was not a mother tongue were disadvantaged in learning the bulk of the curriculum, and became a new deficit sub culture or “ESL problem”.

Multilingualism – a shifting concept

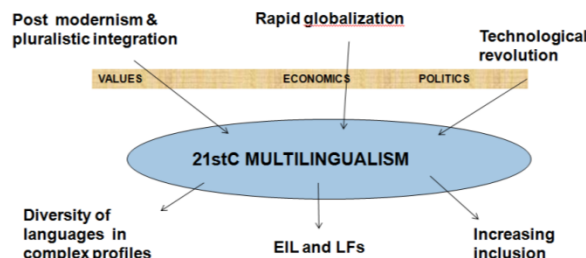


Fig 2: Slide illustrating context creating additive bilingualism

2c. Contexts for multilingualism

Influences today, include a move towards inclusion and pluralistic integration as opposed to assimilation as a means of affirming cultural identities. These have led to changes yet again in the way of thinking about languages and include valuing the right to developing a mother tongue as well as developing the language of instruction for everyone. Furthermore, instead of each language in a person’s repertoire being viewed as a separate tool they are seen as being part of a much more dynamic and interrelated set of practices best represented in a unified multilingual profile which is much more complex than a language A plus B model (Alastair Pennycook April 2010). This reconfiguration takes into account the complex linguistic realities of millions of people in diverse socio-cultural contexts and recognizes that an individual’s store of languages can include many levels of proficiency, including

partial competence and incomplete fluency, as well as metalinguistic awareness, learning strategies and opinions, preferences and passive or active knowledge on languages, language use and language learning/acquisition.

multilinguality is expressed through actions, perceptions, attitudes and abilities (and) not only linguistic facility” (it) displays itself through physical, cognitive, cultural and social qualities (O’Laoire and Aronin 2006: 17–18)

Such views of multilingualism opens up new ways to consider the complexity of overlapping domains of languages in a learning profile and how they may interact to promote socio-cultural competencies, intercultural awareness and international-mindedness. The IB embraces the development multilingualism in student populations as a fact , a right and a resource.

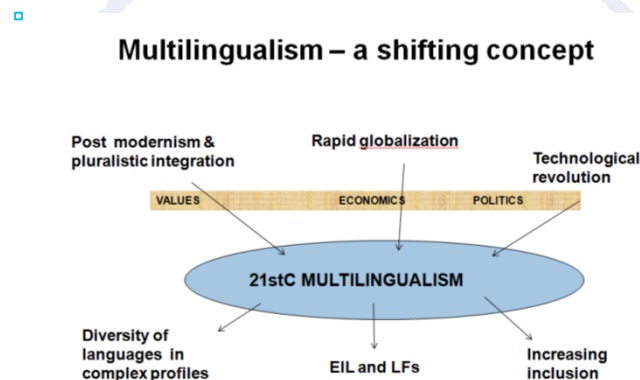


Fig 3: Slide illustrating context for development of multilingualism

3. Language domains

To support IB teachers’ understanding of multilingual repertoires in teaching for language development and intercultural understanding a continuum framework of language and learning domains has been described in the stance document; it is informed by various theoretical models as well as research and practice (Inugai-Dixon 2009).

The identified domains in the continuum, which are linked to the development of thinking skills across the curriculum are as follows:

- discrete skills
- basic interpersonal communicative skills—BICS (Cummins 1979)
- literacy acquisition
- cognitive academic language proficiency—CALP (Cummins 1979)
- literary analysis
- critical literacy



Fig 4: Slide illustrating language domains linked to thinking skills

3a. Discrete skills

Any language learning requires the development of foundational receptive (for example, listening and reading) and productive (for example, speaking and writing) skills. The organizing principles, and thus the approaches to teaching these skills will vary, depending on whether languages are alphabetic, such as the Romance languages, or non-alphabetic, such as Japanese and Chinese. Skills can be transferred from one language to another and when attention is drawn to similarities and differences in the ways cultures encode knowledge and ideas it is an opportunity to begin to reflect on intercultural understanding.

3b. Basic interpersonal communicative skills (BICS)

In richly contextualized social situations, students can quickly acquire the necessary vocabulary, syntax, and accompanying gestures required for the construction of meaningful interactions.

In first-language learning and many introductory second-language learning courses, such early social interactions form the basis for developing what Jim Cummins (1979) calls the *basic interpersonal communicative skills* (BICS). BICS is important for personal development and cultural identity as well as for developing intercultural awareness.

The acquisition of linguistic, pragmatic and other cultural knowledge through social experience [is] how individuals become socialised into particular identities, worldviews or values, and ideologies, as they learn language, whether it is their first language or an additional language.

(Hornberger and McKay 2010: xix)

In second language learning situations these skills provide opportunities to consider alternative ways of behaving and thus reflect on one's own assumptions.(for example, on different ways of greeting such as bowing as opposed to kissing).



Fig 5: Slide used to discuss how BICS can illustrate cultural differences in ways of behaving

3c. Literacy acquisition

Early opportunities for literacy development across the curriculum are important for the development of the academic language of abstract conceptualization and associated cognitive development in later schooling.

The successful development of students' literacy is characterized by a prolific increase in the reading and writing of a wide range of texts for different purposes and audiences. This is accompanied by an enormous growth in the fluent use of vocabulary and stylistic devices. What is sometimes referred to as the "language arts" provides creative opportunities for learners to gain a broad and deep command of the language and culture being studied; students play with and explore language and discover its expressive, dramatic, poetic and artistic aspects.

Developing literacy in a second language is full of opportunities to investigate the stories and dramas from another culture and consider different readings of the world. Michael Worton (quoted in Reisz 2010: 39) says that when learning any new language the pleasure in learning to creatively manipulate it:

reveals to us a different culture in its fullest creative complexity as well as often in its most playful and joyful form.



Fig 6: Slide used to discuss different conceptions of glamour assumed in cultural narratives

3d. Cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP)

The development of academic language skills required for discourse in abstract and decontextualized settings in later schooling is referred to by Jim Cummins (1979) as *cognitive academic language proficiency* or CALP and is in contrast to the more socially contextualized language necessary in BICS.

The view that every teacher is a language teacher regardless of the aspects of the curriculum for which they have responsibility is not only important if all students are to have equal access to the curriculum but also so that teachers can seize opportunities to develop intercultural understandings.

Academic language is inextricably entwined with academic thinking. Robin Lakoff (in Hornberger and McKay 2010: 57) uses the idea of frames as mental structures to explain how we shape and construct meaning and describe conceptions of the world. As our conceptual frameworks change with cognitive development so do our descriptions. Thinking differently requires using language differently. Opportunities to investigate this abound in the humanities and arts but even in science and mathematics attention can be drawn to how language constructs understandings in different ways.

Jay Lemke asserts that teachers must be aware of the fact that, as well as acquiring new vocabulary, students need to:

learn to use language as scientists themselves do – to name, describe, record, compare, explain, analyse, design, evaluate and theorize.

(Lemke, in Wellington and Osborne 2001: iv)

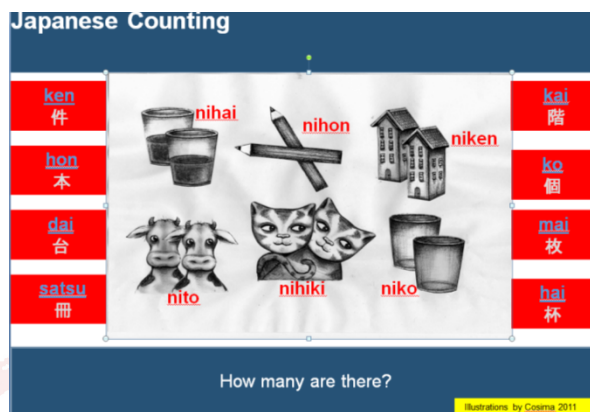


Fig 7: Slide illustrating how counting classifications vary across cultures. In English the classification is based on countable and uncountable nouns.

3e. Literary analysis

Literature has traditionally held a central and privileged place in language teaching. As well as the claim that extensive engagement with literature is effective for language learning, analysing literature also draws attention to how language is used to convey ideas and express the poetic dimensions of a culture. Interpretation, multiple readings and a consideration of cultural contexts require a study of word choice, symbolism, metaphoric imagery and their associated values. For this reason, the study of literature is widely recognized as a means to explore other cultures. The poet TS Eliot said,

For the transmission of a culture—a peculiar way of thinking, feeling and behaving—[...] there is no safeguard more reliable than a language—a literary language, not necessarily a scientific language—but a poetic one.
(Eliot 1948: 57)

Through exploration of the literature of other cultures we can further develop intercultural awareness for while reading literature:

we can leave our own consciousness and pass over into the consciousness of another person, another age, another culture [...] reading enables us to try on, identify with and ultimately enter for a brief time the wholly different perspective of another person's consciousness.
(Wolf 2008: 7)



Fig 8: Slide illustrating how language encodes values and associations (in Dyribal the terms for woman, fire, snakes and dangerous things are similarly inflected)

3f. Critical literacy

Critical literacy has become a generic term that includes the idea of critical thinking. Critical literacy involves a metalinguistic critique of all texts, whether oral or written, and includes literary analyses. It pays attention to the way in which reality is mediated by language and also to the way in which texts are constructed to represent versions of reality. Consideration is given to aspects such as:

- textual purpose
- gaps and silences
- power and interest in relation to purpose
- multiple meanings.

Critical literacy is seminal in the development of intercultural awareness, international-mindedness and transformative thinking. Paulo Freire considered that reading the word cannot be separated from reading the world and challenged the assumption that literacy is simply teaching students the skills necessary for reading and writing. He was interested in the communicative and dialogic aspect of literacy and, ultimately, its power for social action.

True dialogue cannot exist unless the dialoguers engage in critical thinking.
(Freire 1970: 73)

The IB Diploma Programme's course theory of knowledge (TOK) is a critical thinking course asking such questions as the following:

- What counts as knowledge?
- How does it grow?
- What are its limits?
- Who owns knowledge?

- What is the value of knowledge?
- What are the implications of having, or not having, knowledge?

(IB 2006: 3)

The critical literacy developed in TOK emphasises metacognition of the role of language in all learning and all IB teachers are encouraged to apply and develop this in all subject areas.



Fig 9: Slide illustrating how values and beliefs inform action (consider the mountain sacred and it will not be mined for mineral resources)

Conclusion

In its commitment to the development of student intercultural understanding the IB recognizes the value of language learning and development of multilingualism as a resource for transformative pedagogy to promote critical thinking about cultural assumptions and to create opportunities for the crafting of new identity borders and subsequent actions appropriate to dispositions informed by international mindedness.

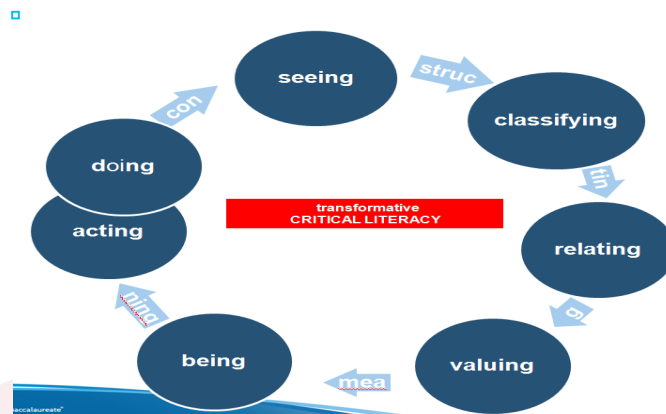


Fig 10: Slide illustrating how critical literacy is central to developing intercultural understanding through transforming habits based on cultural assumptions to actions informed by reflection on available choices

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(Illustrations by Cosima)

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*A Study of Chinese University Students' Usage of Logical Connectors in English
Argumentations, Descriptions and Narrations*

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1 Introduction

The ability of constructing cohesive English texts is gaining academic importance for Chinese learners of English, especially when they compete for further overseas education and employment in the globalized world (Liu & Braine, 2005). However, Chinese English learners usually find it hard to organize a cohesive text, in which the difficulties normally occur at the discourse level, such as the inadequate use of logical connectors (Zhang, 2000). Among all semantic categories of English logical connectors, adversative, causal and temporal types are found to be the most difficult ones for Chinese learners to manipulate (Ho & Waugh, 2008).

Over the past two decades, many researchers have studied the patterns of logical connectors (Altenberg & Tapper 1998; Bolton, Nelson & Hung 2002; Field & Lee Mee Oi 1992; Narita, Sato, & Sugiura 2004; Shea 2009) through comparisons of logical connectors in English samples written by L2 students and native-English speakers. The findings revealed two patterns of connective usage exhibited by L2 learners that distinguished them from native-English writers. These previous studies have provided a starting point for further rigorous investigations into the reasons behind the patterns, particularly a space for a qualitative investigation into the innate process of L2 learners while using logical connectors in English writing.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Studies on Logical Connectors

Quantitative studies have taken dominance in the exploration of connective features in L2 learners' English texts (Castro, 2004; Dueñas, 2007, 2009; Grant & Ginther, 2000; Kiany & Nejad, 2001; Kormos, 2011; Mohamed & Omer, 2000; Mohamed-Sayidina, 2010; Ramos, 2010; Wang & Cho, 2010; Zhang, 2000). The researchers focused on comparison of logical connectors in English texts produced by L2 writers and native-English speakers and found that L2 learners presented the usage of logical connectors in two patterns that distinguished them from native-English writers: (1) for a given syntactic position X, an informal logical connector LC_A was used by L2 writers when a formal connector LC_B could be preferred by native writers of English, and (2) for a given number of words/sentences/T-units and a given genre, frequencies of logical connectors in L2 writers' English texts were higher than that in native-English writers' texts.

2.1.1 The First-Pattern Usage of Logical Connectors

Logical connectors in L2 writers' English texts often displayed an informal and speech-like nature. Chen (2006) noticed an extensive usage of informal logical connectors in Taiwan students' essays and asserted that the non-native-English writers were probably unaware of stylistic appropriateness of logical connectors. Li (2009) also found a high occurrence of simple conjunctive items in Japanese students' English essays, which made the conjunctive patterns in the written discourse similar with those in the spoken one. The findings were consistent with those in Liu and Braine's (2005) investigations of argumentations written by Chinese first-year university students. They found that simple items such as *so* were much more preferable in Chinese students' essays than the complex alternations learned at a later stage (e.g. *on the country* and *nevertheless*).

Reynolds (2002), however, did not report a spoken feature of logical connectors in L2 writers' (Spanish, Vietnamese and some East Asians) writing samples. Rather, he

presented a mixture of formal and informal connective patterns in either oral or written style texts, suggesting that L2 learners had no awareness of stylistic properties and (in)formality of connective usage.

2.1.2 The Second-Pattern Usage of Logical Connectors

The second pattern in L2 writers' texts was concerned with redundant connective usage. Bolton, Nelson and Hung (2002) compared the occurrence of logical connectors in texts written by Hong Kong and British university students as well as native-English professional writers. Both Hong Kong and British students used more logical connectors than professional writers did; however, the overuse was much greater among the Hong Kong students.

Narita, Sato and Sugiura (2004) compared logical connectors in argumentative essays from the Japanese component of the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) with texts from the Louvain Corpus of Native-English Essays (LOCNESS). The findings indicated that Japanese English learners tended to use a larger amount of enumerative, additive and appositive logical connectors than their American counterparts did. Narita, Sato and Sugiura took a further step to compare their data with those in three previous studies conducted by Granger and Tyson (1996), Altenberg and Tapper (1998) and Milton (2001), which respectively focused on connective usage in French, Swedish and Chinese learners' English essays. This comparison among L2 learners with different L1 backgrounds revealed that, the average frequency of logical connectors, particularly of additive and appositive categories, was considerably high across the English texts composed by the four groups of English learners.

In this line of research, the outcomes are quantitatively desirable to confirm findings of early comparative explorations in which connective frequencies in L2 writers' English texts are often perceived as remarkably high in comparison with native-English speakers' norms (Altenberg & Tapper, 1998; Field & Yip 1992; Milton & Tsang 1993). The comparative scope can be transcended by incorporating texts composed by L2 English learners in their L1 into empirical design. The comparative findings between the English texts written by L2 learners and the texts written in their L1 may verify the existence of L1 influence, which is a manifestation of the interplay of L1 and L2 in writing process.

2.2 Research Gaps

Three research gaps have arisen from the existing literature. First, the previous studies have made abundant achievements on the connective patterns demonstrated in L2 learners' English texts, which, in turn, require further study to provide explanations for the phenomena. The two patterns of connective usage aforementioned in section 2.1.1 and 2.1.2 offer glimpses into the processes of L2 learners' minds that may not be accessible from the sole study of English writing samples.

Additionally, incorporating texts produced by English learners in their L1 into comparison allows for a possibility of looking at connective patterns in L2-learner-created English texts from the perspective of L1 influence and L1-and-L2 interaction. As language learners tend to utilize both L2 and L1 linguistic repertoires of connective devices associated with the specific L2 writing task demands (Kang, 2005), the manner in which the linguistic systems process in mind can be different

from that in an L1 writing task with much less participation of another language. The unevenly utilized linguistic systems in L2 and L1 writing tasks could be presented in a real-time written production which will supplement the quantitative data from the early studies.

A third gap is concerned with a methodological issue—genre. Genres distinguish themselves from one another in terms of the lexical and grammatical choices as well as communicative functions in accordance with topics and writers' purposes (Thornbury, 2005). Logical connectors of one particular genre tend to be different from those of others. For instance, descriptions and argumentations require different rhetoric patterns, in that the former is built on information supplement and interpretation whilst the latter is on reasoning and standpoints verification. This results in more consequence and contrast logical connectors such as *because of* and *but* in argumentations than those in descriptions (Ramos, 2010). The logical connectors conventionally situated in narrations also differs those in argumentations (Husain & Wahid, 2008). In this light, the three basic genres—argumentation, description and narration (Tankó, 2004)—were investigated in the study.

Two research questions have been framed.

- 1) What mental processes do Chinese EFL learners exhibit upon adoption of adversative, causal and temporal logical connectors while writing English and Chinese argumentations, descriptions and narrations?
- 2) What factors do affect Chinese EFL learners' choice of adversative, causal and temporal logical connectors while writing English argumentations, descriptions and narrations?

To answer the research questions, the following research methodology was adopted.

3 Methodology

3.1 Participants

Ten Chinese third-year undergraduates from seven disciplines of Henan University in Mainland China participated in the study. All students, four males and six females, were native Chinese speakers, aged between 20 to 23. The students had 7 to 12 years of English-learning experience in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context and none of them had stayed in English-speaking countries before. All the students had passed the College English Test 4 (CET 4¹).

3.2 Data Collection Procedure

3.2.1 Phase One: Collection of Demographic Information, Warming-Up and Preliminary Interviews

One day before the study, the researcher asked each participant to fill out a form concerning demographic information, and conducted a warming-up session with each participant to familiarize them with the think-aloud method. After the introductory phrase, the researcher played a think-aloud recording of a student thinking aloud while writing on an English topic. Then each participant were asked to practice the think-aloud technique on a writing topic which was different from the three assigned topics they would write on in the study. A semi-structured interview with open-ended questions was subsequently conducted to acquire a better understanding of the

Chinese students' English learning history and experiences.

3.2.2 Phase Two: Three English Writing Tasks, Concurrent Think Aloud and Retrospective Reports and Interviews

Three English writing tasks were assigned for the participants: an argumentation, a description and a narration. The participants were asked to do each writing task and concurrent think aloud individually within 30 minutes. They could stop anytime when they completed the task or asked for extra time if they were unable to finish during the given time frame. The researcher observed the participants doing the writing tasks with concurrent think aloud in an invisible place to make sure that the participants continually verbalized thoughts coming into minds. The researcher did not interfere with the writing process or provide neither explanations nor assistance and the participants were not allowed to raise any questions in the middle of the think aloud but continuously verbalized the flow of thoughts. Whenever they fell into silence for any length of time, the researcher would prompt them to speak out loud by saying 'keep talking'.

Retrospective reports were carried out immediately after each think-aloud session. With the text that the participant had written as a stimulus, the researcher asked them to report all they could remember about their thinking upon selecting each logical connector at the moment of writing. Subsequently, the researcher conducted retrospective interviews in which questions concerning possible reasons for choosing a specific or a specific type of logical connectors were raised, particularly when the information that the participant had provided in the concurrent think aloud was obscure. Questions about the effects that the different natures of the writing tasks had on the selection of logical connectors were asked as well.

3.2.3 Phase Three: Three Chinese Writing Tasks, Concurrent Think Aloud and Retrospective Reports and Interviews

The participants were asked to do the same three writing tasks in Chinese with concurrent think aloud after a two-week interval. The procedures were similar to those of the English ones. Before the actual think-aloud, each participant listened to a recording of a student doing think aloud while writing a Chinese text and then practiced the think-aloud technique on a Chinese writing topic. Then, they were asked to complete each task within 30 minutes so that the data elicited from the Chinese writing tasks were comparable with those from the English ones.

Immediately after each think aloud session, with the Chinese texts the participant had just written as stimuli, the researcher asked the participant to report all s/he could remember about the thinking upon adoption of each Chinese logical connector and possible reasons for adopting it. Further, with the English texts the participant had written two weeks ago as stimuli, questions on reasons for employing a different/similar pattern of logical connectors in English and Chinese texts were asked.

In all the three phases, the participants were allowed to speak in the language most comfortable for verbalization to ensure that they acted naturally during the study. The whole sessions were audio- and video-recorded.

3.3 Data Analysis

The recordings were transcribed verbatim after each meeting to facilitate the analysis of data. The transcription is based on the pin yin system (check the system for Putonghua). The conventions for transcriptions adopted in the study are based on the system employed by Murphy and Roca de Larios (2010) for their verbal data. Modifications were made when necessary. The conventions are listed as follows:

- Normal font: the think-aloud talk by the participants
- Boldface: the texts being written
- Underlined segments: linguistic choice being focused

The first step of analysis was to extract the English adversative, causal and temporal logical connectors from the Chinese writers' English texts. Various items that share the same lexical form but function as other parts of speech were excluded. For example, *first* can be used as a logical connector and an adjective as well. The *first* which is served as an adjective are excluded from the final list.

Likewise, Chinese logical connectors signaling adversative, causal and temporal relations between linguistic units (Lin, 2001; Yip & Rimmington, 2004) were extracted. Chinese logical connectors work either individually or in pairs with another logical connector (e.g. 因為 yīnwèi 'because'...所以 suǒyǐ 'therefore') or with a conjunctive, an adverb in the form of monosyllables (e.g. 雖然 suīrán 'though'...卻 què 'but') (Yip & Rimmington, 2004). These co-occured items were extracted as one logical connector.

When the work of extraction was finished, the verbal data were analyzed in a three-step process. First, the transcripts were read through and the protocols that indicated any possible mental activities exhibited by the writers to make sense of logical connector selection were marked and grouped. Next, a coding system for the mental activities concerning logical connector usage was developed. Finally, the researcher assigned the appropriate labels in the established list to the mental processes identified in the protocols.

4 Findings and Discussions

4.1 Range of Logical Connectors in English and Chinese Texts

Thirty English texts and thirty Chinese texts were produced by the Chinese students. The logical connectors extracted from the English and Chinese texts are shown in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1: The logical connectors extracted from the English texts produced by the Chinese participants

	No.	Adversative	Causal	Temporal
Argumentation	1	<i>even though</i>	<i>cause</i>	<i>then</i>
	2	<i>but</i>	<i>because</i>	<i>first of all</i>
	3	<i>while</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>when</i>
	4	<i>although</i>	<i>therefore</i>	<i>while</i>
	5	<i>on the other hand</i>	<i>thus</i>	<i>firstly</i>
	6	<i>however</i>	<i>accordingly</i>	<i>secondly</i>
	7			<i>thirdly</i>

	8			<i>at the same time</i>
	9			<i>at first</i>
Description	1	<i>but</i>	<i>because</i>	<i>after</i>
	2	<i>however</i>	<i>so that</i>	<i>when</i>
	3		<i>for</i>	<i>while</i>
	4		<i>So</i>	<i>before</i>
	5			<i>as</i>
	6			<i>then</i>
	7			<i>first</i>
	8			<i>next</i>
	9			<i>last but not the least</i>
	10			<i>first of all</i>
	11			<i>at first</i>
Narration	1	<i>but</i>	<i>because</i>	<i>when</i>
	2	<i>even though</i>	<i>so as to</i>	<i>before</i>
	3	<i>though</i>	<i>so</i>	<i>at last</i>
	4	<i>however</i>	<i>thus</i>	<i>then</i>
	5		<i>because of</i>	<i>after</i>
	6		<i>so that</i>	<i>as</i>
	7		<i>For</i>	

Table 2: The logical connectors extracted from the Chinese texts produced by the Chinese participants

	No.	Adversative	Causal	Temporal
Argumentation	1	但是 dànshì 'but'	因此 yīncǐ 'therefore'	首先 shǒuxiān 'first'
	2	儘管...但是... jǐn guǎn 'though'... dànshì 'but'...	因而 yīn' ér 'therefore'	在...時 zài...shí 'when'
	3	但 dàn 'but'	以至於 yǐzhìyú 'therefore'	當 ... 時候 dāng...shíhòu 'when'
	4	可是 kěshì 'but'	所以 suǒyǐ 'therefore'	第一 dìyī 'first'
	5		因為 yīnwèi 'because'	其次 qíci 'then'
	6		因 yīn 'because'	再者 zàizhě 'then'
	7		之所以 ... 是因為 ... zhīsuǒyǐ 'therefore'... shìyīnwèi 'because'...	

Description	1	但是 dànshì 'but'	由於 yóuyú 'because'	之後 zhīhòu 'after'
	2		所以 suǒyǐ 'therefore'	然後 ránhòu 'then'
	3			... 時候 ...shíhòu 'when'
	4			首先 shǒuxiān 'first'
	5			在 ... 時候 zài...shí... 'when'
	6			其次 qícì 'then'
	7			最後 zuìhòu 'finally'
Narration	1	即使 ... 但是 ... jǐshǐ 'though'... dànshì 'but'...	因此 yīncǐ 'therefore'	的時候 deshíhòu 'when'
	2	雖然 ... 但 ... suīrán 'though'... dàn 'but'...		當 ... 的時候 dāng...deshíhòu 'when'
	3	然而 rán' ér 'but'		當 ... 時候 dāng...shíhòu 'when'
	4	儘管...但... jǐn guǎn 'though'... dàn 'but'...		... 的 時候 ...deshíhòu 'when'
	5	但是 dànshì 'but'		於是乎 yúshihu 'then'
	6	但 dàn 'but'		當 ... 時候 dāng...shí 'when'
	7			於是 yúshì 'then'
	8			然後 ránhòu 'then'

4.2 Frequency of Logical Connectors

The overall frequencies of logical connectors were calculated (Tables 3-5). The figures exemplify that the occurrences of the logical connectors per 100 words in the English argumentations, descriptions and narrations are relatively higher than those in Chinese texts. An L1-transfer explanation for the overused pattern appears to be ruled out by the fact that the frequencies of logical connectors in the Chinese writers' English texts are approximately three times more than those in the Chinese texts.

Table 3: Frequencies of logical connectors per 100 words in argumentations produced by the Chinese participants

	English argumentations	Chinese argumentations
Number of words/characters	2,244	3,140
Number of connectors	69	32
Number of connectors per 100 words	3	1

Table 4: Frequencies of logical connectors per 100 words in descriptions produced by the Chinese participants

	English descriptions	Chinese descriptions
Number of words/characters	2,395	3,084
Number of connectors	74	25
Number of connectors per 100 words	3	1

Table 5: Frequencies of logical connectors per 100 words in narration produced by the Chinese participants

	English narrations	Chinese narrations
Number of words/characters	2,545	3,292
Number of connectors	85	31
Number of connectors per 100 words	3	1

4.3 Findings from English Writing Tasks with Concurrent Think Aloud and Retrospection

Four mental activities were elicited from the Chinese students' English think-aloud protocols. They were: (1) the writer stated a Chinese logical connector before selecting an English one, (2) the writer restated the Chinese meaning after writing down an English logical connector, (3) the writer stated a grammatical issue upon the selection of an English logical connector, and (4) the writer selected one English logical connector out of multiple availabilities.

Over the four categories, the most frequently occurred mental activity revealed across the three genres was “the writer stated a Chinese logical connector before selecting an English one” (Category 1) (51.7%). For example,

“然後是，儘管，儘管，although, though, though, 雖然，儘管，even, even if, even though, even, even though, Though, t-h-o-u-g-h, though, I had prepared, p-r-e, prepare,

p-a-r-e, I had prepared, prepared, prepared, prepared the class, um, the class, um.” (Chinese participant 9, verbal protocol, English argumentation)

“ranhou shi, jin guan, jin guan, although, though, though, sui ran, jin guan, even, even if, even though, even, even though, Though, t-h-o-u-g-h, though, I had prepared, p-r-e, prepare, p-a-r-e, I had prepared, prepared, prepared, prepared the class, um, the class, um.” (Pinyin transcription)

“Then, although, although, although, though, though, **although, although,** even, even if, even though, even, even though, Though, t-h-o-u-g-h, though, I had prepared, p-r-e, prepare, p-a-r-e, I had prepared, prepared, prepared, prepared the class, um, the class, um. (English translation)

As shown in the example, the writer spoke 然後是, 儘管, 儘管: *ránhòu shì, jǐn guǎn, jǐn guǎn*, ‘then, although, although’ before she came up with the English logical connector *though*. The writer fostered the connective organization through the Chinese train of thought and reflected on the L1 knowledge before making decision on the choice of a logical connector which she thought was an English equivalence of the Chinese 儘管: *jǐn guǎn*, ‘although’. The second-highly-ranked mental activity took place when the writers restated the Chinese meaning after writing down an English logical connector (Category 2) (36.8%).

In retrospective reports and interviews after the English writing tasks, three factors that affected the selection of logical connectors were identified. They are (1) influence of Chinese, (2) logical relationships between two linguistic unites, and (3) selecting one logical connector out of multiple availabilities.

Figures of the three factors reveal that the second one—logical relationships between the two linguistic units—ranks the top (53.8%) across the three text types. It indicates that the Chinese learners were aware of and able to use the logical and contextual resources available to situate logical connectors to fit the intended meaning in a given context, a factor which took superiority in their L1 writing process as revealed. However, when the third factor was further divided into four sub-classes, the situation became complicated. Whenever the writers had to make a choice among multiple availabilities, the four component factors including (1) avoiding repetition, (2) using the first logical connector coming into the head, (3) making the required word count, and (4) using a complex item, would compel them to select one item which they thought should be used in the situation rather than the logical connector which optimally fitted the logicity. Although the Chinese students might sense the importance of the logical link brought out by logical connectors, they might not achieve a natural process of utilizing them when the four component factors interfere.

4.4 Findings from Chinese Writing Tasks with Concurrent Think Aloud and Retrospection

In the Chinese witting tasks and concurrent think aloud, although few mental activities concerning the selection of logical connectors were revealed, the participants confessed two reasons for the selection of a particular Chinese logical connector in the retrospective reports and interviews: (1) showing a logical

relationship and (2) being influenced by the second language.

The writers utilized logical connectors in a way to achieve textual logicity when writing in their first and second language. Rather, the extent to which the writers' internal activities associated with realization of logicity in L1 and L2 writing are inconsistent. In addition of logicity, one other dominant concern of the Chinese writers when writing in English is grammatical constrains. The divergences exhibited in L1 and L2 writing seem to indicate that the logical construction of texts and selection of logical connectors are implemented subconsciously and automatically when writers are writing in their first language. This explains why the participants did not mention reasons for choosing logical connectors in the think aloud, but did so in retrospection when they were required to recall what they were thinking. In L2 writing process, problems concerning the usage of logical connectors often occurred, with sources interwoven in the solutions being grammar rules, experiences, etc. rather than the discourse and rhetorical requirements.

5 Conclusion

The internal processes revealed in the concurrent think aloud and retrospective reports interpret the mental activities involved in the process of writing; the data collected from the retrospective interviews offer explanations and evidence for the mental activities in the meaning-constructing process. The participants reported that in the retrospective interviews, when being asked for reasons of adopting a specific or a specific type of logical connectors in the texts composed in their L1, the dominant concern was with the logicity they were developing and the formality they were creating. Rather, the participants confirmed a different set of factors in L2 writing such as the exertion of L1, grammar rule and pervious learning and writing experiences on L2 writing which addressed a wider interpretation of the idea-organization in the process of L2 writing.

Writing is not only about a growth of grammatical sense, but also a concern of social convention, without which writing will not take place. It is the English teachers' responsibility to teach learners not only the usage of logical connectors, but also the convention, i.e. the social context in which they are supposed to be utilized. If the instruction of convention is not part of the pedagogy, L2 leaners may be disadvantaged in improving with skills of utilizing connective devices.

Notes:

1. CET 4 is the national English level test in Mainland China. Getting at least a passing grade is one requirement for non-English-major undergraduates to get a graduation certificate.

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*Grammatical Error Analysis of the First Year English Major Students, Udon Thani
Rajabhat University*

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Abstract

The purposes of this research were 1.) to investigate types of grammatical errors made by the first year English major students, Udon Thani Rajabhat University, 2.) to explain characteristics of the errors and give examples of the errors in order to find out the proper ways to solve those errors. Data were collected from 49 first year English major students' 200-250 word essays. Frequency and percentage were used for data analysis. The results indicated that the most frequent errors were general grammatical errors: verbs, nouns, possessive case, articles, prepositions, adjectives, and adverbs (47.41%), syntactic errors: sentence structure, ordering, and coordination/subordination (19.53%), substance errors: capitalization, spelling, and punctuations (19.20%), lexical errors: word selection and word formation (11.69%), and semantic errors: ambiguous communication and miscommunication (2.17%) respectively. The characteristics of grammatical errors found in this study were omission, misformation, misordering, and overgeneralization.

Keywords: Grammar/ Error Analysis/ ESL and EFL Learning

The significance of the study

In the world of information and technology, English language has played an important role in Thai society. First, it is used as a medium of communication between Thai people and foreigners visiting or doing business in Thailand. Second, it is a mean of instruction in international schools and universities. Third, it is one of the tools used to search for new knowledge and technology. Thus, it can be said that English has served as an essential tool in all aspects of life in Thailand – social, economic, and academic. As a result, since 1996, English has been made a compulsory subject from the first year of primary school through high school matriculation, to prepare Thai people for competency in using English for communication and knowledge acquisition in the information age.

It is claimed that the goal of teaching English is to develop learners' communicative competence consisting of grammatical or linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Canale and Swain, 1980). Linguistic competence is knowing how to use the grammar, syntax, and vocabulary of a language. Sociolinguistic competence is knowing how to use and respond to language appropriately, given the setting, the topic, and the relationships among the people communicating. Discourse competence is knowing how to interpret the larger context and how to construct longer stretches of language so that the parts make up a coherent whole. Strategic competence is knowing how to recognize and repair communication breakdowns, how to work around gaps in one's knowledge of the language, and how to learn more about the language and in the context.

Through communicative language teaching, it is clear that grammatical competence is an important element to develop learners' ability to use the language correctly and appropriately to accomplish communication goals as Skehan (1996) argues that inadequacy of grammar instruction tends to cause fossilization, classroom pidgins and low level of accuracy. Moreover, Ellis (1994; 2002) supports that grammar instruction cannot only improve learners proficiency and accuracy but also supplement the development of fluency. Research has shown that students who focus their attention on linguistic form during communicative interactions can use the language more effectively than those who never focus on form or only do in decontextualized lessons (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). As a result, grammatical pedagogies have been trying to focus learners' attention on linguistic form or raise their awareness about grammatical features needed in order to get their meaning across (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Ellis, 2002; Hinkel & Fotos, 2002; Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

In the process of second language acquisition, making errors is common, especially grammatical errors as it is regarded as a part of learning a second language or a foreign language. Corder (1967) explains that errors made by second or foreign language learners refer to systematic incorrect utterances occurring in the process of acquiring the language reflecting their underlying knowledge of the language to date, namely, transitional competence. Therefore, learners' errors provide evidence of the system of the language that they are using, or have learned, indicating the state of their linguistic development at a particular point of time. Errors could be found in spoken or written forms. They may contain grammatical errors or communication errors, that is, incorrect and unacceptable utterances, including speaking and writing that is not suitable to the situations.

Causes of errors have been identified by many linguists as Selinker (1972) points out five sources of errors: language transfer, transfer of training, strategies of language learning, strategies of second language communication, and overgeneralization of the target language linguistic materials. Moreover, Richards & Sampson (1974) propose seven factors influencing errors: language transfer, intralingual interference, the effects of sociolinguistic situation, the modality of exposure to the target language and the modality of production, the age of the learner, the instability of the learner's linguistic system, and the effects of the inherent universal hierarchy of difficulty of the particular item being learned.

However, learners' errors could be decreased or solved by conducting systematic analyzing to identify types and characteristics of the errors from learner production of speaking or writing in order to provide them with appropriate feedback and correction. Corder (1967) identifies the significance of errors in three ways. First, through undertaking a systematic analysis, teachers can learn their students' linguistic progress and difficulties. Second, to the researcher, errors provide evidence of how the learners learn or acquire the language and what strategies or procedures do they employ to achieve the learning goal. Third, errors are vital to the learners themselves since they are an essential device for them to test their hypotheses during the process of language learning. Richards & Sampson (1974) support that error analysis is an important tool for teachers to evaluate learners' learning ability in order to set the priority to solve learners' problems from the most frequent errors made by them. Therefore, error analysis is regarded as a diagnosis and prediction of the problems and difficulties of learners. Errors provide significant evidence for teachers to give their students proper corrections and materials to support their learning. Corder (1974) suggests three steps of error analysis including data collection, description, and explanation while Ellis (1997) proposes a more detailed model of error analysis including selection of corpus of language, identification of errors, classification of errors, and explanation.

There has been a continuation of research studies in the area of error analysis both in Thailand and abroad. For example, Likittrattanaporn (2002) conducted a research study on an analysis of English grammatical errors of 90 third year students majoring in Accounting and Marketing, Faculty of Social Sciences, Srinakarinwirot University of Thailand. It was discovered that the percentage of general grammatical, morphological, syntactic, and semantic errors were 57%, 11%, 28%, and 4% respectively. The characteristics of errors were using grammatical omission (21.15%), wrong grammar (48.08%), grammatical replacement (19.23%), and grammatical commission (11.54).

Moreover, the study of Abushihap, El-Omari & Tobat (2011) was conducted in order to investigate and classify the grammatical errors in the writings of 62 students of the Department of English Literature and Translation at Alzaytoonah Private University of Jordan. The students enrolled in a paragraph writing course in the first semester of the academic year 2009/2010. These errors were first classified into six major categories and then they were divided into subcategories. It was observed that the category that included the largest number of errors was the errors of prepositions, which comprised 26% of the total errors. The following most problematic areas were respectively: morphological errors, articles, verbs, active and passive and tenses. On

the basis of the students' results, the researcher has included some pedagogical implications for teachers, syllabus designers, textbook writers and text developers.

Based on the significance of errors and error analysis in second and foreign language learning, the researcher who is an English lecturer in a university would like to investigate grammatical errors made by the first year English major students enrolling the subject EN51105 English Form and Use 1 at Udon Thani Rajabhat University in the first semester of 2012 academic year. These students were the freshmen English majors so it was essential to find out their language ability and difficulties that could provide useful evidence to improve their linguistic competence that is an important part of communicative competence.

Purposes of the study

1. To investigate types of grammatical errors made by the first year English major students, Udon Thani Rajabhat University
2. To explain characteristics of the errors and give examples of the errors in order to find out the proper ways to solve those errors.

Research Methodology

Population The population for this research consisted of 96 first year English major students from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences studying EN51105 English Form and Use 1 in the first semester of 2012 academic year.

Samples The samples of this research were 49 first year English major students from Class 1/1 obtained by purposive sampling.

Research Instrument Data were collected from 49 first year English major students' 200-250 word essays introducing themselves.

Data Collection In the first class time, the students were asked to write a 200-250 word English essay to introduce themselves in one hour. Then, the essays were collected for error analysis.

Data Analysis

1. Grammatical errors were analyzed and categorized into 5 different types adapted from James (1998), including general grammatical errors (articles, nouns, pronouns, verbs, possessive case, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions), substance errors (capitalization, punctuations, and spelling), lexical errors (word selection and word formation), syntactic errors (sentence structure, coordination/ subordination, and ordering), and semantic errors (miscommunication and ambiguous communication). Each error was counted and put into each type.
2. The errors were then explained and exemplified to identify the characteristics of the errors adapted from Ellis (1997), including omission (leaving out grammatical items required for sentences), misformation (using the wrong forms of words or structures),

misordering (putting the words and sentences in the wrong order), and overgeneralization (using over grammatical forms in sentences).

Statistics The statistics used for data analysis were frequency and percentage.

Results

1. The results of grammatical error analysis of the first year English major students divided by types of errors were shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. The results of grammatical error analysis of the first year English major students divided by types of errors

Types of Errors	Numbers of Error	Percentage of Errors
1. General Grammatical errors	284	47.41
1.1. Articles	32	5.34
1.2. Nouns	66	11.02
1.3. Pronouns	11	1.84
1.4. Verbs	88	14.69
1.5. Possessive case	52	8.68
1.6. Adjectives	8	1.33
1.7. Adverbs	6	1.00
1.8. Prepositions	21	3.51
2. Substance Errors	115	19.20
2.1. Capitalization	51	8.52
2.2. Punctuations	30	5.00
2.3. Spelling	34	5.68
3. Lexical Errors	70	11.69
3.1. Word selection	51	8.52
3.2. Word formation	19	3.17
4. Syntactic Errors	117	19.53
4.1. Sentence structure	64	10.68
4.2. Coordination/ subordination	21	3.51
4.3. Ordering	32	5.34
5. Semantic Errors	13	2.17
5.1. Miscommunication	6	1.00
5.2. Ambiguous communication	7	1.17
Total	599	100

Data from Figure 1. indicated that the most frequent errors were general grammatical errors: verbs, nouns, possessive case, articles, prepositions, adjectives, and adverbs (47.41%), syntactic errors: sentence structure, ordering, and coordination/ subordination (19.53%), substance errors: capitalization, spelling, and punctuations (19.20%), lexical errors: word selection and word formation (11.69%), and semantic errors: ambiguous communication and miscommunication (2.17%) respectively.

2. The characteristics of grammatical errors found in this study were divided into 4 characteristics: omission, misformation, misordering, and overgeneralization.

2.1. Omission is the lack of form or grammar that is supposed to have in the sentence but the students omit it. For example, no article, no main verb, no helping verb, no preposition, no punctuation, no possessive case, no subject, and no object.

Examples:

- My father is **soldier**.
- There are 49 **student** in my class.
- My **father name** is ...
- I study English because I **like**.
- I **majoring** in English.
- I **very happy**.
- I **dinner** with my family every weekend.
- My family **live** in Udon Thani.
- I **like listen** music in my free time.
- I **majoring** in English.
- I study English because **it important**.

2.2. Misformation is using the wrong forms of words or structures for example, misspelling, incorrect word selection, wrong form of verbs, wrong form of adverbs, wrong form of adjectives, and wrong form of nouns.

Examples:

- English is important **nowaday**.
- I want to be **a businesswomen**.
- My father **he is a farmer**.
- **Me** and my friends do homework together.
- **I have happiness** with my teachers and friends.
- I **am graduated** from...
- **I interest** English.
- I am **exciting** to study English.
- I like **roasting** chicken.
- I like music because it's **relax**.
- They **sing good**.
- I **frequent do** homework.
- My teacher is **beauty**.
- I like **fire rice**.
- My favorite **single** is Dome.
- My brother is a **Army**.
- I **look** T.V. and make homework before I go to bed.
- **I don't smart** English but I like.
- I like sing because it **funny**.

2.3. Misordering is putting the words or sentences in the wrong order for example, incorrect placement of adjectives, nouns, or verbs.

Examples:

- My brother is **younger than me six years**.
- I take a **shower finished** at 7.00 am.
- Our family **have a new member is elder brother's children**.
- I love **Campus Sampraw** because **air fresh and environment clean**.
- I am **tall** 165 cms.
- My hometown is **far** from Udon 45 kms.
- My favorite food is **rice sticky and chicken grill**.
- My mother is **a woman beautiful and kind**.

2.4. Overgeneralization is using over grammatical forms in sentences for example, putting a preposition when it is not needed, applying _ed past tense signal with irregular verbs, putting _s to signal plural for exceptional nouns.

Examples:

- I want to **go to abroad**.
- Last summer my family went to Pattaya and we **swimmed** in the sea.
- My brother have 2 **childs**.
- There are a lot of **peoples** in Udon Thani.
- My teacher and I often **discuss about** the lessons.
- I look **forward to see** my future.

Summary and Discussion

The results showed that the most frequent errors made by the first year English majors were general grammatical errors: verbs, nouns, possessive case, articles, prepositions, adjectives, and adverbs (47.41%), syntactic errors: sentence structure, ordering, and coordination/subordination (19.53%), substance errors: capitalization, spelling, and punctuations (19.20%), lexical errors: word selection and word formation (11.69%), and semantic errors: ambiguous communication and miscommunication (2.17%) respectively. The characteristics of grammatical errors found in this study were omission, misinformation, misordering, and overgeneralization.

The evidence of grammatical errors indicated that the first year English majors had some difficulties in using correct grammatical forms and structures. However, these errors did not affect communication process much since the students could get themselves understood; only a few per cent of errors caused miscommunication and ambiguous communication. Nevertheless, teachers still need to pay special attention to these errors, especially general grammatical errors such as the use of verbs, nouns, and sentence structures, the most frequent errors made by the students. Besides, there were some language problems of syntactic errors, substances errors, and lexical errors that teachers have to emphasize when teaching to help the students use better English to a more advanced level.

As for the types and characteristics of errors made by the students, it could be analyzed for the causes of errors that most of the errors were influenced by intralingual interference: overgeneralization, ignorance of the rule restrictions, and incomplete application of rules (Richards & Sampson, 1994). Moreover, language transfer of the mother tongue (Thai) (Selinker, 1972; Richards & Sampson, 1974) also affected the numbers of errors found in this study, especially omission of words and misordering of words and sentences because of the differences of Thai and English. Finally, modality, or level of exposure to the target language (English) was an important source of errors since most of these students were from rural areas and the opportunities to expose to or use English in real life were rare. As a result, teachers need to realize the important of these factors influencing the errors made by the students. Furthermore, the errors from this research study can be used for improving learning and teaching process, including giving appropriate feedback and developing teaching materials to solve specific grammatical problems of the students in order to develop their language proficiency effectively.

Suggestions

1. Error analysis is an important instrument for teachers to not only find out learners' language difficulties, but also to evaluate their ability and progress of linguistic development. Therefore, systematic error analysis should be widely informed to and undertaken by second or foreign language teachers of all levels.
2. The results of an error analysis can be used for further research to solve the students' problems, for example, providing the students with noticing grammar lessons, developing error analysis exercises, promoting self-correction and peer correction, enhancing the use of grammar through communicative activities, or implementing other teaching techniques to reduce grammatical errors.
3. There should be research studies to compare grammatical errors made by students with difference language proficiency.

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*Learning Strategies for the Success of EFL Learners : An Evaluation in the Context of
Jazan University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia*

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0079

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Abstract

This paper examines how language learning strategies can be the key factors for the success of EFL learners at Jazan University in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. And the purpose is to investigate how these factors influence the rate and the ultimate success of Saudi learners. Overall 81 students of the preparatory year have participated in this study. Basically, foreign language (FL) or second language (SL) learners vary on a number of strategies employed by learners while learning and using the target language. Therefore, it has been found that a 'good language learner' is in command of a rich and sufficient personalized repertoire of such strategies.

Introduction

Language learning strategies have generated a great deal of interest in the EFL field and there is a plethora of learning strategies in the literature. But it seems that in most of the cases students are not aware of the strategies are being used by them or even they do not know how to use them consciously. On the other hand, the importance of learning strategies is undeniable to be more successful language learners. Hence, this paper has discovered the strategies used by EFL learners at the tertiary level of Jazan University.

Over the last few years, it has been traced out by research that students at the tertiary level having high scale of strategies are doing better than students having less scale of strategies. (Brown, Bransford, Ferrara, & Campione, 1983 and Skehan, 1989; Oxford 1989; Oxford & Crookall, 1989). The same way Naiman et al. (1976) has noted that "good" language learners appeared to use a large and wide range of strategies than "poor" language learners. And the implications of understanding the use of strategies seemed to have increasingly important. To deal with these strategies, the study has tried to find out the answers of the following questions:

- I. Are the EFL students at Jazan University using strategies consciously or unconsciously?
- II. What sort of strategies do they like to use?
- III. What are the roles of the strategies?

Rationale of the study

The objective of this paper is to find out the strategies used (especially most frequently used) by English language learners at Jazan University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The study provides taxonomy of effective strategies and evaluates the feasibility of the role of these strategies for English language learners to achieve success and finally, recommends language teachers/instructors to train or make the students conscious to use strategies while learning the target language.

An Overview

Learning strategies are the mental processes which learners employ to learn and use the target language. Others argue that language learning is a *conscious* and *systematic* process. For example, Oxford (1992) says 'Language learning strategies are specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students often intentionally use to improve their progress in developing L2 skills. These strategies can facilitate the internalization, storage, retrieval, or use of the new language. Strategies are tools, the self-directed involvement, and necessary for developing communicative ability.

The development of learning strategies over the last few decades has been immense; there are now a plethora of these in the literature to categorize it or provide suggestion for pedagogy. The

learner has two types of L2 knowledge: declarative and procedural knowledge (Farech and Kasper 1983b). Declarative knowledge is ‘knowing that’; it consists of internalized L2 rules and memorized chunks of language. Procedural knowledge is ‘knowing how’; it consists of the strategies and procedures employed by the learner to process L2 data for acquisition and for use (Ellis, 1986).

Procedural knowledge can be subdivided, initially, into social and cognitive components. The social component comprises the behavioral strategies used by the learner to manage interaction opportunities (i.e. the use of the L2 in face-to-face contact or in contact with L2 text). The cognitive component of procedural knowledge comprises the various mental processes involved in internalizing and automatizing new L2 knowledge and in using L2 knowledge in connection with other knowledge sources to communicate in the L2. These processes, therefore, involve both learning and using the L2. Learning processes account for how the learner accumulates new L2 rules and automatizes existing ones by attending to input and by simplifying through the use of existing knowledge. The processes involved in using L2 knowledge consist of production and reception strategies and also communicative strategies (Ellis, 1985). Ellis (1985) provides a framework of the different learner strategies shown in figure 1.1 below:

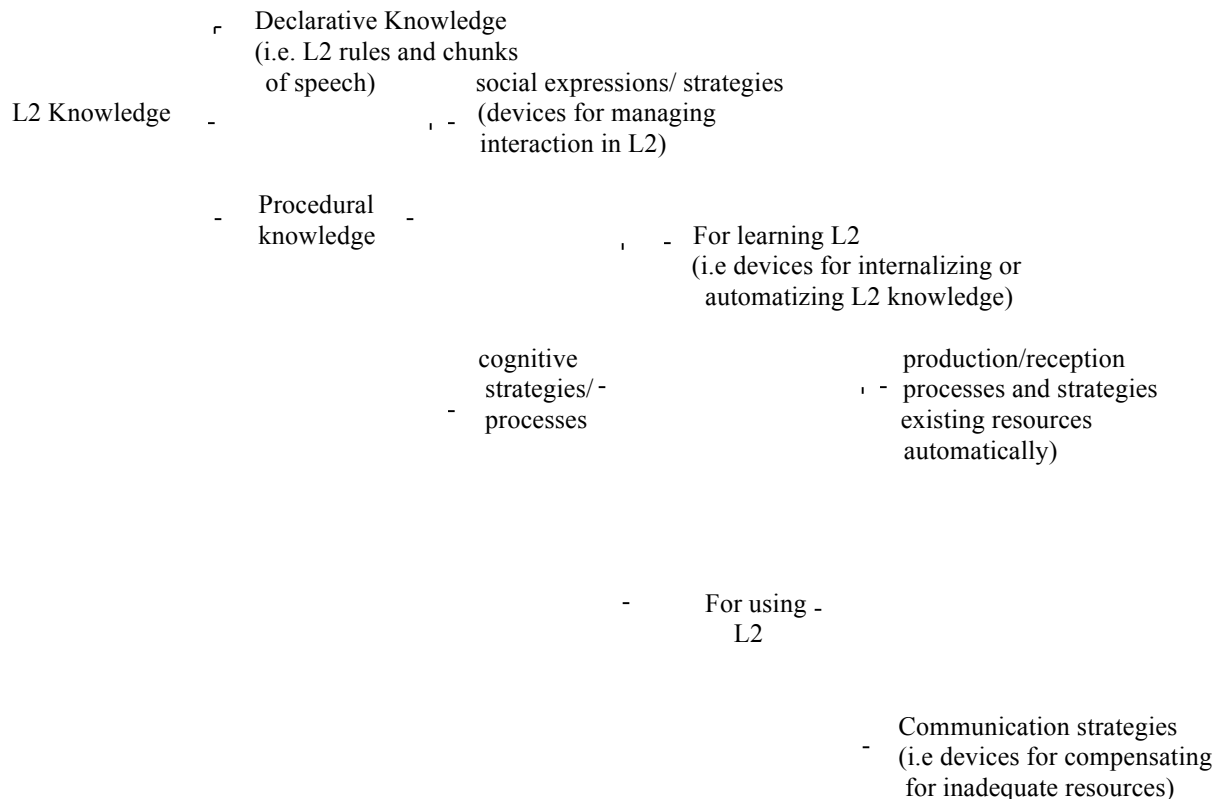


Figure 1.1 .Types of L2 knowledge.

On the basis of the above mentioned framework, Ellis (1985), however, has categorized learning strategies under three broad process types: hypothesis formation, hypothesis testing, and automatization. Hypothesis formation includes such strategies as simplification and inferencing, and refers to strategies whereby learners come to conclusion about the structure of the target language based on samples of the language, or by transferring from knowledge of one's first language. Hypothesis testing refers to strategies such as trying out rules when communicating with a native speaker and monitoring the speaker's reaction to evaluate whether or not the rules seem to work. Automatization includes strategies for practicing the language.

Aside from classifying strategies as focused on the learning or the use of language, there are two other notable approaches to categorize strategies (Schmitt, 2002). One is to categorize them into one of four groups according to whether they are cognitive, meta-cognitive, affective or social (Chamot, 1987). Another is to group them according to the skill area to which they relate (Cohen, 1990). 'Cognitive strategies' encompass the learning strategies of identification, grouping, retention and storage of language material, as well as the language use strategies of retrieval, rehearsal and comprehension or production of words, phrases and other elements of the L2. In short, they cover many of the processes or mental manipulations that learners go through in both learning and using the language (Cohen and Dornyei, 2002).

'Meta-cognitive strategies' are those processes which learners consciously use in order to supervise or manage their language learning. Such strategies allow learners to control their own cognition by planning what they will do, checking how it is going and then evaluating how it went. Affective strategies serve to regulate emotions, motivation and attitudes such as, strategies for reduction of anxiety and for self encouragement. So, for example, before a job interview in the L2, a learner may engage in positive self talk about focusing on the message rather than on the inevitable grammatical errors that will emerge. Finally, social strategies include the action which learners choose to take in order to interact with other learners and with native speakers (i.e., asking questions to clarify social roles and relationships or directed at increasing the learner's exposure to L2 communication and to interactive practice).

The next type of classification of strategies is skill area. The receptive skill, listening and reading skills, productive skill, and speaking and writing skill, are the four basic skill categories. There are, however, other skill areas as well. For example, there are strategies associated with vocabulary learning which cross-cut the four basic skills.

Although the terminology is not always uniform, the term is used as "learner strategies" (Wendin & Rubin, 1987), "learning strategies" (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994), and "language learning strategies" (Oxford, 1990a.), but there are a number of basic characteristics in the generally accepted views of LLS. However, six major groups of L2 learning strategies have been identified by Oxford (1990). I. cognitive strategies II. meta-cognitive strategies III. memory-related strategies IV. compensatory strategies V. affective strategies VI. social strategies .

Thus, many different strategies can be used by language learners: meta-cognitive techniques for organizing, focusing, and evaluating one's own learning; affective strategies for handling emotions or attitudes; social strategies for cooperating with others in the learning process;

cognitive strategies for linking new information with existing schemata and for analyzing and classifying it; memory strategies for entering new information into memory storage and for retrieving it when needed; and compensation strategies (such as guessing or using gestures) to overcome deficiencies and gaps in one's current language knowledge (Oxford, 1990).

Methodology

There were 81 students participated in this study and they were the students of level one & two (First & second semester 2012-13 academic year), department of computer science, engineering and department of science of Preparatory Year of Jazan university. The first language of the students is Arabic and English is used as foreign language.

Data for this study has been collected through questionnaire surveys. The questionnaire is designed based on Oxfrud Strategy Classification System(1990), 'taxonomy of learning strategies (O'Malley et al.1985b:582-584); classification of Communication strategies(Tarone 1981: 286). Lickert scale has been followed to prepare questionnaire.

Descriptive data analyses have been used for data analyses and for this IBM SPSS software has been used.

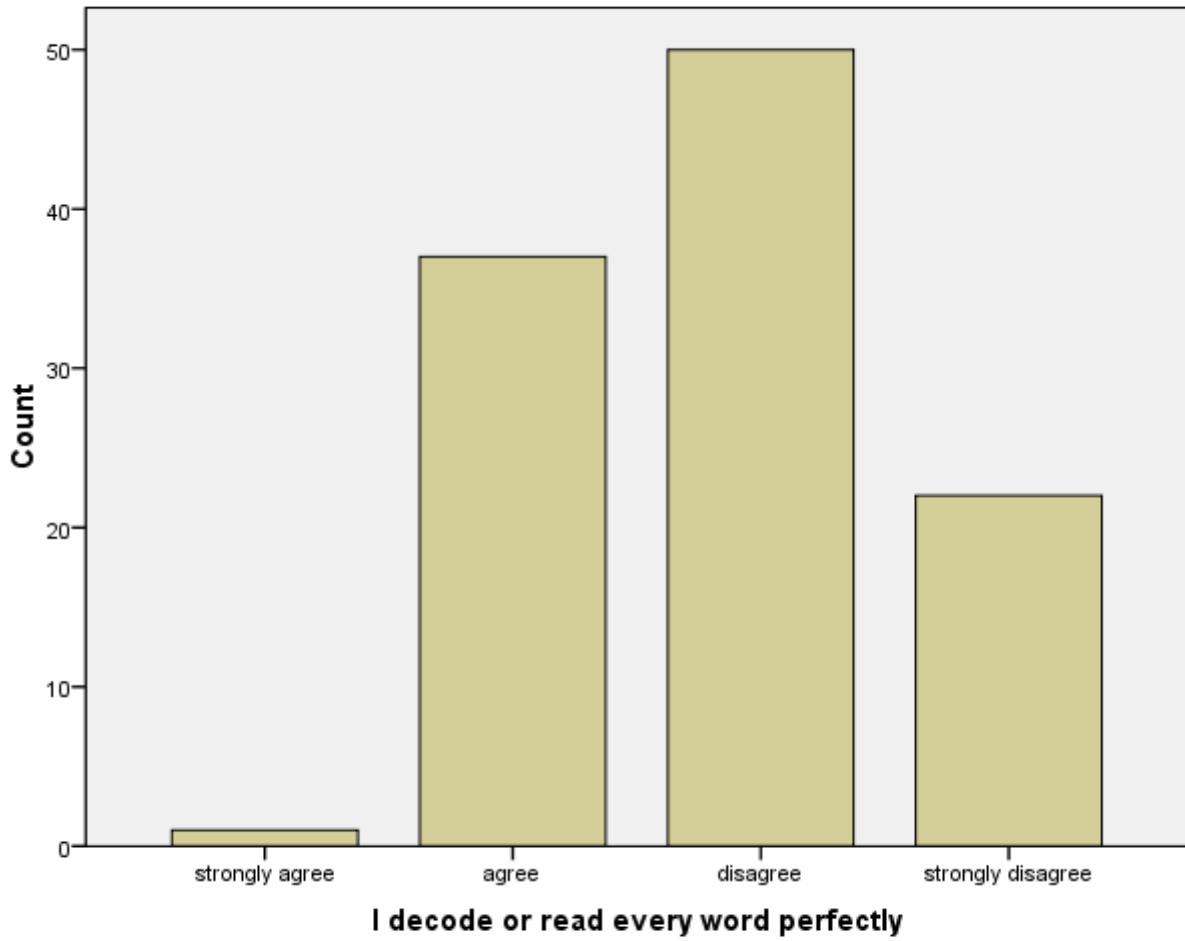
Results and Recommendations

It has been found that students are not normally conscious about learning strategies. They even don't have any prior knowledge of strategies, but students have realized that they need some established techniques/ strategies to be the most successful learners. To what extend learning strategies are being used by Jazan University is shown in the tables and histograms below:

Frequency Table

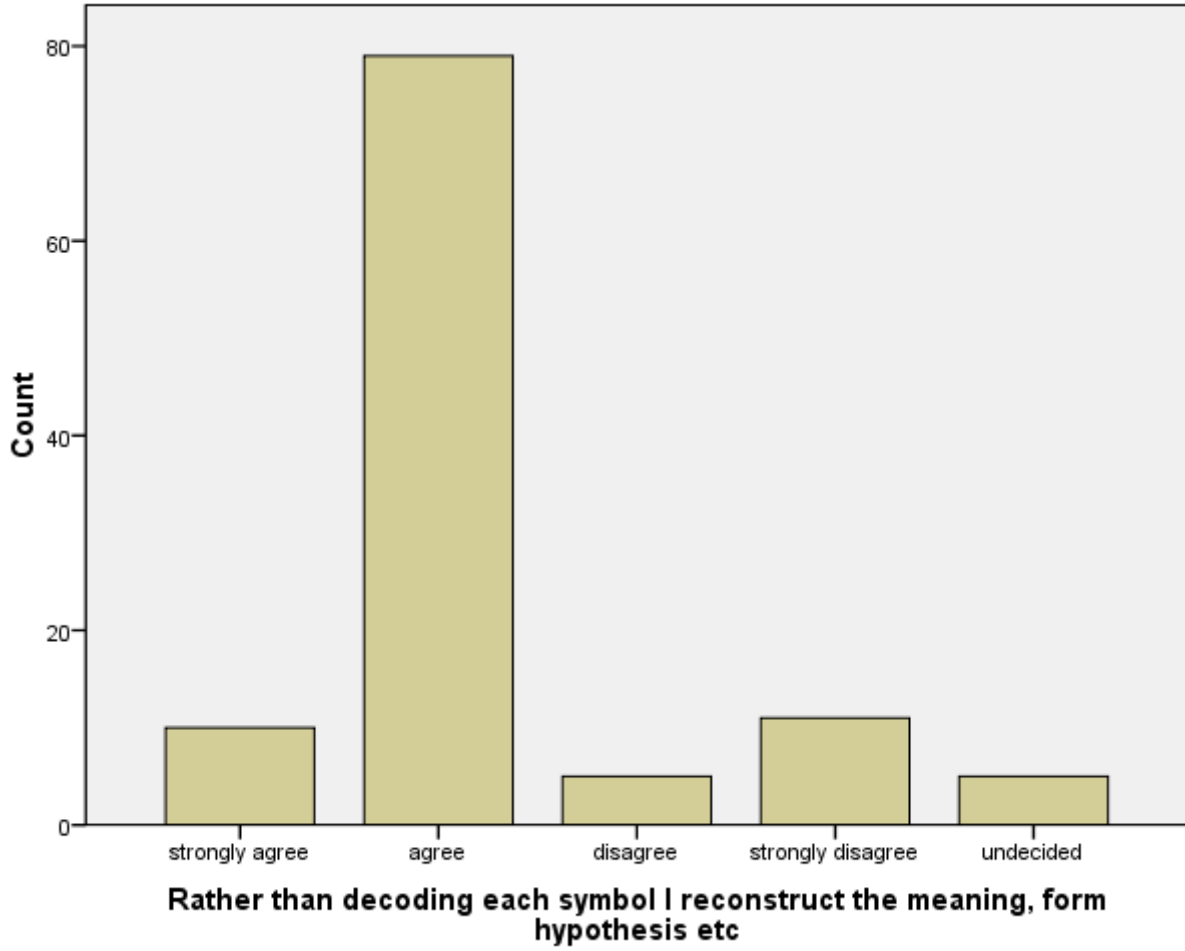
Question : 1 I decode or read every word perfectly

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	1	.9	.9	.9
	agree	35	31.2	31.8	32.7
	disagree	50	44.6	45.5	78.2
	strongly disagree	22	19.6	20.0	98.2
	undecided	2	1.8	1.8	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



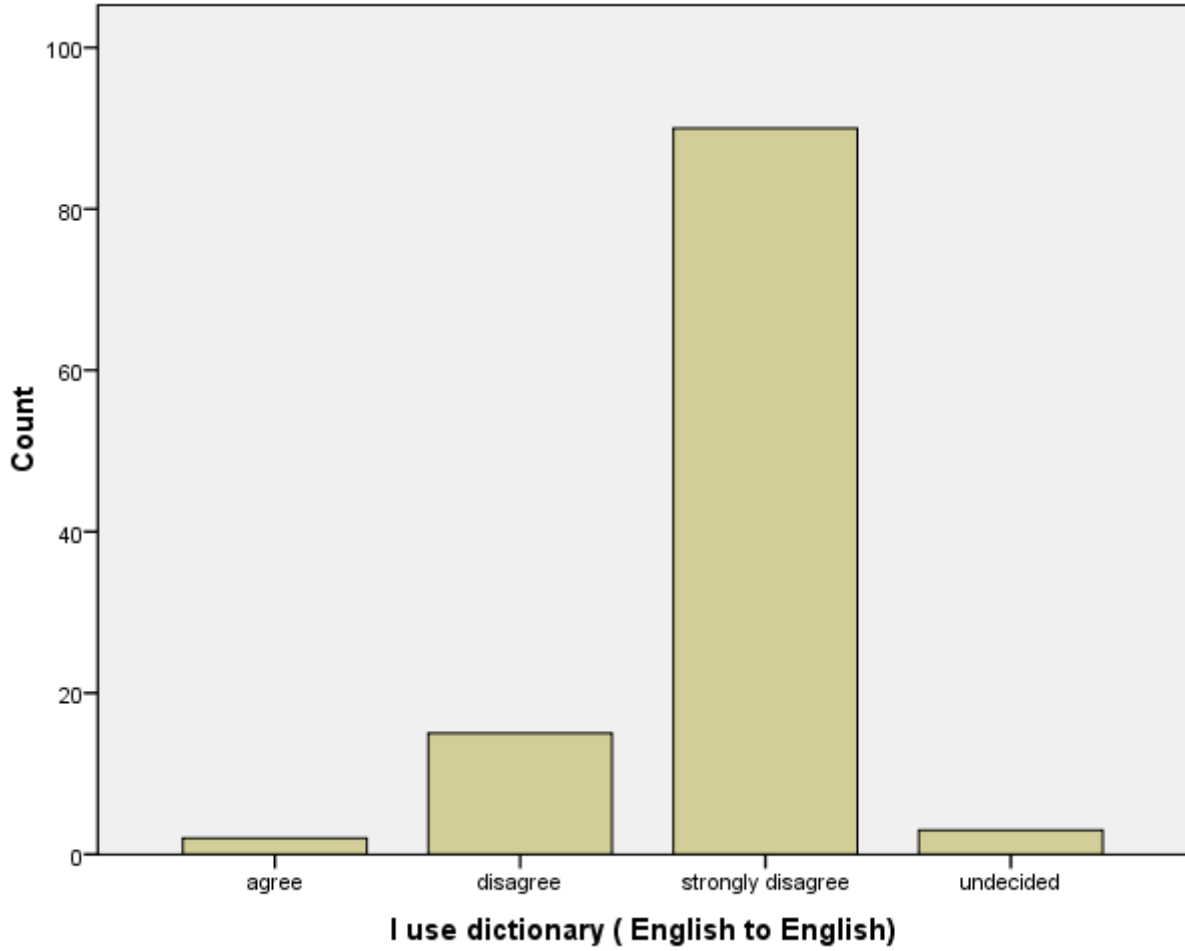
Question : 2 Rather than decoding each symbol I reconstruct the meaning, form hypothesis etc

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	10	8.9	9.1	9.1
	agree	79	70.5	71.8	80.9
	disagree	5	4.5	4.5	85.5
	strongly disagree	11	9.8	10.0	95.5
	undecided	5	4.5	4.5	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



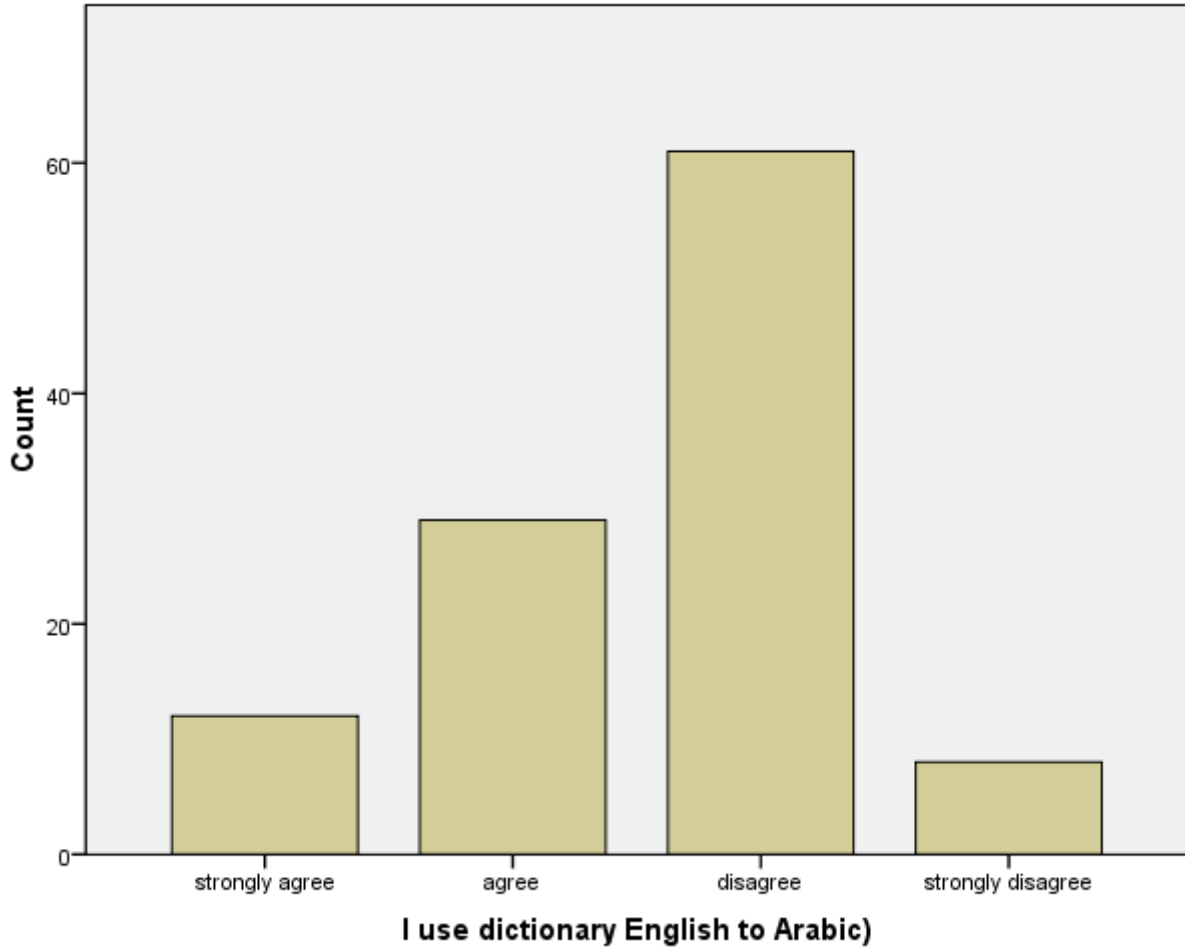
Question : 3 I use dictionary (English to English)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	agree	2	1.8	1.8	1.8
	disagree	15	13.4	13.6	15.5
	strongly disagree	90	80.4	81.8	97.3
	undecided	3	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



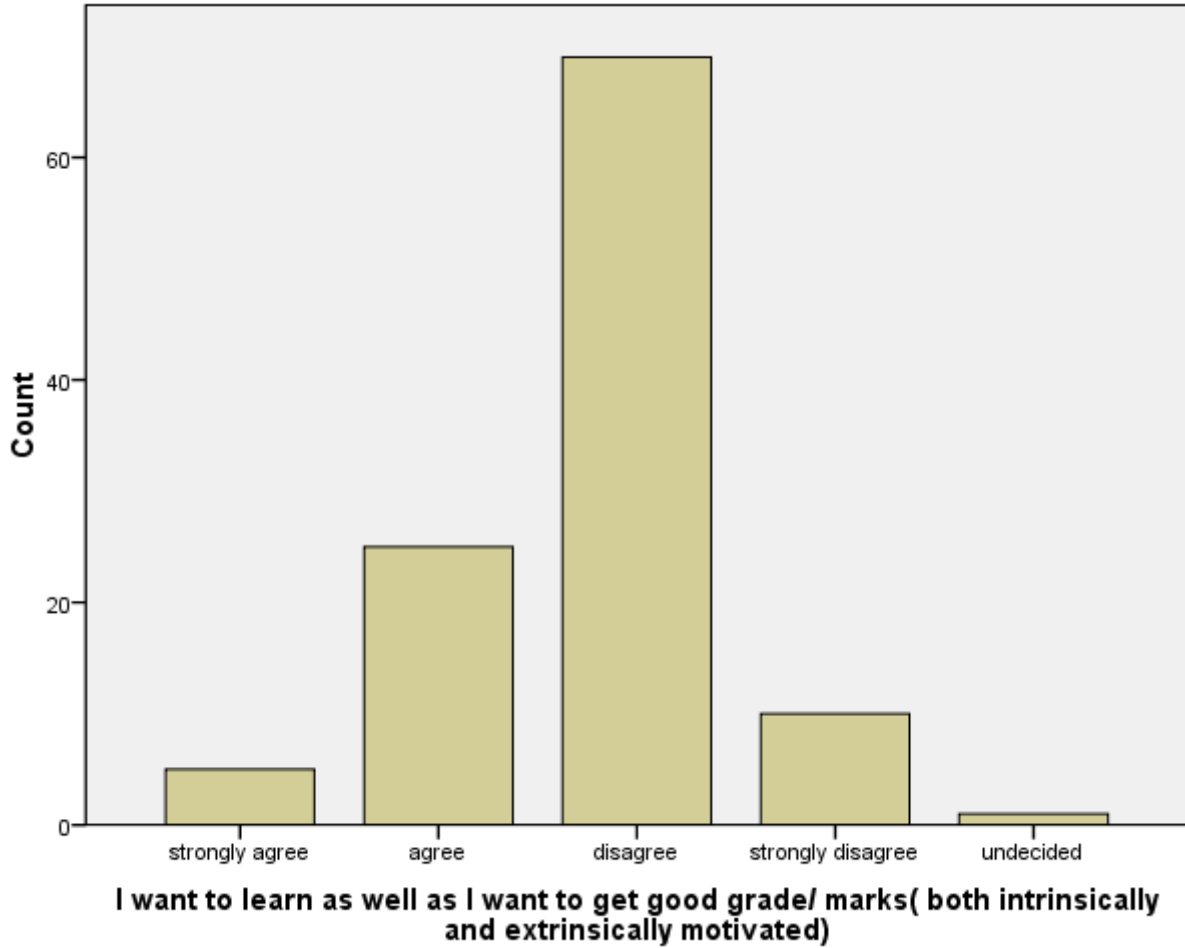
Question : 4 I use dictionary English to Arabic)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	12	10.7	10.9	10.9
	agree	29	25.9	26.4	37.3
	disagree	61	54.5	55.5	92.7
	strongly disagree	8	7.1	7.3	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



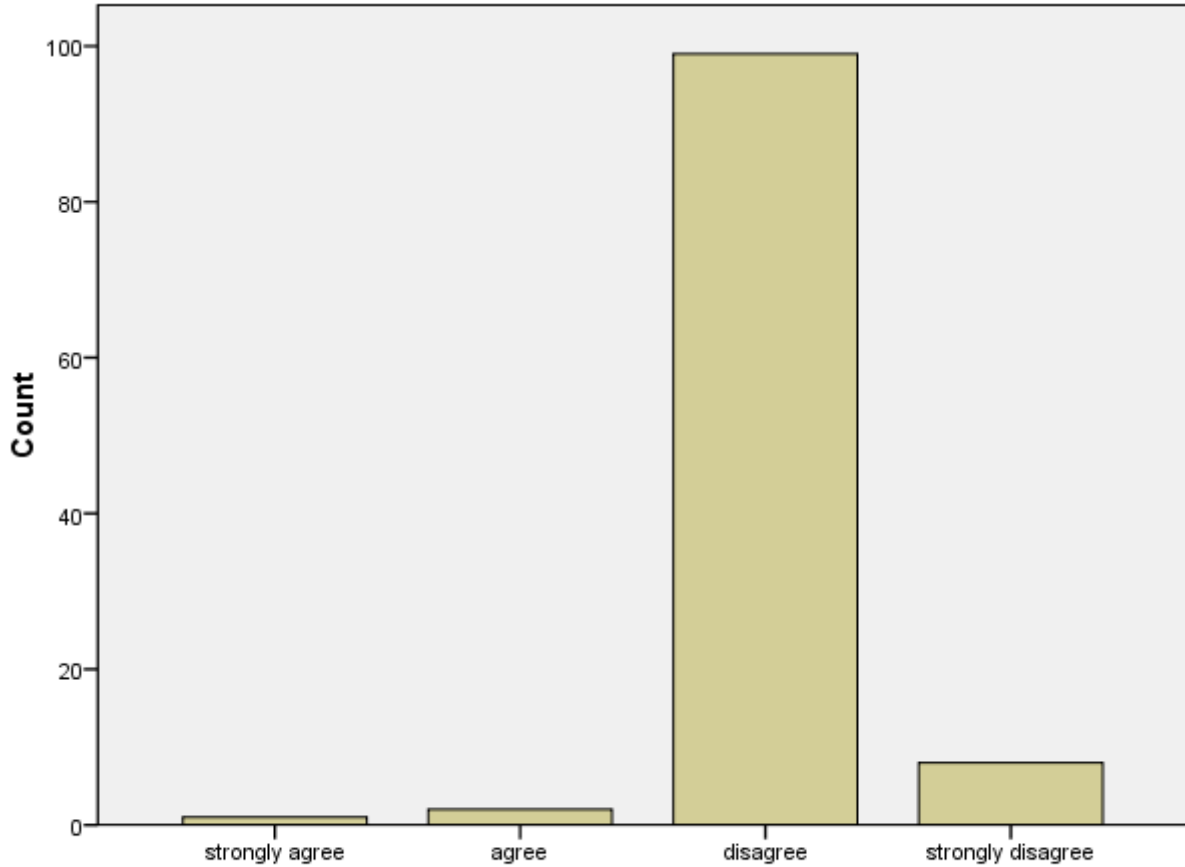
Question : 5 I want to learn as well as I want to get good grade/ marks(both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	5	4.5	4.5	4.5
	agree	25	22.3	22.7	27.3
	disagree	69	61.6	62.7	90.0
	strongly disagree	10	8.9	9.1	99.1
	undecided	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



Question : 6 I read newspaper, magazines, watch English movies, news like BBC, Al Jazeera English and other English programs to improve my learning

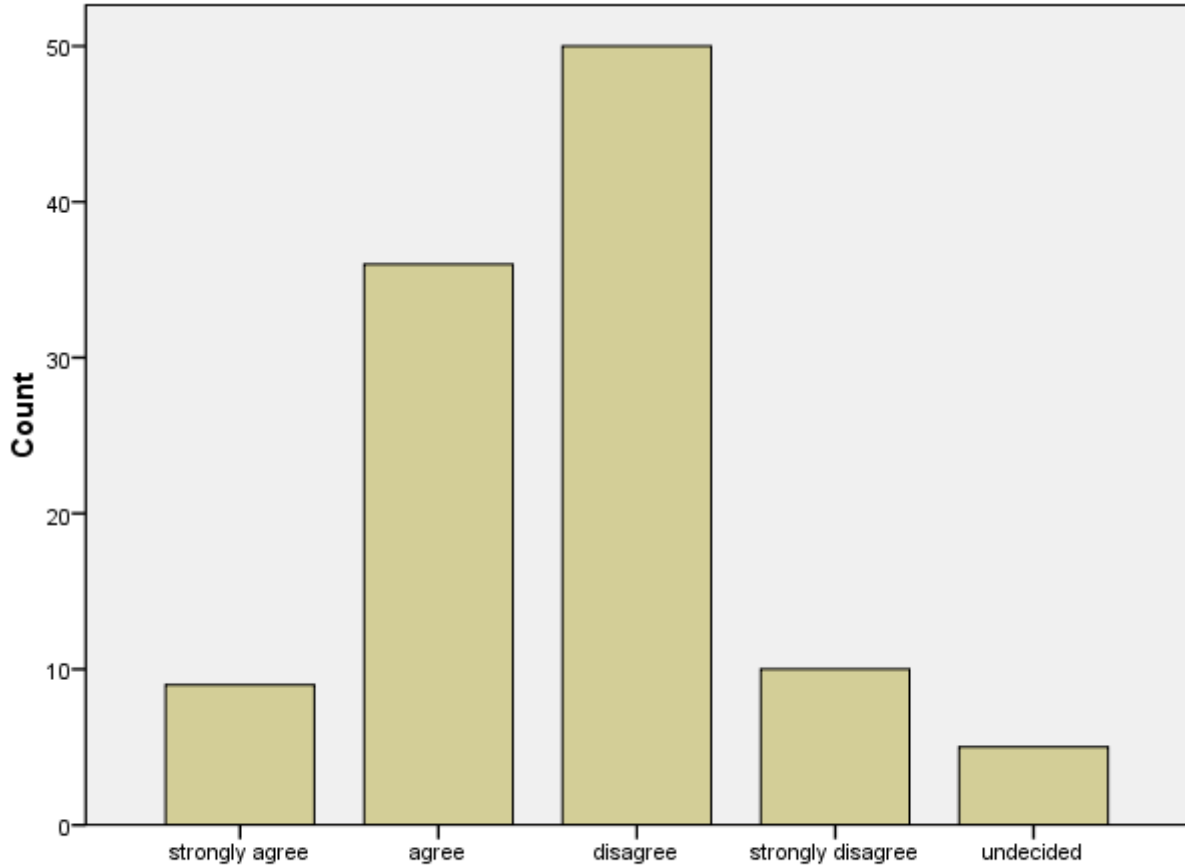
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	1	.9	.9	.9
	agree	2	1.8	1.8	2.7
	disagree	99	88.4	90.0	92.7
	strongly disagree	8	7.1	7.3	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



I read newspaper, magazines, watch English movies, news like BBC, Al Jazeera English and other English programs to improve my learning

Question : 7 I want to learn the formulas and patterns of the target language and I consciously try to apply it to understand the target language

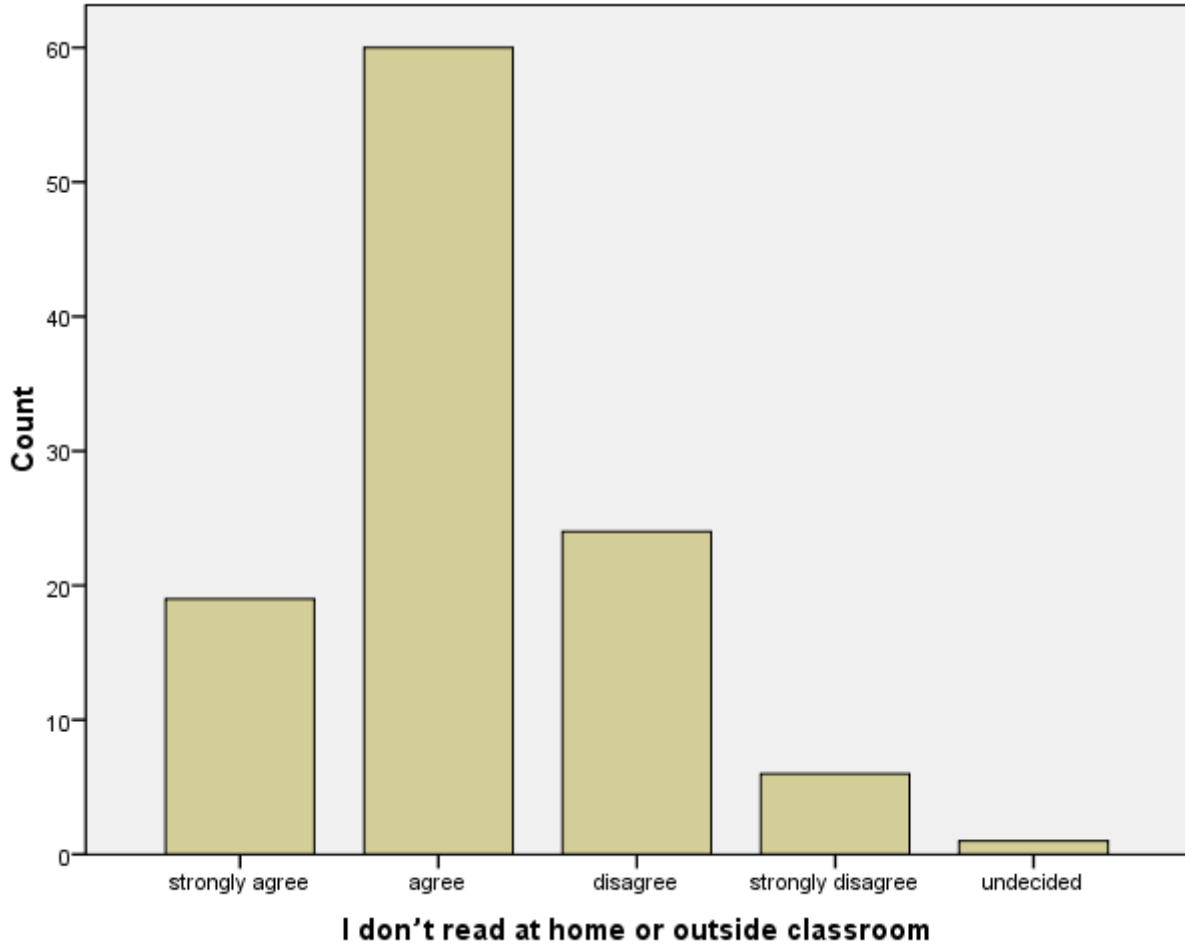
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	9	8.0	8.2	8.2
	agree	36	32.1	32.7	40.9
	disagree	50	44.6	45.5	86.4
	strongly disagree	10	8.9	9.1	95.5
	undecided	5	4.5	4.5	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



I want to learn the formulas and patterns of the target language and I consciously try to apply it to understand the target language

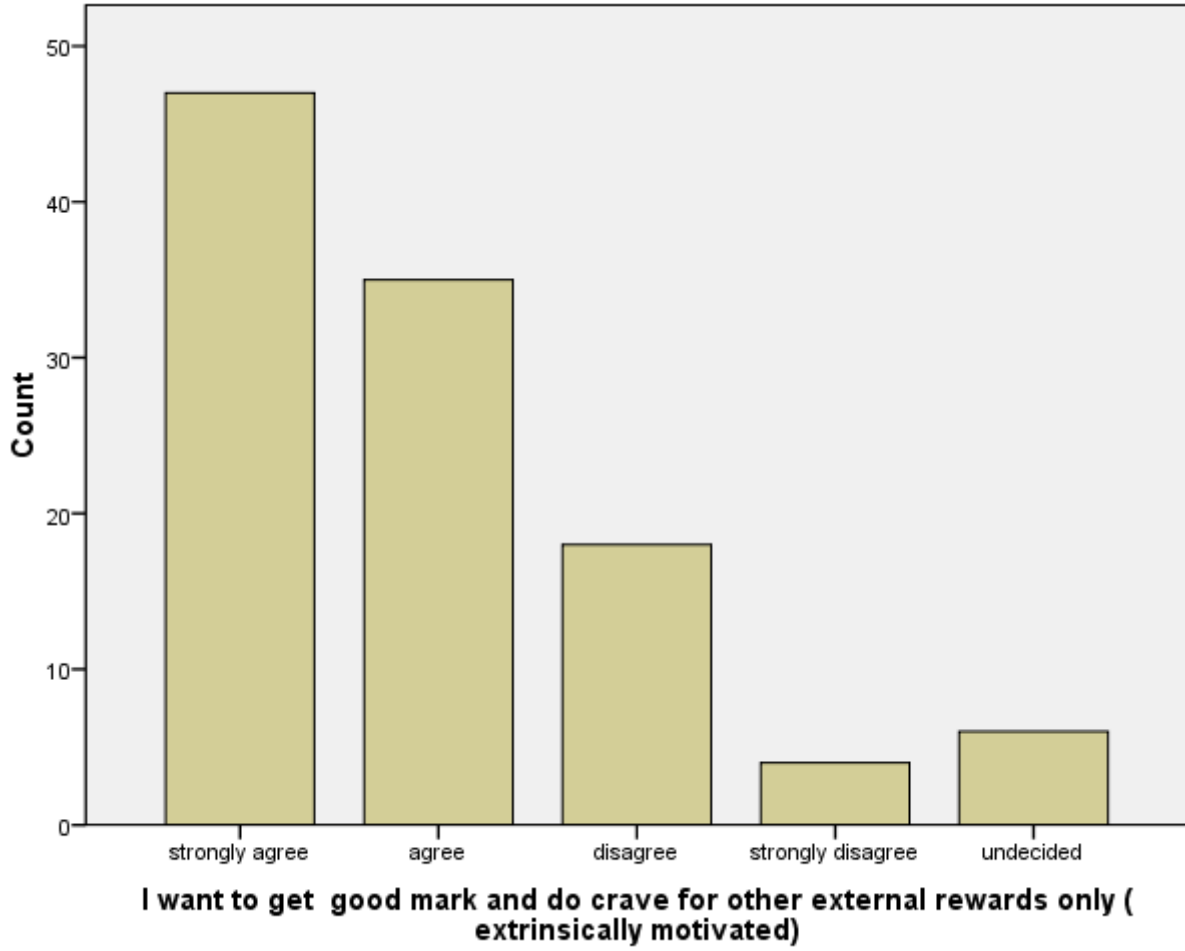
Question : 8 I don't read at home or outside classroom

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	19	17.0	17.3	17.3
	agree	60	53.6	54.5	71.8
	disagree	24	21.4	21.8	93.6
	strongly disagree	6	5.4	5.5	99.1
	undecided	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



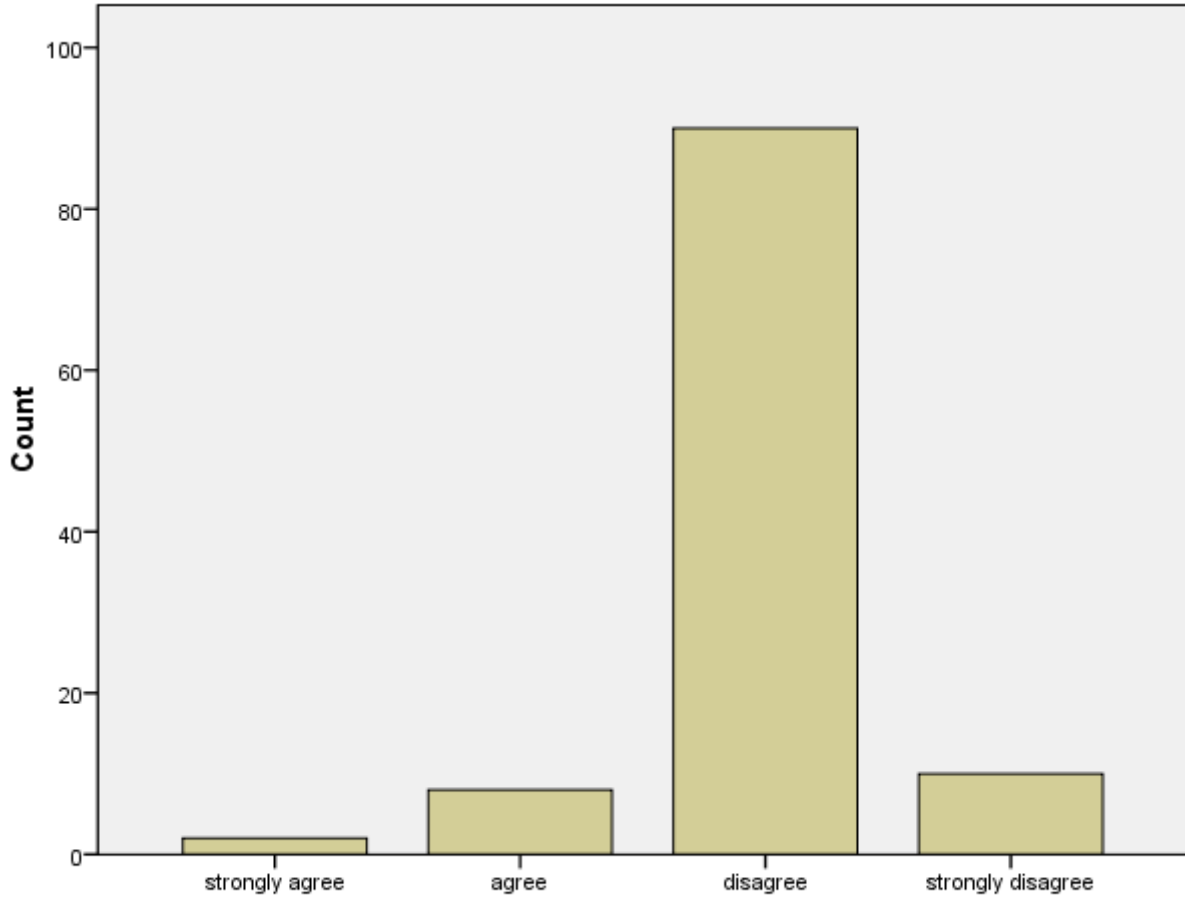
Question : 9 I want to get good mark and do crave for other external rewards only (extrinsically motivated)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	47	42.0	42.7	42.7
	agree	35	31.2	31.8	74.5
	disagree	18	16.1	16.4	90.9
	strongly disagree	4	3.6	3.6	94.5
	undecided	6	5.4	5.5	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



Question : 10 I set my goal, target and prepare course plans and outlines

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	2	1.8	1.8	1.8
	agree	8	7.1	7.3	9.1
	disagree	90	80.4	81.8	90.9
	strongly disagree	10	8.9	9.1	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



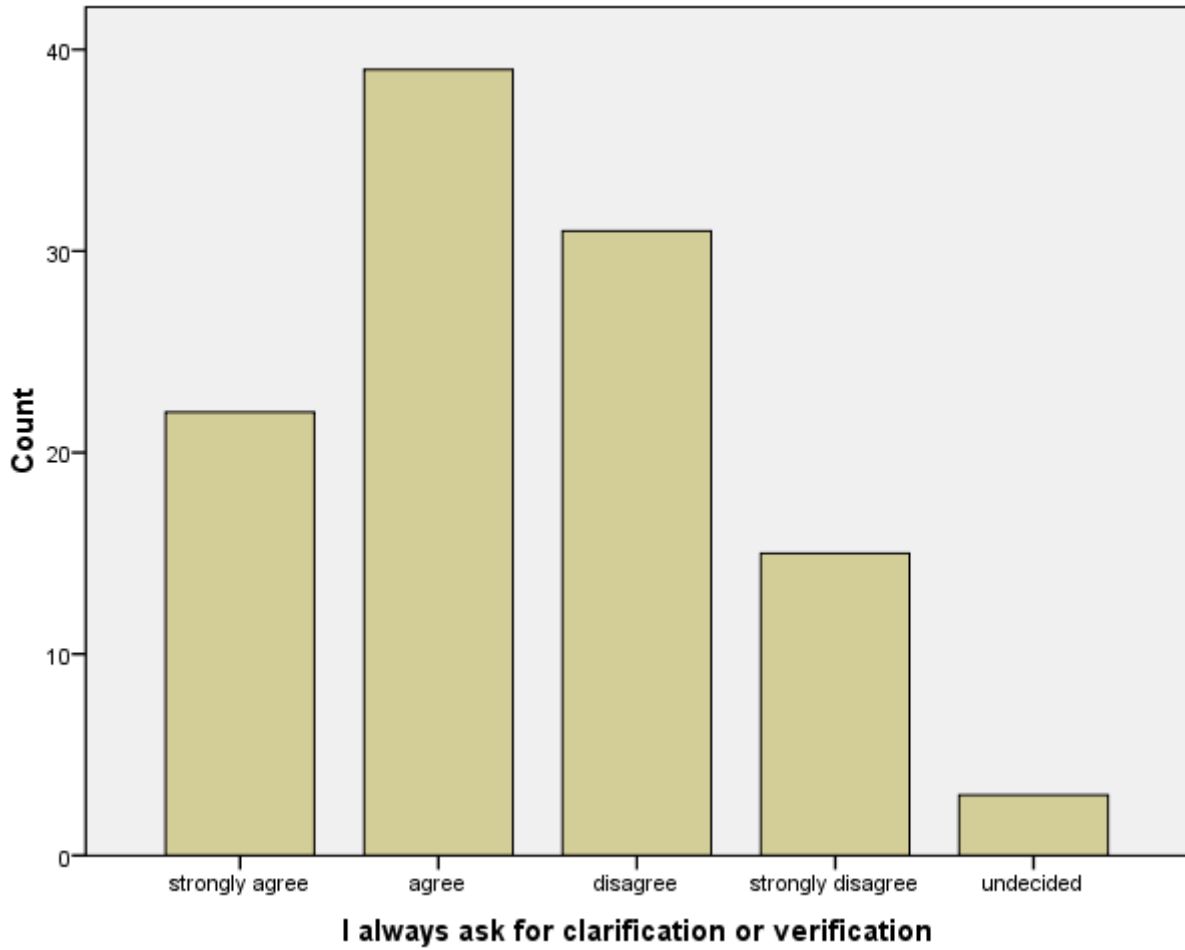
I set my goal, target and prepare course plans and outlines

Question : 11 I identify the purpose of the skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	18	16.1	16.4	16.4
	agree	2	1.8	1.8	18.2
	disagree	80	71.4	72.7	90.9
	strongly disagree	10	8.9	9.1	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		

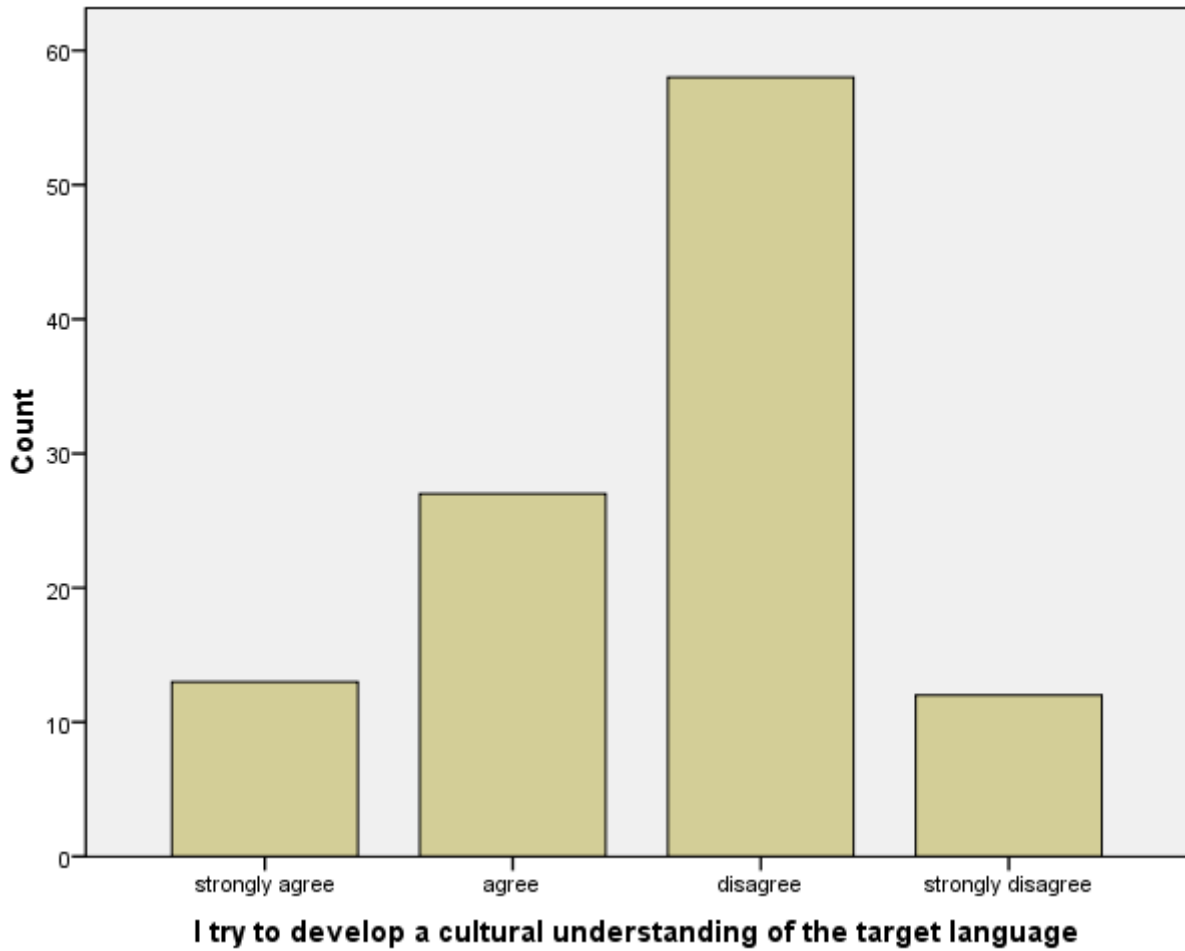
Question : 12 I always ask for clarification or verification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	22	19.6	20.0	20.0
	agree	39	34.8	35.5	55.5
	disagree	31	27.7	28.2	83.6
	strongly disagree	15	13.4	13.6	97.3
	undecided	3	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



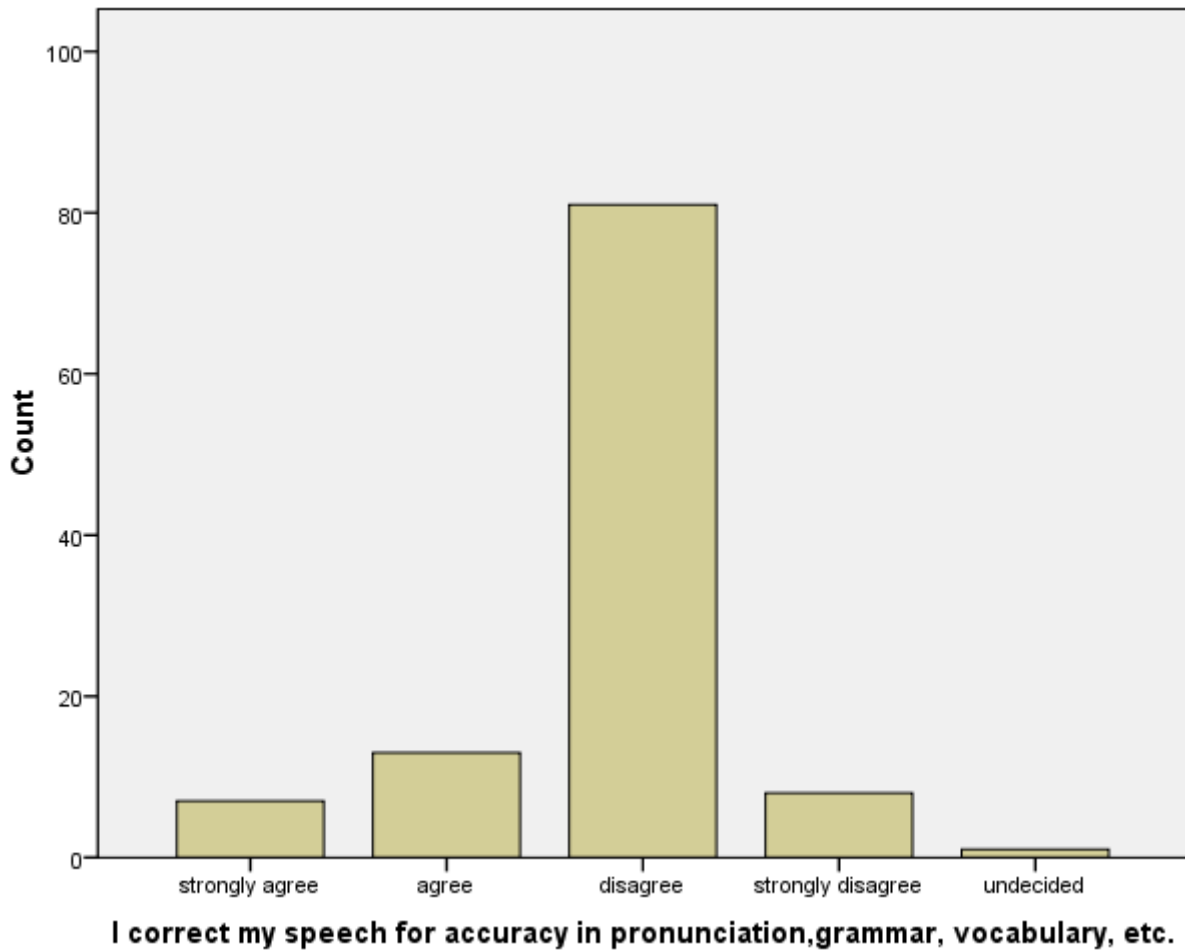
Question : 13 I try to develop a cultural understanding of the target language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	13	11.6	11.8	11.8
	agree	27	24.1	24.5	36.4
	disagree	58	51.8	52.7	89.1
	strongly disagree	12	10.7	10.9	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



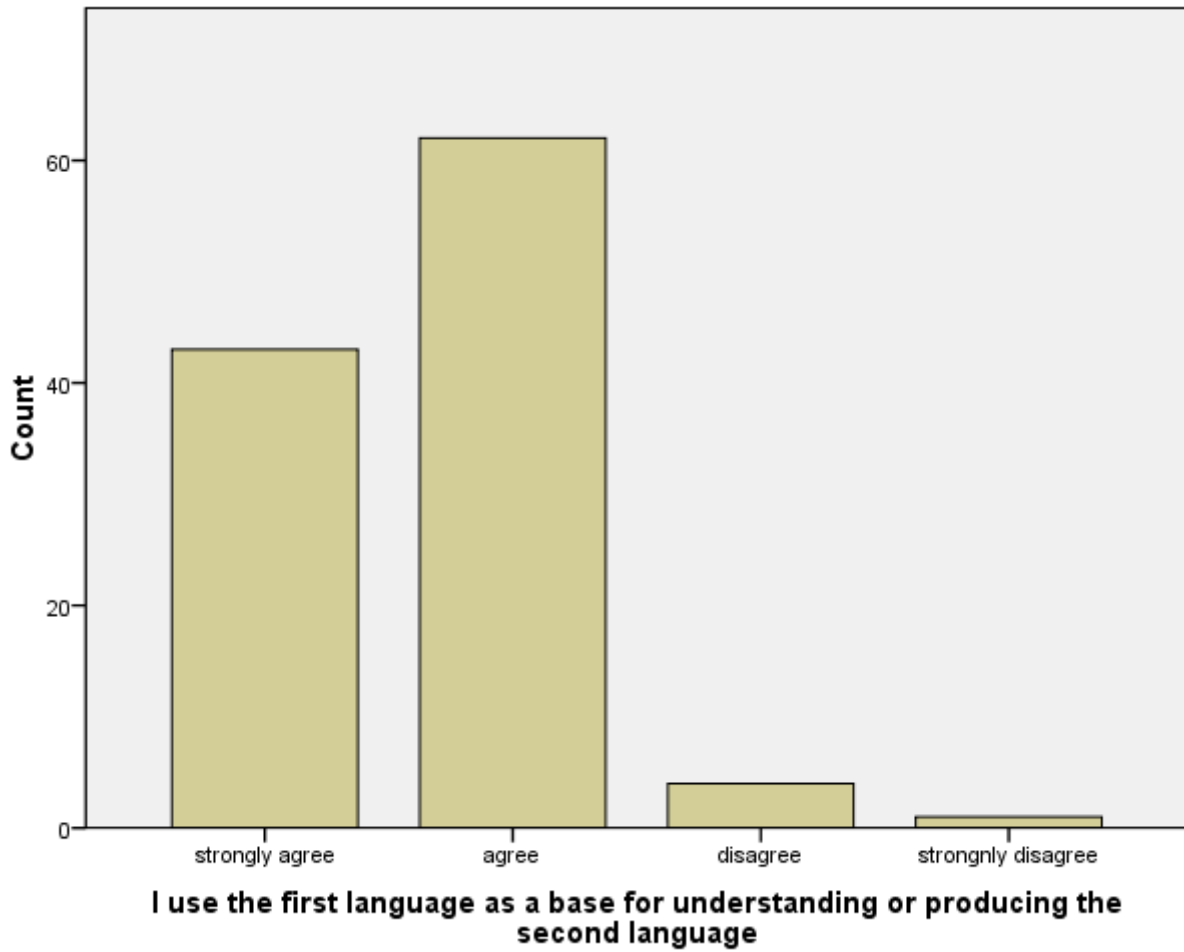
Question : 14 I correct my speech for accuracy in pronunciation,grammar, vocabulary, etc.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	7	6.2	6.4	6.4
	agree	13	11.6	11.8	18.2
	disagree	81	72.3	73.6	91.8
	strongly disagree	8	7.1	7.3	99.1
	undecided	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



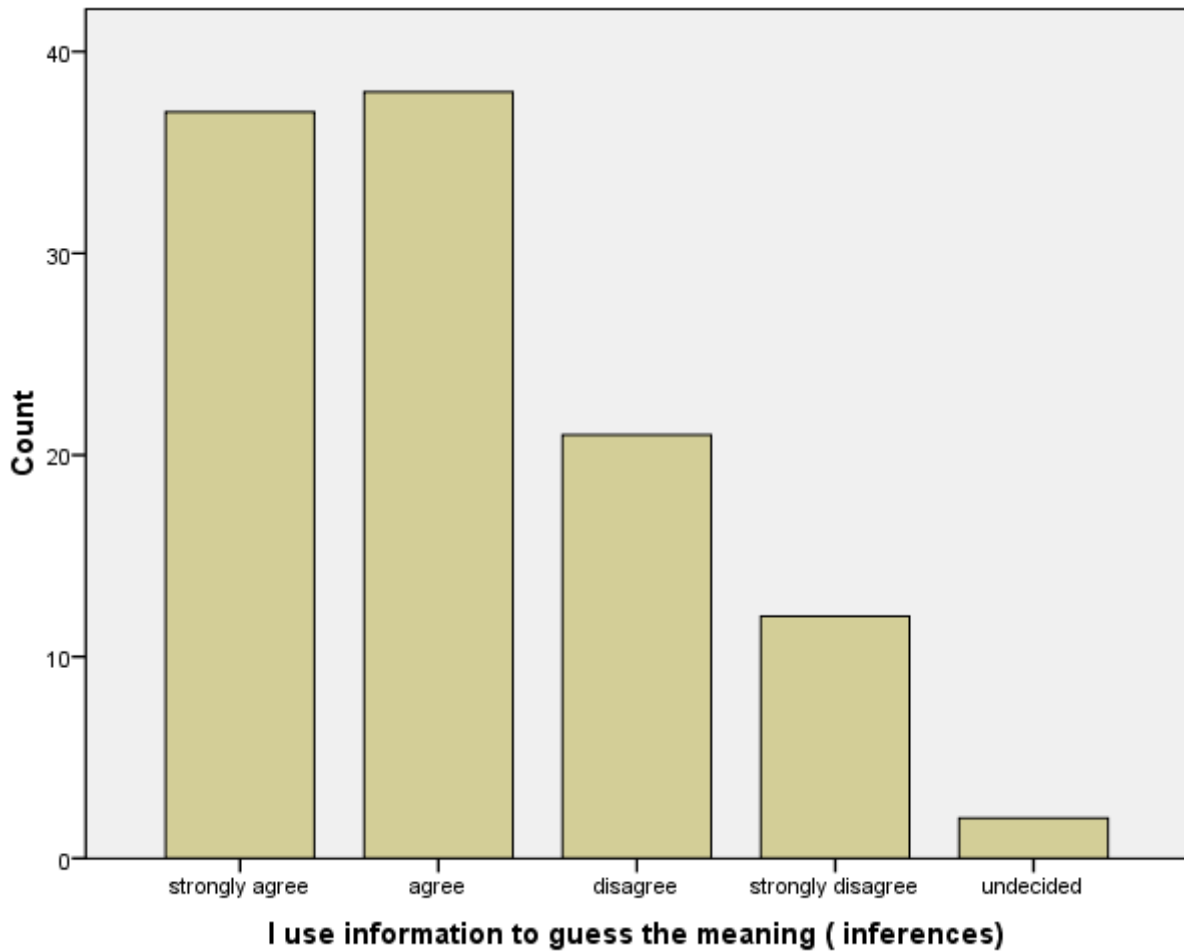
Question : 15 I use the first language as a base for understanding or producing the second language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	43	38.4	39.1	39.1
	agree	62	55.4	56.4	95.5
	disagree	4	3.6	3.6	99.1
	strongly disagree	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



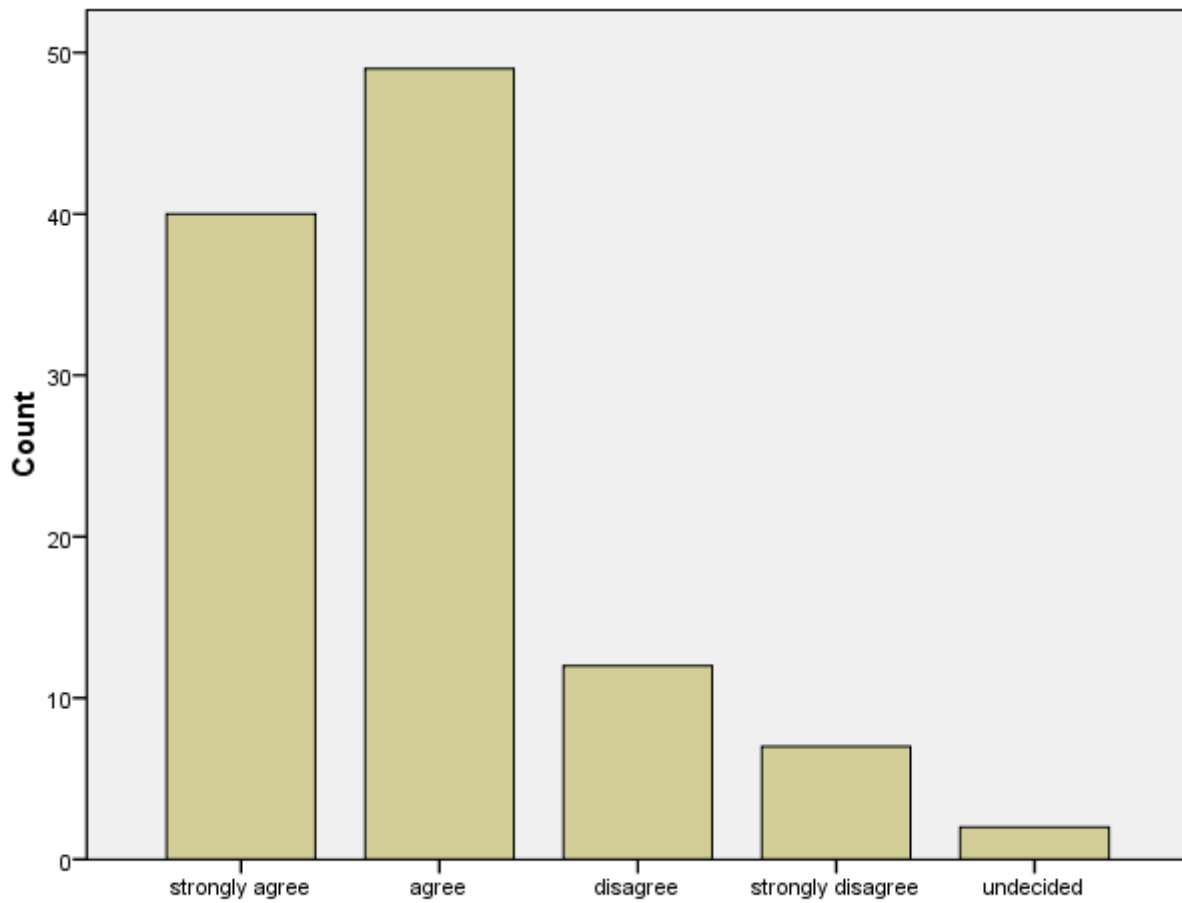
Question : 16 I use information to guess the meaning (inferences)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	37	33.0	33.6	33.6
	agree	38	33.9	34.5	68.2
	disagree	21	18.8	19.1	87.3
	strongly disagree	12	10.7	10.9	98.2
	undecided	2	1.8	1.8	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



Question : 17 I prefer fun or open activities rather than structured activities

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	40	35.7	36.4	36.4
	agree	49	43.8	44.5	80.9
	disagree	12	10.7	10.9	91.8
	strongly disagree	7	6.2	6.4	98.2
	undecided	2	1.8	1.8	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		

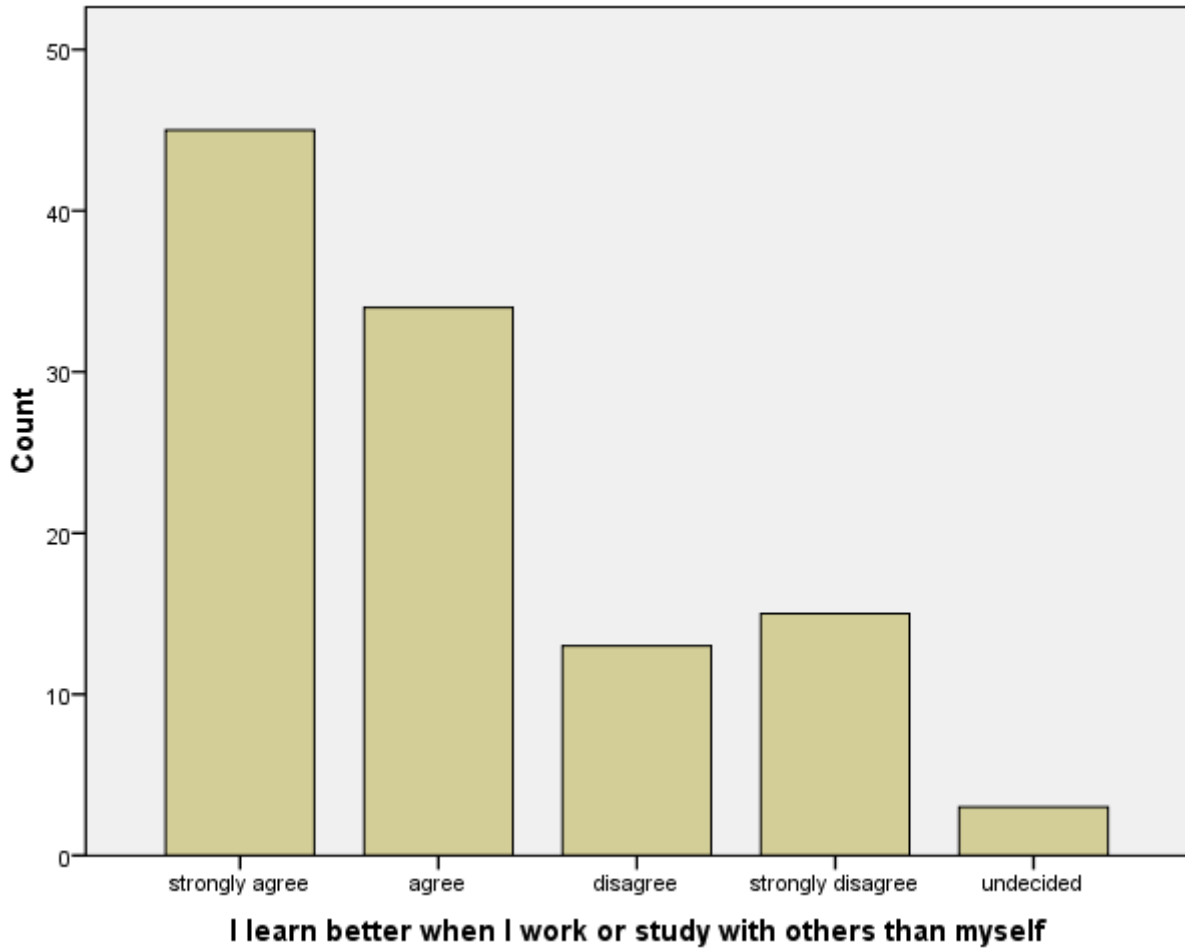


I prefer fun or open activities rather than structured activities

Question : 18 I learn better when I work or study with others than myself

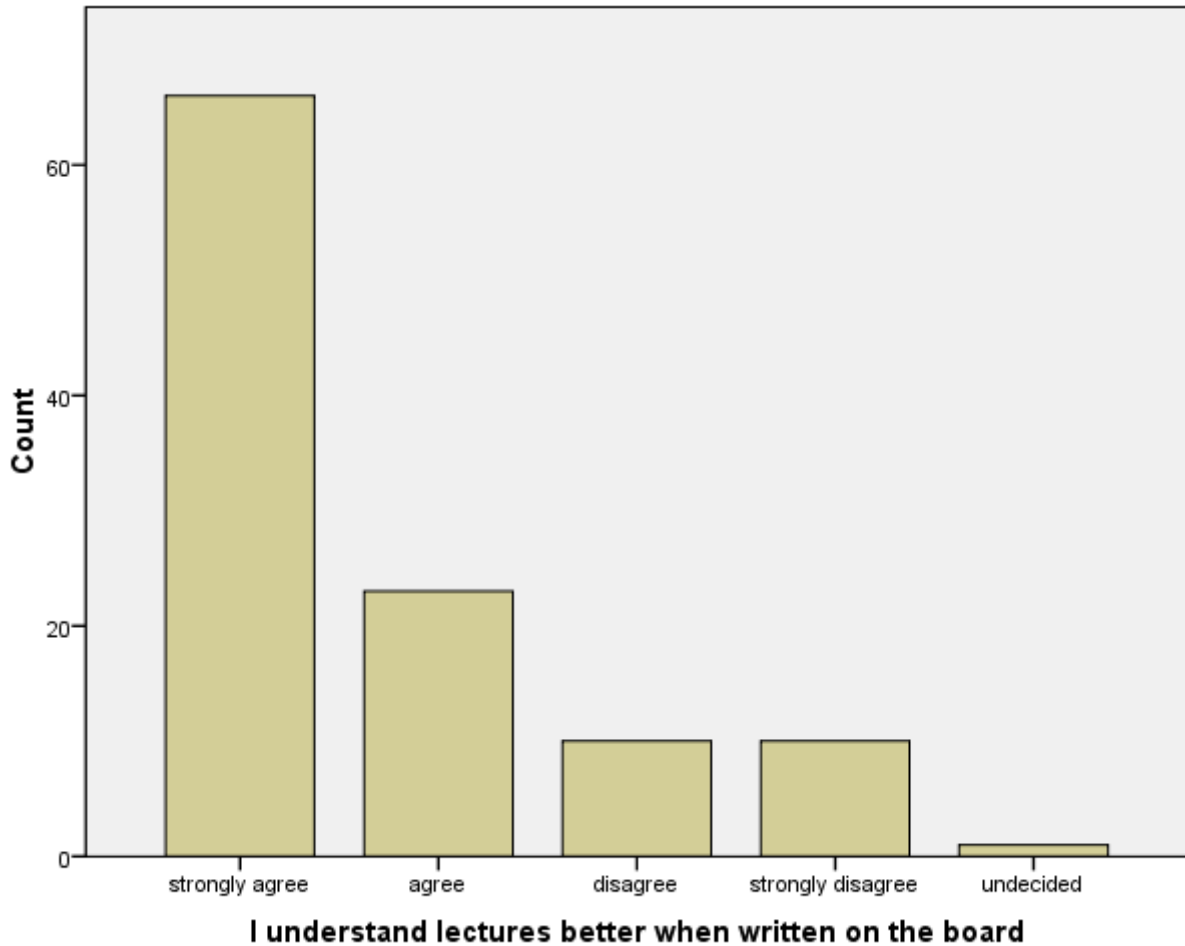
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	45	40.2	40.9	40.9
	agree	34	30.4	30.9	71.8
	disagree	13	11.6	11.8	83.6

	strongly disagree	15	13.4	13.6	97.3
	undecided	3	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



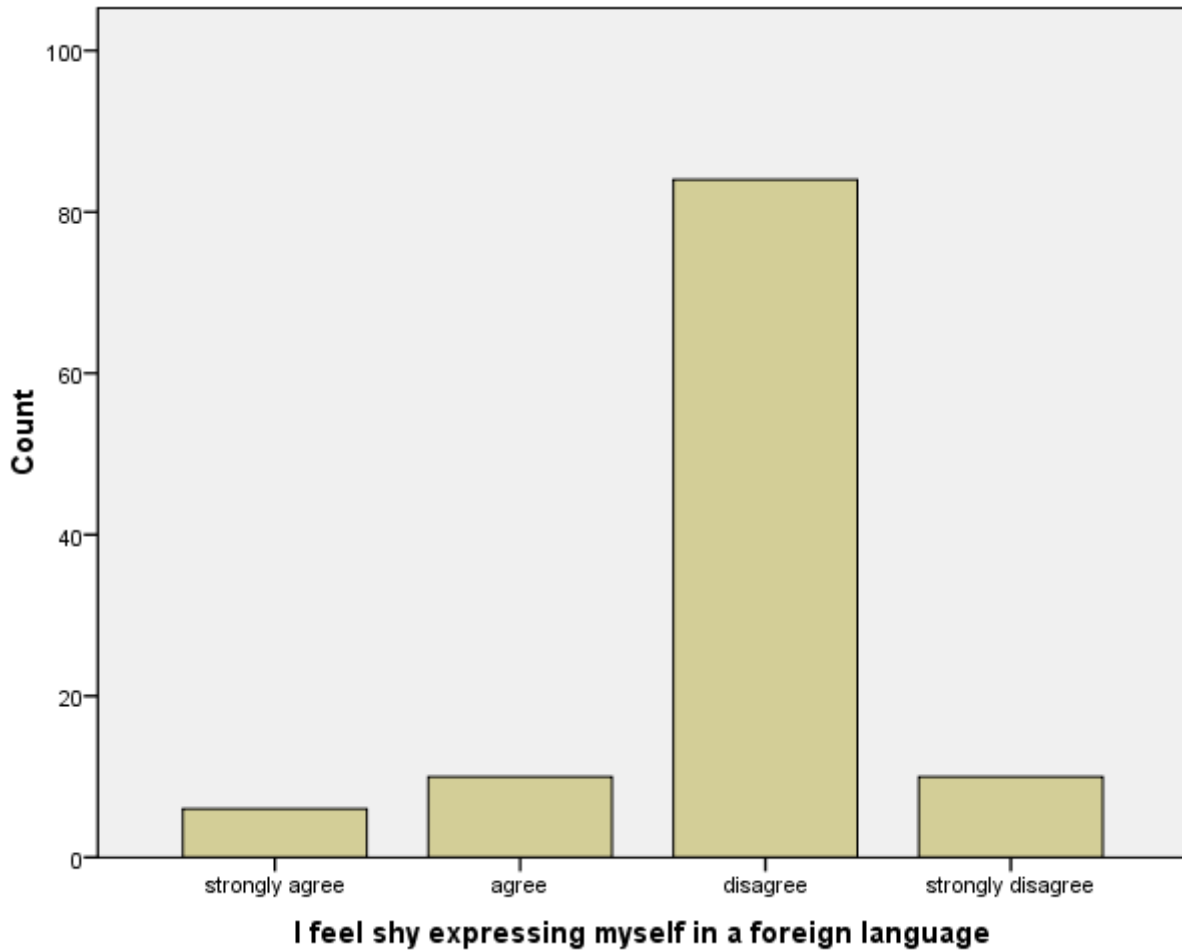
Question : 19 I understand lectures better when written on the board

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	66	58.9	60.0	60.0
	agree	23	20.5	20.9	80.9
	disagree	10	8.9	9.1	90.0
	strongly disagree	10	8.9	9.1	99.1
	undecided	1	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



Question : 20 I feel shy expressing myself in a foreign language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly agree	6	5.4	5.5	5.5
	agree	10	8.9	9.1	14.5
	disagree	84	75.0	76.4	90.9
	strongly disagree	10	8.9	9.1	100.0
	Total	110	98.2	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.8		
Total		112	100.0		



I. Are the EFL students at Jazan University using strategies consciously or unconsciously?

From the research it has been found that students are using some strategies unconsciously. They don't have any prior knowledge or formal training about it.

II. What sort of strategies do they like to use?

Basically they don't have any idea about established strategies but they have come to realize that learning a foreign language is not an easy task; it's a vast and herculean job for them. So they want some easy techniques or strategies to master the language and here the strategy items mentioned in the questionnaire can be very effective and fruitful for the students of Jazan University.

III. What are the roles of the strategies?

Individual learner varies largely on strategies applied by them. One is not born brilliant rather s/he becomes gradually meritorious and these are strategies which make extra ordinary because winners don't do different things, they do things differently. So, learning a language is absolutely scientific. Conscious and unconscious studies are totally different. So, the role of strategies is unparalleled.

Conclusion

It is obvious from the data that the roles of learning strategies are inevitable for the success of EFL learners at Jazan University. But it has also been found that students have little idea about different strategies to employ in the appropriate context to be successful. So, in this context instructors can play a pivotal role to teach students about learning strategies and can make students aware about its implementation. Actually learning strategies are nothing but conscious skills which students should possess since students are not merely empty vessels that will need to be filled by the wise words of the teacher; rather they have certain characteristics which determine how fast and how well students are likely to master the target language.

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Appendix-1

The Questionnaire

The Questionnaire is designed for the survey of 'The Role of Learning Strategies for the Success of EFL/ESL Learners: An Evaluation in the Context of Jazan University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The privacy of the information given here will be maintained strictly and will be used for research purposes only.

The questionnaire is prepared on the basis of 'Oxford Strategy Classification System(1990)' ; 'taxonomy of learning strategies(O' Malley et al.1985b:582-584)' ; 'classification of Communication strategies(Tarone 1981: 286)' and from other sources.

Personal Information

Name and ID.....
Age.....College/ Dept.....Level.....Year.....
Name of the University:
Program: Sex: Male: Female:
Result/grade (previous):Date.....

The Questionnaire

الاستبيان

Please ✓ the most appropriate response

ضع علامة (✓) في المكان المناسب أدناه:

SL	Item الموضوع	Strongly Agree أوافق بشدة	Agree أوافق	Disagree لا أوافق	Strongly Disagree لا أوافق بشدة	Undecided لم أقرر
1.	I decode or read every word perfectly أترجم أو اقرأ كل كلمة بدقة					

2.	Rather than decoding each symbol, I reconstruct the meaning, form hypothesis etc. بدلا من تحليل كل رمز أكون المعنى فرضيا					
3.	I use dictionary (English to English) أستخدم قاموس إنجليزي إنجليزي					
4.	I use dictionary English to Arabic) أستخدم قاموس إنجليزي عربي					
5.	I want to learn as well as I want to get good grade/ marks(both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated) أريد الحصول على درجات جيدة					
6.	I read newspaper, magazines, watch English movies, news like BBC, Al Jazeera English and other English programs to improve my learning أقرأ الصحف و المجلات. أشاهد الأفلام بالإنجليزية و الأخبار كالبني بي سي. الجزيرة الإنجليزية و برامج أخرى لتحسين اللغة الإنجليزية.					
7.	I want to learn the formulas and patterns of the target language and I consciously try to apply it to understand the target language و أريد أن أتعلم الصيغ و الأنماط التقليدية للغة المستهدفة (الانجليزية) لتطبيقها بوعي لفهمها.					
8.	I don't read at home or outside classroom لا أقرأ خارج الفصل و لا في المنزل.					
9.	I want to get good mark and do crave for other external rewards only (extrinsically motivated) أريد الحصول على درجات جيدة و أثار لمحفزات خارجية فقط. (حفزت عرضا)					
10.	I set my goal, target and prepare course plans and outlines. أوضح أهدافي و اعد خططي.					
11.	I identify the purpose of the skills و احدد الهدف و المهارات.					
12.	I always ask for clarification or verification أسأل دائما عن التوضيح و التحقق.					
13.	I try to develop a cultural understanding of the target language أحاول تنمية المفهوم الثقافي للغة المعنية بالدراسة.					
14.	I correct my speech for accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, etc. أصحح كلامي للحصول على الدقة في القواعد النحوية و النطق و العبارات.					
15.	I use the first language as a base for understanding or producing the second language أستخدم لغتي الأم لفهم اللغة الأجنبية.					
16.	I use information to guess the meaning (inferences) أستخدم المعلومات لتخمين المعنى.					

17.	I prefer fun or open activities rather than structured activities أفضل المرح أو الأنشطة المفتوحة على الأخرى الإنشائية.					
18.	I learn better when I work or study with others than myself. أتعلم أفضل عندما أعمل أو أدرس مع الآخرين.					
19.	I understand lectures better when written on the board. أفهم المحاضرات أكثر عندما تكون مكتوبة على السبورة.					
20.	I feel shy expressing myself in a foreign language أشعر بالخجل عند التعبير عن نفسي باللغة الإنجليزية.					

The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by two large, overlapping, curved lines that form a partial circle. The upper-left curve is light red, and the lower-right curve is light blue, matching the text color. The overall design is minimalist and modern.

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Genre Analysis Approach in Teaching Research Methodology Writing

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0090

The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2013

Official Conference Proceedings 2013

Abstract

Applying genre analysis as a rich analytical tool in a study in a state university in Indonesia, the writer has revealed the students' ability and problems in research methodology writing. It is found that most students faced difficulties in presenting argument in terms of justifications of the choice of research methodology to answer the research problems. Furthermore, the students were not aware that there are standard models in research methodology writing, especially in terms of its elements and linguistic features, which are widely accepted in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). Those results support the extensive research into academic writing that emphasizes the importance of explicit teaching of the structure of specific written genres to second-language students. As a result, this writing attempts to explore the genre analysis approach in teaching research methodology writing explicitly. Genre analysis approach provides the vocabulary and concepts to explicitly teach the text structures the students are expected to produce in their writing and help them improve their own writing skills to meet particular goals of methodology chapter. Consequently, the students can practice to write a research methodology chapter in English in ways that will allow their work to be accepted in English academic journals, in a world in which academic discourse is dominated.

Keywords: Genre analysis approach, teaching, research methodology writing

A. Case Study

Introduction

Academic writing is arguably the most important language skill to English tertiary students whose grades are largely determined by their performance in written assignments, academic reports, term examinations and graduation theses (Nga 2009). Nevertheless, several studies have revealed that even advanced learners at a high proficiency level of English have problems with written academic discourse at the level of text organization (see Braine 1995; Benson, Haidish 1995; Bloor 1996; Casanave 1995, among others in Jogthong 2001). Several other studies also show that students often experience problems in particular genres, especially in writing a research report as their thesis. Some studies examine the students' problem in writing the whole thesis (see Kareviati 2004; Emilia, Rodliyah, Gustine 2009), while some others focus on a particular section, e.g. abstract (see Abdul, Sadeq 2006), data presentation and discussion (see Bitchener, Basturkmen 2006), and conclusions (see Bunton 2002).

Although many previous studies as mentioned above have investigated the students' problems in thesis writing areas, little research has explored the students' problems in research methodology writing. There is a need to increase research-based knowledge of students' ability and problems in research methodology writing since the researcher has found that in the research site, many students find it is difficult to write it as the third chapter in the research proposal or report.

In respond to the situation, the writer has conducted a case study aiming to investigate the students' ability and problems in research methodology writing in an undergraduate English study program in a university in Indonesia. The study attempts not only to identify the students' ability and problems in writing the chapter, but also the possible causes of the problems and the possible solutions that can be proposed to solve the problems based on the students' work.

Literature Review

There were two broad main theories underpinning the case study, i.e. the theory of genre analysis (to follow Swales 1990, 1996, 2004; Swales, Feak 2004, 2009; Paltridge, Stairfield 2007; Emilia 2008, 2009, among others) and the theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (developed by Halliday 1985, 1994; Martin, Rose 2007, 2008; Eggins 1994, 2004, among others).

Genre analysis theory, particularly with English in academic and research setting within the field of English for Specific Purposes is covering the research writing area. SFL theory, the Transitivity system in particular, covers three components, i.e. participants, processes, and circumstances. It offers an analytical tool for close study of the students' research methodology writing in terms of its linguistic features.

Each area of theories is considered relevant to the study as it provides a general guideline by the experts in research methodology writing, especially in terms of its elements and linguistic features to be compared to those written by the students to reveal their ability and problems in research methodology writing.

Methodology

Corresponding to the research questions and purposes of the study, this study employed a case study design for at least three reasons. First, it is concerned with “a small scale, a single case” and focused on one particular instance of educational experience or practice (Stake, 1995; Freebody, 2003 in Emilia, 2005). A single case of this study referred to the students’ ability and problems in research methodology writing at one university in Indonesia. Second, it used multiply data collection techniques and analytic procedures to increase the validity of the study, i.e. the documentation of students’ research methodology writing and interview (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Third, it used text analysis which is also another characteristic of case study design (Travers, 2001). Specifically, this study used text analysis to analyze the students’ research methodology writing.

Findings

- Students’ ability and problems
Despite their ability in the discourse semantic level, most students still have problems in achieving the communicative purpose of research methodology. In general, the students’ main problem was in presenting arguments in terms of justification. Most students have not been able to justify the choice of research methodology to answer the research problems.
- Main causes of the problems
There were two main causes of the problems faced by the students, i.e. the students’ unfamiliarity with the elements and its linguistic features in a research methodology, and the students’ lack of knowledge in applying those elements and linguistic features properly in their research methodology writing.
- The possible solutions
The possible solutions that can be proposed to solve the students’ problems are guidance, assistance, and explicit teaching in writing the elements and linguistic features of research methodology to solve their problems in research methodology writing.

On the basis of findings, several conclusions can be proposed. First, most students faced difficulties in presenting arguments in terms of justifications. It supports the previous studies by Bunton (2002) and Paltridge and Starfield (2007) finding that presenting arguments in terms of justifications is something many second-language students find difficult to do. Second, most students were not aware that there are standard models in writing research methodology, especially in terms of its elements and linguistic features, which are widely accepted in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). Finally, the study supports the extensive research into academic writing that emphasizes the importance of explicit teaching of the structure of specific written genres, particularly research methodology, to second-language students (Paltridge and Starfield, 2007; Emilia, 2009; Bailey, 2003; Hyland, 2004, among others).

B. Implementation of Genre Analysis in Teaching Research Methodology Writing

Genre analysis approach can help students consciously structure their texts and develop effective control over different writing tasks for different purposes. It can therefore provide the vocabulary and concepts to explicitly teach the text structures the students are expected to produce in their writing. It places language at the centre of writing development by allowing shared understanding and explicit guidance. Actually, control over the conventions of a genre is a prerequisite for creativity, and students simply require more information on the features that constitute good texts in order to improve their own writing skills. It can thus provide a methodological environment that develops writing skills and encourages creativity. It can provide opportunities for students to reflect on and discuss how language works in a given context and how it can most effectively be employed to meet particular goals (Huang 2001).

In the implementation of genre analysis in teaching research methodology, the teacher can show the students explicitly the purpose, elements, and linguistics features of each chapter in a research proposal or report, particularly the chapter of research methodology. By analysing how writers conventionally sequence material to achieve particular purposes, the teacher can begin to describe each element of the chapter and show how they are realized linguistically. This information can then be used by students as models to develop research methodology writing skills.

The example of material below is designed in the light of genre-based approach. It focuses on the chapter of research methodology. Using the material, the teacher can train the students to write the chapter based on the elements and linguistics features so that it can convey the communicative purpose of the chapter.

Methodology Chapter

Purpose of Methodology

The communicative purpose of a methodology chapter is to describe how the research will be conducted, and how the data will be obtained and analyzed (Emerson 2007). It develops an explanation as to why the research method(s) under discussion have been chosen. This chapter will require a restatement of research aims/questions and involve explaining to the reader how the chosen research method(s) will help answer the research questions (Paltridge, Starfield 2007).

Elements of Methodology

Methodology chapter is not simply a descriptive account of the way in which data is to be collected (Oliver 2004). It should be far more than that. Table 1 will show the elements required in the methodology chapter.

Table 1 Elements of methodology and their purpose
(Modified from Swales, Feak 1990, 2004; Paltridge, Starfield 2007; Emilia 2008)

<i>Elements</i>	<i>Purpose</i>
Research design	To show the plan for conducting and organizing the study including the steps taken to ensure rigour. This is defined for the methodology used.
Research site and participants	To describe where the study will be conducted, who will participate and how they will be selected.
Data collection techniques	To show the details of what data will be collected and how.
Data analysis	To describe how data will be processed, analyzed, and managed.

Linguistic Features of Methodology

In a methodology chapter, the students need to discuss why a particular method was selected and not others. Thus, the language typically used in methodology chapter develops an explanation as to why the research method(s) under discussion have been chosen (Swales, Feak 2004; Paltridge, Starfield 2007; Emilia 2008). The features of the language can be described as follows.

- Language to build argument and justify the choice of research methodology. For example, the verbs may begin with simple *describe* but quickly move the higher order activities such as *present a more detailed consideration*, and *consider* through to *argue*, emphasizing that in this chapter the writer is building a justification for his/her selection of research design and approach.
- Language to justify the choice of research methods, e.g. the use of organizational pattern- first, second, finally.
- Language to describe the location of the study, background information, procedures and materials allowing for replication, i.e. impersonal language, with verbs in the passive voice, in order to focus on the processes involved (researcher is not mentioned explicitly).

C. Significance of Genre Analysis Approach Implementation

Practically, genre analysis approach provides a general guidance by the experts in research methodology writing, especially in term of its elements and linguistic features.

Professionally, genre analysis approach is beneficial for English study program students and lecturers, especially writing instructors and supervisors.

For students, genre analysis approach provides information to understand how to organize a research methodology chapter in research proposal or report and to better understand the expectations of discourse community to which they will be initiated.

For writing instructors, genre analysis approach can be used to pursue academic writing strategies for foreign language students who seek to write in English in ways that will allow their work to be accepted in English academic journals, in a world in which academic discourse is dominated.

For supervisors, genre analysis approach can be used to help them provide more meaningful feedback to their students and can provide students with better analytic tools for use in writing a research proposal or report.

D. Conclusion

Genre analysis in teaching research methodology writing explicitly can help students consciously structure their texts and develop effective control over their process in writing. It can therefore provide the vocabulary and concepts to explicitly teach the text structures the students are expected to produce in their writing. Consequently, the students can practice to write a research methodology chapter in English in ways that will allow their work to be accepted in English academic journals, in a world in which academic discourse is dominated.

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Self-Efficacy and Self-Awareness of Language Teachers and Their Learners' Achievement

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Abstract

From Among many characteristics of teachers, this study aimed to examine the relationship between the self-efficacy (SE) and self-awareness (SA) of language teachers (77female, 70 male) and their students' achievement at intermediate and advanced levels. The participants answered a 29-item SE and SA questionnaire. The instrument consisted of four constructs, i.e. self-awareness, classroom management, instructional strategy, and student engagement. The result showed: (1) positive and moderate correlation coefficients between the constructs of the instrument, (2) no significant difference between the SE and SA of male and female teachers, (3) a significant difference between the learners' achievement with different levels of language ability and their teachers' self-awareness, instructional strategy and student engagement, and (4) self-efficacy is a better prediction ability of self-awareness on learners achievement. In the light of the findings of this study, teacher educators are suggested to make language teachers familiar with the issues related to SA and SE.

Key words: Language teacher characteristics, self-efficacy (SE), and self-awareness (SA), language achievement.

Introduction

It is generally believed that teachers can potentially have a crucial role in the success or failure of each educational system. As Galluzzo (2005) argues “one of the most often-expressed statement about teaching is that nothing is more central to student learning than the quality of teacher” (p. 142). A Teacher is suggested to be a person with a well-balanced intellectual and moral outlook, who can be a source of inspiration to his/her students; s/he must inspire them to pursue knowledge and excellence, to think correctly and critically, and to seek to understand deeply, not superficially.

Therefore, studying the major characteristics of teachers that can affect their own performance especially in students' achievement seems to be one of the most vital subjects in each educational system. So far it has been found that successful teachers attempt to fulfill a wide range of tasks, including motivating and engaging students, acquiring new knowledge and skills, and collaborating with colleagues.

Darling-Hammond (2007) and Gordon (2006) believe that the learners' improvement can be a great help to examine the success or failure of teacher; with respect to this wide range of studies have been conducted to examine the relationship between learners' academic achievements and their teachers' sense of Self-Efficacy (SE) and Self-Awareness (SA). However, it appears that few studies explored such a relationship in language learning context. Therefore, this study aims to examine the relationship between language learners' achievements and their teachers' SE and SA.

Review of the previous research

Rivkin et al. (2005) and Rockoff (2004) suggest that there is a growing evidence showing that teacher quality plays a central role in determining student achievement. They also mentioned that the teacher's sense of efficacy is widely recognized as one of the most important factors in the process of education.

Teacher efficacy belief, as Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2001) have mentioned, is one of the most important factors that has proved to be powerfully related to many meaningful educational outcomes such as teacher persistence, enthusiasm, commitment, and instructional behavior, as well as student outcomes such as achievement, motivation, and self-efficacy belief. They also believe that teachers who have a strong sense of efficacy about their capabilities can motivate their students and improve their cognitive development more than those who have a lower sense of efficacy.

Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2001) have also developed a special Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES). Their studies indicate that the TSES has a unified and stable factor structure that measures the following:

- Teacher efficacy for instructional strategies
- Teacher efficacy for classroom management
- Teacher efficacy for student engagement

These three factors of the TSES provide useful information regarding teachers' sense of personal teaching efficacy.

Martin (2004) considered the self-efficacy mechanism as a central determinant of a person's ability to exert action, influence, and power. He also claimed that a teacher with a high sense of efficacy not only can make a difference in student learning but also can demonstrate this belief with certain behavioral skills. Moreover, Raudenbush (1992) have shown that high level of efficacy produces a generative capability that enables teachers to adopt innovations, construct new teaching strategies, and increase their levels of effort in facing difficult circumstances. In this sense, Bandura (1997) believed that teachers' sense of efficacy can potentially influence both kinds of environment that they create as well as the various instructional practices introduced in the classroom. Englert (1983) and Westwood (1995) have found that more efficacious teachers have a high level of presentation and correct student responses in a short time.

Over the years, Bandura's other works (1993 & 1997) have been struggling with the idea that our awareness of our abilities powerfully affect our behavior, motivation, and ultimately our success or failure. He also proposed that because self-efficacy beliefs were explicitly self-referent in nature and directed toward perceived abilities, they were powerful predictors of behavior. From this perspective, it can be inferred that for teachers with a high degree of self – awareness these mediating processes will positively influence their thought patterns, regulations of motivation, self-regulation of affective states, and the selection of activities and environments.

Gold and Roth (1993) defined self-awareness as “a process of getting in touch with your feelings and behaviors” (p. 141). Self-awareness seems to involve a more accurate understanding of how students affect our own emotional processes and behaviors and how we affect students as well. Unfortunately, it seems that teacher education literature was not properly able to highlight the connection between a teacher's self-awareness and his/ her ability to build and maintain meaningful relationships with students.

Teachers' maturity in accordance with Gold and Roth (1993) depends on their willingness to take risks and regularly asking themselves which of their behavior is helping or hindering their personal and professional growth. In this respect, Long (1996) states that few of us possess the inner peace to respond in a calm and professional manner without conscious effort. Awareness of our primary emotional triggers improves our chances of making rational decisions based on conscious choice rather than unconscious emotional conditioning. He, furthermore, emphasizes that teachers who are aware of their own emotional processes are more likely to minimize the frequency and intensity of these counterproductive power struggles.

The present study aims to find the possible relationship between teachers' sense of self-efficacy and self-awareness and their students' academic achievement. Researcher classified self-efficacy into three subcategories of teacher efficacy in classroom management, teacher efficacy in instructional strategies, and teacher efficacy in students' engagement. Then to achieve the above mentioned goals researcher tried to answer to the following questions

1. Is there any relationship between male and female language teachers' SE and SA and the achievement of language learners?
2. Is there any significant difference between SA and SE of male and female language teachers?
3. Is there any significant difference between language teachers' SE and SA across levels of learners' language proficiency?

Method

Subjects

Participants of this study consisted of 70 male and 77 female English teachers who taught male and female students at intermediate and advanced levels. Teachers' age ranged from 22 to 46 and they held BA in literature and translation or MA degree in literature, translation, teaching, and linguistic. The ranges of their teaching experience were from 1 to 21 years and they were chosen from Milad and Iranmehr institutes in Tehran.

Instrument

29-item SE and SA questionnaire was developed. It consisted of 15 questions related to the SE and 14 questions related to the SA of the teachers. Among 15 questions related to SE, the questionnaire contained 6 questions related to teacher efficacy for classroom management, 5 questions related to teacher efficacy for instructional strategy, and 4 questions related to teacher efficacy for student engagement. The participant were supposed to express how they felt about themselves by responding to a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree.

Data analysis

Participant teachers were asked to answer the questionnaire on the basis of their answers an average of the range of their SE & SA was achieved. Also, students' final course scores were considered as a measurement of the rate of their language achievement.

In order to examine the relationship between male and female language teachers' SE and SA and the achievement of their students a correlation analysis was performed and the results are presented in table 1.

As shown by the students' score, the SA of female participants was much more homogeneous than their SE; while their students' achievement was highly heterogeneous.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of female Teachers' SE and SA and their students' achievement:

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Self-awareness	73.46	3.55
Self- efficacy	81.28	5.05
Self-efficacy for classroom management	71.73	4.61
Self-efficacy for instructional strategies	76.29	4.13
Self-efficacy for students engagement	84.50	5.37
Students' achievement	73.29	7.13

Results of correlation analysis SHOWN in Table 2, INDICATE that students' achievement of the female teachers had low correlation with the teachers' self-awareness, classroom management, and instructional strategies while it had moderate correlation with students' engagement. However, there was a positive and moderate correlation between students of female teachers' achievement and female teachers' SE in general. The positive correlation of students' achievement of female teachers with female teachers' SA and SE showed that the learners' achievement has been influenced by teachers' SE and SA.

Table 2: Correlation coefficients of female teachers' SA, SE and learners' achievement

Items		Self-awareness	Self-efficacy	SE & classroom management	SE & instructional strategies	SE & student engagement	achievement
Self-awareness	Correlation	1	.69**	.71**	.80**	.62**	.32**
	Sig.		.000	.000	.000	.000	.004
Self -efficacy	Correlation		1	.50**	.59**	.79**	.47**
	Sig.			.000	.000	.000	.000
SE& classroom management	Correlation			1	.43**	.36**	.070
	Sig.				.000	.001	.547
SE& instructional strategies	Correlation				1	.59**	.31**
	Sig.					.000	.005

Descriptive statistics of male teachers' SE and SA and their students' achievement (Table 3) showed that similar to female teachers, SA of male teachers was the most homogeneous feature and the learners' achievement was the most heterogeneous. Furthermore, the results in Table 4 showed that there was a very low correlation between male teachers' SA and SE and their students' achievement. Additionally,

there was a negative correlation between male teachers' self-efficacy in students' engagement and their students' achievement.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of male teachers' performances

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Self-awareness	72.78	3.88
Self-efficacy	80.66	4.40
Self efficacy for classroom management	70.36	4.66
Self-efficacy for instructional strategies	75.94	4.19
Self-efficacy for students engagement	84.50	4.74
Achievement	73.36	7.27

Table 4: Correlations coefficients of SA and SE of male teachers and their learners' achievement

		Self-awareness	Self-efficacy	SE & classroom management	SE & instructional strategies	SE & instructional strategies	achievement
Self-awareness	Correlation	1	.619**	.772**	.865**	.352**	.121
	Sig		.000	.000	.000	.003	.318
Self-efficacy	Correlation		1	.493**	.581**	.707**	.060
	Sig			.000	.000	.000	.624
SE & classroom management	Correlation			1	.579**	.306**	.093
	Sig				.000	.010	.443
SE & instructional strategies	Correlation				1	.386**	.129
	Sig					.001	.286
SE & students engagement	Correlation					1	-.038
	Sig						.753

To compare the male and female participants' SE and SA an independent t-test is used. The results reported in table 5 show that there is no significant difference between the SE and SA of male and female participants.

Table 5: Comparison of male and female teachers' SE and SA

Item	sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	df	Sig.
Self – awareness	female	77	73.46	3.55	1.108	145	.27
	male	70	72.78	3.88			
Self – efficacy	female	77	81.28	5.05	.783	145	.43
	male	70	80.66	4.40			
SE & classroom management	female	77	71.73	4.61	1.791	145	.07
	male	70	70.36	4.66			
SE & instructional strategies	female	77	76.29	4.13	.512	145	.60
	male	70	75.94	4.19			
SE & student engagement	female	77	84.50	5.37	-.007	145	.99
	male	70	84.50	4.74			

Language teachers' SE and SA across levels of learners' language proficiency

To classify learners into different levels of achievement, the mean and standard deviation of learners' achievement were used. This classification resulted in unequal number of learners in each group; therefore, a percentile rank is used to come up with equal number of learners in each group. The distribution of learners' classification on the basis of their achievement appears in Table 6.

Table 6: Distribution of learners on the basis of their achievement

Levels of learners' achievement	Minimum score	Maximum score	Frequenc y	Percent	Cumulative Percent
low achiever	0	67.15	36	24.5	24.7
intermediate achiever	67.16	71.85	37	25.2	50.0
upper intermediate achiever	71.86	79.86	37	25.2	75.3
Advanced	79.87	100	36	24.5	100.0

In order to find out an answer to the third question of this study a one way ANOVA was performed. The results, as appear in Table7, showed that there was a significant difference between the achievements of learners who belonged to different groups of language ability and the SA of their teachers. Moreover, as it is appeared in table7,

there was a significant difference between the learners' achievement who belonged to different groups of language ability and SE of their teachers ($f(3,142) = 7.1, p = 0.000$). There was also a significant difference between students' achievement belonging to different groups of language proficiency and SE in students' engagement ($f(3,142) = 4.8, p = 0.003$) and SE in instructional strategies of their teachers ($f(3,142) = 3.9, p = 0.009$).

However, there was not a significant difference between the SE in classroom management of the teachers and the achievement of their students belonging to different levels of language proficiency ($f(3,142) = 1.7, p = 0.164$).

Table7: Analysis of variances of teacher SA and SE across levels of learners' achievement

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Self-awareness	Between Groups	160.88	3	53.62	4.20	.007
	Within Groups	1812.01	142	12.76		
	Total	1972.90	145			
Self-efficacy	Between Groups	420.82	3	140.27	7.10	.000
	Within Groups	2801.82	142	19.73		
	Total	3222.64	145			
SE& classroom management	Between Groups	106.73	3	35.57	1.72	.164
	Within Groups	2923.56	142	20.58		
	Total	3030.29	145			
SE& instructional strategies	Between Groups	194.07	3	64.69	3.99	.009
	Within Groups	2299.33	142	16.19		
	Total	2493.40	145			
SE& student engagement	Between Groups	338.49	3	112.83	4.88	.003
	Within Groups	3281.22	142	23.10		
	Total	3619.71	145			

Post Hoc Scheffe test of SA and the learners' achievement appeared in table 8; the results showed that there was a significant difference between lower achiever and advanced learners while the difference between the other groups was not significant. Such a finding indicated that the contribution of teachers' SA to the achievement of learners varied in low and advanced groups while there was no significant difference in intermediate groups.

Table 8: Post Hoc Scheffe test for teachers' Self awareness

DV	Achievement level	(J) Achievers level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Self awareness	low achiever	intermediate achiever	-.72	.83	.85
		upper intermediate achiever	-.62	.83	.90
		advanced	-2.80*	.84	.01
	intermediate achiever	upper intermediate achiever	.10	.83	.99
		advanced	-2.07	.83	.10
	upper intermediate achiever	advanced	-2.17	.83	.08

As it is revealed in table 9, the Post Hoc Scheffe test of SE and learners' levels of achievement has been performed. The results showed that there was a significant difference between lower achiever and advanced learners, intermediate achiever and advanced learners, and also upper intermediate and advanced learners groups.

Table 9: Post Hoc Scheffe test for teachers' Self efficacy

DV	(I) Achievers level	(J) Achievers level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Self -Efficacy	low achiever	intermediate achiever	-.48	1.03	.97
		Upper intermediate achiever	-1.13	1.03	.75
		advanced	-4.37*	1.04	.001
	intermediate achiever	upper intermediate achiever	-.64	1.03	.94
		advanced	-3.88*	1.03	.004
	upper intermediate achiever	advanced	-3.23*	1.03	.024

Table 10 reveals the Post Hoc Scheffe test for teachers' Self-efficacy in classroom management and learners' achievement levels. Results showed that there was no significant difference between the language learners' achievement and teachers' self – efficacy in class room management.

Table 10: Post Hoc Scheffe test for teachers' Self efficacy in classroom management

Self- efficacy in classroom management	Achiever level	(J) Achiever level	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
	low achiever	intermediate achiever		-1.54	1.06
upper intermediate achiever			-.46	1.06	.97
advanced			-2.17	1.06	.25
intermediate achiever	upper intermediate achiever		1.08	1.05	.78
	advanced		-.62	1.06	.95
upper intermediate achiever	advanced		-1.70	1.06	.46

The results of the Post Hoc Scheffe test for teachers' SE in instructional strategies and learners' achievement levels as is comprehensible in Table 11 described that there was a significant difference between lower achievers and advanced learners. In addition, since table 12 has shown the results of Post Hoc Scheffe test for teachers' Self-efficacy in students' engagement and language learners' levels of achievement, it can be realized that there was a significant difference between lower achievers and advanced learners and also there was a significant difference between intermediate achievers and advanced learners.

Table 11: Post Hoc Scheffe test for teachers' Self Efficacy in instructional strategies

Self- efficacy in instructional strategies	(I) achiever level	(J) achiever level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
	low achiever	intermediate achiever		-.816	.94
upper intermediate achiever			-1.25	.94	.62
advanced			-3.15*	.94	.013
intermediate achiever	upper intermediate achiever		-.43	.93	.97
	advanced		-2.34	.94	.10
upper intermediate achiever	advanced		-1.90	.94	.25

Table 12: Post Hoc Scheffe test for teachers' Self efficacy in students' engagement

Self –efficacy in students' engagement	(I) Achiever level	(J) Achiever level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
	low achiever		intermediate achiever	-.45	1.12
upper intermediate achiever			-1.23	1.12	.75
advanced			-3.95*	1.13	.008
intermediate achiever		upper intermediate achiever	-.78	1.11	.92
		advanced	-3.49*	1.12	.025
upper intermediate achiever		advanced	-2.71	1.12	.12

Conclusion

Present study was designed to see the relationship between male and female language teachers' SE and SA and their students' achievement. Positive correlation between the achievement of students of female teachers with their SA and SE showed that the learners' achievements had a relationship with female teachers' SE and SA. A very low correlation between male teachers' SA and SE and their students' achievement showed that learners' achievements had not any obvious relationship with male teachers' SE and SA. Additionally, there was a negative correlation between male teachers' SE in students' engagement and their students' achievement. This study also aimed at finding the difference between SA and SE of male and female language teachers the results of the independent t-test showed that there was no significant difference between the SE and SA of male and female participants.

Researcher also intended to see the difference between language teachers' SA and SE across levels of language learners' proficiency; to do this, the results of one way ANOVA showed that there was a significant difference between the achievements of learners who belonged to different groups of language proficiency and SA of their teachers. Moreover, there was also a significant difference between the learners' achievement belonging to different groups of language proficiency and SE of their teachers.

In this way, there was a significant difference between the students' achievement from different groups of language proficiency and their teachers' SE in students' engagement and SE in instructional strategies; however, there was not a significant difference between the teachers SE in classroom management and the achievement of students belonging to different levels of language porficiency.

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Examining the Anxiety, Stress and Motivation of Novice NESTs

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Abstract

Anxiety, stress and motivation are often discussed from the English language learner's perspective, but these terms can also apply to the language teacher. More specifically, novice Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) working in foreign countries may experience these phenomena both in and outside of the classroom due to the vast cultural variations between their home country and their country of employment. My research examined four NESTs working at a private preschool in South Korea. It documented, through journal entries and interviews, some of the issues these teachers faced while employed by a Korean 'cram school'. The NESTs in this study had no formal teacher training but met the requirements to be issued an E-2 teaching visa, thus categorizing them as novice teachers. Findings suggest that initially, both the anxiety of moving to a new country and the motivation to teach 'good' lessons were high. However, after only a few weeks, anxiety was replaced by increased stress levels and motivation toward teaching decreased. This was primarily due to a lack of cultural understanding and frustration surrounding workplace conditions. This paper attempts to identify challenges that novice NESTs encounter during their time working abroad and endeavours to suggest some possible solutions.

Introduction

Commencing employment can be a stressful time for any teacher. It has been noted that “teaching is one of the top five most stressful careers in the world” (Kyriacou, 1980) so it is not surprising that teachers may feel anxiety or stress in a new role. Researchers have suggested that in the case of *novice* teachers, levels of anxiety and stress are higher than in those of more experienced teachers (Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). It has also been noted that stress and anxiety can occur because of influences outside of the classroom (Blase, 1986), and in the case of Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) working in South Korea (hereafter Korea), these external influences primarily relate to cross-cultural differences. Therefore, in terms of *novice* NESTs, not only are they likely to be affected by ‘typical’ teacher issues related to stress and anxiety, they must also navigate the cultural expectations of their new role. Numerous studies have been conducted on English language learner stress and anxiety (e.g. Brundage, 2007; Kajs, 2002) and on non-NEST teacher anxiety (Mousavi, 2007), but little has been done with a focus solely on the NEST, thus allowing this study to contribute to this overall field of knowledge.

Study Rationale

This study considers how a lack of experience paired with the influences of a foreign culture affect the role of novice NESTs in Korea. There were two premises underpinning this study – that culture would be a factor that significantly influenced NESTs and that stress levels related to teaching would increase as a result. It has been previously acknowledged that novice teachers often use prior knowledge from what they experienced as learners in their teaching practice to combat their initially weak understandings of the subject specific content (Ell, Hill and Grudnoff, 2012). The issue with respect to NESTs is that they are asked to teach the English language as a second or foreign language, something that as native speakers they have never experienced from the perspective of a learner.

Background

Defining the novice NEST

It is first necessary to set up the context of this study, as the terms used in the field of teacher development vary within the literature. First, the term *novice* in this study relates to those with absolutely no previous teaching experience. This differs from other studies which sometimes use the term ‘novice’ or ‘pre-service’ to define those who have limited training or experience in teaching or have just recently obtained a teaching qualification (Numrich, 1996). Second, the term ‘NEST’ is defined as someone who carries the job title ‘teacher’ in Korea while also being a Native English Speaker (NES). The NES is defined as someone from an ‘Inner Circle’ country (Kachru, 1992) (more specifically from Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, South Africa, the USA or the UK). Again, while numerous studies outline the problems of associating native English speaker status solely with these countries (Seidlhofer, 1999), the Korean government has identified that these are ‘NES’ countries where nationals are eligible for the E-2 teaching visa.

Anxiety and Stress

Teacher stress is defined as “the experience by a teacher of unpleasant, negative emotions such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression, resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher” (Kyriacou, 2001: p.28) and also takes into account that the level of teacher stress could increase if the demands placed on teachers do not fall within teachers’ expected parameters. Second is the process of cultural adaptation (or lack thereof), which is often referred to as ‘culture shock’. Anderson (1971) suggests that this ‘shock’ occurs when an individual experiences social elements that are not part of their normal social experience. Zhou, Jindal-Snape, Topping and Todman (2008) take a more proactive view of this term, suggesting that although it is associated with contact-induced stress, that actually this can be managed by individuals, although the level of management will vary.

There has been extensive research on teacher anxiety in the classroom leading to an almost overwhelming list of possible concerns. Some of the main areas where teachers might expect to experience anxiety include a lack of confidence (Berry, 2004), personal insecurities (Wilson, 1986), evaluation from supervisors (Randall and Thornton, 2001), teaching a particular language area, level, or class size (Chang, 2009), fear of failure (Ipek, 2007), among others. However, in the case of novice NESTs, *initial* feelings of anxiety may relate more to cultural differences than to classroom situations. Sammephet and Wanphet (2013) suggest that anxiety in novice teachers can be linked to expectations. This, paired with the idea that anxiety can be linked to fear of the unknown (French, 1997) suggests that it is likely that novice NESTs may experience high levels of anxiety before starting a new position abroad.

In terms of stress, anxiety can be included as a component but stress also tends to include unpleasant emotions including frustration, anger, or depression (Kyriacou and Sutcliffe, 1978). When it comes to the underlying theory related to stress in the workplace, reference is made to the ‘Person-Environment Fit’ (Rice, McFarlin, Hunt and Near, 1985). This overarching model suggests that there is a relationship between the environment and the people who live within it. If ‘environment’ is narrowed down to the workplace, Chatman (1991) suggests that an unbalance or ‘poor fit’ between employer and employee values can lead to instances of high stress and dissatisfaction.

Research questions

In order to focus specifically on teacher anxiety, stress and motivation, the following research questions were posed:

1. What are the main causes of anxiety (prior to employment) and stress (during employment) among novice NESTs? How do these affect motivation?
2. What steps, if any, are taken to reduce the levels of stress and anxiety felt by these NESTs?

Methodology

Participants and context

Participants of the study were four North American NESTs (2 males and 2 females) all working at the same private preschool in a South Korean city. Participants were chosen using purposive sampling as it was necessary for *novice* NESTs to be selected. Therefore, while all the participants held Bachelor's degrees, the subject of the degree was unrelated to English Language Teaching (ELT) (their degrees were in math, international management, history and philosophy) and the participants had no prior teaching experience.

In terms of the preschool, it was located in a medium-sized city in Korea and was part of a larger franchise of 32 private language schools. Preschool classes were held in the mornings from 9:30-14:20 while language classes for older students (8-12 years) were held in the evenings until 18:30. Participants were employed at this school on one year contracts and were required to teach 37 contact hours per week in return for a salary of \$1850-2200 (USD) plus free airfare, a free apartment (studio or one bedroom), medical insurance, a pension, and a severance payment equivalent to one month of salary upon contract completion. Data collection took place between September 2010 and April 2011.

Interviews

Participants were individually interviewed three times over a twelve week period. The first interview was held in week 0 (using Skype) before the participant had departed for Korea while the second and third interviews were held in weeks six and twelve respectively. Interviews were semi-structured lasting between 30-45 minutes and questions focused mainly on two areas, those relating specifically to ELT and those relating to living in Korea.

Journal entries

Detailed journals were kept by participants over the twelve week period and included daily lesson plans (which were initially a requirement by the preschool) as well as their own personal reflections. Each participant was required to provide entries at least three times weekly, although it was common for the participants to write in their journal up to five times weekly. There were no boundaries set on the types of comments NESTs could provide but a list of example topics was provided with the instructions including discussion of teaching strategies, design and implementation of lesson plans, feedback, classroom management, workload, parental attitudes, culture shock, housing, transportation, and nightlife.

Data analysis

Initially, the journal entries were transcribed into the software program atlas.ti where they were divided into smaller units depending on the subject matter. These units were then coded into subcategories according to subject matter. The creation of the subcategories stemmed from research done on a pilot study identifying these areas as

most commonly discussed. A breakdown of this division is shown in the following figure:

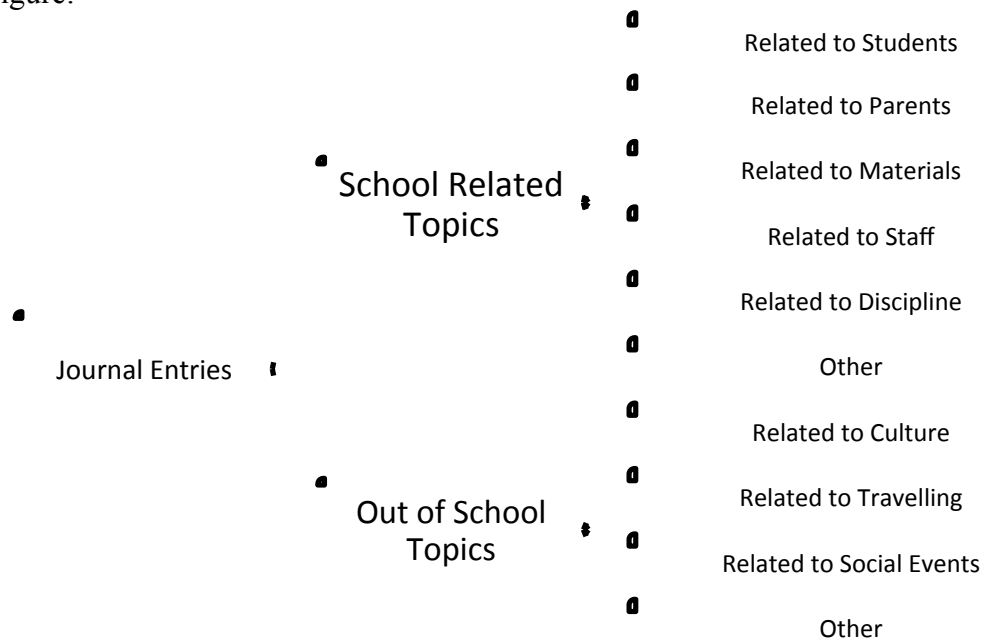


Figure 1: Coding for journal entries

Once the journal units had been categorized, interview data were inputted into the atlas.ti program using the same coding system and linked to participants' journal entries. This created, in essence, ten folders, from which data related to anxiety, stress, and motivation could then be extracted and analysed.

Findings

Since cultural issues were initially identified by other studies as significant contributors to teacher stress and anxiety (e.g. Payne and Furnam, 1987), findings on related to cultural issues were examined in my study. Differences in culture were evident both inside and outside of the classroom, and while both were deemed important to the overall experience of the NESTs, it is the in-house issues that were noted in this study.

The first set of interviews took place the week before the teachers arrived in Korea and were designed to examine expectations toward living and teaching. All four teachers expressed excitement toward their new roles and admitted that they thought difficulties surrounding cultural issues would mainly be associated with food and language. However, this idealistic view was quickly replaced upon arrival in Korea, with the realization that the cultural differences were much more extensive.

All four teachers brought to attention that their signed contracts specified '37 contact hours per week,' however, upon closer inspection, these 37 hours were the *teaching* hours and did not allow for preparation time. Further, preparation was designed to be conducted within the walls of the preschool as teachers were expected to be at school at eight in the morning, have lunch for 45 minutes and finish the day by six, meaning nine hours and 15 minutes were to be spent working each day. Further, if the teachers did not have a class at the end of the day, they still were expected to remain at the preschool and wait for their colleagues to finish before they could go home. Moreover,

if the Director or Owner of the preschool had to work late, the teachers had to sit and wait for them to finish before they could go home. As one teacher noted:

“We are not necessarily expected to be doing work during these hours, we are just expected to sit and wait until the boss leaves. When he goes home, so can we. It’s not productive.”

This attitude is not necessarily unexpected as Korea is considered to be a collectivist society underpinned by the teachings of Confucianism (Cheah and Park, 2006); however the difference between this style and a typically more Western style of employment meant that rather than feeling a sense of unity within the school, teachers felt as if time was simply being wasted. In the journal entries, the relationship of this to stress was highlighted:

“I have noticed that lots of stuff that we do around [the school] is only for the sake of appearances. There is no need for me to sit at my desk and look busy when I honestly have nothing to prepare for the next day. If other teachers have a class and I don’t, I have to just sit and wait for them to finish.”

Some might argue that this idea of collectivism is no longer relevant in Korea (Cheah and Park, 2006), especially since, as previously noted, parents are spending a substantial part of their household income on tutoring so that their child will have better opportunities and be able to compete for a coveted place at a well-recognized and highly ranked university. However, while it is clear that competition may be perfectly acceptable in one situation, in others, such as with the case of the teachers, the desire for equality and unity also exists.

Another cultural issue which particularly aggravated the teachers was the desire for the Korean staff to avoid conflict at all costs. Teachers suggested that when speaking with the Director about classroom issues (e.g. the textbooks being too difficult or the desire to change the way a lesson had been designed), the Director would listen carefully, nod, and agree. However, then nothing would be changed. Again, this likely relates to the differences in approaches.

For the teachers in this study, the language barrier, which was initially thought of as possibly being a hindrance to adapting to a life in Korea quickly became a monumental issue. This was true both in and outside of the classroom. In the classroom, NESTs were expected to show excitement for upcoming holidays – many of which were specific to Korea. Teachers were often left uninformed as to the significance of these events, as this could not be adequately translated by the staff. Further, the teachers were encouraged to teach ‘Western holidays’, but with handouts designed by the Korean staff members. An example of a Halloween handout was described by a NEST, she noted:

“The handout said Halloween is when girls dress up as princesses and boys dress up as superheroes. They can play games and have fun.”

When she asked about ghosts, pumpkins and trick-or-treating, she was told that these were not appropriate and that she should teach from the handout.

This example was one of many noted by the four NESTs in this study. They felt as though students were being misinformed and thought that what they, as NESTs, could offer was better than what had been produced by the Director and Korean staff.

The Halloween handout was only one example, yet teachers identified stress with the Korean staff at multiple points and it was a continuing theme throughout the 12 week period. Other examples included:

“[The Korean Head Teacher] decided and finalized [a class] skipping 2 full books in the speaking curriculum. She ordered the books and told the parents without the foreign teachers’ approval. The book they are switching to is way too hard for them. Their level will go down if they do this. I’m so upset. I told [her] 2 times not to do it, but she (and [the Director]) did anyway. When another teacher and I confronted [her], she said that [another teacher] and I didn’t say anything. That was a flat out lie.”

I’ve noticed that the Korean staff really just like to throw things out there with little to no warning or preparation, leaving us foreign staff dizzy and looking at each other like, ‘what the hell just happened?’ And trying to keep up without getting frustrated, this can be challenging.”

As this relates to the role, NESTs were initially expecting to provide input related to how their classes would be taught and which books would be most appropriate. In actuality their role was much different. Part of this situation was reported as being linked to a language barrier while another part was linked to the perception by participants that the Korean staff clearly had more incentive to appease the parents than to take NESTs’ suggestions into account. Differences in job expectation, language and business enterprise in the above situation are examples of cultural differences which explicitly linked to unpleasant, negative emotions described previously as teacher stress.

The NEST as the ‘edutainer’

The word ‘edutainer’ is a common one circulating through the private language school industry in Korea, used mainly by foreigners who truly understand its meaning. An ‘edutainer’ is a NEST who has a primary role of looking presentable, plastering on a smile at all times and making sure students have a nice time so to ensure that the parents are kept satisfied. For an ‘edutainer,’ actually teaching the students a key grammatical or cultural point is secondary, although it is necessary that students fill out at least one page in their workbook each lesson so it appears as if they have been diligently studying.

The NESTs at the preschool in this study noted that they felt like ‘edutainers’ often. One teacher, giving a more specific example, recounted how she had to dress up in a wedding dress, while her class of five year olds sang a rendition of *Bicycle Race* by Queen to a group of parents who gazed on adoringly from the audience. She noted that while none of the parents questioned whether or not the children understood the lyrics, they did confirm that they approved of her choice of attire. She specifically noted in the interview that this performance caused her anxiety, as she was concerned both for herself (noting the ‘bad karma’ of wearing a wedding dress not on her

wedding day) and for her students (noting that the lyrics of the song were not appropriate for young children).

This is not to say that all NESTs working in Korean private language schools are considered to be ‘edutainers,’ it is however, a role that sometimes exists. Moreover, being considered an ‘edutainer’ is not necessarily a downfall. It is plausible that some NESTs are content with this type of role. For some however, the lack of academic involvement can be frustrating and can reduce motivation.

Discussion

Many of the NESTs that travel to Korea to teach at private language schools are on one-year contracts. Requirements for teachers include citizenship from one of the seven Inner circle countries (Canada, the USA, the UK, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa), a Bachelor’s degree from an English speaking university (in any subject) and a criminal background check. Without teaching experience or formal training, it is not surprising that those in the private language school industry view NESTs as ‘low-cost’ assets, but ones which will entice parents to enrol their children in private tutoring. The role of a native speaker will inevitably vary among schools, but it is not uncommon to note that they are pawns in a larger game.

It should, however, be noted that whether teachers see themselves as ‘edutainers’ or more important members of the language teaching community, issues of culture and stress seem to consistently arise. Being an untrained teacher may be one issue, but being unfamiliar with the culture has a direct influence on the well-being of the NESTs. Certainly, teachers who are comfortable in their environment and who feel valued in their role are less likely to succumb to the same frustrations as those who see their role as primarily symbolic. Then again, for some, a job where there is minimal responsibility and an opportunity to travel countrywide may sound enticing.

As suggested by Park and Abelmann (2002), although Korean parents seem to realize that their approach toward private tutoring is, at best, misguided, it is, at the moment, seen as one of the only ways to ensure academic success and to secure appropriate future employment for their children. Therefore, while parents are striving to keep up with other parents and private language school owners are attempting to earn significant profits in order to secure their own status level, NESTs are left trying to navigate the maze of cultural and social expectations while being unable to speak the language or truly understand the circumstances that surround them. Based on this, the increase in stress levels indicated by the teachers in this study and the apathy and lack of motivation to create stimulating and enjoyable classes seems appropriate for a system which is not necessarily concerned with the level of English learnt by the children.

Limitations

The most significant limitation of this study is that it is not representative of the entire general population of NESTs working in Korean cram schools. Future studies must examine a wider range of institutions in order to determine whether cultural differences and lack of responsibility are directly linked to an increase in stress and decrease in motivation.

Related to this, it is not yet known whether similar issues would be observed amongst *experienced* NESTs working in Korea for the first time. The notion that novice teachers are inherently different from experienced teachers has been documented in various areas including ‘practical knowledge’ (Johnston, 1992) and emotions in the workplace (Cowie and Sakui 2012). However, to link it to this study, a longitudinal study examining experiences of a wide range of NESTs would need to be undertaken.

Conclusion

This study examined the perceived areas where four novice NESTs felt high levels of stress and anxiety. It found that culture played a prominent role both in and outside of the classroom. Interviews and journal entries gave possible insight into the aspects surrounding teacher stress in one private preschool. As a result, aspects surrounding material selection, student performance, classroom management and parental attitudes were particularly influential in stress levels. Because of these issues, participants felt that their motivation toward teaching decreased over the course of the twelve week period. This was indicated through key phrases in the interviews and journals indicated above.

The high levels of anxiety and stress linked to low levels of motivation is worrying in the Korean context because of the role of English and its link to ‘upward mobility’ for Korean students (Kwon, 2003; 2004). What is more concerning is that the inability of NESTs to integrate into or to understand the Korean culture only exacerbates the problem (Park, 2009). Ultimately, more research on teacher development in Korea needs to occur.

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*The Propriety of the Native Speaker: World Englishes and the NEST/NNEST
Dichotomy*

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Abstract

Discriminating teachers' pedagogical and professional skills, solely on the basis of accent, physical appearance, and native speaker status is unfounded and unethical. The growing number of English language learners worldwide correlates to an increasing number of nonnative English speaking teachers (NNESTs) and native English speaking teachers (NESTs). Unfortunately, NNESTs have not always shared equal status with NESTs in the field; in fact, until quite recently, NNESTs, the global majority of English teachers, were not seen by many as legitimate educators. Moreover, unity between NNESTs and NESTs seems lacking at best, and at worst a contest to claim superiority over the other. Specifically, a native speaker benchmark has divided a group of teachers sharing a common goal of teaching English, into two species with a distinct set of assets.

This article aims to reexamine and implement the perceived advantages and disadvantages of NNESTs and NESTs into a coalescent framework in which both parties can access and utilize assets thought before unique to each group. Specifically, this paper argues the intersection of multicompetence, codeswitching, and six qualities thought only accessible to nonnative English speaking teachers offers one step towards unifying two disparate groups by refocusing the emphasis on the needs of our students. For instance, NESTs in EFL environments who have proficiency in their learners' L1 can empathize with the frustrations of learning a foreign language, and of course benefit from sharing a language in common. This essay seeks to move beyond the native speaker dichotomy and provide students with qualified teachers.

1. Introduction

With the current rate English is continuing to spread across the globe, Inner Circle countries can no longer dictate and control the future of English; it is now in the hands of the world—a world comprised of a diverse population of English speakers from different cultures and varieties of English. An often cited statistic by Canagarajah (1999) projects that 80% of English teachers world-wide are nonnative speaking teachers of English (NNESTs). Interestingly, however, many people both within and outside of the ELT community continue to view these educators from a native speaker perspective. That is, a primarily Inner Circle native speaker model is used as a benchmark and target of ultimate attainment by which teachers' pedagogical and professional skills are measured against. Paradoxically, these teachers will never attain native status in the eyes of many people, but are referred to instead as 'native-like.' Those falling short of the 'native-like' title are demoted to the rank of failed native speakers. This paper advocates for a perspective based on L2 users, the majority of speakers and teachers, rather than on native speakers the minority group. It also argues that a native speaker framework has divided a group of teachers with the same end goal. Moreover, I will present a foundation which implements the perceived advantages of both nonnative and native speaking English teachers via the intersection of multicompetence, codeswitching and Medgyes' (1992) 6 assets.

This paper is written in the context of language teaching in Japan, where English is taught as a foreign language. Although the findings and pedagogical applications are most fully beneficial with a monolingual group of learners in an EFL environment, they also hold relevance in ESL situations.

2. Outline of the paper

The current paper is divided into two major sections. The first section traces the origins of the native speaker benchmark and explains how its reverberation through the field divided NNESTs and NESTs. The subsequent section describes a new framework, aiming to bridge a conceptual gap between theory and practice by arguing how the intersection of multicompetence, codeswitching, and Péter Medgyes' (1992) six assets of NNESTs can refocus teaching on the L2 user. I will elaborate how the use of multicompetence as basis invalidates the myth of the native speaker and will further detail the implications of this foundation regarding the use of L1 in the classroom as well as a lens to reevaluate and reply Medgyes' (1992) 6 assets.

3. From Deficit to Difference—Changing Perspectives and Paradigms in the Literature

In the last three decades, the notion of native and nonnative speakers in language teaching went from an overlooked area of research to one with a dedicated subfield of study in applied linguistics. While many academics and practitioners perceive NNESTs as bona fide educators in the field, the situations in some EFL environments, such as Japan, seems to reflect unity between nonnative and native English teachers as lacking at best, and at worst a contest for superiority between two groups who possess a common purpose. Moreover, this dichotomy is often portrayed through stereotypes in the literature with NNESTs viewed as grammar gurus who can better offer insight and teaching strategies from their experience as learners and NESTs as the proprietors of pronunciation (see e.g., Benke & Medgyes, 2005; Braine, 2010; Reves & Medgyes, 1994). However, prior to the 1980s, the perceptions of many NNESTs could not have been any different; these educators were widely viewed as second class teachers with language deficiencies. In this section, I argue that this reflects one example of how deeply the native speaker benchmark has penetrated the field of ELT.

3.1. The Native Speaker Construct

The notion of the ‘idealized native speaker’ model emerged from the Chomskian paradigm in linguistics (see e.g. Chomsky, 1965, 1968, 1986) which helped define (Inner Circle) native speakers as the perfect models of their language—i.e., the judges of grammaticality, against which others would be measured. The underpinning of this model was in Chomsky’s (1966) difference between competence and performance which emphasized the former over the latter (see also Firth & Wagner, 1997; Sampson, 1980). While this may have applicability in examining a static language in a homogenous group of monolingual speakers, it does not provide an adequate basis or account for language variation among the multilingual users and various contexts in which English is used today.

Another conceptual emphasis of the Chomskian perspective was a focus on independent grammars. For instance, Selinker’s (1969, 1972) notions of fossilization and interlanguage helped support the idea of separate grammars by using a native speaker perspective and benchmark as a measure of ultimate attainment for L2 learners. Specifically, the initial interlanguage model proposed that students traverse a path from L1 native speakers to L2 native speakers, with interlanguage representing the language during their L2 transition. Those failing to attain native proficiency in the L2 became fossilized or deficient native speakers. While

Chomsky's and Selinker's theories regarding SLA certainly represented novel and breakthrough discoveries during the 1960s and 1970s, these were largely predicated on the notions and hypotheses of first language acquisition. This foundation inherently employed a native speaker model as a linguistic and cultural target for acquisition which would reverberate through different paradigm shifts.

3.2. An Injection of Sociolinguistics

Following the rather theoretical lab-based approach to the native and nonnative speaker constructs exemplified by the Chomskian paradigm, the next shift, the NNEST movement, would broaden the scope of investigation to include a wide range of sociolinguistic variables. Specifically, scholars and linguists in the field began to view other varieties of English through a more pluricentric lens taking into account issues such as language ownership, class, race, and (access to) education (e.g., see Halliday, 1974; Higgins, 2003; Norton, 1997; Peirce, 1995; Widdowson, 1994). Under this more holistic approach, non-Inner Circle varieties of English would become recognized not as erroneous forms of an Inner Circle target, but as separate and unique varieties worthy of study (see B. Kachru, 1997; Sridhar & Sridhar, 1986). This movement also signified the legitimization of NNESTs as educators (see e.g. Higgins, 2003; Medgyes, 1992; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992; Widdowson, 1994).

3.3. Another Divide

Although momentous progress was made during the almost 20 year span from the 1980s until the late 1990s, it was also a double edged sword. Some research implicitly reiterated remnants of a Chomskian (in)competence model and thus marked the origin of another division between NNESTs and NESTs. Medgyes' 1992 article represents one such example of this research. Seidlhofer's (2001) assertion, "this means that the *how* is changing, but linked to a *what* that is not" (p. 140), provides a nice analogy for the analysis of this. While the legitimacy and status of both NNESTs and NESTs changed, differing degrees of an "us" versus "them" relationship between the groups remains nearly the same.

That is, despite insisting that the questions concerning the relative value of NNESTs and NESTs represent a false dichotomy which "may be conducive to forming wrong judgments about the differences" (1992, p. 347) between NNESTs and NESTs, Medgyes' argument presupposes this binary contrast, and in fact rests on the advantages and disadvantages between each group. Moreover, these merits and demerits are predicated on the remnants of the native speaker benchmark via their

derivations in terms of what they are or are not. This shares similarities how the term *nonnative*, was conceived and defined in terms of something that they were not, a *native speaker*. Although Medgyes' 1992 article bought into a comparative fallacy, his six assets raise important notions that practitioners, researchers and teacher training programs (e.g. MA TESOL programs) should address. Shortly after Medgyes, in 1999, Vivian Cook, an English linguist, proposed a groundbreaking idea that viewed SLA from the perspective of the L2 learner.

4. A New Framework

This marks the second major portion of the paper. The notions of multicompetence and the L2 will be introduced as well as their implementation as a theoretical foundation for L1 use in the classroom. The subsequent section will discuss how codeswitching can be utilized as a tool by both teachers and students, which will be followed by a re-examination of Medgyes' (1992) assets.

5. Multicompetence and the L2 User

Cook (1999) offers his notion of multicompetence as one way of going beyond the native speaker dichotomy. His idea of multicompetence, originally coined in his 1991 publication, *The poverty-of-the stimulus argument and multi-competence as "the compound state of a mind with two grammars"* (p.112), encompasses the knowledge of L1, L2, and interlanguage into one mind. That is, it accounts for the total amount of language knowledge a multilingual person possesses, rather than isolating a speaker's L1 and L2 (see Figure 1).



Figure 1

Moreover, all languages contained in a user's language eco-system are seen as interdependent on one another and encompasses the syntax, culture and pragmatics of each language.

The L2 user comes as a natural extension of the multicompetence lens. A non-monolingual speaker is seen as unique user and person in their own right, free from descriptors such as a failed native speaker. Cook (2005) defines an L2 user as, "a person who uses another language for any purpose at whatever level, and is thus

not covered by most definitions of either bilinguals or L2 learners” (p.47). The multicompetence and L2 user approach take into consideration that many of people in the world use at least two languages with many more that use a multitude of languages for different purposes. When viewed in this context the native speaker framework shifts from a structure of normality to one of uncommonness. That is successful communication can and does span more than one language at a time (codeswitching) and occurs between those possessing a gamut of proficiencies. As a theoretical foundation for my framework, it provides a constructive basis to address L1 use in the classroom and re-evaluate Medgyes’ 6 assets. It will soon be monolingual native speakers who find themselves lost in a multilingual world.

6. Codeswitching and L1 Use in the Classroom

Codeswitching denotes one tool accessible to bilinguals. However, what exactly defines a bilingual? Or perhaps more specifically, what levels of proficiency do bilinguals possess? Bilinguals represent not a homogenous group of people, but rather individuals who possess different ranges of proficiency in more than one language (cf. V. Cook, 2002; Han, 2004). Although some bilinguals have equal (balanced) proficiencies in more than one language, they represent a minority group among bilinguals as a whole. For example, Cook (1999, 2005) argues that plotting native speaker proficiency as an ultimate attainment goal represents an unreasonable, if not impossible objective, with the exception of people who are monolingual speakers of two languages (balanced bilinguals). Not surprisingly, the differing proficiency ranges equate to a diverse use of codeswitching between bilinguals. This encompasses not only the linguistic features of codeswitching (e.g., inter- and intra-sentential switching), but also extralinguistic variables such as identity and power. Even under a multicompetence lens, the fear of negative transfer may represent a topic of contention for teachers. However, I argue that the benefits of positive transfer significantly outweigh the possible detriments of negative transfer in EFL environments. The following sections will discuss some possible uses of L1 in the classroom (via codeswitching) and its benefits to students and teachers.

5.1 Codeswitching by Students (Limited Proficiency Bilinguals)

The use of codeswitching by students can be utilized as a tool to repair breakdowns, express personal feelings, fill lexical gaps and can also foster stronger classroom solidarity which may lead to improved motivation (Fotos, 2001; Nishimura, 1995). For instance, I will introduce two examples gathered from out of class recordings submitted by some of my students.

Example 1

I'm going present...*chau wa*...I'm going to present. {I'm going present...I mean...I'm going to present...}

This student's use of codeswitching signaled her repair of a grammatically incorrect item.

Example 2

Is it *totteiru*? {Is it recording?}

The code switch to Japanese was used to prevent the breakdown of her inquiry. While the students in each example learners utilize Japanese for different functions, they both used English as a base grammar. Research by other scholars (Vivian Cook, 2001; Eldridge, 1996; Fotos, 2001; Kite, 2001; Macaro, 2001, 2005) show that contrary to popular belief, linguistically and pedagogically, codeswitching can improve coherence among students as well as offer the teacher possibly more effective classroom management methods. Macaro (2005) insightfully writes:

the trick for the teacher is to encourage the learners to make evaluative strategies such as: 'when am I likely to be better off sticking with language I know already (e.g. formulaic expressions; whole sentences I have used in the past) rather than generate new sentences via translation. Balanced against this I must try to address the task as fully and as creatively as I can.' (p.77)

When used in a constructive and sparing manner, the use of students' L1 and codeswitching in the classroom can facilitate more L2 production as it keeps the flow of a conversation intact. Fotos' (2001) study observed that an improved classroom atmosphere and enhanced motivation represented a couple positive effects for students.

5.2 Codeswitching by Teachers

Just as codeswitching can facilitate the use of the target language in the classroom for students, teachers can also benefit from employing it as a tool. Forman (2010) offers ten principles for the use of L1 in the EFL classroom (see Table 1 below).

Table 1

1	Cognitive	L2 development	To explain L2 vocabulary, grammar, usage, culture
2	Affective	Solidarity	To facilitate easy, 'natural' interaction amongst students and with teacher
3		Interpersonal development	To develop collaborative, team-work abilities
4	Pedagogic	Time-effectiveness	To make good use of limited classroom time
5		Comprehensibility	To convey meaning successfully
6		Inclusivity	To ensure that all students can participate
7		Contingency	To respond to immediate teaching/learning needs
8		Classroom management	To maintain discipline
9	Socio-political	Globalised communication	To enable students to move flexibly and effectively across two languages
10		Political positioning	To resist the political dimension of global English

For those in teaching environments where contact between students and teachers occur one a week for 90 minutes, codeswitching can offer teachers a powerful tool to build repertoire with students. Additionally, classroom management via students' L1 can become much easier as a teacher can more accurately assess and respond to students who are on or off task. Codeswitching can also be used to ease understanding of the target language (e.g. English) by replacing seemingly difficult words with glosses in the students' L1. Moreover, Macaro (2001, 2005) suggests that the codeswitching in this context can help rather than hinder students' ability to recall and remember new vocabulary. Perhaps the most beneficial and realistic outcome from judicious codeswitching is the authenticity it provides as well as the focus on the L2 user.

7. Medgyes' Six Assets

Péter Medgyes, a Hungarian EFL teacher, published a seminal article and then a book (1994) which scrutinized the position and roles of NNESTs and NESTs in TESOL. Although his two works were the first to assert that both 'native' and 'nonnative' speakers of English could be successful teachers, these suppositions were accompanied by the observation that each group possessed a distinct set of

characteristics. Despite the flaws in his original argument, Medgyes' six traits represent a good objective for NESTs to aspire for. The six inimitable qualities thought unique to NNESTs are as follows:

1. Only non-NESTs can serve as imitable models of the successful learner of English.
 2. Non-NESTs can teach learning strategies more effectively.
 3. Non-NESTs can provide learners with more information about the English language.
 4. Non-NESTs are more able to anticipate language difficulties.
 5. Non-NESTs can be more empathetic to the needs and problems of their learners.
 6. Only non-NESTs can benefit from sharing the learners' mother tongue.
- (pp. 346-7)

NESTs learning their students' L1 are adding another tool to their repertoire of teaching methods. With the exception of the first trait, the others will become more and more beneficial as the teacher develops greater fluency. In most of the classes that I teach I code switch between English and Japanese with students. However, with two of my classes, I took an L2 based approach. Based on informal comments from student surveys, I found that students in the L2 only class wished I spoke Japanese, while the others classes remarked it was a benefit. While further more structured and formal research is required, if the informal comments gathered verbally and via surveys are indicative of the results, it would seem in the best interests of NESTs in EFL situations to learn and develop proficiency in their students' L1s. As a limited proficiency bilingual who does not represent a model of the successful learner of English, the pedagogical benefits of sharing an L1 and the ability to express my struggles and successes in learning Japanese to students have proved invaluable for me.

8. Conclusion

While it seems unlikely the label *native speaker* will disappear from peoples' minds and the lexicon of English, the term itself has grown in breadth and depth from the definition concerning the order a person acquires a language. For instance, the term has gone beyond the purely linguistic qualities, and now accounts for other variables such as social factors, e.g., personal affiliation and association (see e.g., Davies, 1991, 2003; Rampton, 1990). I hope that we can move beyond native speaker status and accept people based on their merit rather than the language they are born into.

I have also attempted to provide a brief history of the native speaker benchmark in the fields of applied linguistics and ELT. This section will discuss how notion of multicompetence, codeswitching and Medgyes' six assets can be reframed to move past a native speaker standard and also bring teachers together. As discussed earlier, Cook's (1999) concept of multicompetence combines into one model all languages accessible to a user. Moreover, it emphasizes defining ultimate measures of acquisition in terms of the L2 user rather than on the native speaker. In other words, it serves as the theoretical underpinning of this trifecta. Now that we can view access to multiple languages (regardless of a user's proficiency) as a tool, as opposed to a deficit, the proverbial door has been opened for codeswitching and the re-application of Medgyes' assets.

Fotos (2001) argues that limited proficiency bilinguals can employ codeswitching as a learning strategy. Employing the same framework, a NEST with some knowledge of the students' L1 would also fall into this classification and as such have access to the same benefits. When viewed under a multicompetence lens, this notion has potentially powerful benefits for both teachers and students. That is, it grants NESTs access to a toolbox of assets once thought unique to NNESTs. Although codeswitching by limited proficiency bilingual teachers may not be as beneficial as those performed by a more proficient user, it may have positive wash back effects. For instance, if you just arrived in a foreign country with no knowledge of the local language and someone greeted you in your L1, would it not make you feel a little better? Likewise, limited use of a student's L1 will hopefully evoke a feeling of safety and express your empathy with the outcome leading to more production in the target language.

By adapting a multicompetence view of language in the classroom I hope we can move past the notion of the idealized native speaker, help our fellow colleagues and improve our own teaching techniques. I hope the future of English teaching entails a world in which teachers are judged not by native or nonnative status, but by their pedagogical and professional skills.

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Confronting Underlying Racism for Effective Intercultural Communication

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Introduction

Racism is never an easy topic to discuss, particularly when one is exposing racism within an individual or community. It is my belief that racism can and will lose its power and influence with increased cultural awareness, sensitivity, and intercultural communication.

In order to contribute to this goal, this paper will reflect two separate studies: The first study, and first part of this paper, explores the necessity to acknowledge and confront underlying racist thoughts, feelings, beliefs, and attitudes toward minority cultures who are living in a monocultural society. The study focuses on Japanese perceptions of Nigerian immigrants living and working in Japan. The second study, and second part, discusses the necessary steps to effectively communicate intercultural, and will introduce a new approach to a well-used tool in intercultural communication training—the D.I.E. exercise.

The goal of this study is not to paint Japan as a monocultural racist country, but use Japan as a way of illustrating a global communicative issue, as well as build an argument for more effective, authentic, and intentional intercultural communication.

Confronting Underlying Racism

Neither a history of Japan's racial tensions with other cultures nor the current extreme right-wing racist views of Japan's nationalist groups will be included because such historical events, such as the Nanjing incident (Askew, 2002), or modern acts of xenophobia, such as the attack on a Chinese tour bus (Jize, 2010) would not accurately depict Japan's current stance with regards to immigration and cultural diversity.

In order to obtain a glimpse into this current state of mind, 50 Japanese participants, male and female between the ages of 20 and 55, were randomly chosen, and asked for two things: 1) their age, and 2) their immediate and honest response to one phrase: "Say the first word that comes to mind when I say *Nigerian*" (The phrase was asked in Japanese, but translated into English for publication).

Forty-eight responded, without hesitation, "Kowai," which is Japanese for *scary* or *I'm afraid* (many of the younger female participants made facial and hand gestures to indicate their fear, and although I did not officially document the second word out of their mouths, half of the Japanese females followed their response up with "Yada," which has many translations, but most commonly, "I don't want [it]"); and the remaining two, both older men, stated matter-of-factly, "Hanzaisha"—criminal.

Kovel (1994) explores models of white racial identity development, and pointed to some startling research: "The less aware subjects were of their White identity, the more likely they were to exhibit increased levels of racism" (p. 265). While I am not suggesting the Japanese should be compared to white Anglo-Saxon Americans, I do think there is a connection between the racial identity models and current racial beliefs with regards to a small number of immigrants inhabiting a country like Japan where there is one dominant race.

Again, the point of this survey was not to implicate the Japanese in acts of racial profiling, but rather reveal the need to further cultural awareness, sensitivity, and acceptance on a global scale. One way this can be achieved is through effective intercultural communication.

Effective Intercultural Communication

Countless articles and books have indulged in the now-cliché observation regarding the world becoming smaller. The world is, in fact, becoming easier to access, both physically and virtually, thanks mostly to advancing technology; however, it is deceiving to believe that an easier accessible world equals a diverse, accepting, and communicative one.

During the 2010-2011 academic year, I surveyed 300 people from America, Canada, Mexico, Brazil, El Salvador, Nigeria, Egypt, South Africa, almost every country in Western Europe, Russia, Iran, South Korea, Japan, Taiwan, China, Thailand, Australia, and New Zealand. They were all asked to respond to the same statement: “List the three things that are most important to you.” 98% of responses fell into these 3 categories:

1. Family
2. Career/Passion (e.g., writing)
3. Health/Quality of life (personal satisfaction with overall conditions)

I presented these research results for the first time during the 2013 Asian Conference on Language Learning in Osaka, Japan, but not before presenting the same statement to the attendees. Although their responses varied to some degree (one gentleman said, “Sleep”), the overall consensus mirrored my findings.

So the question now is, “Are we that different?” Well, yes, in fact. We are complicated beings separated by language, culture, beliefs, and so on. This leads us to define the term *culture*: In 1871, Edward B. Tyler provided the first working definition of culture: “Culture is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, arts, law, morals, custom, and any other habits acquired by humans who are members of a society.” Kovel (1984) defines *culture* as “an evolving system of meaningful relations deriving from the sum total of the activities and institutions of a society” (p. 25). To extend these definitions, Klopff and McCroskey (2007) present two means of viewing culture—a broad version and a narrow version: the broad version includes “artifacts” (society’s manufactured items), “sociofacts” (society’s norms and laws), and “mentifacts” (cognition and emotion); the narrow version includes a more personal experience that influences how one thinks and behaves within that society (p. 21).

Now that we have defined culture, it is imperative that we separate the following terms that are sometimes used interchangeably, which is one of the missteps that leads communicators further away from communicating effectively interculturally: multicultural, cross-cultural, and intercultural:

Multicultural means two or more cultures living alongside one another, and while this involves some levels of tolerance and superficial social interactions, communication usually does not reach deeper depths than that.

Cross-Cultural means two or more cultures living alongside one another, and while there are attempts at reaching across cultural borders, there is a level of

intentionality and community building that is necessary in order to build permanent bridges between cultures.

Intercultural means social structures and interactions are defined by understanding, acceptance, respect, freedom, equality, diversity, and celebration.

Therefore, intercultural communication is “a communicative exchange between persons of different cultures” (Klopf and McCroskey, 2007, p. 58). Challenges to intercultural communication should be fairly obvious: cultural assumptions, prejudices, stereotypes, miscommunications, misinterpretations, and so on. Strategies to overcome these are self-awareness, avoiding stereotypes, honesty, respect, inquiry, and acceptance of differences and the difficulties that naturally occur in communication. D.I.E., D.A.E., or something else?

D.I.E. is a common exercise used in intercultural training that asks participants to describe, interpret, and evaluate an ambiguous object or photograph (Bennett, Bennett, & Stillings, 1977). Finding the model and its acronym problematic, Nam & Condon (2010) suggested D.A.E. (Describe, Analyze, Evaluate), with “analyze” supposedly being clearer directions for participants compared to the previous term “interpret” (problem solving vs. judging) (p. 84).

While I agree that D.A.E. is more effective in its clarity, I believe there is merit to allowing participants to first evaluate, then analyze (or interpret, if you choose to remain faithful to the original D.I.E.), and finally describe. When I present the new form—E.A.D.—to participants, it is much more powerful to illicit evaluations of an unknown object, photograph or scenario (e.g. case study). If one is going to undertake the unpleasant goal of uncovering underlying racism in order to learn how to better communicate with other cultures, it is necessary to engage in exercises that confront racism head-on. E.A.D. accomplishes this goal by not asking participants to objectively describe what they see first, but instead, evaluate what they see; in other words, immediately answer the question, “How do I feel about what I see?” (Nam & Condon, 2010, p. 85). By moving backwards through the D.I.E./D.A.E. process, we are able to confront underlying racism, which will hopefully pave the way for self-awareness, cultural respect, and effective intercultural communication.

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*Focused Instruction of Formulaic Language: Use and Awareness in a Japanese
University Class*

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Abstract

While there exists a growing body of research on the nature and functions of formulaic language (FL), there remains a paucity of analysis of the ways language teachers may implement this knowledge in their classrooms, and the relative effectiveness of teaching techniques. FL, defined as multiword units of language which have particular functions and meanings in discourse, and which may be processed as if single words, may be acquired through exposure to language input. However, a benefit may accrue from techniques involving repetition and memorization, focused on a performance task. The present study is a report of a university EFL course in Japan in which students were taught about FL and provided with FL to repeat and memorize for a class presentation task. Results indicate that they used the sequences in their presentations and that their awareness of the nature and functions of FL was augmented by the course experience.

Plenty of research has been conducted on the nature of formulaic language (FL), defined by Wray (2002: 4) as "...word strings which appear to be processed without recourse to their lowest level of composition..." that is, multiword units of language which are prefabricated and/or holistically produced and understood. The role of FL in communication and language acquisition has been studied, but relatively little work has focused on how second language (L2) learners may develop awareness of FL and acquire facility with it in specific educational contexts.

The present study is an investigation of how students in a FL-focused university communication class at a Japanese university grew their awareness and skill of using FL through a variety of pedagogical means including form-focused activity, guided oral presentations, and attending to lectures on various aspects of FL. They were required to produce pre and post course freewriting about FL, and to perform an oral presentation about an aspect of FL. This presentation was guided and students were provided with formulaic sequences (FS) to memorize, to aid their crafting of effective academic oral discourse. The study was grounded in the research literature on task-based teaching and the role of memory in language gain, specifically as regards FL and formal, rehearsed speaking.

Formulaic Language and Repetition, Memory, and Production

It appears that benefits accrue from providing students with time and support in preparation for a speech production task. Pre-task planning and online or within-task planning have positive results for spoken language development. Ellis (2005) discusses a range of planning types, and notes that pre-task planning may be in the form of rehearsal of production or strategic planning – ways in which learners can take time to prepare *how* to express the ideas they want or need to formulate. The benefits of within-task planning, or taking time to reflect and plan *while* performing, for fluent production have been studied by Ellis and Yuan (2005), who found that the complexity and accuracy of learner speech improved when allowed online processing time. In the present study, learners were given the opportunity to discuss and revise their presentation topics and to practice their presentations using FL provided by the researchers.

Recently, some developments in the study of formulaic sequences and the ways they may be beneficial to fluent production focus on memorization as a means of boosting competence. The potential value of memory is targeted in research such as that of Gatbonton and Segalowitz (1988), who outline principles for encouraging memory to further automatization. Phonemic aspects of formulaic sequences, including alliteration and assonance (Lindstromberg and Boers, 2008a, 2008b) have been shown to aid in the learning or memorization of FS. In the present study, learners were encouraged to memorize formulaic sequences relevant to their presentation topics, in an effort to automatize them.

Several recent studies have been conducted in which participants memorized FL with positive results for effective communication. In one study (Wray, 2008), a beginner learner of Welsh memorized phrases and sentences necessary in order to provide a cooking demonstration broadcast on television, all within a one-week period. The learner

delivered a competent and fluent demonstration and nine months later recalled a significant amount of the targeted language. In another case (Wray, 2008), advanced learners memorized nativelike formulaic ways of expressing ideas which they deemed valuable in everyday encounters with native speakers. After a week of practice and rehearsal, the learners recorded themselves in real life encounters using the memorized material. Participants produced the memorized utterances in their real life encounters, although not always accurately, and they reported that the memorized language aided them in confidence, satisfaction, and feeling like nativelike interlocutors. This supports the assertion of Boers, Eyckmans, Kappel, Stengers, and Demecheleer (2006) that use of formulaic sequences can help L2 learners by providing nativelike idiomaticity, a nativelike temporal pattern of speech, and multiword strings of accurate speech. The learners in the present study underwent a process similar to those in Wray's studies, in that they memorized FL in order to achieve nativelike idiomaticity and multiword strings of accurate speech in a real-life task, in this case an in-class presentation

Memorization has been viewed in Western contexts as a questionable and archaic learning technique with limited potential for language acquisition, but evidence from Asian learners has indicated a role for memorization and repetition of texts in language acquisition. Some research with Chinese learners suggests that memorization may have some utility in facilitating understanding of written texts (Dahlin & Watkins, 2000). Other research has shown a measurable perceived positive effect of memorization. Ding (2007) found positive effects of memorization of large amounts of text by university students in China. After extensive experience memorizing lengthy texts in English, students reported that the practice had made them better communicators in English by enhancing their fluency, focusing attention on collocations and formulas, and enabling the transfer of these to real life communication. Similarly, Walker and Utsumi (2006) found that memorizing dialogues in Japanese as a second language was valued by learners as a learning technique and as a boost to fluency and transferable to real life communication. In another recent study, Dai and Ding (2010) found that Chinese L2 learners of English who engaged in text memorization activities used more FSs in their L2 writing than those who did not, and that their writing proficiency and ability outstripped that of learners who did not memorize texts. These pieces of research provide hints of a potentially powerful effect of memorization in furthering language proficiency and production.

Psycholinguistic research into phonological memory appears relevant to FL processing and retention. The basic model of working memory, as elaborated by Baddeley (2000) and others, is that language production involves the short-term retention of aspects of language in a cognitive loop. The loop has several components: a visual-spatial sketchpad which holds visual and spatial information related to the target language items; a phonological loop which deals with verbal information and is linked to phonological memory; an episodic buffer which integrates information from the sketchpad and phonological loop with long-term memory. Phonological memory is said to facilitate language acquisition through a process of holding phonological information temporarily over and over until a permanent or long-term memory representation can be created. This aspect of the working memory model has been studied quite extensively in laboratory

settings, and considerable evidence exists to confirm the existence of a phonological loop (see Baddeley, Gathercole, & Papagno, 1998). While studies of adult L2 acquisition and phonological memory are numerous and have actually indicated that phonological memory plays a significant role in vocabulary acquisition, a limited body of work has investigated possible links between phonological memory and oral L2 fluency.

O'Brien, Segalowitz, Freed, and Collentine (2007) examined phonological memory in the context of the real world of language learning, comparing the development of Spanish L2 fluency of native speakers of English in a regular university language program and a study-abroad semester. Psycholinguistic tests of phonological memory were conducted before and after a semester of study and examined for correlation with gains in speech fluency over the same period of time. Results indicated that, independent of the learning context, phonological memory actually appears to be related to gains in L2 fluency. One could speculate that the effect of phonological memory on the ability to retain and produce formulaic sequences may be a key component of the fluency gains of the learners in this study.

In practice, then, it appears that repetition is important if formulaic sequences are to be automatized, or readily available for use in spontaneous discourse. Repetition can be built into tasks in a number of ways, including the repetition of a particular task in its entirety, such as a presentation or a role play, or form-focused, with a focus on improving particular points of language such as FS. In the present study, students were encouraged to repeat FL in order to memorize it for use in a presentation.

In light of the existing knowledge of the possible role of memorization and repetition in developing facility with FL, and the notion that experience using FL in real-life performance might heighten student awareness of the nature and utility of FL, we conducted our research to address these two questions:

1. When students have been provided with FL to repeat and memorize specific to a performance task, will they use it appropriately in the task?
2. Will a range of experience with FL, including using it in performance tasks, heighten student awareness of the nature and utility of FL?

Methods

The course

In an attempt to examine how particular pedagogical practices can facilitate awareness and use of formulaic language, we engaged students in a communication studies course at a Japanese university in a range of activity. The 14-session course of 22 students followed a mixed syllabus of lectures, form-focused tasks, and group and individual oral presentations, all conducted entirely in English:

- The form-focused tasks were adapted from McCarthy and O'Dell (2005)
- Lecture topics included identification, formulaic language and second language acquisition, code-switching, spoken fluency, and lexical bundles.
- Students prepared and performed group presentations on aspects of Japanese FL which were of interest, and received content and language-focused feedback.

Data collection

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected from students over the course of the semester:

- students were coached and provided with formulaic sequences to practice and memorize for a final oral presentation about formulaic language
- students produced a piece of freewriting on the first and last days of the course, responding to the prompt “what is formulaic language and why is it important?”

Eight students volunteered to participate in a round of activity designed to examine the idea that memorizing formulaic sequences for a specific purpose can be beneficial. The individual final presentations for the course were scaffolded and guided, and the participants were provided with formulaic sequences which could aid in effective and appropriate expression of their chosen content.

Each participant met with a researcher several times to select a presentation topic, refine the topic, and create an outline. After the initial round of meetings, each participant presented a spoken draft of his or her presentation to the researcher, who gave feedback on content, organization, and language.

The researcher provided each participant with a number of specific formulaic sequences which could refine and augment the presentation. The sequences were chosen based on their appropriateness for the expressions of particular functions in the discourse of the presentations, following the metacategories of lexical bundles (a functionally specialized subset of FL) elaborated by Biber, Conrad & Cortes (2004). While the categories are presented by Biber et. al. as a way of classifying lexical bundles as to discourse function, they are readily applicable to FL in general. *Referential* sequences deal with factual content, and characteristics such as quantity, time, and space, for example *a number of*, *a range of*, and *late by X minutes*. 11 such sequences were provided in total. *Discourse* sequences deal with organizing information, for example *all in all*, *in the course of*, and *some of which are*. 16 such sequences were provided in total. *Stance* sequences deal with modality, attitude, and a link to the listener, for example *curious as to why*, *as illustrated here*, and *the truth is that*. 18 such sequences were provided in total.

The sequences were all selected with reference to the Corpus of Contemporary American English - at a frequency of at least 10/million words and with a Mutual Information score (MI) of at least 3.0 in the corpus (for an overview of MI see Schmitt, 2010). Appendix 1 presents a full list of the sequences provided.

Participants were then encouraged to practice the presentation and include the formulaic sequences which had been provided, repeating them until they felt confident in using them. From one to three weeks elapsed between the provision of the formulaic sequences and the actual presentations. Participants were strongly advised not to memorize and entire text for their presentation, and to only use notes which contained point-form prompts.

The presentations were video recorded and the recorded speech was checked for the presence of the formulaic sequences which had been provided. Of the eight students who had chosen to participate in the study, three made deep changes to their presentations shortly before the presentation day, to the extent that it rendered the formulaic sequences irrelevant. These presentations were therefore not analyzed.

Results

Presentations

Of a total of 45 formulaic sequences provided to the remaining five participants, all were used in the presentations. Individual results are presented in Table 1. Student names are presented as abbreviations. In some instances the number of FS used exceeds the number provided because some sequences were used more than once in a presentation (See appendix).

Table 1 Use of formulaic sequences in presentation

Participant	Number of formulaic sequences provided	Number of formulaic sequences used
A W	12	14 (2 sequences were used twice)
K M	7	7
S Y	8	7
Y O	8	7
Y U	10	10
Total	45	45

The participants who followed through on all stages of the research process used the formulaic sequences comprehensively in their presentations. It appears that practicing and memorizing formulaic sequences for a specific performance goal is a practical and effective way of improving communicative effectiveness for the target task itself.

Pre-post course freewriting

On the first day and the last day of class the students were asked to freewrite for ten minutes to the prompt “what is formulaic language and why is it important?” Freewriting is a process of fast, timed writing in which a writer puts thoughts on paper without the opportunity to preplan content or language. In this case, the freewriting was meant to capture the students’ deep *sense* of formulaic language, not to test their recall of lecture or textbook content. In other words, the technique was designed to capture more what they had acquired about formulaic language than what they had learned or been taught. The freewriting samples were matched pre- and post course and were analyzed for evidence of a developing sense of the functional and communicative value of formulaic language. It was expected that the experience of the course, particularly the lectures and the coached final presentations, might have raised awareness of the communicative value of formulaic language.

A common theme in the first pre-course freewriting was the idiomatic nature of formulaic language, often referred to as “expressions,” along with a perceived basis in cultural traditions, and even slang. Statements to these effects from the initial freewrites include:

- *It was passed from ancestor to us*

- *It's a traditional expression which old people have used for a long time*
- *Idioms are difficult for Japanese student*
- *Idioms combine two words*
- *It has a slangy expression*

Other perceptions of the function and nature of formulaic language included structural aspects, for example “we can modify easily, for example, we can just modify simple verbs when we don’t know the past form,” or a sense of the noncompositional nature of some sequences, as in “they are composed of some words ... idiom has a completely different meaning.”

A strikingly clear and salient broad theme from the post-course freewriting samples is the power of formulaic language to facilitate effective and fluent speech. Common statements to this effect include:

- *If we don't have FL, we can't speak or write speedily ... makes language better and comfortable*
- *There are a lot of cases that we can't explain in terms of grammatical rules, but these words are commonly used in daily communication by native speakers*
- *It help to speak fluently and naturally*
- *It help us to speak smoothly or understand easily*
- *We can communicate with each other efficiently, quickly, and easily*
- *A way of expressing how we feel or understanding socially*
- *We need not think about the grammatical system*
- *We can speak fluently by using it*

During the course students had a great deal of exposure to background information on the types and functions of formulaic language, and they had ample opportunity to study and manipulate formulaic sequences in practice and in the preparations for the final presentations. It is likely that this body of experience contributed to their final observations that formulaic language is a set of tools for efficient and effective communication, rather than a set of idioms, expressions, slang, or traditional ways of expression.

Discussion and Conclusions

The students who participated in the course and the cycle of FL-focused activity appear to have gained in two ways: their overall awareness of the value, functions, and uses of FL in communication expanded and deepened; their repertoire of FL for use in the expression of particular ideas was augmented. The former gain is evidenced by their freewriting, in which they express a broader range of attitudes and beliefs about FL after completing the course – particularly as regards the benefits of FL in facilitating overall speech proficiency and fluency. The latter gain, the increase in repertoire of FL, is present in their speech presentations, into which they integrated a new set of specific FSs after practice, repetition, and memorization.

Research of this type is fraught with difficulties and complications, yet it is essential that we continue to investigate how learners may benefit from specific pedagogical practices with regard to FL. In future, projects involving closely matched of genre and dynamics

between rehearsed and practiced performances and subsequent recalls might yield firmer results. However, the present study provides tantalizing preliminary evidence that utilizing the power of repetition and memory in speech tasks can augment facility with and awareness of FL; it remains for future research to determine how and to what extent this is so in a range of circumstances.



Appendix

Formulaic Sequences Provided for Presentations

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. a number of | 15. down through generations | 29. launch into |
| 2. a range of | 16. draw out | 30. looked down on |
| 3. according to | 17. for the most part | 31. may appear similar |
| 4. all in all | 18. from (their) point of view | 32. point out |
| 5. are generally defined as | 19. from our perspective | 33. present a comparison between |
| 6. as illustrated here | 20. have the additional benefit of | 34. presents problems |
| 7. as many (examples) as possible | 21. highly unusual | 35. some of which are |
| 8. can be a source of difficulty | 22. how the X differ | 36. some such thing |
| 9. can be tricky | 23. in fact | 37. such as |
| 10. comes across | 24. in an instance in which | 38. the truth is that |
| 11. compiled a list | 25. in the course of | 39. through the eyes of |
| 12. curious as to why | 26. initial reaction | 40. to sum up |
| 13. dealing with | 27. it became apparent that | 41. use in error |
| 14. direct our attention to | 28. late by X minutes | 42. with particular attention to |

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The Benefits of Encouraging Learners to Notice Their Errors

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In 1990 when Schmidt proposed the Noticing Hypothesis which suggests “that input does not become intake unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered” (2010, p. 1), in a way, he opened a can of worms. The worms were welcomed though by the Second Language Acquisition (SLA) field. After all similar concepts, such as, focal awareness (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968; Kihlstrom, 1984), episodic awareness (Allport, 1979), and appreciated input (Gass, 1988) have been around for quite some time. To name a few of the areas of inquiry and theories within the field which were influenced by the proposal of the Noticing Hypothesis, there are the: implicit and explicit learning in SLA and teaching (Hultstijn, 2003, 2005; N. Ellis, 1994, 2005, 2006, 2008; Robinson, 1995a, 1995b, 1996, 2002); Swain's (1995) incorporation of the concepts of noticing and noticing the gap into a sociocultural model of learning; VanPatten's (1996, 2004) proposals for input processing instruction; Long's (1996) revised interaction hypothesis and the focus on form literature; and Gass and Mackey's (2006) model of input, interaction and learning. Also, “most empirical studies have been supportive of the Noticing Hypothesis” (Schmidt, 2010, p. 6) and some of the specific findings from research done on noticing are that: noticing facilitates learning (Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Schmidt, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Swain, 1993, 1995, 1998; Lapkin and Swain, 2001; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi, 2002; Mackey, 2000, 2006); task-repetition leads to improvement (Bygate, 1996); noticing activities encourages learners to focus on form (Lynch, 2001; Mennim, 2003) and higher level of awareness and learning has been linked (Leow, 1997, 2000). Although “to many people, the idea that SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and become aware of in target language input seems the essence of common sense” (Schmidt, 2010, p. 1), there has yet to be any known data collected on the general benefits of encouraging learners to notice their errors. Prior to introducing the research that will be presented in this paper, first we must answer the following questions: what exactly does it mean to notice, why focus on errors, and how can it be encouraged?

Bowers (as cited in Schmidt, 1990, p. 132) provides a clear and simple example of what it means to notice:

When reading...we are normally aware of (notice) the content of what we are reading, rather than the syntactic peculiarities of the writer's style, the style of type in which the text is set, music playing on a radio in the next room, or background noise outside a window. However, we still perceive these competing stimuli and may pay attention to them if we chose.

Therefore, learners, while learning a language, may be aware of or notice the language or parts of the language they are learning and even if the Noticing Hypothesis was not true, that is, learners do not need to notice or consciously register input in order for it to become intake, it has been argued that being more aware of the language being learned is better than less (Baars, 1988) and there is no evidence to support any claims that learners learn less about what they are not aware of (Logan, Taylor & Etherton, 1996). According to Ivor and Carlos (2003), noticing can be explicit, implicit, guided by the teacher and/or self-directed (or “unguided” according to Santos, Lopez-Serrano, and Manchon, 2010). As far as what should be noticed, it has been suggested that it is necessary that the forms learners notice “are based on their own recent learning experience, particularly where that experience is negative” (James, 1998, p. 258) and that “there appears to be a growing consensus among the majority of researchers concerning the significance of the role played by negative evidence” (e.g., Ammar and Spada, 2006; Shaofeng, 2010; Oliver, 2000; Mackey, 2006 cited in Bassiri, 2011, p.2). Researchers have even suggested ways in which learners can be encouraged to notice their own errors, for example, activities, such as, cognitive comparisons (Ellis, 1995), reconstruction tasks (Thornbury, 1997) and learners doing their own error analysis (EA) (James, 1998) have been proposed. Unfortunately, however, in language learning environments “...the type of feedback the teacher offers to the learner does not provide optimal conditions to help learners *notice* their errors...” (Qi and Lapkin, 2001, p. 280). In this paper further advice on how learners can be encouraged to notice their errors will be given. In order to provide support for this advice current research done in this area will be presented.

Current research - participants and context

The research presented in this paper was conducted at a private all women’s university in Japan during one 15-week semester. There were 56 participants divided evenly up into a control group ($n = 28$) and an experimental group ($n = 28$). The participants were students enrolled in the Intensive English program along with 124 other students (enrollment is capped each year at 180). These students are divided into ten different levels from A to J, A being the lowest level and J being the highest. Below is listed the levels of the participants. As can be seen, the control group was levels C and J and the experimental group was levels A and F. The reasoning behind choosing these levels was to ensure that both groups, i.e. the control and experimental groups, were evenly represented as much as possible and intentionally it was decided that one of the experimental groups be one of the lowest

levels opposed to being one of the highest levels. Data was collected in their final third-year Speaking classes and all of the teachers were different except one teacher taught A and J levels. It is important to point out that the materials used were the same in all of the classes regardless of the differences in levels.

- J level - Control
- F level - Experimental
- C level - Control
- A level - Experimental

Research hypotheses

Coming into this research, the researchers, based on experience and the above mentioned research, had certain hypotheses related to the possible benefits of encouraging learners to notice their errors. First, it was believed that learners would perform better on tests. There is no known evidence linking learners' abilities to notice and their performances on tests. It was believed that learners would not only perform better on tests when provided with opportunities to notice their errors but that they would perform better in comparison to the control groups. Second, it was believed that learners would have a better understanding of what was to be learned. In other words, they would be more consciously aware of what they were to be learning in class and in particular, in comparison to the control groups. Third, it was believed that learners would have a better understanding of their own interlanguage, i.e. by being encouraged to notice their errors, they become more aware of their own personal level of the English language (a comparison cannot be made between the groups). Finally, it was believed that the learners would both personally over the semester and in comparison to the control groups become more motivated and more autonomous due to being given opportunities to and encouraged to notice the making of their own errors.

Data collection, analysis and results

When collecting data on noticing, previous researchers have used diaries, questionnaires, and uptake sheets (Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Slimani, 1989; Warden, et. al., 1995)...verbal reports such as think-aloud protocols and stimulated recall protocols (Leow, 1997; Mackey, et. al., 2000; Swain and Lapkin, 2002; Adams, 2003) nevertheless "concerns have...been raised in the SLA literature as to how noticing data should be collected and analyzed..." (Mackey, 2006, p. 409) and it has been suggested that "it may be best to triangulate methods of collecting noticing data to

obtain as full a picture as possible of learners' noticing..." (Mackey, 2006, p. 409). While keeping this in mind, the researchers collected the following data which will be described in detail below along with the results: pre- and post-tests, a motivation, autonomy and noticing questionnaire (due to space limitations and there not being any significant differences between the results for the groups on the questionnaire, this information will not be included), a written mid-term test, a spoken final test and end of class assignments. The differences between the control group and experimental group, were that the experimental group was given opportunities to notice their errors on both the written mid-term test and the spoken final test. For the written test, the students in the experimental group were given thirty minutes in the next class after the test to try to correct errors that had been highlighted by the teachers. This then would be considered to be teacher-guided noticing. They were told that any error they corrected they would receive points for. For the spoken test, the students were told that they needed to listen to their own recordings made during the test and that any errors properly corrected, they would receive points for. They were to e-mail to their teachers the corrections within a week after the test.

Written mid-term test

The mid-term test was implemented halfway through the semester and included questions which related to materials covered during class up until that point. There were eight sections in the test, see below for an example section of the test, and the full score for the test was 45.

Example section of the test:

II. Directions:

Make a list of topics which are taboo, and safe, to talk about when you are first introduced to someone.

Taboo topics	Safe topics
1.	1.
2.	2.
3.	3.
4.	4.
5.	5.

The average control group final score on the mid-term was 33 and the average experimental group final score was 36. Therefore, the experimental group received an average of 3 more points than the control group on the mid-term test. Also, the experimental group received an average of 4 noticing points on the test.

Spoken final test

The class before the test was given, students were given various scenarios to practice during class and on their own. They were told that two of the scenarios would be randomly chosen on the day of the test although it was decided that for research purposes only two scenarios chosen by the teachers in conjunction with the researchers would be used. The day of the test, they were to read the scenarios and then act out the scene. The final score for the test was 20. An example scenario for speaker A only is:

You are a university student at a women's university in Japan. You get an opportunity to go to Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, USA for a semester aboard program. This is your first day at the school orientation in Philadelphia, your professor told you to try to make as many English speaking friends as possible. Start a conversation, continue a conversation, make one polite request and end a conversation.

The average final score for the control group was 17 and the average experimental final score for the experimental group was 18. Therefore, the experimental group got an average of 1 more point than the control group on the final test. Also, they received an average of 3 noticing points on the test.

Table 3. Written mid-term and spoken final test average

	Written Test Average	Written Test Noticing Point Average	Spoken Test Average	Spoken Test Noticing Point Average
Control	33	n/a	17	n/a
Experimental	36	4	18	3

Pre- and post tests

The pre- and post-test consisted of six situations which were situations that students would become familiar with during the semester and each situation was worth ten points so sixty points in total. An example situation is:

Networking – You are at a conference and your boss has told you that you need to meet people. A woman is standing by the wall by herself. What do you say?

The students were instructed to read the situations and then write down what they think they would say in each situation. The pre- and post- tests were assessed by another teacher at the same university (someone other than one of the teachers of the classes) and the following rubric was used:

Table 1. Pre- and post-test rubric

Nothing 0	One sentence 1	Two sentences 2	Three sentences 3
Many grammatical mistakes 0	Some grammatical mistakes 1	A few grammatical mistakes 2	No grammatical mistakes 3
Pragmatically inappropriate 0	Somewhat pragmatically inappropriate 1	Almost completely pragmatically appropriate 2	Pragmatically appropriate 3
Score (+1 if response is considered to be an appropriate response overall):			/10

Below are listed the pre- and post-test average gains of both the control and experimental groups. As can be seen, the average class gain of the experimental group was almost twice that of the control group. In other words, the experimental group showed twice the progress in comparison with the control group as far as understanding what was to be learned.

Table 2. Pre- and post-test average gains for control and experimental groups

	Pre-test Average (%)	Post-test Average (%)	Average Class Gain (%)
Control group	47	58	11
Experimental group	36	55	19

End of class assignments

The final data collected was called End of class assignments. Students were told that completing the following end of class assignment was compulsory in each class:

1. I think the activity/activities in class today was/were: _____.
2. After doing the activity I feel: _____.
3. I think that my English is: _____.

The purpose in collecting this data was to do an i-statement analysis. An i-statement analysis has been shown to be an effective way to collect data on the motivation and autonomy of learners (Ushioda, 2008, 2010). For current research purposes, it was decided to provide the above incomplete statements which the students were told to complete. No examples were given to the students in order not to affect the results. The following is an analysis of approximately two hundred responses given by students in the experimental group after doing the noticing activity after each test (all examples given of responses are the original responses of students and therefore may at times be ungrammatical). It is worth pointing out that these responses were also compared to their other responses made throughout the semester and it was found that these particular statements were limited to being made almost solely after the noticing activities. This adds validity to these responses in relation to the noticing activity. When asked to complete the following statement: I think the activity/activities in class today was/were..., 68% of the responses were positive and were reports of personal gain. Examples of positive responses are: 1) good, 2) very fun and 3) very useful.

Examples of reports of personal gains are: 1) a good opportunity I notice mistakes I made, 2) able to get a correct understanding and 3) It was a good chance to know how much I can communicate in English. When asked to complete the following statement: After doing the activity I feel..., 78% of the responses were positive, reports of personal gain and reports on ability to self-assess. Examples of positive responses are: 1) good, 2) my interest rising and 3) I felt relieved. Examples of reports of personal gains are: 1) I noticed my mistakes, 2) I could find my faults by myself and 3) I could understand what I should say when I want to invite friends so I felt I don't want to make same mistakes again. Examples of reports on ability to self-assess are: 1) I couldn't talk with my friends well, 2) I have to learn more vocabulary and 3) that to tell my opinion is not easy. When asked to complete the following statement: I think that my English is..., 60% of the responses were in relation to claiming improvement and were reports on ability to self-assess. Examples of students claiming improvement were: 1) made progress, 2) I think that my English is better than last Tuesday, 3) My English is getting better for sure. Examples of reports on ability to self-assess are: 1) not good about ending conversations, 2) My English need more vocabulary and many paterns and 3) too small voice! and not fluent.

Discussion

Below the hypotheses will be stated again and discussed in relation to the data collected and analyzed.

Encouraging noticing leads to better performance on tests

The first hypothesis stipulated was that the learners who were encouraged to notice their errors would perform better on tests. As can be seen by the mid-term and final test scores, the experimental group on average scored 1~3 more points than the control group. Although this may not be considered to be a significant difference, if it is kept in mind, for example, that a part of the experimental group was made up of students from the lowest level and a part of the control group was made up of students from the highest level, and that the same materials were used in all classes, it is quite surprising that the experimental group did do better at all. What is most important to point out is that these higher scores can be directly related to being given opportunities to notice because if they were not given an opportunity to notice their scores would not have increased. Another finding which provides further support for this hypothesis is that before receiving the noticing points, the experimental group received lower scores on the test. If it were not for giving the learners the

opportunities to notice their errors, not only would they have not received more points on the test but they would have received less points than the control group.

Encouraging noticing leads to a better understanding of what is to be learned

The second hypothesis was that learners would have a better understanding of what was to be learned. In other words, it is believed that the learners who are encouraged to notice their errors will be more aware of what is going on in class and as can be seen by the pre- and post- test results, the average class gain of the experimental group was almost twice as much as that of the control group (average was 19% and 11% respectively). Although these results cannot be directly linked to being encouraged to notice, it could be considered to be a major factor since the materials used in the classes were the same, including the tests, and the methods of evaluation were the same as well. If other possible major factors are limited, e.g. differences in teaching methods, then this would provide further support to the above claim and this can be done because the same teacher taught both a part of the control group, the highest level, and a part of the experimental group, the lowest level. Therefore, the difference in teaching methods would not seem to be a major factor in determining differences of any kind.

Encouraging noticing leads to a better understanding of an interlanguage

The third hypothesis is that learners who are encouraged to notice their errors will have a better understanding of their own interlanguage. It has been postulated that the level at which a learner is ready to learn a language is one level above their current level (Krashen, 1985). However, the problems that arise are that it is difficult for teachers to ascertain at which level each student is at and to, at the same time, teach at all the different levels. One way to solve this problem would be to give this power to the students. If the students are encouraged to become aware of the errors that they make and to correct them if possible, then they will begin to first of all, become more aware of the errors that they make and second of all, begin to think of ways of correcting those errors. It can be seen from the current research data that the experimental group received an average of 4 noticing points on the written mid-term test and an average of 3 noticing points on the speaking final test. This means that the students not only did that much better on the test, but that they are now aware of what they are doing incorrectly and how they should correct themselves. Therefore, the students are equipping themselves to advance on their own which will be discussed in more detail in relation to the last hypothesis below. One final finding worth mentioning is that one student received 9 noticing points on one of the tests. Although this is exceptional, it is worth noting that this student, and others as

well, would not have performed better on the tests nor become more aware of an interlanguage if they had not been given the opportunity to notice their errors. In other words, by just giving the students a second chance to look at their tests, they were able to perform better on the tests and to become more aware of the errors they were making.

Encouraging noticing leads to being more motivated and autonomous

The last hypothesis is that learners who are encouraged to notice their errors will become more motivated and autonomous. It was believed that by giving opportunities to the students to correct their errors and to gain more points due to making these corrections that they would feel a sense of achievement which would compel them to take on further responsibility for their own language learning development. As can be seen by the i-statement analysis, approximately 60%~78% of the responses after the noticing activity either were positive, were reports on personal gains, claiming improvement or reports on an ability to self-assess. By giving these opportunities to the students to improve themselves on their own, they were able to realize that this was a positive and beneficial experience for them.

Conclusion

In conclusion the limitations of the research presented in this paper and recommendations for further research will be given. The first limitation of this research was that inter-rater reliability was not achieved because there was only one rater for each of the data. That is, one of the researchers focused on the quantitative data and the other on the qualitative data. In the future, for the pre- and post-tests inter-rater reliability will be sought out. Another possible limitation is that there were few participants in this research, however, if it is kept in mind that both quantitative and qualitative data were collected then this may be acceptable. A final limitation is that the learners were given few opportunities to notice their errors. It would seem that by giving learners more opportunities to notice their errors, they would benefit more. Further research on this is currently being undertaken.

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The logo for the International Association for Foreign Language Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is overlaid on a large, faint, circular graphic composed of two overlapping arcs: a light blue arc on the left and a light red arc on the right, which together form a partial circle around the text.

Swot Analysis and Setting Up a Virtual Professional Environment in ESP Teaching

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Abstract

This research is devoted to incorporating the Internet into pre-career ESP learning environment. Unlike GE, career-oriented ESP learning is not a mere goal of language study, but a tool of learning profession. This spells instructional consequences, the teacher needs content-focused competent resources, the student requires a well structured career-related guidance.

The main obstacle in pre-career ESP training is learners' completely inexperienced background, lack of knowledge of their future professional sphere, responsibilities and skills needed, and, as a result, lack of motivation.

One of the ways out may be early immersion in virtual professional environment. There can be no better tool for this than the Internet.

The Internet has been much featured lately as a teaching instrument, starting from designing e-textbooks and ending with social networking for EFLT .

Here is suggested another approach of setting up Internet-based "proto-professional" environment for the ESP course. As it was proved by L. Vygotski and other psychologists, personal cognitive capacity is best developed by interactive activities, thus the objectives of the research became

- working out a typology of e-resources, based on their ESP communicative value and interaction potential;
- designing an Internet links map for students of tourism and hospitality business of resources that develop interactive and productive work-related skills.

Presented are the results of the research, developed materials and recommendations for ESP teachers.

Key words: ESP teaching, e-learning environment, interactive approach, professional environment.

Introduction.

Teaching ESP to first and second- year students seeking a Bachelor's degree at a specialized university is faced with certain factors that complicate the process and reduce the end results. The main obstacle in pre-career ESP training is lack of students' knowledge of their future professional sphere (tourism and hospitality), their would-be responsibilities and the skills needed, completely inexperienced background and, consequently, lack of motivation they start their ESP studies with. However, the modern professional standard demands are high and students have to be shaped into competitive professionals. Apart from that the duration of the ESP course and the frequency of contact classes are rather limited. These factors lay certain requirements on the ESP course:

- a/ it must be as future career-related as possible,
- b/ it must be intensified,
- c/ it must be attractive and convenient for users.

One of the ways out of the above situation can be shifting the teaching paradigm towards more autonomy of learners: they can be offered an organized off-class set of Internet-based activities on their computers as a means to improve the existing ESP course without costly renovations.

Another way to tackle the above situation is bringing ESP learning closer to the target ESP sphere: if plunged into their would-be professional environment at the early stages of the university course, students could benefit from career-oriented but workable tasks using English at out-of-class time.

There can be no better tool for a comprehensive immersion in ESP than the Internet. Here are some of the reasons making it an essential and indispensable tool for ESP teaching and learning.

- Internet is a comprehensive and multi-modal instrument of reproducing the professional environment.
- Internet is an inexhaustible source of modern topical authentic and diverse ESP materials.
- Internet is indispensable as a tool for communication with native and English-speaking non-native professionals without leaving home. It provides a real audience for communication.
- As a teaching tool the Internet allows to make course-designing a flexible and efficient process. D. Teeler and P.Gray rightly point out that with the growing number of specialized courses in demand, the published course books and textbooks cannot cater for the specific needs of particular groups of students, it is the Net that gives a more cost-effective and efficient means to adapt your materials to fit the students (Teeler, Gray, 2005, p. 81)
- As a learning instrument the Internet can become a productive tool for development of a self-designed course.
- Internet gives a unique chance for learners to interact actively with the professional environment.
- Last, but not least, the Internet is the living environment of 'the generation of digital natives' (Prensky, 2001) and today's tech-savvy students may be better motivated and respond more readily to ESP instruction mediated by the Internet.

The Web resources are boundless and it makes a problem even for an experienced teacher to select appropriate worthy materials and integrate them into the ESP course so that they both meet the course targets and prove to be affordances for students. Therefore the research was to give answers to certain questions.

Objectives of the research.

The main aim of the research was to explore the potential of the Internet as a simulator of ESP professional environment for tourism and hospitality students. This goal entailed setting two main objectives:

- 1/ looking for appropriate criteria and procedures of evaluation of e-resources;
- 2/ developing strategies, techniques and activities for the integration of selected e-resources into the ESP course.

This paper focuses mainly on the first of these tasks. To this effect the following questions attracted the researcher's attention:

1. What kinds of career-related web sites are available in the Net for students of tourism and hospitality?
2. How can Web resources be evaluated? Are there any objective criteria? Can the process be formalized?
3. What should the principles of selection be for Web ESP resources as a means of asynchronous out-of-class independent activities of students?
4. What is the attitude of students and teachers to EL Web-based activities?
5. What should the Web package profile be for setting up a more or less comprehensive environment for would-be professionals?

Literature review.

EFL specificity as a curriculum subject boils down to content-relativity, that is openness to diverse content. That is why the main characteristics of ESP, among other things, are using the activities of the discipline it serves and the language, skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities (Dudley-Evans, John, 1998). This implies a focused selection of skills to be taught and the materials to use. An ESP teacher cannot just 'rely on the language "emerge" from the natural exchanges with students' (Cornwell, 2011).

ESP learning is content-based and thus relies more on language as a vehicle of instruction rather than the object of instruction (Brent, A. et al., 2012)

This necessitates rather early language specialization (Крупченко, 2004) as the content disciplines introducing the categories, concepts, notions and techniques of professional interaction, are started later than the foreign language, not from the first weeks of the first year. Besides, as it has been mentioned, the situation is aggravated by lack of students' knowledge of and experience in the professional field. Students do not understand professional lexis and translation dictionaries are of little help (e.g. *silver service* at restaurants, *European plan*, *junior suite*, *table d'hôte* menu etc. do not ring a bell). Students do not have proper discourse competence and violate the register and social norm or the professional discourse norm when they role-play ESP situations without due knowledge of proper professional communication strategies. The problem of professional knowledge deficit can be solved in an ESP course by means of introducing field-related Internet resources to students and involving them into special activities.

It is no wonder that ESL and ESP teachers today turn to the Web to respond to various pedagogical issues. Many researchers use the Internet as a mediating environment to develop some particular skills of learners, e.g. reading (Damronglaohapan, S. 2012), voice or written chatting, teaching skills (Hauck, Guichon, 2011) or some particular teaching techniques (Shu-Fen Tseng, Chien-Lung Chan, 2012). There are considerably fewer papers offering general holistic approaches to development of teaching materials. One of such valuable works is the monograph by B. Tomlinson highlighting the principles of teaching materials development (Tomlinson, 2010). They are as follows:

- 1 Provide many opportunities for the learners to produce language in order to achieve intended outcomes.
 - 2 Make sure that these output activities are designed so that the learners are using language rather than just practising specified features of it.
 - 3 Design output activities so that they help learners to develop their ability to communicate fluently, accurately, appropriately and effectively.
 - 4 Make sure that the output activities are fully contextualised in that the learners are responding to an authentic stimulus (e.g. a text, a need, a viewpoint, an event), that they have specific addressees and that they have a clear intended outcome in mind.
 - 5 Try to ensure that opportunities for feedback are built into output activities.
- All these principles of B. Tomlinson can be applicable to Internet materials.

There are diverse resources to stimulate both language perception and production in similar or contrastive contexts. It is easier to find communicatively valuable materials in the Internet than elsewhere. The variety of contextualisations found with the help of the Web is boundless, starting from photos of realia and ending with networking in English with e-pals. The most important general principle of B. Tomlinson is that materials need to be made in such a way that they can be used as a resource, but not to be followed as a script. In other words teaching materials must leave room for thought and creation, they must be a springboard, rather than a chute. That leads us to the idea that ESP teaching materials must have not so large constant component, but Internet-based variable components in addition to every module of the ESP syllabus.

The next question was how e-resources should be selected for an ESP course. Of special interest for this ESP research was a set of characteristics, that an effective technology-enriched learning environment need to have. They were proposed by Butler and Wiburg (Butler, Wiburg, 2003). The most important for an ESP Internet-supported vocational course are the following Butler and Wiburg's characteristics that could be regarded as selection principles for Web resources:

- The resource utilizes authentic materials from specific disciplines and occupations.
- The resource supplies authentic audiences including outside experts in specific fields.
- The resource facilitates focused practice in development of reading, writing, listening and speaking skills.
- The resource addresses specific needs of students.
- The resource uses multiple modalities to support different learning styles.
- **The resource provides interaction and communicative activities representative of specific professional environments.**
- **The resource provides comprehensible field-specific input and facilitates students' output.**

The last two characteristics are of top priority for students of tourism and hospitality service because they are trained for people jobs, for servicing, which is interaction with customers and team-work with colleagues on the one hand. On the other hand, as far as students' production is concerned, 'field-specific input' makes no sense without field-specific output, and the more productive and creative student's ESP output is the better. The afore mentioned principles do not exclude the unquestionable principles of professional themes-relation, communicative value and authenticity, but complement them. The short review above leads us to the inference that ESP e-resources cannot be left to students to choose at random. They need to be properly selected and integrated with the classroom syllabus in order to become its efficient out-of-class supplement. This calls for

ability not only to find, but evaluate the teaching potential of the resource, its advantages and disadvantages, its strengths and weaknesses. This led the researcher to the possible utility of the SWOT analysis to be applied for evaluation of e-resources in ESP teaching. This technique was borrowed from management, because it applies to complex processes and objects, like company operation or personal potential. It might serve teachers for evaluation of worthiness of such teaching tools as Web resources.

Methodology.

This research was made at the Moscow State Institute for Tourism Industry named after Yu. Senkevich. There were two focus groups of students, aged 18-20, studying for the Bachelor's degree. One group had first-year students specializing in management and the other group included second-year students majoring in hospitality service. The initial language level of both the groups was lower intermediate.

The choice in favour of the out-of-class format of e-tools was made due to several reasons. First, not all the language classrooms are yet equipped with PC workstations with access to the Internet, which does not allow full-fledged in-class Internet-supported teaching.

Second, the course syllabus is well loaded and one 3-hour contact class per week is far from being enough for acceptable achievement. Third, I suspected that quite a number of ESP teachers are not prepared and even reluctant to conduct Internet-based classes today as they do not have proper techno-pedagogical competences. Fourth, I supposed that our students are advanced enough and willing to use the Internet as a source of materials and a learning tool.

The research was of a qualitative character and applied some of content analysis techniques, interpretative techniques and to some extent quantitative techniques (percentage transformations of the questionnaire data).

Apart from literature review the research called for the following methods and procedures:

- study of tourism and hospitality professional environment, insight into standards and qualifications, job descriptions and job requirements, exploration of typical professional situations (throughout my 30 odd-year teaching career and several years of 'inside' experience as a guide);
- observation of students at work with the Internet during contact classes;
- search for and preliminary survey of potentially relevant ESP e-resources that might benefit students of tourism and hospitality; making a set of bookmarks;
- application of the SWOT-analysis to the resource(s) meant for homework in order to select the most suitable and to pinpoint the necessary pedagogical procedures and adjustments to ensure their successful out-of-classroom usage (recommending particular e-resources, thinking out proper instructions, making special explanations in classroom beforehand or by email message to the group's email box if necessary, giving warnings to exclude frustration while doing the task, working out a task or a set of tasks the resource can be the most optimal for, preparing hand-outs, thinking out the manner of checking the results of this out-of reach activities and the criteria of their evaluation etc.);
- surveying students and teachers and making inferences for the future.

Stages of the research

Reflection on students' failures and slow progress urged looking for alternative ways. One of the solutions would be adding directed out-of-class Web-based activities aimed at creative productive language work done with the help of an interactive e-tool or a set of potentially productive e-Resources. The following stages of research followed.

1. Publications on learning management, ESP and e-learning were studied.

2. The Internet was explored for relevant materials and a list of professionally meaningful e-resources was made. It consisted of bookmarks grouped according to the specializations of the students (“Hospitality service”, “Management”).
3. A SWOT analysis checklist for Web resources was made on the basis of the ESP and CALL literature review, my colleagues’ and my own experience with the Web. SWOT analysis implies pooling and sharing knowledge, that is why additional contributions were required from both the teacher colleagues and the students. They were obtained by means of a questionnaire survey.
4. A questionnaire was compiled for ESP teachers and the focused student groups to clear up their attitudes to the Internet as a teaching tool. The surveys were conducted. One probed into the attitudes of the ESP teachers towards the role of Web materials in their work, the other revealed the students’ opinions of the Internet activities and preferences.
5. The SWOT analysis was applied, which shortlisted the resources for the ESP out-of-class activities. The format chosen was a classical 2 by 2 matrix, but the application procedure was different. Instead of brainstorming and filling in the 4 sectors of the SWOT matrix, the previously elaborated 4-part checklist was superposed onto the resources under study. The list of recommended ESP resources was finalized in the form of an electronic catalogue for tourism and hospitality student out-of-class activities.
6. Monitoring and scaffolding techniques and strategies were developed for activities with the types of resources mostly suitable for starters in pre-career ESP learning.

Findings and data analysis.

For lack of space only the main findings of the questionnaire survey (see the questionnaire sample in the Appendix) are mentioned in this paper.

The total number of respondents was 68, 49 first and second-year students and 19 EL teachers. The same questionnaire was offered to teachers and students.

The purpose of the survey was to find out about

- the reasons to use the Internet
- the preferred types of activities done on the Net
- the readiness of respondents to deal with virtual professional environment
- probable barriers and threats of using professional Internet sites.

53% of the student respondents claim to use the Net to learn English, while only 36% of the teachers use it to teach English.

77.5% of the students use the Internet to get entertained, but only 26% of the teachers.

The data gathered show that the students spend a lot of time on communicating and entertaining in the Net and could probably benefit from turning their effort into professional directions.

The types of preferred Net activities more or less coincided with a few exceptions.

26% of the teachers set grammar or lexical tasks on the Internet, but only 14% of the students do I-based tasks.

47% of the teachers ask the students to watch or listen to Internet materials, but only about 31% of the students prove to be engaged in these activities. A two-fold explanation can be offered: either the teachers were exaggerating or the students did not always do the tasks given to them. Anyway the fact that not more than one third of the students do Internet-based home tasks proves there is a lot of room for improvement in this respect.

32% of the teaching staff use the Net for communication with students, but only 16% of the students confirm communicating with teachers via the Internet. Students use the Net more actively for oral communication (26.5%) than teachers (16%).

It was especially interesting to reveal the role of career-related web sites in students' and teachers' life. The most eye-opening discoveries were the following.

a/ Every third EL teacher never used tourism and hospitality periodical sites in English (32%) and never used Internet videos in English (32%).

b/ Quizzes in profession-related subjects are more interesting for students than teachers. 18% of students do them regularly and 61% sometimes, whereas no teachers do quizzes regularly and 42% never do them at all.

Lack of the teachers' interest in tourism and hospitality sites is a worrying sign, because it may spell their inadequate special subject competence which is part and parcel of efficient ESP teaching.

Analysis of potential threats underlying work on the Internet shows that the language of a web site can be a barrier for students (59% indicated this), but not so much for the teachers (22%). The top barriers that may threaten virtual interaction and cause rejection of a site were improper language, operational difficulties (user-unfriendly interface) and excessive advertising on the site. It can be concluded that web sites for a virtual professional environment have to be sieved thoroughly considering the above observations and need certain selection procedures.

This is how the SWOT checklist suggested looks like.

SWOT Analysis Checklist for Web Resources Evaluation

Strengths	Weaknesses
Authentic materials	Too narrow content specificity, for specialists only
Evident advantages of using the Internet tool as an alternative to a traditional tool of similar modality	Contracted forms, net jargon
Professional relevance (theme, key concepts, terms) represents a resource desirable for a tourism and hospitality specialist	Profuse terminology, difficult language
Specific discipline relevance, providing opportunity to use similar strategies, tasks and activities in ESP teaching	Too many skills required from user (difficult in operation)
Multimodality, multidimensional representation, variety of ESP genres representation	Too commercialized (many obtrusive adverts)
Interaction with user (feedback)	Poor potential for creative work
Offering users productive activity (built-in or potential creative activities possible)	
Communicative value (the materials of the resource can be used in professional communication)	
Suitability for developing several kinds of skills (reading+speaking, reading+writing, listening+speaking, listening+writing or other combinations)	
Correlation with the communication competence level of learners	

Foreign culture-loaded materials	
Demonstrative / illustrative power (both positive and negative)	English language mistakes
Benchmarking function (ability to serve as an ideal example to model on)	
Reliability of the site (long history, competent authors and contributors, frequency of visiting etc.)	
Regular updating (live, not dead)	Regular updating (live, not dead)
User-friendly lay-out, well-formatted text	Poor lay-out
Simple and clear resource instructions	
Speedy faultless service	

Opportunities	Threats
Updating language skills with the help of the Internet resource, practising	Communication barriers, complicating interaction with this resource (conceptual, perceptual, anticipatory etc.)
Discourse and other communication competence development	Technical barriers impairing interaction with the resource (advanced user e-literacy needed, payment needed, complicated registration, low-quality slow traffic etc.)
Pragmatic competence development	Misunderstanding of the pedagogical potential of the resource and its misuse (attractive interactive sites which do not develop ESP communication skills)
Cross-cultural competence development	Difficulty in arranging control over out-of-class resource use and evaluation of the results
Searching skills development	Home culture constraints for the user of the Internet resource
Video and audio materials can be worked with at a student's pace	Misunderstanding of the realia, abbreviations, acronyms and special idioms
Online feedback can be obtained from the resource	Unreliable information, inappropriate for ESP learners (biased, distorted by commercial interests, deliberately faked etc.)
Creating a virtual communicatively meaningful product of one's own	
Modelling on a sample and imitating	
Adapting or transforming texts for personal use	

Compiling special word lists and ESP vocabularies of one's own	
Improving non-authentic materials, editing skills development	

Three major factors influenced the application of the SWOT grid, they were
 a/ justified preference of an e-resource to its traditional substitute of the same modality, e. g. a more compact but more informative hypertext than an ordinary career-related text; more updated, more diverse in accents and genres audio resources with built-in feedback instead of limited in variety and non-interactive audio recordings etc.

b/ the fact that the resources were set for out-of-class use and were to be used by students independently, that is why they were not to be too difficult for students (correspond to their communication competence level), but had to be appealing enough to motivate them without a teacher looming over them;

c/ the fact that learners do not know much of the profession and could not be left totally to themselves in choosing supporting e-resources.

An e-resource was measured with the 4-part matrix in the following way.

The weaknesses were used to exclude unwanted resources, that is if the resource met at least one of the weaknesses it was rejected as improper for the ESP course.

The strengths, available in a particular resource, positively marked it as suitable and indicated the direction of its "exploitation". For instance, the resource loaded with foreign culture was used mostly for developing cross-cultural competence, though it could additionally serve for learning spelling or developing reading skills.

The multimodality value of the site means that a site with on-line texts, audio recording or video is much more valuable than just a textual or only a video resource, because the former appeals to more students (eye-learners and ear-learners) and offers more space for various skills development.

The benchmarking function of a resource is especially important in pre-career ESP course, as it allows to demonstrate the desirable communicative behaviour in professional settings. Interaction requirement tells resources that react to the user from those that do not, for example, air companies and hotel booking sites let a student simulate professional activities of browsing over, comparing, making a choice, booking the dates, the types of tickets or hotels, filling in forms (without payment), reading and aggregating client-oriented data base, etc. Another interaction-potential tool is a so-called MOO (a multi-user object-oriented dimension), which is some permanent space on the Internet, providing real-time meeting for several visitors for virtual interaction with some objects (making a design of one's business card, for example, with a range of instruments offered by the tool and sharing it with other students).

The most valuable criterion for an ESP resource is its productive potential, that is a number of creative career-related activities it can be used in, both built-in and teacher or student-designed.

Opportunities characteristics do not depict the properties of a resource, but suggest possible directions of practices and activities with the resource. Thus pragmatic competence development, for example, can be ensured only by e-resources with a strong appeal to the consumer and a clear target in view, but the implementation of pragmatic opportunities is not guaranteed, it needs an elaborated set of pedagogical adjustments.

E-resources that can provide not only opportunities but also ways and techniques for their implementation are Web 2.0 tools which allow users to produce content of their own and share it with others. This role is perfectly performed by travel 2.0 tool, which provides

travel content generated by users (Chabot, A., 2007) and is indispensable for the ESP course in tourism and hospitality.

The threats of using a resource may be evident (technical barriers) or hidden (home culture intrinsic perceptual constraints of using a resource). In the latter case the threat may be predicted intuitively but additional investigations are needed to account for such threats and minimize them or turn them into the opportunities of the e-resource with special tasks and activities.

The SWOT analysis of ESP e-resources for tourism and hospitality revealed a set of e-resource types that can and should be selected and put together as a resource minimum. They are

- Wikipedia.
- Specialized dictionaries with a pronunciation option, including translation dictionaries.
- Efficient research engines: Hotbot and other resources for developing ESP discourse competence, Dogpile for quick and efficient search of various illustrative images etc.
- Professional sites like www.kayak.com, www.anywayanyday.com, [Tripadvisor](http://Tripadvisor.com), www.wikitravel.org/, [Amtrak](http://Amtrak.com), www.oag.com, www.eHow.com for learning to process and analyze information, getting operational skills, for benchmarking etc.
- The sites of tourism and hospitality periodicals to keep abreast of the industry news and pick up authentic up-to-date lexis and idioms (<http://www.ttgdigital.com/>, <http://www.conciergequestionnaire.com/>, etc.)
- Professional associations and organizations sites like www.abta.com, www.unwto.org, <http://agipe.ru/> (Association of Guides and Tour Managers of Russia) and others.
- Interactive travel 2.0 tools like www.ohio.edu/esl for creating a web quest of one's own simulating some elements of designing a tour; <http://evernote.com> for taking photos, supplying captions and pasting them into a proper context; www.travelpod.com for designing a tour, Tripbuilder or Tripwiser for creating some travel content of one's own and sharing it with others and suchlike.

The last type of resources is of particular importance for ESP students as it lets weld together various communicative competences and fertilize them with special vocational skills.

The selection of the above resources was done in tune with the valuable observation of Brown and Yule (Brown, Yule, 1983) about teaching materials saying that they should be chosen not so much on the basis of their own interest, but for what they can be used to do.

Unfortunately the analysis of the questionnaires showed discrepancies in attitudes toward e-resources of teachers and students. The former demonstrated less enthusiasm and activity in applying e-tools.

Conclusions

1. The Web can provide a wide range of career-related materials, but their volume is overwhelming and the quality varies. Besides ESP students are not competent to decide on the resource types to choose from and must be taught and helped to do so.
2. There is a need for a more or less objective and relevant tool for selection of ESP resources. The SWOT technique may serve as guidelines for ESP

instructors to evaluate the potential of e-resources with comprehensible criteria. This evaluative tool calls for reliable interpretative techniques.

3. The attitudes of teachers and students toward e-based supplements to an ESP course must be brought to some common denomination to produce the expected efficacy.
4. Well arranged e-based ESP supplements for out-of-class study motivate students to design an individual ESP course for themselves, which improves their learning techniques, enhances their interactive competence and develops career management skills.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire Sample

Please respond to these questions honestly marking the proper boxes.

1. Are you a confident Internet user? Yes No

2. Which do you do more often, react to contacts or initiate contacts via the Internet?

React Initiate _____

3. What purposes do you mainly use the Internet for?

- to get the latest news
- to communicate
- to search for the wanted information (content)
- to learn / teach English
- to arrange travel
- to get entertainment (games, music, films etc)

4. If you use the Internet regularly for your English do you

- look up words in electronic dictionaries?
- use Wikipedia or other encyclopedias?
- do / ask students to do grammar or lexical tests or tasks in the Net?
- watch or listen / ask students to watch or listen to English materials in the Net at home?
- speak English via the Internet (orally)?
- regularly exchange messages in English with e-pals?
- use the Net for teacher - students communication?
- look for textual materials in English using Google, Yandex etc.?
- use photos, pictures and other images in studying English?

5. Which of these resources in English do you use **regularly, sometimes or never**?

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| • Audio recordings on tourism and hospitality topics | R | S | N |
| • Videos | R | S | N |
| • Sites of professional tourist and hospitality periodicals | R | S | N |
| • Self-testing in English via the Net | R | S | N |
| • Sites of hotels and air companies | R | S | N |
| • Sites of museums, travel exhibitions etc | R | S | N |
| • Quizzes in country-study, geography etc | R | S | N |

6. What makes you reject an Internet site in English?

- its language (too difficult, too easy, too slangy)?
- its content unrelated to your study / work?
- its too specific content (for specialists)
- no pictures
- no video
- poor layout from your viewpoint
- no interactive options
- too commercialized (many adverts imposed on the user)
- not simple in operation
- for Teachers' replies only: hard to check and evaluate the results of students' work with the site

Interactive English Teaching: Effects on Students' Performance

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Abstract

The problem of this study is: How does interactive English teaching affect students' communication skills? This study described the profile of the students in terms of gender, Intelligent Quotient level and achievement in previous English course these variables were made as the basis for grouping of the students into two-the Interactive Group and the Traditional Group. Their level of performance was assessed before and after their respective treatments as reflected in their pretest and posttest mean scores. Finally, the two groups were compared as to their performance as a result of the different treatments made. The main respondents of this study were thirty (30) freshmen students of Tomas del Rosario College (TRC) taking up Bachelor of Science in Hotel and Restaurant Management (BSHRM), Bachelor of Science in Nursing (BSN) and Bachelor in Elementary Education (BEED) this Academic Year 2009-2010. They were selected according to gender, Intelligent Quotient level and achievement in previous English course. Statistical treatment used for the analysis and interpretations of data were: frequency counts, mean and percentage distribution were employed to get the profile of the respondents, t-test was used for testing the significance difference of means.

One of the findings disclosed that traditional method seemed effective; it is highly recommended that this strategy could still be made a part of the instructional techniques of the college. However, teachers should use varied traditional methods so that boredom will be eliminated and students will be more motivated, to work and learn.

INTRODUCTION

As time goes by from centuries to centuries different attempts by language experts were done to ameliorate language teaching. Different experiments, tests and procedures were done to find out if mastery of a second language can best applied to students. There are those who would immerse the student to the target language for the student to grasp the language. Some used the "parrot-like method" where it's a repeat after the teacher style. While some made use of equipment such as electronic gadgets to amplify learning. There are many other ways experts used to make learning more easily but up to today researches, studies and experiments are still being made to make language learning easier.

The academe plays a vital role in guiding, directing leading and teaching English language to students to continuously enhance their communication skills as early as childhood. The learners, who are the target recipient of the second language learning, are so much influenced by music and film. They relate music and film as part of their system as an individual.

Skinner's Behaviorist Theory is one of the theories which is found relevant, a theoretical approach most frequently followed in schools today and which views language acquisition simply as a result of a set of habits. Skinner developed in 1957 the operant conditions - a method of training organisms - a technique which is by far effective in the classroom. It is believed that animals emit responses freely and the environment rewards some of these responses but ignores or punishes others. Accordingly, reinforcement tends to increase the probability that an organism emit the same response the next time it is free to do so. Following this technique, the assumption is that a learner gradually develop patterns of responses to specific stimulus when such responses are followed by particular reinforcements.

The teaching-learning process is a two-way process in which teaching is the stimulus and learning is the response. Learning will occur only when learners react favorably to the environment stimuli. What the student learns depends on what the teacher does. The teacher is the facilitator of learning who provides the conditions for effective learning and who seeks to meet the needs and interests of the learners. This can be done through the use of various approaches in teaching-learning like the traditional method and activity oriented lessons.

In this study, there are two types of stimulus: the Interactive method and the Traditional Method of teaching similar to the theory of Skinner were used stimulus to gain learning. The organisms are the students and the response can be translated to achievement towards English. The variety of stimulation, which is the internal, cognitive and affective entries of the individual, affects the achievement of the students towards learning the subject. The external stimulation is translated as the incentives, that is, the acquisition of knowledge and the eventual grade that the student will receive at the end of the semester. The inhibitors are simplified in the aspect of self-image of the student in general and his/her self-image in terms of competence in English. The learner's habit is confined primarily to the prior training in English. The teacher and the interactive methodology are the two forms of reinforcement for the students.

Jean Lave (1977) in Situated Learning Theory argues that learning as it normally occurs is a function of the activity, context and culture in which it occurs. This contrast with most classroom learning activities which involve knowledge which is abstract and out of context. Social interaction is a critical component of situated learning learners become involved in a “community of practice” which embodies certain beliefs and behaviors to be acquired. As the beginner or newcomer moves from the periphery of this community to its center, they become more active and engaged within the culture and hence assume the role of expert or old-timer. Furthermore, situated learning is usually unintentional rather than deliberate. Situated learning is a general theory of knowledge acquisition. It has been applied in the context of technology-based learning activities for schools that focus on problem solving skills. It is further accorded that learning requires social interaction and collaboration. This theory was utilized in explaining the use of interaction among or between students in order to learn specific tasks.

This theory is related to the present study considering that when a person watches a movie or listens to a particular music, the individual is “transported” from his present reality setting to the situation of the film or ambiance of the music. A new situation is created hence similar to the study of J.Lave in the discussed theory.

These theories have relevance to the present study since they both highlighted the importance of knowing the different theories and the teaching methods that stem from them to enable the teacher to understand what to use, thus be able to choose the right combination of methods to apply in the classroom. This way, students may have a better chance of learning the language and using it effectively. There are two ways how language teaching is done which this study would like to focus, one is the traditional and the interactive method of teaching.

Traditional Teaching Method always implies as lecture type method, wherein teachers exert much effort imparting knowledge by merely talking and discussing the rest of the period. Sullivan (1996) disclosed that the lecture in its many forms is the most commonly used method for transferring information in medical education. There are, however, serious questions regarding the effectiveness of the traditional lecture approach. Arredondo et al. (1994) pointed out that, although the lecture method is used extensively in medical education, academic physicians often are not trained in giving effective lectures. There are presently many calls to move away from the traditional lecture to interactive computer learning systems that allow students access to information lecture when and where they need it. While this shift to “just in time” information provided by computer is occurring, there is and will continue to be, a need for educators who are prepared to deliver lectures.

According to Swanson et al. (1995) the lecture was established formally centuries also as a teaching process that began with a literal reading of important passages from the text by the master, followed by the master’s interpretation of the text. Students were expected to sit, listen and take notes. Similarly, in support of the lecture method in medical education, Vella (1992) recommended the use of active learning activities including analysis of case reports, problem-solving exercises, student presentations and students working cooperatively in groups.

Interactive studies using music and film however in Sullivan and Wircenski (1996) study made evaluation questions easy to ask and often difficult to answer. The educator would like to know if the lecture made a difference, the effectiveness of lecture in transferring knowledge to the students, impact of the information, and the enjoyment of students in the lecture.

There are many ways an interactive teaching can be done inside the classroom one is the teacher may play music while reading the definitions, leaving time for listeners to draw images of the words. The teacher may use guided meditation to build a relaxed state containing memories of success before the listeners hear the definitions again. And the learners may even act out the words' meanings or construct stories of their own.

Language teachers are now infusing activity oriented instructional strategies into their teaching. Brain-based and second language acquisition research has shown that the old school method—assign a chapter, take a test, and discuss the test—will not result in quality and depth of thought. Language teachers who want to update, refresh, and rejuvenate their teaching should apply mind/brain learning principles, as described by Caine and Caine (1994). These principles can become the basis of second language teaching and learning at the highest quality levels. Activity shifting and teaching around the wheel of learning styles stimulate thought and action in second language learner classrooms.

A teacher may use some examples of music and film lessons like peer teaching and group projects particularly those that promote group construction of knowledge, allow a student to observe other students' models of successful learning, and encourage him or her to emulate them social constructivism, self-efficacy, learning styles; varying instructional models that deviate from the lecture format, such as visual presentations, site visits, and use of the Internet, multiple intelligences, learning styles, self-efficacy; varying expectations for students' performance, from individual written formats to group work that includes writing and presentation, interpretation of theatrical, dance, musical, or artistic work, and performance of actual tasks at a work site attribution theory, conscientization, multiple intelligences, learning styles; choices that allow students to capitalize on personal strengths and interests self-efficacy, multiple intelligences, learning styles; overt use of socio-cultural situations and methods that provide authentic contexts and enculturation into an academic disciplinary community social constructivism, conscientization; course material that demonstrates valuing of diverse cultures, ethnic groups, classes, and genders conscientization, learning styles.

The general problem of this study is “How does Interactive English Teaching affect students' communication skills at Tomas del Rosario College, City of Balanga, Bataan during the Academic Year 2009-2010?” Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions: 1) What is the profile of the students in terms of: 1.1 gender; 1.2 Intelligent Quotient level and 1.3 achievement in previous English course? 2) What is the level of performance of the students in the interactive group before and after instructions in selected topics in English? 3) What is the level of performance of the students in the traditional group before and after instructions in selected topics in English? 4) How does the interactive group compare with the traditional group in terms of their performance in selected topics in English? 5) What are the implications of the study to language education and practice?

METHODOLOGY

In this study, the experimenter may come as close to actual setting similar to the experimental design by controlling as much as possible factors such as the profile of students (IQ, gender, and achievement in English), pretest/posttest, interactive and the traditional method and some settings such as the place time of instruction and the instructor. Other factors like uncontrollable variable.

The measure of the pretest/posttest allowed the comparison of the interactive and traditional method. The experimenter will use the mean and standard deviation in means will be applied to measure the differences in means at 0.05 level of significance.

The subject of the study are the 19 BSN, 9 BSHRM and 20 BEED freshmen college students of Tomas del Rosario College (TRC) this school-year 2009-2010.

Table 1
Population and Sample of the Study

Program	Population	Sample	Percentage
BSHRM	9	8	16.7
BSN	19	10	20.8
BEED	20	12	25
Total	48	30	62.5

These respondents are currently enrolled in English 2 subject at TRC. Randomization in sampling is not feasible so sets or pairs of students who are the same gender and nearly the same in that each respondent in the school group matched the characteristics of a respondent in the experimental group. The entire population of 9 BSHRM, 19 BSN and 20 BEED freshmen students were subjected to an IQ test and results of the said test is to group them as to high average, average, low average and below average. From these groupings based on IQ, the respondents were then matched as to gender and achievement in English. The researcher analyzed their gender as to male and female from the 7 male only 6 were selected and from the 41 females only 24 were selected. The selected respondents were then classified with regards to their IQ level and grades in English 1, if they do not have an equal pair to match them with another respondent in the group, they are rejected from the group hence the researcher selects another to match a respondent. In doing this procedure, there was initially 30 pairs with the same characteristics as to IQ, gender and achievement in English that was formed; and from these 30 pairs of students, only 15 pairs of respondents for the study was picked at random. Both groups consisted of 15 respondents each.

The profile of the respondents was analyzed before the experimentation begins. After the administration of the IQ test to the students, the results were used as baseline for which together with the classification in gender and achievement in English. Students were facilitated to pairs for the interactive and traditional groups. The profile of students was presented in textual form.

After the control and the experimental groups were formed, the pretest was administered to them before instructions began. The pretest was checked by the researcher together with the English teachers. Then, the researcher acted as the instructor in both groups. The interactive group employed the interactive method and the traditional respondents were subjected to the traditional method of instruction. Both groups have completed instructions in 2 weeks.

The posttest was given to the students after instructions were completed and results were gathered for analysis and interpretation. The Profile of the respondents based on IQ, gender and achievement in English were obtained after applying the formulas on percentage, interval and average. Interval of IQ scores were already set by authorities who made the standardized test. The gender of respondents were classified as either male or female. With regards to their achievement in English 1, the researcher requested for a copy of grades of the course from the office of the registrar. The grades in numerical format were translated using the College's handbook for grade equivalent into descriptive which is as follows 1.00-1.25 Excellent, 1.50-1.75 Very Good, 2.00-2.25 Good, 2.50-2.75 Satisfactory, 3.00 Passing, 5.00 Failure and No Grade or No Credit.

For the performance of the students in the interactive group, a pretest was given and the mean score was computed the same was done for the students in the traditional group. After the study a posttest was administered the mean score was again computed for both groups. To determine if there was any significant difference between the pretest and posttest of the interactive group the mean gain score was computed. The same was done to the traditional group to determine also if there was any significant difference.

In order to compare the performance of the two groups, a t-test for two independent means was employed. The results of the posttests of both groups were subjected to the t-test and the computed value was compared to the critical value at 0.05 level of significance.

RESULTS

Table 2 presents the distribution of the students as to gender. The table revealed in practice, teachers believe that females are more responsible than males as far as bringing of needed materials is concerned. To settle this issue, male respondents were matched, so number of males and females for both groups were the same. There were 3 or 10% male students and 12 or 24% female respondents in each group. Both groups were comparable since there was equal number of female and male in each group.

Table 2
Distribution of Interactive and Traditional Groups
in Terms of Gender

Gender	Interactive Group		Traditional Group		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Female	12	40	12	40	24	80
Male	3	10	3	10	6	20
Total	15	50	15	50	30	100

In contrast to the study of Mendoza (2008), gender was not considered in her study unlike in the present study, gender was used as a basis of matching the respondents of both groups. Mendoza did not consider the gender factor due to the fact that his study was 73 conducted in a Maritime Academy (Alas-asin) wherein most of the enrollees were male; therefore, there was no way to use gender as a basis of comparison.

The students were again classified so as to form groupings for the interactive and traditional group. As a result there were 2 students or 6.7% who obtained a high average score both in the interactive and traditional group. There were 10 or 33.3% who had an average score for both groups. There were only 2 or 6.7% who got a low average score and only 1 or 3.3% got the below average score for both groups. Table 4 shows that in terms of IQ level both the interactive and traditional group are equal and have the number of students.

Table 3
Distribution of Interactive and Traditional Groups
in Terms of IQ Level

Intelligent Quotient	Interactive Group		Traditional Group		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
High Average	2	6.7	2	6.7	4	13.3
Average	10	33.3	10	33.3	20	66.7
Low Average	2	6.7	2	6.7	4	13.3
Below Average	1	3.3	1	3.3	2	6.7
Total	15	50	15	50	30	100

In general, the profile of the respondents in terms of IQ level for both the interactive and traditional group have the following data: 4 or 13.3% obtained a high average score, 20 or 66.7% got an average score, 4 or 13.3% had a low average score and 2 or 6.7% of the total number of students combining both groups got below average score. This shows that majority of the students are average learners which marked 66.7% and the other 33.3% belongs to high, low and below average combined. This is maybe because the students are already in the college level that is why majority of the students' IQ is already developed.

Parallel with the study of Roque (2005) on the effects of CAI on the performance of students on the selected topics in Geometry, this research also used the profile of the students in terms of gender, Intelligence Quotient (IQ) level and achievement of students in matching the respondents of the Control and Experimental Group. Both studies also used Quasi-experiment method using pretest and posttest means to compare the performance of the Control and Experimental Group.

Table 4 shows the distribution of the respondents according to their achievement in previous English course. It is revealed that the Interactive and Traditional Group have 3 or 10% of the students having very good and satisfactorily performance, 5 or 16.7% with good performance and 4 or 13.3% of the students-respondents are with passing performance in terms of their previous English course. This only shows that the matching strategy used for both groups in terms of achievement was successful. The researcher used the descriptive equivalent to match the grades of both groups of students.

Table 4
Distribution of Interactive and Traditional Groups
in Terms of Grades in English 1

Grade	Interactive Group		Traditional Group		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Very Good	3	10	3	10	6	20
Satisfactorily	3	10	3	10	6	20
Good	5	16.7	5	16.7	10	33.3
Passing	4	13.3	4	13.3	8	26.7
Total	15	50	15	50	30	100

In general, the profile of the respondents in terms of their performance in their previous English subject for both the interactive and traditional group have the following data: 6 or 20% had a very good and satisfactorily score, 10 or 33.3% got a good score and 8 or 26.7% had a passing score forming the total number of students combining both groups. This shows that majority of the students had a good grade from their previous English subject (English 1), which marked 33.3%. Students with passing score numbered 26.7% of the total numbered of respondents. The students may have had difficulty in their previous English subject since English is one of the subjects students find difficulty to catch up. The problem maybe because of the students foundation in English in their elementary and high school days. Another factor is that English is being taught in its native English. Teachers teach the subject as a foreign language that at times students cannot comprehend because of language barrier. As a result poor performance for the course.

Likewise, Sotero (2003) compared the academic achievement of first year students using Computer Aided Instructions and Traditional Approach in Science and Technology I. Sotero used the previous grades of students in the first and second grading as a variable in her study similar to the present study

Table 5 shows the comparison of data on the pretest and posttest mean of the traditional group. In a 50-item test, the traditional group got a pretest mean score of 20.13. The result revealed that students in the traditional group performed very poor. This was because respondents were not instructed yet on the topics covered under experimentation. After administering the posttest examination, the group increased their mean score to 31.67. This indicates that a mean difference of 11.54. Produced a t-value of 12.54 at 0.05 significant level which resulted to the significant difference between the pre and posttest scores. This result suggests that students, after undertaking the traditional teaching method improved their performance. Thus, the null hypothesis that was formulated was again rejected implying that the pretest mean score showed significant difference from the posttest mean scores.

Table 5
Pretest and Posttest Mean Scores and t-value
of the Controlled Group

Test	Mean	Mean Difference	t - value	Sig.	Remarks
Pretest	20.13	11.54	12.54	0.05	Significant
Posttest	31.67				

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Parallel to the study Casupanan, Jr. (2005) which investigated the effectiveness of Electronic Learning Approach in teaching selected topics in Physics, the control group also revealed a significant result in the pretest and posttest

Both groups displayed significant improvements in their performance after doing selected lessons using the Interactive and Traditional Method Approach. The researcher believes that since the traditional method places students in a passive rather than in an active role, it is still effective provided that the instructor is prepared with his lesson and possess effective writing, speaking and modeling skills.

Table 6 shows the comparison of data on the pretest and posttest mean of the experimental group. In a 50-item test, the interactive group got a pretest mean score of 22.00. The result revealed that students in the interactive group performed poorly. This was because respondents were not instructed yet on the topics covered under experimentation. After administering the posttest examination, the group increased their mean score to 35.27. This indicates that a mean difference of 13.27. T-test of equality of means produced a t-value of 16.55 significant level at 0.000 which implies a significant difference between the pre and posttest scores. This result suggests that students, after undertaking an interactive teaching method improved their

performance. Thus, the null hypothesis that was formulated was rejected implying that the pretest mean score showed significant difference from the posttest mean scores.

Similarly, Javier (2001) conducted a study to determine the relationship between the teacher's competence and students' performance in English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. In pretest and posttest to the students, it also showed a significant effect on the performance of the group behavior.

Table 6
Pretest and Posttest Mean Scores and t-value
of the Experimental Group

Test	Mean	Mean Difference	t - value	Sig.	Remarks
Pretest	22.00	13.27	16.55	0.000	Significant
Posttest	35.27				

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The researcher believes that the result of the pretest and posttest of the interactive group was attributed to the exposure of the students to a new strategy of learning which is music and film. In this, the students enjoyed learning as if it was just a leisure time but they are grasping the content of the lesson.

Both groups improved from pre-to-post test (tables 6 and 7) implying that both interactive and traditional method helped the students improve their performance. Table 7 presents that the interactive group had a mean score of 22.00 in the pretest and 35.27 for their posttest. A gain score of 13.27 can be computed which denotes that there is learning in the interactive methodology. On the other hand, a mean score of 20.13 for the traditional group was computed for their pretest and 31.67 for their posttest. A gain score of 11.53 can be computed which denotes that there is also learning in the traditional methodology. To compute the comparison between the learning of the two groups a difference of only 1.73 can be computed from the mean gain scores of each group and a t-value of 1.42 significant and probability value of 0.17 which is a not significant remark.

Table 7
Pretest and Posttest Comparison Between Group
(Independent Sample T-Test)

Test	Group	Mean Score	Mean Difference	t	Sig.	Remarks
Pre	Interactive	22.00	1.87	0.85	0.40	Not Significant
	Traditional	20.13				
Post	Interactive	35.27	3.60	1.74	0.09	Not Significant
	Traditional	31.67				
Gain Scores	Interactive	13.27	1.73	1.42	0.17	Not Significant
	Traditional	11.53				

However, to answer which is more effective requires a gain score analysis to compare the level or degree of improvement between the two groups. Pretest comparison was also included because, ideally both groups should not be significantly different (t-value=0.85, Sig. =0.40) before the experiment or before conducting any intervention that could affect the post performance. Table 9 presents, the gain score analysis using ANOVA also suggested the same result with F value not significant at 0.05. This suggest that there is no significant difference in the performance of the students between the experimental and control groups.

Table 8
Gain Score Analysis Using Analysis of Variance

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Remarks
Between Groups	22.533	1	22.533	2.018	.166	Not Significant
Within Groups	312.667	28	11.167			
Total	335.200	29				

In the study of Baluyot (2009) on Activity Oriented Lessons in teaching selected topics in English to Microcity college students in Balanga City. She also found out the level between the experimental and controlled group are not significant.

This result shows that traditional and interactive methodology are both effective methods for teaching in selected topics in English. However, the use of interactive methodology shows a little advantage over the traditional methodology. A mean difference of 1.73 was computed in the performance of both groups. This is due to the new methodology in teaching the selected topics in English that is being used. Considering the gender, IQ level and previous English grades are equal for both the experimental and control group. Students find it more interesting to watch the movie and listen to the music that is being played as the main methodology in presenting to them a particular topic. Although in traditional method, students are also interested with the lesson because of the lesson that is being presented to them is part of the course where they are enrolled and they need to grasp the learning from it. Considering also the teacher factor where the students need to stay focused on the lesson being discussed by the teacher since the experimental is part of the regular school day and their class standing may be affected. In interactive methodology students are also focused in the lesson but the difference with the traditional methodology students in this group are more focused, the boredom factor is reduced hence they are enjoying while learning. They don't notice that time is passing but lesson is already being injected to them. Furthermore, their level of attention is sustained thru the media that is being played hence students become more attentive to the learning objectives.

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DISCUSSION

The profile of students-respondents is the thirty (30) students in the control group (traditional laboratory) and experimental group (interactive learning), the findings showed that the control group and experimental group have an IQ between average and low average level. With regards to gender, 3 were males and 12 were females. Both groups demonstrated good to passing performance in English. The level of performance of students in the experimental group before and after the instructions using interactive methodology is that there was a highly significant difference in the performance of the experimental group in their pretest and posttest assessment. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected to the effect that there is highly significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the students exposed to interactive learning strategy. On the level of performance of students in the control group before and after the instructions using traditional methodology is that there was a highly significant difference in the performance of the control group in their pretest and posttest assessment. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected to the effect that there is a highly significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the students exposed to traditional learning strategy. On the comparison of experimental group with control group in their performance, there was a no significant difference in the posttest scores of both groups. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted to the effect that there is a no significant difference between the posttest mean scores of the students exposed to interactive and traditional methodology.

Based on the findings, the conclusions were drawn: There is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the students exposed to interactive methodology. There is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the students exposed to traditional methodology. There is no significant difference between the posttest mean scores of the students exposed in interactive methodology and those students exposed to traditional methodology.

In light of the findings, the following recommendations are hereby suggested: The profile of the respondents in both groups showed that they have generally Average IQ level. This implies an average performance of students. To maintain students' performance, the school administrators may conduct seminars, symposia, equipping for the teachers to make sure that the teachers competence is maintained hence students performance will also be maintained.. The use of varied teaching methods or strategies can also be helpful. The results of this study also revealed that respondents performed better although with improvement using interactive teaching methodology; hence, it is recommended that institutions may use Music and Film to be used in teaching selected topics in English such as Preposition usage, Understanding the Bill of Rights, Identifying Word Stress, The Little Prince and Hamlet. Syllabi should be re-examined and revised as the need arises to include new and more interactive lessons. In as much as there would be limited resources for interactive materials. School Administrators should provide necessary budget for film acquisition or rental. The usage of film and music has intellectual property from the makers of the film or music so piracy or illegal reproduction should not be tolerated. The school may provide internet access so as to download legally if resources in the community is not available. Findings also disclosed that traditional method seemed effective, it is therefore, recommended that this strategy could still be made a part of the instructional techniques of the college. However, teachers should use varied traditional methods so that boredom will be eliminated and students will be more motivated, to work and learn. It would also benefit the students if their teachers employ more innovative and creative teaching style which would encourage students initiative and stimulate maximum participation. Future research may be conducted in order to draw a more general and conclusive findings on the effect of interactive methodology on the achievement of the student using other parameters and on other subject areas.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION

With the mentioned findings on interactive teaching, the researcher believes that the implications of the study to language education and practice is that there is a need for educators and practitioners to be familiar with the use of music and film in teaching selected topics in English. According to the findings of this study, students both male and female with average level of IQ and performs good to passing marks in English can learn in either using the traditional or interactive methodology but using interactive lessons can help them get rid of boredom hence the main function of music and film is utilized and simultaneously the students learn from it. In the practice of language, this study can be a motivating factor for those who may want to venture in film or music making to create a film or music that is not just entertaining but also educational in a way that they can help mold the younger generations such as students or adults who may want to learn more of language.

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*Opinions on English Teaching Large Classes as Perceived by English Teachers at
Burapha University*

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Abstract

English is not official language for Thailand, but Thai must use it as global language. Thai students need to improve their weak English proficiency for communication in the global context. The significant weakness of improvement is that there are not enough English teachers for overwhelming students who are increasing continually due to the Thai population growth. The way to solve this problem is conducting the class with large group of students, containing more than 60. Therefore, the objective of the study is to study English teachers' perception of teaching large classes in Burapha University to improve English teaching in Burapha University. The subjects were 35 English teachers teaching English with more than 60 students in the class. The research was conducted using a questionnaire. The data was analyzed by using frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation. The results of the research could be divided into five aspects. The first aspect was that English teacher teaching in large classes didn't worry about teaching preparation. The second aspect was it was difficult for teachers to get to know their students well in large classes. The next aspect was that teaching large classes causes difficulty in class management. The fourth one was teaching large classes affected teaching techniques because of limited time and a large number of students in each class. And the last aspect was teaching large classes caused difficulty in assessment.

Introduction

To be an competitive country in Asia, Thai students must be prepared by enhancing their English language proficiency because English is the international language that is widely used throughout the world . According to National Statistical Office, Thai population continues growing. This means that Thai students who must be prepared in English proficiency are increasing too. As the number of English learners is increasing, the number of English teachers is still limited.

The educational institutes in Thailand try to solve this problem. Burapha University, the famous university in the East of Thailand, solved this problem with reorganizing class size. There are more than 60 students in each class. On one hand, it could solve this problem. The limited amount of English teachers could teach the increased number of students English. On the other hand, it may not be desirable because it may bring about difficulty in classroom management.

English teachers in Burapha University teach more than 60 students in each class. And the teachers have to conduct the class as effectively as they can. The study can express what their opinions on teaching in large classes are. These can be applied to effectively manage English classes in Burapha University.

Literature Review

Large Classes

The definition of large class depends on subjects and teacher's experience. English is the subject that focuses on interaction between teachers and students. It should not be taught in too many students class. From 108 secondary teachers surveyed in Bangkok, teachers feel that their classes are large if the average student in class is 42.57. (Sathit Wattanapokhakul, 2006)

Todd (2006) states that the large class could not be defined by only the amount of students because there still are three factors in defining the word "large class". The three factors are teachers' experience, content of the subject, and another factor; such as the size of classroom, learners' motivation, education level, and the students' age. Although the definition of the word "large class" is still controversial, the result of 14 studies conducted from 1976 to 1999 showed that the amount of 40-60 students in the class as the large class.

For Thailand, Shinokul (2006) points out that Thai higher education faces the problem of the amount of students in foundation classes which are 40-60 students. One thing that is happening right now is the universities have to conduct the class with a large number of students mostly in foundation course.

The size of class and Learning

There are many studies tried to survey the effect of class size on learning of students, and the result of the studies were showed in two ways. Some claimed that class size affected on students' learning, but some showed that it didn't. The result of the study from Central Institute of English & Foreign Languages Hyderabad in India showed

that activities, teachers' attitude, and teachers' role are more likely to affect on students' participation than class size. Kumar (1992)

For mathematics, large class affects students' performance in negative way, and this effect doesn't happen in Language subject. Pada, Ponzio & Scoppa (2009)

Peter (2003) proposes that large class with more than 30 students, teachers must take long time to attract students' attention to assignments in class. Teachers think the advantage of small class is good interaction between teachers and students. Teacher can know her students' background well. This can enable teachers to focus the suitable content for each student. It's hard to do this in large classes.

The problem of large class to teachers

Gibbs & Jenkins (1992) points out six aspects of large class problem to teachers. There are relationship building, class management, teaching methods, evaluation, resources, and health problem. Todd (2006) concludes the problem from teaching in large classes in 7 aspects; learning problem, class management and activities in class, physical problem, mental factor, students' reaction problem, evaluation and students' acceptance, and other problem.

Coleman (1987) presents the result of study that surveyed teachers' attitude in English class with 109 students in Nigeria. The questions in the questionnaire are divided into nine topics. They are individual attention, class management, evaluation, difficulty of teachers, materials preparation, limited physical factor, teaching and learning efficiency, interaction between teachers and students, and miscellaneous. The result of the study shows that there are three difficulties in teaching in large class. They are individual attention, class management, and evaluation.

The study

The present study proposed the English teachers' opinion on English Teaching Large Classes at Burapha University. This brings about the useful information to improve teaching in English foundation classes efficiently. The details of the study were divided into four steps. The first step is participants choosing. Then the questionnaire as the tool of the study was designed. The next step was data collecting. And the finally, the collected data were analyzed.

Participants

The study took place in Burapha University, and all 35 English teachers who taught English I in the first semester of 2011 academic year were participants. All classes of these teachers contained more than 60 students.

Research tool

The questionnaire as a tool of the study was designed by the researcher. The processes of the questionnaire building were studying related research and document, designing questionnaire, and proposing the questionnaire to specialists to evaluate content validity by using IOC (Index of item objective congruence)

There were three parts in the questionnaire. The first part was individual information of participants; gender, age, the ideal amount of students in their class, the real amount of students in their class, and their experience in English teaching.

The second part of the questionnaire was four level satisfaction questions in five aspects. They are satisfaction aspect, interaction between teachers and students, class management, teaching techniques, and evaluation.

The last part of the questionnaire was four opened questions. These questions brought about the participants' opinions on teaching English in large classes.

Data analysis

The data analysis of the first part of the questionnaire showed that the participants were 11 men (31.43%) and 24 women. (68.57%) There were 15 participants whose age between 20-30 years. (42.86%) There were 13 participants whose age between 31-40 years. (37.14%) There was 1 participant whose age between 41-50 years. (2.86%) And There were 6 participants whose age more than 51 years. (17.14%)

Table 1 The data analysis about teachers' opinions on effect of teaching in large classes

Aspects in analysis		Mean SD
1. Satisfaction		
1.1	You are always ready to teach English in English 1.	3.37 ± 0.65
1.2	You are worried about teaching in large class.	2.54 ± 0.82
1.3	Lecturing in front of large class makes you nervous.	1.74 ± 0.78
1.4	Teaching in large class makes you more tired than teaching in small class	3.11 ± 0.72
2. Interaction between teachers and students		
2.1	You can remember your all students' faces and names.	2.03 ± 0.86
2.2	Your students can participate in class very well.	2.26 ± 0.78
2.3	Your students are confident to answer your questions in class.	2.20 ± 0.47
2.4	You know and understand your all individual students' problem well.	2.03 ± 0.66
2.5	You have an opportunity to give your students advice.	2.11 ± 0.72
3. Class management		
3.1	Your class size is suitable for the amount of your students.	1.97 ± 0.79
3.2	You can walk around the class to monitor students during teaching conveniently.	2.26 ± 0.74
3.3	The atmosphere in your class is good.	2.03 ± 0.71
3.4	Your students obey you.	2.77 ± 0.81
4. Teaching techniques		
4.1	You can assign your students writing task as	2.34 ± 0.84

	often as you want.	
4.2	You can assign your students pronunciation task as often as you want.	2.40 ± 0.91
4.3	Your student can often practice listening skill.	2.86 ± 0.77
		Mean SD
	<u>Aspects in analysis</u>	
4.4	Your students have an opportunity to practice conversation task.	2.14 ± 0.77
4.5	Your students have an opportunity to discuss in the class.	2.23 ± 0.69
4.6	You assign your students both in class and out class exercises.	3.00 ± 0.64
4.7	You always ask your students questions to know if they understand what you teach.	3.06 ± 0.76
4.8	You always assign your students both in class and out class group assignment.	2.31 ± 0.87
4.9	You can use material in class as often as you want.	3.09 ± 0.70
	<u>5. Evaluation</u>	
5.1	You correct all your students' assignments by yourself.	3.31 ± 0.99
5.2	You assign your students to correct their homework by themselves.	2.17 ± 0.92
5.3	You have an opportunity to advise your students about their writing assignment as often as you want.	2.09 ± 0.61
5.4	You have an opportunity to advise your students about their pronunciation as often as you want.	2.51 ± 0.98
5.5	You always assign your students to do subjective exercises and you correct them by yourself.	2.17 ± 0.75
5.6	You always assign your students to do multiple choices exercises and you correct them by yourself.	2.11 ± 0.80
5.7	Correcting students' assignment is convenient.	2.71 ± 1.02
5.8	Grading is convenient.	2.89 ± 0.93
Remark 1 = very low 2 = low 3 = high 4 = very high		

Findings and discussion

Through the analysis of the data, the opinions of English teachers who taught in large class with more than 60 students in Burapha University were divided into five aspects. The first aspect was satisfaction. Teaching in large class didn't make teachers nervous because they prepared their teaching very well, but it made them more tired than teaching in small class. This finding conformed with Coleman(1987).

Interaction between teachers and students in large class was not as good as small class. Teachers couldn't remember their all students' faces and names. This might be unfair environment. Teachers could not give advice to all their students as much as they should do.

Teachers thought that teaching in large class at Burapha University was not convenient because the size of the classroom was not suitable. The classroom size and the amount of students in the classroom was not balance. To do some activities and class management in the unsuitable size classroom were not convenient.

Teaching in large class could stimulate students to answer the questions in class much more. This made students understand the content deeply. Giving assignments and students' discussion hardly happened in large class because these took too long time. Teacher might not teach as much content as they want. This result of the study conforms with the study of Darawong & Srimavin (2006).

Although there were a lot of students in large class, teachers corrected their students' assignment by themselves. This was good for their students.

Conclusion

English teacher teaching in large classes at Burapha University didn't worry about teaching preparation, but it was difficult for teachers to get to know their students well in large classes. Teaching large classes causes difficulty in class management. Teaching in large classes affected teaching techniques because of limited time and a large number of students in each class. Teaching large classes caused difficulty in assessment too.

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Excuse My Konglish

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Abstract

This paper is about “Korean English (Konglish)”. The impression that Koreans have of Konglish is that it is ‘bad’ or ‘incorrect’ English because of how it is used among Koreans. Foreigners cannot understand it unless they learn it but Koreans understand it when spoken among themselves. A major concern is that unlike American English, British English or other varieties of English, Konglish does not have a definition that is really agreed upon by researchers and Koreans themselves. The second chapter talks about how English was probably first introduced and used in Korea and how it has developed in various ways. It also explains how English played a huge role in the Korean society in the past and how it continues to influence or affect social interaction in the present. The next chapter discusses the deeper elements of Konglish including its definitions, examples, and meanings. Since there are no exact definitions of Konglish and since the origin and explanation of some of the examples and its meanings are not clear, there are issues and concerns that arise. It raises questions such as, “Is it okay to use it or not?” Finally in the conclusion, questions and concerns about Konglish remain open to further discussion and debate. Thus, for the recommendations, it is suggested that there should be further and improved studies about Konglish most especially by Koreans because papers on Konglish written by foreigners look at it from a different angle or perspective.

I. Introduction

“Let’s go eye-shopping!” I said to my Filipino friends, when I asked them to go to a department store. Everyone looked at me quizzically. They retorted, “What are you talking about? Do you mean window-shopping?” I was very ashamed. I thought I used an English expression but I found out that except for Koreans, it is not used by native speakers or any other speakers of English like the Filipinos.

After this experience, I searched for the meaning of *eye-shopping*, and I found out that it is considered a Korean-English word/expression or Konglish. Aside from the Konglish word that I already used, I found out that there are a lot more. Most of them mean something to Koreans, but they would not make sense to other speakers of English. A list of other examples is provided in another chapter. I then thought of Konglish as ‘bad’ English or the ‘wrong usage’ of English words. And I think most Koreans think of Konglish the same way but still use them out of habit and because it is understood by almost everyone.

However, when Koreans use these words or expressions when talking to other speakers of English, that is usually the time that they realize, and find out that others do not understand them. Koreans think of Konglish as ‘misused’ English when they are corrected and advised of the appropriate Konglish words and expressions by speakers of English. For other Koreans though, they think it is not ‘bad’ English, taking the perspective of the social function of language. The argument is that being able to put your point across is what matters, regardless of grammar and other considerations.

English is not our first language. It is mostly the second language or foreign languages to Koreans. Koreans start studying English at a young age, and we mostly learn vocabulary, common expressions, and grammar. There is not much focus on phonology and conversational usage of the language. We actually do not use it in daily activities plus there is not much opportunity to do so.

These are only some among other concerns and issues about Konglish. There are also issues and concerns about its definition and categorization, which will be discussed further in the following chapters.

My study focuses on the definitions of Konglish from different sources, examples, categories and meanings. Issues on these definitions and categories, the local opinion and attitude towards Konglish, and personal reflections on the study of Konglish in general are to be discussed as well.

II. English in Korea

Before defining Konglish and giving more specifics, I would first like to discuss how the use of English started and spread in Korea: from its history to its development, with a discussion on its importance in the Korean society today.

Though there are no documentations of the exact date or time when it was first used, I have found articles about when Koreans probably first encountered it, and eventually used it.

In a web log written by Moon (2012), English was first used in Korea in the 16th century. Due to an accident, the vessel of Hendrick Hamel from Netherlands was got wrecked at Jeju Island in Korea in 1653. A carpenter from Scotland was with Hamel, and their interaction with the local people was an opportunity for Koreans to get exposed to English.

According to Collins (2005), “Koreans were wary of the English language because Korea was the last East Asian country to get in contact with the West. However, by 1882, Koreans had signed a treaty with the United States, fostering the arrival of missionaries, advisors, traders, and teachers who brought the English language with them, and who soon began teaching it to Korean children via English-only classes.”

In 1883, English language education was first introduced when the Joseon government opened English language schools. The purpose was to train interpreters for trade and commerce (Kim, 2008).

However, as Collins noted, in the face of the then increasing Japanese expansion, English became a site of resistance for Korean intellectuals hoping to further associate themselves with the Americans. For that reason, in 1896, a group called Independence Club founded the first English language newspaper. English was still taught as a mandatory subject during the period of Japanese rule in Korea which began in 1910, and Japanese colonizers published annual reports in English on the ways they contributed to “Korean life.”

Moreover, according to the article, “After the Korean War, use of English developed in South Korea due to international trade, especially trade with the US. And in the 1960’s, South Korean teachers were being trained to teach English and by the 1970’s and 80’s, the language was already associated with middle class and cosmopolitan values.”

The government intentionally associated English with globalization, both culturally and economically after the 1988 Seoul Olympics, and began to promote the English language education to foster international competitiveness. The Kim, Young Sam administration sponsored this by initiating a program known as *Segyehwa*, a major component of which was the development of English instruction according to Yoo (2006) in Flattery’s paper (2007).

Within the following decades, with aims for a more developed country, more and more people have gradually become interested in learning English as it has hugely influenced trade and commerce.

At present, we can see how English plays a huge role in our globalizing society, not just in terms of trade and commerce. It also plays a very important part in diplomatic and international relations, education, career-making or choosing a profession, and it basically affects all aspects of the globalizing society.

Korea has gradually embraced and continues to embrace globalization. We can see how it is being affected and how it is affecting the rest of the world through entertainment, media, music, and other means. The Korean society has become more open to accepting and exploring other cultures. Koreans have become more curious of what is happening around the world so more Koreans are travelling, studying and even living in other countries.

An article from *The Korea Times* (dated February 5, 2008) was written about how English plays

a huge role in the Korean society:

“According to a report by the Samsung Economic Research Institute (SERI), Koreans spend about 15 trillion won (\$15.8 billion) on English learning per year. Koreans also topped the applicant list of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) between 2004 and 2005 as about 102,340 out of the 554,942 applicants were Koreans. They also paid 700 billion won toward English examination fees. Enthusiasm for English study has also seen a large number of children, teenagers and even adults going to English-speaking countries like the United States, Australia and Britain to study. Last year some 250,000 under 29 years old went abroad for studying. The English frenzy saw the coining of the term ‘goose father,’ referring to a father who lives alone in Korea having sent his spouse and children to a foreign country to study English or some other form of advanced study. The goose fathers are estimated to be about 200,000 goose daddies nationwide. Most Koreans start to learn English from middle or elementary school. By the time they graduate, they have already spent about 100,000 hours on English studying, according to the SERI report.”

We have to remember that language evolves, and the evolution of language involves cultural dynamics, especially for a foreign language used in a foreign country. Since Koreans started learning English, and as Koreans continue learning and using English, some of the English words or expressions they learned and continue to learn have advanced and continuously evolve into what is called Korean English or Konglish, which will be discussed further in the next chapter.

III. Konglish: Definitions, Examples, and Meanings

Now, let me discuss Korean English or Konglish through some definitions, examples, and meanings.

Definitions

Konglish has been defined and viewed in different ways. Aside from the definitions provided by Kosofsky and Miller, some people have also made their own definition of Konglish.

One such definition was made by an anonymous person, “English words that Korean people use in a manner that is not correct English. Usually this is by combining two words or modifying words incorrectly.”

Another definition on the internet by an anonymous person is that “Konglish is a word used to describe Korean pronounced English.”

Three other definitions by another unknown source define Konglish as: first, these are “words or phrases that have been taken from English (and other European languages) which are commonly used within the South Korean vernacular. This includes words that have maintained correct phonetical pronunciation, or words that have been phonetically modified in order to fit the

pronunciative governing structure of the Korean language. In other words direct loan word adaption.”

The second definition is, “Konglish can also be described as a combination of Korean and English (as well as some European) words used to portray a meaning similar to that found in either or both language. It can also be where English words are used to portray an ideological structure differing from the original term. This leads Koreans to incorrectly identify some terms as English, whereas, in essence, the terms have been coined by the Koreans themselves.”

The last definition is, “Konglish is the direct translation of Korean to English language. Thus allowing for the creation of pseudo loan-words.”

According to Kosofsky (1986), Konglish is the English which is spoken and written by native speakers of Korean.

Miller (2003), in his article, wrote that Konglish is “the mixture of Korean and English words to form words independent to the base of the Korean language but originating from English (in some cases from other European languages).”

We can sense from these definitions taken from various sources that there are similarities on its components, but there seems to be no single definition that can account for all Konglish words. This concern will be discussed further in the following chapters.

Examples

Below is a list of examples of Konglish words and categorization of some Konglish words and expressions, which is subject to further discussion.

List of Konglish

Konglish	English	Konglish	English
<i>hand phone</i>	cellular phone	<i>back mirror</i>	rear-view mirror
<i>handle</i>	steering wheel	<i>autobi</i>	motorcycle/motorbike
<i>remocon</i>	remote control	<i>sign</i>	signature/autograph
<i>morning call</i>	wake-up call	<i>back number</i>	uniform number
<i>arbeit</i>	part-time job	<i>fighting</i>	go/come on/cheer up
<i>eye shopping</i>	window shopping	<i>vinylhouse</i>	greenhouse
<i>Hotchkiss</i>	Stapler	<i>sunglass</i>	sunglasses
<i>Y-shirt</i>	white shirt/shirt	<i>cassette</i>	cassette player
<i>meeting</i>	blind date	<i>sharp</i>	mechanical pencil
<i>stand</i>	desk lamp	<i>cunning</i>	cheating
<i>driver</i>	screw driver	<i>note</i>	notebook
<i>sun cream</i>	sun block cream	<i>apart</i>	apartment

<i>perma</i>	Perm	<i>maker</i>	brand-name
<i>audio</i>	stereo/audio system	<i>consent</i>	outlet / socket
<i>accel</i>	accelerator	<i>CF</i>	commercial
<i>ball pen</i>	ball-point pen/pen	<i>prime</i> (for coffee)	creamer
<i>lens</i>	contact lenses	<i>health</i>	health club/gym
<i>old miss</i>	single/unmarried woman	<i>notebook</i>	laptop
<i>backpack</i>	travel backpacking	<i>mishin</i>	sewing machine
<i>gagman</i>	comedian	<i>one room</i>	studio apartment
<i>overeat</i>	vomit/throw up	<i>cutline</i>	cut-off line
<i>rotary</i>	intersection	<i>service</i>	free
<i>coating</i>	Laminating	<i>white</i>	correction pen
<i>aircon</i>	air-conditioner	<i>panties</i>	underwear
<i>A/S(after service)</i>	warrantee service	<i>rearcar</i>	pushcart
<i>one shot</i>	bottoms up/cheers	<i>skinship</i>	physical contact
<i>D.C</i>	discount	<i>bond</i>	glue
<i>wrap</i>	plastic wrap	<i>panty</i>	underpants
<i>vinyl</i>	plastic bag	<i>sunting</i>	window tinting
<i>talent</i>	actor/actress	<i>Klaxon</i>	horn
<i>circle</i>	club/student group	<i>pro (%)</i>	percent
<i>golden time</i>	prime time	<i>dica</i>	digital camera
<i>two-piece</i>	suit/business suit	<i>self camera</i>	taking a picture of oneself/myself using a camera
<i>self</i>	self-service	<i>magic pen</i>	marker
<i>super</i>	supermarket	<i>manicure</i>	nail polish
<i>cider</i>	7-Up/Sprite	<i>diary</i>	schedule book
<i>gas range</i>	gas stove	<i>rinse</i>	hair conditioner
<i>PD</i>	producer	<i>FD</i>	floor director
<i>cray-pas</i>	crayon-pastel	<i>one piece</i>	dress
<i>terevi</i>	television	<i>SF</i>	science fiction
<i>hairpin</i>	hair clip	<i>bed town</i>	suburb

According to Tranter (2000), Konglish words were borrowed directly from Japanese English, and examples of such are the truncated vocabulary items such as *televi* (television), *autobai* (motorcycle), *self* (self-service) and *remocon* (remote control). These words are commonly used in Korea and in Japan.

Another class that is common in Konglish is acronym. A few examples of these are *SF* (science fiction), *D.C* (discount), and *PD* (producer).

Hotchkiss, *Klaxon* and *Burberry* are brand names of products, and Koreans use brand names to specify each product like Hotchkiss for stapler in English.

There are other classifications of Konglish words, and one of such categorization was done by Everest (2002).

In his research, the first category consists of direct loanwords from English or Japanese with the same meaning but simplified form. Examples cited are *driver* (screwdriver), *self* (self-service) and *D.C* (Discount). Many words occupy particular lexical gaps or are used in semantic fields in which Korean language may lack appropriate terminology. For example, culinary terminologies like *ice cream* (English) and *baguette* (French), or more technical words like *allergy*, *computer* and *virus* (all English), fit into this category.

The second category consists of words that may be direct loanwords with a broader or narrower meaning. Broader terms include *lover* (whether intimate or not, meaning boyfriend or girlfriend), *cologne* (after-bath splash for men or women), and brand names such as *Burberry* (meaning overcoat). On the other hand, there are words that have become more specific in their meaning. Examples are *bond* (glue), *cunning* (cheating on tests) or *arbeit* (part-time job), the latter, which is undoubtedly German in origin, has entered Konglish via ‘Janplish’ or ‘Japanese-English’.

The third category consists of words shift extenders which are loanwords with quite altered meanings (and sometimes parts of speech). These may require some leaps of logic to figure out such as *cream sands* (cream-filled cookies or crackers), *overeat* (vomit), make a *promise* (appointment), and *gargle* (mouthwash).

The fourth category is fabrications, which contain English-like elements but are not (yet) considered standard English. Some are direct translations, such as time teacher (part-time lecturer), *name card*, and possibly *one-sided love*. More imaginative are blended words like *spolex* (sports complex), or compound words like *free-talking* (chit-chat), *eye-shopping* (window shopping), and *campus-couple* (a couple who met and dated steadily at a university).

As Everest noted, when used in English, communication may break down. In Korean, however, Konglish words are perfectly acceptable words to be used such as loan words.

This categorization possesses concern, as there are criticisms against it, which will be discussed in the following chapter.

Here are more examples which were not discussed by Everest.

According to Song (1998), the meanings of loanwords such as *panties* and *talent* diverge from those of the original English words, but are found in Korean. Let us look at a few more examples: *stand* (desk lamp), *rinse* (conditional), *manicure* (nail polish), *accessory* (jewelry), *service* (free charge) and *handle* (steering wheel). All of these Konglish words are somehow related to the meaning of their counterparts in the English language.

In addition, there are terms wherein its Korean meaning is different from its English counterpart, such as *one shot* (cheers or bottoms up), *punk* (flat tire or broken promise or disaster), *back number* (numbers on an athlete's uniform) and *hiking* (done on a bicycle).

Another characteristic is the formation and use of terms or expressions that are not normally used in British or American English at all, such as *skinship*, which has been in the East for years but has finally broken into western English as the title of a psychology journal. Other examples are *all back* (swept back hair), *one piece* (dress), *bed town* (suburb) and *golden time* (prime time).

Aside from Konglish words, there are also some expressions that are used in certain cases. “*Have you eaten?*” is a form of greeting each other. Instead of saying hi or using formal greetings, Koreans say this question to people who are close to them like their family and friends. Another expression, *so so*, is a kind of feeling which is neither good nor bad. Another expression is “*Did you sleep well?*”. Unlike English greetings such as good morning, good afternoon, good evening, and so on, Korean greetings like *annyunghaseyo* are fewer than English. When we wake up, we greet each other by asking, “*Did you sleep well?*” instead of the normal Korean way of greeting.

IV. Issues and Concerns

There are some issues or concerns that we have pointed out in the previous chapters. These include concerns about definitions, as well as differing opinions about whether Konglish is ‘bad’ or ‘incorrect’ English, or if it is okay to use it as long as the language used is understood by the receiver. It also includes concerns about the categorization made by Everest.

In one study by Hadikin (2005), he wrote about the local attitude of Koreans towards Konglish. About sixteen respondents among twenty had negative impression toward Konglish. The words they gave are wrong, incorrect or improperly formed. However, there are positive responses such as “Konglish is a kind of culture in Korean lifestyle.” Only about four respondents gave a neutral definition. However, even if there are only a few respondents who looked at Konglish in a positive way, more people are now more accepting of the fact that there are appropriate contexts for Konglish.

Most respondents of his study agreed to use Konglish when they don't know enough “standard” English, in private or informal conversations, and when they face emergency situations. For example, if a Korean doesn't know the exact English word and he/she is around foreigners and needs to explain or say something, he/she can use Konglish to express his idea at the least.

As for the issue on definitions and categorization, in another study by Hadikin, he wrote that Kosofsky's definition is too broad because any variety of English spoken by a native Korean speaker is Konglish. He also mentioned that Everest's categorizations are loan words from Korean that are regularly used in English conversation such as food items and unique cultural concepts.

In a study by Thorkelson (2005), he criticized Kosofsky's and Everest's definition of Konglish. He says that that these are more concerned with identifying selective misuses of standard (i.e. common) English words or parts of speech, loaned or borrowed words purportedly from English, and neologisms that are not English at all rather than looking at Konglish per se.

Personally, I do not agree with just one of the definitions because I think there is no single definition that encompasses all the components and nature of Konglish. However, I also think I

would need to conduct a more in-depth study or research to see if I can come up with a single definition that can cover the nature and components of Konglish. And only when an appropriate definition is made can there be proper categorization. Regarding the concern whether it's 'bad' and 'incorrect' English or not, I take both perspectives. As a Korean, I also look at it from the perspective that it has a cultural context, though I understand that these are grammatically and syntactically incorrect. I have the same views or attitude as the respondents in Hadikin's research except that I take both perspectives. There are specific situations when it is okay to use it, but there are also situations when it is inappropriate.

V. Conclusions and Recommendations

After doing this paper, I realized that the questions about Konglish still remain unanswered, and so understanding the full nature of Konglish is still elusive.

1. With varying definitions, to fully understand it, should Konglish then have just one definition that can contain or fully explain its nature? Or, is there even one definition for it that can account for what Konglish is in the first place?
2. For having a definition of Konglish, should it be systematized or properly categorized?
3. If it is going to be systematized, who are the people authorized to do it? Are Korean linguists, foreign linguists, or a combination of both competent enough to do so?
4. Should there be rules about its usage?
5. And more importantly, is it even necessary to have one definition for it, categorize it, and codify it?
6. Or just leave Konglish in its present state, which is without any system or code and accept that it is alright to use it in a Korean setting and with Koreans?

I may have personal views or answers to these questions, but other people who use Konglish may not share the same views.

As I have mentioned earlier, I look at Konglish from two perspectives. For me, it is okay to use Konglish in Korea, with Korean people, and in a 'Korean' context. However, because many Koreans nowadays are going abroad to study English, for travel, for business and for other reasons, then I believe Koreans should be more careful in using English. Koreans abroad should avoid using Konglish since the foreigners may or will misunderstand them. This is not only due to the fact that the foreigners may think of Konglish as 'incorrect', but also because they are not aware of the context of Konglish. Aside from this, I also think that a Standard Korean English can be developed in the future.

Another realization I had after doing this paper is that I had very limited resources, especially books and academic papers. One probable reason for this has to do with the fact that Korea has fairly recently become more interested in the importance of learning English. Koreans have always been interested in English, of course, but the interest has increased as mentioned earlier, due to globalization. Since the interest has peaked only fairly recently, not many Koreans have really become interested in fully analyzing it yet.

Another probable reason is that it is not as popular as other varieties of English. It is almost always, commonly used by Koreans only. Thus they are most probably the ones more concerned about how it is being used, and not the other speakers of the English language.

Even though I found some readings, they are from the Internet in the form of blogs and articles, and only a few were from academic researches and papers.

With this concern, as a Korean, I hope there would be more studies about Konglish by Koreans. Definitions and categories are found in some foreign researches, but I think their perspective is lacking, and a Korean perspective would be different. Some foreign researches tend to look at the picture from the outside, and not from within. At times, they focus only on some specific areas rather than the entire study. My resolution is to be able to conduct further research and studies about Konglish in the future and for the future.

The logo for the International Association for Applied Linguistics (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, stylized circular graphic composed of two overlapping arcs: a light blue arc on the right and a light red arc on the left, both with a soft, feathered edge.

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Difficulties and Challenges in Teaching English as the Second and Foreign Language

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Abstract

To support the rapid growth of globalization a common language is badly needed. Fortunately English has got the honor to become that common language for communicating among the different nations. It is the language of choice in most countries of the world. Though English is the mother tongue of the United Kingdom, they alone cannot claim to be the native speakers. The United States of America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa also come within the fold of native speakers of English. Besides, the quality of its *lingua franca* as a means of communication engulfs almost the entire globe. Moreover, in higher education, English is frequently used. Books of all subjects are available in English. The strength of English is greater than many other languages. Almost 80% information of the information technology is in English. A good volume of the services rendered through the Internet is also in English. Thus, English is playing a very significant role in bringing the world together. Therefore, many people are interested in teaching English as the *second* or *foreign* language. Despite their keen interests, the English language teachers often face various difficulties and challenges while teaching in real classroom environment with varying responses of the learners. Keeping all these facts in view, this article aims at exploring and identifying some reasons behind the problems faced by both the teachers and the learners from the perspective of pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, and grammar of English language.

1. Introduction:

There is no way to deny the fact that English is the most common and popular language in the world. Its distinctive syntactical forms, grammatical rules, and interference of different languages have made it popular. Moreover, English speaking people are leading and playing major roles in different spheres of life like trade, commerce and geopolitical issues. Historically, almost all parts of the world were under British control till the 2nd world war which played an important part to accelerate the popularity of English language. Even at present, due to the theory of unipolarization of world leaders, English speaking people are ruling all over the world. In this article I have never tried to dishonor this prestigious and popular language. What I have tried to uphold in this article is that the people of other languages, both the teachers and the learners, face some problems while teaching and learning English language. And through this article, I have identified some reasons for these problems which are sometimes very difficult and challenging.

2. Pronunciation:

Of course, Pronunciation plays an important part in human speech and communication. Correct pronunciation is the precondition of meaningful speech. To convey the actual meaning and message of the delivered speech, it must be sounded and articulated correctly. While articulating, a Non- Native English language teacher cannot maintain its proper and correct pronunciation even sometimes they cannot convey the exact message. Because, English language has some specialties and characteristics which they cannot cope up with the native speakers. They mix up the articulated words with the local accent. European people have their own accent to pronounce English words. Africans, Arabs, South-Asian and Eastern-Asian people speak English through their own phonemes. In the Arab world, the people who want to communicate in English face a great problem because, the Arabic speakers cannot pronounce [p]. They will pronounce [b]. As for example, English *park* = Arab people pronounce *bark*. Not only that, in the case of [d] they have different pronunciation. In case of [v] they pronounce [f]. English *Very* = *Fery* to Arab speakers. The Egyptians cannot pronounce *thanks*. They use to say *Sanks*. They say *sree* instead of *three*. German and Austrian speakers cannot pronounce *thousand*. They use to say *tausend*. The people of South-Asia often face a great problem. The pronunciation of [e, ee and, i] are very confusing to them. It is almost all the Same in the context of the speakers of Eastern –Asia like Japanese, Korean, Thai, Cambodian, and Chinese. These people face a lot of difficulties in distinguishing [b] and [v] as well as the [n] and [1].

The non native learners and teachers also face some difficulties in its syllable structure also. The syllable is a unit of organization in phonology. A syllable consists of a vowel and at least one consonant, though various combinations are possible. The number and type of syllables in a word, phrase or sentence may strongly influence stress and intonation. In English, The word *next* has one syllable. Arab people divide it into two syllables. They pronounce it *nekest*. In English, *excuse me* will be pronounced as *excuse me*. Japanese also often try to force vowels in between the consonants (e.g., *desks* /desks/ becomes "desukusu" or *milk shake* /milk feik/ becomes "mirukushēku")

In English language there are frequent use of **stressed** and **unstressed** syllables and words. These stressed and unstressed syllables and words often create a great confusion among the learners of English from other language. The stressed syllable or syllables in a word are the ones that get pronounced more forcefully. The unstressed syllable or syllables in a word are the ones that get pronounced less forcefully. For example; the adverb *forcefully* has the first syllable stressed, and the other two syllables unstressed: **force**'ful ly. If you said *forceFULLY*, the word would sound wrong. When we ask someone '*where are you from?*' We keep a stress on *from* but when we ask '*are you from around here?*' we keep stress on *here*. In cases of variation of languages, unstressed vowels may be transformed or disappeared. In word *chocolate* has four syllables in Spanish, but Americans pronounce only two: "*choc-lit*".

Moreover, The English native speakers often like to use **Contractions** and **Reductions** which may confuse the language learners of the other regions. In normal speech, English speakers do not say some words clearly- they use a reduced form.

Long form

Reduced form

I don't know.

I *dunno*.

It's nice to meet you.

It's nice to *meetcha*.

We aren't going to open a bank.

We aren't *gonna* open a bank.

Do you want to eat something?

Do you *wanna* eat something?

These reductions also create a great problem for the non-native English teacher also. Because in most of the cases they cannot be able to make it clear to the learners. The syllabic structures and constructions of the words like *dunno*, *meetcha*, *gonna*, *wanna*, *hafta*(have to) are very hazy, critical and unexplainable.

Furthermore, In English language there are frequent use of **Homograph**, **Homophones** and **Homonyms** which are very difficult to identify and to understand the differences and similarity of the words to the learners of English as the second language. Here I give some examples of these three important machineries.

Homograph:

Lead (V)/ (N)/li:d/

Live (have existence) (v)/ lɪv/

Lead (soft metal) /led/

Live (having life /laɪv/ (adjective)

Tear (eye's water) /tɪə(r)

Use (Verb) /ju:z

Tear (make into pieces) /teə(r)

Use (noun) /ju:s

Homophone:

Air ere heir /eə(r)

Meat meet mete /mi:t/

Pare pair pear /peə(r)/

Flew flu flue /flu:/

Homonyms:

Blind/blɑɪnd/: (adj) unable to see.

Blind/blɑɪnd/: Window shadow, screen for a window.

Brook/bruk/: small river.

Brook/bruk/: (verb) to tolerate.

Fast/fa:st/:quick/ rapid/ modern.

Fast/fa:st/:to go without food.

Tender/tendə(r)/: delicate, kind.

Tender/tendə(r)/: offer/ present.

3. Spelling:

Due to the entrance of a lot of words and phrases from different languages like Danish, Norman, French, Classical Latin and Greek, and the frequent use of stressed or unstressed syllable, homograph, homophone, homonyms and contractions, English spelling has become one of the difficult issues for both the learners and the teachers of other languages. Since a written standard developed with the large influx of foreign words and with different and overlapping spelling patterns,¹ Many English words are not spelled as they are spoken. This difference between pronunciation and spelling causes a lot of confusion. The combination "ough" provides an excellent example:

Tough - pronounced -tuf (the u sounds as 'cup')

Through - pronounced - throo

Dough- pronounced- doe (long 'o')

Bought-pronounced- bawt

Swallowed Syllables - Three Syllables Pronounced as Two Syllables:

Aspirin	-	pronounced	-	asprin
Different	-	pronounced	-	diffrent
Every	-	pronounced	-	evry

Swallowed Syllables - Four Syllables Pronounced as Three Syllables:

Comfortable	-	pronounced	-	comftable
Temperature	-	pronounced	-	temprature
Vegetable	-	pronounced	-	vegetable

Sometimes the words sound same:

Two -	to	-too	- pronounced	-	too
Knew-	new		-pronounced	-	niew
through-	threw		-pronounced	-	throo
not-	knot	-naught	-pronounced	-	not

The following letters are silent when pronounced.

D	sandwich	Wednesday	
G	sign	foreign	
K	know	knight	knob
L	should walk	half	
P	psychology		
S	island		
T	whistle listen	fasten	
U	guess	guitar	
W	who	write	wrong

4. Vocabulary:

As English vocabulary is a mixture of various languages, it creates a lot of difficulties and confusion for the foreign learners and teachers of English who wants to acquire English vocabulary. They may know the basic form of the word, but sometimes they may not be acquainted with the other forms for the same thing. For example, from the word **House**, which is basically a plain Germanic word, a number of word In English are built on this basic word.

HOUSE +ING= HOUSING

HOUSE+HOLD= HOUSEHOLD

HOUSE+WIFE= HOUSEWIFE

There are more words whose meaning is **HOUSE** and **HOME** related based on Latin word **DOMUS** (home). These are: **DOMESTIC**, **DOMICILE** and **DOMESTICITY**. There is also another set of words based on the Latin word **RESIDERE**. These include RESIDE, **RESIDENT**, **RESIDENCE** and **RESIDENTIAL**. People of many other languages only use a single basic form, but Native English Speakers, learners and teachers often use two or three different forms.

In the context of vocabulary, sometimes the non-native speakers become confused to see the words that are a little bit different from **American** and **British English** according to meaning and appearance. "Although, the differences between British and American pronunciation are not such as should cause any alarm for the future, any fear that Englishmen and Americans may become unintelligible to each other."²

Americans speak more slowly and with less variety of tone. "American speech is much more monotonous but it is generally more distinct in its division of syllable than those of British type".³ American Speeches is more 'nasal twang' biased than the British one.⁴ Here are some examples of American and British words.

British English

Colour
Labour
Favourite
Centre
Theatre
Analogue
Catalogue
Cheque
Disc
Car
Railway
Windshield
Lorry
First Floor
Programme
Plough

American English

Color
Labor
Favorite
Center
Theater
Analog
Catalog
check
Disk
Automobile
Railroad
Wind screen
Truck
Ground Floor
Program
plow

Moreover, there are a number of **Phrasal verbs** which differs between British and American English. For example, in order to express the idea of telephoning someone, British people use **to ring someone up** whereas the Americans prefer the expression **to call someone**.

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5. Grammar:

Grammar is clearly at the center of learning any language. “But it is equally clear that its nature cannot be accounted for by demonstrating its rules by a random use of any lexical items that come to mind.”⁵ Because of these various lexical items and forms, complicated rules and regulations, teachers and learners of other languages strive and they are often unable to understand the appropriate meaning of any sentence or word on first or second reading. Here we discuss some grammatical items which are very hazy for the people of other languages.

Number is a category of **noun** by which **persons, animals and objects** can be counted and referred to. There are two numbers in English language: Singular and Plural. But in **Sanskrit** and **Greek** there are three numbers: Singular, Dual and plural. In the Chinese and Vietnamese there is no grammatical category of number. In these languages the distinction between **one** and **many** is made by means of numeral or a word meaning ‘**several**’.⁶ There are many words which often confuse the foreign learners in the context of numbers. For example, the Plural of **cat** is **cats**, **goat** is **goats** but the plural of **sheep** is **sheep** and the plural of **deer** is **deer**. There are more words whose plural often confuse the learners of foreign language.

Singular	Plural
Life	Lives
Half	Halves
Roof	Roofs
Dwarf	Dwarfs
Safe	Safes
Staff	Staffs

We see the variation of the use of s/es/ves. There are some words whose plurals are formed by changing vowels.

Singular	Plural
Man	Men
Goose	Geese
Foot	Feet
Mouse	Mice
Louse	Lice

There are some words while changing into plural we have to add en, ren, ne.

Singular	Plural
Ox	Oxen
Child	Children
Brother	Brethren/Brothers
Cow	Kine/cows

Moreover, in English Numbers, there are some Greek and Latin words which are very confusing to the non native speakers and learners.

Singular	Plural
Axis	Axes
Analysis	Analyses
Parenthesis	Parentheses
Alumnus	Alumni
Focus	Foci
Syllabus	Syllabi
Agenda	Agendum
Datum	Data
Media	Medium
Memorandum	Memoranda

Many foreign learners of English language are often confused and cannot differentiate the dealings of **tenses** between Present Continuous and Present Perfect Continuous, between past continuous and past perfect continuous, and between future continuous and future perfect continuous. For example:

I am doing my duty carefully. (Present continuous)

I have been doing my duty carefully since morning. (Present perfect continuous)

He was doing the work (past continuous).

He had been doing the work (past perfect continuous).

He will be waiting for you (future continuous).

He will have been waiting for you (future perfect continuous).

The structure of these tenses is different, but it is very difficult to identify the action of time for a foreign learners.

The great problem which the learners of foreign language face is the use of **regular** and **irregular** verbs. They become confused to see that while changing tenses, some verbs end with **ed** and some do not, some have different forms. To avoid this confusion the teachers often suggest learners to memorize. Memorizing grammatical items is obviously a tough job for the foreign learners.

6. Suggestions:

Keeping all these in mind, we can consider as well as allow the learners and, to some extent, teachers in cases of pronunciation, spelling and vocabulary and grammar also. We should keep in mind that EFL and ESL learners have a lot of problem because their native tongue may not have that particular sound. Although it's very difficult to memorize IPA for foreign learners, it's an essential part of learning correct pronunciation. Teachers can choose the drilling method with easy words.

In real class room situations, language teachers should articulate words naturally, so that learners can receive exact pronunciation- not too slow, not too fast. Learners need to hear each sound clearly.

Regarding vocabulary and spelling, teachers can avoid over emphasizing spelling rules. It should be remembered that thinking is more important than memorizing which leads to more permanent learning. To enhance the number of vocabulary, EFL and ESL learners can read the text more and more. They should find the books to read their own. The more they read the more new word's they will see and the more they will learn about the words. Foreign learners are suggested to create a personal dictionary to keep a record of key vocabularies and transition words. They can practice building stories, essays and paragraphs using the recorded words. The teachers and parents can engage the learners of preliminary in conversations every day. Teachers should articulate new and interesting words in their conversation with students. Sometimes it is the best to allow the EFL learners to read passages and simply skip words they cannot decode or read.

Grammar classes shouldn't be too much formal. Many interesting things like examples, stories etc can be added by the teachers while teaching grammatical rules

in the class room. They should use various examples to avoid monotony. Teachers can apply the audio-visual methods to make the grammar class more interesting to the learners. If the examples of a particular item of grammar are delivered to them from our practical life, it must be more fruitful. After a lecture on grammar part, teachers can take a test and ask the learners to locate the grammatical mistakes. They can allow their students to cross check to find out any mistake or a teacher can ask students to find and correct errors in a particularly troubled paper, using a handbook and working out the grammar rules together.

7. Conclusion:

From the above discussions it is clear that I have found some issues to prove that there are some difficulties and challenges while learning and teaching English as a second language. Though through this article I have wanted to prove some difficulties and challenges to learn as well as to teach English as a second language, no one can deny the fact that English has become the most popular language to communicate among the people of different countries, different cultures and different languages. And most of the people of other language very easily can learn or teach English. Because it has only twenty six letters, very easily understandable grammatical rules and very sober pronunciation. Whereas twenty eight letters are in Arabic alphabet, fifty in Bengali, thirty eight in Urdu. Chinese don't have any alphabet. They have sounds called *Pinyin*. On the other hand, many words are borrowed frequently to English language. And for this reason, many speakers of other language find some familiar words of his own language which has paved the way for English language to become a global language.

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From Direct Method to Immersion in Adult L2 Learning. Hidden Aspects.

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Abstract

The *direct method* is a method that refrains from using the learner's first language and excludes written materials. It emphasizes the learner receiving large amounts of [comprehensible input](#), from which he must deduce grammatical rules.

The benefits of the immersion method are well known, but immersion is not suitable for everybody. Few studies have examined the subjective and emotional aspects of adult immersion. Our study was led in experimental L2 classes and deals with the perceptions, attitudes and feelings of adult learners. It aims to understand the emotional aspects of learners involved in L2 immersion classes for adults where L1 is not used. The lessons were based on question-answer sessions, which began with greetings, introductions, and naming objects, and then on accomplishing communicative language tasks. All the participants were volunteers. They were asked to keep a diary in order to record their perceptions, feelings, frustrations, attitudes and other subjective information. The target language was Esperanto that has a very clear grammar without exceptions.

The results show deep differences in feelings and attitudes. Our findings deal also with aspects such as learners' attention, metalinguistic awareness, compensatory strategies, self-esteem and perception of proficiency in L2 that affect L2 learning.

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Direct method

The direct method is an approach in second language teaching that advocates the exclusive use of the language being taught in the classroom. This method gained popularity at the end of the 19th century and at the beginning of the 20th (cf. Puren, 1991, Germain, 1993, Martinez, 1996). It prioritizes oral expression and comprehension and, in its most radical version, dismisses the written form, at least at the beginning of the learning process. The learner must listen to statements and reproduce them in context, and then decipher the rules of the language. The method is meant to be imitative and intuitive: the learner imitates the teacher and guesses in order to deduce meaning and rules. The repetition of the structures given by the teacher must lead to assimilation and use in context. Rather than stockpiling knowledge about the language, the learner acquires the language by using it. The direct method forces learners to speak from the very beginning so as not to train “scholarly” learners who master the rules of a language and its vocabulary but are incapable of communicating with it.

The selection of learning materials must be done very carefully in order to allow the learner to isolate words and expressions, and deduce grammatical rules. The teacher must therefore avoid producing statements that combine several new elements to be managed at once. The direct method relies on context, gestures, and mime. The teacher uses different objects to facilitate comprehension. Learners are asked to manipulate objects as they repeat statements, for example: *I give the pen to Mark* – as the learner makes the gesture accompanying the statement. Of course, priority is given to concrete subjects. Highly contextualized exchanges and intensive repetition bring the learners to think in the target language.

Methodology of the experiment

Immersion as a means of teaching L2 drew upon certain elements of the direct method. Immersion is considered to be a quick and effective way to learn a language, although some learners aren't able to learn in these conditions. To understand the reasons behind the successes and failures resulting from the method, we focussed on the ways in which learners experience immersion. This was a qualitative study.

The experiment took place in Canada. We offered an immersion experience to 55 students divided into 5 groups. The author of this article took on the role of the teacher. The students were registered in a university program that trains second language teachers for adults. The teaching language of this program is French. Of the 55 participants, 22 are second language teachers. The immersion setting was offered in order for them to have a similar experience to that of learners in immersion classes, and to make them aware of the emotional and affective aspects at play, that teachers often don't know about. Three sessions of 20 minutes were spaced out over 3 weeks (once a week, during class time). All the students were enthusiastic about participating in the experiment. Performances in the L2 were not being evaluated, and the participants knew this. However, the students had to use a diary to record the feelings, emotions, attitudes and thoughts that arose during the experiment. No grids were provided and participants were free to choose what they wrote in their diary. Participants took notes at the end of each session, and completed them at home. They were not allowed to record the sessions or take notes during the sessions.

The language being taught was Esperanto, which has a distinct pronunciation and a grammar that does not include any exceptions to rules. Participants didn't know what language was being taught. They were asked to refrain from trying to guess the language, looking for information outside the classroom or discussing the experiment with each other. The majority of the students kept their promise, while others either guessed what the language was, or sought to identify it, mainly by looking up easily accessible information about the teacher such as her teaching and research subjects. At the end of the experiment, each participant turned in his or her diary. For learning purposes, each group decided to compile the diary entries so that they might have an exchange about the experience.

The teachings in Esperanto included introductions (name, profession, children), the identification of objects in the room (*table, bag, pen, cat*, etc.), adjectives of colour, numbers, personal pronouns (*I, you, she, he, you* (plur.)), basic verbs (*to be, to have, to give, to put*) in the present form (*-as*) and the infinitive (*-i*), prepositions (*to, in, into, on, under, between*), and the markings of parts of discourse that are added onto nouns and adjectives: *-o* for nouns, *-a* for adjectives, *-e* for adverbs, *-j* for the plural and *-n* for the accusative. On a lexical level, 80% of the vocabulary of Esperanto is of Latin origin, which makes the language quite transparent for French speakers. *Annex 1* contains examples of sentences and words used during the immersion experiment. The immersion began with the teacher presenting and describing a Pinocchio puppet, immediately followed by the following statements: *My name is Claire. I am a student. His name is Pierre. He is a student. What's your name?* etc. A bag full of objects was used to introduce new words. From time to time, the teacher let the learners guess the word in Esperanto, namely in cases where there were similarities between the word in Esperanto and in French, for example: *tablo* /*table* "table", *krokodilo* /*crocodile* "crocodile", *doni* / *donner* "to give". Gestures, miming, or objects supported all of the teacher's statements. The learners were invited to follow suit.

Table 1 presents the composition of the groups that participated in the experiment: the number of participants per group, the gender of the participants and the number of L2 teachers in the group.

Table 1 *Composition of the groups*

Group	Number of participants	Gender		L2 teachers
		M	F	
1	15	7	8	6
2	14	1	13	5
3	9	3	6	3
4	11	3	8	5
5	6	0	6	3
Total	55	14	41	22

It is of note that most of the participants speak at least 3 languages and have lived or spent time abroad.

The analyses of the participants' immersion experiences are based on the freely recorded writings in each diary. We understand that while this data is not exhaustive, the information contained in the diaries was sufficiently important to be shared.

Analyses and discussion

The choice to use Esperanto for the immersion experiment made it easier for the learners to decipher the language being taught, as it gave them the opportunity to draw on words of Latin origin. As one participant put it: "The language wasn't totally opaque; it was a choice that was reassuring, that didn't cause linguistic electroshock."

Since it was forbidden to take notes during the sessions, the experiment called for the learners to use their listening skills and their auditory memory. While writing is certainly the most reliable way of recording things, auditory memory is relegated to the background when we take notes on everything. Most of the participants mentioned that not being allowed to take notes was a difficult, almost painful element of the experiment. The metaphors used by the learners to describe the onslaught of words in an unknown language are quite strong: "it's like having a train go by under your nose" or "it's an avalanche of words over which we have no control."

The scenario in which appeared the Pinocchio puppet, and the element of surprise of the bag from which the teacher took out objects, drew the learners in, allowing them to forget, from time to time, the necessity of performing in the new language:

"I'm talking about the magic bag from which the teacher takes things out in an attempt to imprint them on our memory through a kind of funny dynamic. The use of this technique is clearly effective, since it both captures the attention and neutralises the students' nervousness and apprehension."

Being part of a group had a variable effect on participants. Some would have liked to be alone with the teacher: in the presence of their classmates, they felt uncomfortable and overwhelmed, and doubted their own abilities. By the same token, it pushed them to seek out strategies to stay on track and participate fully in the experience:

"You could see the fear of the unknown in the participants, crossed arms revealing the usual stress of the first day of a class. [...] Once again, self-perception appeared and this time, I had the impression that I wasn't able to remember as many things as my classmates, nor as quickly. This didn't discourage me, but I asked myself: why can't I memorize as much information as quickly as the others? Am I a little slow as well as deaf? [...] As opposed to the feeling of helplessness, it was also really satisfying when, for the first time, I took some chances and was able to produce a phrase that I made up myself. The teacher noticed and really appreciated it."

On the contrary, other learners relied on the group: "Some quickly tried to express themselves in this language. Their involvement encouraged me... When the level of difficulty (comprehension and speaking) was too much, I felt overwhelmed by the effort. Otherwise, it was the opposite: it made me want to continue."

“Distress”, however, stimulates reflection about method and makes one take stock of one’s positive attributes:

“(Session 1:) On top of not understanding anything, I was under the impression that my classmates understood, which made me feel even more inadequate. I had a headache, was hungry and tired and kept drifting back to my mental list of things to do, a negative experience that would normally have been enough to make me want to give up. The task of decoding this new language seemed impossible. (Session 2:) This made me realize the crucial importance of the role of the teacher and the impact of interpersonal skills on the effectiveness of the direct method. I wasn’t bothered by my hunger or my preoccupations, but rather by being in a group. I would have liked to be alone with my teacher. The lack of theoretical support weighed on me, as well as social pressure. (Session 3:) The last session was a turning point. I was flabbergasted at the extent to which I understood. I had to face the facts: this method – although I found it very aggressive – works. I worked through my initial psychological blockage and wanted to know more. Even on an oral level, I was less shy and able to say a few words. One therefore needs a high tolerance for effort and frustrations before achieving success.”

“I realized that total immersion could also prevent a person from thinking in his mother tongue. However, it could be a big challenge if the L1 of the person is too far removed typologically from the target language.”

“I noticed that even though we would like to not have an ego and not take standards into account, shyness and apprehension can surface. I was impressed by several aspects of this method, such as the ability to deduce grammar rules without grammar lessons and without taking or constantly rereading notes.”

De Courcy (2002), who analyses L2 immersion experiences, observes the different strategies learners employ to compensate for stress and frustration. Her data indicated that the learners of Chinese “tended to blame the teacher, the exercises, the program or some other external feature for their feelings of frustration and stupidity (p. 80) [...] For the French class, one way of coping with stress was to escape mentally – to think of something totally unconnected with the lesson (p. 81).”

For some participants, sudden and unconscious changes to their state of mind affected their perception of things. These disruptions translated into alternating moments of frustration and satisfaction:

“All of my senses were on alert to detect, to decode these waves of words. I am participating well and am enjoying it a lot. I had underestimated the capacity of my memory, which I always qualify as being declining. [...] But this statement, somewhat hastily made, will give way to confusion during the next session: I suddenly feel like a stranger, lost. I don’t

understand the blockage. Why, all of a sudden, do I not want to make an effort; is it because I don't understand? No, I think it's the fact that I'm not memorising well that frustrates me so much."

The participants manage stress and frustration differently. While some let themselves get overwhelmed by negative feelings, others quickly seek out ways of getting through it:

"I changed the way in which I participate: instead of looking for landmarks in relation to things I know, I started to listen more carefully, without calling upon my knowledge. My brain can't be working in the background while the teacher speaks. [...] Afterward, frustration, or even an emotion close to panic, in relation to memory [...] Finally, I stop worrying if I don't manage to remember the words immediately."

"The first session is enjoyable, frustrating and exhausting. I am still curious to learn more. The second session goes much better, even though it's more intense. When it's over, I don't feel exhausted like I did the week before."

The experiment demonstrated the existence of "happy" learners who do not feel shy, frustrated or stressed at any moment during the three immersion sessions. In reading their summaries, we notice that their curiosity is so great that it does not leave room for any negative feeling:

"I enjoyed experiencing this immersion activity in a mysterious language, in a classroom. I actually found the activity to be really fun, and the sessions somewhat short. It didn't bother me that I couldn't take notes in this type of situation. I really like taking the time required to hear and understand what is being said."

The fact that participants were not allowed to take notes during the sessions provoked strong reactions and was a hot topic of discussion. However, it did not seem to bother the "happy" learners, who interpreted it as a simple change in the way of doing things that, as a bonus, improved oral comprehension. When learners compared themselves to others, they were generally more negative towards themselves, though this did not seem to be an issue for the "happy" learners, as explained by one of the participants:

"I noticed that I was not used to not seeing the written version of the words, but that we still learn well despite this, if the teacher takes the time to repeat the words until everyone understands them. In fact, I had the impression that this fostered a better understanding. During the second session, I didn't feel like we had to perform or that we were comparing ourselves to each other. I mostly approached this session like a game. [...]"

If the literature on L2 teaching puts a lot of emphasis on the approaches used in teaching, on the attitude of benevolent, positive teachers, and on a stress-free environment, it has little to say about the self-regulation of learners' emotions. In trying to make L2 learning enjoyable, we are making a mistake in taking away the learners' sense of responsibility. Take for example the titles of these bestselling

methods: *13 Secrets for Speaking Fluent Japanese*, *Rush Hour German*, *Learn Russian the Fast and Fun Way*, *Talk Now Breton* – people are buying into a dream, but there is no guarantee that they will actually learn anything. A new wave of methods, whatever the subject to be studied, opens up another dimension: *Arabic for Dummies*, *Programming for Dummies*, etc. Success does not depend on the teacher, but rather on the learner. The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* puts a lot of emphasis on the skills of discovery and the abilities to develop in order to learn how to learn. By placing the learner at the centre of the learning, in accordance with the action-oriented approach, the learner is not seen as a client, but as a co-author of his or her success or failure. In practice, however, this vision of things is quite rare among learners.

The anxiety of learners has been the subject of several studies in second language acquisition (cf. Lozanov, 1979, MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, MacIntyre, 2002, Dewaele, 2011, Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1996). Spielmann & Radnofsky (2001) consider that, contrary to the negative aspects of stress, the potentially beneficial effects of tension have not been sufficiently studied. Lack of knowledge about the process of the appropriation of an L2 and about the immersion method puts learners, who are often familiar with a traditional approach focussing on grammar, in a situation in which they lose their bearings and find themselves unprepared to follow a different kind of teaching. Spielmann & Radnofsky (2001) note:

“The tension we discuss in this report appeared as a very individual phenomenon which occurs uniquely in the reality of each student and is closely linked to personal expectations and a priori beliefs, especially about learning. As a result, its causes and effects defy systematization, especially when it comes to achievement. Yet, we discovered that students reacted most positively when they thought that whatever tension they experienced — dysphoric or euphoric, affective or cognitive — was somehow productive because its apparent causes were motivated by a pedagogical and didactical strategy they recognized as valid, regardless of the intrinsic value we SLA specialists might want to ascribe to any particular method” (p. 274).

Adult learners have to exercise a certain amount of control over their learning and understand the reasons behind a choice of methodology, the purpose of the exercises given by the teacher, as well as the results they can expect to achieve at the end of the course. L2 teachers are not always conscious of the upheaval that immersion provokes in learners and consequently cannot prepare the learners to experience immersion serenely. Rare is the L2 teacher who has had a personal experience of immersion as a learner. We consider that as part of their training, L2 teachers should experiment with different teaching methods, not only as teachers but also as learners.

The experiment that lasted for a total of one hour proved to be very rich in emotions. However, the participants were not L2 novices: they already had a significant background in language learning as well as field experience. At times, some participants used very strong words to describe their feelings throughout the experiment: *training torture*, *frustration at not being able to take notes*, *a state resembling panic*, *great confusion*, *feeling of powerlessness*. The act of sharing the feelings that arose during the classes helped to overcome the fear of being *worse than*

the others. In real life, exchanges about the feelings that come up during language classes are rather rare. It seems to us to be extremely important to devote some class time to this aspect to allow learners to become aware that immersion is not always easy and that they are not alone in thinking so, instead of letting their self-esteem dwindle in the face of difficulties.

The learners' general state of mind at the time of the sessions greatly affected their performances and attitudes: end-of-the-day fatigue translated into poor concentration, a desire to mentally escape, and weak performances. Even though almost all of the learners worked during the day before coming to the course at night, some were able to make a greater effort at concentrating than others. Immersion requires permanent alertness. We must admit that not all learners are ready to make this effort.

Even though the learners' performances were not to be evaluated in this experiment, we noticed that most of the learners were very critical of themselves and of their L2 production, including those who were doing extremely well. The learners were very harsh in their judgement of their performances that, from the perspective of the teacher, did not necessarily deserve it.

Getting back to our "happy" learners, our analyses show a correlation on the one hand between a great sense of curiosity and the ability to "play the part", and on the other, between stress, frustration and fear of not performing as well as the others. Out of 55 participants, 21 didn't experience any negative feelings, or worry about their ego, nor about their performance in the way of production. Their curiosity for new things and new experiences, their ability to live with uncertainty, to let go and accept the game proved to be decisive. Their interest and curiosity were sufficiently strong to quell any performance anxiety: *"I have to admit that only curiosity and the joy of learning accompany me, along with a touch of insecurity"*. What's more, the immersion experience became an *"intense stimulation of this curiosity"* for the learners. The fact of having had similar experiences (immersion classes, the necessity of having to communicate in a language they have not mastered) is another element that played in their favour. The challenge for the teacher in such a situation would then be to help the learners survive their "first time" and allow them to openly share their thoughts and feelings with the group.

Conclusion

We analyzed the way in which a group of learners experienced experimental immersion. Despite eliminating any evaluation of the performances and the necessity of remembering the materials being taught for future use, and despite emphasizing the experimental nature of the teaching, we notice that an important emotional charge accompanies the immersion experience for learners of an adult age. In this paper, we have voluntarily given a lot of space to the writings of the learners' diaries in order to give them a voice.

The North-American context is often criticized for focussing too much on subjective elements that could even be qualified as sentimental (*I'm upset because the teacher asked me to answer in front of the group*) to the detriment of the learners' responsibility to make an effort and succeed in their course. The teacher is often held responsible for the failures and frustrations of students. Our participants hail from 24

different countries, which allows us to say that our observations are not marked by culture. Through the diaries, each participant was able to see the complexity of the subjective factors that affect the learning of an L2, even in a purely experimental situation.

Our analyses lead us to conclude that a great deal of subjectivity interferes with learning in an immersion setting, and that good management of subjective factors (stress, social shyness, self-perception, etc.) is crucial, especially at the beginning of the L2 learning process. Our analyses show a great variability when it comes to the attitudes adopted by the learners. We consider that further research is required to highlight the strategies, aptitudes and attitudes of effective learners and polyglots, since even the most effective method, regardless of the efforts of the teacher, is not sufficient to learn a second language – or to teach one.

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ANNEX 1

Examples of sentences and words used during the immersion experiment

Bonan tagon! – *Good afternoon!*
Saluton! – *Hello!*
Kiel vi fartas? – *How are you?*
Dankon! – *Thanks.*
Bonvolu! – *Please.*
Ripetu! – *Repeat!*
Tre bone. – *Very well.*
Mi nomiĝas Anne. – *My name is Anne.*
Kiel vi nomiĝas ? – *What is your name?*
Mi parolas la francan kaj la anglan. – *I speak French and English.*
Mi estas studento/instruisto. – *I am a student/teacher (m).*
Mi estas studentino/instruistino. – *I am a student/teacher (f).*
Kion vi instruas ? – *What do you teach?*
Mi instruas la francan/hispanan lingvon. – *I teach French/Spanish.*
Mi havas du infanojn. – *I have two children.*
Li havas hundon. – *He has a dog.*
La kato estas nigra. – *The cat is black.*
La sako estas granda. – *The bag is big.*
Mi havas librojn, skribilojn, ŝlosilojn kaj krokodilon en mia sako. – *I have books, pens, keys and a crocodile in my bag.*
Mi metas la vortaron en la sakon. – *I put the dictionary in the bag.*
Mi donas la floron al Leila. – *I give the flower to Leila.*
Kie estas Maria ? – ŝi estas apud Marco – *Where is Maria? – she is next to Marco.*
Kiom da librojn vi havas ? – *How many books do you have?*

Koloroj – Colours

Nigra – *black*
Blanka – *white*
Ruĝa – *red*
Flava – *yellow*
Verda – *green*
Blua – *blue*
Bruna – *brown*
Oranĝa – *orange*

Numeroj – Numbers

1 – unu
2 – du
3 – tri
4 – kvar
5 – kvin
6 – ses

7 – sep
8 – ok
9 – naũ
10 – dek



*Errors Analysis in Hanyu Pinyin Pronunciation among the Undergraduates from
Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), Engineering Campus*

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Abstract

Mandarin is a tone language, which every Chinese word has a fixed tone. If a tone is changed, the meaning of the word will be changed. Thus, identifying the Hanyu Pinyin pronunciation mistakes is essential and should be prioritized by Mandarin instructors. Numerous pronunciation errors were identified among the undergraduates who were the non-native speakers with difficulties in pronunciation, communication and listening skills in Mandarin. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the pronunciation problems faced by the students as non-native speakers in consonants, vowels and tones based on the Hanyu Pinyin system. The findings of the study show consonant constitutes the highest number of errors (68.29%) as compared to the tone (13.66%) and vowel (18.5%). Among the consonants, most of the students committed errors in the pronunciation of "zh" as 16.43% while the second place goes to the consonant "z", which constitutes 13.57% of errors. The highest inaccuracy in vowel pronunciation happens to the last phoneme "s" as 82.14% while most students had made errors in the second tone as 56.76% and the third tone as 24.32%. Hence, it can be concluded that the undergraduates were suffering from mastering the Mandarin pronunciation, which had been greatly influenced by Malay language as their first language or mother tongue.

Keywords—Hanyu Pinyin, consonants, vowels, tones

INTRODUCTION

Mandarin is one of the oldest languages in the world. In the 21st century, mandarin has gained greater attention among the non-Chinese students. It has also become their favorite third language subject in Malaysia including the undergraduates from USM Engineering Campus. Nevertheless, the non-native speakers of Mandarin always encounter oral communication problem, particularly in pronunciation. Mandarin is a tonal language, which its phonetic system is different from Malay and English. Therefore, the listeners may encounter the problem in understanding accurately what the non-native Mandarin speakers' exact meanings. Thus, by identifying the errors in consonants, vowels, and tones found in the conversations among the non-native speakers, Mandarin instructors can devise their teaching strategies in helping students to master Mandarin pronunciation system easier and more effective.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Undergraduates from USM Engineering Campus are required to register for the third language courses such as LAC 100, LAC 200 and LAC 300. However, the Mandarin phonetic system or Hanyu Pinyin varies from their first language, Malay, particularly in pronunciation system. Therefore, throughout the learning process of these Mandarin courses, the distinctive pronunciation system happened to the students bring communication difficulties in Mandarin. Since Mandarin is a tone language, which every word has a fixed tone, the non-native students are hard to learn and master Mandarin pronunciation effectively.

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

Based on the problem statement highlighted earlier, this study aims to identify the errors in terms of consonants, vowels and tones in Mandarin faced by students in USM Engineering Campus. The analysis of Mandarin pronunciation errors is significant and should be prioritized by Mandarin instructors. Proper teaching strategies can be planned on how to teach Mandarin pronunciation effectively using Hanyu Pinyin in order to help the non-native speakers in mastering the right Mandarin pronunciation as well as increasing their interest and confidence in learning Mandarin.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Since Malaysia gained its independence in 1957, Malay language has been granted as the National language. In response to the fast economic growth of China, the Malaysian government has identified Mandarin as a foreign language required to be taught to Malaysian undergraduates (Hoe & Mah, 2011). Since the Mandarin-speaking population grows rapidly around the world, Mandarin become one of the most preferred foreign languages in Malaysian universities (Hoe & Mah, 2009). According to Hoe and Mah (2009) and Hoe and Mah (2011), below are the general descriptions of the Malaysian undergraduate students' language background:

1. Malay language is their first language or mother tongue;

2. Malay language is used as the medium of instruction in their primary and secondary schools;
3. English is learnt as a second language; and
4. They do not possess the background knowledge of Mandarin.

According to Shi (1992), the Mandarin pronunciation system is a point of cultural development of the language. He stresses that Hanyu Pinyin pronunciation is the most important element in learning Mandarin. Thus, the study of errors in Hanyu Pinyin pronunciation such as consonants, vowels, and tone is very important for Mandarin instructors to identify the problems faced by their students as non-native speakers. According to Zhao (2000), the main problem that prevents the non-native speakers to learn and master the accurate pronunciation is due to the difference of pronunciation system existing between their third and their first languages.

The four tones found in different Mandarin words are a difficult aspect to master by students who used to speak in their native language. If the tone is changed, the meaning of the word will be different. According to Wee (2002), in general, the existence of a variety in retroflex (zh, ch, sh, r) and alveolo-palatal (x) are among the varieties found in Hanyu Pinyin pronunciation system. Besides, Cheun, Hoe, and Ho (2005) have found that most students make a lot of mistakes in the affricate consonant (zh, ch, z, c, j, q). With respect to the vowel pronunciation, students commit the most mistakes in pronouncing the final phoneme, ü.

METHODOLOGY

30 undergraduates from semester 1, 2011/2012 session in USM Engineering Campus were involved in the study. All of them were non-native speakers of Mandarin who were randomly selected as the sample of the three Mandarin classes at different proficiency levels: LAC 100, LAC 200, and LAC 300. They consist of six different schools in USM, namely School of Chemical Sciences, School of Civil Engineering, School of Materials & Mineral Resources Engineering, School of Electrical & Electronic Engineering, School of Mechanical Engineering, and School of Aerospace Engineering. Out of the 30 selected samples, 15 students come from class LAC 100, nine students come from class LAC 200, and 6 students come from class LAC 300.

Researchers examined the students' pronunciation in a form of a Hanyu Pinyin table. The researchers recorded the students' reading in Hanyu Pinyin using the multimedia system available at the language lab 1 and language lab 2 in the School of Language, Literacy and Translation, USM. Then, a survey was conducted by distributing the questionnaires to the subjects. The discussion of findings from the data analysis were further supported by references obtained from extensive literature review including online and offline academic articles, journals and theses from bookstores, book fairs, as well as libraries of Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM) and University of Malaya (UM).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Errors in Mandarin Consonant Pronunciation (Initial Phoneme)

Analytical studies on Chinese consonant pronunciation mistakes as follows:

Consonant		Frequency of Errors	Percentage of Overall
Labial Consonant	b	1	0.71
	p	1	0.71
Alveolar Consonant	d	1	0.71
	t	1	0.71
Velar Consonant	g	2	1.43
	k	1	0.71
Palatal Consonants	j	6	4.29
	q	10	7.14
	x	8	5.72
Retroflex Consonant	zh	23	16.43
	ch	21	15
	sh	16	11.43
	r	4	2.86
Dental Sibilant Consonant	z	19	13.51
	c	16	11.43
	s	8	5.72
Typical Consonant	y	2	1.43
TOTAL		140	100

Table 1: Frequency and percentage errors in Mandarin consonants

Table 1 shows the highest number of mistakes committed by the LAC students is retroflex consonant "zh", which is 16.43% of the overall errors while the second highest is another retroflex consonant "ch" as many as 15%. This is followed by the error in pronouncing dental sibilant consonants "z", which has achieved 13.57%. The percentage of error for retroflex consonants "sh" and dental sibilant consonants "c" is same, namely 11.43%. The percentage of error for labial consonants "b" and "p", alveolar consonant "d" and "t", as well as the velar consonant "k" is same, namely 0.71%. The analysis also shows that students did not make any mistakes of labial consonants "m" and "f", alveolar consonants "n" and "l", velar consonant "h" and special consonant "w".

From the findings, it is apparent that most Malays made a lot of mistakes in pronouncing retroflex consonants. Malay students are found difficult to master the right expression of retroflex consonant and dental sibilant consonant due to the influence of their mother tongue, the Malay language. They were not able to acquire the aspirated consonants like "ch" and "c" due to the absence of this phonetic feature in Malay language. In addition, they are not familiar with the movement of the tongue and feel confused during the pronunciation of retroflex consonants such as "zh", "ch", "sh" and "r". Therefore, the mother tongue interference becomes the major factor of pronunciation errors in these specific types of Mandarin consonants.

Errors in Mandarin Vowel Pronunciation (Rear Phoneme)

Vowel	Frequency of Errors	Percentage of Overall Errors (%)
Final phoneme -u	5	17.86
Final phoneme -ü	23	82.14
TOTAL	28	100

Table 2: Frequency and percentage of errors in Mandarin vowels

Table 2 shows the students had committed the highest number of errors in pronouncing vowel "ü", that is as much as 82.15%. The second place goes to the vowel "u", which is 17.86%. The analysis shows that students did not make any error in the final phoneme "a", "o", "e" and "i". Most of the vowels in Malay and English languages are similar to Mandarin vowels except the "ü" which is unique to Mandarin pronunciation. Since Malay and English languages have no vowel "ü", this factor may lead to the confusion and the non-native speakers of Mandarin often mistakenly pronounce "ü" as "i" or "u".

Errors in Mandarin Tones

Tone	Frequency of Errors	Percentage of Overall Errors (%)
First	2	5.41
Second	21	56.76
Third	9	24.32
Fourth	5	13.51
TOTAL	37	100

Table 3: Frequency and percentage of errors in Mandarin tones

Mandarin is a tone language. Pronunciation errors caused by Mandarin tone can be divided into four categories: the first tone, the second tone, the third tone, and the fourth tone. By referring to Table 3, the students faced the problem in pronouncing the second tone, which has reached 56.76% of the total errors. This can be the evidence of the great challenge in Mandarin tone mastery, which they usually find it the most difficult and confusing. The second highest number of errors is the third tone, which is 24.32%. This is followed by the fourth tone as 13.51% and the first tone as 5.41%.

From the survey conducted in the classroom, most students thought they had problem to learn Mandarin. They were confused to distinguish the second tone with the third tone, sometimes include the neutral tone. These findings indicate Malay students often utter Mandarin words in the second tone because for them the second tone sounds relatively similar like the third tone. When they speak Mandarin in faster speed, the pronunciation becomes unclear and not smooth. Besides, the subjects also stated that it was very hard for them to lower down and rise up the tones in their utterances. Some students found themselves difficult to identify the pronunciation of certain words such as qíng and qǐng. The students' feedback is significantly supported by the error analysis which lack of students were found facing the problem in pronouncing the first tone. As overall, the findings of this study show most of the

undergraduate students have made a lot of mistakes in Mandarin tone and consonants as compared to vowels. The ratio of Mandarin pronunciation errors in percentage among the consonant, vowel, and tone is 68.29: 13.66: 18.05.

CONCLUSION

Mandarin as the oldest and the most spoken languages in the world, has gained its momentous status and priority in foreign language learning. Though Mandarin has gained greater attention among the non-Chinese undergraduates in USM Engineering Campus, they are always encountering oral communication problem by making a lot of pronunciation errors. Due to the Mandarin phonetic system is different from the learners' first language, the results of the study show the students who are non-native speakers of Mandarin were very difficult to master the pronunciation due to their mother tongue interference. Consonant constitutes the highest number of errors (68.29%) as compared to the tone (13.66%) and vowel (18.5%). Therefore, Mandarin pronunciation errors should be investigated from time to time as they become those errors will demotivate the students to learn and master the language and distort the effective Mandarin communication among the others across the globe. Therefore, research on the factors contributing to these pronunciation errors as well as the effective teaching strategies of Mandarin pronunciation are recommended as the further study.

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APPENDIX

SOAL SELIDIK

MASALAH DAN STRATEGI PENGAJARAN ASPEK SEBUTAN BAHASA CINA DALAM KALANGAN PELAJAR KAMPUS KEJURUTERAAN, UNIVERSITI SAINS MALAYSIA (USM).

Kepada pelajar-pelajar LAC 100, LAC 200 dan LAC 300.

Sila menjawab soalan yang berikut, kerjasama anda amat dihargai.

SOALAN I: Mengenai dengan Hanyu Pinyin

a) Terdapat 23 konsonan dalam Hanyu Pinyin, yang mana satu sebutan konsonan yang paling sukar bagi anda? Sila bulati konsonan-konsonan tersebut.

b	p	m	f
d	t	n	l
g	k	h	
j	q	x	
zh	ch	sh	r
z	c	s	
y	w		

Mengapa?

b) Terdapat 6 vokal tunggal iaitu a,o,e,i,u, ũ, yang mana satu sebutan vokal tunggal yang paling sukar? Sila bulati vokal-vokal tersebut.

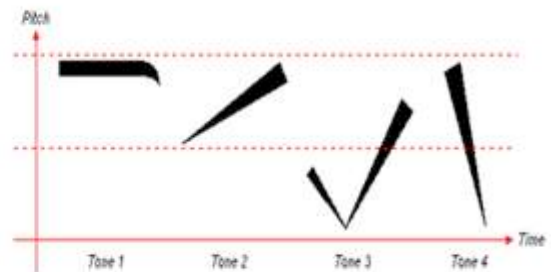
a , o , e , i , u , ũ

Mengapa?

Selain daripada vokal tunggal, yang mana satu sebutan vokal majmuk paling sukar bagi anda? Contoh: ao, ou.

c) Terdapat 4 nada dalam Hanyu Pinyin, yang mana satu nada yang paling sukar bagi anda?

	Nada pertama
	Nada kedua
	Nada ketiga
	Nada keempat



Mengapa?

L2 Writing Challenges for the Undergraduates: A Performance Analysis and a Literature Review on SIL Domains

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Abstract

English is used as a second language (L2) in Malaysia with a great emphasis on tertiary education as the medium of instruction, the most important subject in the curriculum, and a mandatory subject for all undergraduates. Yet, the university lecturers share a common view that students find it difficult to perform satisfactorily, particularly in writing assessment in English language courses. To identify the challenges of ESL writing, particularly among the undergraduates in Malaysia, one of the Malaysian universities with the highest population was chosen. A performance analysis was conducted in two consecutive semesters on the results of one of the English courses, which writing becomes the core assessment. Besides, a review of the past studies was done. Nine L2 writing challenges were identified, which can be represented by a chain reaction diagram called “SIL”: system (S), instructor (I), and learner (L). SIL proposes a sequence of inductive remedial actions, which should be taken by considering the elements within the S to the I, and finally to the L. To conclude, poor writing skill of Malaysian undergraduates in language and content perspectives as identified in the performance analysis is supported by several past studies prescribed in the SIL domains.

Keywords—Performance analysis, learner, instructor, system, SIL

I. INTRODUCTION

Malaysian students especially in higher learning institutions always face difficulty to master good English skills. Cruz (2002, November 24) reported that due to their poor command of English, 700 out of the 13,000 graduates who had applied for jobs in the service and marketing sectors in the first 10 months of 2002 were rejected. Besides, poor English was among five factors why graduates were unemployed based on a study conducted by the Federation of Malaysian Manufacturers (February 27, 2010). Furthermore, according to the vice-president of the Industry Development, Multimedia Development Corporation, Saifol Bahri Mohd Shamlan, poor command of English among graduates had been cited by most employers as the reason for not hiring (April 1, 2010). Moreover, Marie Aimee Tourres, a senior research fellow at the Department of Development Studies in Universiti Malaya, said Malaysian undergraduates found it difficult to grasp the English language (November 7, 2011). Similarly, Sharifah Hapsah, the Vice-Chancellor of Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, commented:

“We have with us today a sizeable number of students who are unable to string proper sentences in English.” (Sharifah Hapsah and Syed Hasan Shahabudin, 2008).

II. PROBLEM STATEMENT

Through teaching and assessing the students' English performance, the university lecturers found that the undergraduates face problems with the writing skill as compared to other basic language learning skills (Elia, Kardina, & Nazirah, 2006, as cited in Chittra Muthusamy et al., 2010). The lecturers share a common view that students find it difficult to perform satisfactorily or with very little positive results in the English language courses though multiple measures have been planned, strategized, and acted upon. They have found that after several semesters of taking English proficiency courses by the undergraduates, there seems to be minimal or no observable improvement in writing. Fig. 1 shows the results of an English course on report writing in two consecutive semesters from one of the Malaysian universities with the highest number of students. The radically increasing number of students who scored B as compared to the previous semester shows a sign of deterioration in the standard of English among this group of L2 learners.

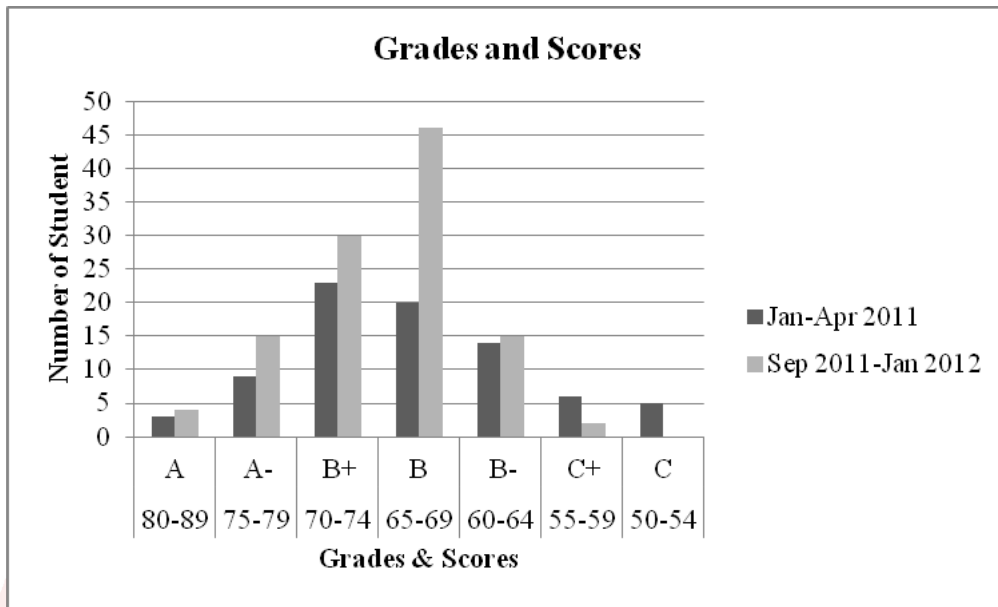


Fig.1 Grades and scores in January-April 2011 and September 2011-January 2012 semesters

III. PURPOSE

The objective of the research is to identify the challenges of L2 writing among the undergraduates. Hence, the results of an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course on report writing offered by one of the Malaysian higher learning institutions with the biggest population of students was analyzed. Since performance analysis helps to meet important organizational goals by filling a gap in knowledge (Clark and Mayer, 2003), the research conducted a performance analysis based on the results of the selected ESP course from January-April 2011 semester and September 2011-January 2012 semester as depicted in Fig. 1. The performance analysis was derived from the course assessment components, report assessment items, language and content assessment items, as well as their weightings as presented in Fig. 3 to Fig. 8. Besides, a literature review was conducted to analyze the related past studies and summarize the causes of L2 writing challenges into a chain reaction diagram called *SIL* as illustrated in Fig. 9.

IV. PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

A. Average Scores

Fig. 2 shows the average scores of electrical and civil engineering undergraduates in two consecutive semesters. In general, based on the total average score of each semester, there is a marginal rise of 2.53% from January-April 2011 semester to September 2011-January 2012 semester. This is because the overall performance of civil engineering undergraduates had improved 11.25 percent. However, the electrical engineering undergraduates' performance has encountered a fall of 7.16 percent. Overall, the average score of both groups of engineering undergraduates is under 73 as most students scored B and B+ and none of them scored A+. This shows after three

years of taking English proficiency courses in diploma plus two or three semesters of undergoing degree courses, they are yet to be proficient enough in English and in the writing skill in particular.

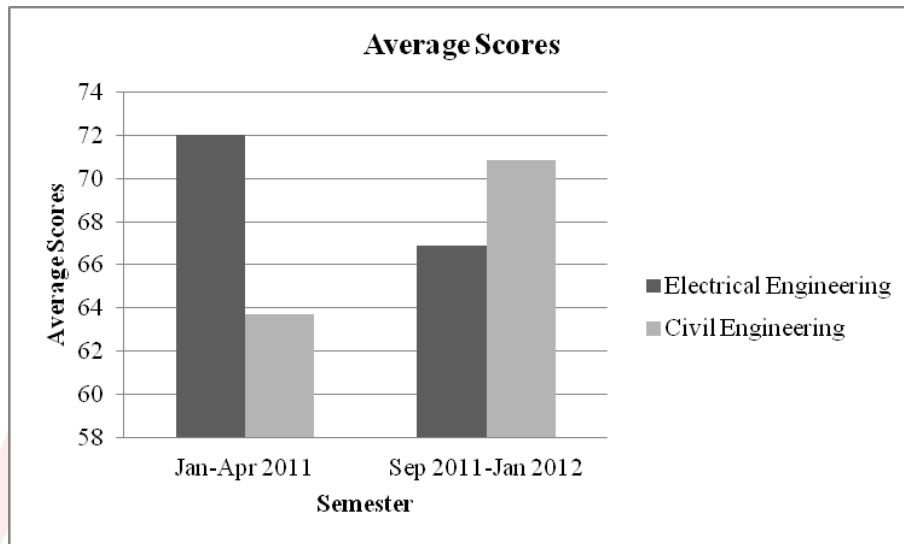


Fig. 2 Average scores in January-April 2011 and September 2011-January 2012 semesters.

B. Course Assessment Components

Writing is the most demanding language skill in the selected English course as it adds up to 70 percent out of the total course assessment. Among the four assessment components, report writing constitutes 40 percent of the total score, which is the highest weighting. However, based on the performance analysis on four different types of assessment from 2011 to 2012 as depicted in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4, all undergraduates from both engineering faculties in UiTM Penang Branch have gained the lowest achievement in report as compared to the other assessment components such as test (writing), oral presentation, and online assignment. Writing a good report requires conscious effort, technical skills, and much practice in developing, analyzing, composing, and revising ideas throughout the semester. The lowest average score in the report indicates writing has become the greatest challenge to the undergraduates as L2 learners.

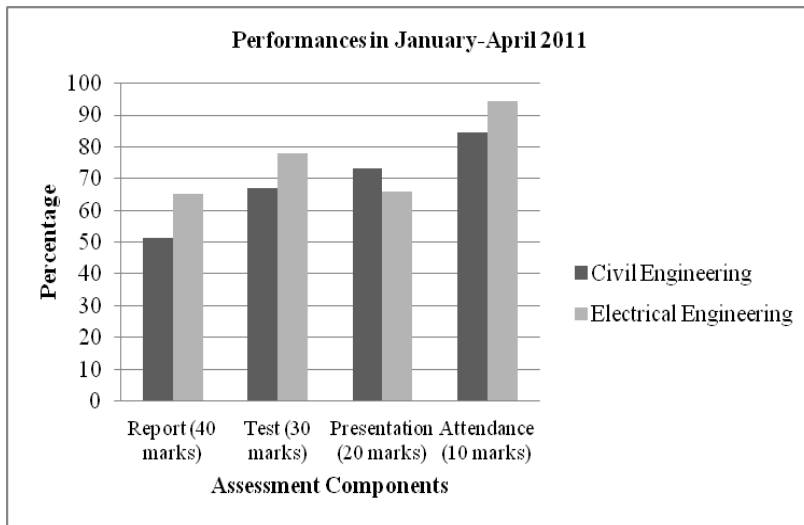


Fig. 3 Performances based on different course assessment components in January-April, 2011.

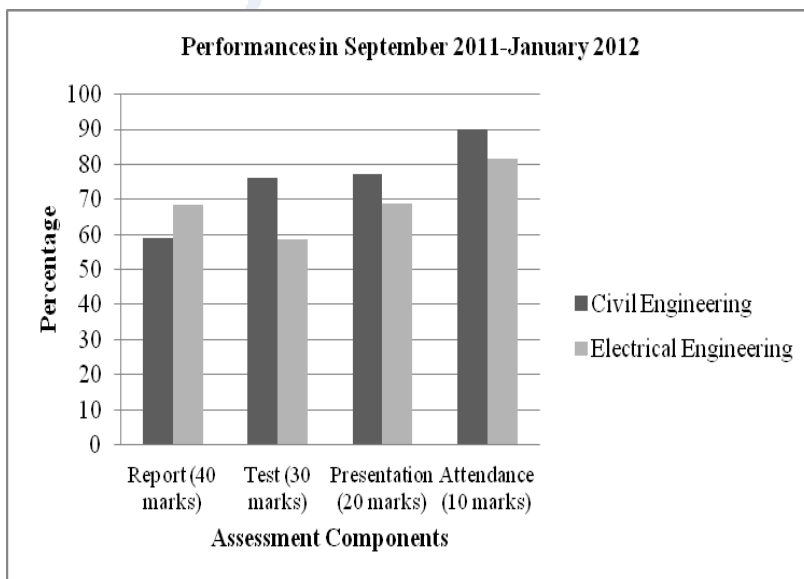


Fig. 4 Performances based on different course assessment components in September 2011-January, 2012.

C. Language and Content Assessment Items

As portrayed in Fig. 5, in this English course, the weighting of each language assessment item of the report is unequal. It is notable that language is assessed on grammatical accuracy and vocabulary appropriateness, which each of them composes the highest weighting as 12.5 percent. Other components include appropriate language for report writing and originality of text production which constitute 6.25 percent respectively. The weighting of each content assessment item of the report is given the equal measure as illustrated in Fig. 6.

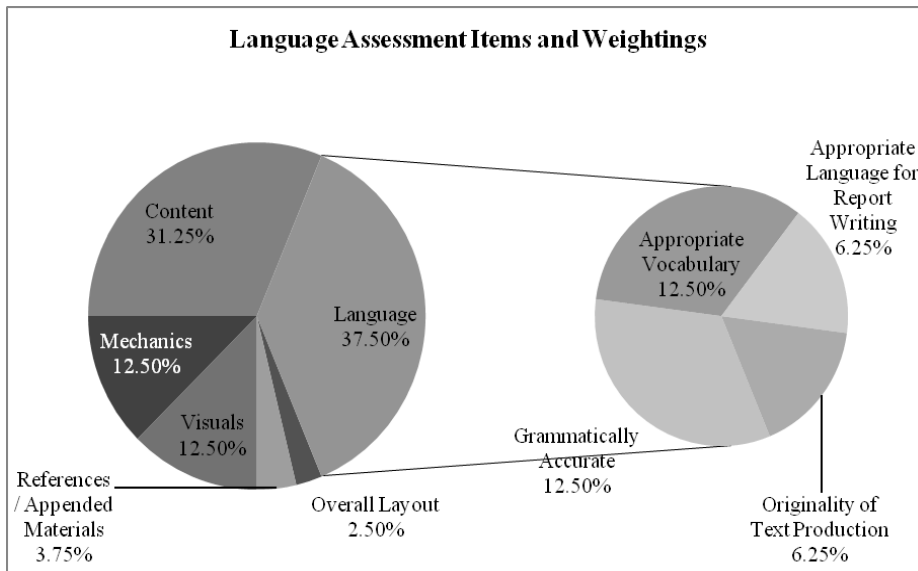


Fig. 5 Language assessment items for the report and their weightings.

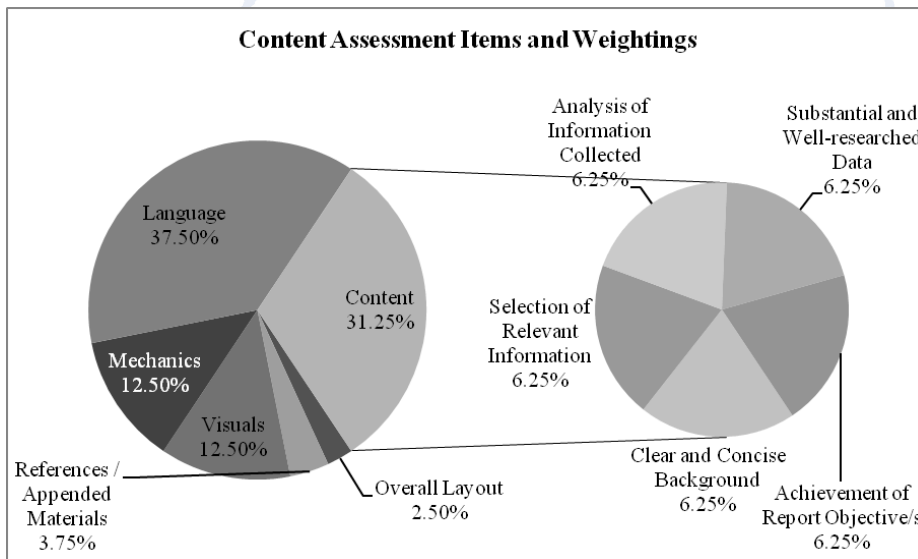


Fig. 6 Content assessment items and their weightings for the report.

D. Writing Assessment Items

To assess the report, language is awarded 15 marks, which constitutes the highest weighting as 37.5 percent of the total. Since most of the undergraduates had committed a great amount of grammatical and vocabulary errors in their reports, they obtained the lowest scores in the main assessment component, language, as reported in the performance analysis based on report assessment items in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. In January-April 2011 semester as shown in Fig. 7, the undergraduates' scores in content of their reports are 60 percent and below. It is the second lowest performance after language assessment component. One of the highly possible reasons is lack of input presented in their reports, which may due to poor reading attitudes among the undergraduates as reported in the past studies.

V. SIL DOMAINS

Based on the results of the performance analysis from different perspectives, poor writing skill in terms of language and cognitive developments was found. To identify the causes of poor writing skill among the undergraduates, the related past studies were reviewed and nine L2 writing challenges were identified. These challenges can be summarized into three domains, which is illustrated as SIL – a chain reaction diagram as depicted in Fig. 9.

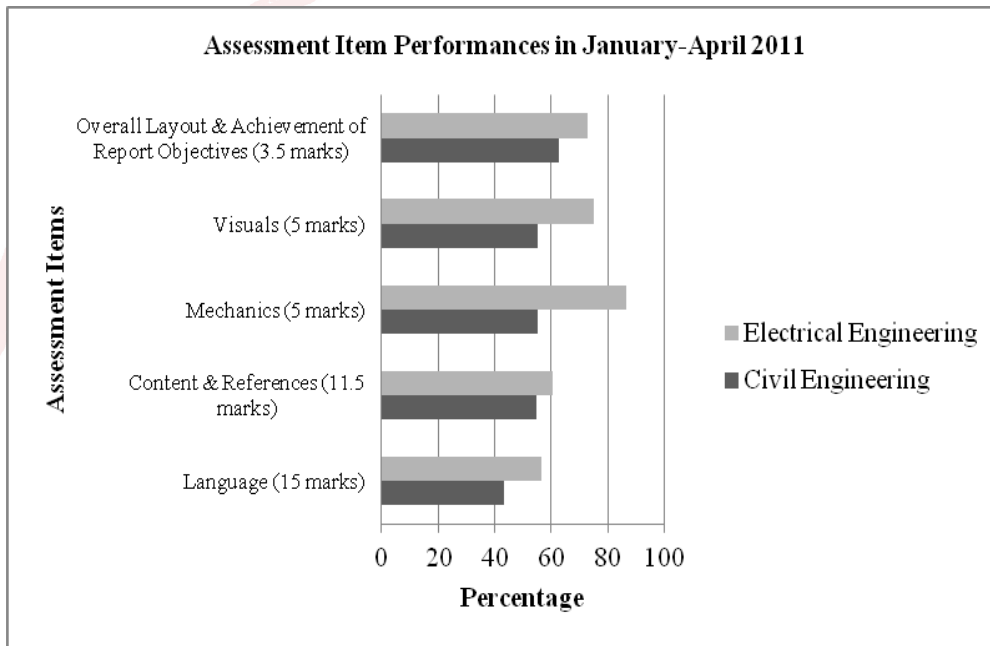


Fig. 7 Report assessment item performances among the undergraduates in January-April 2011.

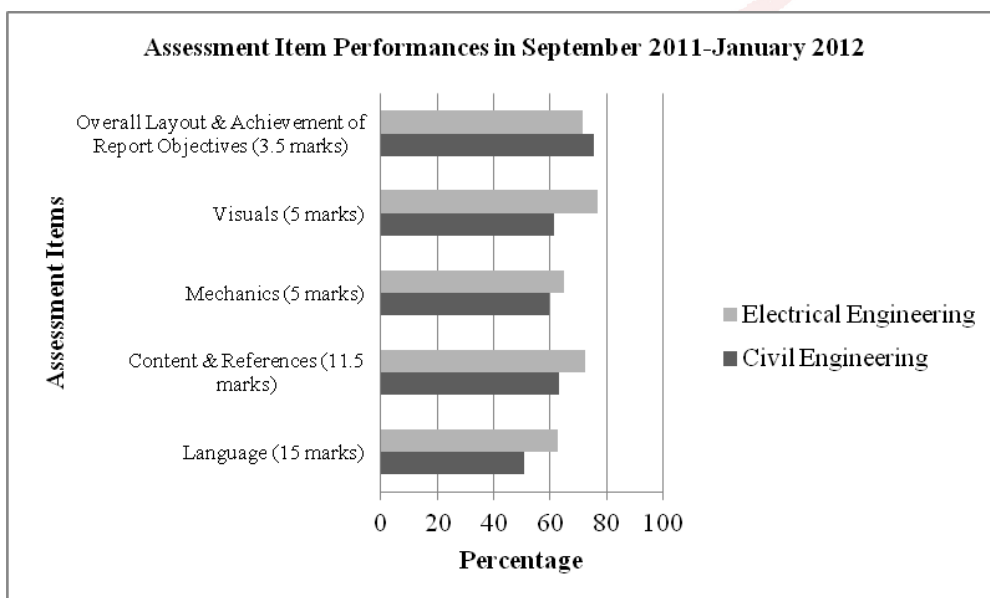


Fig. 8 Report assessment item performances among the undergraduates in September 2011-April 2012.

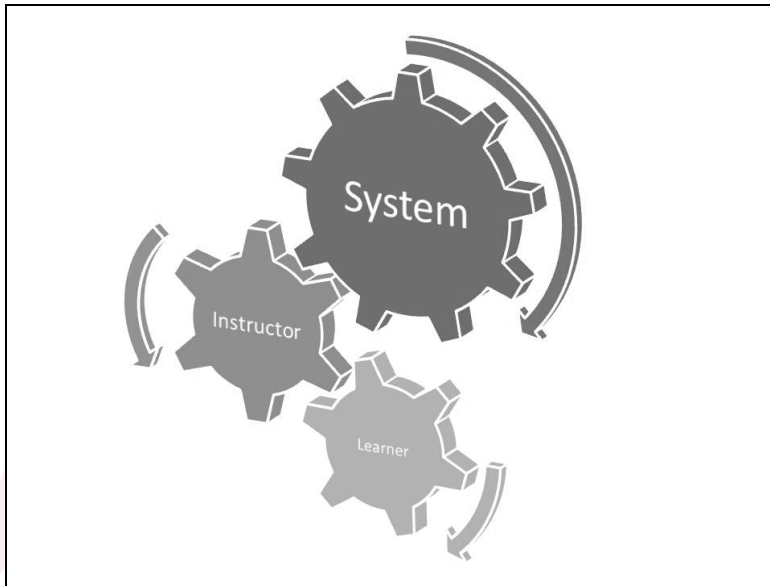


Fig. 9 SIL: System (S), Instructor (I), and Learner (L)

SIL demonstrates the sequence of corrective measures from the system (S) to the instructor (I), and finally to the learner (L). The remedial actions should begin with the largest perspective, system, which can cause helpful effects to take place in other smaller perspectives, instructor and learner. Lecture time, institutional e-learning system, and ICT research fall under system perspective. Besides, classroom practice, ICT interest, and L2 writing approach are the concerns from instructor perspective. From a learner perspective, it covers reading habits, language proficiency, and first language.

A. System

In the university at diploma level, four language skills are required to be taught in most of the English proficiency courses. Each course consists of six contact hours per week, which is equivalent to three credit hours per semester. However, for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses, the two contact hours per week are insufficient for the lecturers to teach the major language skills as well as examine the students' writing tasks. Hence, the time constraint for students to meet up their lecturers face-to-face has reduced their chances to receive enough guidance and feedback on writing, which has led to low interest in L2 writing. As highlighted by Chao and Huang (2007), the limited class time allotted for teaching different stages of writing process is the root of the poor language achievement. Since the main preoccupations are the completion of the syllabus and the preparation for students' assessment, lecturers tend to minimize the teaching of necessary composing skills, which may create a group of passive learners without thinking critically and creatively in writing their essays.

Many higher learning institutions in Malaysia are progressively gearing towards Internet usage to enhance teaching and learning. There is a complimentary

instructional method used in the university for teaching and learning processes of all subjects including English courses. Before the institutional e-learning system was opened for usage among the university students, the acceptance on e-learning among the students was as low as 38.7% who preferred e-learning (Chow et al., 2007). Based on the nine suggested online activities using the institutional e-learning system, there is no focus especially to promote L2 writing skills. For language enhancement, there is no scaffolding application to facilitate L2 writing skills such as dictionary, translator, chat room, and language games. No social media application is available to allow the users to communicate synchronously and asynchronously with one another or with other social communities. For cognitive development, there is a limited workplace for users to modify, edit, publish, and share their thoughts through writing online. It also does not allow the users to subscribe its news feed for getting the latest updates or shared information. Based on the limitations highlighted above, the existing institutional e-learning system possesses its constraint to further enhance L2 writing skills.

According to Muhammad Kamarul Kabilan (2007) and Fook and Gurnam Kaur Sidhu (2009), although the positive effects of using the technological tool in teaching and learning have been recognized, research on the integration of ICT in ELT in Malaysia is still at the infancy stage. Based on the report done by DETYA (2000) and Fook and Gurnam Kaur Sidhu (2009), the penetration of ICT applications into university teaching, ICT expertise, as well as the practice of ensuring all academic staff to make use of the ICT tools widely, was deficient. Hence, such lack of interest in e-learning has left many unexplored research areas in connecting between ICT and ELT. One area that is yet to be extensively explored is using Web 2.0 application as a writing pedagogical tool in tertiary education; for instance, little research has examined the ways blogging can be best employed in the teaching of EFL writing (Chao & Huang, 2007), which had been found useful and easy to use (Mah, 2009, Mah and Er, 2009).

B. Instructor

Even though the university is gearing towards a more student-centered learning approach based on the resources available to students and lecturers (Abdul Manaff Ismail et al., 2010), the teacher-centric practice such as “chalk and talk” method, textual instructional medium, and students-write-and-teacher-correct routine is still being practiced in the traditional ESL classrooms at the university. According to Dzulijah Ibrahim and Peridah Bahari (2005), these directed instruction models have been applied for decades in the university and ICT is fairly used among the lecturers (Koni Md Taha et al., 2006). Based on the results of a survey conducted on ICT readiness, lecturers showed low commitment to integrating ICT into their teaching and they hardly used computers on a regular basis in their teaching practice (Fook and Gurnam Kaur Sidhu, 2009). For English lecturers, neither specific offline nor online writing approach is employed in implementing the English course syllabi.

Regardless of the great potential of ICT, the face to face teaching and learning is still very much preferred among academics for lack of confidence (Syed Othman Alhabshi, 2002), doubt of the ICT effectiveness, and cautiousness in implementing ICT into

their classroom teaching (Fook and Gurnam Kaur Sidhu, 2009). Besides, the lecturers also displayed little enthusiasm in constructing their own Web pages for teaching and learning (Fook and Gurnam Kaur Sidhu, 2009). Since the need to set up educational Web pages is not considered important by the lecturers, the tertiary students will have less opportunity to write in L2 beyond the time constraint in the classrooms. In traditional classrooms, the use of purely “pedagogical” methods makes students “hear” lectures instead of listening to them. The lessons become boring, dull, and not challenging enough to cater for the ever curious minds of the young learners. Consequently, this poor delivery method will cause passive learning and rote memorization without understanding but just for the sake of examination (Vigneswaran Kannan, December 15, 2011). The students will also become stereotyped individuals who are unable to encounter learning tasks alone and too dependent on the lecturers when engaged in their learning quest (Rasaya Marimuthu and Elangkeeran Sabapathy, 2005).

The effort of developing effective writing skills among the L2 learners is often a predicament due to the conflicts and critiques among the product, process, and genre approaches applied in isolation; whereby each emphasis, structure, and methodology is different and unique on its own. In fact, no single approach is sufficient in itself to account for how writing is learned, developed, and employed (Rahmah Mohd. Rashid, 1999). Yet, due to the lack of awareness of different theoretical approaches, many instructors employ the writing approach in isolation in their teaching. The most distressing cases are the wrong choice of approaches to teach writing and even the absence of them, which eventually will lead to poor writing skills among the students. According to Krashen (1992), teachers usually teach learners to write about what they have already known instead of discovering new ideas. In most of the situations, not much is known about what the teachers actually do when they teach writing (Rahmah Mohd. Rashid, 1999).

C. Learner

Poor reading habits and low interest in reading among Malaysians were reported by Long (1984). If academic textbooks and classroom reading materials are excluded, on average, Malaysians read only half a page a year. This scenario also happened in the university whereby the lecturers share a common view that it is not a common habit for the students to read in English for self-interest. They only read in English to fulfil the classroom tasks, assignments, or projects. Besides, they also perceived reading in English was not a priority for them which may be due to their busy schedule in studies (Leele Susana Jamian and Emily Jothee Mathai, 2003). According to (Leele Susana Jamian et al., 2006), an analysis of students' results (May - October 2002) revealed that 64.89% of students scored C grade and below in an English paper where 70% of total scores are based on reading skill. Due to poor reading as the contributor of low proficiency, as Rasaya Marimuthu et al. (2011) have pointed out, students in the university find English language courses difficult to perform satisfactorily. Since the university students showed very low interest in reading and speaking in English (Rushita Ismail and Muriatul Khusmah Musa, 2006, Leele Susana Jamian and Emily Jothee Mathai, 2003), there is a greater tendency for them to communicate among

themselves in their mother tongue (Rushita Ismail and Muriatul Khusmah Musa, 2006), which the English exposure is being limited to the classroom setting.

Language instructors in the university are facing a lot of difficulties and disappointment when essay writing is concerned. In writing, some students are greatly lacking in imagination and creativity. Their essays generally read dull and dry, whereby the stories are mere displays of boring chronological events, having no life, content and some direly lacking in proficiency (Chitra Muthusamy et al., 2010). Many students still commit the grammatical errors that consume a great deal of the lecturers' time and effort to correct their written tasks. After analyzing the students' mistakes in writing, their grammatical errors seem to vary from local, global and spelling errors (Leele Susana Jamian et al., 2006). Their numerous grammatical errors in L2 writing reflect their insufficient knowledge; for example, a study on the use of subject-verb agreement between two groups of arts and science students in the university revealed that they faced difficulties in subject-verb agreement of number followed by subject-verb agreement of person (Surina Nayan, 2002).

The university students have a tendency of making language errors due to first language (L1) transfer. Most of the university students use Malay language (L1) but in learning English (L2), they tend to use L1 in L2 sentence structures although they have been exposed to L2 from an early age. Allen and Corder (1974) explain that while writing, L2 learners in general have to think about all those rules they need to apply or are supposed to have automatized. Since the university students are *bumiputras* who always use Malay as their L1, there is a greater inclination for them to communicate among themselves in Malay compared to English (Rushita Ismail and Muriatul Khusmah Musa, 2006). When it comes to learning English as their L2, they tend to use L1 in L2 sentence construction. With mother tongue interference, according to Chitra Muthusamy et al. (2010), they are further handicapped in the domain of creative and imaginative writing. Undoubtedly, they have difficulties going beyond the surface idea in writing and prone to making errors particularly in the study of ESL (Leele Susana Jamian et al., 2006).

VI. CONCLUSION

Writing is regarded as the most difficult language skill to learn and to teach although it is an important productive skill as prescribed in Malaysian Curriculum of Secondary Education. Based on the performance analysis, the undergraduates encountered difficulty to master effective writing skill particularly in report writing. They were still weak in both language and cognitive development, though they had been learning English for more than 15 years. As L2 learners, they need to face some challenges which have been identified through the review of the related past studies. SIL is proposed as a chain reaction diagram summarizing the nine L2 writing challenges in three different perspectives. This diagram provides a clearer overview of L2 writing challenges, which is proposed to be overcome inductively and sequentially. If the challenges of the system (S) can be overcome by the related authorities, the shortcomings of the instructor (I) will also be prevailed; along with the hitches of the learner (L), which will be resolved gradually. Therefore, the remedial actions should begin with the largest perspective, S: lecture time, institutional e-learning system, and ICT research. This will bring positive effects to take place in I,

which includes classroom practice, ICT interest, and L2 writing approach. As the last perspective, L, the predicaments in reading habits, language proficiency, and first language can be curbed eventually. To sum up, the poor writing skill among the Malaysian undergraduates as highlighted by the past studies in SIL domains support the results of the performance analysis in both language and content perspectives.

VII. FUTURE RESEARCH AND DIRECTIONS

The further implication of the research on L2 writing challenges for the undergraduates summarized by SIL can be further investigated by examining the other possible domains. This can be done by looking into other English courses from different higher learning institutions to provide an extension of SIL domains besides the system, instructor, and learner. Additionally, based on the defined L2 writing challenges on SIL domains, ample research can be done to improve the writing skill among the L2 learners from various disciplines of knowledge. The potential areas for future research are as follows:

- What is the theoretical framework that can improve language and cognitive developments?
- How to design and develop an instructional tool to improve writing performance and critical thinking?
- How the learner differences affect the writing performance and critical thinking?

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Board Game Design and Implementation for Specific Language Learning Goals

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0169

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Abstract

Board games provide a social atmosphere that digital-based learning environments are still having a hard time recreating. This is in part due to the shared experiences created by playing together face-to-face. In this paper, a blend of game theory is introduced that illustrates this difference in the game experience and attempts to show how it can be utilized for educational board game design. Using board games in the classroom can be a great instrument for increasing motivation among students to communicate. It is difficult to find a game that not only is both fun and motivating, but also focuses on the intended learning goal. From this blend of game theory comes an approach to design, create, publish and implement a board game experience into a specific learning goal. Important gaming ideas, elements and mechanics of board games are discussed. Development and publishing tools for board games are introduced. As a practical example of the board game development process, games created by the author are discussed.

Keywords: Games Based Learning, Board Games, Game Design, Gamification, Educational Gaming

A recording of this presentation can be found along with research notes at <http://erichawkinson.com>

Board Games in Education

Games have elements of play and discovery that are very appealing and engaging. This is why games have a long and rich history. The history of board games goes back to 3500 B.C., when Egyptians played a game called Senet, and the actual boards have been exhumed from burial tombs and can still be viewed today. Board games were an evolution in gaming that began to bring elements of game play together and tie them to a physical representation, which can be looked at as the beginnings of simulated gameplay. Some of the oldest and most prominent examples of board games such as chess, go, and shogi are really exercises in battle tactics and strategy. So board games have been a part of our education for a very long time. As game theory and the mechanics of board game play advance, opportunity for the meaningful application of board games for educational purposes is increased.

Board games and video games have been found to instill a higher level of motivation for learning, although it is still disputed as to what elements or processes in games are most essential to motivating learners (*Dondlinger 2007*). This dispute largely stems from the fact that different learners are stimulated by different things and game elements are no different in this thought.

Board games have been developed for educational purposes in almost every field. They have been used in early childhood education to encourage mathematical thinking skills (*Kamii 2003*) and in medical schools to assist pharmacy students in learning metabolic pathways (*Rose 2011*). Examples like these show just how detailed learning goals can get for educational board games.

Games are being integrated into the learning process in more fields of study, age groups and corporate training rooms as time progresses. This paper's aim is to refine the ideas behind the design of board games for very specific learning goals. Understanding the elements of gameplay and how the game experience unfolds will help teachers and trainers design more engaging, meaningful games around their learning goals.

Board Games and Video Games

Starting in the 1930s with the rise of big game publishing companies like Milton Bradley (Candy Land, Chutes and Ladders) and Parker Brothers (Sorry, Monopoly), board games found their way into more family homes. This was also when the concepts and mechanics in board games started moving away from the traditional battle simulation type games. This design trend was enforced even further in Germany after World War II where it was forbidden to make or play war-like games. As board game themes and concepts broadened in Europe, US sales were hit in the 1980s when video games started to come into homes. Video games took the forefront away from board games for more than a decade until the mid-1990s when board and card game sales started to increase again. Now, board games are often created based

on video games, movies, and TV. This goes for card games as well. Game designers have become more proficient in taking themes from other media and creating a game experience for fans and thus licensing media brands for board games has become commonplace. This trend that board and card games have found a way to supplement other media is evidence that they also can supplement traditional classroom media.

So, if you are lucky enough to have the choice of designing a video game or a board game for your learning goal, which do you choose? Both board games and video games have advantages and disadvantages when matching them to learning goals. The most important thing to note when talking about the design of board games in contrast to video games is the physical and mental positioning of players and the experience that comes out of those positions.

In the most effective board games, players physically surround a space and interact with board elements and each other. In the most popular video games, the player assumes an avatar or character to use to interact with a virtual environment and other avatars in that space. So the video game experience as a human experience is adding one or more levels of separation between players both physically and mentally. When players assume a character in a board game, they must become that character as an actor does on stage in many ways. From this, a whole different dynamic of informal learning occurs. This is why I contend that board games have a distinct advantage for learning goals that revolve around language, communication and team building.

That is why the example used to prototype and playtest board games in this paper is a game designed for non-native English speakers. Video games have an advantage when the player must interact with environments and objects, especially with environments that might be dangerous or expensive. So, if you had to train a team of engineers to build a bridge and you wanted to incorporate a heavy load of game play into the training, you might start training with a computer simulation of the bridge and test the working environment, the tensile strength of the materials and the physics involved in construction.

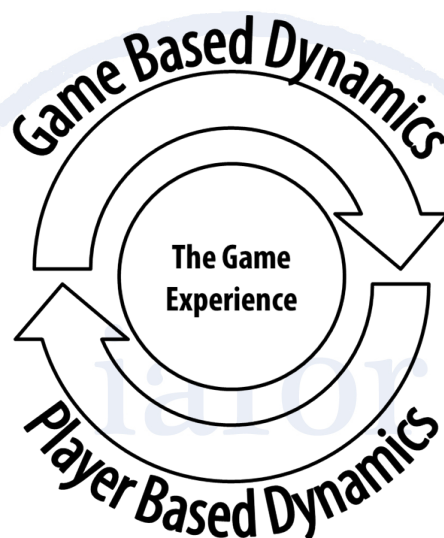
You might then bring all the engineers together to play a board game so they can know how their skills are best utilized by others, how each individual's role fits into the overall construction of the bridge and how the construction schedule should progress.

Board Game Design Theory and the Game Experience

The idea of the game experience is at the heart of what makes our learning goals take on life, meaning and relevance to the game's participants. The game experience can be interpreted in many ways. In the following passages, the layers of the game experience will be looked at first from a broad perspective and then to deeper and more detailed ones. The game experience and its layers will be peeled like an onion.

For the purposes of creating a game, it is helpful to think of the game not as a collection of cards or a set of rules, but rather as an experience that comes from using them. That experience is derived when the player interacts with the environment and other players. That experience is brought about by the dynamics at work between the players and the game's environment. The player is exuding a set of attributes against or with the game and the game's environment has attributes to force players to exude those traits. It's a good headspace to be in to start to understand how the experience is created from the game and how to turn that experience into something that aligns with your learning goals.

Figure 1: The game experience simplified



For teaching language learning goals, a board game experience can be made to resemble real-world situations or represent a literary scenario. As an example, some colleagues and I created a game to help immigrants to America prepare for the citizenship interview test. It's the last step in the naturalization process to become an American citizen. Applicants are given a verbal interview to test their knowledge of American history, civics and government. The game experience was to create the atmosphere and questions that would be present during this interview. The player must exercise the same skills as those tested in the interview, and the game was designed with activities and components to test those skills. (Hawkinson, et al. 2012).

Within these two symbiotic and changing dynamics, there are different forces at work that create and drive the game experience. The player, of course, is vital in the game experience. Almost all board games have the player exude a mixture of three attributes: strategy, luck, and skills/knowledge. The game environment is meant to guide what mixture of these attributes is needed to bring the game to fruition. Too much of one element and not enough of another can greatly deteriorate the game experience and take meaning away from the intended learning goal. For example, if the game relies heavily on a player rolling high numbers on a die or drawing the right

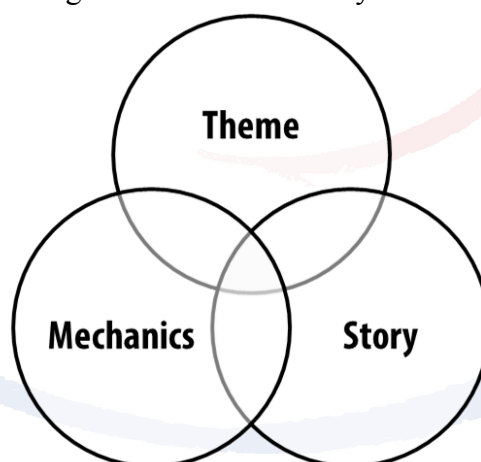
cards, players might not put a lot of effort into using the skills or concepts the game is trying to teach. But if the game has no luck elements, players who determine they are less skilled than their opponents may feel like they have little or no chance to win.

Figure 2: Player-based dynamics



At the same time that a player is navigating a mix of these attributes, the game itself is exacting a mix of different elements to force the player to use them. For example, many times games have a narrative that places players in an imaginary environment and the narrative can drive the game forward. The game sometimes has a background story or narrative involved, to go along with a set of rules and functions to use to progress in the game and a central theme is an essential component to think about, as the theme is the learning goal in its most basic form.

Figure 3: Game-based dynamics



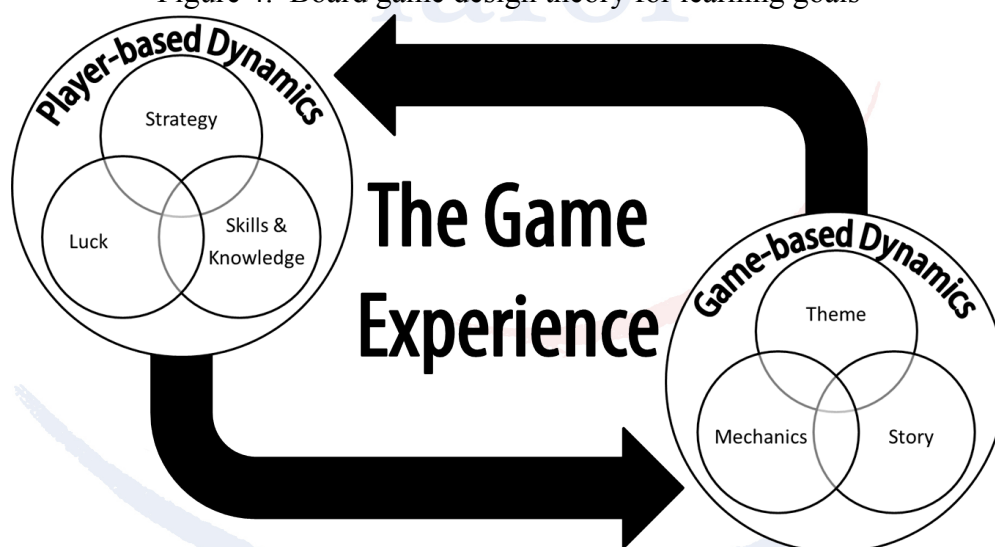
Many board games have already been created around existing stories. *Beowulf*, *Moby Dick*, and *Pride and Prejudice* are just a few literary works that have board games based on them. These games can be a great way to re-enforce themes, attitudes and characters seen in these works. There are also games based on movies, TV and video games. Non-fiction is even more prominent and can be a great way to teach history. They also can serve as examples on how to create a board game around a time and

place that relates to your learning goals. The story is the stage, and in language learning it can be good inspiration for writers looking to dig deeper into a story. It can also be good for reading comprehension as it helps readers pull new meanings from what they read.

The theme of a game is sometimes confused with the story. The theme in educational board gaming is the basic learning functions a teacher or trainer is trying to have learners practice. Whereas the story is the background, the theme is what the players are doing to navigate the story. Themes are best represented in a game as principles or concepts rather than facts or language functions. For example, in our "American Citizenship" game, the goal was to prepare learners for an interview exam. So the theme was confident verbal communication based on American history, civics and government. So the mechanics of the game were built around having players interact verbally. Mechanics are the most complicated feature of a game because it is such a broad term. A game mechanic is any function of a game that guides interactivity. In board games, mechanics are seen as more than just a set of rules, but any detail built into the game physically or otherwise to either contain or free game play. A mechanic can be as simple as a system of taking turns or as elaborate as a cause-and-effect table.

Take all these attributes together and a clearer view of game design concept is formed.

Figure 4: Board game design theory for learning goals



Gamification Mechanics for Learning Goals

Because game mechanics for board games come in countless forms, it is useful when designing board games for learning goals to think about mechanics from the concept of gamification. There are many definitions of gamification, but what is really means is taking game elements and putting them into real-world context. This notion fits the idea of making games in the classroom and training room very well and is a good way to start thinking about mechanics in board game design for learning. Gamification

has been around for many years, but the term was first coined in 2002 (*Marcewski 2012*).

Table 1: A list of gamification mechanics

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| • Achievements | • Community | • Points |
| • Appointments | • Collaboration | • Progression |
| • Behavioral Momentum | • Countdown | • Quests |
| • Blissful Productivity | • Discovery | • Reward Schedules |
| • Bonuses | • Epic Meaning | • Status |
| • Cascading Information Theory | • Free Lunch | • Urgent Optimism |
| • Combos | • Infinite Gameplay | • Virality |
| | • Levels | |
| | • Loss Aversion | |
| | • Lottery | |
| | • Ownership | |

Source: Gamification.org (Accessed April 2013)

Many of these mechanics are used in multiple contexts. Airline companies give status to frequent flyers, credit card companies ‘level up’ customers with good credit from gold to platinum and bonuses are given to employees who meet their quotas. All these functions change behavior in some way and they are good places to start thinking about incorporating learning-driven mechanics into a board game.

Using Game Design Theory to Go Beyond Trivial Pursuit and the “Race Game”

Games like Trivial Pursuit may help us obtain and remember fact and figures, but games are best utilized when designed around a concept as a learning goal. To have a deeper understanding of the knowledge, we must go beyond this level of design. There are many versions of trivia games and they are basically gamified quizzes. Race games are where players are racing towards a goal and along the way have questions to answer or challenges to overcome. A large number of educational games available are unfortunately based on either of these ideas as they can be versatile with content and therefore can be used in a variety of situations. It is my contention that board games can be much more than this and when they are built around a good theme and supported with good mechanics and a great story, a board game can become a deeply profound learning tool. Plus, just like we get turned off when reading a book with a clichéd plot, players’ motivations to learn from the game are diminished when obvious or redundant gameplay mechanics are used.

Prototyping

Alpha testing a website is to software engineers as prototyping is to game designers. This is a phase of the process after game design elements have been brainstormed and

creation of a playable game is started. Game designers can use anything in creating a prototype. In many cases, a combination of pieces from existing games can be used, or simple items like index cards, cardboard boxes or coins can be put to work. In the example of "American Citizenship", the rapid prototype wasn't anything physical. This was advantageous as the designers were collaborating overseas. Images of the game board, pieces and cards were created and placed on the web via Google Sites. Designers then used Google Hangout to video conference and the game images were shown to participants. A few online sessions with a digital version of the game allowed the designers to find problems in game play.

Playtesting

If prototyping is the alpha test, playtesting is the beta. This phase can be the most frustrating, but also the most important part of the design process. It is important that you find people to play the game who are not biased to the designers and who are not told how to play the game. One of the most difficult aspects to predict in prototyping for designers is how easy the game can be learned and how easy it is to play for first timers. Ideally, players will need only a small fraction of the time it takes to play the game to an end to learn how to play. So if a game takes an hour to play, ideally it should take five minutes to learn how to play. Observing gameplay will allow designers to revise game elements. Informal testing should be done to see if the players discovered new knowledge, a different perspective or a deeper appreciation of the learning goal from playing the game. In most cases, this process should be repeated several times.

Publishing

In many cases, teachers and trainers who are creating a board game experience to supplement learning the content can be very specialized. Because large quantities of the game are not in demand and therefore made not profitable by publishers. There are other options available to publish a board game to reach more of the intended audience.

Self-publishing is one option. In the example of "American Citizenship", the prototype used for playtesting was created by a self-publishing website called The Game Crafter. This website allows users to choose from a wide variety of game pieces, upload and attach images to pieces and cards and place the game for sale. As changes were made to the game in the playtesting phase, images and pieces were changed to the uploaded configuration on the website and subsequent printed copies were updated.

Print and play is also a popular option for teachers. It simply means that the game pieces are available on the Internet and can be downloaded to be printed individually by teachers. There are many websites that catalog such games such as theboardgamegeek.com.

Future Development and Research

Even with the emerging technologies in game-based learning, the use of board games will still be quite relevant in many situations. Due to the divergence of media and technologies, board games are being re-introduced on tablets and on line. Digital tabletops are being developed for use of board games. Augmented reality gaming can be merged with board games to give players a mix of video games and board games. Research should be done on how these digital technologies may affect the learning processes from more traditional forms of board gaming. Finally, as gaming in the classroom becomes more widely used, it will be beneficial to the feasibility of using games as assessment tools.

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*What Goes on in Foreign Language Learners' Minds? Planning Research to Explore
EFL Motivation, EFL Anxiety and EFL Learning Strategies*

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Abstract

Learning a foreign language is a complex task and one that is becoming more and more popular as the world becomes smaller. Within Taiwan, English is taught in elementary, middle and senior high schools as part of the compulsory education as well as in specialised courses in universities and cram schools. However, despite the intensity and breadth of English instruction, the language proficiency of Taiwanese English learners is highly variable and not improving. According to the Education First – English Proficiency Index, Taiwan has slipped from 25th ranking down to 30th. However, it is not just proficiency test results that can and should inform English teaching. What really goes on in the language learner's mind and how do these processes influence proficiency outcomes? Researchers have established that a wide range of factors influence learning proficiency including demographic factors such as age and gender, as well as pedagogical factors related to approaches to learning and teaching and prior education. This study explores three pedagogical factors in the adult language learning university context in Taiwan; language learning strategies, foreign language classroom anxiety, and foreign language motivation. This research posits that these factors may account for a greater portion of language learning proficiency variance. This paper explains the language teaching and learning context and its challenges, existing measures of motivation, learning strategies and anxiety used in language research and a proposed approach to research of these factors.

Introduction

English is taught as a foreign language within Taiwan generally starting in elementary school through to university. Furthermore, Taiwan has many educational institutions outside of the formal schooling system such as privately run cram schools that also teach English. However, despite all of the English teaching, Taiwan is ranked thirtieth for English proficiency worldwide (EnglishFirst, 2012). Furthermore, Taiwan has slipped from twenty-fifth position in the previous year of 2011. One of the reasons for the decline is that Taiwanese students' overall psychology towards learning English may have a negative influence on their English proficiency.

Experiences from my classroom

To begin with, I would like to provide context for the research problem by sharing some of my teaching experiences from my classroom that I hope may illustrate some of the diversity and the challenges that are evident in learning a foreign language.

The first experience revolves around a student who wishes to speak English perfectly, just like a native speaker. While communicating with this student, there are two actions that he does that impede his learning. The first action is that he will often say a few words into his sentence, stop, and then ask me how to complete the sentence properly as a native speaker would. Unfortunately, after a few words, he has not communicated enough of his meaning to determine what he wants to say, let alone help him phrase a proper English sentence. Usually after this first action, the next action is that he will usually utter in Chinese that *English is too difficult* and then want to give up trying. What could be going through his mind? One thought, and the student has mentioned this on numerous occasions to me, is that he wishes to speak English perfectly and immediately. The desire for perfection is also evident in his desire to achieve one hundred per cent for every single assessment and not achieving this means failure. The second thought that does not appear to be apparent to him is the unnecessary stress and anxiety that he manifests within himself. The student's desire to appear perfect may generate constant worry and also a sense that he is being constantly evaluated.

The second experience I would like to share is about a common theme that I have observed in my students' behaviour. One semester I decided to run a class activity where I asked the students to talk about about their goals and which professions they wanted to pursue after graduation. Interestingly, many of my students told me that they had no idea what they wanted to do. Rather puzzled, I asked them why they chose English as their major. They generally have two answers: a) their parents told them to, and b) their university entrance exam score was not high enough to be offered a position in a higher ranked university. Both of these explanations imply that students only chose English with resignation. As a result, it is often difficult to stimulate motivation within my students, as they seem more interested in the games they can play on Facebook and their cell phones.

The third experience I would like to share is about one student who has an overwhelming enthusiasm for learning English. The first example of this is during class time, when this student is called up to talk, she has a big smile on her face. She takes the microphone and starts talking, and talking, and talking, and talking. In fact, it is difficult to stop her talking because she appears to enjoy it so much. Another example is when I have seen her around the university campus, she immediately

approaches me dragging her friends along and then instructs them to speak to me using English. Her friends usually look a little uncomfortable. Then immediately after I have spoken a sentence, she will translate it to Chinese so her friends can understand. The third example worth mentioning is a piece of writing she gave to me for reading. While reading it, I had to have an English dictionary with me because she likes to swap common English words for unusual words that she has remembered from word maps. I deliberately used the word *remembered* and not *looked up* because it would appear that she has a photographic memory and likes to use it.

The fourth experience I would like to share is about one student who when I first taught him about a year ago, he did not want to communicate in English. Often the conversations followed the pattern of me speaking in English, he looking very confused. I repeated the English sentence again very slowly and clearly, and then I would have to communicate using my broken Chinese. Recently, he attended an English Corner session that I hosted and he asked, using English, if I remembered him. Initially, I didn't remember, but after a few weeks I remember him from the previous year. Now, he regularly comes to the English Corner that I host, rarely relies on using Chinese, and even has developed the ability to spell English words based on their sounds. This skill he has developed when other students have not.

These scenarios help outline the variable language learning issues evident in Taiwanese classes that problematize my teaching and provide incentive for the research proposed in this paper.

English within Taiwan

To communicate using English is an important skill that Taiwan appears to value. This is evident by English being taught in elementary, junior, and senior high schools, not to mention the numerous cram schools that teach or specialize in English, and finally the university courses available. Although there are many opportunities for the Taiwanese to learn English, as previously mentioned, Taiwan has recently and significantly slipped in the world rankings of English proficiency EnglishFirst (2012). If Taiwan places a high importance on learning English, and there are so many opportunities for Taiwanese to learn English and improve their proficiency, why has Taiwan dropped in the world rankings? Some possible reasons could be that other countries that have jumped ahead of Taiwan by adopting fresh approaches and/or materials that have promoted more effective learning outcomes in English. Or alternatively, Taiwan has regressed in its pedagogical capacity resulting in more limited outcomes in English proficiency. Rather than analyse the reasons why Taiwan has slipped in the English proficiency ranks, it may be more productive to look at factors that affect English learning within a Taiwanese context.

There are many opportunities for the Taiwanese to learn English, and this generally occurs within a classroom. Students that attend English classes may do so for a variety of reasons including parental influence, inadequate university entrance exam scores for target courses, uncertainty about future career prospects or a belief that English will make them a more attractive job applicant in the future. Chamot (2004) suggested some more generalised reasons such as academic purposes, travel or survival.

Factors that may have an effect on English language proficiency may be personal traits such as personality, learning styles, learning strategies, anxiety and attitudes, just to name a few. This leads us to the question: *what goes in the mind of the EFL learner?* Questions similar to this have motivated researchers to search for answers generally focusing on one aspect or factor of the teaching and learning context. Over the last 30 years, there appears to be an increasing trend to focus on different learning factors such as motivation, learning strategies and anxiety and these are the three factors that I will focus on.

Foreign Language Anxiety

Anxiety is “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 125). Horwitz et al. (1986) found that foreign language learning anxiety has unique characteristics that are not found in other types of anxiety. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) have also stated that foreign language learning anxiety is “the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning” (p. 284). Some of the symptoms of foreign language anxiety may be avoiding situations that cause anxiety such as skipping class, or not completing homework (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Research prior to the late 1970's that examined anxiety and its relationship to learning a foreign language revealed that it was neither simple or well-understood and this is in part due to the lack of consistency between anxiety measuring instruments (Scovel, 1978). During the mid to late 1970's, research revealed that anxiety has different aspects and that has led to various theories. Kleinmann (1977) and Chastain (1975) suggested that anxiety might have a facilitating effect or a debilitating effect on language learning outcomes. Chastain (1975) pointed out “some concern about a test is a plus while too much anxiety can produce negative results” (P.160). Kleinmann's (1977) research demonstrates this theory in finding that learners with high levels of anxiety (debilitating) tended to avoid syntactic structures that contrasted most with their own native language. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) also suggested that facilitating anxiety appears to have a positive influence on language learning whereas debilitating anxiety has a negative effect.

Spielberger, Gorsuch, and Lushene (1970), investigated the differences between state and trait anxiety. State anxiety is defined as being a “transitory emotional state or condition of the human organism that is characterised by subjective, consciously perceived feelings of tension and apprehension and heightened autonomic nervous system activity” (p.3). Trait anxiety is defined as being a “relatively stable individual differences in anxiety proneness” (p.3). Trait anxiety represents how individuals respond differently to stressful situations and has been found to be consistent over time.

With no clear definition or a reliable instrument to measure foreign language learning anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) undertook research that led to their Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). Understanding more about foreign language anxiety, particularly if it can facilitate language learning, as well as its relationship with other affective factors could lead to helping learners understand themselves and increase their language proficiency. Higher achievement is something that most, if

not all, Taiwanese students desire and addressing language learning anxiety may assist them meet their goals.

The FLCAS has three subscales that consist of comprehension anxiety, fear of negative evaluation and test anxiety. Comprehension anxiety is the fear of communicating with other students or a teacher using the foreign language. Fear of negative evaluation is the fear that other people (not necessarily confined to the classroom) will think negatively of the speaker. Test anxiety is the fear of participating in any type of quiz or exam (Horwitz et al., 1986).

Reflecting back on the first scenario about my classroom experiences, the student who wishes to speak English perfectly may be subjecting himself to more anxiety than necessary. Some anxiety would probably help him to improve, but his constant fear of negative evaluation may push his anxiety to a debilitating level.

Foreign Language Motivation

Motivation is the desire to do something (Ryan & Deci, 2000) with an expectation of some value for the effort spent (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995). Motivation also must have a goal, a desire to reach the goal, a positive attitude towards learning how to achieve the goal, and behaviour that moves the person toward the goal (Gardner, 1985). From the opening stories about some of my students, there are different aspects of motivation, or lack of motivation, that can be observed. The second scenario of students studying English because their parents told them to, or they couldn't get into a higher ranked university, or they chose to major in English because their grade didn't allow them to another area, might suggest that they don't really have any motivation at all. This type of motivation has been described by Ryan and Deci (2000) as amotivational, meaning the learner is neither motivated nor not motivated.

One of the researchers who appears most dominant in the motivation area is Robert Gardner with work on the topic that dates back to Lambert in the early 1970s. Over the years, Gardner (1985, 2005) has developed his socio-educational model that examines motivation from an instrumental and integrative perspective. Instrumental motivation is described as desiring the rewards that an action can bring with two examples being increased job opportunities and meeting requirements to graduate. Integrative motivation is the desire to integrate oneself into the target culture by adapting parts of it into one's identity and an example of this may be my Taiwanese students using their English name where they can. Gardner's socio-educational model also covers other components that include orientation towards the target language, attitudes towards the learning situation, and anxiety.

There have also been other researchers with their own theories regarding motivation with two influential examples following. The first theory is Self-Determination Theory (SDT) proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985, as cited by Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, and Ryan (1991); Ryan and Deci (2000)). The SDT is based on two types of motivation, intrinsic and extrinsic. Tasks that are considered fun, enjoyable, or interesting are considered intrinsic motivation. Tasks that are done for utilitarian purposes, even if they are not interesting, are considered extrinsic. These theoretical understandings were modified in 2000, when Ryan and Deci (2000) proposed amotivational theory as discussed above. The second branch of motivation theory is Expectancy-Value theory proposed by Eccles and Wigfield (1995); Wigfield and

Eccles (2000) who suggested that there are four components of motivation consisting of attainment value, intrinsic value, extrinsic utility value, and cost. Attainment value is the individual's perception of how important a given task is. Intrinsic value is the pleasure that the individual enjoys while completing the task. Extrinsic value is the perceived usefulness of completion of a task in relation to the individual's future goals. Cost is the perceived negative consequences of completing the task that includes not only financial cost, but also physical and emotional cost.

Self-determination theory and the expectancy-value theory have been examined within a general education environment. Whereas, the socio-educational model has been examined within a second language acquisition environment. Despite the fact that English is still considered a foreign language in Taiwan, and not a second language, the socio-educational model seems more appropriate for the following reasons. Firstly, its development was specifically based in second/foreign language acquisition contexts and not in a general setting as was adopted in development of the self-determination and expectancy-value theories. Even though English is not a second language in Taiwan, Taiwanese students have many opportunities to interact with the English language and culture. Secondly, motivation is a complex phenomenon and the socio-educational model appears to offer a more holistic approach. Thirdly, the AMTB has been used in many studies around the world and found to be useful, reliable and relevant to identifying the components of learner motivation as well as the impact of motivation on learning outcomes (Gardner, 2001).

Foreign Language Learning Strategies,

Learning strategies are the "special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 1) and are procedures that facilitate learning especially at the novice stage (Chamot, 2005). Learning strategies assist the learners to move towards their goals through taking conscious actions (Oxford, 1990) such as Taiwanese students memorising exactly what their teachers have said. However, for learning strategies to be effective, they must be appropriate for the contextual situation (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) otherwise they may, in fact, be a hindrance.

Language learning strategies should be problem-oriented, encourage the learners to become more self-directed, be flexible and involve more of the learner than just his/her cognition. In addition, learning strategies should help the learner organise and integrate the new knowledge, they may also have an effect on the learner's motivational or affective state (Weinstein & Mayer, 1983). These strategies may seem strange to Taiwanese undergraduate students who have become accustomed to the authoritarian teaching methods of their youth. Therefore, an additional characteristic should be that the strategies are also teachable (Oxford, 1990). The learning skill that the student from my fourth scenario has learned, to spell words from their sounds, is interesting for several reasons. The first reason is very few other students have this ability. Therefore, where, how, and who did he learn this skill from? The second reason is that, if this student learned the skill, can it be taught to other students?

One of the more popular instruments used to measure how many and how often learning strategies are used is Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). The SILL has six categories of strategies that consist of mnemonics,

cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive, affective, and social. Mnemonics strategies concern adopting different ways to remember, for example using pictures and semantic maps. Cognitive strategies involve how the learner interacts with and processes new information, for example, practicing, repeating new words and searching for patterns. Compensation strategies involve deploying different methods to communicate when there are unknown gaps in the target language, for example, using gestures. Meta-cognitive strategies involve planning to improve and practice the target language, for example, seeking out native speakers and engaging in language exchange. Affective strategies involve managing one's own emotions, for example, relaxing and positive self-talk. Social strategies are interacting with others, for example, asking questions and practicing with other students.

Proposed method for research

This study is designed to examine the relationships between the three selected factors (foreign language learning strategies, foreign language anxiety, or foreign language motivation) and determine which factor or combination of factors is the best predictor of foreign language learning achievement for Taiwanese undergraduate students.

Several methods can be used to research educational phenomena. Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, and Sorensen (2010) describe qualitative research methods as examining the contextual setting with no attempt to predict the future in order to produce a rich account of the events. On the other hand, quantitative research methods make an attempt to predict the future by determining the dependant factors associated with the phenomenon under examination by testing the relationships. After the analysis has taken place, the conclusion will be formed by deductive reasoning and dictated by the statistical analysis of the results.

This study aims to examine the relationships between several factors: foreign language anxiety, foreign language learning strategies and motivation to learn a foreign language and attempts to predict which factors individually or collectively have the greatest influence on foreign language achievement. The three main instruments to be used in this study have been extensively developed, tested and implemented in a variety of language learning situations and found to be fit for purpose and highly reliable. See Oxford (1986); Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) for the SILL, Aida (1994); Cao (2011) for the FLCAS, and Ho (1998). Therefore, it is deemed appropriate that a quantitative research methodology deploying established survey instruments should be used for this study.

For this study, the three instruments are all questionnaires that require the participants to self-report using a Likert scale. It is anticipated that the results will allow a close examination of the relationships between several factors: foreign language anxiety, foreign language learning strategies and motivation to learn a foreign language. Data from the survey instruments and a proficiency test will be analysed using PASW (formally known as SPSS). An enhanced understanding of correlations between these factors and language proficiency will provide evidence for predictions about which factor individually or collectively has the greatest influence on foreign language achievement. Such understandings can greatly assist language teachers who encounter learning issues similar to those common in Taiwanese classrooms.

Descriptive statistics

In order to adequately analyse the data several procedures will be implemented to establish validity and reliability.

The next set of data analysis procedures that will be run will be descriptive analysis to show the profile of the sample used. The information to be shown will be the median, frequency distribution and standard deviation of the participants' age, gender, study major and number of years studying English. In addition to the demographics descriptive analysis, procedures will be run to show participants' median level of anxiety, use of language learning strategies, motivation to learn a foreign language and foreign language achievement at that particular point in time when the data collection will be taken. The independent factors each have their own sub-scales and they will also be included in the descriptive analysis.

After the descriptive analysis procedures have been ran, the next set will be Pearson's correlation coefficient. As mentioned earlier, the independent factors have their own respective sub-scales and each of these will be compared for any statistically significant relationship between the sub-scales of there the other independent factors. For example, the FLCAS has three sub-scales (communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety), the four sub-scales of the AMTB (integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, motivation, and instrumental orientation), and the six sub-scales of SILL (memory, cognitive, compensation, meta-cognitive, affective, and social) will all be completed against each other. The final Pearson's correlation coefficient will be compared against each of the sub-scales and foreign language achievement.

The next sets of procedures to be run are inferential statistical procedures that they will test for impact and predictive nature of the independent variables on the dependant, that being foreign language achievement.

Inferential statistics

The set of inferential statistical procedures to be run are multiple regression analysis. There are two parts that will be completed. The first type multiple regression analysis using the "enter" method with collinearity diagnostics included. Any factor that shows a value of more 10 in the variance inflation factor (VIF) will be removed. This will show the impact that each of the independent variables will have on the dependent variable. That being the impact of foreign language anxiety, and/or foreign language learning strategies, and/or motivation to learn a foreign language will have on the foreign language achievement. The second multiple regression analysis to be run will be using the "the stepwise" method. This will show the predictive nature of each independent variable has on the dependent.

Why this study is important

As mentioned at the beginning of this article, English is taught throughout the Taiwanese education system, yet Taiwan has slipped in the world rankings. The dynamics of teaching English in a classroom is a combination of many factors. Previous research that has focused on specialised areas that has helped gained an insight into a part of the language learners' psychology. Three areas that have been discussed are anxiety in the foreign language classroom, motivation to learn a foreign language, and language learning strategies. Individually, these factors have guided

researchers over the years. Now that these factors and instruments have been proven measures, maybe it is time to combine the power of these factors together and seek to reveal more of the holistic picture of foreign language acquisition.

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The Advantages of a Cognitive Stylistic Analysis of a Literary Text in the Teaching of English to Grade Seven Students in the Philippines

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Abstract

<p>In the Revised 2010 Secondary Education Curriculum of the Philippines, the teaching of English focuses more on literary competence rather than critical thinking skills and communicative competence. Reading selections written in Philippine English are also given to Grade Seven students who, unfortunately, are not yet fully prepared to take in large amounts of texts making use of highfalutin words and complex structures of language.</p>

<p>This paper aims to confirm and demonstrate how a cognitive stylistic analysis of a literary text can help in the teaching of both language use and literature, critical thinking and culture to second language learners of English in high school, particularly in Grade Seven. It aims to illustrate how readers arrive at new conceptions of the world through reading the linguistic elements of the text while incorporating their appropriate schema, personal experiences, cultural, literary, and linguistic background, and how the language teacher should utilize this information to motivate language learners to read, write and think in English.</p>

<p>The language used in the short play written by Alberto Florentino, "The World is An Apple," will be analyzed using the theories of Cognitive Stylistics, particularly, schema theory, and the three major patterns in cognitive science: figure and ground distinction, cognitive metaphor theory, and prototypicality. The paper will also discuss briefly the use of Gricean maxims in the dialogue of the characters and how this helps in getting the main point across young language learners of English.</p>

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1. Introduction

Literature has always been known to mirror life. We recognize the way we live and the way the society works in most of the literary pieces we read. We feel happy when we can relate our own lives to certain stories, identify ourselves with the characters, and sometimes even try to emulate the way of life portrayed by the protagonist in our favorite stories.

That there is someone else, fictional or not, who experiences, does and feels the same things makes us believe that we are not alone in this world. According to Jeffries (2001, as cited in Jeffries and McIntyre, 2010:133), one of the reasons “why we find literary texts satisfying [is] because they reinforce our world view by reflecting our schematic knowledge.” Individual readers can find solace and hope in seeing a part of their identity taking shape in fictional characters particularly when they feel estranged from the culture they are in and cannot voice out their thoughts, feelings and sense of individuality.

Our different identities, experiences and ways of thinking explain our differences in *schema* or background knowledge of the world and this affects the way we get to an interpretation of a text. Readers interpret a particular text differently by utilizing their schemas in the process of meaning-making. In a way, we could say that literature does not only mirror life but also exposes it by letting us see what we presently don't know about the world; and in the process, depending on how we interpret things, we change, modify, or expand our ideas of it.

However, when the process of reading is out of context, where readers cannot apply or use it to their own advantage, aversion to reading occurs. Such is the case in the Philippines where there has been a decrease in the number of readers. According to the recent National Book Development Board Readership Survey conducted in 2012, from 90% in 2003, the percentage of readers dropped to 80% in 2012. Despite this, the survey saw an increase in the number of readers reading for entertainment, from 9% to 16% in 2012. Still, these readers would much rather prefer to read books in Filipino as they can relate to them while reading English texts prove to be more challenging, if not exhausting.

Aside from that, the rise of Taglish, the code-switched variety of combined Filipino and English, in media and other Philippine contexts has become “a very grave influence on our children” (Gonzales and Bautista 1981, p238 quoted in Thompson p155), “turning the upcoming generation of middle class students against English” (Encanto 1997, p15 cited in Thompson p155). This aversion to English manifests in the disappointing results of the National Achievement Tests which apparently owes to poor reading comprehension skills.

2. Background

One of the factors that affect a student's reading comprehension is the way reading is taught in schools. In the standard Philippine classroom, the traditional reading teacher would first introduce the meaning of difficult words in the text; then ask questions to motivate the students before the actual reading of the text. Finally, the students were

made to answer the comprehension questions on the book—questions which were mostly knowledge-based and require answers from the text itself.

Due to this kind of assessment, most students would just skip reading the whole text, scan the questions and keywords first before copying the answers extracted from the text verbatim, thus not doing any reading at all but answer-hunting. This is also evident in tips for timed reading comprehension tests in college entrance exams, therefore defeating the main purpose of reading.

Another factor is the choice of reading texts given to students. In the curriculum, high school students read literature depending on their year level: first year students read Philippine Literature; second year, Asian Literature; third year, American/British Literature and fourth year, World Literature. Unfortunately, there is a gap between the reading level of the students and the literary texts required by the curriculum.

For Grade Seven students, for instance, required texts include short stories written by, and perhaps, for the literati, such as “How My Brother Leon Brought Home A Wife” or “The Wedding Dance” —stories which contain vocabulary and sentence structures not appropriate for an eleven to thirteen-year-old who is just discovering the pleasures brought about by reading literature. The figurative language, literary devices and narrative techniques used in Literature also affect the students’ comprehension.

The 2010 Secondary Education Curriculum attempted to address this difficulty by incorporating literary elements in the teaching of literature. However, Plata (2010, p.95) pointed out that the curriculum’s “content standards did not include important aspects of functional literacy such as learning strategies, reading/writing strategies, and other aspects of communicative competence.” Instead of focusing on the development of the students’ critical thinking skills, students were required to memorize the definitions of literary elements and identify these in almost every narrative, a mechanical process which students have to deal with in their four years of junior high school.

As a solution, the K-12 Basic Education curriculum encourages motivation in reading by including schema and prior knowledge in the Reading Comprehension domain. But still, the problem as to how to teach literature with these difficulties remains unresolved.

According to Aquino (2006), there must be a “focus on language and how it is used as a tool for teaching, for introducing difficult concepts, for exploring possibilities, for creating beauty and order, for unlocking vocabulary, and for self-discovery. Moreover, it means determining if the story lends itself to the gradual yet systematic organization, structuring, and restructuring of its target readers’ learning experiences.”

3. Related Literature

3.1 Constructivism is a theory of learning which states that individuals create their own understanding based on their prior knowledge and the knowledge they acquire from others (Resnick, 1989 cited in Richardson 2003, p1623-24). Learners therefore are not passive receivers of knowledge but active meaning makers such that when one comes into contact with new information different from his prior knowledge, he must

assimilate the former to the latter therefore restructuring his knowledge and achieving higher levels of thinking skills (Piaget, 1977).

3.2 Cognitive Stylistics deals with the cognitive processes which occur during the act of reading and influence text interpretation. It takes into account both the formal features of language and the nonlinguistic context of the readers in constructing meaning out of a text, therefore veering away from “impressionistic reading and imprecise intuition” (Stockwell 2002, p5). Since readers are active constructors of meaning carrying different backgrounds and context, cognitive stylistics claims that it is impossible to find *the* meaning of the text.

The following are some theories and analytical frameworks commonly used in cognitive stylistic analysis (Stockwell 2002):

Schema Theory describes the process of how we incorporate our world knowledge to the interpretation of texts through the process of *defamiliarization*, or the restructuring of existing schemas to create a new perspective of the world.

Foregrounding Theory explains the readers’ ability to use prior knowledge in facilitating recognition of spatial foregrounding through parallelism and deviation and identifying the parts of the text which should be given attention.

Cognitive Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson 1980; Turner 1987) states that thought processes, and not just language, are metaphorical and that our schematic knowledge contributes to how we construct new perspectives of ourselves, our lives and our world. Metaphor used in language merely manifests how the mind operates, reflecting the metaphors in one’s conceptual system.

Blending Theory (Fauconnier and Turner 2002) establishes the idea that meaning is a result of blending elements from various input sources.

4. Cognitive Stylistic Analysis of a Philippine Literary Text

This paper will analyze Alberto S. Florentino’s “The World is An Apple,” since it deals with figurative language, particularly metaphor, which students find hard to comprehend in a literary text. Based on experience, such reading of a text often results in students’ answering questions and participating in discussions without understanding the text at all but by forming generalizations based on their fixed belief systems.

In the one-act play, which is about a poor family torn between living a life of honesty and poverty and a life of dishonesty and comfort, the class would generalize that the act of stealing is wrong instead of identifying what pushed the character to do such a thing. Nobody would attempt to understand, if not identify with, the wrongdoer since it is what the society, their culture and they themselves think is wrong.

By using cognitive stylistic analysis, the interpretation of the text will be based on the interaction among the linguistic elements of the text, the appropriate schema, personal experiences, cultural, literary and linguistic background of the readers.

4.1 Application of Schema/Foregrounding Theories

The play begins with a detailed description of the setting, the characters' dwelling place:

An improvised home behind a portion of the Intramuros walls. Two wooden boxes flank the doorway. At left is an acacia tree with a modern bench under it. Mario enters from the street at left. He is in his late twenties, shabbily dressed, and with hair that seems to have been uncut for weeks. He puts his lunch bag on the bench, sits down, removes his shoes, and puts them beside his lunch bag.

From the setting itself, we could already visualize the image of their dwelling place and presuppose the quality of life our characters live. Using the concept of figure and ground, we will analyze how the choice and positioning of the words in this description aids the readers on what they should expect in the story and on how these affect their interpretation of the text.

In the image we make out in this description, for instance, we know that the shelter is portrayed as the foreground and the portion of the Intramuros wall as the background since the "improvised home" is used as the subject or theme of the sentence. Despite its foregrounding, we must also note that the preposition "behind" gives a negative sense to this particular home. It shows us that it is covered or hidden from view.

Using our linguistic and world knowledge of what is often associated to something hidden, we come up with the ideas of it being secret, illegal, unknown or mysterious. Our schema tells us that the home must be hidden to conceal something which is unpleasant to the eye. Thus we get to the conclusion that the characters living in this "improvised" shelter are just squatting. The image of the "improvised home" leaning on the Intramuros wall for support tells us that it apparently cannot stand on its own, and that it doesn't belong there.

The choice of words also helps in our making sense of the text. For instance, we may note that the word home is used instead of house. Using our background knowledge of a house, we know that it is something made up of stable materials to make those living in it secure while on the other hand, a home is not material but something abstract in concept. It is clear that the dwelling place of the characters should not be called a house since they do not own it, especially the Intramuros wall which serves as their support; and it is just "improvised," therefore suggesting that it is unstable and is in no way permanent.

The idea of the home being improvised or unplanned also gives us the idea that the family wasn't planned at all. This also triggers our schema of teenagers entering into a relationship early and struggling to support a family without financial, mental and emotional preparation. We might conclude that the home's being improvised is not only an equivalent but also a result to the house's being unstable and impermanent. Something is not only wrong with their shelter, something is definitely wrong with their family.

In the second statement, we shift our attention to the doorway and the two wooden boxes. We notice the use of personification and active voice in this sentence, giving

the two wooden boxes, which are inanimate objects, life and action as compared to the mere description of the setting in the preceding and succeeding fragments. By using the word 'flank' which is usually associated to an action supposed to be for soldiers, meaning, 'to stand on the side of a military formation,' we see the irony of the situation. Since these boxes are made of wood, they most likely cannot guard the doorway the way soldiers should. We also note that there must be something evil that should be prevented from entering, a beast in the form of a sinful person, Pablo.

It is not until the fourth statement that a moving figure is seen. Using figure and ground, we automatically know that Mario should be given more importance than the rest of the images. This is portrayed by the succeeding sentences which all describes him. Mario's figure gets our attention and sustains throughout the next sentences.

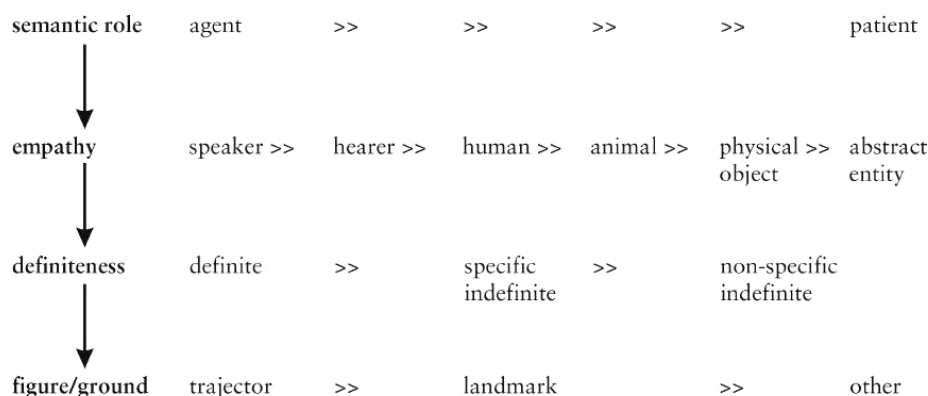
According to Stockwell (2002:15), "characters are figures against the ground of their settings, ... have boundaries summarized by their proper names, and ... carry along or evolve specific psychological or personal traits." They are presented in contrast to the other objects in the scene by being represented as agents of action and not passive receivers of action.

In the description above, we note that the verbs attached to Mario are mostly material verbs (enters, puts, sits, removes, and puts again) instead of attributive or existential (is) since the latter are mostly used to describe the background. Mario becomes the trajector (figure) moving through a path (enters from the left) in the landmark (ground), which is the street.

We can further explain how our attention focuses on Mario using the diagram of topicality below. The topicality of the subject can be understood as a prototype structure along four dimensions, namely, semantic role, empathy, definiteness and figure/ground organization (Langacker, 1991, as cited in Stockwell, 2002:61).

Using the sentence, "Mario enters from the street at left," we will determine the topic-worthiness of Mario. Since the sentence is in the active voice, Mario is the agent in the clause. His empathy scale is 'human' since the text is not in the first-person point of view. Mario is higher in the empathy scale than the two wooden boxes since they are 'physical objects.' Even though the boxes were thematised as agents since they were personified by representing the action of flanking, we shift our attention to Mario because of his higher rank in the empathy scale. He is also portrayed as definite because not only do we know his name, but we were also given succeeding descriptions about him. Finally, he is seen as the figure or trajector moving through the landmark or ground which is the street.

□ The topicality of subject



4.2 Application of the Cognitive Metaphor Theory

Later in the play, we learn that Mario was fired from his work for stealing an apple, which he planned to give to his daughter, Tita, but all to no avail. Tita is their undernourished child who refused to eat *lugaw*, perhaps the only kind of food her parents could serve her aside from the biscuits, owing to their lack of money. Still, we find out that Mario was not even able to bring the apple home for her child because he was caught pilfering. He however reasoned out to his wife by saying, “Why? Did God create apple trees to bear fruit for the rich alone? Didn’t he create the whole world for everyone?” By analyzing the syntax of the sentences, we can see the comparison of the apple to the world.

Did	God	create	apple trees	to bear fruit	for	the rich alone?
Didn't	he	create	the whole world		for	everyone?"

The first words of both interrogative sentences are almost the same except for the latter’s being negative. This, however, is balanced by their objects of the preposition ‘for’ in the end of their sentences. The word ‘alone’ makes ‘the rich’ exclusive receivers of the apples. On the other hand, ‘everyone’ includes all people but the ‘not’ contraction attached to the auxiliary verb makes it negative, too, making them still similar in sense.

The pronoun ‘he’ refers to God in the first sentence. The verb ‘create’ and the preposition ‘for’ are repeated. This puts to the foreground the phrases, “apple trees to bear fruit” and “the whole world.” In the first sentence, we have an infinitive phrase, “to bear fruit” modifying the noun phrase apple trees, which therefore focuses our attention to the “fruit” instead of the trees. We then get the sense that apples are, at least for Mario, similar to the world.

The title itself introduces us to the comparison of the two things, the world and an apple through the use of the metaphor. Lakoff and Johnson (1980:4, as cited in Goddard, 1998: 77) claims that “most of our conceptual system is metaphorical in nature...and that there are [certain] metaphors that structure how we perceive, how we think, and what we do.”

The metaphor that suggests the world is an apple is not a conceptual metaphor because this is not how we normally perceive the world; it is not part of our language

expressions. However, in “The World is An Apple,” Florentino introduces a new concept, a new way of perceiving things.

In a literal sense, the world could never be just an apple as something so large cannot be compared to something small. We must note that the world is preceded by the definite and specific article “the” while an apple used the indefinite article “an,” which means any apple would do. It is just *an* apple, an object which is not particularly special in any way compared to *the* world.

We can also connect this to Mario’s reasoning out by asking those two questions. Stealing a single apple is nothing serious. As Mario explained, “Could I have guessed they would do that for one apple? When there were millions of them?” For Mario, stealing an apple is just like stealing the world. Since God created the world for everybody, everyone should benefit from it. This mindset caused him to get fired in his job.

4.3 Application of the Blending Theory

All throughout time, we have been presented with the apple as a symbol for something, none of these representing the world. In Greek Mythology, Eris, the goddess of discord threw an apple with words written on it. This apple started the Trojan War. Snow White was put to sleep by her evil stepmother when she bit the poisonous apple. God banished Adam and Eve from the Garden of Eden for eating the fruit of the knowledge of good and evil, which is the apple. Among all these stories, the apple served as the tempting fruit which made all these characters commit sin or get into trouble.

In the play, Mario was also tempted by the apple:

We were hauling them to the warehouse. I saw one roll out of a broken crate. It was that big (demonstrates). It looked so delicious. Suddenly, I found myself putting it in my lunch bag.

Mario was weak when it comes to temptation. We learned from Pablo that he has experienced a very comfortable life back when he was still unmarried and stealing things. Together with Pablo, he could “go to first-class, air-conditioned movie houses every other day,” but when he got married to Gloria, he was “liberated” from sin and luxury; he apparently never got the chance to go into one again. It may seem that he was tempted by the luxury and comfort of a life that can be easily achieved only by stealing.

However, this is in not the case, for he has been living the simple life for four years after getting out of jail. The real reason why he stole the apple and later, why he went back to stealing, was for his daughter:

On our way home, we passed by a grocery store that sold “delicious” apples at seventy centavos each. She wanted me to buy one for her, but I did not have seventy centavos. What I did was buy her one of those small, green apples they sell on the sidewalk, but she just threw it away, saying it was not a real apple. Then she cried.

We have earlier found out that Tita, despite not having any appearance, is a picky child as when she refused to eat the “lugaw” her mother prepared her. Now, in this passage, Tita introduced the distinction between real and fake apples. This particular apple which Tita calls the ‘real’ apple is tempting and ‘delicious’ but there is an expensive price to pay. The green one which is just bought from the sidewalk is a fake one. Our background knowledge tells us that both are real apples, however, for Tita, one of the two kinds is not.

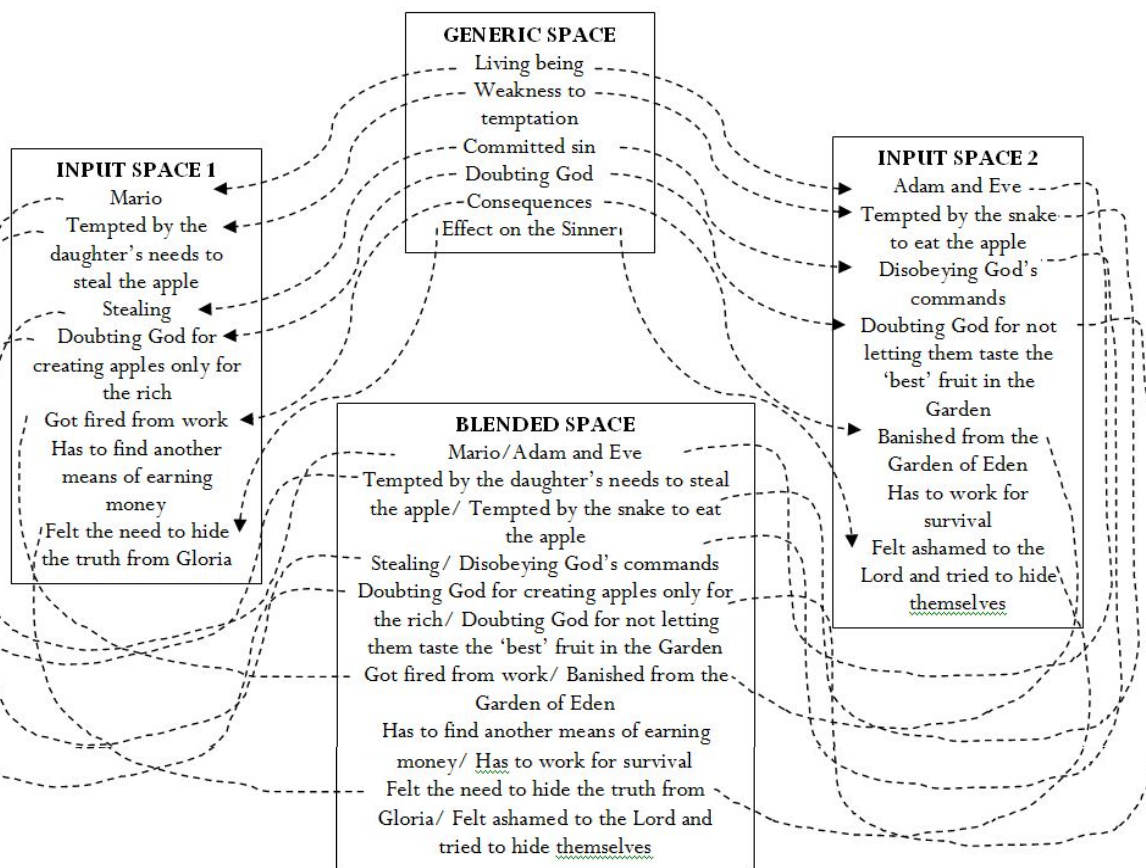
The big red apple, which can only be bought by the rich, no matter what Mario says about the apple being for everyone, symbolizes the extravagant life while the small green one, the simple life. Both were real apples but Tita chose the former, saying the latter was not real. Somehow, Tita has chosen for Mario. She wants the comfortable life—the “real” one. This made Mario realize that they are not really living the “life,” but barely existing, as suggested by their “hidden” home.

Aside from the apple symbolizing temptation, we can see that it also symbolizes good health, as implied in the quote, “An apple a day keeps the doctor away.” The apple would give health to their sick and undernourished daughter. Gloria says to Pablo that they do not know what Tita is sick of, but her being picky of what to eat is the reason why she is undernourished, and not because of having nothing to eat. Tita is sick, not in the literal sense. She is sick of eating “lugaw” all the time; and she is sick of the way they live their life.

By going back to stealing, Mario could give Tita as many apples as she wants. He values his family’s happiness and contentment over honesty. This also explains why stealing that single apple is very important for Mario to the point where he could lose a thousand jobs. It might be ‘nothing much’ for them but for Mario, it is a way to please his daughter and to prove his worth as a father.

Mario’s mental reasoning is demonstrated in his statement, “when we brought her into this world, we sort of promised her everything she had a right to have in life,” to which Gloria replied, “so for a measly apple, you lost a job you needed so much—” Just like Adam who did not take into account the possible consequences of what he did and lost his part in the Garden of Eden, Mario’s objective was merely to bring home an apple, the symbol of a comfortable living and good health, clouding everything including his reason.

The play takes a very serious and moralistic tone in that there are many allusions to the Bible. Also, Mario’s wife, Gloria always mentions God and how He will not let them go poor so that they won’t need to go back to their evil ways of living. The blending theory can help us identify the comparisons between Mario’s sin and the original sin committed by Adam and Eve.



4.4 Application of Prototypicality

The dialogue of the characters is perhaps what constitutes the flesh of the play and therefore, it would not be a complete analysis if we do not take into account the dialogue. Mario had evaded answering the real question and lied directly to Gloria several times to prevent her from knowing the truth, as “it’s better if [Gloria doesn’t] know about the apple.” Here, we can make a connection on the fruit of the knowledge of good and evil, in which, not knowing means Adam and Eve can have everything they want without working for it.

For some readers, the statement “I had a few drinks with my friends” is the beginning of Mario’s lying. However, if we look closely at the way he answered Gloria’s questions before that, we will see that he has lied to her much earlier.

How do the readers know when a character in a narrative is actually lying? How is language used in the context? First, we try to identify the prototypical notion of what lying really is to most people. The prototype effect is the phenomenon where some members of a category appear to be more typical and more salient members than others (Rosch, 1977, 1978, as cited in Goddard 1998, p71).

Goddard (1998, p72, citing Linda Coleman and Paul Kay, 1981) stressed that prototype experiments of other kinds of words beside nouns had been explored, such as Coleman and Kay’s (1981) study of “people’s judgments about the abstract verb, *to lie*... [where they] found out that there was nearly a universal agreement that a deliberate falsehood told in order to deceive was certainly a lie, but that it was

difficult to decide in cases where someone said something that was literally true but was intended to mislead.”

Mario has tried to mislead Gloria by flouting the Gricean Maxims (Grice 1989). In statements (2, 4, 6, 12, 14, 18, and 21), Mario has flouted the maxim of relevance, in that he answers Gloria but shifts to another topic. The maxim of quantity was flouted in statements (2, 4, 6, 10, and 21) by not giving sufficient information or providing too much. He flouted the maxim of manner in statement (4) and the maxim of quality by directly saying a lie which he knows is not true in statements (8, 16, and 21).

In contrast to Gloria’s beliefs, Mario thinks that honesty is not that important. Pablo even challenged Gloria’s way of thinking by saying that honesty is being poor and ugly since it doesn’t buy more and it doesn’t make her look better. In desperation, Gloria tried to hurt Pablo, the man she calls the beast, to prevent her husband from going with him. But then, her act of hurting Pablo, transformed her into a beast, since Pablo is the only person who can help them at the moment, no matter how “dishonest” the help can be. The scene ends with Gloria, crying out to Mario. This was followed by Tita’s cry coming from inside the house. It is clear to us which cry Mario heard since he continued on his way.

5. Results and Discussion

In the cognitive stylistic analysis of the text, the difficulties faced by students in reading are settled through cognitive theories and analytical frameworks: relationship to experience or prior knowledge (Schema/Blending); complexity of structures (Figure and Ground), and figurative language/literary devices used (Cognitive Metaphor/Prototypicality).

From the application of the analysis to classroom setting, the researcher has identified the following advantages:

- 1) Students are made aware of how language is used to achieve a certain function, such as how the writer develops the ideas in the text, why he makes use of particular words and sentences, repetitions and deviations and how it all contribute to the overall interpretation of the text.
- 2) Students find it easier to understand the text because it follows what happens in the mind and how the brain works. They no longer find reading as “nakakabobo” (makes you feel stupid) or “nakakahilo” (makes you feel dizzy) since they are given ample time to process unfamiliar words, use of words, structures and content and synthesize them to create meaning out of the narrative whole.
- 3) It motivates them to read more because they create their own meaning out of the text and therefore relate their experiences to what they’re reading. Because students have varied schemas, students are encouraged to share their own interpretation in class while making use of the systematic methods of analysis. It should be clear that the following analysis is only one of the many possible interpretations of the text; however, it is useful in providing “scaffolding” to assist the students in their zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978 in Jones and Brader-Araje 2002). When students finally get used to making meaning systematically, they may create their own

understanding independently, and possibly even evaluate the teacher's interpretation of the text.

4) It improves their reading and critical thinking skills by being insightful of the parts which should be given importance in the text. They are also introduced to metacognition by questioning themselves whether their interpretations are valid and justifiable by the text. The students become aware that the themes presented are the writers' own opinions and they have the discernment to agree or disagree on these. As Al Mansoob (2012, p55) says, "students should also be exposed to texts with codes of moral or cultural variation from their own culture if we want them to conduct a practical and challenging analysis."

5) It helps them better understand texts which make use of figurative language and narrative techniques. They do not just learn the definition of these literary devices, such as the metaphor, but instead understand how it contributes to the overall meaning of the text.

6) Finally, because they recognize that the teacher wouldn't censure them for any wrong answers, as there is no correct one, they become more open to other ideas, assimilate new understanding to their existing schemas and develop higher order thinking skills.

6. Conclusion

Incorporating cognitive stylistic analysis in the teaching of the text requires a lot of time and effort. Teachers must first understand and analyze the text, including how language was used by the writer, in order to assist the students in pointing at the most important points of the text and asking appropriate questions that will lead to understanding.

By using our linguistic knowledge and the schema we have of the world, we can make sense and give meaning to what we read. Our experiences and ideas of the world, together with the writer's linguistic creativity in choosing the right words and structures can *literally* bring us into different worlds.

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Early Foreign Language Learning - Challenges in Materials Design for Young Learners

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Abstract

The paper will focus on teaching and learning materials used in early foreign language learning. The aim is to identify the most important factors in syllabus and course book design. The idea is to find answers to two questions: What are the latest tendencies in materials design for young learners? What is the nature of culture content included in materials for young learners? The project involves an analysis of twelve syllabuses and fifteen course books currently used in teaching English to children. The data were collected during the review studies for Polish Ministry of Education and based on a checklist. It is hoped that the results from the research project will bring implications for early foreign language learning and enrich the process of materials design for young learners.

Key words: early foreign language learning, young learners, materials design, culture content

In literature, the term young learners may refer to three groups of children. Firstly, the children in kindergartens, who are between 2 and 5 years old and called very young learners (VYL). Secondly, it may relate to the children, whose age ranges between 6 and 8 in the first stage of schooling when early language learning is introduced in Europe. They are young learners (YL) in 1st, 2nd and 3rd grades, who become sensitized to a foreign language (FL) and experience it through play-like activities. Thirdly, the term may refer to older young learners (OYL), who are in 4th, 5th and 6th grades, and experience more systematic FL teaching in primary school.

Nevertheless, learning languages involves psychological, linguistic and cultural changes in children's minds. Early foreign language learning (EFL) is very popular in Europe due to its positive effect on children's language and personal skills, positive attitudes to other languages and cultures (cf. Brewster, Ellis and Girard, 2002:5, 54). The priorities accepted include: early start of learning languages and life-long language education. The idea is to give recognition to the needs of YL and promote intercultural experience. EFL¹ is widely promoted and supported by 73% of the EU population, who claim that the knowledge of languages helps in the professional career. The common policy is to teach 2 (or more languages) in schools. For all learners in Europe, having the command of more than one FL becomes an increasingly important factor². For this reason, both the Council of Europe and the European Union encourage all citizens to be multilingual; specifically to be able to speak 2 foreign languages (the first one for international communication, and the second, the language of the neighbouring country) (cf. Komorowska, 2010:54-58).

The idea is to develop inter-cultural communicative competence (ICC) to prepare YL for encounters with others. ICC embraces linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence plus five inter-cultural components such as positive attitudes, knowledge about culture, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery/interaction, political education and critical cultural awareness (cf. Byram after Sobkowiak, 2008:47-57). The aim is to develop specific meta-cultural awareness, cultural sensitivity, awareness of own cultural identity, develop empathy and tolerance, curiosity and critical thinking (cf. Sobkowiak, 2008:53-54). YL learn simultaneously a FL, socio-cultural competence and ICC. These skills help them with the linguistic and pragmatic behaviour during communicative interactions.

¹ EFL in Europe faces challenges grouped in the six following dichotomies (cf. Doyé, 1999:123-124):

- a) Integration of a FL vs. a separate subject: relates to the position of a FL in the curriculum, following the holistic approach or gradual embedding.
- b) Systematic courses vs. occasional teaching: relates to the organization of a FL teaching process.
- c) Language learning vs. language/cultural awareness: refers to the development of the language skills and the function of intercultural communicative competence (ICC).
- d) FL in the core curriculum vs. an optional activity: relates the role of a FL in the curriculum as a major part of primary education or an extra activity.
- e) Class teacher vs. subject teacher: relates to the qualifications, experience and role of a FL teacher as an expert with the appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes to YL.
- f) Communicative competence vs. sensitization of YL for languages: relates to the aims of EFL and its continuity in further education.

² There are 23 official (national) languages recognized in the EU in addition to regional and minority languages. The national languages of the EU are the working languages used for drafting regulations of general application.

Moreover, YL learn languages and culture from educational materials, which promote both visible and invisible aspects of culture. The visible aspects are easy to explain and clear to all learners for example traditions and customs such as cuisine or Christmas. The invisible aspects of culture refer to value systems, beliefs and socio-cultural norms that are difficult to explain and usually are not examined intellectually in a FL classroom (cf. Hinkel, 2001:443-458, Kramersch, 2002:201-206). In this paper the term materials involves syllabuses and course books produced by publishers and accepted by Polish Ministry of Education. Although materials are criticised for inappropriate cultural realities and not reflecting the latest research into language acquisition, still they constitute the basic resources and provide support for both teachers and learners (cf. Tomlinson, 2013:15-18, McGrath, 2013:5-17).

The educational materials “mirror” cultural values and transfer cultural content in more or less considerable degree, influencing learners’ perceptions and attitudes towards the target language nation and culture (cf. Krawiec, 2012:105-116). In particular, content (and the degree of culture content) in materials has an impact on YL’ holistic development (cognitive, individual, social and emotional spheres). It may influence the amount of a FL they will remember (the input interesting for them); their behaviour, relationships and interactions; their mental development (challenging tasks); their motivation (interesting tasks); thinking about themselves (positive experience); perception about themselves (picture of themselves) (cf. Gerngross and Puchta, 2000:12-13). The tendency is to follow four objectives in material design for intercultural language education. Namely, authors include content which develops knowledge of self and others, awareness of self and others, attitudes, skills of exploring, interpreting and interacting (cf. Byram and Masuhara, 2013:150-154). Inter-cultural teaching rather than only British studies are promoted, which is compared in the table below (cf. Bolt, 2001:101).

British studies	Intercultural teaching
Knowledge-based	Experiential (awareness, skills)
Focus: target culture	Focus: target and learner’s native culture
Outcome: target culture, native speaker	Outcome: variety of cultural outcomes
Teacher-centred	Learner-centred (autonomy)
Culture-dependant	Generic (transferable)
Monolithic, national picture of culture	Heterogeneous picture of culture
Textbook-based	Centred on original resources
Goal: knowledge	Goal: skills, attitudes, knowledge

Tab.1. Aspects of British culture and intercultural teaching.

Intercultural language teaching links 2 culture systems: YL’ native culture and the target language culture, which may be developed in a FL classroom. The process may lead to the progress in skills of observation, empathy for others, adaptation skills in intercultural situations and fostering of YL’ cultural identity (cf. Marczak, 2012:15-16).

Furthermore, visual component in the educational materials is the essential element which transmits cultural meanings and values. The component may serve 2 roles. Firstly, it is the supporting item to the linguistic component. Secondly, it is the stimulator for a discussion about culture. Wright states that visual materials are very important in delivering details about culture. He identified eight categories of pictures that are included in teaching and learning materials for YL such as: pictures of objects

(food, clothes, animals), people (stars and celebrities), people in action (everyday activities, travel), places (views), history (costumes), news, maps and other symbols (cf. Lugossy, 2007:77-89, Wright after Krawiec, 2012:112). The quality and amount of pictures provided in course books for YL may be another area of research.

1. Research purpose

The research purpose is to investigate the factors important in the design of teaching and learning materials for YL. In particular, it is to describe the latest tendencies in content with a focus on culture content included in syllabuses and course books used in EFLL.

2. Research questions

The idea is to find answers to the following questions:

- a) What are the latest tendencies in materials design for young learners?
- b) What is the nature of culture content included in materials for young learners?

3. Research procedure

The project involves an analysis of English syllabuses and course books for YL. It is based on the data obtained during the evaluation and review studies for Polish Ministry of Education. The instrument entitled: *Syllabus and course book evaluation: a global checklist* is composed of 10 sets of questions. The checklist includes the following groups of questions:

1. Questions about *rationale* relate to the purpose of the materials indicated, the level of EFLL.
2. Questions about *assumptions* relate to the educational theories and pedagogical concepts stated in the materials.
3. Questions about *context and user definition* relate to the description of the target group such as the degree of knowledge and skills assumed of YL.
4. Questions about *objectives and scope* relate to the description of the general learning, the detailed objectives and extra objectives.
5. Questions about *content and coverage* relate to the teaching content and topics included in the materials with a focus on culture content.
6. Questions about *practicality* relate to procedures, methods, techniques and tasks indicated for the materials implementation.
7. Questions about *illustration* relate to the visual presentation of the content (illustrations, diagrams, tables and drawings) and its nature.
8. Questions about *culture education* relate to the culture advocated (issues of origin, age, class, values, relations, customs and gender patterns, which may be considered as a hidden curriculum).
9. Questions about *standard requirements and assessment* relate to the procedures for the assessment of learners' progress.
10. Questions about *appropriateness* relate to the teaching materials designed, the amount and relevance to methodology of teaching a FL; the relation between the recommended teaching materials and the conceptual level of YL.

4.1 Sample selection:

The evaluation is initiated by syllabus and course book sample selection. The materials selected had to fulfil two criteria: practical consideration (materials should be designed for YL) and up-to-date methodology (cf. Williams, 1983:251-255). For the purpose of the investigation 12 syllabuses are selected and coded respectively: 2 for VYL, 5 for YL, 5 for OYL. There are also 15 course books selected and coded respectively: 5 for VYL, 5 for YL, 5 for OYL. The process requires a precise identification of feedback and analysis of data. The results from the evaluation are recorded and compiled on charts. The final step is to compare the answers collected in these two stages.

5. Interpretation of the results

The results³ indicate that materials development for EFL may be compared to ESP syllabus/course book design. Namely, materials for YL form a multidimensional framework and include the following categories:

1. Educational goals (key competencies): listed in the syllabus for YL focusing on the most essential schooling skills and abilities.
2. Teaching goals (educational goals): listed as learning strategies and non-linguistic skills including ICC, development of a positive attitude to other languages and cultures.
3. Teaching objectives: listed as linguistic skills to be learnt by YL and can be defined in operational forms (compare with Bloom's taxonomy).
4. Selection of topics and situations: the most interesting topics are listed under the headings of: *Family and Relatives, Games and Toys, Animals and Pets, Food and Drinks, Home, Health and Parts of the Body, Clothes, Shops and Money, Sports and Hobbies, School, Friends, Jobs and Skills, Everyday Objects, Time/Days/Months/Season, Weather and Everyday Plans, Places and Buildings, Holidays and Traditions, Countries, Nationalities and Travelling, Means of Communication, Directions and Means of Transport, Feelings and Opinion, Literature for YL – Fairy Tales.*
5. Selection of vocabulary (pronunciation): listed as words and phrases to describe the world of YL and associated with the topics and situations interesting for YL.
6. Selection of functions: listed as the basic communicative functions needed for dialogues, for example to greet, say goodbye, identify and present people/places/time, describe skills and abilities, describe behaviour and give orders.
7. Selection of grammatical categories: listed as structures and grammatical patterns that are recommended for comprehension at this level of EFL, for example countable/uncountable nouns, determiners and pronouns, question forms, prepositions of place/time and space, adjectives and adverbs, conjunctions, imperatives, present/future/past forms of tenses and modal verbs.
8. Selection of methods, procedures and techniques: appropriate practical procedures for teaching and learning in a FL primary classroom.
9. Teaching outcomes: receptive, productive, interaction and mediation skills plus a set of "learning to learn" skills desired after each stage of EFL.
10. Forms and criteria for assessment: forms and criteria of global and continuous assessment of YL' progress.

³ For the purpose of this article a part of the most relevant results is discussed.

Moreover, a model of topics have been identified in the investigated materials and presented in a table number 2 below:

I and ...		
My family	My school	My country
My home	My background	Other countries
My toys	My city/village	

Tab.2. Topics in materials for children.

The general tendency is to introduce initially the topics linked with the nearest background of YL. For example these are topics linked with family and school, and only later topics related both to “home” – *My country* – and the target language culture – *Other countries*. The detailed aspects of teaching culture and development of ICC in the materials for YL are presented in a table number 3 below:

Course book	Home (Polish) Culture	FL (Anglo-Saxon) culture
Course books for VYL	Merry Christmas Happy Easter My family	<u>Halloween</u> Christmas Easter My family (Mother’s day)
Course books for YL	Birthday Christmas Easter Happy New Year	Birthday <u>Halloween</u> Bonfire’s Night Christmas New Year’s Eve Valentine’s day Easter <u>Mother’s day</u> <u>English fairy-tales</u> <u>Lets’ travel</u>
Course books for OYL	<u>Snapshot of my country:</u> fact file, population, languages, cities, capital city <u>Information about Europe:</u> capital cities, languages, famous people of science, celebrities and stars, climate, wildlife, places to visit	<u>Information about the UK:</u> famous Britons (Shakespeare), holidays, geography (Scotland, Wales, England), birthday, meal times, sport, history, music. <u>Information about the USA:</u> holidays (Thanksgiving, Independence day), geography, climate, capital city, people, entertainment, sport, music. <u>Information about</u> <u>Australia/Canada:</u> geography, climate, capital cities, places to visit, people, entertainment, sport.

Tab.3. Development of ICC in the selected English course books for YL

The list of items in all the selected books indicate a dominating presence of Anglo-Saxon culture aspects. The materials for VYL and YL share three standard cultural

items, which can be simultaneously related to home and target language culture, such as Christmas, Easter and personal elements linked with the family and birthday. However, YL learn also about Halloween, Valentine's day, Mother's day and English fairy-tales mainly in the English culture context, which may differ from the Polish viewpoint on the matters. The universal elements of travelling are introduced at this stage as well.

Still, the materials designed for OYL, for the second stage of EFLL in primary school incorporate more complex aspects of English culture. Namely, there are details not only about the UK, the USA but also about Canada and Australia. The common tendency is to introduce details about people, places, sport, music, geography, history and holidays in a wider perspective. As the results show, the similar pattern of cultural items is offered in the presentation of the Polish, European and international cultures. Then, the Polish studies and inter-cultural teaching are more balanced in the materials for the second part of primary education.

Nevertheless, the materials for VYL, YL and OYL share similar lexical items associated with development of ICC. The most common lexical groups include such items as names of countries and nations, friends from other countries, holidays, customs and celebrations in other countries, towns in Poland and other countries, animals in other countries. The most common communicative functions linked with ICC and advocated in syllabuses for YL are: writing Christmas and Easter postcards, Birthday cards, describing peers from other countries, their games and interests, countries and nationalities, holidays and customs, towns and places. The tendency is to introduce between six and ten new lexical items per each celebration or holiday in EFLL.

4. Conclusions

Materials design in EFLL should be planned at the level of holistic child development and at the level of teaching a FL to YL. The holistic child development refers to the first/second language acquisition, physical/biological development, mental/emotional development plus individual/social development of YL, whose profile can be described earlier. The process of teaching a FL should be based on the course design approach to meet the needs of the particular group of YL and teachers.

Teaching and learning materials (in their iconographic and textual form) influence YL and spread cultural meanings in the educational environment, stressing the connection between language learning and culture learning. Teachers should avoid forming a taxonomy of differences between familiar and "exotic" culture, remembering that misinterpretations of culture may reinforce stereotypes. The best idea is to apply properly cultural aspects and adjust them to the teaching situation as it involves the interplay between personal and social factors. Culture is always linked with gender, education, age, nation and interest, which are included in materials with different manifestation. The challenge is to find a balance approach, to use generalization on the one hand and individualisation on the other. The essential point is to remember that what is true of the whole is not necessarily true of the parts while the classroom interaction is always at the level of individuals and generalizations are unsuited for a FL primary classroom (cf. Guest, 2002:156-161, Vickov, 2007:105-119).

Culture content and its degree in the materials for YL vary. Then, at the stage of EFLL, the most appropriate are the materials which incorporate the basic information about both home and target language culture. They can support easily the development of ICC among YL. Moreover, teachers (parents) should be aware of “hidden curricula” in the materials for YL, which taught various attitudes to home and other traditions. Teachers should be aware of their role and the role of materials in the development of ICC. The aim is to foster YL’ home culture and familiarize them with other cultures. It can be achieved gradually following the systematic introduction of aspects in a FL classroom such as:

1. Aspects of Home Culture.
2. Aspects of Anglo-Saxon Culture.
3. Aspects of European Culture.
4. Aspect of the World – International Culture.

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Gender, Self- Motivating Strategies Use, Foreign Language Learning Motivation and Foreign Language Grade

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Abstract

There is a need to gather empirical data concerning gender differences in students' self-regulation of foreign language learning motivation. Therefore two research problems were formulated: do male and female foreign language learners differ in terms of self-motivating strategies use? Is foreign language grade related differently with foreign language learning motivation and self-motivating strategies use in men and women? Two instruments were constructed: Self-motivating Strategies Inventory consisting of 27 items measuring planning ($\alpha=0,77$), focusing attention ($\alpha=0,73$), generating positive emotions ($\alpha=0,73$) and imagining consequences of actions ($\alpha=0,69$) and Foreign Language Learning Motivation Inventory ($\alpha = 0,70$). Data were collected from upper secondary school and university students (182 women and 113 men). It was found that men less frequently than women use self-motivating strategies such as: planning [$t = - 3,58$; $p<0,001$], focusing attention [$t = - 2,93$; $p<0,010$;] and visualizing consequences of actions [$t = - 4,37$; $p<0,001$]. Male students with low foreign language motivation who rarely used self-motivating strategies had lower average foreign language grade than male participants from the remaining three subgroups characterized by: high frequency of self-motivating strategies use and low foreign language motivation ($p<0,01$), low frequency of self-motivating strategies use and high foreign language motivation ($p<0,01$) as well as high frequency of self-motivating strategies use and high foreign language motivation ($p<0,01$). Practical conclusions concerning foreign language teaching will be presented.

1. Introduction

The aim of the article is to present the results of the study concerning the relationship between gender, self-motivating strategies use, foreign language motivation and foreign language grade. First, the differences between male and female foreign language learners in self-motivating strategies use were investigated. Next, between-groups comparisons were made to test the differences in the level of foreign language grade of foreign language learners varying in terms of gender, self-motivating strategies use and foreign language learning motivation.

The key concept for the research described in the article are self-motivating strategies defined as “student’s active efforts to intervene in order to sustain or improve their motivation” (Wolters, Benzón, & Arroyo-Giner, 2011, pp. 298-299). Regulation of motivation is listed as one of the aspects of learning self-regulation together with regulation of cognitive processes, behaviours and study environment (Pintrich, 2004). The use of self-motivating strategies is included in self-regulation models derived from Bandura’s socio-cognitive theory of learning. These models present learning self-regulation as a cyclical process consisting of forethought, performance, monitoring and reflection phases. Regulation of motivation is ascribed especially to performance stage (Zimmerman, 2011).

Motivational regulation demands the general knowledge concerning motivation and the ways in which it can be controlled. It also requires the awareness of personal attitudes towards the task to be performed as well as the ability to monitor one’s own motivational states and to use strategies which can alter these states (Wolters, Benzón, & Arroyo-Giner, 2011). One of the classifications of self-motivating strategies was presented by Z. Dörnyei (2001). The Author distinguished strategies which facilitate:

- focusing attention on learning goal – such as imagining success or consequences of failure;
- focusing attention on learning tasks - for example, monitoring compliance to work plans and ignoring distractions;
- overcoming tiredness and boredom - this group of strategies includes introducing elements of fun and competition to the task being performed and changing types of learning activities and the way of performing them;
- control over emotions - including generating positive states of mind by means of affirmations, recalling past success and rewards as well as diverting attention from negative states of mind thanks to relaxation techniques;
- changing learning environment - for example, creating and caring for the relationships which are beneficial to learning.

Researchers use the term “affective strategies” to refer to students’ behaviours aimed at controlling emotions and motivation which assist foreign language learning (Oxford, 1990). Studies provided contradictory results as far as gender differences in the use of these strategies is concerned. L. Rana and R. Oxford (2003) found no difference between Taiwanese boys and girls in the use of affective language strategies. Similarly, in the context of western culture, no differences between female and male European students learning modern Greek as a foreign language were found (Psaltou-Joycey, 2008). On the contrary, T. Ghee with coworkers (2010) gathered data showing that among Malaysian students learning mandarin as a third language, women used affective language strategies more frequently than men. The need of

gathering empirical data concerning gender differences in the use of strategies which facilitate control over motivation and emotions is stressed also in the literature devoted to self-regulation of learning in general (Zeidner, Boekaerts, & Pintrich, 2000).

Self-regulation literature concerning self-motivating strategies use shows that not only gender differences in employing motivational regulation need further investigation. The link between self-motivating strategies use, learning motivation and learning outcomes needs to be supported by empirical data. Moreover, there is a need to construct instruments aimed solely to measuring the intensity of self-motivating strategies use (Wolters et al., 2011). Items or individual scales devoted to learning motivation and its management can be found in the inventories of learning self-regulatory strategies like Motivational and Learning Strategy Questionnaire (MSLQ), constructed by Pintrich, Smith, Garcia and McKeachie (1993) and Learning and Study Strategies Inventory (Weinstein & Palmer, 2002). However, these tools typically contain items concerning attitudes towards learning, learning goals and learning motivation rather than control over motivational and emotional processes accompanying learning (Brodeur & Mercier, 2006). Therefore Self-Motivating Strategies Inventory was constructed for the purpose of the research and the study was undertaken with the aim to obtain data concerning differences in male and female foreign language learners in terms of self-motivating strategies use and the relationship between self-motivating strategies use, foreign language motivation and foreign language grade.

2. Problem and hypotheses

The answers to the following research problems were sought:

1. Do male and female foreign language learners differ in terms of self-motivating strategies use?
2. Is foreign language grade related differently with self-motivating strategies use and foreign language learning motivation in men and women?

Eight hypotheses were formulated.

H1. There is a difference between men and women in terms of the general self-motivating strategies use.

H2. There is a difference between men and women in terms of the use of self-motivating strategies facilitating:

- a. planning,
- b. focusing attention,
- c. generating positive emotions,
- d. imagining consequences of one's actions.

It was also assumed that the use of self-motivating strategies may increase learning motivation which, in turn, may contribute to better learning effects. Hence hypotheses were formulated assuming differences in foreign language grade in the subgroups of participants different in terms of gender, self-motivating strategies use intensity and learning motivation.

- H3. In a male group there is a difference in foreign language grade between the students with high and low frequency of self-motivating strategies use.
- H4. In a male group there is a difference in foreign language grade between the students with high and low foreign language learning motivation.
- H5. In a male group there is an interaction effect of foreign language learning motivation and the frequency of self-motivating strategies use on foreign language grade.
- H6. In a female group there is a difference in foreign language grade between the students with high and low frequency of self-motivating strategies use.
- H7. In a female group there is a difference in foreign language grade between the students with high and low foreign language learning motivation.
- H8. In a female group there is an interaction effect of foreign language learning motivation and the frequency of self-motivating strategies use on foreign language grade.

3. Method

3.1. Instruments

Foreign language grade was treated as a dependent variable. Independent variables were: gender, self-motivating strategies use and language learning motivation. Information concerning the values of the dependent variable was collected from the participants' declarations concerning the foreign language grade they obtained the previous semester. To measure independent variables two inventories were constructed for the purpose of the research: Self-Motivating Strategies Inventory (SMSI) and Foreign Language Learning Motivation Inventory (FLLMI). The data concerning the third independent variable – gender – were collected in the form of participants' declarations.

Self-Motivating Strategies Use Inventory (SMSI) consists of 27 items formulated on the basis of self-motivating strategies classification presented by Z. Dörnyei (2001). Principal components analysis of the responses to Inventory items ($N=292$, $KMO=0,83$) was conducted. Four components were extracted, explaining 41,8% of the variance in the data. On the basis of Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization, SMSI was divided into four scales, reflecting four groups of self-motivating strategies labeled as: planning, focusing on learning, generating positive emotions and imagining consequences of action. The characteristics of the scales is as follows:

- Planning - the scale with items like “I plan my learning in such a way that I do not have to do everything just before deadlines”. Internal consistency of the scale expressed by means of Cronbach alpha for the six scale items equals 0,77. Mean component loading is 0,62.
- Focusing attention – the scale consists of 10 items (Cronbach alpha= 0,73; mean component loading equals to 0,49) such as: “Before learning I usually do several habitual things which make concentrating and starting work easier”.
- Generating positive emotions – a six-item scale with Cronbach alpha value of 0,73 and mean component loading equal to 0,61. The exemplary item from the scale is “If I get in a bad mood after failure I try to find something that would raise my spirits and allow me to continue work”.
- Imagining consequences of actions – five items form the scale (Cronbach alpha=0,69; mean component loading equal to 0,59). One of the items which

belong to the scale is: “If during learning it is hard to me to concentrate on a task at hand I imagine unpleasant things which may happen to me due to the mistakes I may make”.

Responses to the items of Self-Motivating Strategies Inventory are rated on a five-point scale ranging from “very rarely” (0 points) to “very frequently” (4 points). The general score for each participant is calculated as an arithmetic mean of the total sum of points for the answers to all Inventory items and is treated as an indicator of the general frequency of self-motivating strategies use. Scores for the Inventory scales are also calculated as an arithmetic mean of the sum of points for the responses to the items belonging to the scale. The general score and the scores of the scales may range from 0 to 4. The higher the result the higher the frequency of self-motivating strategies use.

Foreign Language Learning Motivation Inventory (FLLMI) consists of 6 items describing various reasons of foreign language learning. Foreign language learning motives reflected by the Inventory items range from the extrinsic ones (“Being able to speak a foreign language will make it possible for me help me to achieve high level of education and to find employment”) to the intrinsic ones (“I enjoy mastering ability to speak a foreign language and using it”). The answers are given on a five-point scale ranging from “definitely no” (0 points) to “definitely yes” (4 points). The raw score is calculated as a sum of points for the answers to all Inventory items and may range from 0 to 24. The higher the score the higher foreign language learning motivation. The value of Cronbach alpha calculated for the six inventory items equals to 0,70.

3.2. Participants

Polish students from lower secondary school (mean age 16,89 years; $sd=0,87$) and university (mean age 20,45 years; $sd=3,60$) took part in the research. Altogether there were 305 participants, including 182 women and 113 men. Among lower secondary school students there were 143 girls and 93 boys. The subgroup of university students consisted of 39 women and 20 men. Ten persons did not provide data concerning their gender. Participants learned English, Czech, German, French and Russian as foreign languages.

3.3 Statistical analyses

Data analysis was performed by means of SPSS 19.0 Software. Low and high level of self-motivating strategies use and foreign language motivation was determined on the basis of median value.

4. Results

First, the differences between male and female foreign language learners in terms of the self-motivating strategies use will be presented. The second part of the section will be devoted to the level of foreign language grade in the groups of male and female participants with various levels of self-motivating strategies use and foreign language learning motivation.

4.1. Self – motivating strategies use by men and women

Differences between men and women in terms of Self-Motivating Strategy Inventory scores are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Differences between men and women in self – motivating strategies use

Statistics	Self-motivating strategies use									
	general		planning		focusing attention		generating positive emotions		imagining consequences of actions	
	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women	men	women
Number of participants	113	182	113	182	113	182	113	182	113	182
Arithmetic mean	1,57	1,81	1,56	1,91	1,47	1,71	2,00	1,99	1,31	1,70
Standard deviation	0,54	0,56	0,78	0,84	0,67	0,69	0,76	0,83	0,72	0,77
Difference of arithmetic means for men and women	-0,24		-0,35		-0,24		0,01		-0,39	
t test	-3,60		-3,58		-2,93		0,04		-4,37	
p	0,0004		0,0004		0,0040		0,9700; ns		0,0001	
Eta squared	0,012		0,012		0,001		0,0001		0,014	

As can be seen from the data presented in Table 1, the arithmetic mean of the total Self-Motivating Strategy Use Inventory score for women was 1,81 (sd=0,56), while for man it reached the value of 1,57 (sd=0,54). The value of t test calculated for the two arithmetic means ($t = -3,60$) indicated statistically significant difference in the intensity of self-motivating strategies use between male and female foreign language learners. The registered effect was small. The result indicates more intense general self-motivating strategies use by women than by men. Therefore the first hypothesis assuming the difference between men and women in terms of the general self-motivating strategy use may be accepted.

The data in Table 1 also indicate that women in comparison to men are characterized by more intense use of self-motivating strategies from three out of four groups of the strategies considered in the research. Statistically significant difference between men and women was found in the scores of the following Self-Motivating Strategy Inventory scales: planning ($t = -3,58$; $p = 0,0004$), focusing attention ($t = -2,93$; $p = 0,0040$) and imagining consequences of actions ($t = -4,37$; $p = 0,0001$). Therefore hypotheses H2a, H2b and H2d, respectively were confirmed. However, the observed effects were small. No significant difference was found in the scores of men and women in the scale of Self-Motivating Strategy Inventory labelled generating positive emotions ($t = 0,04$; $p = 0,97$). Therefore hypothesis H2c which assumed the existence of such a difference had to be rejected.

4.2. Foreign language grade in men and women differing in terms of the self-motivating strategies use frequency and foreign language learning motivation

To test the hypotheses concerning the difference of foreign language grade in the groups of learners divided according to the level of foreign language motivation and self-motivating strategies use, a two-way between-groups ANOVA was used. Two independent variables in the analysis were: the level of foreign language learning motivation categorised either as high or low and the level of the general self-motivating strategies use with the values labelled also high and low. The dependent variable was foreign language grade. Table 2 presents the results of the ANOVA. Table 3 contains descriptive statistics of foreign language grade in the subgroups of male and female participants divided according to high or low level of frequency of self-motivating strategies use as well as for male and female subjects with high or low foreign language learning motivation. Post-hoc comparisons of foreign language grade level in the four groups of participants with various levels of foreign language learning motivation and various frequency of self-motivating strategies use were performed by means of Tuckey test. The results of these comparisons are shown in Table 4. The values of foreign language grade arithmetic means in the subgroups of participants are depicted in Figures 1 and 2. All analyses of the two-way between-groups ANOVA and post hoc comparisons were performed separately in male and female subgroups.

Table 2. Gender, foreign language motivation, self-motivating strategies use and foreign language grade

Dependent variable	Independent variables	Men			Women		
		F test	F test significance level	partial eta squared	F test	F test significance level	partial eta squared
Foreign language grade	self-motivating strategies use	3,17	0,0800; ns	0,03	0,08	0,7800; ns	0,00
	foreign language learning motivation	5,48	0,0200	0,05	2,29,	0,1300; ns	0,01
	interaction of foreign language learning motivation and self-motivating strategies use	4,19	0,04	0,04	8,94	0,0032	0,05

The results of a two-way between-groups ANOVA with foreign language grade as dependent variable, which are presented in Table 2, show that the main effect of self-motivating strategies use was found to be insignificant both in men and in women. Therefore hypotheses H3 and H6 were considered false. The main effect of foreign

language learning motivation on foreign language grade was not significant in women but reached significance in men (the size of the effect was small). Therefore hypothesis H4 was confirmed, contrary to hypothesis H7, which had to be rejected. As can be seen from the data shown in Table 3, in male subgroup foreign language grade of the participants with high foreign language learning motivation ($M=4,22$; $sd=0,95$) was higher than in the participants whose foreign language learning motivation was low ($M=3,51$; $sd=0,95$). The interaction effect of self-motivating strategies use and foreign language learning motivation proved to be significant but small both in male and female participants. Hypotheses H5 and H8 were accepted.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics of foreign language grade in male and female participants divided according to the level of self-motivating strategies use frequency and foreign language learning motivation

Variable	Variable level	Foreign language grade					
		men			women		
		number of participants	arithmetic mean	standard deviation	number of participants	arithmetic mean	standard deviation
Self-motivating strategies use	low frequency	72	3,54	0,95	78	4,13	0,99
	high frequency	33	4,17	1,01	100	4,17	0,89
Foreign language learning motivation	low	71	3,51	0,95	96	4,09	0,93
	high	34	4,22	0,95	82	4,23	0,94

Tuckey Test was used to investigate thoroughly the interaction effect, in other words to test the differences in foreign language grade in participants with various levels of foreign language motivation and various intensity of self-motivating strategies use. Post hoc comparisons of foreign language grade were made between the participants characterized by:

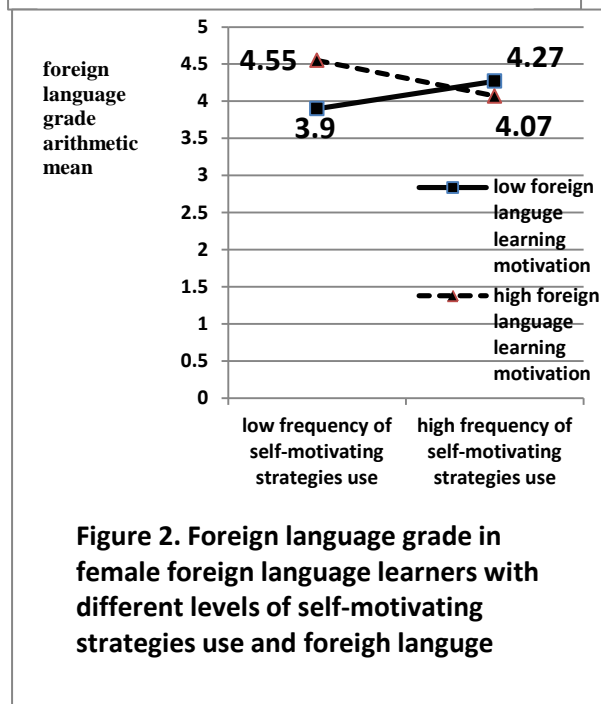
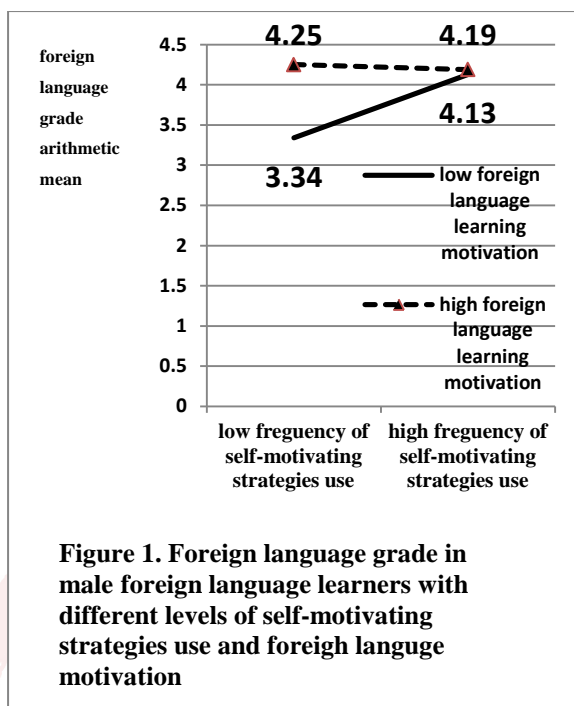
- low frequency of self-motivating strategies use and low foreign language motivation;
- high frequency of self-motivating strategies use and low foreign language motivation;
- low frequency of self-motivating strategies use and high foreign language motivation;
- high frequency of self-motivating strategies use and high foreign language motivation.

The results of post-hoc analysis are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The differences in foreign language grade in participants with various foreign language learning motivation and self-motivating strategies use levels.

Group number	Group characteristics		Foreign language grade					
	frequency of self-motivating strategies use	foreign language learning motivation	men			women		
			number of participants	arithmetic mean	standard deviation	number of participants	arithmetic mean	standard deviation
1	low	low	56	3,34	0,88	50	3,90	0,93
2	high	low	15	4,13	0,99	45	4,27	0,89
3	low	high	16	4,25	0,86	29	4,55	0,95
4	high	high	18	4,19	1,04	54	4,07	0,89
Tuckey test group comparison	group 1 vs group 2		p=0,002			p=0,207; ns		
	group 1 vs group 3		p=0,004			p=0,013		
	group 1 vs group 4		p=0,005			p=0,764; ns		
	group 2 vs group 3		p=0,985; ns			p=0,555; ns		
	group 2 vs group 4		p=0,998; ns			p=0,72; ns		
	group 3 vs group 4		p=0,998; ns			p=0,107; ns		

The results displayed in Table 4 show that in men the foreign language grade of the participants who use self-motivating strategies with low frequency and have low foreign language learning motivation is significantly lower than the foreign language grade of the participants with high frequency of self-motivating strategies use and low foreign language learning motivation. In male subgroup the foreign language grade of the participants with low frequency of self-motivating strategies use and low foreign language learning motivation is also lower than the foreign language grade of the participants with high foreign language learning motivation despite the frequency of self-motivating strategies use.



The data from the Table 4 also show that in the female subgroup the highest relative average value of foreign language grade was found in a group with low frequency of self-motivating strategies use and high foreign language learning motivation. This value was equal 4,55 (sd= 0,95) and proved to be significantly higher than the average foreign language grade in a subgroup of female students with low frequency of self-motivating strategies use and low foreign language learning motivation (arithmetic mean equal to 3,90; sd=0,93). In women no other statistically significant differences in foreign language grade between analysed four subgroups were found.

5. Conclusions

The research presented in the article aimed at answering two questions: do male and female foreign language learners differ in terms of self-motivating strategies use? Is foreign language grade related differently with foreign language learning motivation and self-motivating strategies use in men and women? It was hypothesized, that there would be a difference between men and women in the use of self-motivating strategies. Further hypotheses assumed, both for male and female students, the existence of the difference in foreign language grade in the participants with various:

- levels of frequency of self-motivating strategies use,
- levels foreign language learning motivation and
- combined low and high levels of self-motivating strategies use and foreign language learning motivation.

Students from Polish lower secondary school and university took part in the research, altogether 183 women and 113 men. To measure the frequency of self-motivating strategies use and foreign language learning motivation two instruments were constructed for the purpose of the research. The first one was Self-motivating Strategies Inventory with four scales: planning, focusing attention, generating positive emotions and imagining consequences of actions. The second instrument was Foreign Language Learning Motivation Inventory.

Seven out of eleven hypotheses found support in the empirical data gathered in the study.

More frequent use of self-motivating strategies by women in comparison to men was found in the case of the general use of these strategies. The results obtained in the study are consistent with research results indicating more intense use of strategies facilitating control over emotions and motivation in women (Ghee et al., 2010). The scores of female participants also indicate that women use more frequently than men particular groups of strategies, namely these which facilitate planning, focusing attention and imagining consequences. No difference in male and female foreign language learners was found in the frequency of controlling one's learning motivation through generating positive emotions. The lack of the difference in foreign language grade was observed in the participants with low and high frequency of self-motivating strategies use in both male and female subgroups. In male subgroup foreign language grade was higher in the participants with high foreign language learning motivation than in the participants whose level of foreign language learning motivation was low. No such relationship was observed in female subgroup. Both in men and women a significant interaction effect of the levels of self-motivating strategies use and foreign language learning motivation on foreign language grade was found. Among men a subgroup characterized by low frequency of self-motivating strategies use and low foreign language motivation had lower foreign language grade than all other analysed subgroups. In women the highest relative level of foreign language grade was found in a subgroup with high foreign language learning motivation and low frequency of self-motivating strategies use.

The most important conclusions from the research, applicable to the students from western culture, may be formulated as follows:

1. Female foreign language learners use self-motivating strategies more frequently than their male counterparts.

2. Both for male and female foreign language students the prediction of foreign language grade on the basis of the levels of self-motivating strategies use and foreign language learning motivation must take into account combined levels of the two variables.
3. Procedures encouraging the use of self-motivating strategies by foreign language learners should be formulated.
4. The use of self-motivating strategies should be fostered especially in male foreign language learners.
5. The findings of the research should be verified in the context of eastern culture.

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Review and Critique of Current Theories of Task Complexity: The Lack of a 'Social Dimension' in Language Assessment

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Abstract

The growing interest in task-based language assessment is not without concerns. Tasks used in language assessments vary in terms of their complexity and the language they elicit. L2 learners' performance varies from task to task. Thus, one of the major challenges facing those concerned with gauging the influence of task characteristics and performance conditions on candidate performance is how to determine the complexity of tasks (Elder et al. 2002). Identifying characteristics and performance conditions that determine task complexity is necessary to ensure that appropriate tasks are selected and can be sequenced to improve the reliability of the task-based assessment and to ensure that the interpretations and uses that are made based on the test results are valid. However, current studies conducted to investigate the effects of task features on L2 performance have mainly focused on the effects of the cognitive (psycholinguistic) features of tasks and findings have been inconsistent and proven to be relatively insensitive when applied to testing context. This paper will review the current research on task complexity and it will be argued that this research has failed to take into account social elements and their effect on task complexity and L2 performance. The paper concludes with the view that current research into task complexity to inform task-based language assessment design can be improved through taking into consideration social as well as cognitive variables.

Introduction

Since the introduction of communicative language teaching (Widdowson 1978) and models of communicative competence (Canale and Swain 1980; Bachman 1990; Bachman and Palmer 1996), approaches to testing have evolved. Instead of tests being based on traditional psychometric methods of measuring isolated pieces of grammar and vocabulary knowledge, known as discrete-point testing, tests are increasingly focusing on measuring the ability to use language in social contexts. L2 learners are tested on their ability to use language accurately and appropriately in communicative contexts (Skehan 1998). This has led to a growing interest in task-based language assessment (TBLA) which Brindley (1994, p. 74) defines as “the process of evaluating, in relation to a set of explicitly stated criteria, the quality of the communicative performances elicited from learners as part of goal-directed, meaning-focused language use requiring the integration of skills and knowledge.” In TBLA, a broader conception of communicative competence is embraced and test tasks require test-takers to show competence of topical, social, and/or pragmatic knowledge as well as knowledge of the formal elements of language (Mislevy et al. 2002). It also allows assessment to be aligned with task-based instruction, has positive washback effects on instruction, and reduces the limitations of discrete-point assessments (Long and Norris 2000).

However, as Ellis (2003, p. 288) points out, “if task-based tests are to be used to infer the abilities of test-takers to predict performance and to generalise from context to context, it will be necessary to understand how the choice of task influences the way the testee performs.” Indeed, the issue of task types and variation in L2 performance has been growing in interest for the last few decades. Researchers have argued that learners’ performance differs from task to task, i.e. there is “task-induced variation” (Ellis 2008).

Task Complexity and the Cognitive Approach

One of the major challenges facing those concerned with gauging the influence of task characteristics and performance conditions on candidate performance is how to determine the complexity of tasks (Elder et al. 2002). However, in task-based language teaching and assessment literature “a principled and empirically supported conceptualization of task complexity has long been considered a primary goal and has, for just as long, proved to be elusive” (Norris et al. 1998. P. 39). Since Long (1985) first contended that the notion of complexity in task-based language pedagogy is an important consideration, many attempts have been made to address this issue.

Current research into task complexity is dominated by research into cognitive (psycholinguistic) categories (e.g. Robinson et al. 1995; Robinson 1995, 2001; Foster and Skehan 1996; Skehan 1996, 1998). This approach focuses on the effects on L2 performance of the cognitive features of tasks and is based on the assumption that cognitive complexity of a specific task influences the learners’ task performance. Predictions have been made concerning how cognitive features increase or decrease task complexity and how these differing task demands affect learner accuracy,

complexity and fluency. Two main models have emerged from this approach. One model was developed by Skehan and his associates (Skehan 1998, 2001, 2003; Skehan and Foster 1999, 2001) and presents a framework of factors which they claim affect the complexity of a task. This framework is known as the Limited Attentional Capacity Model (LACM). The other influential model for determining task complexity is Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework (2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007). These two models offer competing views on how attention is deployed during task performance and on how the manipulation of cognitive elements in tasks impacts L2 production.

Skehan's Limited Attentional Capacity Model (LACM)

For Skehan (1998), task complexity is the amount of attention that the task demands from the learners; difficult tasks require more attention than easy ones. The basic assumption underlying this view is that attentional resources are limited and that L2 learners must prioritise where they allocate their attention. When task demands are increased, attention allocated to particular aspects of task performance may be reduced as demand in other areas increases. Skehan (1998) claims that when L2 learners reach their attentional limits, processing for meaning will be prioritised over processing for language form. This is due to the fact that the demands of processing task content and the demands of task performance are in competition with one another (Skehan and Foster 2001); a more complex task will require L2 learners to devote more attention to content and thus cause them to over-emphasise fluency at the expense of accuracy and complexity. A less complex task, on the other hand, will allow an increase in attention to linguistic code and thus result in gains for focus on language forms. Skehan's concept of limited attentional resources leads to a trade-off between attention to form and attention to meaning during task performance. Furthermore, Skehan (2009) specifies that when attentional resources are limited, not only is there a trade-off effect between meaning and form but there is also a trade-off effect between accuracy and complexity. Performing a task may lead to gains in two out of three of the performance dimensions, but not typically in all three. In other words, fluency and accuracy or fluency and complexity may be increased (Skehan 2001, 2009). The theoretical basis for this model stems in part from findings by VanPatten (1990, 1994) who argued that form and meaning compete for learners' attention. Also, Schmidt (2001) argued that due to the constraints of the working memory, attention is limited and when attending to one area, the other areas are forced to operate with less attentional resources.

Skehan (2001, p. 194) claims that assessing a task's complexity "is crucial to understanding how it might be performed." He designed a model of task complexity in which the factors that affect task complexity are divided into three dimensions: code complexity, cognitive complexity and communicative stress. Skehan (1998) claimed these factors may influence a learners' allocation of attentional resources during a task as well as their linguistic performance. Table 1 below shows Skehan's model of task complexity.

Table 1: Skehan's model of task complexity (based on Skehan 1998)

Code complexity	Cognitive complexity	Communicative stress
Linguistic complexity and variety	Cognitive familiarity	Time pressure
Vocabulary load and variety	- Familiarity of topic	Scale
	- Familiarity of discourse genre	Modality
	- Familiarity of task	Stakes
	Cognitive processing	Opportunity for control
	- Information organisation	
	- Amount of computation	
	- Clarity of information	
	- Sufficiency of information	

Code complexity deals with the linguistic demand of the task, i.e. the language needed to complete the task. More complex tasks are hypothesised to be those which require more advanced and a wider range of grammatical structures and lexical items from the task performer. Cognitive complexity distinguishes two areas: cognitive familiarity and cognitive processing. Cognitive familiarity concerns the extent to which the learner can draw upon previous experiences of performing such a task or similar ones. Thus, if the task itself or the topic of the task is not familiar to the learner, it is hypothesised to be more complex. Cognitive processing concerns the thinking that is required to perform the task. The more the learner needs to organise the information or the more steps needed to complete the task, the more demanding the task will be and thus more complex. The last set of factors is referred to under the term 'communicative stress'. These factors are concerned with the performance conditions for accomplishing the task (Skehan 1998). Time pressure refers to the amount of pressure exerted on the learner to perform a task quickly, as little or no planning time may make the task more complex. The factor referred to as 'scale' refers to the number of participants and relationships in the task, increases in the number of which will lead to increased complexity. The concept of modality refers simply to whether the task is a speaking or listening task or a reading or writing task. Speaking is assumed to exert more pressure on the learner than writing, whilst a listening task is believed to be more demanding than a reading task. Stakes refer to the importance of performing the task and of performing it well. The higher the stakes, the more demanding and thus complex the task is argued to be. Finally, control is concerned with the extent to which the participants of the task can influence the performance of the task. If a learner is allowed to ask for clarification and comprehension checks, for example, then task complexity is hypothesised to be lower

than if the learner has no influence on the speed of delivery of the input. In addition to these three categories, Skehan recognises that learner characteristics, such as the learner's intelligence, breadth of imagination and personal experience may also interact with the essential complexity of the task to influence its difficulty for a particular learner.

Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis and Triadic Componential Framework (TCF)

Robinson (2001a, 2001b, 2003, 2005, 2007) holds a different view on the effect of cognitive task complexity on linguistic performance. Robinson argues that the limits of attention are not as fixed as Skehan believes. Rather, he sees attention as a resource which is expandable. In his Cognition Hypothesis (2001, 2003, 2005), Robinson predicted that increasing the cognitive demands of tasks along certain dimensions would not result in a trade-off relationship between aspects of speaker production, but could actually direct the learners' attentional resources to linguistic forms, and thus improve the complexity and accuracy of learner output. Robinson supported the assumption upon which his claims are based with findings from Givon (1985, 1995) who argued that structural complexity tends to accompany functional complexity. In other words, when faced with a complex task, i.e. a task with increased cognitive demands, L2 speakers are pushed to use more complex language and achieve greater accuracy to ensure that communication is effective. In contrast, with a simple task, learner language does not need to be as linguistically accurate or complex for it to be performed successfully. This view is also motivated by claims that tasks which have high communicative and cognitive demands can lead learners to push production (Swain 1985), and stretch their interlanguage (Long 1989).

To address the claims of the Cognition Hypothesis, Robinson proposed the Triadic Componential Framework, shown in Table 2, in which he distinguished three dimensions which interact to influence task performance and learning: (1) task complexity, which corresponds to Skehan's 'cognitive complexity' category; (2) task conditions, which is comparable to Skehan's 'communicative stress' category; (3) and task difficulty, which is lacking in Skehan's model (Kuiken and Vedder 2007) but acknowledged by Skehan to affect complexity. For Robinson (2003, p. 56), the term 'task complexity' is not used synonymously with 'task difficulty' as with many other researchers, but instead refers specifically to "the intrinsic cognitive demands of the task", and can explain variation in performance by a learner on any two tasks. On the other hand, the category of 'task difficulty' is understood by Robinson as the learners' perceptions of task demands which are affected by both their ability, such as working memory capacity, and other affective variables, such as motivation. This category accounts for variation in performance by two learners performing the same task. Finally, task conditions are concerned with the participation factors (e.g. one-way vs. two-way) as well as participant factors (e.g. interlocutor is familiar vs. unfamiliar).

Table 2: Robinson's Triadic Componential Framework (Robinson 2007)

Task Complexity (cognitive factors)	Task Conditions (interactive factors)	Task Difficulty (learner factors)
a) resource-directing variables making cognitive/conceptual demands +/- few elements +/- here-and-now -/+causal reasoning -/+ spatial reasoning -/+ intentional reasoning -/+ perspective-taking	a) participation variables making interactional demands +/- one-way flow +/- convergent solution +/- open solution +/- few participants +/- few contributions needed +/- negotiation not needed	a) ability variables and task-relevant resource differentials h/l working memory h/l reasoning h/l task-switching h/l aptitude h/l field independence h/l mind/intention reading
b)resource-dispersing variables making performance/procedural demands +/- planning +/- single task +/- task structure +/- few steps +/- independency of steps +/- prior knowledge	b) participant variables making interactant demands +/- same gender +/--familiar +/- same proficiency +/- shared content knowledge +/- equal status and role +/--shared cultural knowledge	b) affective variables and task-relevant state-trait differentials h/l openness to experience h/l control of emotion h/l task motivation h/l processing anxiety h/l willingness to communicate h/l self-efficacy

In his TCF, each factor can be +/- or h/l (high/low). Factors that are '+' or 'h' are assumed to make a task less complex and easier, whilst tasks which are '-' or 'l' are assumed to make the task more complex or difficult.

Robinson argued that dimensions of task complexity can be manipulated to either increase or decrease the cognitive demands that the task imposes on the task performer. Robinson distinguishes in his category of task complexity between resource-directing and resource-dispersing dimensions, and made separate claims for them regarding the way these dimensions affect resource allocation during L2 performance. Increasing task complexity along the resource-directing dimensions does not degrade linguistic output, but instead may improve the accuracy and complexity of the language produced. The reason given for the improvement is that to ensure effective communication, more accurate and specific linguistic features, such as logical connectors, embedding and subordination, are necessary. Robinson (2001, p. 35) sees increasing tasks along these dimensions as “a means of *directing* resources to a wider range of functional and linguistic requirements.” Fluency, on the other hand, suffers from increased task complexity since tasks with higher cognitive demands increase the need for conscious language processing, thus affecting procedural dimensions like fluency (Robinson 2005). In contrast to increasing task complexity along the resource-directing dimensions, increasing task complexity along the

resource-dispersing dimensions has the effect of degrading accuracy, complexity and fluency because by making these dimensions more complex, greater demands on the working memory and attention are imposed and resources are, therefore, not directed to specific linguistic features (Kuiken and Vedder 2007).

These predictions for the effects of task complexity are for monologic tasks only. For dialogic, interactive, tasks Robinson (2005) claimed that greater complexity would most likely lead to greater amounts of negotiation for meaning, i.e. more clarification requests and comprehensions checks; as a consequence, the overall length and complexity of the utterance would be reduced on more complex tasks, as this increased amount of interaction will prevent learners from directing attention to syntactic complexity. For fluency and accuracy, Robinson made similar predictions for dialogic tasks as for monologic tasks. Table 3 shows the predictions for monologic and dialogic tasks.

Table 3: Effects of task complexity along resource-directing dimensions (based on Robinson 2011)

Monologic simple + fluency, - complexity, - accuracy	Monologic complex - fluency, + complexity, + accuracy
Dialogic simple + fluency, - complexity, - accuracy	Dialogic simple - fluency, - complexity, + accuracy

Empirical Studies and Testing Contexts

Empirical research has been carried out in classroom and laboratory settings to investigate the possible influence of cognitive task features on task complexity and on L2 performance. In a number of studies, manipulating task complexity along cognitive variables has led to systematic influences upon performance, though there is some disagreement as to the type of influence on L2 performance. In fact, the studies conducted on cognitive variables and their influence on learners' accuracy, complexity and fluency have yielded conflicting results. Take for example the cognitive variables of planning time which forms the bulk of the research and has offered inconsistent results. Mehnert's (1998) study found that that overall planning time had positive effects on performance, and that when allocated 10 minutes of planning time, learners were more fluent, more accurate and more lexically dense than non-planners. However, there were no significance changes in complexity. Other researchers have also found gains in fluency if learners are given time to prepare the task (Foster and Skehan 1996; Skehan and Foster 1997; Ortega 1999, Yuan and Ellis 2003). The same is true for structural complexity (Foster and Skehan 1996; Ortega 1999; Yuan and Ellis 2003), though no significant effects were found in the majority of studies for lexical complexity (Ortega 1999; Yuan and Ellis 2003) except in

Gilbert's (2005) study which found that lexical complexity (but not structural complexity) increased with planning time, As for accuracy, with planning time Yuan and Ellis (2003) found no differences in accuracy whilst Ortega's (1999) study revealed mixed results.

The findings of studies in which cognitive elements were manipulated in testing contexts have also proven to be somewhat conflicting. In a study conducted by Wigglesworth (1997), L2 speakers performed tasks in a planned and unplanned condition in a testing context. Performance was measured by analytical speech measures and analytical rating scales. Interestingly, no significant differences in the scores assigned using the rating scales were evident, but significant differences were shown in the analytical speech measures for fluency, accuracy and complexity. Wigglesworth concluded that planning time may affect the performance of test-takers positively but external ratings may well be insensitive to this effect. In a further study by Wigglesworth (2001), in which performance was measured only by analytical rating scales, task structure and task familiarity were investigated and no significant effects were shown on L2 performance. In addition, planning time was also explored and appeared to have an adverse effect on performance of both structured and unstructured tasks. The findings were inconsistent with those in non-testing situations and it was once again suggested that the external ratings were at fault. However, Iwashita, Elder and McNamara (2001) used both analytical rating scales and discourse measures when investigating the effect of planning time as well as other task characteristics (perspective, immediacy and adequacy) on performance. Their findings showed that planning time had no impact on oral performance or test scores. Elder and Iwashita's (2005) results also found no evidence of any effects and failed to confirm the findings of previous research on cognitive features and their effect on L2 performance. The inconsistent findings have even lead to claims that these findings "present a challenge to those who think that the task-based literature can make contributions to assessment" (Tavakoli and Skehan 2005, p. 244).

Limitations of the Cognitive Approach

Most of the previous research on task complexity has been from a psycholinguistic perspective (Taguchi 2007), and the research has not provided us with a clear picture as to the effect of manipulating cognitive variables on task complexity and L2 production. Several theories have been put forward to explain the inconsistent findings and insensitivity to testing contexts such as methodological flaws of the studies (such as small participation population and inconsistent task types), and the fact that task variables can potentially interact in complex ways and this can affect L2 production. Also, the inconsistent results could be due to factors such as test-takers' own characteristics (O'Sullivan 2002; Lumley and O'Sullivan 2005). Finally, concerning the inconsistent results, Elder et al. (2002, p. 362) have suggested that the results in testing contexts differ so markedly from those of the previous research because the testing context and pedagogic contexts are different "with the former producing a cognitive focus on display rather than on task fulfillment or getting the message across." Therefore, learners may be more concerned with accuracy than fluency during tests.

In sum, psycholinguistic categories have been very useful in investigating task complexity and have been shown to affect performance. However, replications of the psycholinguistic approach in a language testing context have not resulted in any corroboration of any statistically significant evidence found in research conducted in laboratory or instructional contexts. It is clear that further research into identifying dimensions of tasks that affect task difficulty and hence task complexity is needed. In addition, there is a need to look into new categories which may be useful in predicting task complexity and which could complement and extend the research on cognitive elements of tasks.

Social (Pragmatic) Approach to Task Complexity

A new approach was proposed by Fulcher and Reiter (2003), and later investigated by Taguchi (2007) and Clark (2012), in which the social (pragmatic) features of tasks are manipulated instead of the psycholinguistic (cognitive) features as “replications of the psycholinguistic approach have shown the categories of Skehan’s model to be insensitive in a language testing context” (Fulcher and Reiter 2003, p. 328). Their studies were attempts to find new categories that may be useful in predicting task complexity for “what is lacking in the existing literature is the inclusion of pragmatic conditions in defining task difficulty” (Taguchi 2007, p. 114). However, psycholinguistic and pragmatic dimensions are not distinct and indeed social factors can influence cognitive processing in L2 performance. In fact, it has been argued that cognitive processing is possibly socially or environmentally driven (O’Sullivan 2000; Dörnyei 2009). On the basis of their findings, Fulcher and Reiter (2003) and Taguchi (2007) suggested that pragmatic features can determine task complexity and affect task performance and test scores.

This approach to determining task complexity is based on the findings from the field of pragmatics, in particular Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory which predicts that speakers’ and hearers’ power relationships, and social and psychological distance, and the degree of imposition involved in speech acts, constrain communication (Blum-Kulka and House 1989), and relative power (P), social distance (D) and the degree of imposition of a task (I) play an important role in speech act behaviour (Brown and Levinson 1987). The power status and social distance of the addressee influences our linguistic choices as does the degree of imposition of the task. Speaking to someone who is of a higher power status (+P) and of a more distant relationship (+D) requires a higher level of politeness than when speaking to person who is –P and –D. The same is assumed for speech acts which involve a high degree of imposition (+ I) compared to – I acts (i.e. asking to borrow \$100 [+I] compared to asking to borrow a pen [-I]). This higher degree of politeness is assumed to make higher demands on the speaker and hence +P, +D and +I situations are believed to be more complex (Taguchi 2007).

Studies by Fulcher and Reiter (2003) and Taguchi (2007) have focused on exploring pragmatic variables to determine and operationalise task complexity and investigate

the effects of manipulating these variables in tasks on L2 performance. Fulcher and Reiter (2003) manipulated the pragmatic features of social power and imposition and investigated the difficulty of the tasks as perceived by native and non-native speakers. 23 Spanish and 32 English-speaking students performed, in their native language, role-play tasks whose pragmatic features had been manipulated to increase or reduce the demands of the task. Afterwards, the participants watched video recordings of their role-play performance of requests and judged, on a 10-point scale, how successful they perceived their performance to have been. In one set of tasks, the social power of the speaker was lower than the hearer ($S < H$); in another set, it was equal ($S = H$), and in a final set it was higher ($S > H$). For imposition, each task was marked as being either 'high' or 'low'. The aim of this study was to investigate to what extent the different tasks described above and the participants' own first language cultural background can account for the differences in the assessment of task achievement when the participants perform the tasks in their native language. The perceived degree of task difficulty was high for tasks in which the social power was ($S < H$) and the degree of imposition was high. This study suggested that social factors such as power and the degree of imposition could serve as useful factors in predicting task difficulty and hence task complexity. In addition, the findings suggested that this increase or decrease in task complexity could affect output in measurable ways.

In a related study, Taguchi (2007) investigated the effects of tasks which had differing levels of the P, D and I sociolinguistic variables. In one task the power status difference, social distance and degree of imposition were small, i.e. PDI (Low) task, and in the other the power status difference, social distance and degree of imposition were large, i.e. PDI (High) task. The subjects were 59 Japanese L2 learners of two different proficiencies. The tasks were role-plays in which requests and refusals were the chosen speech acts. The oral performance was analysed for overall appropriateness, planning time and speech rate. A rating scale was used to assess appropriateness, while planning time was operationalised as the time taken to prepare for each role-play, and speech rate was assessed by the number of words spoken per minute. The results showed that for the L2 learners, PDI (High) tasks were more difficult to produce as seen from the lower scores awarded for appropriateness, with lower proficiency learners having more difficulty than higher proficiency learners. As for speech rate, the L2 learners spoke at a quicker rate in PDI (Low) tasks than in PDI (High) tasks, with the lower proficiency learners speaking slower than the higher proficiency ones in both cases. L2 learners also planned PDI (Low) tasks more quickly than PDI (High) tasks. The proficiency level, however, had no significant effect on planning time. This study showed that pragmatic variables could be useful criteria in distinguishing between tasks, and that when the pragmatic variables of power, distance and degree of imposition are manipulated, task demands can be either increased or decreased.

In a related study by Clark (2012), in which the test-takers were assessed in the L2 and their output analysed for accuracy, fluency and complexity so as to be more in line with previous studies conducted on task complexity, tasks with increased P, D, I were deemed to be more complex by the test-takers and though mixed results were found for fluency when performing PDI (High) tasks, gains were found in complexity

(lexical and structural). It appears that test-takers may perform better in more demanding tasks in terms of their linguistic complexity (see Robinson 2001).

Importance of Social Factors

The above discussion has highlighted the importance of investigating social factors and their influence on performance. First, very few studies have been carried out which investigate pragmatic features of task and their effect on production and studies conducted on pragmatic features suffer from being small in scale and having methodological limitations. Second, SLA and language pedagogy research findings concerning the effect of manipulating cognitive variables have not been replicated in a testing context. Therefore, there is a need to investigate the claims made by Fulcher and Reiter (2003), Taguchi (2007) and Clark (2012) that sociopragmatic features could be useful criteria in distinguishing between tasks, and that when the sociopragmatic variables of power, distance and degree of imposition are manipulated, task demands, and thus complexity, can be either increased or decreased. Finally, as Chalhoub-Deville (2001) points out, while the task has been the focal point of discussion and empirical investigation in second language literature for a few decades, the same cannot be said of the task used in performance testing and assessment.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the concept of task complexity, which has mainly been approached from a psycholinguistic/cognitive perspective (e.g. Skehan 1998; Robinson 2001, 2003, 2007, 2009), has been shown to be somewhat restrictive as it has failed to take into consideration the social context and how this affects learners' perception of task difficulty and the intrinsic demands of the task itself (i.e. task complexity) and how these affect L2 performance. The frameworks provided by Skehan (e.g. 1998) and by Robinson (e.g. 2007) do not provide a complete insight into task demands, or task complexity. It is necessary to add a social component to existing theory and to approach the construct of task complexity from a more socio-cognitive perspective.

When designing tasks for assessment purposes, it is essential that the task characteristics and performance conditions that determine task complexity are identified so that appropriate tasks are selected and sequenced in a principled manner. Task complexity does not reside in one characteristic of a task that can be manipulated to make it more or less complex, but resides in several components of tasks, which interact in ways which are yet not fully understood. The ability to select and sequence appropriate tasks also has implications for ensuring that parallel forms of testing are indeed equivalent in terms of task complexity. Ensuring test equivalency would provide a more reliable assessment of L2 ability and would improve the validity of the interpretations of test scores (Tavakoli 2009).

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*The Sense Development of English Prepositions: 'at', 'on', and 'in' with Log-Linear
Analysis of CHILDES Database*

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Abstract

The study aims to see whether the process of metaphoric extension is universal or idiosyncratic by examining the semantic development in English prepositions. The metaphoric extension process in human reasoning is considered what brings polysemy of a word. Thus, the development pattern of senses in a polysemous word may reveal the mechanism of such reasoning. To this end, we looked into the semantic development of the polysemous English prepositions. The native English-speaking children's usage of English prepositions 'at', 'on', and 'in' is examined together since these prepositions are based on spatial, temporal, and abstract senses that function similarly. The acquisition order of the senses will be consistent across the children if the metaphoric mapping process is universal. The longitudinal transcripts of 5 children in the age between 1 and 3, from the CHILDES database, were selected. The data is coded into four variables (*Child*, *Age*, *Preposition*, and *Sense*), and the Log-linear analysis was employed as the method of analysis. As a result, the three-way interaction effect was found in sense development; the model of {CAS}, {CPS} is selected. This shows high-involvement of {C}, and it suggests the sense development is highly dependent on each child so the process of metaphoric extension may be rather idiosyncratic than universal.

INTRODUCTION

In many languages, there are words used for describing both spatial and temporal relationships. For example, the postpositional particle {-ey} in Korean is used for expressing a location (Seoul-ey, in Seoul) and time (*Hanshi-ey*, 'at one o'clock'). The same feature is found in English prepositions as well; for instance, the preposition 'on' serves the function representing the spatial and temporal notions such as 'in contact' (*a vase on the desk*) or 'a day' (*picnic on Friday*). This cross-linguistic evidence of space-time parallelism suggests that time and space belong together in a human mind. However, it is not easy to understand intuitively why we handle such different domains collectively.

Cognitive linguists explain it with the theory of metaphoric extension that we understand the world through the experience; the concrete features around us help us to grasp the abstract entities. In this process, we happen to link different domains, and this is represented through a language. Metaphoric Mapping Theory accounts for this relationship with the 'base' and 'target' domains by assuming the asymmetric relationship of these two domains. Since the base domain is composed of concrete features while the target domain is based on abstract features, the former enables the latter to be established. That is, the base domain serves as a schema for the target domain. In the relationship of space and time, the notion of space is the base domain while time is the target domain. Hypothetically, we perceive time through the space in this case, and this leads us to such as the TIME IS SPACE metaphor.

If this metaphor is true, the notion of space should precede to the notion of time in the sense development. That is, in the case of L1 language acquisition, it is predicted that the sense of space is acquired before the sense of time. Interestingly, the acquisition order found from the children's language acquisition data agreed to this prediction that the children acquired spatial sense before the temporal sense (e.g., Clark 1973, Jun & Lee 2009). However, in general, an English preposition represents more than the spatial and temporal relations; the senses of the English prepositions such as 'at', 'on', and 'in' can be classified into spatial, temporal, and abstract categories, and these can be further divided into sub-senses. Then, what is the relationship of senses in a single preposition? As the earlier studies concluded the concept of time arises from the concept of space, can we find other asymmetric relationship among other senses? If so, is the asymmetric relationship of senses absolute in any case or is it applied idiosyncratically?

The study aims to answer these questions by examining the semantic development in English prepositions. We hypothesize that the process of metaphoric extension is revealed through the children's language acquisition that the orders of the sense acquired in a polysemous word reflects the relationships of domains. If a universal pattern is found in the sense acquisition of a polysemous word, it might be possible to conclude that the metaphoric extension process is universal. Further, by looking into the sense development orders, we can trace the relationship of domains. To end this, we investigated the children's use of English prepositions, 'at', 'on', and 'in', which share the character in terms of senses. If the metaphoric mapping process is universal, the acquisition order of these senses may be uniformed across the children. The longitudinal transcripts of 5 children in the age between 1 and 3, from the CHILDES (Child Language Data Exchange System) database, were analyzed. Surprisingly, the

result revealed that the order of sense acquisition is rather idiosyncratic than universal. Thus, we may conclude that the metaphoric extension process depends on the individual reasoning.

SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION

An English preposition is defined as a functional word that precedes a noun or a noun phrase to indicate a relation to another object in the clause, and it serves as a marker of various references: location, time, manner, goal, and etc. Among many English prepositions, the relational prepositions are used for describing the location of one object in relation to another.

- (1) topological configuration
 - a. The cat is at the corner.
 - b. The cat is on the table.
 - c. The cat is in the box.

The prepositions, 'at', 'on', and 'in', are in such a case that they refer to topological relations between the objects. In the Image-Schema, these spatial relations between objects can be explained through the dynamic embodied patterns of 'trajector (primary object)' and 'landmark (reference object)'. In (1a-c), the 'cat' is the trajectory while 'corner', 'table', and 'box' are the landmarks for each sentence. The prepositions in (1) reflect the physical configuration between a *trajector* and a *landmark*. Each preposition differs in terms of their topological base that 'at' is the point, 'on' refers the line or surface, and 'in' represents the 3d-surface.

Although the basic semantic elements representing each preposition differ from one another as shown in (1), three prepositions are on common ground in terms of their central meaning, which stands on the spatial dimension. In the view of the cognitive linguists, among all the senses, this concept of spatial dimension in the prepositions is the core source that serves the metaphoric function for other senses (e.g., Kwon 2012). With this view, we can assume that the spatial prepositions in English can be dealt together. The way of classifying the senses of these prepositions is varied; some may simply divide them into either primary or secondary sense. Or the secondary senses can be further categorized into either temporal or abstract (Rice 1996). The studies focusing on the semantic role of prepositional phrases classify the categories more finely such as beneficiary, direction, spatial extent, manner, location, purpose/reason, and temporal (O'hara & Weibe 2003). In the following sections, within the three class level, spatial, temporal, and abstract, we will suggest the classification of senses of English preposition 'at', 'on', and 'in'.

Spatial senses

The spatial sense is a sense which represents the locative information. However, we can classify these spatial senses into three-levels based on the cognitive linguists' view where the 'core' meaning is distinguished from others. As described earlier, the most fundamental sense in the spatial domain is explained through topological configuration. As in (2), the sense of preposition that describes the physical relationship between the figure and the ground can be considered as the primary sense. The prepositions in (3) exhibit the similar function that they obviously stand for the

relation of the figures and the grounds. However, there are difference in between (2) and (3); the grounds in (2) refer the physical space while those of (3) are rather conceptual. Hence, such a sense for geographic location should be distinguished from the prototypical spatial sense.

(2) *geographic location*

- a. We docked at Panama.
- b. I was born on Honshu, the main island.
- c. He had intended to take a holiday in America.

Another sense that should be told apart from the primary topological sense is the sense that stands for the directionality/or goal. Examples in (4) show that the prepositions express the movement of the figure toward the ground. Some may argue that this is not because of the prepositions that they have a characteristic of having argument which has the thematic role of goal (e.g., come, go, look...). However, looking into these verbs with different prepositions, we may notice that they are possibly realized without such an argument (e.g., I go \emptyset with Elen). Talmy (2000) suggests English is a satellite-framed language that the path of motion is not embedded in verbs and is represented through the particles. Similarly, the study of Kemmerer and Tranel (2003) exhibits this view with evidence that the process of verbs and the locative prepositions are independent of each other. Thus, it is possible to conclude the prepositions like *in* and *on* can also deliver the sense of directionality.

(3) *direction/goal*

- a. he gestured at the shelves.
- b. We march on the city hall.
- c. The cat goes in the pool.

Temporal senses

The sense that refers time is temporal sense. Perceptually, we can distinguish time in several categories as (5). Even though, they can be all discrete unit, the properties of each temporal unit are varied. For instance, the examples in (5) conceptualized the moment with the quantified unit while the temporal sense in (6) is based on the event, where the experience forms a temporal scene. Constructivists maintain that we form a mental model to understand the world, and the experience is the most powerful tool for constructing such a mental model. Considering this view, we can speculate that the temporal sense with the properties of events may be easier to grasp for children than the static time. To test this hypothesis, we distinguish the time into two categories: *event time* and *static time*.

(4) *static time*

- a. She returned at 2 a.m.
- b. see you on April.
- c. I was born in 1983.

(5) *event time*

- a. He had a fight at the high school dance.
- b. I will go on vacation.
- c. I learned it in class today.

Abstract senses

Tyler & Evance (2003) showed how the semantic networks are extended from a *protoscene* to other abstract domains through the example of 'over'. By adapting this approach, we classified the distinctive abstract senses appear common across 'at', 'on', and 'in'. As the result, 6 senses are found as from (7) to (12); they are *target/object*, *state/manner*, *involvement*, *source*, *mean* or *idiom*.

(6) *target/object*

- a. She would have laughed at the idea.
- b. More money should be spent on education.
- c. Do you believe in god?

Examples in (7) might be confusing with the sense of goal/direction in spatial category. However, the distinction between these two can be explained with the feature of [+directionality] in the relation of figure and ground, or characteristic of the object of the preposition that it is whether concrete or abstract. In (2), it is implied that the action of the figure is on the direction to the ground: [+directionality]. However, it is not that clear to detect such directionality in (7). In addition to this, the objects of the preposition in (2) refer the place while the ones in (7) are the abstract figures. In (8), the prepositions account for the figure in terms of the ground while the relation of figure and ground in (9) is involvement.

(7) *manner/state*

- a. The flower has grown at a sluggish pace.
- b. She is on duty.
- c. They are in love.

(8) *involvement*

- a. She excels at sport.
- b. a book on Astronomy...
- c. He works in medicine.

The abstract senses as *target/object*, *state/manner*, or *involvement* are so far detected across all three prepositions. However, the following senses, *source* or *mean*, are only available for *on* and *in*. In the usage of adult English, it is not possible to find the use of 'at' that describes the relation of 'source' or 'mean'. Since both senses of 'source' and 'mean' are obviously distinct from other abstract senses and available for both *on* and *in*, we count them as the independent semantic entry.

(9) *source*

- a. He listened the song on the radio.
- b. ...one of the funniest scenes in the film

(10) *mean*

- a. He talks on the phone.
- b. He speaks in Japanese.

As the last, the prepositions in idioms or idiom-like usage are separately counted, and the examples in (12) show such cases.

(11) *idiom*

- a. ...not at all
- b. ...turns on the light
- c. ...in touch

To sum up, we suggest the semantic classification of English preposition ‘at’, ‘on’, and ‘in’ with 11 categories: topological configuration, location, goal, time, event, target, involvement, mean, state, source, and idiom. With this classification, we look into the development of each sense by analyzing the children's utterance in CHILDES database.

DATA COLLECTION

The material of the study is based on the CHILDES (MacWhinney & Snow 1990). The English database in CHILDES consists of 59 corpora, 50 of American English and 9 of British English. Each corpus has its own characteristics varied by the corpus size, age of target children, number of target children, the participants of the corpus (e.g., children only or with investigators), and etc. However, only few are the sequential data of the same target children; among these longitudinal studies, we choose Providence corpus since it shows the even distribution of age and number of the target children.

<Table 1> detailed information of the target dataset

Age	Mean MLU	STD	Child	No. of corpus	Words	Utterance	MLU
1	1.971	0.405	ale	15	3060	2077	1.473
			lil	24	4974	3289	1.512
			nai	39	25033	10519	2.380
			vio	20	2767	1484	1.865
			wil	14	4029	2854	1.412
2	2.875	0.613	ale	25	17301	8107	2.134
			lil	41	39838	13921	2.862
			nai	42	42504	11446	3.713
			vio	22	15098	5248	2.877
			wil	22	14746	6320	2.333
3	3.211	1.026	ale	11	11423	4211	2.713
			lil	14	20542	6054	3.393
			nai	6	9780	2295	5.261
			vio	9	5003	1592	3.143
			wil	8	12348	4252	2.904

Since the goal of this study is to examine the development of the preposition senses by the age, we narrowed down to the dataset the same child participated through the age between 1 and 3, and thus, the data of 5 children is chosen for the analysis. <Table 1> presents the detailed information of target dataset.

Overall, 312 corpora were selected, and from these, by using the CLAN program, we retrieved the frequency of the each English preposition. The result is summarized in the <Table 2>. After this, we looked into the usage of each preposition on a case by case basis. On this raw data, we coded four explanatory variables: *Child*, *Age*, *Preposition*, and *Sense*.

<Table 2> the frequency of English prepositions in each age

Age	at	in	on	<i>Grand Total</i>
1	74	360	167	601
2	346	1382	899	2627
3	174	509	322	1005
<i>Grand Total</i>	594	2251	1388	4233

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The data is coded by using four categorical variables in <Table 3>. As seen in this table, there are multiple-levels in variables. The goal of this study is to see how the senses in prepositions are developed through the ages. We can consider *Individual difference*, *Age*, *Preposition*, *Sense* as factors bring the difference in the semantic development. That is, we need to consider not only how a single factor affects the acquisition, but also the interaction effect of these factors as together.

<Table 3> Variables for data coding (Abbreviations in curly brackets)

variable	levels	values
CHI {C}	5	ale, lil, nai, vio, wil
Age {A}	3	1, 2, 3 (years)
Preposition {P}	3	at, on, in
Sense {S}	11	topological configuration, location, goal; time, event; target, involvement, mean, state, source, idiom

RESULT BY CROSS-TABULATION

age sense	at			on			in			<i>Grand total</i>
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	
t/c	8	12	10	136	677	228	216	944	337	2568
location	26	125	49	2	59	28	119	259	101	768
goal	31	172	98	11	53	13	4	46	11	439
event	4	10	2	0	2	2	4	1	1	26
time	0	11	7	0	6	3	1	18	20	66
target	3	1	0	1	11	7	1	14	8	46
manner	0	0	0	1	7	4	0	21	9	42
involvement	0	0	0	1	4	3	0	13	7	28
source	2	7	2	3	31	15	15	49	12	136
mean	0	1	0	7	18	9	0	9	0	44
idiom	0	7	6	5	31	10	0	8	3	70
<i>Grand Total</i>	75	348	177	168	901	325	361	1384	512	4233

The cross-tabulation of 495 (5 x 3 x 3 x 11 levels) cells can be created to show the sense-classification result. The result of the sense-classification is summarized in the <Table 4> is out of only 99 cells since lack of space forbids inclusion of individual effect {C} in the table. Although it is the cross-tabulation which deals with the three variables (*Preposition*, *Age*, and *Sense*), it is still too complicated to grasp the tendency across the results.

<Table 4> Cross-tabulation of the sense classification

Especially, it is not possible to figure out whether a single factor involves in the sense acquisition or there are interaction effect of multiple factors for leading such result. Thus, we employed the log-linear analysis to examine the effect of each factor and possible interaction effect among the factors.

RESULT BY LOG-LINEAR ANALYSIS

We test a number of hierarchical models with the backward-elimination procedure. The hierarchical models tested, and the results are shown in <Table 6>. The goal of log-linear analysis is to find the model that satisfies the saturated model (#1) with the simplest combination of variables since a variable that involved in a model is counted as a factor, and each combination within a curly bracket shows an interaction effect of factors. For instance, the model #1 includes all four variables within a curly bracket and this means that all variables interact with each other. If the model {AS} fits into the saturated model, that only *Age* and *Sense* are the factors, and these two factors interact so it confirms the certain sense is acquired in a certain age.

<Table 6> Hierarchical models for the sense-classification

No.	Model	L2	df	p
1	{CAPS}	1588.179	444	0
2	{CAP}, {CAS}, {CPS}, {APS}	99.851	160	1.000
3	{CAS}, {CPS}, {APS}	118.600	176	1.000
4	{CAP}, {CAS}, {CPS}	179.995	200	0.842
5	{CAP}, {CAS}, {APS}	255.479	240	0.235
6	{CAP}, {CPS}, {APS}	202.161	240	0.964
7	{CAS}, {CPS}, {AP}	202.192	216	0.741
8	{CAS}, {APS}, {CP}	279.189	256	0.153
9	{CAP}, {CAS}, {PS}	354.837	280	0.002
10	{CAP}, {CPS}, {AS}	288.587	280	0.349
11	{CAP}, {APS}, {CS}	363.988	320	0.045
12	{CPS}, {APS}, {CA}	241.753	256	0.730
*13	{CAS}, {CPS}	215.866	220	0.566
14	{CAS}, {APS}	355.603	264	0.000
15	{CAP}, {CAS}	1989.424	300	0.000
16	{CAP}, {CPS}	368.198	300	0.004
17	{CAP}, {APS}	549.313	360	0.000
18	{CPS}, {APS}	1078.528	264	0.000
19	{CAS}, {CP}	2050.210	320	0.000
20	{CAS}, {AP}	2086.044	324	0.000
21	{CAS}, {PS}	471.289	308	0.000
22	{CAP}, {CS}	2202.541	400	0.000
23	{CAP}, {AS}	2279.754	420	0.000
24	{CAP}, {PS}	713.581	420	0.000
25	{CPS}, {CA}	428.983	320	0.000
26	{CPS}, {AS}	1194.214	1308	0.000
27	{CPS}, {AP}	1242.795	324	0.000
28	{APS}, {CS}	1333.951	352	0.000
29	{APS}, {CA}	645.933	384	0.000
30	{APS}, {CP}	1423.911	384	0.000

<Table 6> shows the list of models that are tested. As we see, the models below #13 in <Table 6> cannot explain the results while the models above #13 are all good models. Among them, the model #13 is chosen as the best model since it is most parsimonious. The standardized residual of the model is 0, and the G^2/df is 0.98.

DISCUSSION

The selected model #13 confirmed the three-way association effect in the sense acquisition in English prepositions. The model expects that the senses in the preposition is developed through ages, but the pattern can be different from each child:

{CAS}, and also it predicts that a child has his/her own preferred sense for each preposition, and this can differ from one child to another: {CPS}. In both terms, we cannot find the interaction effect of Preposition and Age directly. Earlier in <Table 2>, we see the difference among the preposition usage in each age; the use of *in* or *on* seems much frequent than use of *at*. However, it was found that the choice of the preposition does not differ from each age; it is rather that a certain sense in a preposition is emphasized through the development, and a child assigns a certain sense to a preposition. Interestingly, the pattern of sense-assigning for each preposition is not universal across the children. That is, the children's view on each preposition sense is highly idiosyncratic, and this could be experience-oriented. The individual preference on each sense may due to the care-takers input which contradicted to the findings of previous study (Jun and Lee 2009). Yet the care-takers' input is not analyzed together in this study, so this should be studied further to confirm whether it brings the individual difference in sense-acquisition or not.

The main goal of the current study is to test if there is a universal pattern in sense development in order to certify the universal reasoning of metaphoric extension. However, we failed to detect the universal pattern in children's sense acquisition. This may suggest that the metaphoric mapping process is idiosyncratic that we do not perceive the world in the same way.

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*English as a Second Language; Engaging the Early Years through Interactive Touch
Application Software*

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Abstract

An interactive touch application has been developed that targets early years of primary school education (kindergarten students) for improvement in English literacy and linguistic skills. The application services remote learning in English as a second language and is developed in accordance with school curricula and learning objectives, in collaboration with Deira International School, Dubai. In the UAE, GCC and other cultural contexts that require English literacy for wider community inclusion and where parental assistance may be lacking, the software provides an invaluable aid both inside and outside the classroom, for development in reading, writing and audition. Interactive activities that offer skill development and assessment are modularized, providing tasks in listening, reading and writing with phonetics and spelling challenges, combined with audio-visual prompts. Tasks and levels are assigned automatically as determined by the software, based on real-time competency assessment of individual students; tailoring the task and its difficulty to each child's needs. Fuzzy logic is applied for task/level determination. Handwriting character recognition is embedded for skill assessment in the writing module. Parents and teachers are able to view graphical results of a child's progress, as system administrators. The software is developed in C++ on Windows 8, utilizing Microsoft Visual Studio Express 2012 SDK. Compared with existing solutions, the software offers many new features and benefits. It offers a holistic approach with an expanse of syllabi-based tasks and automatically assesses each student individually, providing a tailored, engaging yet comprehensive package, toward universal education and community engagement.

Key-Words: - Innovative Language Teaching, E-Learning Methodologies, Educational Technologies, Touch Screen, Software Development, Computers for Education

1 Introduction

This software provides an immersive application for young school children learning English as a Second Language (ESL); to provide them an opportunity to learn and develop their literacy and linguistic skills, where parental and/or instructional support may be lacking, or to target their development in a specific skill deficit. Multicultural cities exist globally, to a large extent driven by technology, and Dubai is a prime example, where children from different nationalities coexist. In this context, English provides a vital medium for communication, and hence inclusion and integration into society. Without basic skills in English, a child is at a disadvantage. Thus the objective of this software is to aid children from all nationalities to gain a good, basic understanding of English from the very beginning of their education; the vital years of learning and development.

The software focuses on three core elements via the modules: reading (phonetics), listening and writing. Within these modules, students progress through a series of levels to learn, develop and test their competencies. The activities within these modules are presented via a fun, interactive application on a touch-screen platform with a user-friendly Graphical User Interface (GUI), to further engage the students for self-learning. Implementation is done on Windows 8 operating system with LG touch-screen technology, with modules developed using Microsoft SDK and programming in C#, with database querying in SQL to Microsoft Access. The software offers instructional support, wherein teachers and parents can provide input and feedback, ascertaining a child's individual progress within each skill-set. Through fuzzy-logic algorithms, the software automatically assesses the competencies and progress of a student and places the student within their own activity level. HCR is implemented in the writing module, to automatically detect the child's response. Records can be automatically generated for instructors. It is the first software with the three modules to be based on current teaching curricula and tested within a cross-cultural, varied skill level classroom environment. The over-arching purpose of this software is not solely for assessment, but for a fun, portable learning environment accessible to children from across the world for their education and social inclusion. It is applicable to children from any educational institution, or those without access, to gain the basic skills in ESL.

2 Existing Solutions

Many applications are available in the current online market to assist in the acquisition of skills in English at an early age; these include Kids ABC Phonics (Intellijoy, 2013), Kids Learn to Read (Intellijoy, 2012) and Licking Letters (Tenlin Studios LLC, 2013). All three software applications offer letter and sound blending for word construction. Kids ABC Phonics aims to teach children the letter sounds and the basics of blending of these letters. The application is divided into four sections where the child is guided through the learning processes of letter sounds efficiently. Namely; learning letter sounds, building letter blocks, popping letter bubbles as a game functionality and making words, where the child is required to demonstrate the basics of phonics blending learned from the previous sections. This application assists the child in listening and learning the sounds of the alphabets. Writing is not included. Kids Learn to Read is an interactive game-based application for the Android OS, which invites preschool children to practice the blending of sounds together to read and spell simple words, such as "dog" and "sun". This application uses two main methods; with the

help of an interactive character named Tommy the Turtle, the child is guided to learn the blending of letter sounds into words. Here the child constructs words, determines how each letter is sounded out, how a word is formed and pronounced. In the second method, the child is encouraged to make words by turning real-time blocks with letters on each side until the word is correctly spelled. This application encourages a child to progress through each level, with positive reinforcement. Licking Letters is developed for Apple products running on iOS3.1.3 or later. It aids the child to learn how to spell words through an interactive user interface and with the help of a virtual character named Hoppy the Frog. Words to spell increase in the level of difficulty, with a total of 150 words to spell, starting with 3-lettered words and gradually increasing the difficulty to 5-lettered words, with an option to spell words with letters in or out of order. With each correctly spelled word, the child is rewarded with coins that can be redeemed to collect outfits to accessorize the virtual character, for motivation. Each time three words are spelled, the child is rewarded with a mini-game within the level to gain extra coins. Game difficulty can be set manually depending on the child's skill level. This program aims to help the child to spell simple words as well as learn new words.

A benefit of the developed software is that the application is specifically tailored to the UK curriculum followed by Deira International School, Dubai. The advantage that this software has over existing programs is that it is open source, curriculum-specific, and offers an advanced grading system through semi-automatic classification of difficulty levels and embedded activities. HCR is implemented in the Writing Module, with fuzzy logic for automatic grading and activity offerings within the Reading and Listening Modules.

3 Applied Methodologies, Algorithm Implementation and Output

The following is the Main Page GUI, with the three modules available for selection; Listening, Reading and Writing (Figure 3.1). Upon button press, the respective module is loaded.



Figure 3.1 A screenshot of the Main Page containing the modules

3.1 Listening Module Design and Development

Algorithm development and testing progressed from the conversion of a hard-limit algorithm, based on count taken of correct responses, and the time taken for each activity, to classify a child's progress, to a dynamic algorithm based on fuzzy logic. Program functionality is discussed below, for each function provided within the Listening Module (Figure 3.2).

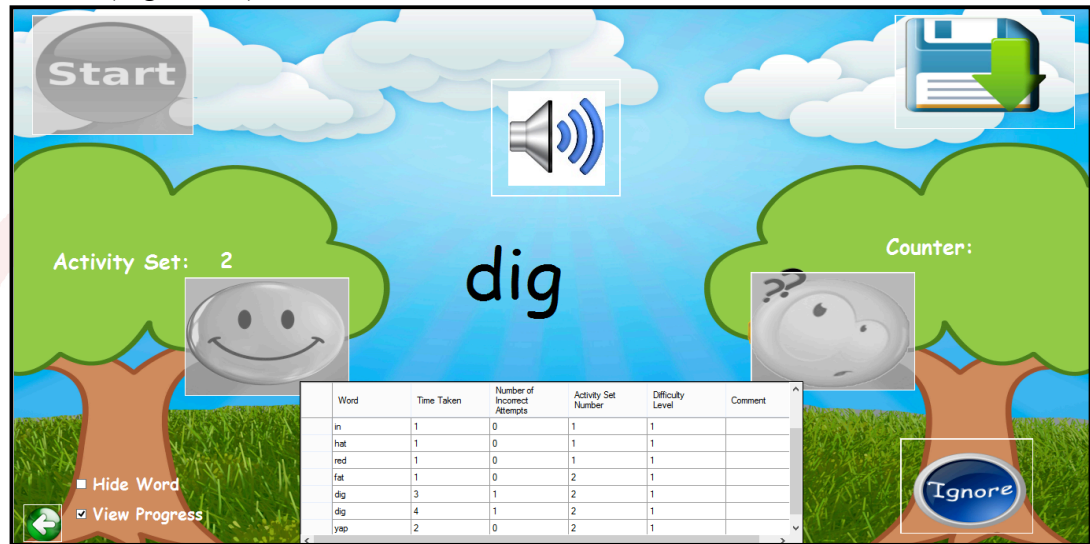


Figure 3.2 Listening module GUI upon pressing the start button; also showing user performance (View Progress is selected).

Upon the loading of the listening module form, a connection is established to the database "studentDb" and its table, Listening1. Once the connection is established, a data table, dataresult, is created to hold the required data such as the word, time taken for the activity, the number of incorrect attempts, the activity set number and the difficulty level the selected word was from; for the recording purpose as the user proceeds through the application. Columns are created to the data table to store the values for each activity with their data type: Word, Time Taken, Number of Incorrect Attempts, Activity Set Number and Difficulty Level. This table is set as hidden by default and can be viewed as the child progresses by checking the check box "View Progress".

The Start button is used to initialize the listening module. Upon clicking the start button, the speaker button, the print button, the ignore button are enabled while disabling the start button. The first activity set is loaded into the application and is displayed on the screen. This label can be hidden by the admin by checking the check box Hide label. The Speaker button is used to prompt the audio of the word displayed. Upon clicking the speaker button, the counter variable buttoncount is incremented by one upon each click; to keep track of how many times the speaker button has been clicked. The timer is initiated is set to increment every one second. An IF statement is introduced to check whether the button is clicked more than once, hence avoiding the reset of the timer. If the statement is validated, the current time is captured from the system clock and is saved to the variable "startTime" as well as the Yes Button (buttonyes) and No button (buttonno) is enabled respectively. A new sound player, simpleSound, is created. Based upon the check, simpleSound locates the sound file of the respective name and then plays the audio file.

The No button is used mainly to record the number of incorrect attempts by the user per activity as well as per activity set. Every time the user has an incorrect attempt at the activity, both the number of the incorrect activity (`incorr_num`) and the activity set (`total_incorr_num`) are incremented. The number of times the no button has been pressed by the admin is recorded and shown on the screen using the label “counterno”. For every tick by the Activity Timer (`activitytime`), the elapsed time is calculated by subtracting the time from the system clock at the given point of time, extracting the seconds from the elapsed time and saving it into the variable “timecount”. An additional one second is added to avoid the lag of one second which was noticed during application testing. The “timecount” variable is later used for Yes button functionality.

In the click event of the Yes button, the fuzzy logic algorithm is initiated. Fuzzy logic is essentially the classification of dynamically changing data. The fuzzy logic algorithm was developed based on existing work (Kim et al., 2001; Kao and Shih, 2008; Hsieh et al., 2012; Yusof et al., 2012). Key indicators of the performance for membership functions include time taken for an activity and the number of attempts at the activity. The fuzzy logic is executed depending on user input such as time taken by the user per activity and number of incorrect attempts per activity based on five main conditions executed based on his/her performance basis. Upon yes button press, the timer is paused to record time taken by the child for the activity, and a new row (`dr`) is created in the data table `dataresult` to store the values such as the word selected, the time taken by the user to complete the activity, the number of incorrect attempts, the activity set number and the difficulty level the selected word of the activity. A dynamic variable named `average` is used to store the calculated ratio between total incorrect clicks and total clicks. This value demonstrates the average number of wrong user attempts per word. This value is used to compare the number of incorrect attempts by the user for a given activity. The average time taken by the user per activity is calculated with ratio between the total time taken by the user for the activity set (`totaltimecount`) and the number of correct attempts by the user. With these two methods it can be determined whether the user is doing better than average on two different measurements, the time taken and the number of incorrect attempts; both of which are dynamic. These two calculations are used to ascertain which activity from which difficulty level will be chosen next. After the activity is chosen, these two values are then used to recalculate the dynamic limits for the next word. Five membership conditions (outlined below) are introduced to select an activity depending upon the various fuzzy logic rules which are executed within IF-THEN statements.

Average Clicks_(0,1) = (total_incorr_click/ total_click) x 10, for total_incorr_clicks <= total_clicks

Average Time Ratio_(0,x) = (totaltimecount/total_corr_click), for totaltimecount >= total_corr_click

The five membership functions are:

```
{if (incorr_num < average && timecount < goodtime),  
if (incorr_num > average && timecount < goodtime),  
if (timecount > goodtime && timecount < badtime && incorr_num < average),  
if (timecount > goodtime && timecount < badtime && incorr_num > average),  
if (badactiveset > 3)} THEN select a random activity for the user
```

Once the nested loop has been executed, the data rows (dr) is filled with the respective value from the variables, prevword, activesetnum, incorr_num and difflevel is added to the data table dataresult; for recording purposes. Depending upon the user performance, the good time and the bad time would be incremented or decremented by 0.1 seconds (Liukkonen, 2009). Only if the criteria in the nested loop that the time is greater than one second are met, the statements in loop are executed. If timeratio is less than goodtime then goodtime and badtime is decremented by 0.1 second. Else, if timeratio is greater than goodtime then goodtime and badtime is incremented by 0.1 second. Values of timecount and incorr_num are reset to one second and zero respectively. The yes button (buttonyes) and no button (buttonno) are disabled after statement execution.

The print function is called for the click event of the Print button (buttonprint) to print the datatable dataresult into an excel sheet for the record purpose of the admin up to the activities the user has completed. The moment the Print button is triggered, a Dialog box is expected to open with the file type of excel format (.xls) with the default name "Result". When the user has clicked on the "OK" button of the dialog box to print the report, the print function is called to convert the data table-dataresult into an excel sheet. The Ignore button is an optional button purely for admin button to ignore the words in the activity set of the type "High Frequency Words". It contains the same functions as described in the "Yes Button" code functionality, except it does not record the activity set, word, time/attempts for that particular word.

3.2 Reading Module

This module is similar to the listening module (common functions), but without the word appearing and with a few differences in functionality. On the click event of the Next button, the button count is incremented each time the button is pressed. The activity is enabled for every one second. To avoid resetting of the timer, it starts only when the button is pressed once. The "Yes Button" and the "No Button" are enabled and the activity word is displayed on the screen (refer Figure 3.3).



Figure 3.3. Illustrating the Form Load

3.3 Writing Module

HCR is implemented in the Writing Module in a simple, efficient way to aid in the development of motor skills for primary level children (aged 4 to 5 years). At this stage, the children are just beginning to be able to emulate letter shapes and crudely draw alphabetical characters. Accordingly, this module has the child progress through the alphabet, requiring him/her to write out each character. The GUI for this module is shown in Figure 3.4. Upon completion of the writing and selection of the next button, automatic recognition is invoked, where a message ‘Well Done’ appears if the character is correct, or ‘Try Again’ if it is incorrect.

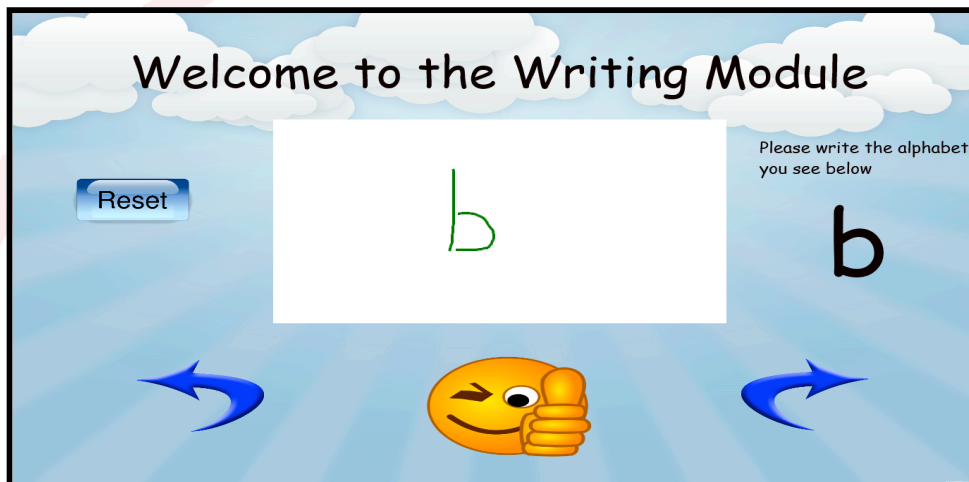


Figure 3.4. Figure illustrating how a child may write the letter “b”, using 2 strokes

Notable classes and controls for the Writing Module are discussed in brief. The class InkManager is part of the Windows.UI.Input.Inking Library, and it is used for the managing of stroke inputs, manipulation (erasing in this situation), and processing (HCR). This is done on a per stroke basis. InkManager is used for this application because it allows for a degree of freedom in recognizing what a character is and is not. Since an early years child uses the application, a child’s lack of developed motor skills is considered. Thus with InkManager, the distance between two strokes can be used in order to dictate when a new letter is written. For example, a child may not be able to write the letter “b” in one fluid movement yet, and therefore, may use two strokes. The Distance function is used to calculate the shortest distance between two lines using a basic Pythagorean equation, represented by the algorithm: $d = \text{Math.Sqrt}(\text{Math.Pow}((x2 - x1), 2) + \text{Math.Pow}((y2 - y1), 2))$. This calculation is used in the InkCanvas_PointerMoved function (implementing Equation 1) in order to determine when a new stroke should be recognized. The reset_Click_1 event happens when the Reset button is pressed (reset). When the button is pressed, the alphabet variable is set back to the letter a. The use of InkManager allows for this. The class Canvas Control is used to accept the strokes used for the InkManager class. Each stroke is saved as a child of the Canvas object. When the application is loaded, Event Handlers are initiated for the Canvas control to recognize when the mouse pointer is pressed, released, moved, and when the pointer leaves the allocated area.

Available strokes are retrieved from the InkManager and each stroke is passed through the Handwriting Recognizer. The character is then recognized and added to the results variable, which stores the values as a continuous string. The inkManager

mode is changed to Erasing, and the strokes are deleted. The mode is then switched back to Inking (drawing mode). The children of the panelcanvas object are also deleted. The results variable is then compared to the alphabet string to see if the user has written in the correct character. If both match, a message box appears confirming a correct match and alphabet is updated to the next character. If both variables do not match, a separate message box appears, prompting the user to try again. When the Back button is pressed, the strokes are erased. As soon as the strokes are erased, the alphabet variable is checked, and the user is taken back one letter. When the Next button is pressed, the strokes are erased in the same way as the ok button, the alphabet variable is then checked and the user is taken forward one letter. No character recognition takes place here.

4 User Testing and Results

Functionality testing was carried out extensively for the Reading, Listening and Writing Modules. For the Reading and Listening Modules, the five categories of performance were evaluated, from Good to Bad, based on time taken for each word (logged) and the number of incorrect attempts. Records of the activity set, difficulty levels and written comments were also evaluated for expected versus actual results. These results were attained through use of the software by Ms Sarah Bennett, in the classroom, for a variety of child skill levels. Each module performed well, moving the child between activities and sets, based on their performance indicators. Distance function computation within the Writing Module, as described previously, with the HCR algorithm, enabled classification of the user's response on the canvas, within the writing module. Although the child's handwriting was sometimes recognizable by the instructor as correct, although it differed from the boundaries for classification by the automated HCR program, there was an override function available, wherein the instructor could manually override the automatic grading, if there was a disparity. The HCR algorithm was tested against several deviations of input, and misclassification infrequently occurred. Where misclassification did exist, the writing was scrutinized by the instructor and did not fit within the acceptable limits of the HCR.

4.1 User Testing

The testing was carried out on a particular kindergarten class of around 20 children, taught by Ms. Sarah Bennett. The development team had set up the touchscreen monitor at a study corner, connected to the laptop where the application was stored. The children were offered turns, one after the other, to come and take a lesson in their most favorite module. With the presence of Ms. Sarah Bennett, the testing of the chosen module was conducted and the development team recorded the user interaction as well as the answers through videos. After 14-15 children took their turns and the modules had been tested, difficulties and complications were noted and addressed. Testing spanned for two hours and at the conclusion, feedback were taken. The children who tried the application were asked regarding their experience and the feedback received was positive. Most of them praised the colorful background and attractive icons which gave them a feeling of playing a game. They also highlighted the fact that they found it fun to learn the lessons as they intuitively knew what buttons to press at what time. Ms. Sarah Bennett was satisfied with the overall user testing and mentioned that the children actually enjoyed their interaction with the application. Feedback for additional functionality was addressed. A manual override in writing module to progress towards the next word. Within the Reading and Listening modules, chang-

ing label names, adding count for incorrect attempts, replacing icons. Steps pursued in order to avoid any sort of technical crash during the running of the application. A pause button functionality which can be used in case the application needs to be stopped for urgent reasons. A method to avoid occurrence of high-frequency words in the listening module from the database.

The second phase of the testing was conducted in the same class of children as the first. Children who were not a part of the first phase were selected and given turns, one after the other. And complying with it, different combination of children, categorized as good, average and weak, were selected. They now had to undertake all the three modules in the application at a single turn. Hence a realistic assessment environment was simulated. With the presence of Ms. Sarah Bennett, the user testing commenced and the development team observed and took videos for further analysis. Around 9-10 children went through the lessons and it spanned over two hours. Fixes suggested by the expert were implemented for this phase. Feedback from the children were positive in this scenario as well. They pointed out that they learnt new words and would actually remember them from now on. Furthermore, the children noted that they did not get bored during the testing duration and would love to do it again. However, some of them complained that they could not trace out alphabets at a single try because of the friction in the touchscreen monitor. At the end of the testing, it was decided in coordination with DIS that the application, touchscreen and a user manual was provided to Ms. Sarah Bennett for use, further analysis and reporting.

Questionnaires were handed to teachers at DIS in response to using the application. Questions and answers were as follows. 1.) What do you feel this application brings to the classroom? 2.) Any difference you've found using this technology in comparison to the traditional method in books from a teachers point of view? e.g.) reducing paper work, Automated syllabus? 3.) As a teacher, do you find any difference in the progress level of the child in using the application than the traditional methods used in the classroom? 4.) With a scope for future development, do you think this at the current stage this application would significantly aid the methods of teaching the curriculum? If yes, how? Responses were mostly positive: a bright and colorful application. Children enjoy the visual stimulus; it is a great activity and does not feel like assessment for the children. A more interactive approach is required; children want to play and see this more of a fun activity than being assessed. This way is far more efficient but data needs to be easily accessible and backed up. Children are retaining the words quicker and get to recognize the CVC (consonant/vowel/consonant) words by sight after they reappear and already been sounded before. Parents would also find it useful and informative (great that it is randomized). A quick and easy to access and was good to use as a practice/revision activity but not for recording guidance.

5 Conclusions and Future Work

The application has been developed as a supportive software tool, to assist English instructors and parents with teaching ESL to early years; providing assistive, interactive and automated computer-based activities to develop skills in English Literacy and assess the child in real-time. Although several applications exist for learning the basic skills in English for children at a young age, this software provides several benefits

over existing solutions, such as advancement in activity sets based on the child's real-time performance and the application of artificial intelligence (fuzzy logic) at the back-end to achieve this via automatic assessment. Three modules are offered to help with Reading, Writing and Listening. The software significantly reduces the manual role that instructors and parents play in administering, monitoring and storing results, as well as results retrieval. The software is also based on the UK curricula and has been exhaustively tested by the developers for functionality, as well as an expert early years teacher, with children from a variety of linguistic abilities. Test results show that the software is working soundly, and is accepted by the children and teachers that have been using it in the classroom environment. Future developments may include recording from the Writing Module automatically; currently this is a manual function, although the file for entry is provided for the instructor on the installation CD. User-driven skipping through activity sets, for manual entry of the desired start-activity (other than the first, which is the default), would also be beneficial to the instructor. Removal of high frequency words from the database, upon user-initiation would offer more flexibility to the administrator. Speech to text recognition is another identified extension of the work.

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The Effects of the Thai Phonological and Writing Systems on Spelling and Writing in English: A Case Study of Burapha University Students

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Abstract

Thai has unique phonological structures, which are very different from those of English. The very fact that there are more consonant phonemes in English than Thai has created problems for Thai learners of EFL in accommodating and pronouncing English consonant sounds. The differences in the writing systems of the two languages is also considered problematic for them. It is the hypothesis of this study that these two issues contribute to and affect the spelling and writing of English in Thai learners. Experimental tests of the hypothesis were administered. To achieve this, 89 students who took a TOEIC intensive course and had TOEIC pre-test scores lower than 40 per cent were chosen to participate in the study. They were assigned three tasks: 1) auditory/ visual word matching; 2) a spelling words test from dictation; and 3) a short essay. Misspellings occurring in the tasks were classified in accordance with the target modification taxonomy. Each category of errors was further sub-classified, using a method adapted from Rimrott's (2004) CLASSY: Competence/ Performance, Linguistics Subsystem, and Language Influence. Both the student participants who obtained similar marks, constituting the majority, and the teacher participants who read words out to the student participants were invited to take part in an in-depth, unstructured interview. It was found that spelling errors were particularly noticeable in Task 2, whilst the students performed better in Task 1, and best in Task 3, as they opted to write words they were familiar with. Distribution of errors across the competence/ performance taxonomy was mutually exclusive. Orthographic and morphological errors were found only under performance errors, whilst only phonological and lexical errors appeared under competence misspellings, so the errors were found to be in complementary distribution. Since the phonological errors formed part of the competence taxonomy, it follows that the spelling errors of those participants were based on interlingual influence of L1 phonological knowledge. It was therefore concluded that the Thai phonological system did affect the spelling and writing in English for this study. The Thai writing system, on the other hand, did not have any significant effect on the spelling and writing in English. Instead, it was the writing system of English with which the participants struggled. This, therefore, supported the hypothesis in part. There was ample evidence in the interviews of another striking issue affecting the spelling and writing of the learners, i.e. the affective factor, which appears to have played a vital role in the accuracy of spelling and writing as well as pronunciation in English.

Introduction

Different languages have their own unique phonological structures which contrast with those of other languages, and which create problems in accommodating and pronouncing English sounds. This eventually results in ambiguity and miscommunication (e.g. 'tin' vs. 'thin') due to conflicting sound distinctions. Given that some English phonemes are absent in the Thai phonological system, it is inevitable that Thai learners have considerable difficulty uttering these phonemes. The ultimate cause is the fact that few English teachers are sufficiently trained in English phonetics, and even fewer in contrastive phonology, so that it is difficult for them to understand adequately the problems their students are struggling with; and that textbooks, especially those written by Thai authors, fail to address these problems in sufficient detail.

Another major issue with regard to the writing systems of the two languages is that the English writing system uses Roman script, with much irregularity of grapheme-phoneme correspondence, whereas the Thai writing system uses non-Roman script and has a more rule-governed grapheme-phoneme correspondence. The differences between the two systems possibly affect the Thai learners' conscious knowledge of the English grapheme-phoneme correspondence.

The two aforementioned issues contribute to the hypothesis of this study. It is predicted that native speakers of Thai will find it difficult to spell and write English words, given the differences between the phonological and writing systems of the two languages.

The Thai and English Systems: A Comparative Examination

Certain aspects of the differences between the two systems are obvious. In terms of the phonological system,¹ English contains 24 consonant phonemes, whilst Thai has 20, as can be seen from Table 1, adapted from Kanokpermpoon (2007).

¹ Only consonant phonemes are discussed in this study, and although I recognise that vowel phonemes also form part of the Thai phonological system, they are beyond the scope of the study.

Table 1: *Thai consonant sounds*

	Bilabia l	Labiodent al	Alveola r	Post- Alveola r	Palata l	Vela r	Glotta l
Plosive	p b p ^h		t d t ^h			k k ^h	ʔ
Nasal	m		n			ŋ	
Trill			r				
Fricative		f	s				h
Affricate				c c ^h			
Approximan t					y		
Lateral approximan t	w		l				

Table 2: *English consonant sounds*

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Post- Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d			k g	
Nasal	m			n			ŋ	
Fricative		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Affricate					tʃ dʒ			
Lateral				l				
Approximant				ɹ		j	w	

These consonant phonemes contrast in syllable-initial position in Thai, as do those in English. In terms of voicing for plosives (stops), English appears to be similar to Thai, e.g. as seen in bilabial /p/ and /b/, where voicing quality, i.e. whether the sound is voiced/voiceless, carries a change in meaning. The three-way voicing/ aspiration contrast in bilabial /p p^h b/ and alveolar / t d t^h/ is, according to Harris (2001), a notable feature of Thai, which is absent in English. In Thai, then, one phoneme can be further segmented into two different, yet *relatively similar*, sounds by the addition of aspiration, resulting in a change in meaning. It appears that English does have more *distinctive* phonemes to acquire than does Thai, and leads to the question whether or not Thai learners have difficulty pronouncing English consonant sounds.

In terms of manner of articulation, the major difference lies in the fricatives, of which Thai has a smaller number than English. Even more strikingly, the Thai affricates are entirely different from those of English. That being said, the nasals of the two languages show similarity in pronunciation. In Thai, voiced nasal stops occur at the bilabial /m/, alveolar /n/, and velar /ŋ/ places of articulation, and the same is true of English. Alveolar articulations in Thai also include trill /r/, which is absent in English, and lateral approximant /l/.

In relation to the place of articulation, the two languages observe seven phonemes at the alveolar place. In Thai, there are three oral stops, a voiced nasal stop, a voiced trill, a voiceless fricative, and a voiced lateral approximant. Palatal /y/ and labial-velar /w/ approximants are also included in the Thai consonant inventory. However, Thai has fewer voiced consonant phonemes than English. Furthermore, one place of articulation which is present in English but absent in Thai is dental. No Thai phonemes are articulated using particular active articulators which are the tongue, the lower and upper teeth.

So far, the phonological systems of Thai and English have revealed both similarities and differences. When certain consonant phonemes are present in both languages, they do not cause any difficulty for Thai learners to pronounce accurately. On the other hand, when consonant phonemes, i.e. certain English consonant phonemes, are absent in Thai, this causes pronunciation problems for Thai learners of English.

With regard to interaction between the writing system and the phonological system,² Thai and English appear to be both similar and different in a number of ways. To start with, although Thai and English are both alphabetic, the two languages are not exactly similar. Thai uses a syllabic alphabet, e.g. <๓> is transcribed as [t^hɔ̌t^háhǎan] with the inherent vowel /ɔ̌/ attached to it, but English uses a phonotypic alphabet. That is, English has a sound-based ‘phonographic’ writing system, connecting graphemes with the sounds of speech. According to Cook & Bassetti (2005), English is an alphabetically sound-based writing system, as its script represents all the phonemes of speech, both consonant and vowel phonemes. Languages like Arabic and Hebrew, of which the writing systems represent only spoken consonants, are therefore classified as having a consonantal system. As for Thai, Coulmas (2006) contends that its writing system appears to be more similar to that of English, in the sense that it has irregular spelling and polyvalent grapheme-phoneme correspondences. For instance, in Thai some phonemes have multiple grapheme representation, e.g. <๓>, <๓>, <๓> and <๓> represent the same phoneme /t/. In English some letters represent more than one phoneme, e.g. <s> represents the phonemes /s/ as in <sound>; /z/ as in <rose>; /f/ as in <sugar> and /ʒ/ as in <usually>. Despite the similarity, English appears more difficult than Thai with regard to grapheme-phoneme correspondences, since such polyvalence lies in the abstract phonological level, but that of Thai appear at the concrete grapheme level. Nonetheless, both Thai and English systems reveal a systematic mapping between graphemes (signs) and phonemes (the minimal units of speech). For instance, in relation to a grapheme, the English writing system segments language into phonemes, represented by letters or letter combinations. For instance, as in <bee> represents /b/, <ch> as in <church> represents /tʃ/. Similarly, Thai graphemes represent phonemes, e.g. the grapheme <๓> represents the phoneme /r/.

The orthographies of the two languages diverge markedly from each other. English uses a set of orthographic rules for the script, e.g. symbol-sound correspondences, capitalisation, hyphenation, punctuation, and the like. On the other hand, Thai has a limited number of such markers, i.e. Thai merely uses quotation marks to signal a quotation or the words someone speaks. Furthermore, the string of words are joined

² In this study, the writing system is viewed in the sense of *scripts* and *orthography*, i.e. an interaction between the graphic form of the units of a writing system (Coulmas 2006) and the set of rules used in a particular language for spelling, punctuation, etc.

and run together without any marker to signal word boundaries. To indicate a complete thought in a well-formed phrase or sentence or an incomplete one, a space is used. In some cases, however, a space does not necessarily indicate a sentence break. For these reasons, English appears more straightforward, in that spacing separates words and hyphenation or punctuation helps make English writing easier to read.

The fact that both Thai and English are alphabetic does not mean that they are similar in the regularity of their correspondence rules. English is not phonologically transparent, but rather a phonologically opaque writing system, according to Cook & Bassetti (2005). The letter-to-sound and sound-to-letter correspondences are not quite one-to-one in English. An illustration of this is the English letter <c>, which corresponds to at least three phonemes: /s/ as in 'cease'; /k/ as in 'cataclysm'; and /tʃ/ as in 'cello'. The letters <oo> correspond to at least five vowel phonemes: /u/ as in 'boot', /ʊ/ as in 'book', /ʌ/ as in 'blood', /əʊ/ as in 'brooch', and /ɔ/ as in 'door'. On the other hand, the Thai system is more phonologically transparent; for instance <มาก> corresponds to /maak/ letter by letter, and <ม> and <ก> always correspond to the same phonemes: /m/ and /k/ respectively.

In terms of orthographic constraints, both Thai and English reveal some limitations as to how the graphemes are combined with other graphemes. To illustrate, in English certain combinations are possible in word-initial position: the first segment of such a position (*onset*, to use a phonological term) allows a stop or a fricative, whilst the second (branching onset) needs to be one of the following: /ɹ/, /l/ or /w/, and /j/. Possible combinations of these, for instance, would be /pɹ/, /bl/, /dw/, /əw/, /sl/, and /fɹ/, but not /*tl/, /*dð/ or /*dz/ (these combinations would sound foreign to native English-speakers). Another example might be that the English <spr> and <scr> must occur in word-initial position, as in 'spray' and 'scram'. Cook & Bassetti (2005) draw another instance, of the English <tch>, which can only appear word-finally (as in 'match'); English <o> can double as in 'boo', but <a> cannot. Interestingly, evidence from recent research by Kessler & Treiman (2002) has shown that in English coronal onsets prefer non-coronal codas, and vice versa. In English the coda allows most of the consonant phonemes.

In Thai, the branching onsets display a similar pattern to that of English. The first segment, however, allows a more generous option for combination with a lateral or approximant. That is, any consonant can occupy the onset, and may be followed by /ɹ/, /l/ or /w/, or /j/, thereby becoming a branching onset. Nonetheless, the branching onset merely allows a monophthong, contra English. Furthermore, the coda allows only limited phonemes, namely /p/, /t/, /k/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /j/, and /w/. As has been seen, Thai and English show constraints on orthography due to language-specific phonotactics, and this is predicted to affect the productive skills of the participants in the study.

Method

There were three types of experimental task administered in the study. The first task, adopted from Cook (1994), required the participants to listen to 30 English words

embedded in noun phrases or short sentences uttered by a teacher. The participants were provided with three possible spellings for each word and asked to choose the one which they thought was correct, based on what they had heard. What was assessed and examined in the task was emergent spelling in English and the participants' knowledge of phonological and orthographic elements and word patterns in familiar English words.

Second, the participants were asked to complete a word-spelling test from dictation (Okada, 2002; Van Berkel, 2005). The text contained 49 words. The second task was similar to the first, except that the students were asked to use phoneme-grapheme correspondence based solely on their judgement, without any choices or distracters. To achieve this task, the teachers were given a list of words, and pronounced each word twice, in isolation, to the participants. The participants were given time to finish one item, i.e. spelling a word, before the next was presented. They were encouraged to attempt all the words presented, even if they were not certain of the spelling or meaning.

For the third task, participants were asked to compose a short free essay so that naturally occurring material and errors could be collected (Cook, 1997; Cook, 2004), as well as to control for orthographic and phonological complexity. Note that Tasks 1 and 3 were untimed.

Data collection and procedures

After taking the TOEIC pre-test, participants were asked to complete the three tasks in approximately one hour. All the test materials were administered to a total of three different groups (two groups from the Faculty of Management and Tourism, and the third from the Faculty of Logistics) at the end of their first class of the TOEIC intensive preparation course in Terms 1 and 2 of Academic Year 2012. The testing was administered in a quiet, comfortable room in the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, BUU, QS₂ Building. A series of tasks, described above, assessed phonological awareness, spelling, and the creation of real English words. All participants received the tasks in the same order. Every task was subsequently marked, and the percentage of incorrect items was calculated for the analysis. In addition, in order to triangulate the data and add to its truthfulness and richness, data was gained through informal interviews, administered separately from the tests.

Each student participant who obtained similar marks, which constituted the majority, was selected to have an in-depth, unstructured interview. The interview lasted between 30 and 45 minutes, and was conducted in Thai. The interviews had a broad focus on the participants' educational experiences as learners within their social contexts, and a list of topic areas was used as a framework for discussion. In addition, two teacher participants in the study, who had read the words out to the groups of students, were asked to have an in-depth, unstructured interview, which lasted around 30 minutes. The purpose of the unstructured interviews was not only to consolidate the reliability of the data gained, but also to test the working hypothesis by opening a window of understanding onto how these participants as students and teachers acquired the writing and phonological systems of English.

Data analysis

After the test had been administered, the incorrect answers from the tasks together with data from Task 3 were categorised according to spelling error classification, based on the target modification taxonomy, i.e. letter insertion, deletion, substitution, and transposition. Upon completion, the results were quantitatively analysed, showing descriptive statistics. Next, each category of errors was further classified, using a method adapted from Rimrott's (2004) CLASSY. Whether misspellings are assigned under performance or competence depends a great deal on the nature of the task. Furthermore, Dulay et al.'s (1982) criterion was adopted. That is, each misspelling of a particular target word was categorised as a competence error if the target word was misspelled at least two times, by at least four participants, or by at least two participants four or more times. These frequency rules were applied to whole words and to morphemes/ graphemes within a misspelling. Decision Trees for the Linguistic Sub-system Sub-taxonomy and for the Language Influence Sub-taxonomy were used for misspelling assignment. The data gained from the interviews with the student and teacher participants were studied and achieved through a descriptive analysis, concentrating on the main aspects, i.e. the interaction between the Thai and English phonological and writing systems, and the psychological aspects of the participants.

Results

The quantitative differences between the three groups with regard to spelling errors are shown in Table 3. The average total number of errors per group is as follows:

Table 3: *Quantitative differences in relation to misspellings gathered from the tasks*

	Task 1		Task 2		Task 3	
	Target words	Frequency & P of misspellings	Target words	Frequency & P of misspellings	Total of tokens	Frequency & P of misspellings
Group 1	30	160 (41.04%)	49	367 (57.61%)	158	5 (3.16%)
Group 2		409 (38.97%)		911 (53.12%)	533	16 (2.81%)
Group 3		438 (35.61%)		969 (48.23%)	1510	14 (0.93%)

Note: Task 1 = auditory/ visual word matching; Task 2 = spelling words from dictation;

Task 3 = short essays

The results were not surprising: the spelling errors were particularly salient in Task 2, in which participants were required to do spelling from dictation, whilst they performed better in Task 1, in which multiple choices associated with the words they heard were provided. They performed best in Task 3; based on the words generated, only a few spelling errors were detected, as they opted to write words they were

familiar with. The following table illustrates error distribution according to target modification of all misspellings.

Table 4: *Error distribution*

	Error type	Task 1		Task 2		Task 3	
		Frequency	P	Frequency	P	Frequency	P
G 1	Substitution	85	53.13%	280	76.29%	3	50.00%
	Deletion	27	16.88%	23	6.27%	1	16.67%
	Insertion	10	6.25%	25	6.81%	1	16.67%
	Transposition	38	23.75%	18	4.90%	1	16.67%
	Omission	n/a		21	5.72%	n/a	
G 2	Substitution	241	59.17%	662	72.67%	7	43.75%
	Deletion	60	14.67%	83	9.11%	7	43.75%
	Insertion	30	7.33%	73	8.01%	0	0.00%
	Transposition	77	18.83%	29	3.18%	2	12.50%
	Omission	n/a		64	7.03%	n/a	
G 3	Substitution	225	51.37%	680	70.18%	8	44.44%
	Deletion	90	20.55%	116	11.97%	6	33.33%
	Insertion	26	5.94%	49	5.06%	3	16.67%
	Transposition	97	22.15%	38	3.92%	1	5.56%
	Omission	n/a		86	8.88%	n/a	

Even though there was a quantitative difference between the participant groups, there was a significant similarity with regard to the proportion of major misspellings. That is to say, the substitution errors outnumbered other categories of errors in all test types across the three groups of participants. On the one hand, transposition errors (found to be the second most frequent) were restricted to the multiple-choice spelling test, and this was true of all the participant groups. On the other hand, the proportion of transposition errors found in all groups was relatively low in the dictation task. Meanwhile, the proportion of deletion errors remained stable across the groups in Task 1, but fluctuated quite considerably in the other tasks. In Task 2 there were some omissions, where participants deliberately omitted to spell the words either because of a reluctance or inability to spell them or even because of the time constraint. In Task 3, the words generated in the essays were found to be frequently used or familiar to the participants, and other low-frequency words were ignored. Despite the familiarity of the words chosen, some misspellings were revealed, in which case they were analysed as typing errors, i.e. performance errors, unlike the misspellings found in the other tasks.

Discussion

The main findings so far have shown clearly that the task type determined misspelling rates. The percentage rate of misspellings in accordance with task type is in ascending order: 68.21 (spelling words from dictation), 30.57 (auditory/ visual word matching), and 1.21 (short essays). The results from the short essay task indicated that the spelling errors were simply random mistakes, where almost all of the target words were misspelled only once, by one participant per item. The misspellings under Task 3 were thus performance-based. This is illustrated in the following table.

Table 5: *Instances of spelling errors under Orthographic and Morphological Sub-Taxonomies taken from Task 3*

Word	Error	Linguistic Sub-taxonomy	
		<i>orthographic</i>	<i>morphological</i>
Faculty of Humanities	*faculty of Humanities	✓	
I	*i	✓	
Internet	*internet	✓	
Bangkok	*bangkok	✓	
Oasis	*oasis	✓	
Blackhead	*blackhead	✓	
Rachaburi	*Rachaburi	✓	
Fish/ fishes	*fishs		✓
When I'm free, I...	*When I'm free I	✓	
Central Chon Buri	*central chon buri	✓	
Every week	*everyweek	✓	
Twitter	*twitter	✓	
Koh Samui	*koh-samui	✓	
Watching	*watchig		✓
Everywhere	*every where	✓	
I'm	*I' am	✓	
Skype	*skype	✓	
I read a book every day.	I read a book *everyday.	✓	
Listening	*listening		✓
Windsurf	*wind-surf	✓	

Table 6: *Instances of spelling errors at syllable-initial position*

English phoneme	Grapheme adaptation	Resulting spelling	Linguistic Sub-taxonomy	
			Phonological	Lexical
/z/ acquisition	<c>	*acqicition	✓	
/v/ van	<f>	*fan	✓	
	<ph>	*phan	✓	
/g/ gorgeous	<c>	*corderd	✓	
	<k>	*kojean	✓	
	<j>	*jealous		✓

/dʒ/ gorgeous	<j>	*gortj	✓	
	<d>	*goddess		✓
		*draw giant		✓
	<s>	*gorgeses	✓	
/dʒ/ ginger	<j>	*jinger/jing jo	✓	
	<t>	*gineture	✓	
	<f>	*feature		✓
/dʒ/ jar	<d>	*draw/ dare/ dry		✓
		*dray/ da	✓	
	<y>	*yar	✓	
/dʒ/ gene	<j>	*jean	✓	
		*jeans		✓
/dʒ/ judge	<d>	*dust/ duck		✓
		*dutch	✓	
/tʃ/ chin	<t>	*tin	✓	
	<th>	*thin	✓	
	<sh>	*shin	✓	
/tʃ/ nature	<j>	*major		✓
		*najor	✓	
	<th>	*nather	✓	
		*neither		✓
/tʃ/ church	<sh>	*shirt		✓
	<t>	*tourt	✓	
	<th>	*thouch	✓	
		*thirth	✓	
/ʒ/ leisure	<t>	*lecture/ later		✓
		*leture/ lettire	✓	
	<y>	*layer		✓
	<th>	*leather		✓
	<ch>	*leacher/ letcher	✓	
	<g>	*lagger	✓	
/ʒ/ occasion	<t>	*occation	✓	
/ʒ/ vision	<g>	*vigion *vition	✓	
	<t>	*wished	✓	
	<sh>			✓
/l/ leisure	<r>	*reture		✓
/ɹ/ real	<l>	*leal	✓	
/t/ tin	<th>	*thin	✓	
/θ/ thin	<t>	*tin	✓	
	<f>	*fin	✓	
	<s>	*sin	✓	
		*since		✓
/θ/ three	<t>	*tree	✓	
/ð/ this	<d>	*dis		✓
		*dish/ didn't/		✓
		deep	✓	

		*bizz		
/ð/ either	<t>	*eter		✓
	<g>	*eger	✓	
/ð/ then	<wh>	*when	✓	
/ʃ/ mission	<t>	*miston/ midtion	✓	
	<ch>	*child		✓
/ʃ/ acquisition	<s>	*accusision		✓
	<c>	*accusicion	✓	

The tables reveal that there were two sources of errors:

1) *Spelling errors based on interlingual influence of L1 phonological knowledge*

A substantial proportion of the participants' competence spelling errors were consonant substitution, which was phonologically motivated. The high rate of misspellings of English words was attributed to the application of Thai language phonology which influenced the participants' pronunciation, rather than Thai orthography. It was found in the case of the target words <shine> and <jar> that the grapheme <sh> and <j> was misspelled as <ch> and <d> respectively, resulting in substitution errors. Misspelling of the former occurred some 65 times, accounting for 1.88 per cent of all errors, whilst misspelling of the latter occurred 38 times, which accounted for 1.15 per cent of all misspellings which occurred.

Given that Thai lacks the phoneme /ʃ/ and /dʒ/, the participants found it hard to pronounce English words containing those phonemes. This issue involves not only phonological difficulties but articulatory difficulties as well. As a result, most learners utter sounds from Thai, their native language, which to them sound similar to those in the target language. The near-equivalent sounds, in this case, the Thai affricate /c^h/ and plosive /d/, are similar to English /ʃ/ and /dʒ/ in certain respects. That is, the affricate /c^h/ is like the fricative /ʃ/ in the sense that it involves friction; the Thai /d/ is like the affricate /dʒ/ in that it involves a plosive in the sound production as well.

Crucially, a misspelling occurred when the participants attempted to match the sound segment they heard with the Thai /c^h/. They decided on one of a number of possible English graphemes, thereby producing an invented spelling, e.g. <*midtion> for <mission>. Misspellings such as <midtion> or <miston> suffice to explain James & Klein's (1994:43) claim that the incidence of phonemically reasonable errors (related to L1 and L2 phonology) strongly suggests that the participants used the phonemic access to spelling new words or words they had never come across before.

A number of the English consonant phonemes, e.g. /ʃ/, /tʃ/, and /ʒ/ are represented in the test by the single Thai consonant phoneme /c^h/. Some of the resulting English spellings were: <*major>, <*najor>, <*nather>, <*neither> for <nature> and <*lecture/ later>, <*leture/ letture>, <*layer>, <*leather>, <*leacher/ letcher>, <*lagger> for <leisure>. The words <nature> and <leisure> contain the phonemes /tʃ/ and /ʃ/ respectively, which are absent from the Thai phonological system. As a result, the participants did not normally notice the difference between sounds which English speakers divide into different classes of fricative and affricate consonants. Thus they

produced, for instance, <*najor> and <*letcher>, based on the Thai graphemes <จ>, <ช>, equivalent to the Thai phonemes /c/ and /c^h/ respectively. In the extreme instances, failure to notice the different fricative/ affricate consonant sounds resulted in different word outputs, e.g. <*major> for <nature>; <*leather> or <*layer> for <leisure>. These instances were therefore sub-classified under the phonologically-motivated lexical errors, in the linguistic sub-taxonomy.

In comparison with the performance errors, the distribution of errors across the competence/ performance taxonomy was mutually exclusive: where there were orthographic and morphological errors under performance errors, there were not such errors under competence misspellings, and vice versa. In this regard, only phonological and lexical errors were found under competence misspellings. The distribution, therefore, was in complementary distribution. At this point, it would seem, that the interlingual errors made by the participants were influenced by L1 phonology, rather than L1 writing-system or orthography.

2) *Spelling errors based on inadequate target language spelling knowledge*

Spelling errors revealed that not only the low phonological awareness of the participants, but also their inadequate knowledge of target language spelling, had an effect on their production. This closely relates to the level of English transparency of the orthography, as English demonstrates a phonologically complex writing system, which requires low-proficiency learners of English to acquire knowledge of various spelling rules. The term 'spelling knowledge' is also utilised to cover related fields in generating accurate spelling, including semantic, lexical, grammatical, and phonetic. Based on the data obtained, there were variants of English spellings which did not fit in target words.

To begin with, the frequency of the substitution error: <*embarrace>/ <*embarras> for <embarrass> was 54, accounting for 1.79 per cent of total errors. This suggests that 66 per cent of the participants failed to be aware of digraphs which make one consonant phoneme /s/. Additionally, there were more than 75 occurrences of substitution errors for <judge>. The spelling outcomes were instances like <*juge> or <*just>. This shows that the participants had no knowledge of trigraphs representing one single voiced post-alveolar affricate sound, i.e. /dʒ/. Another highly frequently misspelled word was <*jean> for <gene>. Here, it appears that the participants were not aware of the grammatical fact that 'jean' is required to have a plural form. If the participants had been aware of the fact, one would have expected no intralingual misspelling in this target word. The claim of participants' inadequate spelling knowledge of English is also validated by the spellings of <*the bear necessities> for <the bare necessities>; <*a complementary drink> for <a complimentary drink>. The frequency of such misspellings was 89, accounting for 8.84 per cent of the overall errors. Another target word <van>, very frequently misspelled as <*fan>, implies that phonetically speaking participants could not distinguish the voicing quality, i.e. between voiced and voiceless.

Psychological effects and pedagogical suggestions

Unstructured informal interviews show that affective factors influenced English spelling and writing, in particular when there were time constraints. That is to say, task type where time constraints were inevitable closely correlated with a certain psychological factor, i.e. anxiety. As the findings reveal, most participants showed a poorer performance in spelling to dictation, i.e. Task 2, and it was borne out by the interviews that some invented misspellings were partly caused by time constraints. On the other hand, the teacher participants who conducted the dictation test were influenced by the affective factor of loss of confidence, which prevented them from having totally accurate pronunciation. It appears that in their teaching in class they did not pay as much attention to pronunciation as to the other content of the course. The fact that they neglected the teaching of pronunciation could pose a problem for students' L2 pronunciation acquisition. In light of the findings thus far, there are several factors influencing spelling and writing in English; one of them is interlanguage phonology, which plays a crucial role. Therefore, I offer pedagogical suggestions below to help improve the teaching and learning of English pronunciation in general.

From a pedagogical point of view, some practical implications and recommendations for classroom practice, preferably for Thai teachers at the primary and secondary school levels, might be the following:

- a) training in contrastive phonology of Thai and English, focusing on the sounds absent in the Thai phonological system;
- b) training in knowledge of English spelling rule, concentrating on grapheme and phoneme principles;
- c) training in English pronunciation by native English speakers.

Note that students could also undergo (b) and (c) as part of their English language acquisition to make them aware of their pronunciation and spelling problems and help them correct themselves.

Conclusion

The main goal of this study was to investigate the nature of the Thai and English writing systems, together with the Thai and English phonological systems, and focus on the crucial differences that prevent Thai individuals from mastering the system of spelling and writing in English. The principal results have revealed that the non-native misspellings in this study involve interlingual interference of a negative kind. In this regard, the Thai phonological system affects spelling and writing in English. Its impact seems to have caused the participants in the study to produce either a new existent word or a totally non-existent word. The Thai writing system, on the other hand, is not influential in the production of competence errors. The misspellings in words such as <embarrass> and <acquisition> were influenced by the participants' target language, i.e. the irregularity of grapheme-phoneme correspondences at the phonological level. Meanwhile, phonological misspellings clustered in the interlingual class suggest that a phonological transfer from the native language is

more of a determining factor in non-native writing than writing system transfer from the native language. On the other hand, the misspellings generated could also be claimed to be errors based on inadequate spelling knowledge of the target language. The difficulty of learning the English language is compounded by its well-known lack of correspondence between graphemes and phonemes. Since the participants' knowledge of English orthography is rather limited, as shown by their misspellings, training in contrastive phonology, and grapheme-phoneme interface, e.g. different pronunciations of consonant (and vowel) graphemes, is called for.

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*Empowering English Language Learners: The Importance of Developing Critical
Literacy Skills*

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Abstract

For some time, listeners and readers have been regarded as active participants in the complex and interactional nature of negotiating meaning (Savignon, 2001). However, many of those who are learning English do not have equal access to the skills of understanding the social practices in which reading and writing are embedded (Clark, 1995). For English language learners to critically engage with textual and cultural practices, they must have access to, and be able to critique, both cultural and linguistic resources (Hammond & Mackin-Horarick, 1999). One way to achieve this effectively in English language teaching is to consider the teaching of context alongside the meaning of the words themselves.

This paper presents some of the research relating to critical literacy skills and responds to the challenge of teaching critical literacy skills to English language learners. In so doing, it provides a contribution towards the development of these skills in the classroom as a way of enabling learners to participate fully in the discourse. This paper provides an overview of the discourse analytic study in progress, from which it is derived, that is critically analysing newspaper texts from the USA, the UK and Australia, and discusses how contextual factors can affect readers' understanding of discourse. The paper concludes with a discussion of the factors under consideration in teaching critical literacy skills in the English language learning classroom, and the proposed pedagogical tool.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the importance of critical literacy skills and that, by aiding English language learners to develop these skills, may provide a viable way of empowering them. Motivations for this paper are based on the following premises. Firstly, the significant role that critical literacy skills play in unpacking meanings within texts, to better understand the ideologies and or sets of belief which are inherent in them, cannot be underestimated. Secondly, from an English language teaching perspective, it is considered that the better the understanding of learners of the depth and range of meanings within a text or genre, the more that it enables them to access and participate in those genres. Thirdly, it should not be assumed that the language of English which is shared as the main language by the countries of the United States of America (USA), the United Kingdom (UK) and Australia, automatically means that the cultural context of these countries are the same. Fourthly, in an ongoing discourse analytic study, being carried out by the author of this paper, the extent to which contextual features and intertextual references affect the meaning of the discourse are being questioned. The final motivating factor for this paper lies in assessing the pedagogical implications of the discourse study and, as a consequence, developing a proposed pedagogical tool for the language learning classroom.

This paper will review each of these motivational aspects outlined above and attempt to contribute to the discussion of how language learners can be empowered to engage with and participate in the multitude of interactions to which they are exposed, whether as a migrant living within a particular country, or as an interactant who communicates from afar.

CRITICAL LITERACY AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS

While listening and reading are considered as 'receptive' as opposed to the 'productive' skills of speaking and writing, they nevertheless require a certain amount of activity on the part of listeners and readers to understand what is being said or written. For some time, therefore, listeners and readers have been regarded as active participants in the complex and interactional nature of negotiating meaning (Savignon, 2001). However, language learners, including many of those who are learning English, do not have equal access to the skills of understanding the social practices in which reading and writing are embedded (Clark, 1995). For English language learners to be able to critically engage with textual and cultural practices, they must have access to, and be able to critique, both cultural and linguistic resources (Hammond & Mackin-Horarick, 1999).

It is useful to take account of the work of the following scholars in considering how and why it is important to develop the critical literacy skills of English language learners. Kress (1982) and Martin (1989) suggest that language learners may be excluded from engaging in 'genres of power' unless they are specifically taught how to critique them. Genres of power tend to be specialised ways of writing, such as, scientific reports and legal documents, which are generally monopolised by group members and restricted to members of particular technical and professional activities (Lemke, 1995). While acknowledging that access to these genres suggests a certain

degree of acquiescence with dominant cultural systems (Lemke, 1995), it is however asserted that critiquing these genres as they are taught can empower ESL students to both understand and participate in them. The strategies used in 'professional' genres (Bazerman, 1988, 1994; Halliday & Martin, 1993), according to Lemke (1995), should be taught in their context for deeper understanding. Developing the ability of language learners to critique these texts may, furthermore, lead them to challenge the values which underlie the texts (van Dijk, 1998). Thus, an analysis of texts undertaken from a critical linguistic position, will help to highlight the..." ideological loading of particular ways of using language and the relations of power which underlie them" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p.258). Alongside critiquing texts or discourse, identifying the contribution of multimodal features can be important, as it may affect peoples' reactions to events (Paltridge, 2006), and thus reveal the different ways in which texts are constructed. Enabling English language learners to access and participate in genres, through the development of their critical literacy skills, could therefore ensure more equitable interactions (Cope, 2009).

CROSS-CULTURAL ASPECTS OF ENGLISH

The notion of cross-culture has mainly been examined in spoken or written texts from cultures and countries whose first languages are different (see, for example, Bhatia, 2006; Simon-Vandenberg, White, & Aijmer, 2007; Wang, 2006). However, the number of varieties of English is increasing in addition to the number of people throughout the world who are speaking Englishes. According to Kachru's (1988) concentric circles, countries such as the UK, the USA and Australia form part of the inner circle of English-speaking countries – those countries where English is the primary language for the majority of that country's population (Kirkpatrick, 2007). Yet the largest proportion of English language speakers, over 1,000 million people, now belongs to the expanding circle which includes China and Russia and consists of countries where people mainly use English as a foreign language. There seems to be an implicit assumption, however, that because certain countries, for example, the UK, the USA and Australia, share English as their first language, it follows that their cultural contexts are similar. While there are likely to be some cultural similarities in the inner circle countries due to their common origins, differences may have occurred too with the evolution of these countries away from their common ancestry. In consequence, the English language may have continued to develop too, particularly in the USA and Australia, as a result of contact with other languages or varieties and changes in the social and cultural contexts (Kay, 2004).

An illustration of the important influence of context on language can be seen in the use of the word 'sorry' in Kevin Rudd's, a former Prime Minister of Australia, formal Apology speech to the Aboriginal and Indigenous people of Australia at the opening of Parliament in early 2008 (Rudd, 2008). In the Australian context, the word 'sorry' is emotionally and politically charged because it had been withheld from being said to Aboriginal people ever since the Europeans arrived in Australia in the late 1700s. In the North American or British context, however, saying a single word of apology may not be construed as particularly sincere and a more embellished apology may be demanded for a similar experience. In Australia, English language learners are likely to benefit from an understanding of the Australian historical and cultural background to be able to obtain a deeper understanding of Kevin Rudd's formal Apology speech.

Contextual factors, therefore, can affect how language is used across cultures, and, for this reason, it is necessary to highlight and distinguish features of the context in order to analyse hidden and coded meanings in texts (Wodak, 2007). Wierzbicka (1997) additionally claims to have provided evidence of specific Australian patterns of social relations and cultural values in her examination of the word 'mate', stating that the Australian variety of English includes a socio-category of the word 'mate' not found in other varieties of English, such as British and American English.

English language learners, therefore, who find themselves living in a country, or communicating from elsewhere, with people whose first or main language is English, may find that they do not fully grasp the meaning of what is being said or that the variety of English is different to that with which they are familiar. While the sequence of events in a spoken or written transaction are often similar, even in two cultures in which the first language is different, the way of using language may vary from one cultural group to another (Paltridge, 2006), and is strongly influenced by their cultural norms (Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006). Consequently, speakers and writers reflect their cultures and roles in interactions, making certain assumptions about a situation and the participants (Moerman, 1988). Thus, in English language learning, there needs to be an awareness that understanding a text is more than just knowing the meaning of the words and that, in particular, the context has an effect on the discourse. For learners of English to be truly empowered, they need to be aware of the impact that both the broader socio-cultural context of the country and the local situational context in which the text is published may have on the meaning of texts.

OVERVIEW OF A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYTIC STUDY

This paper has been derived from an ongoing study which is examining a selection of newspaper texts from the USA, the UK and Australia, written by influential authors, on the Global Financial Crisis. From a critical discourse perspective, one of the aims of the study is to compare and evaluate writing strategies to highlight the extent to which, and in what ways, the cultural contexts impact the discourse of the texts. It is considered that an investigation of the impact of background knowledge of cultural and situational contexts on discourse, may lead to an understanding of how this affects readers' understanding of the meaning of a text. Additionally, the critical analysis of writers' strategies could reveal the underlying ideologies or sets of beliefs which they adhere to.

An analysis of cross-cultural aspects will allow comparisons to be drawn between the three English-speaking countries of the USA, the UK and Australia during the Global Financial Crisis. Even though English is the dominant language in all three countries, it is expected that the context may affect the discourse in various ways from country to country. Examining the impact that these three cultural contexts have on the discourse could be of additional importance because, as well as demonstrating how socio-economic factors and ideologies inherent in national contexts affect the production of discourse during a crisis across three English-speaking cultures, it may also lead to an understanding of how writers position themselves and their readers.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND A TOOL FOR DEVELOPING CRITICAL LITERACY SKILLS

The development of critical literacy skills for English language learners is thus important because through the application of these skills, learners will develop an understanding of the underlying meanings of spoken and written English. It is intended that developing the ability to critique and access 'genres of power', such as newspaper texts from the study written by influential writers, will ultimately allow students to engage with and participate in them. It is proposed that a simplified version of the methodology derived from the study could be applied in the classroom as a pedagogical tool.

In consideration of how to develop a pedagogical tool for teaching critical literacy skills, the following factors have been taken into account. A top-down approach is favoured, as put forward by Ellis (2003), so that the heading and structural aspects of the whole text are considered before individual words. This concurs somewhat with Crawford's (2002) proposition that the focus of classroom materials should be on "whole texts" (p.84), and where possible an audiovisual component is useful for richness in linguistic and cultural information. Texts should be authentic-like (Crawford, 2002), and be adapted for learners according to their proficiency levels and the teaching context. There should be an understanding that, in reading a text, the reader is actively interacting with it in order to negotiate meaning from the text. Guiding the language learner through the reading task using their critical literacy skills can allow the reader to discover possible cultural and linguistic resources for themselves which can lead to powerful insights.

This paper has stressed the importance of context in understanding a text. This tool, therefore, emphasises two types of contextual factors, those relating to the broader socio-cultural context in which the text is set, and those which relate to the more immediate contextual factors in which the text is produced. Some of these aspects may already be known to students, while other information may need to be elicited from students, or supplied by the teacher.

A table or grid could be drawn up for each student and questions adapted according to the level of proficiency of the students. The following contextual factors could be considered before reading the text, for example:

- When and where was the text written?
- Who wrote it? What is known about the identity of the writer - what is their age group, gender, nationality, role?
- What is the title of the text and sub-title? Do these give an idea of what the purpose of the text is or what the text is about?

After finding the answers to the questions above and discussing them, the following could be considered while reading the text:

- What values may be associated with the text? Which words or structures suggest these values?
- What phrases or names or individual words are unfamiliar? Do you think these names or words are written without explaining them because the writer thinks the reader might already know them? Why might the writer do that?

- Which words or phrases are important to understanding the text?

Awareness of both contextual and textual factors in reading materials will provide a starting point for the development of English language learners' critical literacy skills. It will help them to more fully understand the cultural context of the English writers of either the country in which they are living or with which they are communicating from afar. It is intended that eventually these skills will empower them by enabling them to participate fully in the discourse.

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"Dear Pro.", an Examination of the Format Used in Chinese Students' E-mails

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Abstract

Email has become a widely used medium of communication in the academic and business communities. As language educators, we need to ensure that learners acquire successful language skills in these contexts.

This study investigates the format used by Chinese university students when writing e-mails in English to their professors. Most of the previous research has been concentrating on the content and communicative functions (e.g. Al-Ali and Sahawneh, 2008; Biesenbach-Lucas, 2007) rather than on the overall structure of emails. The general layout is however the first impression the recipient gets when they receive an e-mail, so it is essential that L2 learners adopt an appropriate format.

The analysis examines the punctuation, subject line, "opening" and "closing" of 185 emails sent to one professor, by undergraduate students with advanced English language skills, from one of China's top universities.

Despite the prevalence of formal greetings, expected in a high power distance culture like China (Hofstede, 2001), the results show considerable variation among students, who have not acquired enough socio-pragmatic competence (e.g. when sending an attached file) and generally combine formal greetings with emoticons or inadequate punctuation marks. Furthermore, a lack of consistency in the use of openings and closings is noticeable, indicating that some students are still uncertain about how to organize their communication. With the development of smartphones, the trend to overlook email formatting is likely to become even more prevalent; it is crucial to teach the fundamental communication techniques which can be applied to different settings.

1. Introduction

Rise of the use of email messages

Over the past years, the nature of the communication between students and teachers has changed as email has become a major means of communication, through which students submit their homework, ask for information, or make appointments.

Despite its increasing role in academia, email communication is largely absent from EFL courses and remains confined to the scope of business English. As language educators, it is essential we provide students with the necessary tools to communicate effectively and efficiently as they use this medium not only with their teachers but also with scholars from different universities, to apply for jobs or graduate programs across Europe and the United States.

Writing “status-unequal” emails is a difficult task for learners (Chen, 2006: 36), in particular the writing of email requests, which have been the main focus of research on email. Email constitutes a unique hybrid method of communication. It “tends to use more casual lexicon, to be less carefully edited, and to assume a greater degree of familiarity with the interlocutor” (Baron, 1998:47). But the content and structure have also preserved many features of written communication. Depending on the context and communication purposes of the message, the sender must find the appropriate tone and style. There are many considerations when composing an email but the general layout is the first impression the recipient gets when they receive an email, so it is essential for learners to adopt the right format. The present study investigates the style and structure of emails sent by students to one professor, looking in particular at the subject line, the opening and the closing. Students must be made aware of the different choices they face when they write emails and of the importance of editing; misspelling the name of a prospective employer can seriously compromise one’s chances of being further considered for a position. In China, the National English tests evaluate the students’ English level but only examine their general English proficiency and do not focus on their sociopragmatic competence. This research will help evaluate whether it is in balance with their proficiency skills.

Improving the structure of students’ emails is also important for teachers (and any potential recipient) who spend an increasing amount of time managing emails from an average of 300 students. Although many universities now offer different platforms for students to submit their work or contact their teachers, reducing some of the issues mentioned in the study, it is not always the case. Besides temporarily removing the issue does not solve the problem since, as mentioned above, with the internationalization of education, students are more and more likely to communicate with other scholars and institutions.

Previous research

Whilst an increasing number of studies have been carried out on email, most of the research has concentrated on the body of the email and its content, rather than its overall structure, studying in particular request speech acts (Lee 2004; Zhu 2012) and comparing the request strategies chosen by native and non-native speakers of English (Al-Ali and Sahawneh, 2008; Biesenbach-Lucas, 2001, 2006, 2007; Chen, 2001, 2006). For instance, Chang and Hsu (1998) analyse the differences in request emails between American English speakers and Chinese learners of English. As opposed to native speakers who perform direct requests in an indirect way, Chinese speakers tend to formulate indirect requests, using direct linguistic devices.

No work has been carried out on analyzing the format of emails, and if mentioned, it often only concerns the use of greetings. The different opening and closing lines are generally listed, organized according to their degree of formality, along with their frequency in the corpus (Al-Ali and Sahawneh, 2008; Bjørge, 2007). The present research reveals however that analyzing greetings from this perspective does not fully reflect the level of formality of a message. Openings and closings need to be analyzed together rather than independently. Besides, past studies only consider the choice of greeting forms to evaluate the degree of formality, but ignore other important features that need to be taken into account. Finally this investigation offers to look at other elements which are part of the fixed structure of emails, namely subject line and punctuation, to determine whether students communicate efficiently and appropriately. By focusing on the subject line (for relevance, efficiency, identity), the greetings (for misuse, Chinese transfer and mismatch), and to some extent style (punctuation, smileys, spacing), this work aims to bring to light the ways in which Chinese students structure their English emails in unequal power relationships. In particular, the study aims at answering the following research questions:

- 1) How do students structure “status-unequal emails”? What is the first impression conveyed?
- 2) Do students know email etiquette?
- 3) Do they use the linguistic tools (e.g. subject line, salutations) appropriately to write effective and efficient emails?

iafor

2. Methodology

Participants

The study investigates a collection of 185 emails sent by 51 students to one foreign teacher, over the course of a semester. For ethical reasons, only email messages sent to one professor, the author of this paper, were considered, also minimizing the influence of other variables (age, sex, status).

The subjects were all Chinese students at Tsinghua University (Beijing, China). Tsinghua is one of China's top universities, ranking 35th worldwide in the 2013 higher education worldwide university ranking. The participants were undergraduate students (1st and 2nd year) from different departments with advanced (highest level) English skills. Chinese undergraduate students will have usually studied English for about 10 years when they enter university. Over their first two years at university, they are required to take a minimum of eight credits in English. One class is worth two credits. Courses range from level 1 to 4, 4 being the most advanced. The students whose emails were examined were all attending a level 4 debate course. At the beginning of the semester, students chose to use their Chinese (pinyin) or English name (if they have one) in class. A personal 10-digit ID number was also attributed to each student when they first entered university.

Corpus

The sample consists of 185 authentic emails written by 51 students. More data could have been elicited by setting a written task; however students would have been able to control their use of format, greetings and editing once aware of the task, and

potentially falsify the results of the study. In addition, only students from a same level (viz. 4), following a same course (viz. debate) were considered, restricting the overall number of participants. The professor to whom the email messages were sent was a 29 year-old female with experience in teaching and a PhD in linguistics. Students were encouraged to call her by her first name, and although friendly, the communication style remained formal. To control the variability of the sampling, the communicative purpose of the emails was also taken into account as a preliminary analysis of the data showed that emails written for different purposes displayed a different format. It was decided to organize the messages into two sets: 1) emails with attachment(s) (in this case, homework), 2) other unique emails.

3. Data analysis

Subject line

One striking feature in both sets of emails is the 100% occurrence of a subject line. Students systematically used a title in all 185 emails. The rule of thumb for subject lines in email writing, as advised online, is to be relevant, ultra-specific and identifiable. Below are the data from the first set, viz. emails with attachment(s), which contains 136 emails. The titles are divided into four categories.

Titles	%	Number of emails
Assignment	47	(n= 64)
Assignment + Name/ID (or both)	39	(n= 53)
Assignment + Name/ID + class name/time	7	(n= 10)
Other / Irrelevant	7	(n= 9)
	100	(n= 136)

Figure 1. Subject lines in emails with attachment(s)

Relevance

Titles	%	Number of emails
Assignment	47	(n= 64)
Assignment + Name/ID (or both)	39	(n= 53)
Assignment + Name/ID + class name/time	7	(n= 10)
Other / Irrelevant	7	(n= 9)
	100	(n= 136)

Figure 2. Relevance in subject lines (emails with attachment(s))

In the first set of emails, a great majority of titles were relevant with only 7% of “Other/Irrelevant” titles. “Other” included titles which did not match any other categories, for instance students providing their name (English or Chinese) or ID number. “Irrelevant” titles were titles which either did not match the content of the email or, in most cases, which should have been part of the body of the email, not the subject line (e.g. *Sorry teacher, I need to explain sth to you¹*).

Be ultra-specific

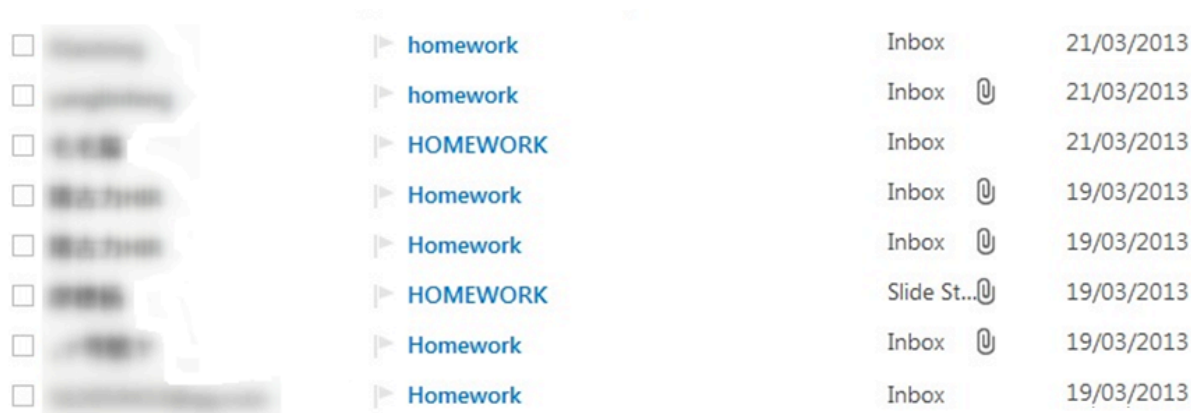
Titles	%	Number of emails
Assignment	47	(n= 64)
Assignment + Name/ID (or both)	39	(n= 53)
Assignment + Name/ID + class name/time	7	(n= 10)
Other / Irrelevant	7	(n= 9)
	100	(n= 136)

Figure 3. Specificity in subject lines (emails with attachment(s))

Fig.3 shows that in emails with attachment(s), 47% of students chose to include the name of the assignment as title of their emails, while 39% of them were even more specific and added their name or ID number in the subject line. Although relevant, the names employed for the assignments were rather vague, e.g. *homework*. Considering

¹ After analyzing both the title and first line of these emails, it was clear that they were not mistakes, whereby the first line of the email would have been written by mistake in the subject line.

teachers have about 300 students registered in different courses, *homework* alone is not specific enough. The screenshot below shows eight occurrences of the word *homework* as email title over the course of three days.








<input type="checkbox"/>	▶ homework	Inbox	21/03/2013
<input type="checkbox"/>	▶ homework	Inbox 	21/03/2013
<input type="checkbox"/>	▶ HOMEWORK	Inbox	21/03/2013
<input type="checkbox"/>	▶ Homework	Inbox 	19/03/2013
<input type="checkbox"/>	▶ Homework	Inbox 	19/03/2013
<input type="checkbox"/>	▶ HOMEWORK	Slide St... 	19/03/2013
<input type="checkbox"/>	▶ Homework	Inbox 	19/03/2013
<input type="checkbox"/>	▶ Homework	Inbox	19/03/2013

Figure 4. Screenshot *Homework* title

Similarly, although specific on the surface, (1) still misses crucial elements for immediate identification of the nature and source of the email.

(1) change for the last ppt²

On some occasions, it was even impossible to tell whether the email was an assignment without having to open the file, e.g. *negative*. Titles can also be misleading; students often use the preposition *about* to start their titles, sometimes inappropriately. (2) seemed to imply questions about the assignment, when the student was simply submitting the assignment.

(2) About my presentation

² The author reproduced each example respecting the stylistic choices made by the subjects in the source emails.

Identify yourself

Titles	%	Number of emails
Assignment	47	(n= 64)
Assignment + Name/ID (or both)	39	(n= 53)
Assignment + Name/ID + class name/time	7	(n= 10)
Other / Irrelevant	7	(n= 9)
	100	(n= 136)

Figure 5. Identity in subject lines (emails with attachment(s))

Only a few occurrences of emails (7%) containing a complete title, allowing for immediate identification of the source and content of the message, were found in the first set of emails.

The data from the set of unique emails display similar results.

Titles				
Titles	Overall		Per student	
Relevant	65%	(n= 32)	60%	(n=24)
Misleading	10%	(n= 5)	10%	(n=4)
Irrelevant	25%	(n= 12)	30%	(n=12)
	100%	(n= 49)	100%	(n=40)

Figure 6. Subject lines in unique emails

A majority of emails use relevant titles (65%), which also tend to be vague (e.g. *debate, the presentation*). (The data per student are also considered but show no significant difference). Although the feature subject line is known from the student, it is not being used efficiently or effectively.

Greetings

A prevalence of formal greetings is expected in a high power distance (PD) culture (Hofstede, 2001) like China as students from high PD cultures are more likely to use formal greetings than students from low PD cultures (Bjørge, 2007). In Confucianism, the teacher is the master of knowledge and is highly respected, promoting a high level of formality. Foreign teachers however tend to favour a more egalitarian relationship

with their students. In this context, students will need to balance and distinguish between egalitarianism, and informality and sloppiness.

The use of greetings is a fuzzy area, even for native speakers, who may not agree on the level of formality of the different forms. For instance, *hi* may not be perceived in the same way in the United States and Britain. As Biensenbach-Lucas (2007) points out, guidelines on politeness can be subjective and “often reflect professors’ individual expectations and preferences rather than generally agreed-upon conventions” (p62). Therefore, an American teacher might have different standards of formality in comparison to a British teacher. A few studies have considered the use of closing in email communication by native speakers (Lan, 2000). Although native speakers may not use any closing in their emails, as “learners of the language,” the expectations are different for non-native speakers. Thus, some basic rules are still needed for non-native speakers do not have the flexibility native speakers have to bend the rule and adopt their own greeting style. Nevertheless, the main issue may not be about the choice of greeting forms; there are other features EFL learners should pay attention to. In the present study, very few “informal” greetings (e.g. *hi*, *hey*) were found in both sets of emails, which is too be expected in a high PD culture like China. However, informality is not simply determined by the form employed. A formal greeting may be used informally. For instance, although there was a clear preference (60%) for a construction in “*Dear...*” the results also show a lot of variation (e.g. upper or lower case, font, title, name).

- (3) Dear Marianne
dear marianne:
DEAR MARIANNE:
dear marianne:
Dear Madam Marianne:
Dear Teacher Marianne Collier
(title) Dear Marianne~ / Dear Marianne,

Besides the choice of greeting, there are other considerations which can affect and lower the degree of appropriateness and professionalism of a message; namely punctuation, mismatch and multiple greetings.

Multiple greetings

Consider (4),

- (4) see you tomorrow,
best wishes
sincerely

In (4), three closing lines are used instead of one. This triple use lowers the degree of formality of the email. Choosing the “right” form, in (4) *best wishes*, does not guarantee its correct use.

The sampling also displayed instances of literal transfer from Chinese usage, e.g. (5) and (6)

(5) Dr Marianne Collier:
Hello!

(6) Best wishes!
2013-9-12

Compare (5) and (6) with (7) below, which represents the standard format for formal Chinese emails:

(7) Zunjing de Li xiansheng:
(Respectable Mr Li)

Nin hao!
Hello! (formal)

*****. Ci zhi

Jing li
Yours respectfully

Liu Yang
2013-2-10

Note that in *Ci zhi Jing li*, *Ci zhi* should be written like in (7), next to the last words in the message, while *Jing li* should be placed below. In Chinese business letters, it is also common to centre some information (e.g. sender's name in the header); this particular format might explain why students tend to centre or isolate their closing or name at the end of an email, such as in (8)³

³ The layout of the message was modified to fit onto the page but the original format remains intact.

(8)

Dear Marianne:

As I asked for absence this week in Listening and Speaking for Academic Purpose: Debate on Wednesday. So I want to know the brief contents of the class and shall I do the homework or write assignment this week? Besides, can I know the score of my quiz? I have some confusion in this quiz.

2012.10.18

Punctuation

Consider the following examples in (9),

- (9) Hi~
Hi, Marianne,!
Best wishes.
Best wishes!
Best Wishes =)

The Chinese writing system does not facilitate the manipulation of its written forms; deviation is limited with Chinese characters (viz. upper and lower case, font and shape). In China, punctuation as a sign of expression is widely employed. Students like to add smileys, exclamation marks or symbols⁴ to their messages instead of using lexical (e.g. *I am happy*) or grammatical structures (e.g. conditional). They are generally not aware that these extra linguistic features may be viewed as unprofessional and are discouraged in formal communication. In the data collected, all three features were particularly present (only nine students out of fifty one did not use any inappropriate punctuation signs⁵ in their emails) but they were almost only used in the opening or closing lines.

Mismatch

Mismatch in formality can occur within the salutation itself; in (10) and (11), an informal greeting is used formally, along with an honorific title:

- (10) Hi Dr. Marianne

⁴ The only symbol used was the tilde ~, in China it is used to express happiness, students explained they put it around the salutation or sign off because they are "happy to email."

⁵ i.e. smiley, tilde, or misuse of the exclamation mark.

- (11) Dr. Marianne Collier:
Hello!

Mismatch can also occur between the salutation and the close off. In past studies, opening and closing lines have always been interpreted independently. This study argues that it is crucial to analyze them as a pair, to be able to assess the level of formality in a message. Consider (12), (13) and (14):

- (12) Dear Ms. Collier, [Nothing]
(13) Hi Dr. Marianne Best regards,
(14) Hi~ Best regards!

Looking at the salutation alone, (12) is very formal (besides the omission of the capital letter at the beginning of the family name); however, when combining it with the closing (viz. no closing line), the pair is no longer as formal.

Emails with attachment(s)

When examining the sample of emails with attachment(s), one striking feature was the absence of greetings in the majority of emails. 63% of the emails in this set had no opening and 75% had no closing. 30% of them were blank emails. Furthermore, only a third of the emails referred to the attached file(s) sent in the email, often very briefly (e.g. (15) and (16)). There was only one example of full acknowledgment of the attached file (17) that also included greetings.

- (15) *Part 1*
(16) *self-presentation*
(17) *Pro. Marianne:*
I'm [studentname] from the 2nd class Wednesday, attached is my debate outline.
Best wishes,
[studentname]

Fig. 7 below compares the use of greetings in the two sets of emails (omitting all blank emails from the first sample)

	51 students	40 students
	Set 1: Emails with attachment(s) (only emails with content)	Set 2 : Unique emails
Openings	49% [nothing] 51% other	13% [nothing] 87% other
Closings	65% [nothing] 35% other	31% [nothing] 69% other

Figure 7. Comparison of the use of greetings in the two sets of emails (minus the blank emails)

4. Discussion

On the surface, the analysis of the format in the present study suggests formality and professionalism. This is further corroborated by the use of an impersonal and official embedded signature for 37% of the students. Considering they were undergraduates, not yet doing research, this is a rather large number. The omnipresence of a subject line in both sets of emails shows that the participants are aware of the importance of this feature. However, its functions have not been fully assimilated and students did use titles efficiently. The results showed that titles tended to be relevant, but not specific enough.

It was also often difficult to identify the sender, with only a very small percentage of students identifying themselves efficiently. Students should remember their status (one of 300 possible senders) and make sure they identify themselves. They have different ways of doing so: through their email address, sender's name or subject line. However, subjects in this study often used non-explicit emails addresses (e.g. 100000000@qq.com) and the sender's name was often not informative. The sender's name is the name that appears to the left of the email title in the inbox, for instance below *missyou*

missyou ▶ student information slide Inbox 20/09/2012

Only 12% of the students used the name they had in class (whether English or pinyin), the rest either used Chinese characters (55%), another name (pinyin or English) than the one used in class (20%) or the sender's name used a qq address or left the name blank (13%).

Sender's name	
Chinese characters	55%
Name used in class (pinyin or English)	12%
Blank or qq number	13%
Other name (pinyin or English) not used in class	20%

Figure 8. Sender's name in unique emails

With regard to greetings, the study pointed out the necessity to consider both the opening and the closing lines together to assess the degree of formality of the message and suggested to focus on other considerations than the greeting form itself (viz. punctuation, mismatch, multiple greetings) to reduce informality.

Analyzing the emails according to their communicative purposes highlighted another interesting feature. The analysis of emails with attachment(s) revealed that students did not treat these emails as regular emails. The set of emails with attachment(s) contained minimal elements of formality and only a third of the students referred to the attached file(s), often with a simple word or sentence (e.g. *homework, here is my presentation*). Since it is an assignment and the work is expected, students did not feel it was necessary to acknowledge for the attached file unless they needed to mention something specific (e.g. submitting an electronic version instead of a hardcopy, lateness etc.)⁶. Considering the high number of blank emails and looking at the distribution of greetings across the two sets of emails, it is clear students did not apply the sociopragmatic rules when sending emails with attachment(s).

5. Conclusion

Based on empirical data, this study investigated the format used by Chinese students when writing English emails to one of their foreign professors. Although the students know about the different features necessary to structure their emails, they are still uncertain about email etiquette. This “external frame” of emails is very important for teachers, as it can help them prioritize and categorize the emails they receive.

Although they seem aware of the features traditionally associated with formality and professionalism (100% subject line incidence, use of an embedded signature, formal greetings), the study raised an interesting question: Are these features fully integrated? The analysis revealed they were often not used correctly (cf. blank emails, use of

⁶ This trend is being confirmed this semester with a weekly journal students have to write. The percentage of students not mentioning the attached file when submitting their journal is even higher, presumably since they assume that the teacher is aware of the content of the message

smileys with formal greetings and mismatch between the opening and the closing), making us wonder whether the concepts of formality and efficiency (cf. titles) are really assimilated.

Two types of emails were identified (viz. emails with attachment(s) and unique emails), each with their own set of conventions. Looking at the sociopragmatic principles involved in the writing of emails, it was revealed that students did not seem to be aware of the rules when writing emails with attachment(s) and often neglected the content of such emails, omitting greetings and the acknowledgment of the attachment (presuming that the email was expected anyway).

Furthermore, emails were often composed “on the fly” with little editing or proofreading (spacing, lowercase, use of *Dear Sir* although they were aware the recipient was female). In emails with attachment(s), it was noticed that very little attention was paid to spelling and to punctuation. The importance of editing should be stressed; with the development of smartphones, there is a risk this trend could be further enhanced.

Features contributing to reducing the level of formality and professionalism were identified in this research; they should be pointed out to the students who are probably not aware of them.

Further research could investigate whether the age, sex, origin (foreign or Chinese), or status of the recipient affect the email pattern of students. It would also be interesting to collect more emails per student to be able to investigate consistency and see whether they have a preferred email pattern.

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The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a large, faint, light blue circular arc that is partially obscured by a larger, semi-transparent red circular arc that also surrounds the text.

*Vocabulary Learning Strategies and Cognitive Styles among Junior High School
Students in Taiwan*

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0271

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Abstract

This study investigates the use of vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) among EFL junior high school students in Taiwan, and explores the relationship between the use of VLSs and cognitive styles. We administered a VLS questionnaire and a Hidden Figures Test (HFT) to 277 Grade 9 junior high school students. The results show that students do not often use VLSs. Moreover, cognitive style is significantly correlated with the use of the following 3 VLS categories: social strategies, memory strategies, and metacognitive strategies—but not cognitive strategies. We suggest that teachers help students understand various VLSs and their cognitive styles to improve and facilitate their learning.

Keywords: vocabulary learning strategies, learning achievements.

INTRODUCTION

The differences between vocabulary learning strategies (VLSs) use and language learning achievement are often examined in the field of second or foreign language learning (Gu and Johnson 1996, Kojic-Sabo and Lightbown's 1999, Fan 2003). The results were similar; the high level students employed VLS more frequently than the low level students, and employed a wider range of VLSs.

Cognitive styles are the individual differences in how people perceive information and solve problems (Witkin and Goodenough 1981). Regarding the theory of cognitive styles, those who tend to rely on others more are regarded as field dependent, whereas those who depend on themselves more are considered field independent. The former students have the tendency to use more social strategies, such as practicing with peers, teachers, parents, or others, than the later. This is in agreement with Frank (1984) and Witkin and Goodenough (1981). Field-dependent learners need help from others. They like to collaborate with people and engage in social interactions to obtain information. Social input and external support can help them understand clues comfortably and easily in learning tasks, and the use of the appropriate VLSs.

The cognitive style type and the knowledge of the various matching VLS's are beneficial to the students learning English vocabulary. Therefore, we conducted the investigational study of the VLS's use and the type of cognitive style among the junior high students in Taiwan to explore the differences between the field-dependent and the field-independent students.

1.1 Background and motivation

Taiwan's educational system has increasingly emphasized the trend of learning English. However, researchers have discovered English learning problems among Taiwanese EFL students. Tseng indicated that English classes are constrained to 80 min per week, resulting in numerous students with insufficient time to immerse themselves in the foreign language to obtain successful learning results (as cited in Zhou 2009). Furthermore, EFL students have to learn a wide range of content, and thus, they are unaware of how to control their learning. Moreover, a large class of 30-35 students makes it difficult for teachers to care for every learner with limited class times, especially while managing students with varying levels of English proficiency (Jian 2005).

To study more efficiently, the students should understand the importance of the use of the appropriate VLS's. Language learning strategies are methods or techniques that can help improve and manage language comprehension, learning, and the retention of information, as well as performance (Weinstein and Mayer 1986). The appropriate use of learning strategies enables learners to take responsibility for their own learning, and thus, they can become autonomous learners (Cohen 1998, O'Malley and Chamot 1990).

Because of the significance of a vocabulary, the use of the appropriate VLSs should be able to generate benefits in second/foreign language learning. Nation (2001) claimed that the VLSs can help learners acquire the target language efficiently and effectively with the least difficulty. Gu and Johnson (1996) discovered that knowing how to use VLSs properly and correctly can lead to positive learning achievements. Sanaoui (1995) found that those who could employ organized approaches to vocabulary learning were successful in vocabulary acquisition. Thus, VLSs play a significant role in second language acquisition.

The different ways of learning can be attributed to individual differences (Witkin and Goodenough 1981). Cognitive styles (i.e., how a learner processes information) have been extensively discussed in the past (Riding and Cheema 1991). According to Frank (1984), individual cognition is able to influence individual learning preferences and further make learning effective. To benefit learning, it is necessary to provide appropriate materials and environments to meet students' cognitive styles (Witkin and Goodenough 1981).

The Ministry of Education (2009) proposed a vocabulary list of 1,200 high-frequency words that students should learn before they graduate from junior high school. Teachers are also required to match individual differences and develop their learning strategies while teaching. This study provides a more in-depth look into junior high school students' use of VLSs according to their cognitive styles. Based on the findings, we provide an effective way of learning vocabulary for all students.

The objective of this study is to help students learn how to effectively use the strategies of their learning preference. For teachers, the study promotes recognizing differences in student learning to enhance teaching.

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Vocabulary learning strategies

Vocabulary is the core of any language learning process (Laufer 1997). Learning vocabulary requires VLSs, which are the strategies a learner uses to improve vocabulary acquisition (Schmitt 2000).

The taxonomy of a VLS, as proposed by Schmitt (1997), includes five categories: determination strategies (DETs), social strategies (SOCs), memory strategies (MEMs), cognitive strategies (COGs), and metacognitive strategies (METs). Four of them were extracted from Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of learning strategies: SOCs, MEMs, COGs, and METs. The newly added category was DETs, which are used when a person needs to discover the meaning of a new word without help from others (Schmitt 2000). Schmitt listed 58 strategies and divided them into five categories. Numerous studies have adopted his comprehensive framework of VLSs (Chen 1998, Kudo 1999, Višnja 2008, Wang 2004), as have we for this research [(For a detailed description of the categories, see Chang, Weng, and Zakharova's vocabulary learning strategies use study (2013)].

2.3 Empirical research on vocabulary learning strategy use

This research is a follow-up study on VLS use among junior high school students in Taiwan. According to the results of our previous study (2013), high- and low-proficiency students differed significantly in three categories: MEMs, COGs, and METs. This suggests that high-proficiency learners use MEMs, COGs, and METs significantly more often compared to their low-proficiency counterparts. SOCs were employed with almost equal frequency. The results were consistent with the studies of Gu and Johnson (1996), Kojic-Sabo and Lightbown (1999), and Fan (2003). The studies indicated the relationship between learning success and the use of VLS (Gu and Johnson 1996, Fan 2003), resulting in the variety of the VLS's use among high proficiency students (Gu and Johnson 1996, Kojic-Sabo and Lightbown 1999, Fan 2003); low-level achievement students put less effort into vocabulary learning (Kojic-Sabo and Lightbown, 1999).

2.4 Cognitive styles

COGs represent the behaviors that a person perceives, thinks, and uses to solve problems, and they can affect the person's attitudes, values, and habits in learning, including the concepts of field independence and field dependence (Messick 1970). A

field-independent learner tends to be analytical in perceiving and processing information without being interrupted by irrelevant elements, whereas field-dependent learners rely more on the information and environment they experience (Witkin and Goodenough 1981).

Witkin (1952) found that subjects depended on visual cues to adjust the environment, which led to his establishing the Embedded Figures Test (EFT) to determine people's cognitive styles. In 1962, Messick revised Witkin's version and established a similar test called the Hidden Figures Test (HFT). This test uses a person's ability to identify a simple embedded figure from a complex visual field. At a perceptual level, a field-independent person is more able to distinguish figures as discrete from their backgrounds compared to a field-dependent person who experiences events in an undifferentiated manner.

A person who can easily separate an item from an organized perceptual field is referred to as being field independent (Witkin and Goodenough 1981). The skills of field-independent people are described as providing structure for interpreting a complex stimulus, for segmenting something into separate elements, and for providing an organization different from that suggested only with salient cues in the original information (Riding and Cheema 1991). They are more likely to learn more effectively under conditions of intrinsic motivation and are influenced less by social contexts (Messick 1976). They prefer using problem-solving techniques, organization, analysis, and structuring when participating in learning or work situations (Witkin and Goodenough 1981).

Field dependence describes socially oriented people who easily accept the dominating field or concept (Witkin and Goodenough 1981). Such people have a tendency to depend on external referents because of their degree of differentiation of the self from the non-self. They focus more on social cues and prefer to work and interact with others. In learning situations, field-dependent people appear to rely on the teacher and on peer support. They need more explicit and clear instructions when learning materials are disorganized (Frank 1984, Rickards, Fajen, Sullivan, and Gillespie 1997).

2.5 Research on cognitive styles and language learning

Certain studies have focused on the relationship between cognitive styles and language learning. Liu and Reed (1994) examined the correlation of language learning strategies and cognitive styles by using the Group Embedded Figures Test.

Participants were treated in a hypermedia language learning environment, and were investigated to see how they learned vocabulary. The findings showed that field-independent subjects liked to use detailed information (e.g., word definition, parts of speech, example sentences, and relationships) to study words because it provided the components of word knowledge. In contrast, dependent subjects preferred focusing on global information about the words from a video context. They used the courseware more frequently than did field-independent learners because it could provide a realistic context for language use to support their language learning. In addition, the study showed that the field-independent learners preferred a formal classroom setting including the analysis and mastery of activities, whereas the field-dependent learners preferred a communicative learning environment.

Frank (1984) investigated the differences between field dependence and field independence, and discovered that field-dependent people performed better when they were provided with the instructor's support. Rickards, Fajen, Sullivan, and Gillespie (1997) examined the effects of signaling and note-taking on field-dependent and field-independent learners. They found that recall was maximized when note-taking with signals, whereas it was minimized without signaled texts. Field-dependent learners relied more on note-taking and obtained more benefits from taking notes on signaled texts. Moreover, the field-independent learners performed better when using the discovery learning approach and worse on the rule learning approach compared to field-dependent learners. This shows that the field-independent learners preferred using contextual concepts and meaning to understand sentences, applying the learning materials, and maintaining learning by themselves. In contrast, the field-dependent learners relied on external and systematic rules that the teacher had provided so that they could form sentences.

Based on the results of these studies, we hypothesize that people's cognitive styles are related to their choices of using different VLSs. Therefore, we expect field-dependent learners to prefer SOCs, whereas field-independent learners would favor METs, as well as strategies that require deeper mental operation.

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants

In total, 277 ninth grade students (146 girls and 131 boys) participated in the experiment. The participants were from eight classes taught by different teachers in a junior high school in Yilan. All participants had learned English for 4-5 years.

3.2 Instruments

We used a VLS questionnaire and an HFT in the study.

To identify the participants' approaches to vocabulary learning, we adopted Kudo's version of the VLS questionnaire (1999). The questionnaire included two parts: background information and VLS use. It measured the frequency of VLS use on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*never*) to 4 (*often*). The questionnaire is valid and reliable ($\alpha=.77$). It consisted of 44 items, including 8 social strategies, 15 memory strategies, 10 cognitive strategies, and 11 metacognitive strategies).

To identify the participants' cognitive styles, we used the HFT, as proposed by Messick (1962). The test consisted of two parts with 16 questions each. Each part included five simple figures, followed by 16 complex figures. In each part, the participants were asked to find the embedded simple figures from 16 complex patterns in 10 min. The total test time was 20 min. Those who obtained higher scores were identified as field-independent learners, whereas those who scored lower were defined as field-dependent learners. The reported reliability was $\alpha=.86$.

3.3 Procedure

3.3.1 Piloting

The questionnaire was translated into Chinese and paraphrased for easier understanding. The validity of the questionnaire was found to be acceptable by three English teachers with a master's degree in TESOL.

In total, 107 third-year students from three classes, the same sample as that of the study, took the pilot test. The reliability of the questionnaire was $\alpha=.89$ ($\alpha=.80$ for social strategies, $\alpha=.82$ for memory strategies, $\alpha=.77$ for cognitive strategies, and $\alpha=.78$ for metacognitive strategies).

3.3.2 Distribution and data collection

The VLS questionnaire was sent to the class teachers of the EFL participants, and was distributed in class. The completed questionnaires were collected and placed in a sealed envelope. Of 282 collected questionnaires, 5 were eliminated because of too many missing answers, yielding 277 valid questionnaires.

The HFT was completed. In total, 282 students took the test.

3.4 Data analysis procedures

Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated for this study to measure the relationship of VLS use and cognitive styles.

RESULTS

4.3.1 Frequency of use

According to the study results, the most frequently used strategy was COGs, whereas the least frequently used was SOCs ($M = 2.31$ and $M = 1.94$, respectively). The mean score for MEMs was $M = 2.23$, and for METs it was $M = 2.11$.

4.3.2 Correlation between strategy category use and cognitive style

The results of the correlation between overall strategy use and cognitive style are listed in Table 1. The table shows a positive significant correlation between overall strategy use and cognitive style ($r = 0.33, p < .01$). Because the correlation is between 0.10 and 0.39, it shows that the variables have low correlation. The results suggest that learners with more field independence use more overall VLSs.

Table 1 Correlation between strategy category use and cognitive style

	Overall strategy use	SOC	MEM	COG	MET
Cognitive style	.33 (**)	-.62 (**)	.29 (**)	.13	.73 (**)

** $p < .01$

Table 1 shows the results of the correlation between each strategy category use and cognitive style. In SOCs, a significant negative correlation exists between SOC use and cognitive style ($r = -.62, p < .01$). Because the correlation is between 0.40 and 0.69, the variables are moderately correlated. In MEMs, a significant positive correlation exists between MEM use and cognitive style ($r = .29, p < .01$). The variables are slightly correlated, with overall $r = .33$. For COGs, no significant correlation exists between COG use and cognitive style ($r = .13, p < .01$). For METs, a significant positive correlation exists between MET use and cognitive style ($r = .73, p < .01$). Because the correlation is between 0.70 and 0.99, the variables are highly

correlated.

Overall, cognitive style is significantly correlated with the use of the three VLS categories: SOCs, MEMs, and METs, but not COGs. The use of SOCs is negatively correlated with cognitive style. Both MEM use and MET use are positively correlated with cognitive style. The findings suggest that a person with greater field independence is more likely to use MEMs and METs. Conversely, a person with greater field dependence is more likely to use SOCs.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 The frequency of VLS use among EFL junior high students

The results showed that junior high students in Taiwan do not often use vocabulary strategies (close to *seldom*, $M = 2.17$). Kudo (1999) obtained similar results. This could have occurred because students lack the knowledge of various VLSs.

5.2 Vocabulary learning strategy use and cognitive style

The findings show a significant correlation between overall VLS use and cognitive style. This supports our hypothesis, and is similar to the view by Witkin and Goodenough (1981); that is, cognitive styles are related to ways of learning. Each category of a VLS shows that cognitive styles are positively and significantly correlated with MEMs and METs, but negatively and significantly correlated with SOCs. No significant correlation exists between COGs and cognitive style. The results suggest that field-independent learners tend to use more MEMs and METs, whereas field-dependent learners seem to employ more SOCs

In this study, we also show that field-independent learners tend to adopt more METs. This is in accordance with Messick (1976), who showed that field-independent learners exhibit a tendency to manage and direct their learning. They prefer to organize information by themselves rather than accepting knowledge reprocessed by others. They can apply learning materials (e.g., English-language Internet sites, TV programs, books, and songs) and monitor their learning (e.g., self-testing, learning from mistakes, spaced review, and systematic approaches) when left on their own. In addition, we found that field-independent learners appear to employ more MEMs. In MEMs, people need to focus on the detailed information of a word (e.g., the spelling, pronunciation, word part, and association), much akin to the analytical characteristics of field-independent learners. They are attentive to component parts. They tend to break the whole into segments and generate rules from prior experience (Riding and

Cheema 1991). They are able to analyze information and associate the new item with their preexisting knowledge.

However, we found that cognitive styles are not significantly correlated with COGs, possibly because COGs involve approaches that both field-independent and field-dependent students tend to use. This type of strategy is common for learners. Hence, particular differences are non-existent between field-independent and field-dependent students.

5.2 Pedagogical implications

Based on the findings of the study, we suggest the following:

First, teachers should teach VLSs to enhance student knowledge of strategies and help them improve their vocabulary learning. As the findings show, students do not use VLSs often. Even when they do use them, they prefer COGs, that don't require complex cognitive operations, and with which they might already be familiar. According to Schmitt (2000), it is important to teach various VLSs for learners to select and use, for successful learning.

Second, as a teacher, it is important to understand students' learning behaviors, so that they can provide appropriate teaching for different people (Liu and Reed 1994). This study showed significant correlations between VLS use and cognitive style among junior high school students. The use of a VLS is negatively correlated with SOCs, but positively correlated with MEMs and METs. This finding suggests that field-dependent learners tend to rely more on SOCs, whereas field-independent learners appear to use more MEMs and METs, with fewer SOCs. Because field-dependent learners need more social support, teachers can incorporate interactive activities while introducing different types of VLSs to provide a proper learning environment, such as the one they are already used to. For field-independent learners, teachers do not necessarily have to ask them to learn vocabulary in social-oriented ways. Hence, when cultivating students' VLSs, teacher should use suitable ways to match the styles of different learners to enhance their learning and develop their potential.

Finally, teachers can also help students understand their cognitive style to help their learning. They can indicate the different characteristics and information between field dependence and field independence to assist them in understanding their own learning

process. If they are aware of the category of style they belong to, they can work on their style development and use comfortable and appropriate ways to adjust their learning process and further enhance the effectiveness of their learning.

5.3 Limitations of the study

This study provides valuable findings in the education field, but it has limitations. First, we used a VLS questionnaire, which required junior high school students to rate their frequency of VLS use on a 4-point Likert-scale. Because the questionnaire is a self-reported research method, it may not completely reflect the participants' actual learning behaviors. The subjects might have been confused with the instructions or how they should answer the questions on the questionnaire. Second, the questions were close-ended, which might limit the information the participants wanted to express. Third, the study focused only on third-year junior high school students in one school in Northern Taiwan. Generalization should be applied with caution because the results may not represent other populations in Taiwan. Hence, a future study may employ more research instruments, such as interviews, and consider more populations in different schools and areas of Taiwan.

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The logo for the International Association for Foreign Language Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It features the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The text is enclosed within a circular graphic composed of two overlapping, hand-drawn style arcs. The outer arc is a light blue color, and the inner arc is a light red color. The arcs are not perfectly closed, creating a sense of movement or a stylized 'O' shape around the text.

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A Longitudinal Study into Communication Strategy Use Among Japanese EFL Learners

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Abstract

This research represents a year-long longitudinal study into the affects of communication strategy instruction on Japanese EFL learners' linguistic proficiency. The paper replicates research carried out by Nakatani (2005) and aims to equip learners with the linguistic and problem-solving skills to overcome linguistic barriers. The findings indicate clearly that influence of prominent socio-cultural factors have to be considered in order to maximize the full effectiveness of CS strategy use.

Keywords: communication strategies, speaking proficiency, problem-solving ability

1. Introduction

A small-scale exploratory pilot study was conducted to refine the methodological procedures and data collection methods to be later employed in a full-scale Ph.D. research experiment. The objective mirrors Nakatani's 2005 paper examining the extent of communication strategy (henceforth CS/CSs) use on Japanese EFL learners' linguistic proficiency. The research replicated Nakatani's paper in terms of research objectives, methodological procedures, and teaching targets. Additionally, it examined the extent CS-based instruction assisted learners in their attempts to overcome communication barriers. Unlike much of previous CS research (cf., Våradi, 1983; Poulisse, 1990), often conducted with strategy-determined elicitation techniques, the research evaluated the relationship between CSs and their application during authentic interaction. Adhering to Nakatani's strategy training, learners in an experiment group received additional instruction on CS use and its practical benefits, in addition to standard English language instruction. Findings, however, contrast with Nakatani's, and only tentatively support the explicit teaching of CSs to Japanese EFL learners. It is proposed the deviance results from an over-reliance on reduction-type communication strategies due to cognitive retrieval difficulties stemming from socio-cultural influences prominent in collectivist countries.

2. CS identification

Recognition of variance within 'transitional competence' (Corder, 1967, p. 166) prompted studies to attempt the identification of techniques employed to assist with the cognitive, behavioural, and linguistic demands of language learning. The isolation of internal strategies resulted in the identification, classification, and description of compensatory techniques employed to facilitate the accomplishment of a communicative goal. Early empirical studies (cf., Selinker, 1972; Tarone, 1977) focused on the types of learner compensation due to inadequate linguistic competence, predominantly addressing structural or descriptive analysis of error analysis. Symbolising attempts to incorporate a competence into the *interlanguage* (Selinker, 1972) they allow the interlocutor to transcend communication barriers, and represent a subset of language-use strategies which deal with language production problems. Subsequent research focused on the extent to which CSs could be acquired, in addition to their precise influence on linguistic performance. Research findings (cf., Tarone, 1977; Våradi, 1983) acknowledge the constructive influence they exert in aiding assorted features of linguistic development and improvement in overall communicative competence.

3. Research questions

Research into CS acquisition, in addition to the influence exerted on language development has been predominantly conducted with learners from individualistic countries (Hofstede, 2005), whose L2 (both grammatically and typologically) and learning experiences share common features with those from the L1 country. The similarity could account for the success learners display in adjusting to the teaching methodology, and ultimately the acquisition of the strategies themselves. In contrast, Japanese EFL learners, more versed in teacher-centred learning approaches, and faced with a grammatically opposite L1 (in the case of English) are more likely to experience difficulty with CS acquisition. Does a selective process occur which differentiates the different CSs due to their cognitive demands, socio-cultural or linguistic complexity? If so, the employment of which proves problematic for Japanese EFL learners? The extent to which Japanese learners select, employ, and acquire linguistic CSs and the rationale behind their choice is the focus of this research paper.

The study addressed four major research questions:

1. Does the influence of CS application on overall linguistic proficiency?
2. What is the extent to which CSs are employed during authentic interaction?
3. Can (any) linguistic improvement be accounted for by CS use? If so, how does CS use affect linguistic proficiency?
4. What are learners' selection and application of CS and the extent of socio-cultural influences on their choice?

4. Setting and subjects

The study was conducted from October 2011 to August 2012 at the private International Pacific University (IPU), Japan. IPU equates to a British teacher-training college, with the majority of graduates receiving teaching licences and progressing to positions in primary and secondary education. Twenty-two, second-year undergraduates (8 males and 14 females; average age: 20) participated as subjects in the experiment. All students were enrolled in the thirty-week advanced English oral communication course (90 minutes twice per week) which is a required class as part of an English language curriculum whose objective is to equip students with the required language proficiency to become English language teachers. All

English classes at IPU are streamed according to student placement scores on a written English exam taken at the commencement of the semester. Overall English linguistic proficiency ranged from high-beginner to low intermediate (TOEIC[®] scores ranging from 400 to 550 [10–990 score range] average score: 450). Consistent with false-beginners, detailed syntax knowledge belies weak speaking proficiency despite increasing emphasis placed on communicative language learning in secondary education. Each student, who had completed on average six years English study prior to university, took an initial speaking proficiency test (IELTS) conducted with international students from New Zealand. The results were verified by a fellow native English speaking teacher at the university and indicated an even level distribution between both the control and experiment class ($t = 1.437, p = 0.159$). The correlation between the oral pretest and the placement test was 0.123 using the Pearson product-moment correlation statement of the statistical relationship between the two sets of scores. The average score for both the experimental and control groups was 83% (mean: 68%, SD: 8.2).

5. Lessons taught

The instructional sequence developed (cf., Chamot & O'Malley, 1994) has provided a useful framework for CS instruction. The sequence provides a five-phase recursive cycle for introducing, teaching, practicing, evaluating, and applying CS. The five phases of the instructional sequence are as follows:

- Preparation: Identification of current CSs use to develop metacognitive awareness.
- Presentation. Explaining and modelling CSs.
- Practice. Opportunity for practicing CSs with an authentic learning task.
- Evaluation. Self-evaluation of success in using CS, thus developing metacognitive awareness of their own learning processes.
- Expansion. Determining the most effective CSs, and devising individual combinations and interpretations of CSs.

6. Teaching procedures

The advanced oral communication syllabus was adhered to for both groups, in addition the experimental group also undertook supplementary training in CS instruction. CS instruction was explicit, with students informed how they represent tools which can be employed to assist linguistic competence at times of

problematicity. Individual strategies were incorporated into activity training and practiced to overcome communication barriers during interaction. They included both achievement and reduction strategies and were chosen as they covered the widest range of CSs. Upon course completion interaction from both groups was evaluated.

7. Data collection instruments and procedures

The nature of interaction necessitates a combination of multiple collection methods for accurate and robust CS-use measurement. Empirical data collection involved a combination of observed interaction and student feedback upon task completion. Statistically proven measurements of linguistic features (e.g. word count) address observed interaction, while underlying cognitive processes were evaluated through extensive student feedback. Although the limitations of assessment procedures are recognized, they provide valuable insight into the observable and unobservable data required for a comprehensive assessment of linguistic and cognitive influences exerted on CSs selection and application. The data collection instruments are summarized in table 1.

Table 1.

Summary of the data (both qualitative and quantitative) collection procedures

Procedure	Rating	Participant
1. Pretest interview between student and international student	Linguistic proficiency	International student
	Linguistic proficiency	International student
2. Posttest interaction	Quantitative CS	Author
3. Learner verbal recall	feedback	Author
4. Learner post- recall questionnaire	Qualitative feedback	

8. The pretest interview

Initial evaluation of overall linguistic proficiency took place through paired student interaction. To allow an impressionistic evaluation of English speaking proficiency the elicitation method composed of student interviews. The questions, provided in advance, elicited opinions on topics with immediacy to university life. Students were informed (all oral and written instructions were provided in Japanese) that a

'correct' answer was not being solicited in terms of opinion, and were encouraged to express themselves freely. To relieve affective factors (student anxiety, nervousness) it was also emphasised that the data constituted the author's private research and in no way affected their class grade. Students were under no obligation to participate and made aware of this choice. The interviews (all recorded) were conducted in a separate classroom with only the author in observation. All interactions were later transcribed and details of the discourse were analysed for the following quantitative data:

- a. The quantity of speech produced per student per answer. (words per c-unit)
- b. The extent to which CSs use was exhibited in student responses

The rating assigned represented an impressionistic assessment of students' overall linguistic proficiency according to the IELTS grading scale which evaluates performance on a 1-9 scale (the scale focuses on the learner's fluency, ability to interact with the interlocutor, and flexibility in developing dialogue). As the author participated in the evaluation, and in recognition that several years' residence in Japan enables him to comprehend aspects of communication someone unaccustomed to Japanese learners may not perceive, one independent native English teacher was asked to co-rate using an identical scale. The evaluator rated a sample of the recordings of the interactions to minimize student recognition student influencing evaluation.

9. The posttest interaction

Upon course completion, a final observed interaction was conducted. In identical conditions to pretest interviews, interactions were conducted in a separate classroom with only two students and the author present. Video-recording allowed score verification by independent raters. To combat the significance of rehearsed answers, a significant factor in the initial interview, only general topic outlines to be discussed were provided in advance. Without an element of preparation it was felt learner linguistic proficiency would not be sufficient to provide the data required. An identical scale employed to assess language ability was employed in both interviews. Independent raters were asked to watch a sample of interactions and allocate a score from 1-9. No information was provided beforehand and the raters were informed only to offer an impressionistic assessment of overall linguistic proficiency. Students were not advised how to answer to ensure elicitation of the kind of data sought in the study. Different tasks for the pre- and posttest were

employed to avoid improvement of scores through familiarization with the test content. Cards describing hypothetical situations (e.g. travel-related scenarios) were distributed, and students given five minutes to prepare an appropriate role-play. The activity replicates interactive activities students are regularly asked to perform during their weekly lesson. The interaction was concluded upon agreement of an 'acceptable' conclusion having been reached. The interrater reliability of the pre- and posttest estimated by Cronbach's alpha was 0.863 and 0.765, a high degree of coefficient.

10. Retrospective verbal recall

The unobservable nature of numerable CSs dictates that comprehensive data collection is unobtainable through observation entirely. Revealing the underlying thought processes and covert strategic thinking requires further assessment methods (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Retrospective verbal recall requires learners to reflect on their performance with the feedback report serving as an introspective model as:

[...] it is not easy to get inside the 'black box' of the human brain and find out what is going on there. We work with what we can get, which, despite the limitations, provides food for thought [...]

(Grenfell and Harris, 1999, p. 54)

Consequently, immediately upon completion of the final interaction students were asked to reflect on how they interacted during the interaction. The immediacy of the questionnaire aims to record initial reactions when the information is most salient to maximise accuracy, and generalisability of the findings. Students were informed to describe the emergence, existence, overcoming of any communication problems encountered, particularly regarding the message they intended to convey and what was eventually conveyed. Video-recording of the interaction was used as a recollection cue to enhance the completeness and accuracy of recollection. Instructions were given to verbalise only what was clearly remembered, without guessing or inferring, and to provide details of thought processes *during* the interaction, and not assessment of the interaction itself. All answers were recorded in Japanese and transcribed. Although concerns over the accuracy of the data are recognized, retrospective recall provides access to student reasoning processes and responses underlying cognition, responses, and decision making. Although students are not able to articulate precise explanations for all linguistic processing, the quality and amount of verbalisation confirmed the usefulness of the technique as a means of

legitimately inferencing.

11. Results and discussion

Results of quantitative data analysis are presented below. These pertain specifically to the four research questions already stated. That is, CSs influence; CSs utilization; the extent of CSs adoption and reasons behind their application.

Research Questions 1:

The impact of strategy use on overall linguistic proficiency.

Analysis of linguistic proficiency modification during both pre- and posttest was conducted using paired-samples *t* test (two-tailed) (see Table 2). The findings contrast with Nakatani's conclusions showing significant training group improvement (gain: 1.38), and reveal a more modest gain in proficiency scores (mean gain: 0.63, $t = 3.03$, $p < 0.4$). Revealingly, the average gain for the control group surpassed that of Nakatani's research (gain: 0.25) which suggests improvement without the need for CS instruction. The difference between the gains for Nakatani's two groups was 1.08 compared with 0.47 which indicates less CSs use among the experimental group. Interestingly, this deviance appears despite the fact that Nakatani's students appear to be considerably lower level.

Table 2.

Results of *t* tests on Test Score Gains between the Two Groups

Group	Df	Pretest	Posttest	Gain	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
		M (SD)	M (SD)			
Strategy Training Group (<i>n</i> = 22)	21	4.00 (0.86)	4.63 (0.72)	0.63	3.03	.04
Control Group (<i>n</i> = 20)	18	3.65 (0.67)	4.03 (0.60)	0.38	0.89	0.87

An alternative means of quantitatively assessing performance includes analysing the length and grammatical complexity of test responses. Speech production refers to the quantity (words) students use in their answers. The duration of answers (c-unit) has also been shown as a means of assessing overall linguistic competence. The results (see Table 3) indicate the problem of under-elaboration among students. Reflecting a socio-cultural influence it illustrates a reluctance of learners to use the

test opportunity to display their linguistic ability. Conversely, without constant questioning, the learner relies on the minimum information to convey their message.

Table 3.

Comparison of the Two Group's Production Rate on Pre- and Posttest by t tests

	Strategy Training		Control Group		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	Group		<i>(n = 20)</i>			
	<i>(n = 22)</i>		M	SD		
	M	SD				
Pretest	1.89	0.51	1.67	0.58	0.9	<i>ns</i>
Posttest	1.99	0.47	1.88	0.67	0.87	<i>ns</i>

Research Questions 2:

Student CSs use during interaction

As part of the analysis of speech production, the extent to which recordable CSs were employed was also assessed. It is recognised that the reliability of measurement is partially subjective, and that reliability and accuracy of CSs use can significantly influence data analysis. However, results (see Table 4) indicate a clear preference for reduction-type strategies. Whether this represents a deliberate choice of the learners, or the result of lack of success at cognitive retrieval processing ability requires further clarification.

Table 4.
 Means and Standard Deviations of Strategy Use on Pre- and Posttest

	Strategy Training				Control			
	Pretest		Posttest		Pretest		Posttest	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Achievement Strategies:								
Help-seeking	0.45	0.6	0.85	1.5	0.55	1.1	0.49	0.7
Modified interaction	1.35	1.8	2.52	1.5	2.99	2.5	1.09	2.1
Modified Output	0.59	0.8	1.55	1.9	0.66	0.5	0.78	0.9
Time-gaining	0.45	0.9	1.58	1.0	0.23	1.0	1.04	0.9
Maintenance	1.36	2.1	3.22	2.1	1.78	2.7	2.86	3.2
Self-solving	0.83	0.6	1.59	1.0	1.85	1.4	1.10	1.1
Total	4.98	6.8	11.31	9.0	8.06	9.2	7.36	8.9
Reduction Strategies:								
Message Abandonment	15.3	3.5	11.9	5.5	16.8	7.8	15.1	4.9
First-Language-Based	1.58	2.2	1.5	0.8	3.7	2.3	5.2	2.5
Interlanguage-Based	5.53	3.8	6.2	3.8	3.5	4.4	2.4	1.9
False Starts	4.86	4.2	4.3	5.0	5.4	4.1	2.8	1.2
Total	27.27	13.2	23.9	15.1	29.4	18.6	25.5	10.5

Research Questions 3:

Can any linguistic improvement be accounted for by the use of CS? If so, how does CS use effect speaking proficiency.

In order to assess whether any correlation existed between students who performed well on the posttest (scores over 85%) and CS use, a correlation study was conducted. The results (see Table 5) indicate a strong correlation between students' test performance and CSs employment. This supports the theory of the beneficial influence on linguistic performance through CSs application.

Table 5.
 Correlation between posttest scores and communication strategy use

	Achievement strategies	Reduction strategies
	r	r
Strategy training group	3.02	4.56
Control group	2.96	3.59

Research Questions 4:

Japanese EFL's CS adoption and the extent of socio-cultural influences on this choice.

Within the framework of psycholinguistic theory of speech production, students experienced problems in all phases of speech production, from conceptualization to articulation (Levelt, 1989, 1993; de Bot, 1992; Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998). Based on the definition of CSs as the learners' 'conscious plans' to deal with communication barriers, the identification of CSs (based on the student feedback) clearly indicated their intention to deal with the problem. However, consistent with other research findings, the data shows a high preference for avoidance strategies. It is hypothesized that this is the result of a conscious decision to overcome mental retrieval difficulties that could be more prevalent in collectivist countries. Based on the lexical access to syntax and morphophonology in Levelt's model, learners could avoid using the problematic lexical item and employ avoidance techniques as compensation for this failure.

12. Conclusion

It is proposed that if Japanese EFL learners are aware of CS application, it can offer greater opportunities to improve speaking proficiency through development of an understanding of how to overcome communication barriers. However, counteracting this exist numerous socio-cultural factors which also exert a significant influence on the language learning process. The language distance between English and Japanese ensures that learners of both languages will encounter numerous difficulties during discourse due to the lack of similarity which exists between the two languages. From the results of this paper and other research into communication problems it is clear that most problems occur due to linguistic related difficulty. As many as 90% of CSs (Satou, 2008) are selected to deal with lexical problems. How learners cope with these difficulties depends on their ability to process word retrieval during the planning stage of word production. The extent to which socio-cultural factors influence this process requires clarification, especially in terms of collectivist learner learning experiences.

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Investigating Tertiary Students' Autonomy in Out-of-Class EFL Learning

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Abstract

Autonomy in language learning has been a key discussion in the realm of language teaching and learning for more than 30 years. However, to date, a lot of research on autonomy was mainly focused on fostering learner autonomy in the classroom context. Autonomy in out-of-class learning is less paid into attention. According to Benson (2006: 26), out-of-class language learning is “a relatively new area in the literature on autonomy.”

This present study srutinizes Indonesian tertiary students' autonomy in learning English beyond the classroom. A survey study was employed in this study. A questionnaire consisting of 19 Likert-scale items was distributed to 192 university students. The quantitative-descriptive analysis revealed that students' autonomy in out-of-class EFL learning was at moderate level.

1. Introduction

Recent literatures on learner autonomy consider out-of-class language learning to be the manifestation of the idea of learner autonomy. Benson (2001: 62) defines out-of-class language learning as “any kind of learning that takes place outside the classroom and involves self-instruction, naturalistic learning or self-directed naturalistic learning.” According to Benson (2006), learners tend to engage in out-of-class learning activities more frequently than their teachers know.

This paper intends to explore students’ autonomy in out-of-class English foreign language learning at a private university in Indonesia. The research question addressed is “how is students’ autonomy in out-of-class EFL learning best described?”

2. Autonomy in Language Learning and Its Working Definitions

For more than thirty years, autonomy has been a key issue and discussion in the field of EFL teaching and learning. The original notion of autonomy in EFL learning was proposed by Holec (1981: 3). He defined autonomy as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning.” He states:

To take charge of one’s learning is to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all decisions concerning all aspects of this learning, i.e.:

- determining the objectives;
- defining the contents and progressions;
- selecting methods and techniques to be used;
- monitoring the procedure of acquisition properly speaking (rhythm, time, place, etc);
- evaluating what has been acquired

Following Holec’s definition, several advocates of learner autonomy in language learning put forward their own definitions. Little (1991), cited in Benson (2001: 49), states “essentially, autonomy is a capacity – for detachment, critical reflection, decision making, and independent action.” In this sense, the development of learner autonomy occurs if the learners continuously reflect on what is being learned, why they learn, how they learn and with what degree of success (Little, 1999).

Dickinson makes two versions of the definition of autonomy. The first definition stipulates that autonomy is “the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions” (Dickinson, 1987: 11). Later, he defines autonomy as “an attitude to language learning which may not necessarily have any external, observable features” (Dickinson, 1993: 330). It is obvious here that the definition shifts the emphasis, from learning situation to learner attribute.

Benson (2001: 110) asserts that autonomy is “an attribute of the learner rather than the learning situation.” He describes learner autonomy as “the capacity to take control

of one's own learning" (p. 47). The notion of controlling over learning is more observable than that of taking charge.

3. Methodology

A survey study was employed in this research. Employing a survey research design was appropriate for this study since it sought to collect and describe EFL learners' characteristics (cf. Brown and Rodger, 2002). It is also worth noting that the information about the research participants in this research was gathered at a single point in time.

3.1 Research Participants

The subjects of the present study were 192 first year non-English major students at a private university in Jakarta, Indonesia. The subjects had been enrolled in English for Academic Purposes I (EAP I) classes during the odd semester of 2010/2011 academic year. They had mixed levels of English proficiency.

3.2 Research Instrument

A close-ended questionnaire was used to elicit and gather information about research respondents. Twenty questionnaire items were generated to gauge students' autonomy in out-of-class English language learning. The items were categorized into two dimensions, namely autonomous behavior and out-of-class autonomous English learning activities (see Appendix 1).

The first dimension was designed to find out students' autonomous behavior for their out-of-class English language learning. It was developed based on Holec's (1981) five requirements for autonomous learners, such as determining learning objectives, determining the content and progressions, selecting the learning methods and techniques, monitoring learning process, and evaluating the process and outcomes of learning.

The second dimension was designed to find out autonomous learning activities the students underwent during their out-of-class English learning. The given activities were as a result of brainstorming possible activities the students may carry out.

4. Research Results and Discussion

4.1 Descriptive Results

It is important to agree upon that along the five-point Likert scale the averages of 3.50 or higher imply high degree of autonomy; the averages of 2.50-3.49 medium imply degree of autonomy; and the averages of 2.49 or lower imply low degree of autonomy (cf. Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995). The degree was indicated by the average mean of each dimension or the mean of each item.

Table 4.1: Average Mean of Autonomy in Out-Of-Class English Language Learning

	N	Mean	SD
Average mean of autonomy in out-of-class English language learning.	192	3.15	0.64
Behavior	192	3.01	0.80
Activities	192	3.29	0.64

In Table 4.1, the mean average of students' autonomy in out-of-class English language learning was 3.15. For this reason, the degree of students' autonomy in out-of-class English language learning was medium. The description of the results of each dimension is presented in the following subsections.

4.1.1 Autonomous Learning Behavior

This was mainly derived from Holec's (1981) categorization of qualities and characteristics of an autonomous learner in five aspects, such as determining objectives of learning, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques, monitoring learning process, and evaluating the process and outcomes of learning.

Students' overall autonomous learning behavior in out-of-class English language learning in this research was regarded as medium degree. The mean average of students' autonomous learning behavior was 3.01. This score indicated that the students exhibited moderate frequency of autonomous English learning behavior outside the class.

Table 4.2: Average Mean of Autonomous Learning Behavior Aspects

Aspects	N	Mean	SD
Determining objectives of learning	192	3.39	.98
Defining the contents and progressions	192	2.87	.96
Selecting methods and techniques	192	2.84	1.00
Monitoring learning process	192	2.80	.98
Evaluating the process and outcomes of learning	192	3.13	.96

In the table, none of the five aspects reached the high degree of autonomy. Instead, all the aspects fell within the medium degree of autonomy. The mean scores of students'

responses to determining objectives of learning, defining the contents and progressions, selecting methods and techniques, monitoring learning process, and evaluating the process and outcomes of learning were 3.39, 2.87, 2.84, 2.80, and 3.13 respectively.

4.1.1.1 Determining Objectives of Learning

Among the five aspects, the students reported to pay much attention to the determination of their out-of-class English learning objectives. The mean score was 3.39. Even though the score was the highest among the five aspects of autonomous learning behavior, students' autonomous behavior in setting the objectives of English learning was regarded as medium degree (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3 Frequencies and Percentages of Determining Objectives of Learning

No ite m	Response Alternatives										Mea n	SD
	Never		Rarely		Sometime s		Often		Always			
	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%		
1	6	3.1	32	16.7	64	33.3	58	30.2	32	16.7	3.41	1.04
2	14	7.3	26	13.5	60	31.3	57	29.7	35	18.2	3.38	1.14

Students' awareness of the objectives of their out-of-class English language learning was moderate (Statement 1, Mean = 3.41). Sixty four (33.3%) students reported that they are sometimes aware of their out-of-class English language learning objectives. Fifty eight students (30.2%) admitted that they are often aware of their out-of-class English language learning objectives, while 32 students (16.7%) reported they are always aware of it. Thirty two students said they are rarely aware of their out-of-class English language learning objectives and six students (3.1%) admitted they are never aware of it.

The second statement also suggested the moderate degree of operation (Mean = 3.38). Sixty (31.3%) students admitted that they sometimes do it. Fifty seven (29.7%) students often and 35 (18.2%) always have targets that they should achieve in out-of-class English learning. In addition, twenty six (13.5%) students rarely have the target, while 14 (7.3%) students never do.

4.1.1.2 Defining the Contents and Progressions

The mean average of students' responses to the aspect of defining the contents and progressions was 2.87. This score indicated the students exhibited relatively moderate autonomous learning behavior in defining the contents and progressions of their English learning outside the class. This aspect was measured by two items of the questionnaire (items 3 and 4).

Table 4.4 Frequencies and Percentages of Defining the Contents and Progressions

No ite m	Response Alternatives										Mea n	SD
	Never		Rarely		Sometim es		Often		Always			
	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%		
3	17	8.9	33	17.2	70	36.5	54	28.1	18	9.4	3.12	1.08
4	31	16.1	56	29.2	67	34.9	28	14.6	10	5.2	2.64	1.07

The mean of the third statement was 3.12, which suggested that the students demonstrated moderate frequency of choosing the materials for their own out-of-class English language learning. In their response to the statement, seventy students chose "always". Fifty four (28.1%) students reported that they themselves always choose the learning materials, while eighteen (9.4%) students admitted that they always do as well. Moreover, thirty three (17.2%) students chose "rarely" and 17 (8.9%) students selected "never".

Even though the mean of the statement 4 (Mean = 2.64) was lower than that of the statement 3, it was still medium. The score indicated moderate degree of students' behavior in arranging their daily schedule so that they had much time to learn English outside the class. Responding to the statement, sixty seven (34.9%) students reported that they sometimes arrange their schedule so as to have much time to learn English. Fifty six (29.2%) students reported that they rarely do it, while 31 (16.1%) students revealed that they never do it. Twenty eight (14.6%) students in their response to the statement chose "often" and 10 (5.2%) students selected "always".

4.1.1.3 Selecting Methods and Techniques

Students' degree of autonomous behavior in selecting learning methods and techniques was moderate (Mean = 2.84). The behavior was measured by two items of the questionnaire (items 5 and 6).

Table 4.5 Frequencies and Percentages of Selecting Methods and Techniques

No ite m	Response Alternatives										Mea n	SD
	Never		Rarely		Sometime s		Often		Always			
	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%		
5	19	9.9	43	22. 4	51	26. 6	59	30. 7	20	10. 4	3.09	1.1 5
6	34	17. 7	56	29. 2	65	33. 9	28	14. 6	9	4.7	2.59	1.0 8

The mean of 3.09 for the fifth statement implied the students exhibited the medium degree of selecting learning activities for their out-of-class English language learning. Responding to the statement, fifty nine (30.7%) students reported they always select the learning activities, while 20 (10.4 %) students admitted they always do it. Fifty one (26.6%) students reported that they sometimes decide the learning activities. Moreover, forty-three (22.4%) students revealed that they rarely choose the activities, and 19 (17.7%) students admitted that they never choose the activities for their out-of-class English language learning.

Students' degree of choosing learning activities that suit them best was 2.59. Compared to the previous statement, the mean score of the sixth statement was lower. However, the score was still categorized into the medium degree. In their answers to the statement, sixty five (33.9%) students selected "sometimes". Fifty six (29.2%) students admitted that they rarely choose learning activities that suit them best, while 34 (17.7%) students reported that they never do it as well. Meanwhile, twenty eight (14.6%) students chose "often" and 9 (4.7%) students chose "always" in the questionnaire.

4.1.1.4 Monitoring Learning Process

Among the five aspects, the mean average of monitoring learning process is the lowest (Mean = 2.80). This suggested that the students paid less attention to the aspect of monitoring the process of English learning outside the class. This aspect consisted of two items (items 7 and 8).

Table 4.6 Frequencies and Percentages of Monitoring Learning Process

No ite m	Response Alternatives										Mea n	SD
	Never		Rarely		Sometime s		Often		Always			
	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Freq	%		
7	20	10.4	51	26.6	64	33.3	42	21.9	15	7.8	2.90	1.10
8	30	15.6	55	28.6	58	30.2	38	19.8	11	5.7	2.71	1.12

Students' behavior in monitoring their learning progress was moderate (Item 7, Mean = 2.90). Responding to the twenty-fifth statement, sixty four (33.3%) students selected "sometimes". Fifty one (26.6 %) students admitted that they rarely monitor their learning progress, while 20 (10.4%) students reported that they never do it. Forty two (21.9%) students chose "often" and 15 (7.8%) students selected "always".

The mean score of the eighth statement was 2.71; thus, it was categorized into medium degree. As seen in Table 4.18, fifty-eight (30.2%) students chose "sometimes" in the questionnaire. Fifty-five (28.6%) students reported that they rarely decide the time and length of their learning, while 30 (15.6%) students admitted that they never do such an activity. Thirty eight (19.8%) students chose "often" and 11 (15.7%) students selected "always" in the questionnaire.

4.1.1.5 Evaluating the Process and Outcomes of Learning

The average mean of students' behavior in evaluating the process and outcomes of their out-of-class English learning was 3.13. This score indicated that the students displayed the moderate degree in the self-evaluation of their learning process and outcomes. The aspect of evaluating the process and outcomes of learning was gauged by two items (items 9 and 10).

Table 4.7 Frequencies and Percentages of Evaluating the Process and Outcomes of Learning

No ite m	Response Alternatives										Mea n	SD
	Never		Rarely		Sometime s		Often		Always			
	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%		
9	22	11.5	48	25.0	70	36.5	38	19.8	14	7.3	2.86	1.08
10	9	4.7	32	16.7	51	26.6	72	37.5	28	14.6	3.41	1.07

The mean of the ninth statement was 2.86, which means that students' degree of evaluating the process and results of their learning was moderate. Seventy (36.5%) students reported that they sometimes evaluate the process and results of their out-of-class English learning. Forty eight (25%) students selected "rarely" and 22 (11.5%) chose "never" in the questionnaire. Thirty eight (19.8%) students admitted that they often evaluate the process and the results of their learning, while 14 (7.3%) students reported that they always do so.

Students' degree of evaluating the mistakes and using the information to improve their learning was also moderate (Item 10, Mean = 3.41). Fifty one (26.6%) students admitted that they sometimes evaluate their mistakes and use the information to help them learn better. Seventy two (37.5%) students chose "often" and 28 (14.6%) selected "always" in response to the twenty-eighth statement. Meanwhile, thirty two (16.7%) students reported that they rarely evaluate and use the results of the evaluation to improve their learning and nine (4.7%) students admitted that they never do it as well.

4.1.2 Out-of-Class Autonomous English Learning Activities

The mean average of the out-of-class English language learning activities was 3.29. This implied that the degree of students' out-of-class autonomous learning was medium. Ten items of the questionnaire (items 11-20) assessed students' autonomous English learning activities outside the class.

Table 4.8 provides the descriptive results for students' out-of-class autonomous English learning activities. It is obvious that among ten activities, four activities (Items 16, 17, 20, and 14) were considered to have high degree of frequency since their means were higher than 3.50. The other six activities (Items 13, 12, 15, 11, 18, and 19), of which the means ranged from 2.64 to 3.43, were in the medium degree.

Among ten provided activities, learning English by listening to English songs was the first most widely-practiced learning activity (Item 16, Mean = 4.05). In their response to this thirty-fourth statement, eighty nine (46.4%) students admitted that they often listen to English songs to learn English, while 63 (32.8%) students reported that they always do the activity. Twenty eight (14.6%) students admitted that they sometimes learn English through listening to English songs. Ten (5.2%) students reported that they rarely listen to English songs and two (1.0%) students never conduct the learning activity.

Table 4.8 Frequency and Percentage of Students' Engagement in Out-of-Class Autonomous English Learning Activities

No ite m	Response Alternatives										Me an	SD
	Never		Rarely		Sometim es		Often		Always			
	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%	Fre q	%		
16	2	1.0	10	5.2	28	14. 6	89	46. 4	63	32. 8	4.05	1.09 0
17	1	0.5	20	10. 4	39	20. 3	78	40. 6	54	28. 1	3.85	1.11 9
20	5	2.6	27	14. 1	61	31. 8	61	31. 8	38	19. 8	3.52	1.09 5
14	6	3.1	23	12. 0	62	32. 3	71	37. 0	30	15. 6	3.50	.997
13	6	3.1	35	18. 2	59	30. 7	54	28. 1	38	19. 8	3.43	1.01 3
12	9	4.7	45	23. 4	54	28. 1	55	28. 6	29	15. 1	3.26	.882
15	10	5.2	42	21. 9	75	39. 1	48	25. 0	17	8.9	3.10	.965
11	17	8.9	52	27. 1	58	30. 2	51	26. 6	14	7.3	2.96	.979
18	25	13. 0	54	28. 1	80	41. 7	27	14. 1	6	3.1	2.66	1.08 4
19	26	13. 5	69	35. 9	59	30. 7	25	13. 0	13	6.8	2.64	1.04 3

The second most widely-practiced learning activity was watching English movies (Item 17, Mean = 3.85). Seventy eight (40.6%) students often carry out the activity, while 54 (28.1%) students always watch English movies to learn English. Moreover, 39 (20.3%) students sometimes conduct the learning activity outside the class. Twenty (10.4%) students admitted that they rarely watch English movies and 2 (1.0%) students reported that they never do the activity.

Asking friends/lecturers/other people when finding difficulty appeared to be the third most widely-conducted learning activity in out-of-class English language learning (Item 20, Mean = 3.52). Sixty one (31.8%) students chose “often” and 38 (19.8%) students selected “always”. Sixty one (31.8%) students admitted that they sometimes

go to friends/lecturers/other people when finding difficulty. Twenty seven (14.1%) students revealed that they rarely do the activity, while five (2.6%) students admitted that they never do the activity.

Nowadays, most students have social networking accounts. The social networking sites may function as the medium for learning English. Updating status in social networking sites became the fourth most widely-practiced activity (Item 14, Mean = 3.50). In their response to the statement, seventy one (37.0%) students selected “often” and 30 (15.6%) students chose “always”. Sixty two (32.3%) students admitted that they sometimes update their status in social networks using English. Twenty three (12.0%) students reported that they rarely do the activity and six (3.1%) students revealed that they never update their status using English.

The fifth most widely-practiced activity was assessing English internet sites (Item 13, Mean = 3.43). Responding to the statement, fifty nine (30.7%) students selected “sometimes”. Fifty four (28.1%) students admitted that they often do the activity, and thirty eight (19.8%) students reported that they always do the activity. Thirty five (18.2%) students revealed that they rarely assess English sites, while six (3.1%) students reported that they never carry out the activity.

Noting down new words and finding out their meaning in the dictionary became the sixth most widely-carried out activity (Item 12, Mean = 3.26). Responding to the statement, fifty four (28.1%) students selected “sometimes”. Fifty five (28.6%) students reported that they often do the activity, while twenty nine (15.1%) students admitted that they often do the activities. Forty five (23.4%) students selected “rarely” and nine (4.7%) students chose “never”.

The seventh most widely-exercised learning activity was watching English TV program or listening to English radio program (Item 15, Mean = 3.10). Seventy five (39.1%) students admitted that they sometimes learn English by watching English TV program or listening to English radio program. Forty eight (25.0%) students often do and 17 (8.9%) students always do. Forty two (21.9%) students chose “rarely” and ten (5.2%) students selected “never”.

Reading English books, novels, or newspapers appears to be the eighth most widely displayed learning activity (item 11, Mean = 2.96). Fifty eight (30.2%) students revealed that they sometimes read English books, novels, or newspapers to learn English. Fifty one (26.6%) students chose “often”, while 14 (7.3%) students selected “always”. Fifty two (27.1%) students admitted that they rarely read English books, novels, or newspapers to learn English and seventeen (8.9%) students reported that they never do the activity.

The ninth most-widely displayed activity was doing exercises available in EAP 1 module voluntarily (Item 18, Mean = 2.66). Responding to the questionnaire, eighty (41.7%) students chose “sometimes” in the questionnaire. Twenty seven (14.1%) students admitted that they often do the exercise and six (3.1%) students reported that they always do the exercise. Fifty four (28.1%) students chose “rarely” and twenty six (13.5%) selected “never”.

Learning English in groups became the least exercised activity during the out-of-class learning activities (Item 19, Mean = 2.64). Fifty nine (30.7%) students admitted that they sometimes learn English in groups. Twenty five (13.0%) students often do the activity and only 13 (6.8%) students learn English in groups. Sixty nine (35.9%) chose “rarely” and twenty six (13.5%) selected “never”.

4.2 Discussion

Autonomy in out-of-class English language learning implied that the students exercised “their responsibilities for all the decisions concerning all aspects of his own learning” (Holec, 1981: 3). From descriptive results of students’ responses, it was found that the students exhibited an average degree of autonomy in out-of-class English language learning (Mean = 3.15). In other words, it may be said that students’ overall ability to take charge of their own English learning was at a moderate level.

Holec’s (1981) argues that autonomous learners should meet five requirements, such as fixing the objectives of learning, defining the contents and progression, selecting the learning methods and techniques, monitoring the learning progress, and evaluating the learning. In the language classroom, the five requirements are usually difficult, if not impossible, to conduct since they are already determined by the institution or the teachers. The students just follow what is already established; hence, they are not autonomous in this regard since they do not exercise an active involvement in their learning process. Different from the language classroom, the out-of-class language learning is argued to provide the students an ample chance to carry out the four requirements (cf. Benson, 2001). Therefore, during the out-of-class language learning, the students are likely to plan, monitor and evaluate their learning by themselves rather than by the teacher, indicating that they are actively involved in their own learning.

Based on the research results, students’ autonomous behavior in determining the objectives of learning English outside the class (Mean = 3.39) stayed at moderate degree, even though it appeared to be the highest among the other factors. In addition to Holec (1981), Dickinson (1993) also believes that formulating learning objectives becomes one of the distinctive characteristics of autonomous learners. In this respect, the learning objectives play a crucial role in the process of learning in a way that it provides the direction of their learning. Little (1999) contends that students’ awareness of learning goals makes learning more effective. Hence, without having clear objectives, the students would not be able to undergo their learning appropriately.

In order to achieve the defined goal, the students must decide the suitable learning materials and the pace of their learning. In this respect, the students may choose the materials that are suitable to their level of English as well as determine the time and place in order to carry out the learning according to their own schedule. Controlling over learning content is fundamental to autonomy in a sense that the students are free

to choose what they want to learn to achieve the learning objective (Benson, 2001). The results of the analysis suggested that during the out-of-class English language learning, students' ability to decide the suitable learning materials and the pace of their learning was generally at a moderate level even though it was the lowest among the other behaviors (Mean = 2.87). Furthermore, it was found also in the analysis that the students did not really arrange their daily schedule so as to have much time to learn English outside the class (Item 4, Mean = 2.64).

After the goal and material are determined, the students should think about learning methods or techniques supporting them to attain the goal (cf. Holec, 1981). Omaggio (1978), as cited in Wenden (1998), also believes that autonomous learners should have good insights into their learning methods and techniques. The results of the analysis revealed that the students exhibited a moderate degree of choosing learning methods (Item 5, Mean = 3.09). Moreover, Dickinson (1993) argues that autonomous learners are able to identify what strategies fitting them best and what strategies are not appropriate with them as well. However, from the analysis, it was found that the students did not seem to choose the strategies fitting them best (Item 6, Mean = 2.59).

Self-monitoring is crucial for it enables the students to check, verify, or correct while performing the language task (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990, cited in Benson, 2001) so as to judge whether their learning is successful and to decide which parts must be changed and which must be continued. According to Scharle and Szabo (2000), responsible learners consciously keep monitoring their own progress. Nevertheless, the results of the analysis conveyed that the students were less able to monitor their learning process (Item 7, Mean = 2.90). Moreover, the results of this research suggested that the students were less able to decide the length and time of their English learning (Item 8, Mean = 2.71). Students' decision on the length and time of learning is indeed one of the manifestations of students' efforts to monitor their learning process.

Furthermore, self-evaluation was used to judge how well the students are doing in accomplishing the task and how much they have accomplished the learning (Gardner, 2000). An ability to self-evaluate inevitable becomes a defining characteristic of autonomous learners since the students independently judge their learning process and results, instead of conducted by the teachers. The results of this research revealed that the students' ability to evaluate their learning process and outcomes was at a moderate level (Item 9, Mean = 2.86). Without a doubt, the evaluation could be also used to make the further learning better as well (Item 10, Mean = 3.41). Accordingly, regardless of whether the self-assessment is reliable and valid, it is crucial to bear students' autonomy in language learning for the students themselves actively decide how well they carry out the process of learning as well as judge the weaknesses and strengths of the results of their learning (Gardner, 2000).

As to the out-of-class autonomous activities, the analysis revealed that the top activities were those which were related to technology, such as listening English songs, watching English movies, etc. It goes without saying that nowadays the students are technology-literate. As a result, the students made use of the technology as a medium to carry out their out-of-class autonomous English language learning. This may convince that technology and autonomous activities are indeed closely related (Chia, 2007). Additionally, the research findings also countered experts' arguments (e.g. Littlewood, 1999) that Asian learners tended to work together in learning. The results of this research suggested that the students unlikely engaged in the collaborative English learning during the out-of-class learning (Item 19, Mean = 2.64).

5. Conclusion

This research aims at describing students' autonomy in out-of-class English language learning. The descriptive results of students' responses to the autonomy in out-of-class English language learning revealed that the students exhibited average degree of autonomy in out-of-class English language learning. Autonomy in out-of-class English language learning consisted of autonomous behavior and autonomous learning activities. Those two domains stayed at moderate degree as well.

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Appendix 1 Operazionalization of Learner Autonomy

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Dimension</i>	<i>Aspects</i>	<i>Indicators/Items</i>
Autonomy in Out-of-Class English Language Learning	Autonomous Behavior	Determining Objectives of Learning	1. I am aware of the objectives of my out-of-class English learning.
		Defining the contents and progressions	2. I have targets that I should achieve in out-of-class English learning. 3. I myself choose materials used for learning English outside class.
		Selecting methods and techniques	4. I arrange my daily schedule so that I have much time to learn English outside class. 5. I choose activities for my out-of-class English learning.

Out-of-Class
Autonomous English
Language Learning
Activities

Monitoring learning
process

Evaluating the
process and
outcomes of learning

6. I choose learning activities which suit me best.
7. I monitor my learning progress.
8. I decide the time and length of out-of-class English learning
9. I evaluate the process and results of my out-of-class English learning.
10. I evaluate my mistakes and use the information to help me learn better.
11. I read English books, novels, or newspapers.
12. I note down new words and finding their meaning in the dictionary.
13. I access English internet sites.
14. I update status in social networks using English.
15. I watch English TV program or listening to English radio program.
16. I listen to English songs.
17. I watch English movies.
18. I do exercises in EAP 1 module voluntarily.
19. I learn English in groups.
20. I ask friends/lecturer/other people when finding difficulties during out-of-class English language learning.

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*The Relationship of MDAB Students' Academic Reading Performance with their
Reading Attitudes*

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INTRODUCTION

The Importance of Reading

According to Eskey (1988), no one can teach anyone how to read, or even how to read effectively but anyone can learn to read, and to read more effectively. This can only be done if only learners perceive reading as an activity that can contribute to an intellectual profit or pleasure. As such, the content of whatever the learners have chosen to read must be of something useful to them or will assist them in understanding the world better or provide them the special kind of pleasure that comes from the experience of reading the texts. Thus, learners need to realize the importance of reading in their daily lives in order to cope with the new knowledge in the changing world of the technological age. A great awareness of why reading is important is that it does not contribute only to an individual's well-being, self-development and progress but also to the whole nation and the world.

Berardo (2006) also believed that reading is associated with means of communication because it is considered to be an interactive process – a conversation between writer and reader. One of the benefits gathered from reading is when readers are able to associate the activity with the feeling of pleasure. This is clearly stated by Anderson (1999) when he claimed that reading with the feeling of pleasure gives many readers the opportunity to relax and enjoy the world of books.

Malachi (2002) stated that the reading of literature must be a pleasurable experience in order for the students to enjoy reading. The reading of literature should revolve around the learners' lives and experience. It is through reading that students will become independent learners with freedom to think and to live their lives (Thadphoothon, 2006).

Nuttall (1996) as cited in Fauziah (2002) also addressed on this issue that the best way to improve students' knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among its community. The next best way is to read extensively in it and this habit has to be inculcated from an early age by parents and the society. The teacher, for instance, is one of the most important element in promoting reading habits as her attitude influences students and their performance. Mahon (1981) stressed to teachers that a few minutes of consultation time should be put aside in every class session to talk to students individually about the books they read, the hours they spent reading and the sources to their reading materials.

Hence, reading is an important skill for every student to master as the ability to read would help in the process of achieving life-long learning. It is not only vital for academic development but also for professional and self-development.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Malaysians' Interest and Attitudes towards Reading

Students develop positive attitudes toward reading, increase their motivation to read, become fluent in reading and expand their vocabulary greatly only if they get themselves engaged with the habit extensively. As such, reading is a very important factor in enriching one's knowledge and in widening one's perspective. In fact, some

researchers also claimed that if students read extensively, they not only acquire vocabulary but also increase their reading speed automatically (Blevins, 2005; Iwahori, 2008; Samuels, 2006).

However, reading scenario in Malaysia does not reflect an impressive reading culture as society seems to be greatly ambivalent about reading. Ganakumaran (2004) revealed that many Malaysians are 'struggling readers'. They have minimal confidence in their ability to read and minimal sense of themselves as readers. Meanwhile, struggling readers according to Vacca and Vacca (1999) are those students who are low achievers. They lack cognitive competencies which may include reading comprehension, study skills, word recognition and reading fluency. On the other hand, Wigfield, Eccles and Rodriguez (1998) believed that struggling readers are notably unmotivated. They are especially likely to have low confidence in their reading, which is termed self-efficacy in the research literature. These characteristics are distinctively captured in a group of underprivileged Pre-Diploma students studying at Universiti Teknologi MARA Sarawak, Malaysia. These groups of struggling readers have very minimal sense of themselves as readers because they are greatly apprehensive towards reading. It is very disheartening to witness this discouraging attitude in the students as the university and the nation as a whole are optimistic of transforming these students into future graduates who are highly-skilled communicators and who possess a high level of oral and written proficiency.

Reading is regarded as important because it provides a lot of benefits to readers in many ways. Reading skills for instance, are essential as they provide an easier path for us to follow as we face new challenges. A great awareness of why reading is important is that it does not contribute only to an individual's well-being, self-development and progress but also to the whole nation and the world. By this, Gordon (1976) believed that the thirst for reading and a wider dissemination of books is a sign of progress in the world.

However, the fact that Sangkaeo (1999) presented on attitudes towards reading seemed to show the opposite. According to him, the number of those who know how to read but do not read enough is also increasing. He reasoned out that there are still some people who cannot get access to reading activities and reading programs at all even though they are able to read. They may neither have much nor lasting interest in books and reading. This is such a sad scenario which is actively happening in the local scene. This lack of reading interest was verified by a study carried out by Atan Long (1984) who found that the habit of reading in Malaysia did not appear to be a prominent feature in the lives of most Malaysians. In his study, he discovered that Malaysians had poor reading habits and did not like reading. His worry was that this situation could create wide rifts in the socioeconomic and intellectual developments of segments of the population.

Kaur and Thiyagarajah (1999) also stated that many Malaysian students only read a maximum of 10 hours a week. They also discovered that students who took up English Language and Literature Studies in Universiti Sains Malaysia did not meet the expectations of their lecturers in their reading habits. They portrayed poor reading habits and in relation to reading newspapers, only about 29% of the respondents claimed that they spent time on reading newspapers.

The same finding was also found in a study carried out by Manveet (2002) who revealed that although Malaysia has a literacy rate of 93%, which is one of the highest in the world, there remain many young Malaysians whose futures are imperiled because they do not read well enough to meet the demands of our competitive technology-driven society. This reflects how trivial reading habit is to Malaysians. Some of the reasons given by the students for not wanting to read were reading is boring and that they are too busy with other work, the texts are rather difficult and as a result, they have a hard time reading them. Hence, this contributes to the slow, difficult process of reading. Besides that, some also felt that reading is not important and not fun especially when they fail to appreciate how reading can be purposeful or relevant to their lives.

Echoing on the same note on students' lack interest in reading, Bright and McGregor (1970) tried to explain that students will not learn much on language when little reading takes place. Nuttall (1996) also seemed to agree with the claim that students do not enjoy reading, especially slow readers, because they do not read much and thus do not have enough practices.

In influencing students to build interests in reading, Day and Bamford (1998) as cited in Normah (2004) also believed that the reading materials should be easy and are chosen by the learners themselves for the purpose of leisure reading. By this, they also added that a wide range of materials be available for the learners to choose. The ability to read successfully can be achieved by allowing the use of a choice of tasks and materials that are personally meaningful to students. Sharing the same note, Simon (2006) also voiced out that the teaching material should be intrinsically interesting and therefore motivating. Its content should reflect 'life', not just language, and be stimulating and informative. As a result the students will find the material not only interesting but also credible to read.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

ESL reading is taught in almost every English course offered in Universiti Teknologi MARA Sarawak Campus Malaysia. However, not many students seem to do well or are interested in the subject based on their performance in the final exam and also poor class participation during reading sessions. This seems to be largely due to their poor reading habits. This is very worrying especially with regards to a special group of underprivileged Pre-Diploma students who had been accepted to join an academic program which started in July 2010. This programme which was designed to spare a fighting chance for students from deprived backgrounds to advance their destiny in life by providing them places in the University in pre-diploma and diploma courses, has begun in a discontent manner. For instance, the BEL011-Introductory English results released recently have shown dismal performance with quite a number of students failing the subject despite having 12 hours of intensive English weekly. One of the contributors to their failures was their poor performance in the reading tasks. According to the lecturers teaching the programme, students tend to be very 'passive' during the reading class and failed to contribute their ideas on the issues discussed, as they had not done much reading.

In addition, these students who are 'struggling readers' also have a negative perception on reading which they associate with the feeling of unpleasantness. These students do not enjoy reading because they feel reading is burdensome. They feel that

when they read, it takes a lot of their time especially when they have some other matters to attend to. This scenario happens largely among the underprivileged students because they not only come with very low level of proficiency in the English Language, but also they were not exposed to reading from young. For instance, the parents might have failed in inculcating reading habits in the children at an early stage and show no habit of reading themselves, which indirectly influence the children not to be fond of reading. Hence, it is a challenge for English lecturers to help these students to love reading if the students themselves barely see the importance of reading.

Lack of reading has not only affected the reading performance but also other components like writing and speaking. One major obstacle faced by the students is the poor grasp of vocabulary which inhibits both their oral and writing ability due to the lack of reading. Vocabulary is of great importance to language learners as it is fundamental to any language. Lack of vocabulary makes it difficult for students to express themselves in English or for them to guess the meanings of words in context when given reading tasks.

Due to these shortcomings, there is a need to conduct this study as it will shed invaluable insights to educators and stakeholders to search for an effective reading program and teaching strategies for these students to create interest towards reading which will indirectly assist them in mastering the language.

OBJECTIVES

- 1.To identify a group of underprivileged Pre-Diploma students' attitudes towards reading in general.
- 2.To determine whether the students' academic reading performance is significantly affected by their reading attitudes and reading materials.

METHODOLOGY

This study involved 107 Pre-Diploma students who had joined an academic program in Universiti Teknologi MARA Sarawak, Malaysia. These were a group of underprivileged students who were enrolled in BEL011, an Introductory English Course offered by the university for beginners. The course covers major aspects of Grammar, Writing, Reading and Speaking. It runs for approximately one-semester or 14 weeks. The main objectives of the course are to remedy students' weaknesses in the use of English and raise their proficiency level. The reading component specifically exposes students to the necessary college reading skills such as skimming and scanning, identifying main ideas, identifying topic sentences, transferring information from linear to non linear text and etc.

The sample subjects were students of elementary language proficiency level. Their average age was 18 years old and 68 of the students were females and 39 were males. The data for this study were collected via two research instruments: the Questionnaire and the Semi-structured Interview.

The questionnaire used in this study was aimed to seek feedback from students on their general attitudes towards reading. It was also designed to elicit information on

the relationship between the students' academic reading performance and their reading attitudes. There were altogether 43 items in the questionnaire. The items were adapted from Yamashita (2004) and some were constructed based on the authors' own experience dealing with the students' attitudes. Each item in the questionnaire tried to address a particular issue in reading. They were divided into three major categories namely the reading attitudes, reading environment and reading materials. To ensure the reliability of the items and variables, the Cronbach Alpha has been analyzed using the SPSS software and the validity of the three dimensions has also been measured. A pilot test was conducted on 28 Universiti Teknologi MARA students to check for errors or unclear questions that may hinder comprehension and accurate interpretation. The pilot test also gave valuable feedback that assisted the researchers in making corrections before the questionnaire was administered to the actual research subjects.

A semi-structured interview was carried out with a few randomly selected students after they had responded to the questionnaire. The interview aimed to seek clarification concerning the responses given by the students in the questionnaire. It was also carried out with the purpose of eliciting further information on their responses that the researchers might have overlooked. In addition, the semi-structured nature of the interview allowed subjects the freedom to raise issues and express their view concerning reading as the interview was in progress. Hence, the students were individually interviewed and their responses were tape-recorded and transcribed.

The raw data gathered from the questionnaire, and the semi-structured interview with the students were recorded, analysed and triangulated based on the questionnaire (refer to APPENDIX 1). Students' responses to the items in the questionnaire items were analysed using descriptive statistics and quantitative data analysis through frequency count, correlation and regression and presented in tabular forms.

FINDINGS

The Pre-Diploma Students' Attitude towards Reading

The research objectives are to identify the Pre-Diploma students' attitudes towards reading in general and to determine whether the students' academic reading performance is significantly affected by their reading attitudes. In terms of the first objective, findings from the data revealed that most of the students gave positive response towards reading with the average mean value of 3.5 and 3.5 and above. The table below displays the means score analysis for attitude towards reading with the highest mean score for B4 and lowest for B9.

Items	Question	Mean
B9	Reading does not broaden my view.	3.06
B6	I read for pleasure.	3.23
B2	I read as a hobby.	3.29
B5	I like reading English materials.	3.42
B3	I do not think reading is fun.	3.43
B1	I enjoy reading a lot.	3.66
B8	I read for self-development.	3.76
B7	I read for examination purposes.	3.78
B4	Reading makes me a knowledgeable person.	4.30

Table 1: Mean Scores Analysis for Attitude

Table 2 depicts that the highest mean score is 4.03 in which respondents found it easy to read when using the dictionary and the lowest mean score is 3.34 in which they did not believe that their lack interest in reading was due to poor selection of reading materials from their teacher. Hence, it can be implied that the students still resort to dictionaries when they fail to guess the meaning of some words. However, the technicality of the reading texts if not given due attention, could also indirectly contribute to the feeling of boredom and reluctance to continue reading among the students. Hence, it can be gathered from C7 with a mean score of 3.94 that many would prefer and enjoy reading if they were given the freedom to choose their own reading materials. Students are able to get 'hooked' to reading when they know what materials will be of interest to them. This is explained by Day and Bamford (1998 : 78) who suggested that students be allowed to read texts that they are interested in although many teachers may not be pleased with the quality of texts that they read. They believed that the main concern should be to get students to read and enjoy reading because once they enjoy reading, they will develop the reading habit.

Items	Question	Mean
C6	I do not build an interest in reading because I do not get a variety of selected reading materials from my teacher.	3.34
C4	I enjoy reading even if the reading material is not my choice.	3.44
C11	I only enjoy reading when the reading materials serve some purposes.	3.47
C3	I lose interest in reading when I do not know any of the words in the selected reading texts.	3.61
C2	I stop reading when I find the material is above my level of understanding.	3.63
C12	I tend to get deeply engaged when I read English material.	3.76
C1	I get motivated to read when I can choose the reading materials.	3.87
C8	Difficult reading texts do not make me lose interest in reading.	3.87
C9	I believe teachers should select reading materials that are interesting.	3.93
C7	I enjoy reading because I have freedom to choose my own reading materials.	3.94
C10	I enjoy reading other materials apart from academic ones.	3.97
C5	I find it easy to read a text if I use a dictionary.	4.03

Table 2: Mean Scores for Reading Materials

Table 3 presents that 51.4% agreed that reading makes them a knowledgeable person and not a single student responded the opposite. This suggests that most respondents agreed that reading can be a very beneficial activity especially in imparting knowledge. However, a very interesting finding was also gathered from the respondents when asked whether they read for pleasure. The majority of the respondents were undecided and only 30.8% responded positively. On the other hand, 67.3% of the respondents were discovered to read for examination purpose, 33% was undecided and none responded negatively. This implies that the respondents might view reading as a beneficial activity because they associated reading with knowledge that they required for exam purposes.

Item	Attitude					Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
B1:I enjoy reading a lot	0	6 (5.6%)	33 (30.8%)	59 (55.1%)	9 (8.4%)	107
B2:I read as a hobby	0	13 (12.1%)	54 (50.5%)	36 (33.7%)	4 (3.7%)	107
B3:I do not think reading is fun	0	2 (1.9%)	63 (59%)	36 (33.7%)	6 (5.6%)	107
B4:Reading makes me a knowledgeable person	0	0	10 (9.3%)	55 (51.4%)	42 (39.3%)	107
B5:I like reading English materials	0	6 (5.6%)	54 (50.5%)	43 (40.2%)	4 (3.7%)	107
B6:I read for pleasure	1 (0.9%)	10 (9.3%)	63 (59%)	29 (27.1%)	4 (3.7%)	107
B7:I read for examination purposes	0	0	35 (33%)	61 (57%)	11 (10.3%)	107
B8:I read for self-development	0	2 (1.9%)	31 (29%)	65 (60.7%)	9 (8.4%)	107
B9:Reading does not broaden my view	1 (0.9%)	18 (16.8%)	63 (59%)	24 (22.4%)	1 (0.9%)	107

Table 3: Attitude Variable Analyses

The positive response on the value of reading is also reflected in the students' feedback during the interview. When asked whether they actually enjoy reading and the reason why, they responded :

(R1): Yes I read a lot book because I think with reading; I can improve my pronunciation and knowledge.

(R2) : I think I read because get a lot of information that I can add, I want to 'change'(improve) my language.

(R1) : Yes because I like reading. I learn something new. If I don't know the meaning of words, I will guess myself in the meaning of that word.

(R2) : Yes because it can release my tension, then I could not waste time to do something that is important to me.

(R3) : Yes because from reading novels or comics, we have fun.

(R4) : Yes, I enjoy reading because when I'm reading, I don't feel boring, do not waste my time, I can get information on the knowledge.

(R5) : If I like to the book, yes!

The findings support recent research in the area of reading attitude which suggests that motivated readers carry positive beliefs about themselves as readers (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997).

It can be gathered from C3 in Table 4 that 56% of the respondents would lose interest in reading when they do not know the words in the reading texts and only 3.75% disagreed with the idea. A similar finding is also discovered in C2 in which 53.3%

agreed that they would stop reading when they find the text is above their level of understanding. This feedback suggests that the respondents would not want to take the challenge of guessing the meanings of words and get ‘turned off’ when given difficult reading texts. It has been suggested by research that interest is far more significant than readability when it comes to the types of materials students read. Students can transcend their reading level when they have great interest in what they read.

Item	Material					Total
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
C1:I get motivated to read when I can choose the reading materials	0	1 (0.9%)	26 (24.3%)	66 (61.7%)	14 (13.1%)	107
C2:I stop reading when I find the material is above my level of understanding	0	1 (0.9%)	49 (46%)	46 (43%)	11 (10.3%)	107
C3:I lose interest in reading when I do not know any of the words in the selected reading texts	0	4 (3.7%)	43 (40.2%)	51 (47.6%)	9 (8.4%)	107
C4:I enjoy reading even if the reading material is not my choice	0	0	62 (57.9%)	43 (40.2%)	2 (1.9%)	107
C5:I find it easy to read a text if I use a dictionary	0	3 (2.8%)	19 (17.8%)	57 (53.3%)	28 (26.2%)	107
C6:I do not build an interest in reading because I do not get a variety of selected reading materials from my teacher	0	0	72 (67.3%)	34 (32%)	1 (0.9%)	107
C7:I enjoy reading because I have freedom to choose my own reading materials	0	0	29 (27.1%)	55 (51.4%)	23 (21.5%)	107
C8:Difficult reading texts do not make me lose	0	0	29 (27.1%)	63 (59%)	15 (14%)	107

interest in reading						
C9:I believe teachers should select reading materials that are interesting	0	3 (2.8%)	23 (21.5%)	60 (56%)	21 (19.6%)	107
C10:I enjoy reading other materials apart from academic ones	0	1 (0.9%)	22 (21%)	63 (59%)	21 (19.6%)	107
C11:I only enjoy reading when the reading materials serve some purposes	0	3 (2.8%)	57 (53.3%)	41 (38.3%)	6 (5.6%)	107
C12:I tend to get deeply engaged when I read English material	0	0	31 (29%)	71 (66.4%)	5 (4.7%)	107

Table 4: Reading Material Variable Analyses

However, the responses provided by most of the respondents interviewed featured differently from the feedback given in the questionnaire when they were asked whether they would give up easily when reading difficult passages.

(R1) : No. I will try to understand those passages.

(R3) : No because I can try to guess such as I ask my friend. There are certain words I can find in the dictionary.

(R4) : No. I will try to understand the passage. Refer to the dictionary or contextual clues.

(R5) : The truth kah? Yes. If it's susah to understand I give up. If there are pictures to explain then maybe lah...I try harder.

The responses given revealed that majority of the respondents (R1, R3 and R4) would still take the challenge to continue reading even though they found the text difficult, except for R5 who responded that she would give up reading if the text was too difficult unless there were pictures to help make it simpler to understand the text. The responses supported statements by Kaur and Thiyagarajah as cited in Ganakumaran (2004) that many Malaysian readers lacked the ability to deal with higher level reading texts that required critical and analytical reading skills and would prefer light and casual reading instead.

Thus, students who do not enjoy typical school texts often fail to engage in reading, and may develop a lifelong aversion to reading. Even if they are not initially struggling readers, "reluctant readers tend to gradually lose some academic ground, because wide reading is related to increases in general knowledge and reading comprehension" (Williamson & Williamson, 1988).

The Pre-Diploma Students' Reading Performance

The question of whether the students' academic reading performance is significantly affected by their reading attitudes is discussed below. Table 5 shows the overall performance of the students in their final examination reading comprehension test. The total score for the test is 20 percent. It consists of a passage of about 500 words. Based on the table, out of 20%, 1.9% of the students failed by scoring 5% - 8 %, 30.8% scored 9%-12%, about 47.7% of the students scored between 13-16% and 19.6% scored 17-20%. This indicates that the students performed well in their reading comprehension test with some students scoring full marks.

Marks/20 (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1% - 4%	-	-
5% - 8%	2	1.9
9% - 12%	33	30.8
13% - 16%	51	47.7
17%- 20%	21	19.6
Total	107	100.0

Table 5: The Overall Performance of the Pre-Diploma Students

Table 6 shows that students with better performance displayed positive responses towards reading attitude with those who scored 9-12% in the test displaying the percentage of 25% who agreed and 10% who disagreed. Those who scored between 13-16% displayed 49% who agreed and 40% strongly agreed, while those who scored 17-20% displayed the percentage of 25 % who agreed and 50% who strongly agreed. This shows that students with high performance had good attitudes towards reading. Thus, it is apparent that there is a significant relationship between performance and attitude.

		Attitude					Total
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Performance	5% - 8%	0	0	2	0	0	2
	9% - 12%	0	3	17	12 (25%)	1 (10%)	33
	13% - 16%	0	0	24	23 (49%)	4 (40%)	51
	17%- 20%	0	0	4	12 (25%)	5 (50%)	21
Total		0	3	47	47	10	107

Table 6: Attitude and Performance Analysis

Table 7 shows that in general, most of the students gave positive responses towards reading materials as their performance increases.

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	
Performance	5% - 8%	0	0	0	2 (2.7%)	0	2
	9% - 12%	0	0	11	22 (30%)	0	33
	13% -16%	0	0	8	37 (50%)	6 (50%)	51
	17%-20%	0	0	2	13 (17.5%)	6 (50%)	21
Total		0	0	21	74	12	107

Table 7: Material and Performance Analysis

Correlation Analysis

From Table 8, the Pearson correlation value is averagely less than 0.5 which shows that the two independent variables namely attitude (0.297) and material (0.246) have a weak to moderate relationship with the dependent variable, the academic performance.

DIMENSION		Attitude	Material	Environment	Performance
Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1.000			
Material	Pearson Correlation	0.337**	1.000		
Performance	Pearson Correlation	0.297**	0.246**	0.446**	1.000

Table 8: Correlation Coefficient

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Firstly, the study was confined only to MDAB students taking Pre-Commerce program in May to October 2011 semester. Hence, the results of the findings were only restricted and relevant to the students being studied and generalization of the findings cannot be applied to reflect all students in UiTM Sarawak.

Secondly, the respondents' race and gender were not taken as a major part of this study as the questionnaires were not equally distributed. Due to that, information gathered from Section A was featured only as a way of filtering the respondents according to some demographic categories.

Thirdly, the feedback given might not represent the actual feelings of the respondents with regards to the area of study. This is because some of the respondents were not being serious and inconsistent when giving their feedback in the questionnaires. This may also due to fear of revealing their weaknesses and wanting to please the interviewers. Some of them were inconsistent in giving their feedback. It was also discovered that some of the feedback gathered from the interview did not actually complement the findings from the questionnaires.

CONCLUSION

The overall results from the findings revealed a very encouraging outcome. In terms of students' general attitudes towards reading, it was discovered that most respondents possessed positive and encouraging attitudes towards reading. They agreed that reading was important not only because it prepared them for the examination, but it also helped them acquire knowledge and broaden their views. Apart from that, most respondents have also affirmed that they engaged themselves in reading for self-development. This has indirectly implied that the young generations were able to value reading from a different perspective instead of just committing themselves to the activity for the purpose of academic achievement.

It is also hoped that the findings can create awareness to the university and Ministry of Education in providing suitable and supportive reading materials and environment for these students. These bodies should be active in finding proactive ways of forging good reading habits among students. Perhaps, an intensive and effective reading program that will tackle the students' lack of interest in reading be given consideration. Apart from that, the data from the findings should be able to assist the lecturers in applying a variety of effective reading teaching methods that will enhance the students' academic performance and proficiency in mastering the language.

There is also a need to adopt an instructional approach that is sensitive to learners' needs which ultimately encourages them to generate a love for reading. In fact, the findings of the study will be a useful point of reference for further discussions on ways to establish relevant designs, planning, remedial and preventive measures in language learning. In addition, the findings will also help guide the university in its noble aspiration to change the destiny of these students, to consider the factors that may contribute to the failure of achieving the objectives of creating a specific academic program for these underprivileged students.

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First Language Acquisition Theories and Transition to SLA

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Abstract

First language (L1) acquisition studies have been an interesting issue to both linguists and psycholinguists. A lot of research studies have been carried out over past several decades to investigate how L1 or child language acquisition mechanism takes place. The end point of L1 acquisition theories leads to interlanguage theories which eventually lead to second language acquisition (SLA) research studies. In this paper, I will show that there have been at least three theories that have offered new ideas on L1 acquisition. However, two theories of L1 acquisition have been very prominent as they have propounded two revolutionary schools of thought: Behaviorism and Mentalism. Therefore, in the first segment of this paper I will deal with the detailed theoretical assumptions on these two theories along with a brief discussion on Social Interactionist Theory of L1 acquisition. The second segment will deal with interlanguage theories and their seminal contributions to subsequent language researchers. Finally, I will briefly show how L1 acquisition theories and interlanguage theories have paved the way for new ideas into SLA research studies.

Behaviorist Theory

Behaviorism or Behaviorist Theory of first language (L1) plays a crucial role in understanding the early importance attached to the role of the first language acquisition. It was a dominant school of psychology from the 1920s to 1960s. It is basically a psychological theory and related to the development of L1 acquisition or first language acquisition (FLA). Its importance lies in verbal behavior, and it received substantial attention from the pedagogical arena in the 1950s. Therefore, it is also vital to be aware of the main tenets of the theory.

Behaviorist Theory can be traced back to J.B. Watson's (1924) *habit formation hypothesis*. The association of a particular response with a particular stimulus constitutes a habit. Hence, a habit is formed when a particular response becomes regularly linked with a particular stimulus. Skinner (1957), following Watson, set out to investigate how these habits were formed. Later Behaviorist Theory of language acquisition was fully developed and propounded by Skinner in his book *Verbal Behavior* (1957).

There are various theories regarding how this association can take place. In the classical behaviorism of Watson (ibid), the stimulus is said to 'elicit' the response. It posited that the presence of a stimulus called forth a response. If the stimulus occurred sufficiently and frequently, the response became practiced, and therefore it subsequently became automatic. In the neo-behaviorism of Skinner, a rather different account of how habits were formed can be traced. Skinner played down the importance of the stimulus on the grounds that it was not always possible to state what stimulus was responsible for a particular response. Instead, he emphasized the consequences of the response (Ellis, 1985).

Skinner tried to explain language learning in general following Watson's *habit formation hypothesis* and other behaviorists such as psychologist Ivan Pavlov who grounded his theory *classical conditioning*. The latter behaviorists developed their theories on Pavlov's studies of animal behavior in laboratory experiments with dogs and Thorndike's experiments with cats in puzzle boxes. Their claim is that all animals, including human beings, are born with a set of instinctive responses to external stimuli. Theories of habit formation were therefore theories of learning in general, and until the end of the 1960s views of language learning were derived from a theory of learning in general. Hence, they could be applied to language learning.

Skinner set out to propound language learning in terms of *operant conditioning*. Skinner's operant conditioning focuses on using either reinforcement or punishment (negative reinforcement) to increase or decrease the likelihood of behavior. Positive reinforcements are rewards whereas negative ones are punishments. An association is formed through this process between the behavior and the consequences of that behavior. He argues that it is the behavior that follows a response which reinforces it and thus helps to strengthen the association. The learning of a habit thus can occur

through *imitation* (i.e. the learner copies the stimulus behavior sufficiently often for it to become automatic) or *reinforcement* (i.e. the response of the learner is rewarded or punished depending on whether it is appropriate or otherwise, until only appropriate responses are given) (Ellis, *ibid*). The behaviorist Skinner anticipated that this theory explained language acquisition in humans. Skinner (1957) clarified his assertion with optimism saying:

The basic processes and relations which give verbal behavior its special characteristics are now fairly well understood. Much of the experimental work responsible for this advance has been carried out on other species, but the results have proved to be surprisingly free of species restrictions. Recent work has shown that the methods can be extended to human behavior without serious modification. (p.3)

To further elaborate Skinner's proposition, we can say an utterance or a part of the language acts as a *stimulus* to which a child makes a *response*. When the response is appropriate or correct, it is *reinforced* by the hearer or teacher through praise, reward, or approval. As a result, the likelihood of expected behavior increases - that is, the possibility of imitating the behaviour is positively reinforced. In contrast, if the child makes an inappropriate or incorrect response, they will be discouraged (i.e. negatively reinforced) and the likelihood of the behaviour will cease. As a result, that piece of language will not be imitated to the same situation. In other words, a child imitates a piece of language they hear. If they receive positive reinforcement, they will continue to imitate and practice that piece of language which then turns into a 'habit'. By contrast, if they receive negative reinforcement, they will cease to imitate and eventually stop.

This again can be explained by the following example. Imagine that a mother is trying to teach her son to pronounce a word. When the son successfully pronounces the word, he receives praise as a reward. However, when he fails to pronounce the word, the mother suspends the praise, or rebukes. In this process, the son forms an association between his behavior of pronouncing the word correctly and receiving the desired reward. Therefore, the major principle of the Behaviorist Theory rests on the analysis of human behavior in observable *stimulus-response-reinforcement*.

Thus, behaviorism is an approach to FLA based on the assumption that behavior can be empirically studied. It proposes that language learning is also a habit formation similar to other habits – that is, a language is learned in the way in which other habits are formed. Here environment plays a crucial role through exposure and feedback. Therefore, its basic corollary is that effective language behavior is the responses to appropriate stimuli. The stimuli and responses become habitual as a result of receiving positive reinforcement.

According to this theory, language learning is like any other kind of learning as it involves habit formation. These habits are formed when learners respond to stimuli in

the environment. Consequently, they have their responses reinforced resulting in subsequent imitation of the responses. Learning takes place when learners have the opportunity to make the appropriate response to a given stimulus.

Even though the theory fails to explain the creative aspect of language production, it helps us understand how in teaching and learning, *stimulus-response-reinforcement* can help master both grammatical and phonological patterns. To make use of this knowledge at the right time in the process of teaching depends on whether the teacher has been able to identify when stimulus-response can be used for the benefit of the learning. In this view, knowledge of language emerges as the result of interactions of innate cognitive abilities with social forces and environmental conditions that take a shaping influence on their development.

However, behaviorism has been criticized because learning cannot only happen through imitation as any language is based on a set of structures and rules. Ellis argues that behaviorists emphasize only on what can be observed and neglect what goes on in the learner's mind. Extrapolating from such animal experiments, behaviourists claim that language learning too is the result of habit formation by reinforcement of successful behaviour. A child imitates language behaviour of their parents and other members of their social group. Therefore, some routine or regular aspects of language might be learned through the process of *stimulus-response-reinforcement*, but this does not seem to account for more grammatical structures of the language. In addition, behaviourists cannot explain how a child learns to produce grammatically correct sentences which they never heard anyone to say before. Hence, this theory fails to account for the creativity of language use by the child, and gives scopes for criticism which led to Chomsky's mentalist account of FLA.

Mentalist Theory

Noam Chomsky's (1959) criticism of Skinner's theory of language acquisition led to a reassertion of mentalists' views of FLA in place of the empiricist approach of the behaviorists. Chomsky and others argued that extrapolating from studies of animal behavior in laboratory condition, as Skinner did, could show nothing about how human beings learn language in natural conditions. He stressed rather active contribution of the child, and minimized the importance of imitation and reinforcement. In his famous article 'Review of *Verbal Behaviour*' (1959), Chomsky criticized the behaviorists on the grounds of novelty and creativity of child language use that a child never heard before and proposed a completely different view of language acquisition. His mentalist account of FLA was a challenge to existing behaviorist view of acquisition, and initiated a debate whether language exists in mind before experience. This has led to an explanation of human-specific language learning faculty.

A number of linguists and psychologists - including two prominent proponents Chomsky and Lenneberg - and their claims and observations serve as a framework for

Mentalist Theory. Chomsky's claim is that the child's knowledge of their mother tongue is derived from a *Universal Grammar* (UG) which specifies the essential form that any natural language can take. As it has been argued that:

The facts of language acquisition could not be as they are unless the concept of a language is available to children at the start of their learning. The concept of sentence is the main guiding principle in child's attempt to organize and interpret the linguistic evidence that fluent speakers make available to him. (McNeill, 1970, p.2)

The universal grammar thus exists as a set of innate linguistic principles which comprises the *initial state* and which controls the form which sentences of any given languages can take.

Chomsky called this biological ability as the language acquisition device (LAD) which contains a set of universal grammar principles common to all possible human languages. He called this set of common rules as UG. Infants universally possess an innate grammar template or UG that allows them to select and construct the grammar of their own native language. His suggestion is that a child constructs grammar through a process of hypothesis testing. The past tense of verbs, for instance, is formed by adding '-ed' after the main verbs, so the child says "goed" what psycholinguists call *overgeneralization* (e.g. they over generalize the use of the regular past suffix -ed to irregular verbs). Eventually, the child revises their hypothesis to accommodate exception of the past tense of irregular verbs. Children create sentences by using rules rather than by merely repeating what they have heard.

Needless to say that Chomsky's proposition has been translated into second language acquisition, and termed *Universal Hypothesis*. This hypothesis is based on the assumption that there are 'core' and 'language-specific' rules in all languages. The core rules are those which are present in all natural languages. But the language-specific rules may be found in only one or two languages. According to the universal hypothesis, a second language learner learns core rules with ease. However, the language-specific ones appear to be much harder to master. It has also been suggested that when a learner comes across language-specific rules, they will tend to refer to L1. Thus, if a learner discovers that an L2 rule is not in accordance with a universal rule, they will attempt to interpret that rule by means of the equivalent rule in their L1 (Ellis, 1985, pp. 191-93).

Experience of language input is only necessary to activate the LAD. Mentalist or Innatist Theory of language acquisition emphasizes the learner's innate mental capacity for acquiring a language. Chomsky hypothesizes that infants must be born with some special built-in mental capacity to learn language. Thus, this theory claims that the ability to learn language is inborn to a child. It also asserts that only *Homo sapiens* has access to language developing qualities which are processed innately.

Consequently, this theory minimizes the contribution of behaviourists' notion of linguistic environment. Here 'nature' is more important than 'nurture'.

In addition, psychologist Eric Lenneberg (1967) further bolstered the claim of mentalists by emphasizing the biological prerequisites of language learning. His assertion is that only human species can learn a language. He cited example that even though severely retarded human beings were able to develop the rudiments of language, the most socially and intellectually advanced of the primates - chimpanzees - were incapable of mastering the creativity of language. His argument is that child's brain is especially adapted to the process of language acquisition. Therefore, Lenneberg's work provided empirical and theoretical support for the concept of a built-in mental capacity for FLA as part of human beings biological endowments.

The argument for the existence of Lenneberg's built-in mental capacity or Chomsky's LAD in human brain is that when a child acquires language, they are usually exposed to poor or incorrect forms, e.g. slips of the tongue, interruptions, false starts, lapses, etc. Yet, they are able to acquire the language and use it correctly, and surprisingly produce sentences they never heard before. This happens because children deduct rules from the received input rather than only imitating the language being used around them. Thus, when a child is exposed to a language, they, with the aid of LAD, will unconsciously identify what sort of language they are dealing with, and adjust their grammar to the correct one. This linguistic faculty of accommodation is thought to be innate to all human beings. It is placed somewhere in the brain and consists of linguistic universals. Its existence enables children to acquire the grammar of a language to which they are exposed to, and understand the input they receive from the environment.

Social Interactionist Theory

Social interactionist theory is a compromise between the behaviorist and mentalist approaches, and is based on views from both the theories. Acknowledging that the development of language comes from the early interactions between infants and caregivers, the theory takes a social factor into account, including the ideas from the two previous opposing theories.

Social interactionist theory is an approach to language acquisition that stresses the environment, and the context in which the language is acquired. It focuses on pragmatics of language rather than grammar which should come later. In this approach, the beginner speaker and the experienced speaker exist in a negotiated arrangement where feedback is always possible.

Bruner (1978), one of the most known theorists in this arena, gives more significance to pragmatics rather than development of grammar. He suggests that turn taking of a conversation between a caregiver and an infant is necessary for language development. In addition, Snow (1976) theorizes that adults play an important part in child's

language acquisition and suggests *proto-conversations*, which she calls conversational exchanges between the caregiver and the infant.

Therefore, social interactionist theory emphasizes the joint contributions of the linguistic environment and the learner's internal mechanisms in language development. According to this theory, learning results from the interactions between the learner's mental abilities and the linguistic input. This theory gives a fresh idea, which is to a great extent related to social terms, and does not exclude either behaviorist or mentalist views. However, the social interactionist theory is concerned more with pragmatics of the language, unlike Chomsky who gives a greater deal of significance to the development of grammar and Skinner who pays more attention to active linguistic environment.

The social interactionist theory does not neglect the previous theories, but it gives an additional social perspective of language acquisition as a compromise bridge. Even though behaviorist and mentalist theories can be related to the social interactionist theory, the divisions of all three are different whereas social interactionist theory is social constructivist - where the acquisition of language has its roots in the earliest infant-caregiver conversations.

Interlanguage Theories

In his article 'Interlanguage' (1972), Selinker coined the term interlanguage to describe the linguistic stage second language learners go through during the process of acquiring the target language. Since then interlanguage has become a major concept of SLA research studies.

As the name suggests, it is an intermediate or transitional language between the learner's first language and target language. Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985) have defined interlanguage as:

The type of language produced by second-and foreign-language learners who are in the process of learning a language.... Since the language which the learner produces differs from both mother tongue and the target language, it is sometimes called an interlanguage, or it is said to result from the learner's interlanguage system or approximate system. (pp.145-46)

Thus, interlanguage is the interim grammar constructed by second language learners on their way to target language. It is a temporary grammar which is composed of rules. It is also the systematic knowledge of a language which is independent of both the learner's L1 and the target language they are trying to learn.

Many characteristics of SLA have been developed by studies on interlanguage. Studies on interlanguage emphasize the dynamic qualities of language change. As it is the learner's developing second language, it has some characteristics of the learner's native language, second language, and even some characteristics which seem to be

very general and tend to occur in all or most interlanguages. Interlanguages have also some common characteristics with first language acquisition because both share similar developmental and sequential stages. According to research studies carried out by Brown (1973) on child's FLA and Dulay and Burt (1975) on SLA, the findings show remarkable analogous grammatical morpheme developmental stages.

Interlanguage theories play a crucial role in arriving at a decision on how second language learners move from their mother tongue to the second language. To understand the nature of FLA, researchers have tried to explain how children progress from no language to mother tongue. The process is more complicated in SLA as learners already have knowledge of their first language. Therefore, that we cannot talk about the interlanguage of a child, but we can talk about the interlanguage of a second language learner.

Selinker (1972) has pointed out the following five principle processes in interlanguage:

- **Language transfer:** Some of the rules of the interlanguage system may be the result of transfer from the learner's first language.
- **Overgeneralization:** Some of the rules of the interlanguage system may be the result of the overgeneralization of specific rules and features of the target language.
- **Transfer of training:** Some of the components of the interlanguage system may result from transfer of specific elements taught in the second language.
- **Strategies of L2 learning:** Some of the rules in the learner's interlanguage may result from the application of language learning strategies "as a tendency on the part of the learners to reduce the TL [target language] to a simpler system" (Selinker, 1972, p. 219).
- **Strategies of L2 communication:** Interlanguage system rules may also be the result of strategies employed by the learners in their attempt to communicate with native speakers of the target language.

Selinker's description of the interlanguage system has a cognitive emphasis and a focus on the strategies that learners employ when they learn a second language.

The second approach to the theory of interlanguage was adopted by Adjemian (1976) in his attempt to describe the nature of the interlanguage systems. Adjemian argues that interlanguages are natural languages, but they are unique in sense that their grammar is permeable. He also differentiates between the learning strategies that learners employ and the linguistic rules that are "crucially concerned in the actual form of the language system" (Adjemian, 1976, p.302). Adjemian concludes that the description of these linguistic rules, that reveal the properties of the learner's grammar, should be the primary goal of linguistic research.

The third approach with regard to the influence of mother language was investigated by Zobl. The role of the 'mother tongue' in the acquisition of the target language was re-examined under the scope of interlanguage theories and predictions were made about the influence of first language. Zobl (1980a, 1980b) investigated the first language influence on second language acquisition and argued that it is "the formal features of second language that control the formal aspects of its acquisition, including the activation of L1 transfer" (Zobl, 1980a, p.54).

The fourth approach to the description of interlanguage was initiated by Tarone (1982). She describes interlanguage as a continuum of speech styles. Learners shift between styles according to the amount of attention they pay to language form - from the super ordinate style in which attention is mainly focused on language form to the vernacular style in which the least attention is paid. The new target language forms first appear in more careful style, and progressively move toward the vernacular style. The systematic variability of interlanguage systems is reflected in the variable effects which the different tasks and different linguistic contexts have on the learners' use of syntactic, phonological, and morphological structures. Even though Tarone does not deny that other theories can provide explanations of second language acquisition, she argues that "any adequate model of SLA must take IL [interlanguage] variation into account" (Tarone, 1990, p.398).

Finally, different approaches were employed for explaining the acquisition of interlanguage and how learners discover and organize form-function relationships in a second language. Ellis (1985) argues that learners begin with forms which are used in free variation during the early stages of SLA (i.e. non-systematic variability) until more organizing and restructuring has taken place (i.e. systematic variability). In contrast to Ellis's claim, the functional approach to the analysis of interlanguage describe that discourse functions develop before grammatical functions, and evidence is provided by the acquisition of function occurring without the acquisition of form (Pfaff, 1987).

The above approaches to the study of interlanguage agree on three basic characteristics of interlanguage systems: interlanguages are *permeable*, *dynamic*, and *systematic*. The L2 learner's interlanguage systems are 'permeable' in sense that rules that constitute the learner's knowledge at any stage are not fixed, but they are open to amendment as the learner goes on developing the target language system.

They are also 'dynamic' because they go on changing constantly until the target language system is fully acquired. However, they do not jump from one stage to the next - rather they revise the interim systems slowly to accommodate new hypotheses about target language system. Morpheme studies, for instance, were employed to describe the systematic function of interlanguage systems. They also show various stages of interlanguage development until the target form is acquired.

Finally, they are ‘systematic’ in sense of learning strategies that the learners employ or linguistic rules that govern the learners’ grammar. Thus, it is possible to detect the rule-based nature of the learners’ use of the L2 (second language) system. They do not select haphazardly from the repertoire of interlanguage rules, but in predictable ways. They base their performance plans with the existing rule system in much the same way as native speakers base their plans with their internalized knowledge of the L1 system. Therefore, the guiding mechanism of these approaches is also common: interlanguage is seen as a kind of interim grammar gradually progressing toward the target language grammar.

FLA Theories and Interlanguage Theories - Directions to SLA

Each theory offers FLA from a distinctive perspective, and all the theories provide some fresh ‘insights’ into the psychology of language learning. Although they are molded from different standpoints, they explain possible language learning mechanisms. Recently, psychological research studies have regarded human beings as a mixture of genetically determined capabilities and knowledge gained by experience. It might be possible that children require a biological trigger for language acquisition, but this biological trigger cannot be activated if there is nobody around them, e.g. language acquisition requires situational stimuli and LAD. Therefore, the two main theories of FLA should be seen as complementary - rather than contradictory - for a broad understanding of how language acquisition takes place.

In addition, it is interesting to postulate the fact that FLA theories lead to ‘insights’ into SLA, and some SLA theories have been based on L1 theories and interlanguage theories. That is, Schumann’s Acculturation Theory (1978) is partly based on Behaviorist Theory of FLA, and Krashen’s Monitor Model of SLA is based on Mentalist Theory of FLA. The correlation between FLA theories and interlanguage theories leads to the foundation of SLA research studies where interlanguage is an intermediate language between FLA and SLA. Furthermore, SLA studies follow sequential developments of FLA theories and interlanguage theories. It is needless to say that language teaching anticipates certain theories on language learning because language learning is a fruitful area that embodies the working of human behavior and mental processes of the learners. Although each theory may not be a complete model for investigation of language acquisition, each of them offers a unique perspective of language acquisition.

Interlanguage is a theoretical construct which underlies the attempts of SLA researchers to identify the stages of development through which L2 learners pass on their way to L2 (or near L2) proficiency. The research studies indicated that there are strong similarities in the developmental route followed by different L2 learners. As a result, it was suggested that SLA follows a ‘universal’ route that is largely uninfluenced by such factors as age of the learners, the context in which learning takes place, or the learners L1 background. According to this view of SLA, the controlling factor is the faculty for language that all human beings possess and that is

responsible for FLA. Therefore, researchers have sought to answer to what extent the order of development in SLA parallels to that of FLA. The fact that SLA equals FLA hypothesis has been a recurrent issue in subsequent SLA research studies.

Conclusion

In summary, behaviorism was the prevailing psychological theory of the 1950s and 1960s. It was developed according to experiments on animals when behaviorists noticed that animals could perform different tasks by encouraging habit formation. Behaviorist Theory of FLA, on the other hand, is based on the premise that language behavior consists of producing appropriate responses to correct stimuli. The stimuli and responses are correlated, and the link between them becomes habitual as a result of positive reinforcement. In contrast, Chomsky's mentalist proposition theorizes that the child from birth is exposed to language that functions as a trigger for the activation of LAD. The LAD has the mental capability to formulate hypotheses about the structure of the language a child is exposed to, and the child is unconscious about all this process. While social interactionist theory bridges the gap between the above two viewing social interaction (to some extent similar to behaviorism), as exposure, as a triggering input for the activation of LAD. Finally, Selinker's (1972) paper on interlanguage was seminal in directing a smooth transition from FLA to SLA studies. It has brought forth some relevant issues and directed studies from FLA research studies to SLA. Yet, all of these theories are involved with some forms of mechanism - either language acquisition support system-directed, language acquisition device-directed, or child-directed speech.

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*L2 Acquisition of Reference Time of Epistemic Modality in English
by L1 Thai Speaking Children*

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Abstract

This paper reports the results of an experimental study which aimed to test whether L2 children have acquired the syntactic patterns which indicate the reference time of the epistemic modal complements in English. It was hypothesized along with the Full Transfer/Full Access position (Schwartz and Sprouse 1996) that the Thai L2 learners of English would start off with their L2 knowledge, and later develop a target-like grammar by accommodation of UG.

A truth value judgment task was designed to trace the L2 learners' temporal interpretations of the modal statements. The participants were asked to judge whether a certain modal statement is OK or NOT in felicitous and infelicitous contexts. The L2 learners were classified according to their L2 proficiency levels: high, mid, low. The results of the experiment show that the L2 children particularly from low proficiency groups allowed interpretations which are not possible for the modal statements in English, but whose counterparts are possible in Thai. This suggests that the initial state of the L2 learner's interlanguage is based on L1 knowledge. However, since the L2 children provide a relatively small number of the target-like interpretations, we are not able to argue for evidence of access to UG in L2 acquisition in this study.

In addition, the findings from the experiment lead to speculation about what meaning elements need to be acquired prior to others in order for the L2 learners to be able to express the meaning which results from interaction between modal meanings and aspect. The knowledge about tense and aspect may pre-determine the knowledge about the reference time of the modal statements or vice versa. If this is the case, the L2 children may not acquire certain properties if they have not yet acquired the others. This is an open area for further research.

Key words: *epistemic modality, child L2 acquisition, adult L2 acquisition, the poverty of stimulus, L1 transfer*

1. Introduction

The fact that L2 learners appear to acquire the complex and subtle properties of language which could not be induced from L2 input has led researchers in the area of second language acquisition, under Generative Approach, to the argument that L2 grammar, like L1, is constrained by UG. Nonetheless, the extents to which UG and L1 knowledge facilitate L2 acquisition are debatable.

Apart from the issue of the role of UG in L2 acquisition, the role of L1 has always been of interest among the researchers. In learning second language acquisition (L2), the learners, as generally accepted, tend to rely on their native language (L1) because they come to the task of second language acquisition with their L1 knowledge, which is constrained by UG. As a result, L1 properties may be transferred and observed in their interlanguage.

The roles of UG and L1 in SLA are always controversial. As a result, three basic positions concerning the accessibility of UG as well as the involvement of L1 knowledge have been proposed i.e. *Direct Access*, *Indirect Access*, *No Access*. The next section discusses these three positions.

1.1 No Access

No Access to UG hypothesis has always been associated with Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) by Lenneberg (1967): the acquisition of a language is not possible after puberty, in its strong version, because parts of the brain which function for language acquisition no longer operate. An implication of this argument is that the innate properties i.e. UG, is not available to L2 adult learners. As a result L2 adult learners seek for alternative means i.e. general problem-solving for language learning (Clahsen and Muysken 1986).

Similarly, in the strong version of *No Access* position, it is claimed that, during the course of SLA, UG which is available for L1 acquirers, is no longer accessible to L2 learners. The unused parameters values are pruned. The evidence which the proponents of this position use in formulating the hypothesis are the differences between child L1 and adult L2 acquisition such as the variation of the L2 adult learners' ultimate attainment. Given that the UG, which is a system of principles that constrain L1 grammar, inevitably guarantees success in first language acquisition, L2 adults should master the L2 competence in the same way as in their L1 acquisition if the L2 learners appear to have access to UG (Scharchter 1988: 221). The L2 adult learners should not fail to achieve the complete state of L2 grammar.

If the No Access to UG hypothesis, particularly its weak version, holds for adult L2 acquisition, then the adults' L2 knowledge would be limited to the properties that are only instantiated in their L1, and they can not go beyond UG-based knowledge which is not available in their L1 grammar. This hypothesis seems to be flawed since some recent research (c.f. Kanno 1998, Dekydsporter 2001, Slabakova 2001, Marden 2005) on L2 acquisition reports that adult learners are able to develop UG-parameter values

which can not be induced from their L1 grammar. This therefore suggests that adult learners have access to UG.

1.2 Direct Access

This position is sometimes referred to as *Full Access (without Transfer)*. According to this position, as suggested by its label, L2 learners have direct access to UG, and employ the principles of UG in setting parameter values in their second language. The proponents of this position argue that the initial state of interlanguage is not L1 grammar, but UG. They deny the role of L1 properties in L2 acquisition. That is, the parameter values in L1 do not affect the course of L2 acquisition because the L2 learners have parallel competence: L1 competence (S_s) and L2 competence (S_t) (Cook and Newson 1996: 291).

Flynn (1987, 1989, 1996) and Flynn and Martohardjono (1994) argue that L2 learners use principles and parameters isolated in L1 acquisition to construct L2 grammar. At the early stage of L2 acquisition, L2 learners recognize a match or a mismatch of parameter settings in L1 and L2. If the settings between the two languages match, the learners do not assign a new value to the parameters. On the other hand, if a mismatch is observed, a new value will be assigned by the facilitation of UG.

Epstein et al. (1996; 1998) argue against the partial-access hypothesis, the weak version of No Access to UG position, that L2 learners have full access to UG. There are new parameter settings in L2 acquisition. Parameter resetting is not possible since the parameter values in L1 are fixed, and cannot be reset (Epstein et al. 1996: 686). The results from Martohardjono's (1993) study of the acquisition of *wh*-movement in English by non-native speakers of English were assumed to confirm the new parameter settings in L2 acquisition.

In her study, Martohardjono (1993) tested the L2 learners's L2 knowledge of UG principles governing syntactic movement i.e. *wh*-question movement in English. The subjects, including speakers of Chinese, Indonesian and Italian were asked to judge the grammaticality of sentences. Martohardjono found the same patterns in the subjects' responses across L2 groups. That is, regardless of whether *wh*-question movement is instantiated in the subjects' L1 or not, the subjects tend to reject the sentences which violate the UG principles. Given that the corresponding sentences e.g. *wh*-question-*in-situ* in Chinese and Indonesian are grammatical, the Chinese and Indonesian speakers' L2 knowledge of ungrammaticality therefore cannot be derived from their L1. Martohardjono's view is that the source of this kind of knowledge must be UG principles (1993).

Although the results of the two studies appear to confirm the prediction of the Direct Access position, they are questionable. As Slabakova (2001: 14) points out, the subjects in the studies were not beginners of English. Accordingly, they did not demonstrate the initial state of the L2 acquisition. This, therefore, cannot disprove the role of L1 knowledge at the initial state of L2 acquisition, which is a fundamental conceptual of Indirect Access to UG hypothesis.

1.3 Indirect Access

This position acknowledges the role of L1 and UG in L2 acquisition. The proponents of this position argue that the initial state of L2 acquisition is L1 grammar. That is, L2 learners start off with their L1 grammar. They adopt L1 parameter values they have in dealing with L2 input. As a result, L1 properties can be observed in L2 learners' interlanguage. If the L1 grammar fails to accommodate the L2 grammar, 'restructuring' or 'parameter resetting' may occur (White 2003: 61). The L2 grammar is then constrained by UG.

Schwartz and Sprouse (1996) proposed the Full Transfer Full Access Model based on their findings from a longitudinal study of the acquisition of German word order and nominative case by a Turkish-speaking child in 1994. Schwartz and Sprouse argue that the initial state of the L2 acquisition is the entirety of L1 knowledge, which is constrained by UG – with the exception of the phonetic matrices of lexical/morphological items. Subsequently, if the learners fail to assign the L1 existing parameter values to an L2 parameter, there will be 'restructuring' or 'parameter resetting' by the apparatus of UG (Schwartz and Sprouse 1996: 40-41).

Schwartz and Sprouse (1996: 42) additionally argue that although the L2 development is guided by UG, which constrains L1 grammar, the final state of L2 acquisition will not necessarily resemble the final state of L1 acquisition, because of the lack of input necessary for restructuring e.g. negative evidence, or the obscurity or scarcity of the positive evidence. Nevertheless, the cognitive processes underlying L1 and L2 acquisition do not necessarily differ. The course that L2 development takes is determined, in part, by the initial state, in part by input, in part by the apparatus of UG, and in part by learnability consideration (Schwartz and Sprouse 1996: 41).

Acknowledging the importance the issues of UG and L1 in L2 acquisition, an experimental study was conducted to investigate the L2 acquisition of modality in English by Thai-speaking children and adults. It is hypothesized along with the Full Transfer full Access position that the Thai L2 learners of English will start off with their L2 knowledge. Specifically, the Thai L2 learners with low proficiency will allow L1 interpretations which are not possible for certain modal statements in English because they do not know that reference times of modal complements are constrained by certain syntactic patterns. This will be reflected in inaccurate acceptance when the modal statements are presented in temporally infelicitous conditions.

It is also hypothesized that an L2 learner will have access to UG if (s)he demonstrate the knowledge about the syntactic patterns that constrain the reference time of the modal complement. That is, the L2 learner has to consistently accurately accept the modal statements when they are presented in felicitous conditions and accurately reject the modal statements when they are presented in infelicitous conditions. The rate of the accuracy will increase with proficiency levels.

2. Modality: basic concept

Modal expressions are widely recognized to communicate two broad clusters of meanings: epistemic and deontic. Apart from these two clusters of modality, a third type of modality is often proposed, namely, dynamic modality.

Epistemic modality is concerned with speakers' assumption or assessment of possibilities. It indicates the degree of the speaker's confidence e.g. high or less, in the truth of the proposition expressed (Coates 1983: 18). In other words, it concerns an estimation of the likelihood that a certain state of affairs under consideration will occur, is occurring, or has occurred in the possible worlds (Nuyts 2001: 21).

Deontic is also known as 'Directives', where we try to get others to do things. This type of modality is concerned with necessity, un-necessity, obligation, prohibition, and permission (Palmer 2001:7).

Dynamic modality involves ability, intention, and willingness (Palmer, 1990, Hoyer 1997).

- (1) She *must* be John's daughter. (epistemic)
- (2) He *must* finish his homework. (deontic)
- (3) Tom *can* run very fast. (dynamic)

2.1 Epistemic modality in English

The set of epistemic modal auxiliaries in English includes *may*, *might*, *must*, *will*, *should*, *would*, and *could*. It is generally agreed that modal verbs in English share some formal features with other auxiliaries, such as occurrence with negation, inversion, code, and emphatic affirmation. These features are known as NICE properties (Huddleston 1976). In addition, Jackendoff (1977) points out that an auxiliary generally take verb expressions as their complement.

In English, reference time of the modal complement is sensitive to the situational aspect of verb in the complements (Demirdarce, and Uribe-Etxebarria 2008: 92). In other words, present or future reading of a non-finite verbal complement is determined by the situational aspect or certain types of verbs in the complement, but not temporal adverbials. For example when the verbal complement of an epistemic modal is a stative predicate, which has imperfective aspect, the reference time of the situation can be construed as either present or future as in (4).

- (4) Amina may/might/could/should be in Ottawa (now/tomorrow)
(Demirdarce, and Uribe-Etxebarria 2008: 92)

I shall call such linguistic structures '*syntactic patterns*' that indicate the reference time of the modal complement. The combination of a certain modal and a certain type of verbal complement in this case yields a certain reference time of the modal complement. It cannot be derived from either the modal or the verbal complement itself. In other words, the reference time of the modal complement results from the interplay between inherent semantic properties and aspectual properties of the verbal complement.

2.2 epistemic modality in Thai

Linguistic forms in Thai which are often treated as equivalent forms of epistemic modal auxiliaries in English include ..^3 , $\text{>}\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^2$, $\text{h}\text{o}\text{.}^1$, $\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^3$ $\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^2$ and ..^3 $\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^2$. (Kullayavajjya 1968; Panupong 1970; Sookgasem 1990). In addition, Savetamalya (1987), Indrambarya (1998), Rangkupan (2005) agree that the so-called ‘preverbal modals’ take non-finite verbs as their complements.

Unlike English, the reference time of the modal complement in Thai is unpredictable regardless of the types or the lexical aspect of the verb. The reference time of the modal complement in Thai is indicated by the temporal adverbial, or the context, as shown below.

- (5) a. $\text{O}\text{:}\text{.}\text{.}^1\text{>}\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^2$ pen¹ wat²
 Dang may/might be cold
 ‘Dang may have a cold (now, yesterday, tomorrow)’
- b. $\text{O}\text{:}\text{.}\text{.}^1\text{>}\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^2$ pen¹ wat²
 $\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^3\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^2/\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^1\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^4$
 Dang may/might be cold yesterday
 ‘Dang may have had a cold yesterday’
- c. $\text{O}\text{:}\text{.}\text{.}^1$ $\text{>}\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^2$ maa¹ saaj⁵ pru.³ $\text{H}\text{H}\text{H}\text{..}^4$
 Dang may/might come late tomorrow
 ‘Dang may may/might come late tomorrow’

We can notice that no matter what the lexical aspect of the modal complement is e.g. either imperfective as in (5a), the reference time of the modal complement can be the present, past or future. However, in (5b) and (5c) the reference time of the modal complements can only be past and future respectively due to the presence of the temporal adverbs.

The syntactic structures in question are presumed to make difficulties for native speakers of Thai in acquiring the epistemic modal auxiliaries in English. We have seen that the reference time of the modal complements in Thai is indicated by temporal adverbials, and can be derived from the context. In general terms, Thai L2 learners of English have to acquire the L2 properties which are not present in their L1. In order for Thai L2 learners of English to express correct reference time of the modal complements, they need to acquire those kinds of syntactic structures. In other words, they need to work out what reference time is or is not allowed for certain structures.

3. Research questions

With reference to the differences with respect to the reference time of the modal complements between English and Thai, the questions addressed in the experimental study are as follows.

- (1) Do L2 English acquisition patterns show L1 properties with regard to reference time of modal complements?*
- (2) Can the Thai L2 learners of English acquire the syntactic patterns that indicate the reference time of modal complements?*
- (3) If the Thai children appear to acquire those syntactic patterns, the next question is, which patterns are acquired early and which patterns are acquired late i.e. by the L2 children with high proficiency?*

4. Methodology

4.1 The participants

4.1.1 The control group

17 native speakers of English, aged between 18 – 30 years old were selected as the control group. There were 6 male and 11 female undergraduate and postgraduate students from the University of Leeds. The main purpose of conducting the test with the adult native speakers was to provide a benchmark of target responses for comparison.

4.1.2 L2 children

The L2 children group consisted of 30 Thai-speaking children from Thai monolingual families. They were year 3 and year 4 students who were studying in an English programme at a primary school in Thailand, where English was used as a medium language. They started learning English as a second language at the age of 4. There were 14 female and 16 male children. The children's age at the time of testing ranged from 8 to 10. The age at first exposure was between 5 and 6. The length of their exposure to the target language was between 2 and 5 years.

The L2 children were divided into three subgroups according to their L2 proficiency levels: high, mid, and low. A picture description task adopted from Whong-Barr and Schwartz (2002) and Unsworth (2005) was used to elicit the L2 data. There are 8 children in the high proficiency group, 8 in the mid proficiency group, and 9 in the low proficiency group. The participants of the high proficiency groups have a score of 60% or above. The participants of the mid proficiency groups have scores ranged between 45% - 59%, and participants in the low proficiency category have a score below 45%. The participants who had a score below 20% were not assigned a proficiency level.

4.2 The task

The task consisted of sixteen modal sentences with different syntactic patterns. All test sentences were presented to the participants under three conditions: Present Condition, Future Condition, and Past Condition. So, there were forty-eight test items altogether. Each condition consists of scenarios which have been designed to force

certain temporal interpretations (e.g. present, future, and past) of the test sentences.
Examples:

Present Condition

Story: Ben has a bad cold. He did not come to school today.
Prompt: Where do you think Ben is now?
Correct Interpretation: Ben might be at home.

Future Condition

Story: Ben was not feeling well after school. He will not come to school tomorrow.
Prompt: Where do you think Ben will be tomorrow?
Correct Interpretation: Ben might be at home.

PAST Condition

Story: Ben had a bad cold yesterday. He did not come to school.
Prompt: Where do you think Ben was yesterday?
Incorrect Interpretation: Ben might be at home.

The logo for the International Association for Foreign Language Research (iafor) is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially enclosed by a large, light blue circular brushstroke that starts from the bottom left and curves around the right side. A red brushstroke also curves around the top and left sides of the logo area.

Table 1: The test sentences and the target-like responses

Test Sentences	Condition		
	Present (A)	Future (B)	Past (C)
Ben might be at home.	OK	OK	NOT OK
Ben may like the chocolate.	OK	OK	NOT OK
Ben may play football.	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK
He might study math.	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK
The teacher must be angry.	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK
Ben must know the answer.	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK
Jerry will be late.	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK
Ben will miss the bus.	NOT OK	OK	NOT OK
Ben may be playing football.	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK
He might be studying math.	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK
He must be going to the party.	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK
Ben must be cooking the dinner.	OK	NOT OK	NOT OK
Ben might have been at home.	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK
Ben must have cooked the dinner.	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK
Ben's bedroom will have been messy.	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK
Ben will have missed the bus.	NOT OK	NOT OK	OK

The first column shows the test sentences/modal statements. The mark 'OK' represents the reference time which are possible for the sentences, and the mark 'NOT OK' represents the reference time which are not possible for the sentences. Notice that sentence '*Ben might be at home*' and sentence '*Ben may like the chocolate*' allow both present and future interpretations. Therefore, the responses for these two sentences were counted twice i.e. one for present category and another for future category.

4.3 The procedure

The experiment began with a warm-up session to familiarize the participants with the task and to check whether or not they understand the task. The warm-up session consisted of 5 short stories, which were different from the real task. The participants were asked to judge whether sentences sounds OK or NOT OK based on the stories or scenarios provided. The participants who have developed a target-like grammar were expected to say the sentence is 'OK' when the sentences were presented under the right conditions, or when the reference time of the modal statements is felicitous to the reference time of the scenarios. They were also expected to accurately reject or say the sentence is 'NOT OK', if they found the sentences not temporally felicitous to the scenarios.

5. The results

5.1 Control group's results

There were several test sentences which many of the native speakers accepted/rejected as the researcher expected in some conditions, and there were also several test sentences which many of the native speakers did not accept/reject. These results suggest that the temporal interpretations of these test sentences are more variable than assumed.

Since the results of the test performed by the adult native speakers show that the temporal interpretation of some test sentences are more variable than assumed, I decided to put aside the test items and the conditions in which the adult native speakers did not provide the expected responses. I considered the responses provided by the L2 children and the L2 adults for these sentences separately. These items are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: The test sentences for which the adult native speakers did not provide the responses as expected

The test sentences	Conditions
Ben must know the answer.	Present
Ben may be playing football.	Future
He must be going to the party.	Present, Future
Jerry will be late.	Present
Ben will miss the bus.	Present
Ben may like the chocolate.	Present

5.2 L2 children's results

5.2.1 L2 child results per proficiency group

Surprisingly, the L2 children from the high proficiency level did not perform consistently better than did the L2 children from the low proficiency group. They provided a higher percentage of the accurate rejection responses than did the L2 children from the low proficiency group only for the future modal statements. In addition, the L2 children from the low proficiency group provided a higher percentage of the accurate rejection responses than did the L2 children from the high proficiency group for the present modal statements. Given that this surprising data could result

from unusual performance of an individual child, I decided to closely look at the individual child's responses for the modal statements in which the L2 children did not provide the responses as expected, and I found that the L2 children with the same proficiency level did not obviously perform differently from each other. Therefore, it was possible that the L2 children's knowledge about the syntactic patterns indicating the present reference time lagged behind the L2 children from the mid and the low proficiency groups.

Table 3: The L2 child results per proficiency group: the responses for the modal statements which have different reference time

The syntactic patterns	Groups	Accurate rejection		Accurate acceptance		Inaccurate acceptance		Inaccurate rejection	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Future	High	21/64	32.81	42/56	75.00	43/64	67.19	14/56	25
	Mid	16/64	25.00	45/56	80.36	48/64	75.00	11/56	19.64
	Low	20/72	27.78	49/63	77.78	52/72	72.22	14/63	22.22
Past	High	24/64	37.50	26/32	81.25	40/64	62.20	6/32	18/75
	Mid	15/64	23.44	18/32	56.25	49/64	76.56	14/32	43.75
	Low	27/72	37.50	26/36	72.22	45/72	62.5	10/36	27.78
Present	High	29/96	30.21	43/56	79.76	67/96	69.79	13/56	23.21
	Mid	32/96	33.33	42/56	75.00	64/96	66.67	14/56	25
	Low	36/108	33.33	54/72	85.71	72/108	66.67	9/72	14.29

Besides, in regard to the inaccurate acceptance responses, the L2 children from the high proficiency group provided the inaccurate acceptance responses for the present modal statements more than did the L2 children from the low proficiency group.

As for the L2 children from the mid proficiency level, they generally did not perform better than the L2 children from the low proficiency group for the future and the past modal statements.

The percentage of the responses provided by the L2 children from the three proficiency groups was compared, using Kruskal Wallis Test by split file by group. The purpose of the test was to check whether or not the L2 children from the three proficiency groups behaved significantly regarding the types of the responses and the conditions. The results of the test show that the percentage of the responses provided by the L2 children from the three proficiency groups was not significantly different in every condition. This confirms that there was no connection between the L2 children's performance and their L2 proficiency. In other words, regardless of L2 proficiency levels, the L2 children's performance was not significantly different.

5.2.2 L2 child individual results

The individual L2 children's results in Table 4 show that majority of the L2 children have not acquired the syntactic patterns indicating the reference time of the modal complement. There was a small number of L2 children who appear to have acquired some syntactic patterns. Also, it can be noted that the L2 children who appear to have

acquired some of the syntactic patterns were from different proficiency groups. These results suggest no connection between L2 proficiency and performance.

Table 4: The L2 child individual results: the successfully acquired modal statements

The participants	Proficiency levels	Types of modals statements			
		Present n = 4	Future n = 3	Past n = 4	Total n = 11
L2CHI04	M	1	2	1	4
L2CHI06	H	1		2	3
L2CHI07	H	1		2	3
L2CHI15	M	1		1	2
L2CHI05	L	1	1		2
L2CHI13*		1	1		2
L2CHI20	H			1	1
L2CHI18	M			1	1
L2CHI25	L			1	1
L2CHI17	L		1		1
L2CHI03	L		1		1
L2CHI11*		1			1
L2CHI27	H				
L2CHI16	H				
L2CHI29	H				
L2CHI19	H				
L2CHI22	H				
L2CHI24	M				
L2CHI01	M				
L2CHI30	M				
L2CHI28	M				
L2CHI10	M				
L2CHI09	L				
L2CHI14	L				
L2CHI21	L				
L2CHI02	L				
L2CHI08	L				
L2CHI23*					
L2CHI12*					
L2CHI26*					
Total		7/120	6/90	9/120	
%		5.83	6.66	7.5	

* The L2 children whom were not assigned proficiency level because their proficiency scores were very low.

6. Discussion

Now we turn to our original research questions. The first question is concerned with the issue of the L1 transfer, while the second question is related to the issue of the poverty of the stimulus. The third question addresses the acquisition order.

6.1 *Do L2 English acquisition patterns show L1 properties with regard to reference time of modal complements?*

The answer to this question is 'YES'. The L1 interpretation has been observed in the L2 participants' interpretation of the modal statements in English. The evidence that supports this claim is the percentage of the target-like L1-compatible responses and percentage of the non-target L1-compatible or L1-transfer responses given by the L2 children. Given that L1 interpretations which are possible both for the modal statements in English and their counterparts in Thai entail the accurate acceptance when the English modal statement were presented in felicitous conditions, the inaccurate acceptance for the modal statements in the infelicitous conditions, on the other hand, was evidence for L1 knowledge involvement.

In addition to L1 transfer in conditions that are licit in English, both L2 children allowed interpretations which are not possible for the modal statements in English, but are possible for whose counterparts in Thai. For example, they accepted the sentence '*He might study math*' to be OK even when it was presented in Present and Past conditions. Therefore, we are able to conclude that there was L1 transfer in child L2 acquisition.

6.2 *Can the Thai children acquire the syntactic patterns that constrain the reference time of modal complements in English?*

According to the L2 child individual results, it seems that the L2 children have not acquired the syntactic patterns that constrain the reference time of the modal complements in English. On the other hand, the L2 children's knowledge about the syntactic patterns and the reference time are rudimentarily developing. Although the L2 child group and individual results show that the L2 children provided the target-like L1-compatible responses for the modal statements in the right conditions, this does not show that the L2 children know the reference time of the modal statements. They just accepted the test sentences to be OK without knowing that those test sentences have the same temporal interpretation as their counterpart in Thai.

In addition, we have seen that the L2 children's percentage of the target-like L1-incompatible responses e.g. the correct rejection, which reflect pure L2 knowledge about the reference time of the modal complements, is very low. The L2 children were not able to reject the modal statements when the modal statements were presented in infelicitous conditions. In other words, they did not know what interpretations are not possible for the certain syntactic patterns.

A promising explanation for such findings is to do with the cognitive factors or real world experience. It is possible that cognitive ability and real world experience play a part in the acquisition of the epistemic modality. Previous research on L1 acquisition of the epistemic modality reveals that epistemic modality is acquired late. Even for a child native speaker of English, the signs of an adult-like understanding of the logical meaning of the epistemic modals may not appear until the children are seven years old (cf. Shields 1974; Byrnes and Duff 1989; Noveck, Ho, & Sera 1996). For these reasons, it might not be very surprising to see that the L1 children (aged between 8

and 9) in the current study appear to have acquired only a few of the syntactic patterns because their relevant knowledge is not fully developed. Rather, it is in the early stages.

The task of the acquisition for Thai children must be even more difficult. The Thai children have to acquire the knowledge about the epistemic modality in Thai and English at the same time. We have seen that the means for expressing the reference time of the epistemic modal complements in Thai is different from English. The acquired L1 knowledge in this case cannot entirely accommodate the acquisition of the L2 knowledge.

6.3 Which patterns are acquired early or which patterns are acquired late?

The L2 child results per proficiency group have shown that the L2 children's knowledge about the syntactic patterns which indicate the reference time of the modal complement is rather rudimentary. In addition, the L2 child results per proficiency groups show no clear evidence in support the early or late acquisition of a certain syntactic pattern. Nonetheless, in terms of syntactic patterns, the L2 child individual results showed an interesting trend. That is, L2 children were likely to have acquired the past modal statements e.g. '*Ben might have been at home*' and '*Ben must have cooked the dinner*' prior to the other patterns.

My speculation about this L2 children's acquisition order is that the modal statements '*Ben might have been at home*' and '*Ben must have cooked the dinner*' have the syntactic pattern which consists of morphological markers i.e. HAVE -EN. It might be easier for the children to acquire the temporal meaning which is morphologically marked. The L2 children may look for explicit markers for signaling the temporal meaning.

On the other hand, the future modal statements (e.g. '*Ben may play football*', and '*Ben might study math*'), which have the syntactic pattern MAY/MIGHT AN EVENTIVE VERB, do not contain any morphological markers. In other words, the temporal meaning is implicitly marked. This syntactic pattern is therefore more difficult for the L2 children to acquire.

7. Conclusion and Evidence for Full Transfer Full Access Hypothesis

The L2 results obtained from the experiment show that L1 properties (e.g. L1 interpretations) were observed in child L2 acquisition. Given that the L2 participants with different L2 proficiency levels were assumed to be representatives of L2 acquirers at different developmental stages, the L2 participants with lower proficiency were then assumed to be in the early stages, while the L2 participants with high proficiency were assumed to be in the later stages. Accordingly, the very high percentage of the target-like L1-compatible responses and the very high percentage of the non-target with L1 or L1-transfer responses provided by the L2 participants with low proficiency, suggested a full transfer of L1 properties at the early stage of the acquisition, hence the initial state of the interlanguage. The L2 participants with mid

and high proficiency, on the other hand, provided a comparatively smaller percentage of the target-like L1-compatible responses and of the non-target with L1 or L1-transfer responses. This suggested that the rate of L1 transfer tentatively decreased as the L2 proficiency accelerated.

The L2 child results show that none of these L2 children in the current study had acquired the syntactic patterns that constrain the reference time of the modal complements in English. Therefore, we are not able to argue for evidence of access to UG in child L2 acquisition in this study. Given that the reference time of the modal complement results from the combination of a certain epistemic modal and a certain type of verb, it is possible that an L2 child will not acquire the reference time of the modal complements until their knowledge about these two linguistic realms is fully developed.

It is possible that UG is not directly involved in the acquisition of the reference time of the modal complements. Rather, it constrains the acquisition of the two linguistic realms which mutually constitutes the reference time of the modal complements. This might be the way in which UG involves in the L2 acquisition of the syntactic patterns. As we do not obtain evidence of access to UG in child L2 acquisition, it is also possible to acknowledge the role of general cognitive ability. In other words, the reference time could be a general cognitive property, but not to do with UG at all. The children's cognitive ability required for the acquisition of the reference time of modal statements may not be fully developed. Consequently, the L2 children have not acquired the syntactic patterns that indicate the reference time of the modal complement.

Moreover, we have seen that the L1 interpretations were observed in the data of the L2 children with lower proficiency levels, this is therefore counter evidence for Direct Access to UG position, which deny the role of the L1 knowledge in L2 acquisition. By and large the findings of the current research support the Full Transfer/Full Access Hypothesis.

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*Does Deeper Processing Lead to a Better Recall Result?--- A Study on Second
Language Vocabulary Learning*

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Abstract

This study surveyed Chinese EFL learners about what activities they do after class to enhance the memorization of English vocabulary. Based on the survey responses and the framework of levels of processing (Craik and Lockhart, 1972), three tasks were designed to induce different levels of processing of a word list. Task 1 was a phonological processing task; Task 2 a semantic processing task with oral production of sentences; and Task 3 a semantic processing task with written production of sentences. Participants of three tasks were instructed to process a word list of 15 English words and then conduct an immediate free recall task. The results showed that more elaborative processing leads to a slightly better immediate free recall results. There was no statistically difference between recall results of three tasks. There was a modality difference in the recall results: Oral production task produced slightly higher recall results than written production task. Syllable-based word effect, primacy and recency effects were observed in the results. Grammaticality of sentences produced in both semantic processing tasks is not an indicator for recall results.

Keywords: levels of processing, phonological processing; semantic processing; second language vocabulary learning

INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary learning has been an important task for Chinese EFL learners. This study surveyed 19 Chinese EFL learners about what vocabulary learning activities they do to enhance their memorization of English vocabulary. Based on the survey results and the levels of processing framework (Craik and Lockhart, 1972), three tasks were designed and conducted to induce phonological and semantic processing of a word list. 45 Chinese EFL learners participated in the tasks; the immediate free recall tasks were conducted after each task, and the results were recorded and analyzed.

BACKGROUND

Memory system has been examined from different perspectives. Memory is viewed as storages in which information travels from one store to another (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968). The storage view of memory system proposes that information gets registered in sensory memory, then those selected pieces travel into short-term memory and then collaboratively, the information is processed with the knowledge/information extracted from short-term and long-term memories. The distinction between memory storages mainly depends on the duration that information can stay in the specific memory storage and the capacity of those storages. However, researchers are not satisfied with this storage view of memory system.

Tulving (1985:386) proposed that memory is composed of multi-systems (procedural, semantic and episodic systems) with an emphasis on the correlated processes between these systems. In Tulving's view, different memory systems are not distinguished by the duration or capacity to hold information. Instead, Tulving (1985) argued that these memory systems are different in the way how knowledge is acquired and how knowledge is represented (387). This classification is different from Ackinson and Shiffrin's in that this ternary view of memory system looks at the inner organization of the memory system but not at its functional aspects (e.g., duration and capacity).

Craik and Lockhart (1972) put forward the "levels of processing" as a framework of human memory system, proposing that memory system is a dynamic system. The

“levels of processing” view regards memory traces as a byproduct of encoding process. They argued that more in-depth processing leads to stronger memory traces; therefore, a better memory results. Craik and Lockhart (1972) argued that memory does not have to be a store-based system and they emphasized that it is the encoding process that accounts for ‘memorization’.

Craik and Lockhart’s (1972) proposal of levels of processing has been criticized due to insufficient explanation on the index of “levels” (Baddeley, 1978; Craik, 2002; Laufer and Hulstijn, 2001). Craik (2002:309) discussed the issue of index and argued that elaboration on the information (meaningfulness) should be considered as the index of “depth of level”. Though he did not provide a detailed report on how to measure meaningfulness, it has been generally agreed by the researchers that elaboration on the target information does help enhance the memory result (either in the way of integrating new information to the knowledge in the memory or in helping building up the access route for the target information) (Frase, 1975; Eysenck, 1982; Anderson, 1995).

Craik and Tulving (1975) conducted ten experiments to examine retention of verbal information under different levels processing. In their research, subjects were instructed to process the words at different depths: shallower processing engaged subjects in recognizing target words’ typescript; intermediate processing asked subjects to process target words’ rhyme features; and the deep processing involved processing of semantic and syntactic features of target words by deciding whether the words would fit in sentences. The words they chose were simple nouns, common concrete nouns. Five questions were used to elicit different levels of processing with a focus on typescript, rhyme and semantic/syntactic features. The recognition results confirmed the hypothesis that processing target words at deeper level helps retain the words in the memory system. This point of view was agreed by Tulving (1985) when addressing procedural memory system.

Craik and Tulving’s (1975) experiments were designed to investigate word retention in episodic memory. The words they used in the study were nouns. This is rarely the case for EFL learners who face a dictionary of words covering different parts of speech. In their study, subjects were asked questions and by answering questions they

were supposed to engage in different levels of processing. For EFL learners, they are mostly independent learners after class and therefore, they are not in the similar situations.

He (2012) conducted two tasks designed with target levels of processing: Task 1 (a phonological processing task) instructed students to read out the words aloud and then perform an immediate free recall task; Task 2 (a semantic processing task) instructed students to read out the words aloud and then to speak out a sentence with the words; immediate free recall task was conducted. The results showed that semantic processing task produced slightly higher recall results. However, because the same group of students participated in the two tasks (though there was a two-week interval between the two tasks), students might have been influenced from the first task and then they might expect an immediate free recall task in Task 2. What's more, the words used in He (2012) covered from 1 to 4 syllables and they are not evenly distributed. There might be a word length effect. This might explain why students recalled the 1-syllable words highest and 4-syllable words lowest.

The current research was informed by the levels of processing and the idea that elaborative processing of target words will lead to a better learning result. This research improved He (2012) in the following aspects: 1) Chinese EFL learners were surveyed about the activities they do after class to enhance their memorization of English words. The survey is to justify and inform the tasks designed in the study; 2) Three tasks were designed and three groups of students participated the tasks; 3) A word list of 15 words was used for this study; there were five 1-syllable words, five 2-syllable words and five 3-syllable words.

THE STUDY

I. The survey

The survey was conducted at an online course taken by Chinese EFL learners. The question "What do you do to remember English words?" was posted as a forum in the Discussion Board of the course. Students were encouraged to respond to the survey in their free time. The forum was open for a two-week period. The participation in the survey will not affect students' final result of the course. Altogether, 19 students

responded to the survey. The following is the summary of students' responses to the question.

Table 1: Summary of responses to the survey.

Activities	Number of students
Read the text with the target words	6
Reading words out (follow pronunciation)	13
Use the words to make a phrase or a sentence or in the writing assignment	6
English songs	1
Flash cards	2
Associate words in the word families/other learned words/objects	1
Translate English words into Chinese or vice versa	2
Write words down	7
Identify suffixes or prefixes	1
Review words	7

Table 1 above summarized the responses by indexing the activities mentioned by students. We can see that the mostly adopted activities are reading words out, using the words to make a phrase, a sentence or in the writing assignments, and writing words down. Among these, reading words out is considered important for remembering words as well as for retrieving them. For most students, they would firstly get familiarized with the pronunciation and then move on to semantic or syntactic features of vocabulary (to make a phrase or sentence, or associate the word with other words or objects etc.) For example, students mentioned in the responses:

“When I remember a single word, I prefer to follow the pronunciation of it in mind, rather than by spelling each letter.”

“Usually, I remember English words through writing them down on the paper. I seldom reading them out because it will make me forget [them] more quickly.”

These responses showed that pronunciation is considered as an effective clue for remembering words. Associating words within their word families or other words (e.g., synonyms), or using the words to make a phrase or a sentence are considered helpful for vocabulary learning as well.

II. Task design

The procedure of this study basically replicated He (2012), which used two tasks (a phonological processing task and a semantic processing task) and compared the immediate free recall results of the tasks. As it has been mentioned above that He (2012) used the same group of participants for both processing tasks and this might influence the result, and the word list consisted of words from 1 to 4 syllables (see Table 2 below).

Table 2: Wordlists used in He (2012)

Task 1	Task 2
Fever	Never
Skill	Spill
Bed	Net
Temper	Fossil
Narrator	Essential
Foreign	Perceive
Perception	Rejection
Cap	Top
Phenomenon	Fundamental
Condition	Tradition
Assume	Pressure
Discuss	Debate
Interaction	Reservation
Hit	Pit
Add	Odd

In the survey, students mentioned that they pay a lot of attention to the pronunciation feature of words and they also think that using the words to make a phrase or a sentence is very important for remembering the words. Therefore, we add one written task for semantic processing task to examine whether writing down a sentence would influence the recall results. To reduce the word-length effect, and to examine if there would be a modality effect, the current study designed three tasks: 1) a phonological processing task asking students to read out the words aloud only; 2) a semantic processing task with oral production instructing students to read out the words first and then speak out a sentence with the words; 3) a semantic processing task with written production instructing students to read out the words first then write down a sentence with the words.

III. Research questions

1. Does deeper processing lead to better recall results? Is there a difference in recall results between oral production and written production groups?
2. Is there a syllable-based word-length effect?
3. Is there a primacy and recency effect?
4. Is grammaticality of sentences produced in oral and written groups a factor influencing the recall results?

IV. Material

One word list of 15 words was used in this study. The words were taken from textbook glossary that participants have learned and were selected based on the number of syllables (5 words of one syllable, 5 words of two syllables and 5 words of three syllables). The words were then randomly arranged and were put on slides of a PowerPoint file and presented on a laptop.

V. Participants

Altogether 45 Chinese EFL learners participated in the study. They were from the second grade of a tertiary institution in China. Participants were randomly divided into three groups. Participation was voluntary and not related to participants' course work.

VI. Procedure

The tasks were conducted in a two-week schedule. Participants took interviews individually in a study room with the researchers. They were told that the tasks aimed to examine how Chinese EFL learners process English words and they were not told that there would be a recall task at the end. The words were presented to the participants on the slides of a PPT file. Words were placed at the center of each slide. When participants were ready, they could press the space key to start the task. The procedure was self-paced and recorded.

The phonological processing task instructed participants to process each word on the phonological level. Each participant was asked to read out the word loudly only. After viewing each word and pronouncing each word out, the participants were asked to conduct an immediate free recall task.

The semantic processing task with oral-production instructed participants to process each word on the semantic level. Participants were asked to read out the word loudly first and then speak out a sentence with the word. When participants finished the word list, they were asked to perform an immediate free recall task. It was not a requirement to make a sentence with every word. But participants were encouraged to try to speak out whatever they can come up with. If they found it was too difficult to make a sentence, they can proceed without making one. Each participant was given enough time to make the decision.

The semantic processing task with written-production instructed participants to process words on the semantic level. The difference between this group and oral-production group is that participants in this task were instructed to write down a sentence with the words instead of speaking sentences out. After viewing and pronouncing each word, the participants were given a piece of paper to write down a sentence with the target word. After writing the sentence, the researchers would take the paper away and a blank sheet was prepared for the next word. To give a blank paper for each word was to prevent participants from reading previously produced sentences. This might interfere with the processing of the following words.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

I. Does deeper processing lead to a better recall results?

Table 3 shows the recall results of three processing tasks. It shows that semantic processing with oral production of sentences produced the highest recall results (Sum=100, M=6.66). Both semantic processing tasks received higher recall results than phonological processing task. The recall results were then analyzed by one-way ANOVA; there is no statistically difference between three processing tasks as shown in Table 4. We don't think the results of these three processing tasks can provide an answer to RQ1 "Does deeper processing lead to a better recall result?" According to the design of the processing tasks, both semantic processing tasks engaged participants into "deeper" processing. Both semantic processing tasks asked participants to read out the words aloud and then to process the word for its semantic and morpho-syntactic features. Craik's (2002) mentioned that, "deeper processing" means "processing for more meaningfulness", the results from this study might offer supportive evidence to this view. However, as semantic processing tasks actually asked participants to do "two activities" (reading words out aloud, and making a sentence), this actually instructed participants to do "more things" with the target words comparing to phonological processing task, which only instructed participants to do one thing, "reading words out aloud". This difference of time contributing to the processing of target words might be the factor influencing the recall results.

Table 5 shows the recall results from He (2012). The current study supports He's (2012) finding in that both semantic tasks produced higher recall results. We think this is because participants were engaged in more elaborative processing of target words. As for why oral-production processing task yielded slightly higher recall results than written-production, this might be attributed to the way participants conducted recall task. The immediate recall results were conducted orally, and this echoes the way they were asked to process the words (speaking the words out aloud and then speaking out a sentence with the words). This might be the reason why oral-production of sentence task received the highest recall results.

Table3: Recall results of three tasks.

Tasks		No. of Participants	1syllable	2syllables	3syllables	Sum	Mean
Phonological processing		15	37	15	30	82	5.46
Semantic processing	Oral production	15	42	19	39	100	6.66
	Written production	15	37	15	37	89	5.93

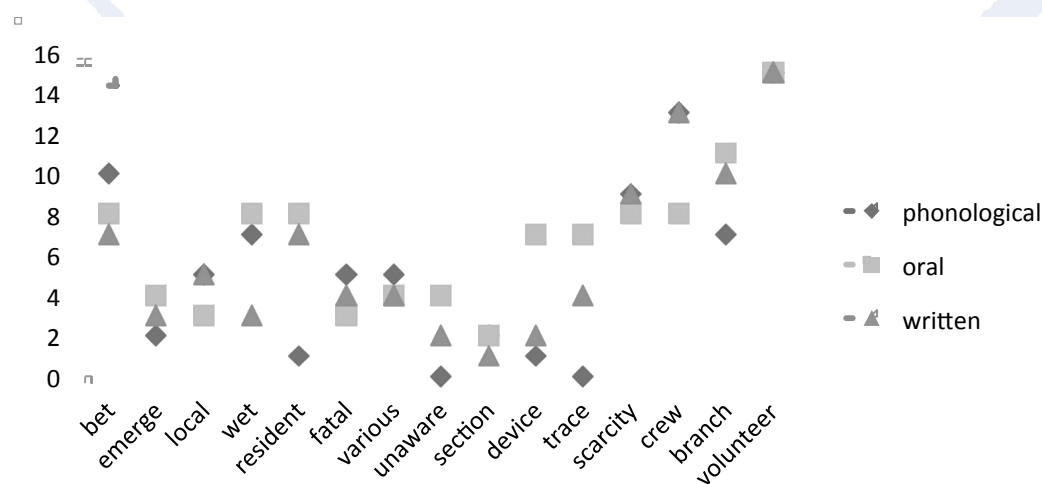
Table 4: ANOVA analysis of the recall results.

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	10.978	2	5.489	.319	.728
Within Groups	722.000	42	17.190		
Total	732.978	44			

Table 5: Recall results from He (2012).

He (2012) Tasks	1 syllable	2syllable	3 syllable	4 syllable	Sum	Mean
Phonological processing	48	36	20	17	121	7.11
Semantic processing	61	46	21	22	150	8.82

Figure 1: The number of each word recalled in three tasks.



II. Syllable-based word length effect

It has been reported that short words are recalled better than long words (Campoy, 2008; Jalbert et al, 2011). There are two types of word length effect. A time-based word length effect has not been confirmed due to inclusive results from different types of stimuli, and the syllable-based word length effect has been reported consistently with different types of stimuli (Jalbert et al, 2011). One explanation offered for syllable-based word length effect was based on the frame work of phonological loop (Baddeley et al, 1975; Baddeley, 1986). It hypothesized that words will be rehearsed in the phonological loop once they enter in the working memory system. It makes sense that shorter words will be rehearsed more times than longer words within the same duration. Therefore, in the immediate recall, shorter words (words with lesser syllables) are to be recalled more than longer words (words with more syllables).

Figure 2: Syllable-based word recall results.



Figure 3: Syllable-based word recall results from He (2012).



Figure 2 illustrates

the syllable-based word recall results from the three processing tasks. It can be seen that both 1-syllable and 3-syllable words recalled higher than 2-syllable words. This supports the hypothesis that shorter words might have been rehearsed more times, and this may result in a better recall results. But this does not explain in our study that 3-syllable words were recalled higher than 2-syllable words. As Figure 3 shows, He (2012) results in both tasks (phonological and semantic processing with oral production) display a decline from 1-syllable to 3-syllable words. He (2012) used words ranging from 1- to 4-syllable words, therefore the results from the current study cannot be compared to He's results. Still, it is interesting to notice the difference between Figure 2 and 3. One explanation for the high recall results for 3-syllable words in this study might be that 'volunteer' is the last word in the list. And as it is explained later, the recall results of this study might show a recency effect.

III. Primacy and recency effect

Figure 1 demonstrates a primacy and recency effects. That is the first several words were recalled comparatively higher in number, the middle part declined, and the final part of word list were recalled more again (recency effect) (Craik et al, 1970; Craik, 1970). Other explanation was that the words at the very end of the word list were not transferred from the short-term memory to long-term memory (Akinson and Shiffrin, 1968; Waugh and Norman, 1965). That's why it was easier for subjects to recall these words. This might also be attributed to the task design. The current study did not include an interference task after processing of the word list. This might explain why the results show very a strong recency effect.

IV. Grammaticality and depth of processing

Whether grammaticality of sentences produced by participants in semantic processing tasks is a factor influencing the recall results? From the result, grammaticality did not seem to be an influencing factor on the recall results. Table 6 shows sentences of the word "emerge" made by participants in oral and written production tasks. We can see that sentences are not all grammatically correct. For example, in written-production, there is a "She emerges something for me to do." "Emerge" is an intransitive verb. In this sentence, the participant used it as a transitive one. Though, grammatically the sentence was incorrect, the participant recalled the word after processing the word.

Table 6: Sentences of the word ‘emerge’.

Oral production task	Written production task
<i>The accident was emerged the other day.</i>	<i>A shadow emerged at the end of the building.</i>
<i>As soon as the emerge the case.</i>	<i>A strong feeling emerged from the bottom of my heart.</i>
<i>A lot of students emerge in the classroom.</i>	<i>She emerges something for me to do.</i>
<i>It is emerge.</i>	N/A
<i>The new world emerge everyone to try best to create a new world.</i>	<i>This kind of phenomenon emerges in 1990.</i>
<i>I emerge that I can do better.</i>	<i>I emerged to that desk.</i>
<i>He emerged to go out.</i>	N/A
<i>How will you handle this emerge?</i>	<i>They suddenly noticed that there was a strange fish emerged from the wather [weather].</i>
<i>A stranger emerged in my eye.</i>	<i>It couldn't emerge that the house [was] burned out.</i>
<i>The whole thing emerged in my mind.</i>	<i>Bad things emerge at night.</i>
N/A	N/A
<i>The accident emerged in that busy street.</i>	<i>The fish emerges on the surface of the water with its head.</i>
<i>Something new will emerge in the future.</i>	<i>This matter emerged us a lot.</i>
N/A	<i>Suddenly, something horrible emerges from my mind.</i>
N/A	<i>What you were saying emerged that you were neverous [nervous].</i>

We think that grammaticality cannot be considered as an indicator of the recall results. Instead, it is the engagement to produce a sentence that makes the processing more elaborative. Even though, participants may fail to produce a grammatical correct, semantic sensible sentence, or even participants may fail to produce a sentence, it does not mean that they cannot recall the word. Instead, if they engage in “thinking of the meaning and grammatical roles” of the target word, it might be highly possible for them to recall the word in the end.

CONCLUSION

The study surveyed Chinese EFL learners about what activities they do after class to enhance their memorization of English vocabulary. The summary of responses

reported that most participants focus on pronunciation of the words and they find using the words to form phrases or sentences helpful. Three tasks were designed to induce different levels of processing, and three groups of participants conducted the processing tasks and immediate free recall tasks. Results from immediate free recall task showed that semantic processing tasks led to a better immediate free recall results. This result agrees what He (2012) has found out. And we contribute this higher recall results to the more elaborative thinking that semantic processing tasks engaged participants into.

Syllable-based word length effect, primacy and recency effects were observed in the result. Grammaticality is not a factor that influences the recall results, instead the elaborative thinking on the target words is considered to be an important factor.

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Concept of Mat-Rempit (Illegal fast driving)- A Study from Malaysia

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Introduction

Who actually individual that titled Mat Rempit? In the fact is, term 'Mat Rempit' did not exist in Bahasa Malaysia dictionary. Word 'Mat Rempit' actually introduced and popularized by Malaysian mass media which reveals madness phenomenon youth in activity illegal racing motorsikal previously (BeritaHarian 6th of November 2006). This working paper real focus is to check again concept definition 'rempit' that usage in Malaysia. Generally, word 'rempit' possibility taken from English language., namely ramp it which reflect racer extorting oil in road (circuit) which eventually become nickname to groups involved (Rozmi 2004). According to another definition based on Kamal Affendi (BeritaHarian 6th of November 2006), term 'rempit' start from combination 'rem' and 'pit'. Word 'rem' referring to performance extract oil to test engine power which often done by motorcyclist, while 'pit' on the other hand with reference to racing circuit, namely 'pit stop'. Result of the combined both word create term 'rempit' which eventually become general term to date. Apart from definition above term Mat Rempit also referred to individuals which participated illegal race use powerful small motorsikal (Rozmi, 2004; Rozmi, 2005). There is also possibility that term Mat Rempit derived from word 'berth'. This is because when riding motorcycles, this young people will squeeze to advance forwards, interrupt, mencelok and mengelencong to slash bigger vehicle. Article draft from new research by Rozmi et al (2009) on the other hand provide few features to treat the individual as a Mat Rempit, namely i) youth group; ii) Using low powered motorcycle; iii) illegal race iv) involving betting or not; v) activity in own group; vi) group structure that is not formal; vii) sub culture that is distinctive; and viii) Dangerous action and disturbing public peace.phenomenon that is distinctive, of which those involved with this phenomenon not necessarily motorcycle rider that 'merempit' that considered hardcore, but also involves audience actively involved in activity and event Mat Rempit.on the other hand, term Mat Rempit has definition that is far fuzzier. Individuals involved in this fenemona might be sustained under Section 42 Road Transport Act 1987 where they can be prosecuted ride dangerously motorsikal. There is hearsay from Malaysian Transport Minister that government would be amending Road Transport Act by end of this year to curb activity Mat Rempit (Utusan Online 2009). At the same time, party Royal Malaysian Police (PDRM) have proposed so that word Mat Rempit need to be destroyed and replaced with name 'road bully'. According to PDRM nickname Mat Rempit can become pride element to this group that will encourage further activity that negative in nature (Utusan Malaysia 20th of May 2009). Variety of definitions used for concept 'rempit', so researcher make concept redefinition 'rempit' as this study focus. This redefinition try to give criteria that is clear and complete to enable any future study can identify individual called as 'Mat Rempit' by operational. For the purpose, researcher have conducted study that is shaped qualitative to observe what does it mean with 'rempit' and activities related to him from individual that have been involved with activity considered 'rempit' itself. Patterned definition this

phenomena (Smith & Eatough 2007) is hoped able to avoid definition influence by society that behave out-group.

Method

Study this involved deep a few interview serial which involves interview focus-group and interview individual. Interview focus-group involving 3 subject group in Penang, Johor Baharu and Kuala Lumpur that consisting of those who have been defended before under Section 42 because driving precariously motorsikal. Sampling technique used for focus-group is by purposive where police in areas involved give cooperation to researcher by ask individual that in prosecution process due to collision Section 42 be volunteers for interview purpose. Interview this involved 1 interview session (as long as 30-45 minutes every session) to every group staffed 4 to 5 persons, of which every subject paid and an amount of RM10. Interview individual on the other hand involving 16 student 3 to 5 in a secondary school in Semenyih, Selangor that consisting of subject that have been involved and still involved with activity Mat Rempit. Sampling technique used for group individual is by purposive and snow-ball with school counsellor parties assistance involved which identifies right students of this study. Interview session individual involving between 3 to 13 interview session (as long as 1 hour every session) to every subject carried out within 4 month, of which every subject paid and an amount of RM20 to every session. Agreement form join study already obtained from previous all studies.

Every interview session has been undertaken by experienced by an interviewer semi-instructor and recorded by audio and field record. For the working paper purpose, analysis only done through field record where interviewer make a note of salient points activity considered 'rempit' by subject. Analysis carried out with hand for grouping activities and the information in definite themes. Concept definition 'rempit' that formed from analysis then discussed with 3 interview subject individual (that is Mat Rempit rigid) for validated by them and carried out correction.

From analysis, Rempit can be defined as any collectively motorsikal competition activity (at least two persons) which involves race. eg. sprint or wipe. It triggered physically by act challenge through chugs signal motor (ramp), speech or hand signal. An Mat Rempit is individual involved in this activity. Therefore all following criteria should exist to say the individual as Mat Rempit, namely i) in collectively motorsikal competition activity (at least 2 persons); ii) in activity which involves race and or action stunt and iii) Activity involving act challenge. Criteria information and things that about explained one by one in partially extended.

a) HuraianAktivitiPertandinganMotorsikalSecaraBerkumpulan

This competition can happen whether by planned beforehand and also by unplanned spottily whether by day or night. There is collectively 3 form motorsikal competition, namely: i) companions or acquaintance in a region; ii) two or more groups bermotorsikal informal (that consisting of friend groups that is different, whether from an area that is same or from area that is different) or iii) two or more groups formal (that consisting of member of a group that have structure membership that is formal, whether at national level or area). Group formal have membership form respective which need to be recorded, of which every member would be given official adhesive and group official card involved (that should make payment. It is officially registered organization.eg. shell group.

b) HuraianAktiviti Yang MelibatkanPerlumbaan Dan / AtauAksi Stunt

Race carried out is to see objective who can bring by quickest motor cycle (speed used are among 120-170 km per hour). Race forms happened is: i) Sprint test - By race straight road; ii) Main wind (By of which racer will follow each other before tried to overtake among themselves in right time) iii) Main wipe - Race which involves road that have bend and iv) Main roundabout - Race which involves recurring round in roundabouts road. For action stunt on the other hand it carried out by to see objectivewho that can do by oldest action stunt (measure is based on how many post that street lamp that can be escaped). Action forms stunt happened is: i) Wheelie - Ride motor cycle by raise front tyre (can be carried out by an, together or redundant a motor cycle) ii) Wheekang - Ride motor cycle by raise rear tyre or iii) Aksi Superman - Ride by motor cycle lie centre as if fly, without place leg in foot brake or in gear.

c) HuraianPerbuatanCabarMencabarSemasaPertandingan

Act challenge physically which sparked activity rempit can be done through: i) Isyarat chugs motor (ramp) - Individual or group which challenges will be doing to the utmost ramp in front individual or group that want challenged him to contest. Signal ramp also can be carried out by indirect with challenger do to the utmost ramp while riding rapidly motor cycle in a region to challenge any other rider that can hear ii) Percakapan- Individual or group's representative which challenges will go itself for to individual or group that want challenged him to contest. This challenge could come

about either by good tone or with rude tone (tease) or iii) Isyaratangan- Individual or group's representative which challenges will be cited finger to individual preference or group that want challenged him to contest. When pick this finger, challenger can in a state of ride rapidly motor cycle or when stop.

d) Matlamat Pertandingan

Competition carried out have following goals: i) Main kosong- Pertandingan does not involve any reward material, only get satisfaction and name "good" only ii) Main duit- Pertandingan involving prize money (in value hundred to thousands of ringgit) iii) Taruhan motorsikal- Pertandingan involving motor cycle stake rode by those involved in competition. This commonly made if motor cycle is type stealing iv) Main burn motor- Pertandingan involving motor cycle burning that losing in competition involved. This commonly made if motor cycle type stealing or v) This Ganjaran perempuan- Pertandingan type is seldom and usually involve that volunteering to competition winner.

e) Sebab -Sebab Terlibat Dalam Aktiviti Rempit Yang Dilaporkan Subjek

Following is primary reason reported by subjects on their main reason involved in activity rempit; namely i) Akibat boredom; ii) Fun Perasaan during merempit; iii) Rasa 'heart burnt' when challenged other rider and iv) Untuk obtain recognition 'high status's from other rider where feeling of pride subject and great in self.

Discussion

Based on this study findings is very clear that were differences from definition aspect 'rempit' among what does it mean by audience and mass media compared to what does it mean by group 'Mat Rempit' itself. Word 'rempit' by public have connotation that is negative, whereas for Mat Rempit on the other hand word involved have connotation neutral. Although behaviour 'rempit' from illegal race aspect and behaviour sound loudly motorsikal engine could be perceived as act which upset other people, but for Mat Rempit behaviour involved regarded as behave 'personal' only. Few subjects interviewed say that they dissatisfied with society's ridicule because they consider 'rempit' is an activity that 'legal' because consider it no connection with crime. They think society have no right to judge them since society draw conclusion.

One of subject said: “Why Mat Rempit always faulted? Remember that bank robber wearing motor to? Them drive the car. But why people drive the car not faulted? Here rather agreeable researcher with what subject try to present. Society high possibility have bias that is certain result of usage availability representation. We likely more link Mat Rempit with crime activity due to mass media enlarge this issue. But at the same time, subject opinion involved also need considered by alert since exist possibility self-serving bias here during interview. Researcher find out study subjects involved in interview individual have the spirit that 'spirited' to explain to researcher on who actually Mat Rempit. Few subjects become very emotional when defend activity 'rempit' when researcher try offer alternative view on issue involved (for example, activity 'ramp' which upset other people peace at night)—“Care them!”, word one of subject tonally bridled at. Here, exist social reality difference possibility between general society and of individual considered (and consider) themselves design as 'Mat Rempit'. Possibility an Mat Rempit has cognitive distortion or cognitive distortion when perceive action considered him not wrong. At the same time, unknowable whether subject in fact cheat or not as study more focused to narrative truth (narrative truth) and not historical truth (historical truth) which requires researcher see individuals in life subject what recounted by subject (Spence 1984).

As this study is qualitative in nature which uses number of samples that a little and concentrate to 4 location only, so survey results this is more characteristic preliminary that can pave the way to quantitative other studies which uses sample size that is larger and representative. Definition criteria was nominated in this study need to be confirmed as universal to many 'Mat Rempit' all over Malaysia prior it usable confidently to study phenomenon Mat Rempit. This case will be enabled pengfokusan target group any given study that is future can make more accurately and not based on definition that is vague and patterned by society definition that behave out-group. Apart from that, ancillary observation this study show that existence of cognitive distortion probability at some subject 'Mat Rempit'. Perhaps will emerge problem for shaped study survey if subject involved distort the reality (consciously or not) when replying questionnaire form and disturb study findings reliability.

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Using Signs and Symbols in Teaching English Language in Global Perspective

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Using Signs and Symbols in Teaching English Language in Global Perspective

Teaching English globally often requires the teachers to use of a common language of communication. Using signs and symbols defuses the need of using any other language or medium in teaching English among the learners. With the help of popular signs and symbols of a region, the method attempts to denote the functioning mechanics of English language and create many simple and multi-dimensional visual mediums to incorporate the most common words, ideas, patterns and expressions into them and thus facilitates learning among the learners of mixed abilities.

A New Approach!

In symbolic method- rephrasing the synopsis in short- at first the words, ideas, thoughts, expressions and mechanics are shortlisted. Then, by using the learning pads, or mediums created with the help of signs and symbols, students are engaged in plenty of drills where they actually apply those words, ideas, and expressions. It fits in the purpose of maximizing the benefits of learning to an acceptable scale as the learners are, at the end, able to communicate in English effectively.

The strategy can be used as a buffer in communicative or in other methods of teaching English when a teacher is in need of explaining something to the students who are very weak in understanding lectures in English.

Symbols can be multi-dimensional from simple one dimensional figure or sign to three dimensional matters, depending on the choices and needs of the learners and teachers. In fact changing the dimensions of signs to three dimensions facilitates the learners to transform learning from textbook to activities of motions. The signs and symbols diminish the complexities of the mechanics of the language and present them in a different style.

As no method is complete and perfect, using signs and symbols by the teachers in place of the mother tongue of the learners brings the process of learning the second language more close to acquisition. The illustrative and task based elements that are part of the common features of the method, when applied to a dynamically interactive setting, can capacitate the learners to understand and create similar expressions in which everyone is aware of what, why and how the matrixes are working within each phrase, expression or sentence.

Existing Research in this Area

The existing number of researches and studies on learning English effectively as the second language focuses on different methods, steps and procedures and approaches and techniques, on the learning habits or constructivism of the individual, on the socio-cultural background of the learners, on psycho-lingual factors and also on the limitations of different learning methods. The primary objective of a many of these studies is mainly to ease the business of learning and to enable them to be communicative effectively, if not correctly all the time.

Background :

The weak level of communicative competence of the students in English, the burden of memorizing theories, the need of audio visual equipment and the

incomprehensibility of the different methods of teaching English etc. all necessitate us to look forward to exploring other possible techniques and strategies that would support, equip and help the learners to actively involve themselves in the process of learning without much worries.

One crucial problem is that the non-communication of ideas between the learner and the teacher rules out the ease and comfort of learning a second language. It sometimes, forces, though there are exceptions, the teachers to start parting lessons in the first language of the learners and as soon as the teachers do it than they frustrate the spirit of learning English without being aware of it. Though outwardly, they may conclude with a satisfaction for being able to communicate lessons. But in reality, when the teachers fail to communicate their lessons in English, it induces a pseudo fear in the learners about the language. In a situation like that to establish a communication among the learners and teachers becomes an essentially important task.

In the Middle East countries and also in the countries where English is not taught in the primary grades, the teachers, sometimes, are necessitated to use Arabic language or the first language of the students in the classroom as a common medium of teaching English. This tendency of teaching English in the first language has appeared to be significantly defective over the years. Considering the use of signs and symbols especially as an alternative to it may work as an effective and appropriate buffer, as it enables both the teacher and learner to understand each other without going beyond the perimeter of the target language.

Why We Need Signs and Symbols:

Relying on symbols to create a common medium of communication of ideas and expressions eliminates the risk of following the less effective approach of using the first language in delivering class lectures. If these symbolic mediums are sequentially framed in the way the mechanics of English language work, they work as learning pads for the learners in which their mind will blend systematically and after the completions of a few exercises, these learners, without being aware of learning something such as rules, patterns, or structures of sentences or expressions, will be capable of doing things with them all by themselves. By using these mediums as tools of expressing facts, information, imagination, realities and experiences, they consciously and subconsciously learn the language along with the inner mechanics of the language. In other words, the symbolic mediums of the mechanics of English language transfer learning from learning to acquisition to a certain extent.

How to Pick up Signs and Symbols:

Symbols may not be required to be alike everywhere. They can be chosen studying the popular cultures, trends, habits and traditions of a particular region. Thus the symbols chosen for teaching the Chinese or the Japanese students may not necessarily be the same as the symbols chosen for the students in the Middle East countries.

Features and the Significance

Learning a language cannot be ideally complete without basically being able to recognize the essence of that language. Formulating methods based on learning the rules first to grasp the essentialities, as it is done in grammar translation method, appears to be frustrating in terms of assessing the communicative ability of the learners.

Again communicative method doesn't always capacitate the learners to get a farsighted insight through the language though it is widely successful in enabling the students to communicate.

By using signs and symbols in demonstrating the mechanics of the language, we can eliminate the difficulties the learners face in dealing with grammars and can help them acquire the rules, instead of asking them to memorize. We can, in fact, help them to see through the mazes of rules of grammar the very essence of the language. The illustrative presentation of the method when applied in a dynamically interactive setting capacitates the learners to understand and create similar expressions in the language.

The method, being very interactive, eliminates the excessive dependence on the need from the learners' part to have certain knowledge about the language.

In short, the strength of the method lies in focusing on making the learners capable of using their knowledge of English in different perspectives. And owing to its simplicity, flexibility and ability to transform the abstract into something easily perceivable and practicable, the method really becomes useful in achieving the learning goals for any other methods used by the teachers/learners in teaching/learning English.

Carefully Selecting the Common Mechanics and the list of Common Words before Introducing the Infinite Realm of Possibilities

Another important aspect of the method is that throughout the process of application it inspects and involves the learners in drilling the most common words and expressions, instead of frightening them with the introduction of high frequency words or complicated expressions or sentence structures.

It doesn't necessarily mean that the method compartmentalizes the infinite realm of imagination or the possibilities and expressions in the language. What it actually intends by sorting out the most common words, phrases, expressions and sentences is that it tries to relate to the common characteristics of mechanics that exist in all these expressions. And the vast realm of possibilities these mechanics can be applied to is something that is left out for the learners to try at an advanced level when they have fluently mastered the mechanics of the language. The characteristics in the mechanics whether they are similar or different, comparable or contrasting, and whether they are constructed by means of common words or expressions or high frequency words or grand expressions are more or less identical in all patterns expressions according to their structures.

Findings about a Case Study at Jazan University:

Viewed against the background of Jazan University, K.S.A. where the learners within the same group have differences in their linguistic competencies, and where sometimes, they find it difficult to understand what the teachers are trying to explain

to them, communicative method often becomes less effective and loses momentum. Absence of a common medium of communication between the two parties sometimes makes the process of learning dry, lifeless and slow. In some cases, teachers sometimes attempt to use Arabic but again it frustrates the objectives of learning and minimizes the scope of doing things in English in the classroom. In other words, it also limits the possibilities of getting exposed to practically using the language in presence of the teachers. Again, owing to having strict time frame of each semester, the possibilities of adding supplementary English reading texts with the course in addition to the course books are limited. Motivation, cheering the good performers, building up reading habits, group studies, group discussions and pair works by the students are areas where the teachers may find plenty of scopes to explore.

However, the result after applying the method with a particular group of students for a semester having 12 contact hours per week was citable, if not significantly notable. 92 % percent students felt that they now can understand how the basic elements of the language work and they managed to complete and pass the regular tests timely. In a different group, which had similar types of students and where the teachers followed the communicative method and grammar translation method and sometimes both of them, the results were varying from 60% to 90%. However, though these students managed to complete and pass their regular tests timely, they were not confident in saying that they had really learnt to follow the basic mechanics of the language.

Applicability and Scopes of the Method

The areas where the students need special care require to be addressed or diagnosed microscopically. The cure may sound difficult to apply, as according to many, the best time to apply the cure is not at university, but at the primary schools. Again this is something impossible and absurd, as we can never send the university students back to primary schools to study English for ten to twelve years. However, what we can do is that we can adopt a method that would maximize the minimum time spent for English to the uttermost benefits of the learners. In other words, we can try to formulate something that will help the learners to overcome the weaknesses quickly and enable them to be competent enough in understanding the basics of the language.

The Sequential Progression of the Approach:

Step 1. Short-listing the common words and teaching those words with illustrations

Step 2. Showing the mechanics of phrasing by signs and symbols and drilling

Step 3. Framing incomplete expressions with subject and verb by using signs and symbols and drilling

Step 4. Framing sentences with signs and symbols and drilling

Elaboration of the Steps:

To start with, we can prefer the most commonly used words. Whether the method is followed in teaching the kindergarten kids or the students at University level, choosing words to begin learning may create a logical start. Now, how to teach these words may well be a debatable issue. We can teach them by making them read stories

or by showing relevant situations in which they are applied or simply by showing illustration. But at university level, since there is time constraint, we can use illustrative method to explain and show the common words.

In the second stage, focus may be given on building phrases with the help of the words the students have already learnt. There may be asked to make as many phrases as possible considering their requirements. It's important to note that being able to make phrases freely and spontaneously will determine how quickly these learners will be a fast user of the language. The teachers will motivate and engage the students in brainstorming. However, to generate effective result, it may require that teachers cite hundreds of examples of common phrases and expressions. Students, as they have already learnt the words, will in most cases end up banking on new ideas and will make learning involving and interesting.

At tertiary level, the students may be made familiar with the expressions which have a subject and a verb but no complete meaning. In other words, they may be given drills to make incomplete expressions or sub-ordinate clauses. Sometimes, the students will end up in making sentences or phrases and the teachers may explain them why they are not part of the practices they are doing at this stage. Some teachers may argue about it and place this stage at the end. But, if we follow minutely the way we acquire our mother tongue, we don't simply acquire sentence making in the beginning. We acquire it at the end of speaking thousands of words, phrases and incomplete expressions that include innumerable funny mistakes both in structures and in accents. So the students may be made to feel free when they do mistakes. One good thing about this process is that, the learners themselves will be able to detect the mistakes when they will be paused. The spontaneity in the expression of the language lies significantly on how far the learners are bringing the language and expressions from head to lips, something which can be done only by practicing more and more.



In the final stage, the students may be engaged in constructing expressions having a subject, a verb and a complete meaning. They may be shown how information is added to different parts of sentences. As most of what we read in the text books and what we write and speak everyday are in simple sentences, focus should be given on framing simple sentences of different patterns. In order to avoid difficulties, the teachers may follow one basic medium for all simple sentences. It may sound monotonous, but it will embed in the learners the message that simple sentences are always the same in structure, though they may have much information conveyed in them. Once the learners are capable of making simple sentences on different situations spontaneously, the lesson may be shifted to compound and then complex sentences.

Step – 1

Coining Signs and Symbols to Denote the Basic Elements and Short-listing the most Common Words

The following symbols may be used to transform the abstract mechanics into something visible and easy to understand. However, the teachers are free to coin symbols according to their preferences and likings.



Nouns =		Adverb =	
Pronouns =		Preposition =	
Verb =		Conjunction =	
Adjective =		Sub-ordinate conjunction =	

It is said that 80% of all English sentences can be formed using just the most common 200 words. You do NOT need many words to speak English well. You must learn to USE words well! Short-listing the most common words and random drilling with them help maximize learning without requiring long time.

Learners can be taught the words and expressions of different grades without sending them back to primary school and by employing the method carefully, they can be unburdened with the fear of not knowing something which they should have learnt much earlier.

List of Nouns to be Learnt at Kindergarten
ant, ball, bat, bed, book, boy, bun, can, cake, cap, car, cat, cow, cub, cup, dad, day, dog, doll, dust, fan, feet, girl, gun, hall, hat, hen, jar, kite, man, milk, map, men, mom, pan, pet, pie, pig, pot, rat, son, sun, toe, tub, van
List of Nouns to be Learnt at Grade One
Apple, arm, banana, bike, bird, book, chin, clam, class, clover, club, corn, crayon, crow, crown, crowd, rib, desk, dime, dirt, dress, fang, field, flag, flower, fog, game, heat, hill, home, horn, hose, joke, juice, kite, lake, maid, mask, mice, mill, mint, meal, meat, moon, mother, morning, name, nest, nose, pear, pen, pencil, plant, rain, river, road, rock, room, rose, seed, shape, shoe, shop, show, sink, snail, snake, snow, soda, sofa, star, steps, stew, stove, straw, string, summer, swing, table, tank, team, tent, test, toes, tree, vest, water, wing, winter, woman, women
List of Nouns to be learnt at Grade Two
Alarm, animal, aunt, bait, balloon, bath, bead, beam, bean, bedroom, boot, bread, brick, brother, camp, chicken, children, crook, deer, dock, doctor, downtown, drum, dust, eye, family, father, fight, flesh, food, frog, goose, grade, grandfather, grandmother, grape, grass, hook, horse, jail, jam, kiss, kitten, light, loaf, lock, lunch, lunchroom, meal, mother, notebook, owl, pail, parent, park, plot, rabbit, rake, robin, sack, sail, scale, sea, sister, soap, song, spark, space, spoon, spot, spy, summer, tiger, toad, town, trail, tramp, tray, trick, trip, uncle, vase, winter, water, week, wheel, wish, wool, yard, zebra
List of Nouns to be Learnt at Grade Three
Actor, airplane, airport, army, baseball, beef, birthday, boy, brush, bushes, butter, cast, cave, cent, cherries, cherry, cobweb, coil, cracker, dinner, eggnog, elbow, face, fireman, flavor, gate, glove, glue, goldfish, goose, grain, hair, haircut, hobbies, holiday, hot, jellyfish, ladybug, mailbox, number, oatmeal, pail, pancake, pear, pest, popcorn, queen, quicksand, quiet, quilt, rainstorm, scarecrow, scarf, stream, street,

sugar, throne, toothpaste, twig, volleyball, wood

List of Nouns to be learnt at Grade Four

advice, anger, answer, apple, arithmetic, badge, basket ,basketball, battle, beast, beetle, beggar, brain, branch, bubble, bucket, cactus, cannon, cattle, celery, cellar, cloth, coach, coast, crate, cream, daughter, donkey, drug, earthquake, feast, fifth, finger, flock, frame, furniture, geese, ghost, giraffe, governor, honey, hope, hydrant ,icicle, income, island, jeans, judge, lace, lamp, lettuce, marble, month, north , ocean, patch, plane, playground, poison, riddle, rifle, scale, seashore, sheet, sidewalk, skate, slave, sleet, smoke, stage, station, thrill, throat ,throne, title, toothbrush, turkey, underwear , vacation, vegetable, visitor, voyage, year, fan

List of Nouns to be Learnt at Grade Five

Able, achieve, acoustics, action, activity, aftermath, afternoon, afterthought, apparel, appliance, beginner, believe, bomb, border, boundary, breakfast, cabbage, cable, calculator, calendar, caption, carpenter, cemetery, channel, circle, creator, creature, education, faucet, feather, friction, fruit, fuel, galley, guide, guitar, health, heart, idea, kitten, laborer, language, lawyer, linen, locket, lumber, magic, minister, mitten, money, mountain, music, partner, passenger, pickle, picture, plantation, plastic, pleasure, pocket, police, pollution, railway, recess, reward, route, scene, scent, squirrel, stranger, suit, sweater, temper, territory, texture, thread, treatment, veil, vein, volcano, wealth, weather, wilderness, wren, wrist, writer

List of Most Common Adjectives

A, an, the, big, large , short , fast . hot , good , old , pretty , fat , happy , full , dark,funny , interesting , cheap , high , deep,healthy,rich , soft , easy , clean , safe , same , early , strong , top , beautiful , handsome , hungry , thirsty , tired , busy , free , great , friendly, favorite, little , small , tall/long, slow , cold, bad , new/young , ugly, thin/skinny , sad , empty, light , serious , boring , expensive, low, shallow , sick/ill, poor , hard , difficult , dirty , dangerous , different , late , weak , bottom, my, our, your, his, her, its, their

List of the Most Common Verbs

accept, apply, allow, ask, believe, borrow, break, bring, buy, can/be able, cancel, change, clean, comb, complain, cough, count, cut, do, dance, draw, drink, drive, eat, explain, fall, fill, find, finish, fit, fix, fly, forget, fight, give, go, get, grow, have, hear, hurt, jump, know, learn, leave, listen, live, look, lose, make/do, need, open, close, shut, organize, pay, play, put, rain, read, reply, run, say, see, sell, send, sign, sleep, smoke, speak, spell, spend, start, begin, study, succeed, swim, take, talk, teach, think, translate, travel, try, turn off, turn on, type, understand, use, wait, wake up, want, watch, work, worry, write

List of Common Auxiliary/Linking/Modal Verbs

is, are, was, were, am, be, been, will, shall, have, has, had, would, could, should, do, does, did, can, may, might, must and seem

List of Pronouns of Pronouns




















I, we, you, he, she, it, this, that ,they


The list of common preposition
about, below, off, toward, above, for, on, under, across, beside, from, onto, after, between, in, out, until, against, beyond, in front of, outside, up, along, inside, over, upon, among, by, in spite of, past, up to, around, instead of, with, at, despite, into, since, within, because of, down, through, without, before, during, throughout, behind, of,
List of Common Adverbs
Up, so, out, just, now, how, then, more, also, here, well, only, very, even, back, there, down, still, in, as, too, when, really, most, often, sometimes, seldom, rarely, always, fast, hard, slowly, beautifully, quickly, silently, carefully, nicely
List of Common Conjunction and subordinate conjunction
And, or, but/ although, as, as if, as long as, as though, because, even if, even though, even when, except, except that, for (because), given that, if, in case, in that, in which, like, nor, now that, once, or, provided, provided that, rather than, since, so, so long as, so that, than, that, though, till, unless, until, when, whereas, whether, whether or not

Note: These stock words are to be used in the drills and are not static. The teachers may include, exclude or amend them according to their need. However, these words will serve the purpose well in the execution the method. The learners can be taught these words with the help of pictures and illustrations so that the teachers do not feel the need of using a different language other than English.

Step 2 :

Drilling phrases: Transforming the basic mechanics into visual mediums using the already chosen signs

- 1 =  +  (in Dubai)
- 2 =  +  (a cat)
- 3 =  +  +  (a good boy)
- 4 =  +  +  +  (a nicely colored picture)
- 5 =  +  +  +  (in a nice car)
-  +  +  + 

6 =  (in a nicely written letter)

7 =   (English Teacher)


First of all, learners are to be engaged in drilling to make phrases choosing the symbolic mediums for common phrases. To make the process more convenient, they might be given to read hundreds of common phrases and expressions beforehand. Once they become a little familiar with the patterns, the teachers may use these mediums and ask them to make as many phrases as they can with the help of the words they remember. While doing it, teachers can teach the students about what to do with these words or phrases in the process of learning the language. At this stage the teachers should also give some effort to stress on practices of making phrases with verb and noun. It will develop in them a spontaneous ability to link verbs with the nouns when they will need them in real conversations.


These symbols can be transferred into three dimensional figures and shapes and can be kept within the classroom and the students may be asked to place words in each of the frames to make meaningful phrasal expressions. This approach will change classroom into an activity oriented session where the students will be placed in a motion requiring physical participation of a new kind that generates interest and it can work as a buffer in the classroom to diversify learning activities. The same can be done with other mediums or frames.


Step 3:

Drilling on subordinate clauses or incomplete expressions:

Once a simple frame is prepared in whatever manner the teacher finds it suitable for his learners, he can start drilling subordinate clauses or incomplete expressions with a subject and verb, but without a complete meaning. Again, to make the practice easy for everyone, he may cite examples of hundreds of commonly used expressions in subordinate clauses and make the students read them as many times as possible.


 (*Though* *he* *is* *poor*)


 (*If* *you* *come*)


 (*When* *people* *talk*)

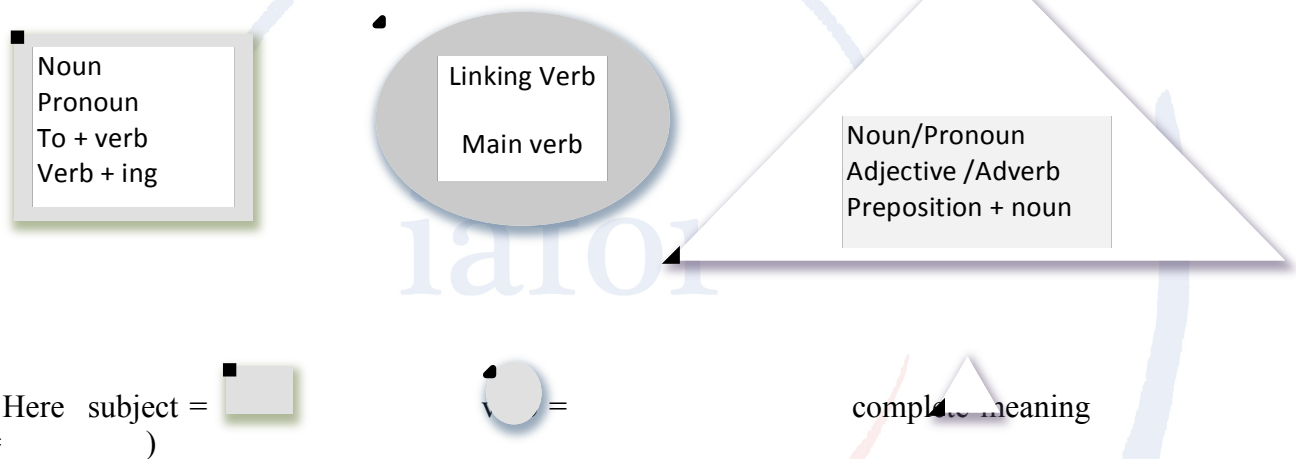
Step 4 :

Drilling Sentences :

As soon as terminologies like subject, object or object of a preposition are introduced, it becomes a necessity to bring in a sentence and its formation and essential parts in the process of learning. The following is an example of how to transform mechanics into symbolic mediums using signs. The teachers may begin in the same manner to make a visual presentation of the inner mechanics of English sentence. A Sentence must have:

1. a subject
2. a verb
3. a complete meaning

Now replacing these terminologies with symbols will eliminate the necessities of understanding the terminologies themselves in the first place. That means, if we choose a sign or symbol for each of the headers, the visible illustration of the mechanics of a simple sentence will be like the following:



As almost everything can be expressed in simple sentence and as it is the most widely used sentence pattern which is very easy to understand and grasp, focusing on simple sentence and on its mechanics in the beginning will ease the process of learning for the learners.

The sign denoting complete meaning is dynamic and changes according to the parts of speech of the words used after the verb for complete meaning. By changing the elements used in complete meaning, the pattern and structure of sentence may be changed.

Ex. John plays football.
 Medium : (Subject [square] (verb) [circle] (obj [square] (John plays football.)

(Ask verb question with what , the answer is the object the verb.)(plays + what ? = football)

Medium: Fans love Runi.
 (Subject) (verb) (obj) (Fans love Runi)

(Ask verb question with whom , the answer is the object the verb.)(love + whom ? = Runi)

Medium : They play in the field.
 (Sub) (v) (Prp)

Trying to explain without practically drilling will lead everyone to the very trouble we try to avoid. While the teacher will show the symbolic medium, the students will provide the necessary words or elements to denote the symbols into sentences.

The learning will turn into an experience of motion and physical activities when these signs are given three dimensional shapes.

The learners should be told that they need to check whether the expression after subject and verb does have a complete meaning or not. If it has a complete meaning, then they need not worry about it. For examples:

Medium: Bird flies.

These two figures could mean a sentence , provided they have complete meaning. The two words " Bird flies." conveys complete meaning. So no more inclusion is needed, unless they want something more to say. But if it doesn't have any complete meaning, they are free to use anything they like or need- be it noun, adverb, adjective, objective pronoun, or be it phrase or subordinate clause, or anything else within the parameter. However, the tracking must be from simple sentences to compound sentence and then to complex sentence, i.e. from easy stage to difficult stage.

The change of tenses of the verbs may be shown in isolation taking the verbs away from the sentences first and then showing how they change according to the change of time.

Medium : (She walks slowly.)


Medium : (I/We/You/They live in Jazan.)

Medium : (He/she/It lives at home)


Medium: (We/they/You are strong.)

Medium :  (He/She/John/Mim is an officer.)

While doing these practices, the students may be made alert about the similarity of color of subject and verb and be told about the subject verb agreement. It is not at all necessary to explain every rule through using signs and symbols. Once the students learn the basic patterns of simple, complex and compound sentences, they don't further need any of these strategies.

Complex Sentences : 

As he is sick he is weak.
 Though John is old he is strong.



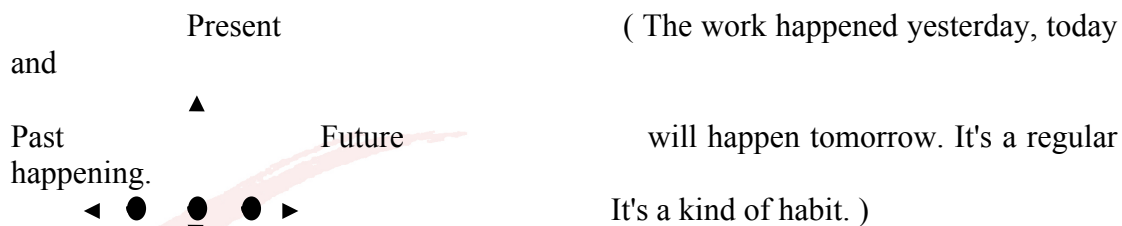
If I see him I will tell him

This symbolic- medium based practice helps to achieve specific target of learning. When the students start feeling that they now understand how the language works, use of it is no more needed. The teachers can make as many mediums as they need to make the students familiar with the inner mechanics of the language. And in fact, it is very easy to frame and invent mediums of the mechanics of the sentences for practices.

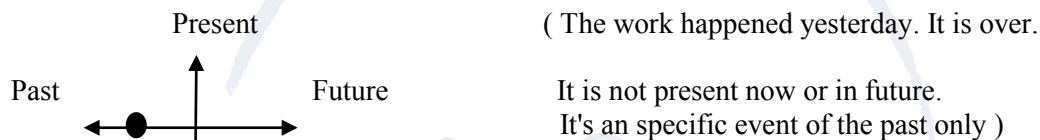
For more lively and real and effective result, three dimensional mediums are more involving than the one dimensional ones. For example, if the teachers write a few common nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, etc. on small plastic balls, and then ask the students to put each of the balls in their proper places in the medium, it will not take much for them know what to do and how to do. It will generate different types of pleasures which is very important for making learning into acquisition. It will make them spontaneous and learning will be effective.

Tenses in Graphs

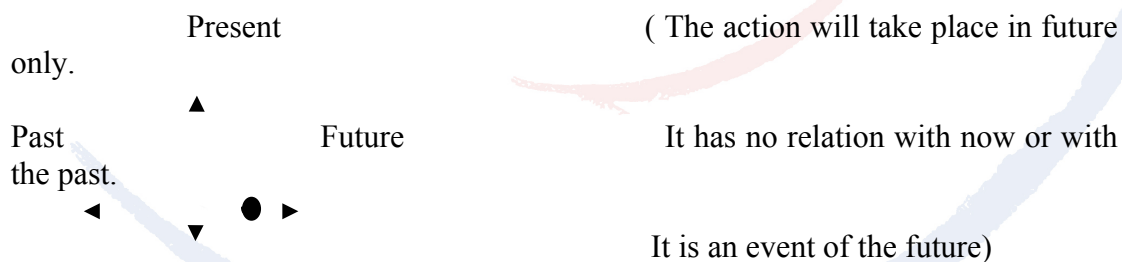
For teaching tenses, teachers may try using graphs in the chart showing time division. Many students fail to understand how verbs change their forms according to changes of time. The graph chart will be very illustrative for all.



I play football everyday. (Present Simple)

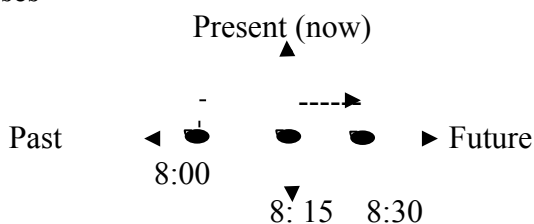


I played football yesterday. (Past Simple)



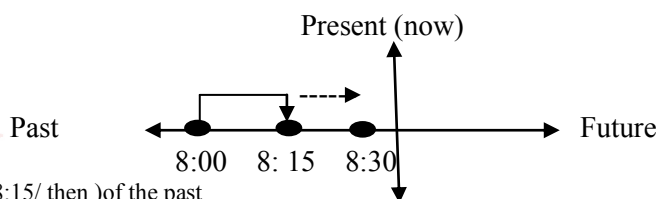
I'll play football tomorrow. (Future Simple)

The graphs of the progressive tenses



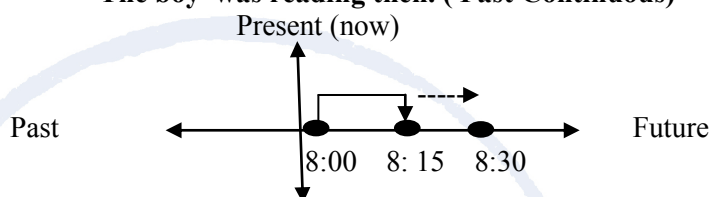
The work started in the past,
 continued to the present or going on in the present
 and will be finished in the future.

The boy is reading now. (Present Continuous)



Here the state of an action at a specific time (8:15/ then)of the past is conveyed. The action started in the past before the specific time and at that specific time (8:15/then) the action was not finished and was still going on. It was finished after the specific time (8:15/then) in the past but didn't continue to the present. It didn't have anything to do with future either.

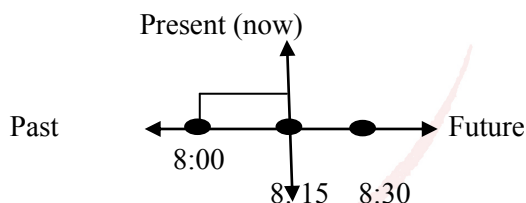
The boy was reading then. (Past Continuous)



Here the state of an action at a specific time (8:15/ then) of the future is conveyed. The action will start in the future before the specific time and at that specific time (8:15/then) the action will not be finished and will still be going on. It will be finished after the specific time (8:15/then) in the future. It doesn't have anything to do with past or present.

The boy will be reading tomorrow then. (Future Continuous)

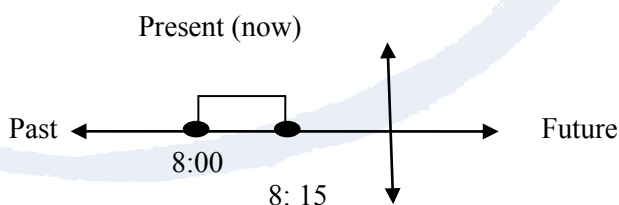
The Graphs of the Perfect Tenses



The work started , continued and finished in the past, but the past is so close to the present that it better be said just now and its result is existent in the present clearly. In other words, the work is not continued to the present moment (8:15) but it's result is visible at the present moment (8:15).

The fan has been switched off , but the blades are still moving. The work doesn't continue to the present or future.

I have already switched off the fan.. (Present Perfect)



Two events: 8: 00- the doctor came
 8: 15 – the patient died

At 8:00 the doctor came. The patient died at 8:15. One incident happened before another incident. The event that happened before takes perfect form and the later one takes past simple form. None of these events were continued to the present and didn't have any relation with future.

The doctor had come before the patient died. (Past Perfect)

Note : In some grammar books the writers have used graphs to explain tenses. The use of graphs is not at all new in this regard.

The simplicity, flexibilities, and the illustrative characteristics of the method owing to its different dimensional forms and shapes make the business of learning the language easy for a learner though he/she may be very weak or may have great difficulties in understanding lectures in English. However, the method could be applied in learning other languages too.

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*The Implementation of the 2013 Curriculum and the Issues of English Language
Teaching and Learning in Indonesia*

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0362

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Abstract

The importance of English as world language and the education reform envisaged through several changes in national curriculum play an important role in the development of English language teaching in Indonesia. This paper highlights some constraint and resources related to the implementation of new curriculum 2013 in Indonesia especially in context of English language teaching and learning. Some common ELT problems in Indonesia such as students' lack of motivation, poor attitude toward language learning, big class size, unqualified teachers, cultural barriers for teachers to adopt new role of facilitator, and so forth are also discussed. However, the current policy of teachers' certification program, the integrative topics in some subjects in learning process as one of the main point in new curriculum 2013, and textbook provision as designed on the basis of new curriculum by the Ministry of Education and Culture have brought certain resources to the development of the quality in English language teaching in Indonesia. Some pedagogical concerns for the improvement of language teaching in Indonesia are also suggested.

Introduction

English was the first foreign language obliged to be taught at junior and senior high school as determined by central government policy since independency in 1945. It is prioritised over other foreign languages such as French, Arabic, Chinese and others (Dardjowidjojo (2000)). In 1967, the Ministry of Education reviewed that teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia was intended to equip students to read textbooks and references in English, to participate in classes and examinations that involved foreign lecturers and students, and to introduce Indonesian culture in International arenas. This general objective was represented in the high school English curriculum 1975, 1984, and 1994. The objective in the 1967 decree actually was to teaching English as to prepare students for the function at the tertiary level (Fuad Hassan in the Jakarta Post, 2001 as cited by Jazadi, 2008). In other words, English teaching and learning in Indonesia was dedicated to academic purposes.

English teaching in Indonesia has been based on the curriculum designed by the central government throughout provision of curriculum policies. Indonesian curricula have changed for several times during the past fifty years as responding to worldwide ELT methodologies; (a) 1945's grammar translation-based curriculum, (b) 1958's audiolingual based-curriculum, (c) 1975's revised audio lingual-based curriculum, (d) 1984's structure-based communicative curriculum, (e) 1994's meaning-based communicative curriculum, (f) 2004's competency-based curriculum. English language teaching in 1945 during the colonialized era followed the grammar-translation method as it is suitable for large classes, cheap and only required grammatical mastery of the language. From the early 1950s, Indonesian government through the US Ford Foundation grant started to introduce audio-lingual approach which was later led to audio lingual based curriculum. In this case, some characteristics could be identified such as that the language laboratory was the main support, audio-lingual textbooks were developed. Yet, as the large classes remained the main issues, many teachers still employed grammar translation method.

In 1975s, the revised curriculum was still oriented to the audio-lingual approach but with more systematic teaching guidelines that covered all curriculum components such as teaching objectives, materials, approaches and evaluation (Tjokrosujoso &

Fachrurazy, 1997). In this context, it is the first time when Indonesia incorporated top-down and objectives-driven curriculum design approach especially in English language curriculum. Yet, this structure-based audio lingual curriculum did not still contribute to the achievement of learning objectives of English learning. The failure of this approach was mainly caused by the fact that some requirement of audiolingual implementation were not fulfilled such as the absence of native speakers as models, the absence of language laboratory, the existence of big classes and so forth (Wiramaya, 1991). The impact of dissatisfaction with this audio lingual curriculum had created the presence of the 1984 communicative approach curriculum encouraging the mastery of english communication both receptive and productive skills.

Although the 1984 curriculum was proclaimed to be communicative, the reality was still form-focused as observed from the official textbooks released by the Department of Education in which language structure was the most dominant content in the textbook. In other words, linguistic competence was put into more priority than communicative competence (Nababan, 1983). According to Tjokrosujoso and Fachrurazy (1997) the 1984 curriculum was inconsistent since its main aim was reading comprehension, the program was structure-oriented, the teaching approach was intended to be communicative, and the evaluation was discrete and grammar-based. The unsuccessful 1984 curriculum had encouraged the Department of Education to change the curriculum. Through conducted survey for both students and teachers, they both perceived productive skills as more important and that communication-focused is more important than structure-focused approach. Thus, in 1994 the meaning-focused communicative curriculum had replaced the 1984 structure-focused communicative curriculum. The underpinning approach in the 1994 curriculum was meaningfulness approach or communicative approach which involves some features such as the development of the ability to communicate in the four skills, linguistic mastery as only part of communicative abilities, a range of syllabi used (functional, situational, skills-based, structural), and integrated and communicative assesment. Textbooks were produced accompanying this curriculum by which the content is theme-based and teaching approach is task-based (Jazadi, 2000). Yet, he further suggested that this 1994 curriculum met some issues; the priority of teaching was still on reading despite the four skills or productive skills, the national exam was still using

the same format as in the 1984 which tested reading comprehension and form-based multiple choice questions and did not test all aspects of communicative competence.

The 2004 competency-based curriculum was then published as a reflection toward perfection of previous curriculum. This curriculum contain more systematic competency to be achieved in any level of education in Indonesia. Communicative language teaching was the underlying approach in its implementation. Within this sense, the learning being more put on students or learner-centred learning become the trend of language teaching and learning. The national examination managed by central government started to incorporate listening, reading and grammar while speaking and writing score was taken from teacher's assessment at schools.

The condition of Indonesian government which issues the policy of decentralized system has made many educators and teachers urge for the role presence of local authority in designing curriculum. The 2006 KTSP curriculum was implemented as a response to many input toward curriculum correction. However, the 2006 curriculum had several problems; (a) too many subjects being learnt by students and many competences were overlapping each other ignoring the cognitive development of the students, (b) curriculum was not fully based on competency, (c) competency did not holistically reflect domain of knowledge, skills and affective behavior, (d) some competences were not accomodated such as character building, active learning methodology, (e) the equilibrium of developing soft skills and hard skills, (f) standard of learning process is still teacher-oriented, (g) standard of assessment and evaluation still neglects process and end product, and (h) KTSP was still open for multi interpretation by many educators and teachers in real practice (Diknas, 2012).

Responding to some above constraints, the Indonesian government has decided to rethink, reformulate, and redesign the curriculum into the 2013 curriculum. To this date, the government has succeeded in producing curriculum documents that served as frameworks and syllabuses in all subject from primary level to senior high level. After being launched for public review, this curriculum has been implemented in many schools in Indonesia. In context of ELT in the 2013 curriculum, the time allotted for English subject at schools is reduced. This surely brings about several consequences for language teaching and learning process in Indonesia.

The current resources and constraints of ELT in Indonesia

Some constraints and resources always appear behind the implementation of new curriculum. First, the government should train the teachers, especially in the form of in-service training or currently through PPG/education for teaching profession about the whole package of new curriculum and its contents and its effective implementation in real classroom. Second, the government should also issue policy to deal with large class size issues, for instance by providing more budgeting to build more classes. If not, large classes would be unresolved issue which affect class performance. Yet, it is also argued that creative and autonomous teacher could deal with large classes by using a numerous techniques in classroom (Jazadi, 2000). Third, students' empowerment should also be encouraged by teachers to know the essence of new curriculum. Bringing students into the right conception about the language being learnt is essential for achieving language learning target as students and teachers would have the same perception about their target of language teaching and learning.

In addition, the implementation of new curriculum which changes the teacher from being information center to be facilitator toward their learning should gear the concept of student-centered classroom. Learner-centeredness should be embraced since it could maximize the learner's focus on form and meaning and their achievement (Reilly, 2000). Teacher-centredness should be left behind since the teacher often dominates the class hours. In this sense, students are inclined to be passive listeners for teachers' explanation. The ability to manage class or classroom management ability is required in this case, so that the teachers can easily lead the class without any frustration to find their classrooms are noisy in some extent.

The fact that the central government through Ministry of Education and Culture provide English textbooks both for teachers (teacher's book) and students (student's book) to use at schools is to some extent good idea. Teachers do not need to spend much of time selecting, adopting or even adapting english materials for students at class. Yet, the uniformity of the materials somehow ignore the local content where the learning occurs and where the students feel engaged with the materials as it is part of their life experience. Although this issue can be oriented with the response that the content of the textbook represent the national content which everybody can understand rather than local content representing certain local socio-culture in certain

region or province. School books should be culturally sensitive and students's varied sociocultural background will affect students' learning. Yet, the textbooks being promised are still not published for schools, so that textbook evaluation is still unable to do. In line with the idea of learner-centredness, the textbook should activate students' learning, the textbook should be communicative competence supports containing real world themes leaving more proportion on form-focused activities, and it should finally lead the students to be autonomous learners.

Regarding the potential of bringing students in autonomous learning and independency, from sociocultural perspective Dardjowidjojo (2001) argues that Indonesian students are not ready to be independent due to the strong influence of Javanese paternalistic values in their daily lives and in the government system captured from the observation of government bureaucrats. The 'obidience' culture embedded in Javanese society also supports Darjowidjojo's argument. Responding this claim, Lewis (1996) reported that the generalization that Indonesian students were 'authority-oriented' was unwarranted. Of 320 Indonesian students at higher education, it is revealed that they preferred a variety of learning models that accompanied the full complement of learning style orientation. I argue that Indonesian learners nowadays have potential to be independent and autonomous in their learning as long as the teachers could build their learning awareness about learning targets.

Although the curriculum plays important role in maintaining standards in ELT and the upcoming new 2013 curriculum is designed to improve the quality and standar of ELT in Indonesia, most of the major problems are still existing. Both Dardjowidjojo (2000) and Nur (2004) agree on five common problems such as big class sizes, teachers with low level of English proficiency, the low salary of government English teachers which encourage or even force many to moonlight, the lack of sufficient preparation to teach the new curriculum and the culture barriers for teachers to leave the role of master and to accept or to adopt the new role of facilitator. They also claims that the large class sizes and unqualified English teachers are two obvious factors that contribute to the ongoing problems in ELT in Indonesia. Musthafa (2001) also lists other reasons for the problems such as limited time allocated for teaching English; lack opportunity to actually practice speaking English in the classroom due to focus on grammar and syntax and the use of L1/ mother tongue; less authentic materials and lack opportunity to socialize English outside the classroom. According

to Yuwono (2005), ELT in Indonesia seems to be always problematic before and after decentralization era. She also suggests that the continually-revised curriculum does not seem to consider factors such as suitable qualifications for teachers and numbers of students nor does it provide strategies and alternatives.

In addition, Dardjowidjojo (2000) assumes that the number of hours a student spends in secondary school and the optional hours in elementary school should at least have resulted in a high ability in English by the time she/ he graduate from senior high school. The outcome, however, is far from the expectation. It seems that a high school graduate is unable to communicate intelligibly in English. The number of hours of learning English at class in the new 2013 curriculum are less than that of previous curriculum. This bring a big challenge for both teacher and students to work harder in achieving the learning goal in a limited time. In addition, schools should also be aware of this condition in which opportunities for additional English learning and exposure could be one effort to improve students learning mastery of English. Nevertheless, Dardjowidjojo (1996, cited in Kam, 2004) claims that the lack of students motivation, poor attitude of students in learning English and shortage of teachers with adequate English language competence are the contributors of the low ability in English.

Conclusion

The implementation of 2013 curriculum seems to be promising if Indonesian government put maximum efforts through policy and budgeting to really resolve many constraint in Indonesian ELT practices. Some common ELT problems in Indonesia such as students' lack of motivation, poor attitude toward language learning, big class size, unqualified teachers, cultural barriers for teachers to adopt new role of facilitator, and so forth are also discussed. However, the current policy of teachers' certification program, the integrative topics in some subjects in learning process as one of the main point in new curriculum 2013, and textbook provision as designed on the basis of new curriculum by the Ministry of Education and Culture have brought certain resources to the development of the quality in English language teaching in Indonesia.

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A Design of an Interactive Multimedia Learning Environment for Supporting Reading Skills of Deaf Individuals

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Abstract

Language learning is a process related to the skills in speaking, listening and learning to read and write. Reading is an activity in which humans acquire information and is therefore essential for deaf children. The purpose of this paper is to develop an interactive multimedia learning environment to promote reading skills for deaf children based on see and learn. The authors of this study focus on the idea that children should have the potential to develop learning to read based on the conceptual framework of see and learn which provides a framework for multi-media learning tools for deaf individuals. The main goal of this study is to incorporate first (sign language) and second spoken language skills as bilingual programs adapted from the hearing population model. Of particular interest is the nature of visual communication in relation to meaning, memory and identity. The study combines bilingual, visual and an interactive multi-media learning environment (tool) to improve individual - performance for deaf children. One mode uses text graphics to read Thai language by signing and with pictures. A second mode is used to recognize meaning from sign language and pictures.

This paper posits that deaf individuals can learn Thai written language and Thai sign language at the same time. The researchers found that deaf individuals can learn to read using the sign language picture story technique. The context of the story can be perceived through the text meaning and help children learn another language through picture and sign language. This current paper studies deaf children aged 10-13 years. The results confirm the expectation that deaf individuals can learn Thai-written language and Thai sign language at the same time.

Keywords: Deaf Individual, Picture Story Sign language, Interactive Multimedia

Introduction

A deaf child begins life with a high potential for language learning. This child needs a bountiful learning environment that will enable the language germ to grow into a mature language sun flower (see Figure 1). This sun flower illustrates the process of language learning that includes picture text (stories) and sign language (visual). The initial core of the sun flower continues to grow, to time release growth hormones that simulate root and leaf development as the stem, branches and leaves of plant are shaped by the plant's ecology (Schirmer, 1994). Sign language and visual communication are the origin and the innate core for establishing a language for the deaf. As the root of the sun flower grows, language becomes stronger and more mature. This study used observation and a literature review and found that deaf children are capable of learning visually (Chamberlain, Morford, & May berry, 2000). This is consistent with the nature of a visual language like sign language for deaf children (Hattal & Mandes, 1995). Thus, educators can provide support and nourishment for developing the sun flower. Learning sign language or a first language for the deaf child should be the same process as when a hearing child learns a second language. (Mueller & Hurtig, 2009) This study focuses on the "See and learn" technique in which children learn Thai sign language and Thai language in a multi-media learning environment. (see Figure 2)

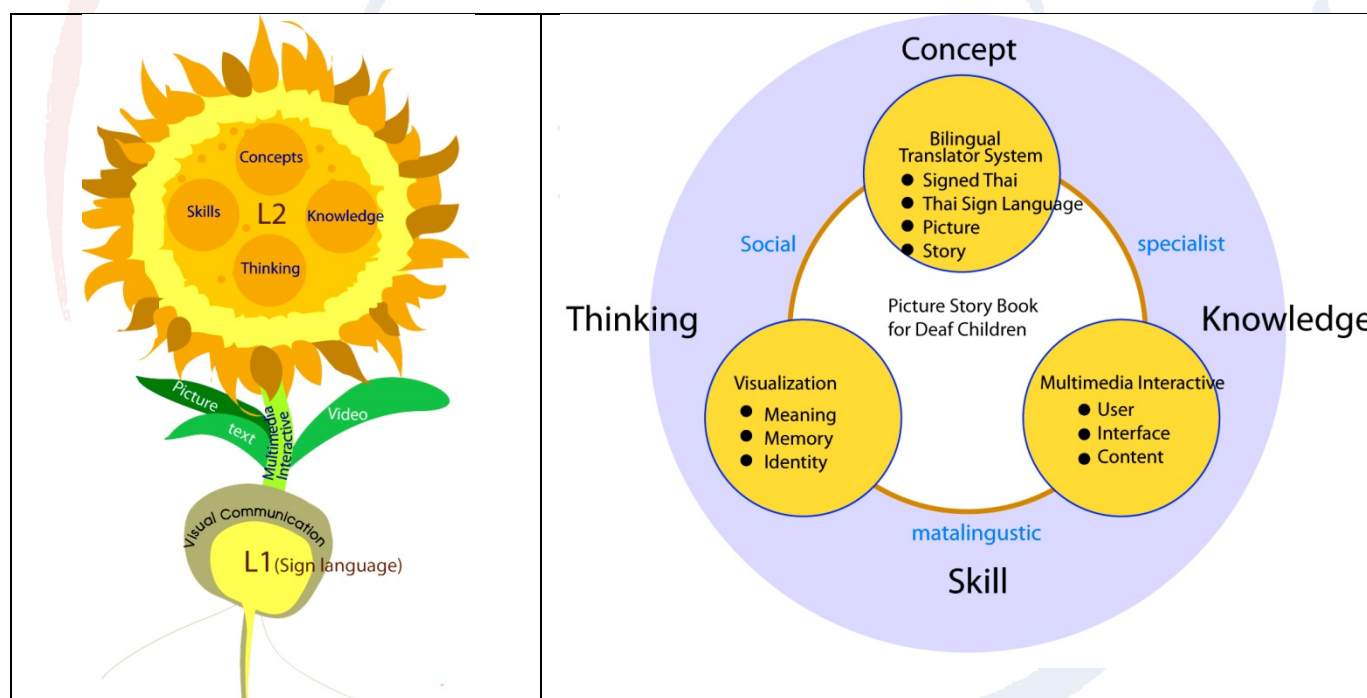


Figure 1 "See and Learns" Conceptual **Figure 2** A model of learn to read for deaf children

The growth of language is shaped by a bilingual translator system; visualization and a multi-media interactive learning environment (see Figure 2). This paper has been on the development of reading skills in deaf children. Many educator according, Sign language such as American Sign Language (ASL) (Jr, 2005), Thai Sign Language (TSL) (Lam-Khong, Suksakulchai, & Kaewprapan, 2011) is well established as the LI, then literacy in written English (L2) can be achieved by means of reading and writing (Cummins, 1984). We have attempted to apply the theory of interdependence

language of bilingual-bicultural models of literacy education for deaf students (Hermans, Ormel, Knoors, & Verhoeven, 2008).

The authors have observed and a pilot test of the conceptual frame work with deaf children in the classroom found that the most children need to be encouraged to read, specifically deaf children. We provide user interface and content multimedia tools to support deaf children learning to read using the same approaches as teaching any new material. New learning has to be in manageable amounts, with the teacher using modeling, guiding student practice, helping student when they made errors (immediate error correction), providing for sufficient practice, and reviewing the basic material. (Marshall, M, & D, 2004/2005) This study suggests that strategies for reading skills practice need to focus on meaning, especially for deaf children. Learning to read increases the knowledge of spoken and written language and the knowledge of the topic of the text (Robertson, 2009).

This study found that, a) Many parents and caregivers haven't learned sign language and few use sign language. The result is that parents can't communicate with their deaf children. b) There is a lack of opportunity for both parents and their deaf children to learn sign language. c) Vocabulary learning in the classroom is difficult because deaf children need a great deal of individual education and classrooms and they have different levels of hearing. d) There is lack of material to practice reading skills in and out of the classroom with deaf children's parents. Moreover their parents and hearing peers can share learning in each language and make connections using the same tools and same time together.

This paper reports on research on "A design of an Interactive Multimedia Learning Environment for supporting reading skills of Deaf individual". This study is designed based on the characteristics of deaf individuals whose main focus is visual and sign language. This concept supports the development of a prototype learning environment for increasing reading skills of deaf children. This study combined three concepts: bilingual, visual communication and multi-media interactive learning environment using sign language picture stories. This prototype contains an environment that supports reading skills in two modes. Mode one is about understanding meaning in Thai writing stories using Signed-Thai. Mode two environments help the reader to understand Thai vocabulary based on Thai sign language. This environmental tool can also help deaf children understand the meaning and understanding Thai language sentences at the same time. How do children learn to read a second language, using visual sign language and stories story on their own? This paper will help deaf children and hearing people learn to read a second language together. Although each language has differences in form and characteristics, it can become on language environment with the "see and learn" concept.

A model of learn to read for deaf children based on "See and Learns" Conceptual

Deaf children develop reading skills at a slower pace in comparison to normal children. This is because deaf children lack direct experience in the learning of language by hearing sounds emitted by their parents and others from the time of birth (Johnson, Liddell, & Erting, 1989). Accordingly, Deaf children cannot learn language through the oral-acoustic-auditory nexus like those who can hear sounds (Ramsey &

Padden, 1999). As such, Deaf children use sign language for communication in lieu of oral speech (Chamberlain, Morford, & May berry, 2000); (Reeves, Wollenhaupt, & Caccamise, 1995). The spoken language differs from the written language (Hermans, Ormel, Knoors, & Verhoeven, 2008). Accordingly, all of these factors cause deaf children to have significant reading difficulties (Paul, 1996).

The reading problems of children who are deaf are thought to be linked to second language learning. Thus, if children cannot learn sign language, they often withdraw early from learning Thai spoken language, and also other associated linguistic deficiencies. Literacy skills have been essential concerns of educators of deaf children for decades. Regardless of learning how to apply language teaching techniques, educators' expertise is still delayed for deaf children (Schirmer, 1994), (Marshal, M, & D, 2004/2005). Children who are born deaf often do not have the cognitive and the language skills required to achieve reading fluency higher than the fourth grade level. A report published by The Center for Assessment and Population of Gallaudet University focused on the achievement of Stanford test scores from 1989 to 1990. The report compared the academic year scores of 15 year old deaf students with the same aged hearing students. This comparison indicated that the average of a hearing 15 year old students reading at the 10th grade level and the average for a deaf or hard of hearing student was only the fourth grade level (Johnson, Liddell, & Erting, 1989). Deaf children grades 2-4 take a reading standard test of Thai language and the Ordinary National Education test (O-Net) .These children had scores below 50 percent which were lower scores than typical hearing children. (Lam-Khong, Suksakulchai, & Kaewprapan, 2011).

This paper applied the concept of learning to read in a second language, a bilingual, visual and multimedia interactive ideal based on concept of "see and learn" (SAL) of word-meaning. That is deaf students learn based on seeing the meaning not hearing (Chamberlain, Morford, & May berry, 2000). The author's Specific ASL Picture Story technique has a relation to reading skills in an environment that promotes reading skills and focuses on the characteristics of learners with visual perception not voice recognition or auditory perception (McAnally, Rose, and Quigley, 1987). This current study believes that the Hearing aid might do not fully compensate for deaf children's loss of sound. Deaf children, who lack of access to spoken language, do not hear and learn to read presumably by visual means (Reeves, Wollenhaupt, & Caccamise, 1995). This paper does not focus on the sound process. Deaf children are visual learners and communicate with gestures, which require vision. (Reeves, Wollenhaupt, & Caccamise, 1995) (Jr, 2005). Some deaf children do not understand the visual perception from their parents when acquired language (Nikolarazi & Vekiri, 2011). Basic visual perception needs to develop a sequence and a sound. (Kauffman & Hallahan, 2004). Infants with hearing losses are sensitive to early visual experiences that form the basis of later language acquisition (Scherer, 2004). As hearing infants are particularly sensitive to the sound of language in the first few months of life they can become aware of the sentence (Klein, Learning: Principles and Applications (6th ed.), 2012).

This present study examined the literature and found that low literacy rates of deaf children affect their ability to learn in the classroom. Many studies have pointed to evidence that educators can compensate the loss of hearing by the adjusting materials (for example, by rewriting the textbooks to a lower vocabulary level) (Johnson,

Liddell, & Erting, 1989). Some reviews studied related literature and a preliminary survey of the development of deaf children indicated that they lack linguistic skills because they cannot adequately learn how to use language from their parents and others in their environment (Mueller & Hurtig, 2009). More importantly, more than 90 percent of H-I children have hearing parents who do not learn sign language on par with the natural language they learned as they matured (Swanwick & Watson, 2007). Moreover, Deaf children of hearing parents sometimes acquire ASL skills at school, although this is more prominent among native signers. This state of affairs also shows that learning language in the family setting and at educational institutions is discontinuous for these deaf children (Johnson, Liddell, & Erting, 1989).

The study of sign language commences at an early childhood level with practicing sign language vocabulary concurrently with practice using the Thai language. Children also practice speaking, writing and spelling in a manner duplicating the process of language learning which begins at an early age (Scherer, 2004). This study found that development for these deaf children is slow paced and so required guidelines and tools that can be used to widen the experience of these children in language learning. Although research has not yet guaranteed a success that this can make deaf children better readers. These factors are related to the ability of deaf children to learn to read. Sign language is necessary for reading and writing development in deaf children but sign language is not sufficient for teaching deaf children read (Chamberlain, Morford, & May berry, 2000).

Consequently the authors found that hearing parents lack interaction in the learning process of their deaf children. However, we believe deaf children's hearing parents need to connect, communicate learn together with their children (Mueller & Hurtig, 2009). Some research found deaf children and deaf parents have the ability to learn together similar to hearing parents with hearing children (Swanwick & Watson, 2007). Both deaf children and their hearing parents need to participate in language learning and learn how to use a shared communication system (McAnally, Rose, & Quigley, 1987). The author found there are some gaps that are essential for deaf children who are learning to read. Deaf children who started learning a first language (sign language) from a non-native language (hearing parent) need to master interpreting or translating using sign language (Klein, Learning: Principles and Applications (6th ed.), 2012).

Multimedia process with reading and deaf children

This paper explored the potential use of computers for implementing effective reading instruction found in the report of The National Reading Panel (2000). Various topics studied included the use of computer technology in instruction of vocabulary, word recognition, comprehension, and spelling (Marshall, M, & D, 2004/2005). The National Reading Panel suggests that computer technology can be used to guide the teaching of reading, especially in speech to computer-presented text. At the very least, computers can offer students the opportunity to interact with text more frequently than with conventional instruction alone (Trezek, Wang, & Paul, 2010). Although the multimedia programs are designed to support the teaching of reading with children, if these methods lack guidelines that support experiencing language for the reader they won't motivate children to learn to read (Mueller & Hurtig, 2009).

The research found that as indicated above, computer technology alone cannot be considered an effective reading instruction strategy; the effectiveness of computer technology in reading instruction should be examined within the context of how well it facilitates instruction such as vocabulary comprehension (National Reading Panel, 2000). Most research has recognized that in order to stimulate deaf children to learn to read, visual information and sign language used together can motivate deaf children to become better readers (Nikolarazi & Vekiri, 2011). On the other hand, studies have found that using picture stories simultaneously with sign language and emotion can help deaf children learn more efficiently, especially when deaf children learn to read with parents (Epstien & Wolfson, 2005) (Yoon & Kim, 2011). Another study relating to technology-enhanced shared reading with deaf and hard of- hearing children examined the role of a fluent signing narrator creating reading experiences for deaf children (Mueller & Hurtig, 2009).

The role of the development of continued models of environment interactive multimedia in support reading for deaf children

This present paper explores the areas of reading that are associated with forming written words on page and not the entire sentence (Olson, 1994). The children's literacy experience refers to creating a conjecture or imaginative reading of a single word or phrase to allow memory (Epstien & Wolfson, 2005). The multimedia learning tool of this current study contributes significantly to the process of learning to read. The "Click to choose words" technique enables the reader to engage or interact with the text. However, the choice is not able to make a successful reader if the reader is not familiar with the text because there will be a lack of perceived meaning. Most research believes that cognitive learning needs motivation in order to use material to assist in the reading of the deaf individuals who have difficulties learning and have a lack language experience. There have been more problems with learning materials themselves (Mayer, 2009) and research reports indicate that if learning content is composed only of visual materials (captioned sign language), the cognitive load increases (Yoon & Kim, 2011).

This multimedia environment wants to help deaf children learn a second language (Thai written language) and to continue simultaneously to learn a first language (sign language-Thai sign). And then Children acquire meaning in a second language (Thai language) with a first language (sign language-Thai sign language) for a second time. Deaf Children need to do some reading on their own, because they have less skill and lack opportunities to practice reading independently. The researchers are interested in modeling the interaction of the multimedia tool with parents and children. The multimedia programs for deaf children have been shown to be successful when deaf children and parents read a story and share together. The authors believe the multimedia environment for deaf children required participation in research through accessible designs.

However, this study reveals how this multimedia environment can be an advantage for deaf students with various learning needs. The development of the model for multimedia learning environment to support reading skill for deaf individual needs to provide multiple, flexible methods of meta linguistic (Meyer & Rose, 2002). This current study attempts to create a structured model which provides multiple and flexible methods for presenting the content as scaffold learning, that engages children using multimedia learning environments. This model incorporates opportunities for

deaf children and their hearing parents to learn to read and to gain knowledge, skills, and enthusiasm for learning together

The learning of sign language using videos makes the inner meaning cognitive in their first language as well as picture intermediate sign language and Thai language. This experiment of language used native language with stories as deaf children and their hearing parent learned to read together. This study created an important environment that allows interaction between deaf children and their hearing parents, learning sign language as a second language. The authors used two languages, Thai sign language and written Thai languages together. Windows are used to make contact with users. Applications are divided into three systems: the presentation of the sign language video in conjunction with written vocabulary; the presentation of pictures reflective of vocabulary and stories; and assistance in explaining meaning using sign language. Explanations are brief using simple vocabulary and making comparisons by showing how sentences differ. This system will allow children to experience language by presenting vocabulary in video form and in illustrations, as well as through using buttons allowing the viewing of vocabulary explanations using pictures.

The experiments and discoveries focus on the training of deaf children and their parents based on a perspective of understanding in language learning in which children learn Thai as a second language and parents learn Thai sign language as a second language in the same environment or classroom.

Period of the prototype experiment

In the second period, the prototype experiment was conducted using a sample population taken from H-I students enrolled at deaf schools at the sixth grade. The students under study were expected to have some command of vocabulary and sign language. They were completely unable to hear, but had no other deficiencies. The total sample population was comprised of eight students, six males and two females who were between the ages of thirteen and fifteen. The students were divided into two groups: one group read using a computer and the other group read using ordinary books. Teachers participated in the process of observation.

Guidelines in evaluating the use of this prototype are as follows: knowing only sign language may not be sufficient for students achieving full understanding of vocabulary. H-I children learn from seeing and memorizing the pictures seen. Therefore, the explanation of the meaning of vocabulary must fall under the categories of simultaneously occurring or related incidents. An example is provided by the word "museum" in this paper used to "พิพิธภัณฑ์". The vocabulary item is simultaneously presented with a picture of a museum. The sign language used in the explanation is in the form of incidents or representing in abbreviated meanings defining the word through such techniques as showing that this is a place where valuable and ancient things are collected and exhibited.

A survey of the classes at deaf school found that this model of storytelling in practicing reading can help students to develop a more complex vocabulary. Furthermore, the presentation as unfolding in various steps includes the presentation of pictures according to their temporal sequence of occurrence, learning from storytelling using sign language, or selecting situations in order to practice in real

circumstances. Students were trained to ask and answer questions and to construct short sentences, etc. Then, finally, they were guided in the actual process of reading.

The researcher conducted participatory observation in classes and found that the teaching of vocabulary from stories requires teachers who have command of sign language and the Thai language at a high level because they have to be able to explain vocabulary items for each section in an understandable manner.

The process of practicing reading on a single topic is time consuming and requires at least twelve hours solely for the memorization of vocabulary items. The children's understanding of what they read is limited. Therefore, tests and reviews were regularly conducted step by step. If constant testing and reviewing are practiced, reading outcomes will be improved and the readers will become more adept at reading. Materials for reading must be prepared beforehand.

In view of the aforementioned problems, the researcher concluded that a learning model promoting reading with a pictorial and sign language structure can be used for practice purposes through application of the appropriate technology on the foundation of a theoretical conceptual framework integrating inputs from learners, the environment, and technology. The researcher video-recorded the discussion which took place during the reading observation session and explained the basic use of the program. In the next step, each student was tested over a period of ten minutes. After testing was completed, the students were asked to complete an evaluation form and to discuss the reading model used for both groups.

In the survey investigation of the two techniques, the researcher found that the reading model using ordinary books showed that most students looked at the pictures and flipped through pages very quickly. If interested, they would look at glyphs. In regard to explanation of stories in this group, it was found that storytelling was based on illustrations using the technique of pointing at pictures. For those using the computer program, sign language, pictures, and stories, it was observed that students easily selected which stories to read, although there were difficulties at first. After explanations were made, they could continue.

The students were asked what their opinions were of the experiment after its conclusion and it was found that they were satisfied with reading using sign language and moving pictures. Finally, it was observed that while the clicking on glyphs during reading, some students paused and simultaneously practiced sign language. For those students with limited knowledge of sign language, this method can be used as a review so that this will benefit them in regard to reinforcing their knowledge of sign language as well.

Findings on the basis of the model used in this preliminary evaluation indicated that H-I students differ in their capacities to learn on their own, in paying attention to the reading task at hand, and yet remaining satisfied with reading activities. This model was applied as a pre-assessment guide. As an example on the first page, the researcher provided guidance before the subject was requested to read on his or her own. This guidance allowed the participant to observe reading behaviors, the applications, the selection of glyphs, and the understanding of meaning from sign language and pictures as shown in the sample pictures.

The concept guiding the researcher was how best to allow the children to access the computer program easily while being entertained. The meaning can be understood accurately by using clear pictures and sign language. The colors used must be easy to discern. Buttons to select for responding to content must be clear with easy-to-understand symbols that encourage joint learning between parents and H-I children. These techniques can also be applied in teaching sign language to normal children as well.

Discussion

Analysis of these based on three aspects of the basic method of this research used participant observation in a classroom with an instructor teaching Thai vocabulary and sentence structure to deaf students. This study found that Deaf children have different perceptions, experiences and knowledge in reading Thai language. These are the three groups this study observed; Children who can understand examples immediately, Children who can understand with further explanation. And finally children who find it difficult to understand because they don't know sign language and the teacher must use more sign language examples in order to get the children to understand.

The research questions for this study are intended to serve as a guide for further development in improving the child's ability to learn to read on their own. This current study found that children might lack the background knowledge in Thai sign language. The study provides a guide to build a sign language background using pictures and stories so that children see images and text that are used by teachers to enhance their learning. Most of time children can learn Thai language and sign language simultaneously. Vocabulary by sight was designed to support deaf children's reading skills by construction of the visual experience. Stories were used to provide information and to help children remember and recognize vocabulary. Teachers used a method of introducing 6 to 8 word for children to learn and practice (McAnally, Rose, & Quigley, 1987). Guided reading by teachers was combined with the multimedia environment tool because deaf children need practical skills in order to build background knowledge working independently from a teacher or parent. Furthermore, in order to create an environment that encourages reading children need to be fully guided to access the information.

This study is a prototype concept to build language experience for deaf children. The research will develop an assessment tool to determine the level of the ability and skills in reading in part 2 of the study. The child's development will be based on the idea that children can practice and learn on their own. Moreover, this environmental learning tool will be used to support learning Thai sign language by hearing parents as part of the process of children's learning a second language.

Conclusion

The author believes that the bilingual book for deaf children can be used to increase the children's motivation to read whole stories. Deaf children who have a basic literacy in their first language (sign language) are different individuals. A learning system to read in a second language can be implemented to review children's knowledge of language learning in order to understand the efficiency and the effectiveness when learning to read Thai written language. The multimedia book

appears to make it easier to learn to read. In order for deaf children who have less skill and for whom it is more difficult to learn to read, guidance is best for teaching them.

Multimedia interactive environments can be used to promote children to reading skills because deaf children need motivation (Yoon & Kim, 2011). Whole stories show the concept and form of material and allow deaf children to identify the content clearly (Nikolarazi & Vekiri, 2011). Deaf Children are different from hearing individuals (Hermans, Ormel, Knoors, & Verhoeven, 2008). Reading that illustrated the sequence of events are needed to provide a clear overview of the content and to show how many sign language picture stories are needed for children to learn to read (Marshall, M., & D., 2004/2005). The story book used in this study is a simulated learning experience for explaining the meaning of vocabulary with a teacher in the classroom (Mueller & Hurtig, 2009).

Moreover, deaf children need additional practice time in the classroom. This paper also represents the need for better communication between deaf children and their parents. Deaf children's social interaction is enhanced when they read with their parents. Deaf children need to have early visual experiences (signing) that form the basics of later language acquisition through reading. However, children are individuals and, a bilingual multimedia interactive environment can make the simultaneous acquisition of two languages possible. Educators need also to train parents to know and use sign language in the home in order for deaf children to succeed in regular school classrooms.

Deaf children will be better learners if the teacher is a role model. These children often have a dependent learning style and the teacher needs to show clear context in the classroom. Children have different skills in both Thai language and Thai sign language, so teachers must make sure that children understand the vocabulary and learn both Thai sign language and Thai language together. Although this is difficult, it is essential and teaching both sign and written language is what the multimedia interactive environmental tool accomplishes.

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Emergence of the English Present Perfect

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Abstract

Previous research studies have shown that tense and aspect are acquired in a particular order and tense is usually acquired before aspect. The purpose of this investigation was to test the claim that learners in general must master the simple past (SP) at an accuracy rate of 85.9% before they begin to acquire the present perfect (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Fifteen Thai learners of English completed a cloze test, translation test, and a writing test. Results revealed that learners showed an average SP accuracy rate of 72.7% when the present perfect emerged. A strong correlation was also found between the SP accuracy rate and number of use of the present perfect. Explanation of results and implication of the results are discussed.

KEYWORDS: tense, aspect, present perfect, simple past, second language acquisition, EFL learners

Previous studies reveal that the acquisition of tense and aspect follows a particular order (Bardovi-Harlig, 1998: 2001; Dietrich, Klien, & Noyau, 1995). These findings were a result of two main research approaches. The meaning-oriented and the form-oriented approaches.

The former investigates tense and aspect acquisition from a semantic and pragmatic perspective. Studies are mainly interested on how learners express temporality at any given stage of their development, how they move from one stage to another, and what factors contribute to their development. These studies have suggested that the order moves from a pragmatic to a lexical and finally a grammatical expression of temporality (Giacolone Ramat & Banfi, 1990; Schumann, 1987; Comrie, 1985 cited in Bardovi-Harlig, 2000). That is, learners progress from using discourse principles such as chronological order, to using adverbials and then verbal morphological markings.

Form-oriented studies focus on the emergence of verbal morphology in expressing temporality. After studying the acquisition of temporal expression of a variety of languages (e.g., English, German, Dutch, Swedish, etc.), Dietrich, Klien, and Noyau (1995) summarized four general principles that account for the order of temporal acquisition. First, acquisition of temporal expressions is a slow and gradual process. There is no sudden leap in the development and the incorrect and correct usage will co-exist for a long time. After learners use of temporal expressions have increased along with established form and function associations, the learner moves from incorrect to more correct usage. Second, in these associations, form is usually acquired before function. That is, many of the verbal morphological markings that emerge do not have appropriate association to their function. Third, irregular morphology is acquired before regular morphology. Although the regular morphology has simple formation rules, the irregular forms are acquired earlier. This implies that the acquisition process is not absolutely dominated by rule learning. Since verbs with irregular formation are more frequently used and are also more simpler to distinguish, it is logical they are acquired first. Finally, tense is marked before aspect. Learners of English may show early forms of progressive and perfect but their meaning has not yet been clearly substantiated. Below are two specific studies that reflect these principles of the acquisition.

Klein (1995) carried a longitudinal investigation of verbal morphology development of two Italian and two Punjabi learners of English working and studying in England. Informal conversations based on personal experiences, retell of films and guided conversations were gathered over a three year period. The average distance of the recordings was about a month. Results revealed an order of past temporal expression acquisition beginning with simple past, then the present perfect and finally the past perfect. Participants' expression of temporality were described in two steps. First, they form a simple but functional basic variety. Their utterances consisted of simple nouns, base form verbs, no use of copula verbs, and temporal adverbials that show position. Andrea seem not to develop over this stage. Lavina, however, showed further progress in her development. She exhibited more morphological forms although they were not always consistent with their proper functions. She also showed more accurate use of the simple past than developing use of aspect. Her irregular verb forms also showed higher frequency than regular forms.

Similarly, Bardovi-Harlig (1994b) conducted a longitudinal study of emergence of the past perfect. The study focuses on learners' use of rhetorical devices, especially tense contrast and adverbials in reverse-order reports (ROR). RORs are clauses or sentences that are not organized in a chronological order (e.g., When I went down stairs, he had already left). Written personal narratives and elicited retell tasks were collected over a 10 month period from English L2 learners from four different L1 backgrounds (i.e., Arabic, Japanese, Korean and Spanish) enrolled in an intensive English program in the U.S. Every verb type used for past time reference were coded for verbal morphology and counted. Appropriate use of the past tense was calculated as the ratio of the past tense forms used in the number of obligatory context. Results revealed that learners used chronological order, tense contrast, and predominantly adverbials to mark ROR. The researcher also found that learners needed to acquire the simple past and the concept of ROR before they were able to acquire the past perfect regardless of instruction.

As previous studies have shown, learners acquire the English tense and aspect in a particular order. The studies above indicate that learners have to acquire the past tense at a particular level in order to move on to acquiring aspect. However, only a few studies have attempted to measure the past tense accuracy rate in relation to emergence of aspect. What is more, only one study, described below, investigated the relationship of the simple past and emergence of the present perfect in L2 learners.

Bardovi-Harlig (2001) conducted a longitudinal study investigating the emergence of the present perfect. Written and oral texts were collected over a nine month period in average. The written texts, which accounted for the majority of the data, consisted of journal entries, compositions, essay placement exams, and elicited narratives. The oral texts included interviews and film-retell tasks. These tasks were completed by learners from four L1 backgrounds (i.e., Arabic, Japanese, Korean, and Spanish) who were attending an intensive English program (IEP) at a well-recognized university in the United States. Appropriate use of the simple past was calculated as the ratio of the past tense forms used in the number of obligatory context. Emergence was accounted for when the learners demonstrated the first appropriate attempt of the present perfect regardless of spelling and morphological errors. Results indicated that the present perfect emerged after the simple past revealed a stable rate of appropriate use (mean group rate, 85.9%). The researcher explains that while learners were acquiring the present perfect, they had to restructure their knowledge of the use of the simple past. This resulted in the overgeneralizations (i.e., learners used the present perfect in the environment of simple past and present) and undergeneralizations (i.e., learners used the simple past and present in the present perfect's environment) of learners' use. It was also found that instruction had the effect of increasing learners' production of the present perfect.

In sum, it has been suggested that tense and aspect acquisition has a predictable order and that the order is universal. Recently, the emergence of the English present perfect seem to follow a particular order. That is, before learners begin to acquire the associations of its form and meaning, they must already have a high competence in the use of the simple past at 85.9% appropriate use (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Since the emergence of the English present perfect has not been attested elsewhere, it is worth investigating whether the findings would hold true if repeated. The purpose of this

study is to examine whether Thai learners of English acquire the simple past at a high accuracy level before showing emergence of the present perfect.

Research questions

1. What is the simple past accuracy rate for Thai learners of English who show emergence of the present perfect?
2. What is the relationship between simple past accuracy rate and use of the present perfect?

Method

Participants

The participants were 24 Thai learners of English, 13 males and 11 females. The age average was 24.1 (S.D. 5.06). All 24 participants have learned English as a foreign language in classrooms in Thailand for an average of 10.2 years (S.D. 2.88). The focus of the curriculum has been devoted to grammar (e.g., tense, clause and sentence structure). Nine participants were considered high proficiency learners based on their educational experience in an English speaking country and their current regular active use of English. Eight of the high proficiency learners have studied at the undergraduate level in an English speaking country for 2 years in average. One of the high proficiency learners has received a bachelor degree in English. Fifteen participants were considered low proficiency learners; fourteen are doing a remedial course at Khon Kaen University, Nong Khai campus and one has been in the United states for only five months, but is not enrolled in any kind of formal education.

Target structure

The target structure for this study was the present perfect aspect and the simple past. The structure and function of the present perfect aspect was based on the descriptions in a grammar reference book, a grammar text book, and an article (Azar, 1992; Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; Inoue, 1979). The form and function used to code the present perfect were as follows.

The structure of the present perfect is have/ have + ed-participle. The functions are separated into four categories. First, the present perfect is used to describe an activity or situation that began in the past but has continued up to the present time.

- (a) I have studied for an hour.
- (b) I have been a teacher for 20 years.

Second, the present perfect is used to describe activities or situations that occurred (or did not occur) in an unspecified time in the past.

- (c) Jim has already eaten lunch.
- (d) Ann hasn't eaten lunch yet.

Third, the present perfect is used to describe activities that occur repeatedly in the past at unspecified times.

- (e) I've been to that theater five or six times.
- (f) I've had three tests so far this week.

Forth, the present perfect is often used to with the adverbial *since* that marks the starting point in the past of an activity that continues until present.

- (g) Erica has lived in this city since 1989.
- (h) I have known Ben since we were in kindergarten.

The simple past form is separated into regular and irregular verbs. Regular verbs in the simple past are inflected by adding -ed at the end of the verb.

- (i) I finished my work two hours ago.

Irregular verbs in the simple past change their form or remain in the form of a bare infinitive.

- (j) That man took his wallet.
- (k) I cut my finger while cooking last night.

The simple past is used to describe an activity or state that was in the past and has ended. It can be accompanied by adverbials that show the time of the activity as in sentence (c) above.

The adverbial *then* can also be used with the simple past to mark the progression of activities in the past.

- (l) And [**then**] they said have you heard of the paper? And I said yes but not as er as a window. [**Then**] they said well and [**then**] I realized that it was Fennite. (Biber et. al, 1999)

The verbs in this study were coded for present perfect and simple past according to the description above. The verbs themselves were not separated into any semantic or lexical category.

Design

The materials used in this study were designed to elicit the use of the past simple and present perfect tense. Three types of tasks were used including 1) a cloze test, 2) translation task, and 3) a writing task.

The cloze test. The purpose of the cloze test was to test participants' accuracy regarding the appropriate use of the present perfect and the simple past tense. The items were adapted from present perfect and past simple tense cloze exercises from various sources (Azar, 1992; Murphy, 1992; Zante, Daise, Noloff, & Falk, 2000). The test included 30 items with 43 gaps. Of the 43 gaps, 14 were present perfect slots. Sixteen were simple past slots, and the other 13 were distracters of other tenses. There were more simple past slots because the main objective was to analyze the simple past accuracy rate. Test takers were expected to change the form of the verbs provided in parentheses to its appropriate form-meaning association. The contexts for each target structure were piloted as being adequate for test takers to make appropriate choices (see appendix A).

The translation task. The purpose of this task is to elicit more use of the present perfect and past simple by Thai learners of English. It was still semi-structured. Learners were constrained by the context to provide appropriate tense. These were also piloted and edited. There were of 15 Thai sentences to be translated to English. Seven required the use of the English present perfect for appropriate translations. Five required the use of the past simple tense and three are distracters that require other tenses for correct translation (see appendix B).

The writing task. The final task was designed to elicit participants' production of the present perfect and past simple tense in a more natural environment. The topic ask participants to write, in about 250 words, activities in the past week, month or year. They were also ask to describe activities they have and have not done during that period. The task was piloted by native speakers and advanced non-native speakers (see appendix C).

Procedure

Piloting. All three tasks were piloted to ensure whether they were able to elicited the use of the present perfect and the simple past tense. Native speakers and

advanced non-native speakers of English were asked to do the cloze test and writing task. Thai advanced learners of English were asked to do the translation task. Items from the test and tasks were adjusted according to their effectiveness. Tasks that did not elicit the target form were replaced with new items.

Data collection. For participants in Thailand the cloze-test and translation task were administered in class time. The class was a remedial integrated skill English course. Thus, in order not to consume too much class time they were administered on two separate days. Participants were given 30 to 40 minutes to complete each task. The cloze test was administered first, followed by the translation task. The writing tasks were given as homework assignments. They were given three days to complete it. The administration of the tasks were not counter-balanced since learners performance on each tests were not needed to be compared. They were strictly informed not to plagiarize or copy their friends by the course instructor in Thailand. The tests were sent to the instructor via e-mail. The researcher went through the details of how to administer the test with the teacher via e-mail and phone. After all tests were completed, they were electronically scanned and sent to the researcher via e-mail.

For participants living in Flagstaff, the researcher made an appointment to do all three tests on one day. The test was administered at one location at the same time. The researcher administered and collected the paper tests. Tests were also administered to other participants who were studying in Australia and Japan. The researcher sent the tests via e-mail. They were strictly told not to plagiarize or consult anyone while doing the tests. The tests were sent back via e-mail and printed out for analysis. Out of 24 participants, 15 completed all the three tests. Consequently, these fifteen were used for the analysis.

Analysis

After receiving the tests, the items were checked for attempts of use in its appropriate context. The unit of analysis was types of verbs. The verb type was labeled as either appropriate present perfect usage or simple past usage. Appropriate was defined as correct choice of tense and aspect regardless of its form. Thus, mistakes on spelling and grammatical inflections were ignored. Next, the total number of appropriate use was tallied for each participant. The simple accuracy test was used to measure participants' accuracy of the simple past (SP). The MS Excel program was used to calculate the accuracy score. The formula was $(\text{number of appropriate verb type} / \text{total context of verb type}) \times 100$.

To determine emergence of the present perfect, emergence was defined as appropriate use of the present perfect with at least three types of verbs. Thus, participants who used three or more different types of verbs in the present perfect in its appropriate context were considered to have demonstrated emergence. Using three types of verbs as a criteria was to ensure that the use was achieved by mere chance. In previous studies emergence was accounted for when the target form first appeared, even if it was one time (Bardovi-Harlig, 2000, p.94).

The relationship between the simple past accuracy rate and the use of the present perfect was determined by using the Pearson correlation test.

Results

It has been claimed that learners who first show emergence of the present perfect, demonstrate the use of the simple past tense at an accuracy of 85.9% on average (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). The purpose of this study was to test this claim. Twenty-four Thai learners of English participated in this study but nine did not complete all three tests. As a result, data from 15 participants who completed all three tests were analyzed. This section of the paper will discuss the results from tests.

Table 1

Simple Past Accuracy and Emergence of the Present Perfect

Name	Simple past accuracy rate (%)	Present perfect verb type (n)	Emergence of present perfect
Nut	86.11	8	Yes
Grit	84.62	8	Yes
Fon	84.62	3	Yes

Table 1 (cont')

Simple Past Accuracy and Emergence of the Present Perfect

Name	Simple past accuracy rate (%)	Present perfect verb type (n)	Emergence of present perfect
Nam	82.14	3	Yes
Aphichai	80.00	7	Yes
Sucheewa	80.00	5	Yes
Voravit	64.29	9	Yes
Sasivimon	64.00	4	Yes
Pariyawan	58.33	4	Yes
Kiattipong	45.45	2	No
Songpon	42.86	7	Yes
Ananchai	42.86	2	No
Virasak	28.57	0	No
Bandit	28.57	1	No
Supalerk	14.29	0	No

Table 1 shows the simple past (SP) accuracy rate of all 15 participants. The highest simple past (SP) accuracy rate was 86.11%. The lowest SP accuracy rate was 14.29%. The mean score was 59.11 and the standard deviation was 24.01.

Table 1 also illustrates the number of present perfect aspect produced by each participant. The highest number of present perfect produced was nine. The lowest number of the present perfect produced was none.

Table 1 further reveals the number of participants that showed emergence of the present perfect. As described in the previous section, the emergence of the present perfect was defined as learners' use the present perfect in an appropriate environment with at least three unique verbs. Ten participants demonstrated emergence of the present perfect. When emergence of the present perfect was compared with SP accuracy rate, results reveal that the highest SP accuracy rate that demonstrates the emergence was 86.11%. The lowest SP accuracy rate that demonstrated emergence

was 42.86%. The mean score for participants who showed emergence of the present perfect was 72.7% and the standard deviation was 14.54.

Table 2

Mean score of present perfect accuracy rate

	Min	Max	Mean	S.D.
Present perfect accuracy rate	35.24	41.33	38.31	2.83

Table 2 illustrates the mean and standard deviation of the present perfect accuracy rate. The mean score was 38.31% and standard deviation was 2.83.

Table 3

Correlation between SP accuracy rate and present perfect use (n=15)

	M	S.D.	r	p
SP accuracy rate	59.11	24.01	.67	.006*
Present perfect use	4.20	3.00		

* $p < .01$

Table 3 shows the correlation between SP accuracy rate and present perfect use. Results reveal a strong correlation ($r = .67, p < .01$).

Discussion

Summary of findings

The purpose of this study was to attest the claim that the present perfect emerges after L2 learners demonstrate a stable rate of accurate use of the simple past (SP) tense at 85.9% on average. Fifteen Thai learners of English participated in the study, nine were considered high proficiency learners and six were considered low proficiency learners. Participants was administered a cloze test, translation test, and a writing test that was designed to elicit the use of the SP and present perfect. Results revealed a SP accuracy rate mean score of 72.7% when learners showed emergence of the present perfect. The lowest SP accuracy rate that showed emergence was 42.86%. A correlation analysis also revealed a strong relationship between the use of the present perfect and accurate use of the SP ($r = .67, p < .01$).

Explanation of findings

The findings from this study suggest that L2 learners of English acquire the SP before the present perfect tense. This finding corresponds with previous studies that have found that the English SP tense is usually acquire before aspect (Bardovi, 1994b: 2001; Klien, 1995). Thai learners of English in this study do seem to deviate from this order. The accuracy rate of the present perfect usage ($x = 38.31$) is lower that the accuracy rate of the SP ($x = 59.11$). Evidently, learners possess more knowledge of the SP than the present perfect at this point. What is more, the correlation analysis between the accuracy rate of the SP and the present perfect use suggests that the more accurate learners are at using the SP the more they are able to use the present perfect ($r = .67, p < .01$).

In respect to the emergence of the present perfect, the mastery of the SP ($x = 72.7\%$) seemed to be a prerequisite for learners. However, the degree of accuracy was not as high as had previously been suggested (85.9%). Bardovi-Harlig (2001) found that appropriate use of the SP ranged from 75% to 93% when the first present perfect

emerged. This study shows that the SP accuracy rate ranged from 42.86% to 86.11% when the present perfect emerged (except for the case of Kiattipong whose SP accuracy rate was 45.45% but showed no emergence of the present perfect). As shown, the time of emergence in this study (42.86%) was much lower than the previous study (75%). In fact, four learners who were under 75% SP accuracy rate (i.e., 64.3%, 64%, 65.3%, and 42.9%) showed appropriate use of the present perfect at the emergence level. This indicates that learners who have not yet acquired the SP at such a relatively high level are still able so acquire the present perfect. In fact, the learner who attained 42.86% SP accuracy demonstrated a high number of the present perfect usage (7).

Conversely, Kiattipong who demonstrated a slightly higher rate of SP accuracy at 45.45% did not show emergence of the present perfect. This could be due to the amount of exposure to the present perfect. As shown, Songpon who demonstrated lower accuracy rate of the SP (42.86%) showed emergence of the present perfect tense. According to the background information, Songpon has been in the United States for at least five months now while Kiattipong has never had such an experience. This could imply that exposure to the language can influence the developmental sequence.

Table 3

Appropriate Use of the Present Perfect in Obligatory Contexts

Present perfect obligatory context	Appropriate use		
	Number of use	Total context	Accuracy (%)
Continued activity up to present	37	105	35.24
Activity at an unspecified time in the past	22	60	36.67
Repeatable activity	31	75	41.33
Uses with since	18	45	40

In order to understand better learners' knowledge of the present perfect tense at his stage, a post hoc analysis of the accuracy rate of the present perfect in its obligatory context was calculated. Results revealed a rather balanced accuracy in each obligatory context. Learners exhibited highest meaning association of the present perfect with repeatable activities. The lowest meaning association was with activities continued up to present. However, the accuracy rate in each obligatory context are slightly different. This implies that learners do not associate the meaning and function of the present perfect with a single context. Learners seem to develop present perfect meaning and function associations with the four contexts simultaneously. Another reason may be that the four obligatory contexts are false dichotomies. That is, each obligatory context is not semantically different from one another.

- (m) We haven't finished this exercise yet.
- (n) Have you ever eaten at Mae Ploy's?
- (o) George W. Bush has visited France many times.
- (p) I have known her since I was a freshman in high school.

The statements above were based on a summary of a grammar text book, reference book, and article on the English present perfect (Azar, 1992; Biber et al., 1999; Inoue, 1979). They illustrate the use of the present perfect in the four

obligatory. Statement (a) is the present perfect used with activities that continue up to present, (b) with activities where time is left unspecified, (c) with repeatable activities, and (d) with since to express a point of departure. Inoue (1979) inserted that the meaning of the English present perfect is tied with the notion of 'current relevance.' Although she distinguishes the present perfect into the first three cases, they all adhere to current relevance. For example, statement (c) entails that the speaker perceives the activity as repeatable. When someone states "George W. Bush has visited France many times", it he can still do it again because he is still alive. If you change the subject from George Bush to President Kennedy, on the other hand, the present perfect cannot be used. The point, however, is that statement (c) can also be perceived as a continued activity up until present and an event of an unspecified time in the past. Thus, the perception of the meaning of the present perfect is not tied into one particular semantic category but all three. The same is with statement (b) "Have you ever eaten at Mae Ploy's?". The speaker focuses on the event rather than when it has taken place. Thus, he/ she is asking about an activity at an unspecified time in the past. However, the question is also speaking about an activity within the time frame of past to present. Therefore, the speaker may also be perceiving the present perfect in that regard.

In short, the statements above have been separated into different semantic categories but they can actually be placed into more than one. Therefore, what seems as learners' balanced development of each semantic category could be just the development of one concept and applied to all. Grammar books often separate the use of the present perfect according to the above categories. Whether this has helped learners acquire the present perfect is a matter of empirical evidence.

Implications

Although this study was not designed to answer any pedagogical questions directly, the findings may still be able to help teachers make certain decisions. Pedagogical implications from the findings in this study should be interpreted with caution. The fact that learners acquire the SP before present perfect does not mean that teachers should wait until learners have mastered the SP before they introduce the present perfect to learners. However, teachers should not expect learners to be able to produce the present perfect with a level of high accuracy when they may not be ready to. It is not imperative that learners have 85.9% accuracy of the simple past use in order to start acquiring the present perfect. This study suggests that learners will already have acquired a certain amount of accuracy of the present perfect use even though the SP knowledge is not yet highly accurate.

Another implication that can be made is that the present perfect may be made more of a complicated aspect to explain than it actually is. Grammar text books often distinguish the present perfect into several usages. Although this may make it clearer for learners to know different aspects of the present perfect, they should be reminded that each aspect is not exclusive but rather inclusive of the other meanings.

Limitations and future research

This study is not without limitations. First, the sample size is relatively small (15). Second, the study is cross-sectional. Thus, they cannot be fairly compared to Bardovi-Harlig's (2001) study which was longitudinal. Her study had a larger size of sample that was collected in a 9 month period at least. Third, the definition of

emergence in this study is not identical to Bardovi-Harlig's. In her study, it seemed that any first appropriate use of the present perfect was seen as an emergence. In the current study, emergence was defined as accuracy of the present perfect of at least three types of verbs. Thus, this definition is more constrained. A future longitudinal study with a larger sample will be able to help clarify the findings and suggestions made in this study. Future research should investigate whether one learners separate the meanings of present perfect according to the semantic categories that have previously been suggested.

Conclusion

The current study has revealed that emergence of the English present perfect is not constrained by 85.6% SP accuracy rate. This study found that learners showed emergence of the present perfect ranging from 42.9-86.11% SP accuracy rate and an average of 72.7%. It was also found that within this average, learners had acquired approximately 38.3% present perfect accuracy rate. Furthermore, there was a strong association between increasing knowledge of the SP and emergence of the present perfect. Finally, a post-hoc analysis suggests that when acquiring the present perfect, learners may acquire one of its semantic concept but are able to apply it to other context as well.

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Appendix A

Test 1

จงทำประโยคให้สมบูรณ์โดยเปลี่ยนกริยาในวงเล็บให้ถูก tense
(ในบางข้ออาจต้องใช้กริยาช่วยหรือสลับคำในวงเล็บ)

ตัวอย่าง

1. I (leave) *am leaving* Bangkok tonight.

2. Why (you/do) *did you do* yesterday?

1. I (walk) _____ to school tomorrow morning. I need the exercise.
2. There (be) _____ a flight to Dallas at 7.02 tomorrow morning.
3. A: Are you going to finish your work before you go to bed?
B: I (finish, already) _____. I (finish) _____ my work two hours ago.
4. I dropped my vase. It (fall) _____ on the floor and (break) _____ into a hundred pieces.
5. Last night I had a good night sleep. I (sleep) _____ for nine hours.
6. A: Is Jim going to eat lunch with us today?
B: No, he (eat already) _____.
7. What (you/do) _____ tomorrow night?
B: No, he (eat, already) _____. He (eat) _____ an hour ago.
8. A: (Jean, study) _____ at the library this evening?
B: No. She (be) _____ at the student union.
9. A: Have you been to Europe?
B: I (be) _____ to Europe several times. In fact, I (be) _____ in Italy last year.
10. We (not finish) _____ this exercise yet.
11. Last week, my dog (dig) _____ a hole in the yard and (bury) _____ his bone.
12. Carol and I are old friends. I (know) _____ her since I (be) _____ a freshman in high school.
13. I (have, not) _____ any problems since I (come) _____ here.
14. Would George be angry if I (take) _____ his bicycle without asking.
15. A: When did it last rain?
B: It (not rain) _____ for ages.
16. When Alan slipped on the icy sidewalk yesterday, he (fall) _____ and (hurt) _____ his back. His back is very painful today.
17. Shhh. The baby (sleep) _____. The baby (sleep) _____ for ten hours every night.
18. Jack (lose) _____ his pocketknife at the park the day before. This morning he (go) _____ back to the park to look for it.
19. If I (be) _____, I wouldn't marry him.
20. (you/ be/ ever) _____ to Egypt?
21. A: (You, know) _____ Tom Adams?
B: No, I don't.
22. We (eat) _____ a lot yesterday, but we (not eat) _____ much so far today.
23. While Bob (take) _____ a shower, the phone (ring) _____.

24. Josh lives in Athens. He (live) _____ there all his life.
25. Mr. Clark (work) _____ in the bank for 15 years. Then he gave it up.
26. The president of the United States, George W. Bush, (visit) _____ France many times.
27. When we were on vacation, the weather (be) _____ terrible.
28. My grandfather died 30 years ago. I (never/ meet) _____ him.
29. Bob and Alice are married. They (be married) _____ for 20 twenty years.
30. If the company (offer) _____ me a job, I think I would take it.

Appendix B

Test 2

จงแปลประโยคดังต่อไปนี้ให้เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ และจงใช้ *tense* ให้ถูกต้อง

1. รถออกป้ายสองวันนี้

2. สมบัติไม่เคยมาเรียนตรงเวลา

3. เมื่อเรียนจบแล้ว เขาจะไปทำงานที่กรุงเทพฯ

4. เขาเคยไปเชียงใหม่สองครั้งแล้ว

5. เขากลับบ้านแล้ว

6. สุนัขทำการบ้านตั้งแต่เช้าแต่ยังไม่เสร็จเลย

7. เมื่อวานเขาไปดูหนังกับเพื่อน

8. เขาชอบอ่านหนังสือก่อนนอน

9. เมื่อเช้าเขาตื่นสาย เลยไม่ได้กินข้าวเช้า

10. ฉันรู้จักกับหอมตั้งแต่เราสิบขวบ

11. เคยกินข้าวที่ร้านแม่พลอยหรือเปล่า

12. ห้องสมุดไปทางไหน

13. ทีมชาติบราซิลได้บอลโลกมาห้าสมัยแล้ว และอาจจะได้อีกปี 2006

14. สมัยที่ยังมีชีวิตอยู่ สุนทรภู่เคยเดินทางไปหลายจังหวัด

Appendix B (cont')

15. เหอมนี้ฉันได้เอภาษาอังกฤษ

คำศัพท์สำคัญ

1. รถ = the bus
2. ตรงเวลา = on time

Intercultural Training in Foreign Language Education: Using Video to Develop Cultural Awareness and Cultural Self-awareness of the Japanese College Students

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Abstract

A long time has passed since the trend of the English education in Japan shifted from grammar translation method for acquiring English knowledge to using a communicative approach regarding foreign language learning as one of the communication activities.

English education and intercultural communication education share important commonalities in their purposes. The current English education at high school and university in Japan has seen not only the method whose base is on applied linguistics and/or TESL, but also the field of intercultural communication (referred as IC hereafter) and intercultural communication training (referred as ICT hereafter).

This paper introduces the author's practice of the college level English class whose focus was on IC education. A video material which describes cross-cultural interaction between Japanese and Americans was created by the author and used in her English class in order to develop cultural awareness and cultural self-awareness of the students.

First of all, this paper discusses the relationship between language education, including both native language and foreign language, and IC education with an emphasis on ICT. After introducing the detail of the author's practiced class, learning effects of using this video material are examined by reporting the students' responses to the questions in the worksheets and the results of the feedback sheet. Finally, the introduced class is applied to the model called "Class Design with the Use of Visual Media Material in Intercultural Education" developed by Murata (in press), and a further effective use of the video in the future English class which focuses IC education will be explored.

1. Language Education and IC Education

Nowadays, “globalization” has become a buzz word throughout the world, and the field of education is not the exception, either. The importance of cultivating foreign language competency and IC competency has become the motto of the professionals who have engaged in language teaching for long years. Especially, in the English education in Japan, this tendency has strengthened since the methodology of the English teaching in Japan shifted to the communicative approach which emphasizes interaction between language and communication. For example, Kramsch (1988) points out the importance of teaching culture in foreign language classes for avoiding miscommunication. Seelye (1993) states: “Knowledge of linguistic structure alone does not carry with it any special insight into the political, social, religious, or economic system. Or even insight into when you should talk and when you should keep your mouth, er, shut.” Moreover, Martinez-Gibson (1998) argues that if cultural information is not taught as part of communicative competence, complete communication may not happen.

There are four kinds of communicative competence concerning language education, namely, grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (Canale, 1983), and these are considered to be the communicative competence that need to be taught in both foreign language education and native language education. Here, it should be noted that sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence are especially important for foreign language class which emphasizes IC education. Sociolinguistic competence is related to the knowledge and skills in order to behave appropriately based on the social context which the speaker is in. On the other hand, strategic competence indicates the ability to maintain or change tracks of communication for reducing the possibility of miscommunication. Under the intercultural context, since making an accurate judgment concerning appropriate behavior is difficult; expanding individual’s psychological framework and making a judgment from the other person’s perspective before taking one’s own action becomes necessary. In other words, the ability to show empathy to the other person is required. For example, from the view point of “English for intercultural communication”, Baxter (1983) argues that the methodology of ICT is useful for fostering strategic competence.

2. Methodology of ICT and Its Application to the English Class

2-1. Methodology of ICT

In general, the methodology of ICT is based on the three elements of learning, namely, “cognitive (knowledge)”, “affective” and “behavioral” aspects (Brislin, Landis & Brandt, 1983; Brislin, 1989). According to Bennett (1986), concerning the design of a training model, these three elements are related to a training purpose, and concerning a training approach there are two kinds of approach called “culture general” and “culture specific” approach.

2-2. Methodology of the Author’s English Class

The 90-minute class which is introduced in this paper is one of the classes offered in the English course entitled “Intercultural Communication,” and the course goal was “to deepen cultural awareness and cultural self-awareness of the students, and to foster a positive attitude toward cultural diversity.” After the extensive literature review of the ICT methodology, Mizuta (1990) introduces 3 types of approach in ICT methodology (Fig. 1). Here, “context-analysis training” in “cognitive approach” and “culture-focused training” in “cognitive-affective approach” were the methods which were used in the author’s class to meet the course goal.

In “context-analysis training” participants watch an audio visual material, such as video, and analyze the context described in it. After that, through group discussion the participants learn that an individual’s cognitive process is culture bound and people’s perception of the event is culturally influenced. This training method is also used for the following purposes: (1) To analyze a training material, such as critical incident, case study or video, which deals with misunderstandings in intercultural context; (2) To consider possible solutions to those misunderstandings. In the author’s class the students watched the interaction between Japanese and Americans presented in the video, analyzed the issue of IC described in it, and explored possible solutions by group discussion.

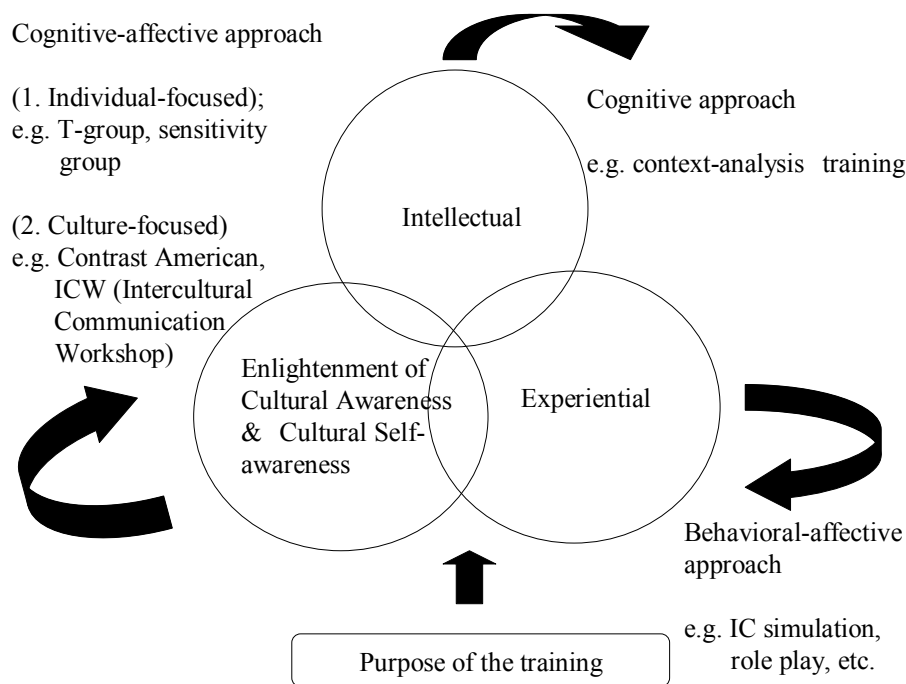


Fig. 1 Category of Intercultural Communication Training
 (*The figure was created by the author based on Mizuta, 1990)

On the other hand, “culture-focused training” is used to deepen the participants’ awareness of their own culture, which is difficult to be done if they have never been exposed to a different culture. “Contrast American Method” created by Stewart (1966) is an example of “culture-focused training”, where the trainees of ICT are Americans. In this training, by observing a role play or a video where the interaction between a reference person who holds a cultural assumption of average Americans and a contrast person who has a cultural assumption contrasting to Americans, the participants become aware that people tend to take actions based on their own cultural values and assumptions. There is a similar training technique called “Contrast Culture Method (CCM)”. In this training one of the role players or the characters in a video indicates a “reference person” who belongs to the same culture with the participants’ and the other person is a “contrast person” who has a contrasting characteristic to the participants’ culture. In Japan, too, the video materials which used CCM were developed as a teaching material of IC, and their learning effects are reported (Hasegawa, 1994; Kume, 2000). Concerning the video material for ICT in foreign language class, the material which used cultural assimilator technique was developed for Japanese language learners (Misumi, 1997). However, this is still a rare case, and there is a paucity of the video material which is developed for ICT in the context of English class.

3. Introduction of the Author's English Class

The English class which will be introduced here is one 90-minute class in the 15-week course entitled "Intercultural Communication" (number of the students = 41). The video material used in this class is one of the four video materials for the workshop conducted by the author for the university staffs in the U.S in the past. The role play entitled "Is silence worth gold?" was videotaped at the university studio after the workshop, and was developed for a teaching material for her English class later.

The video describes the interaction between a Japanese college student, Hideko, who is studying at a university in the U.S. and her classmates, Nancy and Mike in the cafeteria on campus (Appendix). The themes which were dealt in this video are "differences between Japanese and Americans in cultural value and communication style." The IC method used in this class was "context-analysis training" and "culture-focused training" which were indicated in Fig. 1.

The procedure of the class is as follows.

- (1) In the class which is prior to the week of the practiced class, the students were given the transcript of the video and worksheet 1 which consisted of comprehension questions about the story and discussion questions.
- (2) In the practiced class the students were divided into groups of 5 or 6 people and watched the video once. And then, they checked their answers for the comprehensive questions within the group. After the group work, explanations about the English expressions were given by the teacher.
- (3) The students watched the video again, and within the group they shared their responses to the discussion questions in worksheet 1. After that, they shared the findings of the group discussion in the whole class discussion.
- (4) A short lecture on "cultural value" and "communication style" was given by the teacher based on IC theory. The lecture was given in English with the supplementary explanations in Japanese.
- (5) Then, the students were told to write their responses to the question in worksheet 2. They shared their responses within their groups, and then shared the group findings in the whole class discussion.
- (6) The students filled in the feedback sheet, and the class ended.

The reason why "culture specific" approach which dealt with Japanese and Americans was used in this class is that originally the video material was created for the workshop whose focus was the difference between Japanese

culture and the U.S. culture. Moreover, because the students in this class had never experienced ICT in the past, and the cases of IC related to Japanese and American culture often appeared as examples in the textbook used in this course, it was thought that using a learning material which dealt with Japanese and the U.S. culture would give the students a smooth entry to ICT. No students in this class had a living experience in the U.S., and before this class was conducted, “cultural value” and “communication style” had not been dealt with as the topics in the class.

4. Learning Effects by the Use of the Video in the English Class Focusing on ICT

First of all, by analyzing the students’ responses to the discussion questions in worksheet 1, the author will discuss what kind of learning effects the English class in which ICT technique was used were brought to the students. And then, she will discuss the advantages of using the video material by analyzing the students’ responses to the feedback sheet and a pitfall which the language teachers should keep in mind when dealing with culture in foreign language class.

4-1. Result of Worksheet 1

[Q1. What kind of intercultural issues did you find in the video?]

About 49 percent (48.8 %) of the response was related to “comparison between Japanese and American characteristics in interpersonal communication.” For example, the following key words appeared in the students’ responses: “indirect vs. direct,” “passive vs. active,” “poor at expressing one’s own feeling vs. good at expressing one’s own feeling,” “shy vs. friendly,” “being polite (*tatemae*) vs. being honest (*honne*).” Another 40 percent (39.5 %) was related to “Japanese characteristics in interpersonal communication.” For example, “Japanese people do not assert themselves.” “Japanese people prefer to comply with other people’s opinions,” etc. Finally, about 5 percent of the response (4.7 %) was related to “American characteristics in interpersonal communication.” For example, “Americans assert themselves strongly,” “Americans are decisive,” etc. The other responses were not categorized into any of the above (7.0 %).

[Q2. What do you think Hideko may have felt about Nancy and Mike’s behavior?]

About 68 percent (67.6 %) of the response was categorized as “affective response (Hideko’s feeling about Mike and Nancy).” The following are the

examples: “She was confused,” “She was embarrassed,” “She felt isolated,” “She felt overwhelmed,” “She was surprised,” “She felt uncomfortable,” “She felt strange,” etc. Thirty-three percent (32.4 %) was related to “cognitive response (characteristics of Americans).” For example, “They are assertive.” “They are super energetic.” “They are friendly,” and “They are casual,” etc.

[Q3. What do you think Nancy and Mike may have felt about Hideko’s behavior?]

About 64 percent (64.4 %) of the response was categorized as “cognitive response (their understanding of Hideko’s behavior).” The following are the examples: “She is indecisive,” “She doesn’t express her thoughts,” “In fact, she doesn’t want to go with Nancy and Mike,” “They can’t understand Hideko,” “She is irresponsible,” etc. The rest of the response (35.6 %) was related to “affective response (their feelings about Hideko),” e.g., “They felt uncomfortable,” “They felt irritated,” etc. What need to be noted here is that more “affective” responses were found when the students were asked about Hideko’s feelings while more “cognitive” responses were found when they were asked about Nancy and Mike’s feelings. These results appear to show that the students tried to project themselves onto Hideko’s experience and empathize her.

[Q4. Find the expressions in the video transcript which, you think, illustrate Japanese or American communication style.]

Here, the phrases, such as “Oh, yes, anytime (37.5 %),” “No, nothing special (17.5 %),” “Friday... (12.5 %),” “Oh, yes (7.5 %)” were selected as the examples of Japanese communication style while “You said, ‘anytime’, so I just said, ‘Friday’ (20.0 %),” “Sounds good (5.0 %)” were selected as the examples of American communication style.

4-2. Result of Worksheet 2

[Q1. What do we need to keep in mind in order to tackle a similar intercultural issue illustrated in the video?]

Thirty-seven percent of the response (36.8 %) was categorized as “solutions for IC issue in general.” The following are the sample answers: “Learn about one’s own culture and the other’s culture,” “Learn about nonverbal communication,” “Do not stick to one’s own cultural assumptions and social customs,” “Be conscious of the usage of verbal expressions in one’s own culture and consider

their meanings in different cultures,” “Be prepared for misunderstandings which can happen in intercultural contexts.” Thirty percent (30.1 %) was related to “advice for Japanese students who are going to study abroad in the U.S.” Here, “Communicate one’s own thoughts and opinions clearly” was the typical answer. Another 30 percent (30.1 %) was related to “advice for Americans who receive international students from Japan.” For instance, “Show concern for the students,” “Interact with them patiently,” were the answers here.

[Q2. What do you think about the Japanese proverb, “Silence is golden?”]
“Is silence worth gold?” is the title of the video used in this class. Q2 was asked to seek for the students’ attitude toward this Japanese traditional proverb.

Over fifty percent of the response (52.2 %) was categorized as “Keeping silent in public is good and bad depending on circumstances,” which showed the students’ neutral attitude toward the message implied in the proverb. One student stated, “If our communication partner is from the same culture, keeping silent can bring a good result. But when we are from different cultures, we cannot communicate successfully without words.” Another student stated as follows:

“As the proverb, ‘Least said, soonest mended’ goes, in Japan silence has been treasured from the past, and it has been considered good. I think this proverb is wonderful because silence is also the means of communication. But in foreign countries we can convey our thoughts only by verbal communication. We should know that this proverb is not universal. Both of us are just trying to be polite in our own way.”

About thirty-eight percent (37.5 %) was related to “importance of communicating one’s own thoughts verbally.” One student stated, “This proverb might be correct, but I think this kind of mindset created the Japanese characteristics which tend to refrain from telling one’s own thoughts in public.” Another student stated, “We will not feel comfortable in silence. We will not care about silence only among the people we feel comfortable with, so, I can’t support this proverb.” Lastly, about 10 percent of the response supported the message in this proverb.

4-3. Result of the Feedback Sheet

It was found that 90 percent of the response showed a positive feedback about using video as teaching material. Sixty-six percent indicated that using video

helps the students' understanding of the contents. The following are the sample answers: "Rather than use only the written scenario, we can grasp the atmosphere and context of the story better, "With the video we can have the image about the context described in the role play more clearly," "Because the video describes the context more clearly, we can analyze the case from the view points of the characters in the scenario," "Visual images we receive from the video can remain in our memory longer," Using a video is useful for understanding the context and the contents of the story better because we can observe the characters' facial expression, gesture and tone of voice.

The other responses were "Using the video is important in reading the mind of the characters in the role play," "We can feel sympathy with the characters," and "We can improve our listening ability." Here, the advantage of improving listening ability by using the video was consistent with the findings of the research conducted by Secules (Secules, Herron, & Tomasello, 1992).

A pitfall to be noticed here is that by using a video students may have a stereotype about the cultures described in it. Therefore, when giving the lecture of the IC theory in the middle of the class, the teacher need to point out that the themes dealt with in the video will be a possible cause of misunderstanding in intercultural context. In addition, it is necessary for the teacher to emphasize the importance of considering the issue from a more holistic point of view rather than just look at it as the miscommunication which can happen between Japanese and Americans.

As was mentioned before, "culture specific approach" was used for the video used in this class. It will also be possible to present the same video by using Contrast Culture Method which was introduced in the previous section. More concretely, we can change the context of the video to the one where a Japanese college student interacts with the classmates who are from unknown culture. This technique will be effective to prevent the students from having stereotypes about specific cultures. However, in the present class, it became clear that the students noticed that behavioral patterns and points of view prescribed in one's own culture could affect the communication with the people who have different cultural backgrounds. Thus, we can say that depending on how it is used, a teaching material which adopted a culture specific approach can also bring a similar effect that is found in CCM.

5. Analysis from “Class Design with the Use of Visual Media Material in Intercultural Education”

In this section the author will analyze the practiced class by applying it into the model called “Class Design with the Use of Visual Media Material in Intercultural Education” created by Murata (in press, Fig. 2), and explore a further use of video material in the English class whose focus was on ICT.

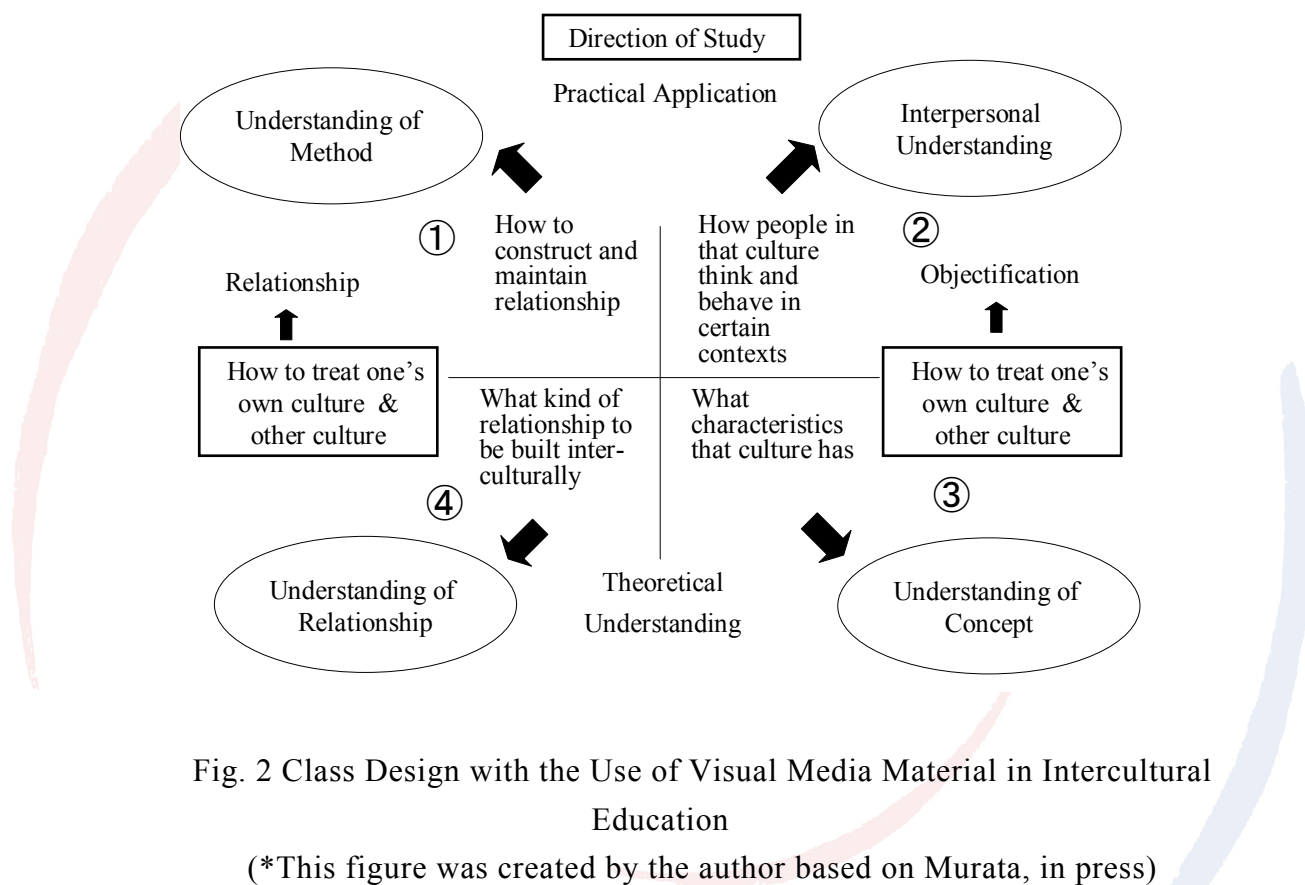


Fig. 2 Class Design with the Use of Visual Media Material in Intercultural Education

(*This figure was created by the author based on Murata, in press)

In this model four patterns are presented with two axes being crossed. More concretely, the horizontal line is related to “how to treat one’s own culture and other culture,” which focuses on either “relationship” or “objectification,” while the vertical line is related to “direction of study,” which focuses on either “practical application” or “theoretical understanding.” As Murata (in press) points out, more than one pattern can be applied to one teaching material, and the present class is applied to the patterns 1, 2 and 3. In other words, pattern 2, whose major framework is “interpersonal understanding,” is related to “practical application,” that is, analyzing behavior and thinking patterns of Hideko, Nancy and Mike, the characters in the video. Pattern 3, whose major framework is “understanding of concept,” is related to “theoretical understanding,” that is,

analyzing the general characteristics in communication styles and cultural values of Japanese and Americans through the characters' behavioral patterns. As pointed out in the previous section, it is needless to say that through the lecture of the IC theory, the teacher need to take into consideration that the students do not have a stereotype about Japanese and American culture. Lastly, pattern 1 whose major framework is "understanding method," is related to exploring the solutions of the issue of intercultural misunderstanding presented in the video. By considering "how to construct and maintain relationship" with the people from different culture, the students in the present class were able to acquire the ability of not only objectifying the cultural elements presented in the class, but also understanding them in relation to the relationship between their own culture and other culture.

Last of all, the author would like to share the idea of a class project where the students can experience intercultural trainer by using a video. The following are the procedure of the project: (1) The students are divided into groups of 4 or 5 people. Each group conducts a research in order to create a critical incident which deals with a misunderstanding of IC. (2) Members of the group role play the critical incident they made and videotape it. (3) In the group presentation each group gives an ICT session by showing the video and giving the other students the worksheet where discussion questions are written. (4) The presenters' group facilitates the other groups and leads the class discussion. (5) Finally, the group gives a lecture about a cultural background and concept which became the base of their critical incident. Here, although it is possible to show a critical incident by role playing in front of the class at the time of the group presentation, by preparing the video in advance, students will be able to present a role play of a better quality in their presentation. Besides, the presenters will be able to concentrate on the other important tasks, such as group facilitation, lecture of the IC concepts after a group discussion, which will eventually enable them to give a more complete presentation.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper introduced the author's practice of the college level English class whose focus was IC education. Through the analyses of the students' responses to the worksheets and the feedback sheet, it became clear that conducting the ICT with the use of the video material in the English class could develop the students' cultural awareness and cultural self-awareness. In the last section, the author applied her class to Murata's "Class Design with the

Use of Visual Media Material in Intercultural Education,” and discussed a further use of the video material in the future English class.

As the example of “authentic” material in the language class, Rogers and Medley (1988) argue that using videotaped materials is advantageous in introducing students to the cultures of the people who speak those languages. It is because videotaped materials offer more clues for comprehension to the students, compared with the other teaching materials. For example, in addition to the sound elements, dynamic visual contexts are provided with a variety of nonverbal cues, such as facial expressions and gestures. On the other hand, as pointed out in this paper, language teachers should pay a special attention so that the students do not have a stereotype about the target cultures by using videotaped materials. Last but not least, not limiting their task to helping students to acquire the linguistic knowledge and skills, the foreign language teachers need to create the teaching materials that can contribute to encourage the talent who can live and work actively in this multicultural society.

The logo for 'iafor' is centered on the page. It consists of the lowercase letters 'iafor' in a light blue, sans-serif font. The logo is partially enclosed by a large, light blue circular arc that starts from the bottom left and curves towards the right. A smaller, light red circular arc is also visible, partially overlapping the blue one.

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Appendix
(The transcript of the video)
Is Silence Worth Gold?

Situation of the Skit

The characters are two Americans, Mike and Nancy, and one Japanese girl, Hideko. They are talking in the cafeteria.

M= Mike, N=Nancy, H=Hideko

M: You know what? Three of us should do something together.

N: Yeah, why don't we see a movie?

M: Yeah, that sounds good.

N: Do you want to see a movie, Hideko?

H: Oh, yes.

N: O.K. I'd like to see Kurosawa's movie. It's on at Film Center.

M: What is that?

N: Well, it's a film with a Japanese film director. So, it should be really good. It's in Japanese, but there are English subtitles. For me, I want to see how good my Japanese is, so, I'll see if there are any phrases I could understand.

(To Hideko) Would you like to see that, or do you have any film you'd like to see?

H: Oh, no nothing special. Kurosawa's movies are popular in Japan.

M: O.K. Let's see it, then. See, ah, when should we go?

I'm free tonight. And I'm free all weekend.

N: Oh, I have something to do on Sunday, but other than that, I'm free. Uh, what about you, Hideko?

H: Oh, yes, anytime.

M: O.K. How about Friday night after classes?

N: O.K. Good. The films start at five and seven. I'd rather go for seven.

M: O.K.

H: Friday...

N: Is something wrong with Friday?

H: Yes. I'm invited by my host family for dinner on Friday.

N: Sharks.

M: Oh, you said, "Anytime," so I just said "Friday". Well, ah, how about Saturday?

N: Yeah.

H: Yes, I'm fine.

M: O.K. The movie starts at seven. So, we should probably meet around six thirty, say, ah, here.

N: O.K. Yeah. Sounds good to me. Ah, what about you, Hideko?

H: Yeah, here, Saturday, and six thirty.

M: Right. Great.

N: That sounds good. That'll be great.

H: Ah, I have a class, so I have to go now.

N & M: O.K. See you.

H: See you on Sunday.

N & M: No, on Saturday. See you, bye.

.....
N: (To Mike) You know what?

M: What?

N: I have a feeling like she's not really interested. I'm not sure if she wants to go with us.

M: Yeah. I thought so, too.

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The Diversity of Languages and Cultures, Bridge or Barrier?

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The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2013

Official Conference Proceedings 2013



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"No historical narrative can help us understand the evolution of a people, their social organization, their beliefs and feelings, as an analysis of its language. "- MARTIN ALONSO.

What concerns us in our work is not the origin of the diversity of languages. We deliberately chose not to stay away too locked into a kind of linguistic history. We approach preferably consequently. And then the question becomes more fascinating. And we will confirm or infirmers the assumption of one or the other, whether the diversity of languages and cultures remain a barrier. We would like to also mention that we do not necessarily talk about communication barrier or answers seem very obvious, which does not require an analysis analysis of the second degree. So our approach is to see how the diversity of languages can lead us to the knowledge of the Other. The diversity of languages and cultures is it reveals the identity of the other, his humanity that we often want to destroy or ignore. When is it the sudden meeting of two languages and two different cultures?

The results of the linguistic and cultural events

"Colonization, trade and even the concentration camps are the contexts in which people have felt the need to bridge the language gap between them. So they started using a form of restricted language, or simplified, while avoiding the complications grammar, using fewer words and limiting their lexical field in areas of common interest. "This is the way birth to various forms of pidgin language, beyond its apparent simplicity has its own linguistic system. However, if the need that gave rise disappears, it may end up dead language. "

The need for communication is so obvious between humans naturally a common communication tool to create to meet this need. But it happens, however, that languages tend to be prioritized over another. It is from there that the culture becomes crucial. So when two or more cultures come into contact `if one is not strong enough to dominate the other, the birth of a creole becomes more obvious. What is a Creole? This concept is our focus because it gives us the first issue of cultural diversity.

We offer this simple definition: "creolization is the process that explains initially passing a state language A to language B state C in specific circumstances, but it is also a general process work in all languages Spoken that says A / blends-is-presence is partially coinclusif / B while distinguishing. Not only // Creole is the French - French is creolised - the French and Creole are separate languages // but // the formerly dominant languages emit myriad variations that are organized into systems that s' away from each other at the speed of energy cosmos to better meet. "It is true that this definition must be read with great caution and eyes more and more critical. Because it should not be seen in the Creole languages of the former French colonies. But all languages derived from one or more other languages. Thus the French itself is a creole. And all these languages have followed the same process that begins with a

kind of pidgin. "When the pidgin becomes the main language of a population, new words are added and the grammar is reorganized. We then obtain the Creole, compared to pidgin, expresses the culture of a people. Today, we are talking tens of pidgins and creoles in the world, based on English, French, Portuguese, Swahili and other languages. Some have even become the main language in some countries, such as Tok Pisin in Papua New Guinea and Bislama in Vanuatu. "

If you can believe this approach the diversity of languages and cultures can not in itself constitute a barrier. The men were sentenced to understand and accept with their difference. We spot we follow the process that led to the creation of a language. It all starts with what we call the francas liguas.

"The lingua francas are another kind of gateway facilitating communication. A lingua franca is a common language used by groups whose native languages are different. In the Central African Republic, for example, speakers of local languages can communicate with Sango. In the field of diplomacy, English and French are also used as lingua francas. Pidgin is considered as such, and Creole may also be used.

It sometimes develops, even within a country, regional or local variations of the national language and are called dialects. More area is isolated, the greater the difference is likely to be marked. Over time, some dialects of the language so away they are from they become a full-fledged language. Sometimes, though linguists have difficulty distinguishing one dialect of a language. In addition, as the languages are constantly changing, dialects may disappear because of speakers, and with them a history "page.

The diversity of languages is an inexhaustible wealth allows humans to use their perfectibility (I mean the human capacity to adapt to a situation, as found in animals). Consequently if the diversity of languages would stand as an obstacle, this obstacle should be a short duration.

"Language is a gift from God that proves malleable, as evidenced by its intriguing possibility of evolution. Moreover, the language shows that no ethnic group is superior to another, because there is no rudimentary language. Like all other gifts of God, it is accessible to all people, regardless of their culture or where they live. Since the dawn of time, the languages of all peoples were sufficiently complete to achieve their goal, each of them deserves respect, regardless of the number of people who use it. "

The meeting of two cultures does not destroy the language of the other immediately. Language reveals the gregarious side of man, his natural ability to live together. So no man can pretend to live alone. Therefore between men weave relationships of all kinds.

Language is another benefit of this fact it carries light revealing the category of each. "Just as we can identify the country or region of origin of an individual through his

mother tongue, and we can associate a person to a profession, a cultural or sporting group or a criminal organization the words it uses. The list is almost endless. Linguists call these particular variations of jargon or slang, and even dialect. "Where the sociological aspect to consider in addressing the issue of diversity of languages and cultures. In a different way the language is a bridge. "However, when there are animosities between nations, ethnic or cultural groups, language ceases to be a gateway. It can become a barrier that increases the divisions between peoples. "

The question of the diversity of languages is becoming increasingly difficult to address. But it is also interesting to understand that "the modern trend is towards the collapse of language barriers, mainly through the mass media: According to the Encyclopædia Britannica, 1 in 7 people now use English as their first or second language. Therefore, it is the lingua franca of the most widely used around the world. The use made of it has led to greater communication and facilitated the exchange of useful information. "This trend must be subject to a set of questions. This is what we call it, past the screens of rational criticism. From what consensus we agreed to make English a common language to facilitate communication between people? It seems likely that it is obvious from the economic, technological and its anglo-Saxon countries. Hence the issue of language diversity is endangered. "

And yet there are many who try to justify this approach by trying to show that: language barriers have contributed to divisions, hatred and war. The World Book Encyclopedia says: "If all people spoke the same language, [...] nations have less trouble to show good feelings. "Of course, this would require much deeper changes than the mere use of a lingua franca" And on the other hand the people who see it is difficult to bring all men to the same language without political motivation and laments: "Only the Creator of language could make all the inhabitants of the earth speak the same language. And they only add faith in these words: "The Bible, the primary means of communication between God and men, soon clear that it will eliminate the present wicked system of things and replace it with a government that will lead the earth shows from heaven: his kingdom (Daniel 2:44). This government will unite all mankind into a new system of things just when peace will reign here on earth. - Matthew 6:9, 10; 2 Peter 3:10-13. "

It is interesting to note that a group of people trying to climb the language barrier when trying to speak a language they call the pure language. And we read in one of their articles:

Now, a pure language - the truth about Jehovah God and his purposes - unites millions of people of all languages, nationalities and faiths old (Zephaniah 3:9). Therefore, it seems logical that in the new world God strengthens the unity of humanity by giving it a common language, in contrast to what he made at Babel. "

But companies Creole plantation (in the Caribbean) we do not they already allowed to live opposite to that of BABEL event?

Face the Book & Facebook

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The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2013

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Abstract

Blended learning focuses on combining a specific percentage of online curriculum and instruction in a face-to-face setting. In this study, the adoption of Facebook as an additional tool in teaching communicative English skills to prepare international students from non-English speaking countries for tertiary education in Malaysia is discussed; based on the Leapfrog Principle. The study aims to investigate the effectiveness of Facebook as a language teaching tool in Immersion English courses and examine the role of Facebook in new learning spaces and with today's learners. Data for the study was collected via a teacher's teaching journal followed by a recorded interview conducted with ten students in the pre-intermediate level; at the Limkokwing English Centre. The analysis of the data was done qualitatively. The findings of the study indicated that Facebook is perceived as an effective teaching means; in terms of both delivery and pedagogy in an Intensive English programs. It is also believed to cater to a flexible and motivating language learning environment for the current day youths. In short; the integration of Facebook into the intensive English as a Foreign Language (EFL) course for adult learners, enriches the teaching-learning experiences.

Keywords: Blended learning, Facebook, EFL, Intensive English, teaching journal, action research, effectiveness, flexibility, motivation

Introduction

A boost in the number of global universities in the past decade appears to have catalysed the emergence of a highly dense population of abroad learners worldwide. In Malaysia, this sharp increase of foreign students; especially from non-English speaking countries, at tertiary learning institutions has led to greater demand of the Intensive English language program. At this point, English is taught as a foreign language to adult learners within a short time span. Particularly; in Limkokwing University of Creative Technology Cyberjaya, the Intensive English program which is comprised of 8 levels; in which each level is conducted for 5 weeks for new students. This program is attended by new students prior to their enrolment for the Foundation, Diploma, or Degree programs; as English is the medium of instruction.

Here, the unquestionably challenging process of learning a new language as an adult and teaching adults a new language is nothing, but two sides of the same coin. Chiefly; in this case where the target language is a foreign language in which the learners do not have much or any exposure, the teaching-learning process becomes even more strenuous; especially when it has to be done within a limited time frame. This evokes a growing concern for teachers on how effectively the English language can be imparted for the purpose of communication with such constraints.

Karthiga (2012) highlighted that the majority of language teachers/instructors constantly believe that textbooks and other supplementary materials would suffice; ignoring the truth in which these students are 'digital natives' who spend hours online on their favourite apps. She asserts that teachers are unaware that motivation occurs when students are introduced to what they would like and not to what they should like. In other words; she suggests that textbook based lesson combined with a greater probability of constructive innovation can lead to an optimum teaching-learning process.

Recent studies have proved that social networking sites support educational activities by making interaction, collaboration, active participation, information and resource sharing, and critical thinking possible (Ajjan & Hartshorne, 2008; Mason, 2006; Selwyn, 2007a). Regardless of the numerous studies done in the area of technology in language learning, little interest has been raised on the prospect of social networking sites (SNS) as a teaching tool in Intensive English programs. This inclination creates a gap in the research field. In this respect, the Facebook is seen as worth investigating as it is entrenched in the social networks of today's learners. Therefore, this study aims to obtain a depiction of the effectiveness of Facebook as a language teaching tool in Intensive English programs and examine the role of Facebook in new learning spaces and with today's learners; based on the Leapfrog Principle.

Literature Review

Leapfrog Principle

Recently, tertiary educational institutions around the globe are emphasizing on the shift towards the new paradigm in education; in terms of both delivery and pedagogy, primarily through 'leapfrogging'. According to Harkins and Moravec (2006),

“Leapfrogging means to jump over obstacles to achieve goals. It means to get ahead of the competition or the present state of the art through innovative, time-and-cost saving means.”

Correspondingly, Moravic (2007) proposes that transformation and reforms in the curriculum and technology; would echo the paradigm shift in education. He urges that by utilizing new technologies universally, creatively, and purposefully; leapfrogging can be exercised successfully within the classroom. Essentially; the Leapfrog Principle demands a revolution in approaches to teaching and learning; whereby teachers are required to re-evaluate 'what and how' students should learn to thrive in the 21st century as an innovative learning society (Harkins, 2007).

In 2000, Cunningham et al. presented in their report that there is still little substantiation of successful, recognized virtual institutions in the developed world, despite the swift escalation of online delivery among the traditional and new requirement of higher education. Conversely, outcome revealed a beyond belief increase of 41% per program in the tertiary level distance learning in a 2002 survey; in which 75 colleges providing distance learning programs were randomly chosen (Primary Research Group, 2002) (as cited in Christodoulou, 2010).

In developed and developing countries, the latest adaptation of technology is frequently being used to improve earlier versions in education. Therefore language teachers must 'leapfrog' towards sustainable innovative language learning; in which they must reorient approaches to attend to rapid advances in technology and the rapid virtualization of learning and teaching. In relation to the Leapfrog Principle, Cheng (2000) proposes a new triplization paradigm which encompasses globalization, localization, and individualization with the aim to maximize the opportunities of contextualized multiple intelligences (CMI) for students.

In education, globalization refers to the international adaptation through web-based learning; E-learning; immersion programs; international exchange programs; and use of the Internet in learning and research. As for localization practices in education, local community related curricula; curriculum content on technological, economic, social, political, cultural, and learning localization includes. The major implication of individualization in education is to maximize the motivation, initiative, and creativity of students and teachers in schooling, teaching, and learning; through individualized educational programs; individualized learning targets, methods, and progress schedules; self initiated lifelong learning, self actualizing, and self motivation; self managing students and teachers; meeting individual special needs; and development of contextualized multiple intelligences (Cheng, 2000).

Action Research

Action research; typical example of a reflective teaching cycle is a systematic, documented inquiry carried out by teachers in order to reflect upon and improve their teaching (Christodoulou, 2010). He highlights that,

“In action research; a teacher concentrates on one particular problem right in his/her classroom, inquires about it in a systematic way, draws a conclusion based on collected data and develops a strategy for improvement. After implementing the strategy, he/she finds out whether it was effective.” (p.31)

Richards (1991) points out that reflective teaching involve, “observing and reflecting on one’s own teaching, and using observation and reflection as a way of bringing about change” (p. 4).

Chiefly; action research serves as a catalyst for teachers improving learning environments and strengthening their professionalism. Richards (1991) also asserts that “experience alone is insufficient for professional growth, but that experience coupled with reflection can be a powerful impetus for teacher development” (p. 8). In 2011, Wyatt established a strong possibility of high levels of motivation, self-awareness, efficacy and autonomy in teachers who conducted action research. This reflection during action research constructs a strong teaching foundation. (Wyatt, 2011)

Several studies have been conducted on action research in the form of teaching journals in educational programs. In 1990, Bailey stressed the importance of subsequent analysis of the entries by pointing out that “in reworking, rethinking, and interpreting the entries, teachers can gain powerful insights into their own classroom behavior and motivation” (as cited in Gebhard, 1992, p. 41). Several years later, Baurain (2010) and McDonough (1992) suggest that teachers’ written documentation (journal entries) can be used as reliable data that can result in momentous teaching and journal entries. As for Yang (2009); she found that journals allowed teachers to clarify their thoughts on teaching which enhanced their professional development and recommended its inclusion in Korean educational programs. Hence, a teacher’s journal is believed to serve a significant purpose in the EFL classroom as foreign language teachers strive to develop insights into their teaching methodology and students’ learning.

Facebook

It is apparent that possessing a web-presence and connecting with a great number of people via SNS has set into the daily routines of largely tertiary education learners. (Buffardi & Campbell, 2008) At this point, Mc Bride (2009) highlights Downes (2006)’ argument that the surfacing of web 2.0 is more than just technological revolutions it leads to social transformation. Facebook usage is rising at an exponential rate; globally. The Facebook, a spectacular creation of a Harvard scholar

in 2004 for intra-campus socializing, as of March 31, 2012 includes 835,525,280 active members, with the majority being between the ages of 18 to 24; among which the number of Asian users being 236 million (Internet World Stats website, 2012).

Facebook as a social networking site; provides an extensive number of features for its users to socialize and share information. Users can sign up on the website with a valid e-mail address and create a profile page that allows them to keep updated with friends' social activities, upload photos, share links and videos and connect with people. Another interesting feature is the News Feed where users can publish status updates and share them with users in their network. The status updates posted on users' profiles pages will then be available to be replied or commented on at anytime by other users, making it an asynchronous situation. As a result, Facebook has become the leading social network platform on the Internet and a vital communication means internationally.

This obvious explosion of social technologies has fashioned a culture in which youths participate more in creating and sharing content, profoundly changing the way students communicate, interact, and learn. (Petrovic et al., 2012) The preceding researches indicated that the adoption rates of Facebook in universities and colleges are remarkable - 85% of college students that have a college network within Facebook have adopted it (Arrington, 2005; Thompson, 2007). It is also noted that students spend as much (or more) time online in an informal learning environment - interacting with peers and receiving feedback - than they do with their teachers in the traditional classroom (Fogg Phillips et al., 2011) (as cited in Petrovic et al., 2012).

This most prominent site; particularly among university students proposes an extensive range of technological affordance supporting an array of significance that incorporates several means of Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) ranging from one-to-one to one-to-many written interactions; including self-presentation. Bylth (2010) highlighted those social networking sites such as Facebook are being utilized in ESL classes. Furthermore, Facebook provide users with prospects and motivation for personal writing, self-reflection, and interactive learning. Therefore, teachers kick started to view Facebook as an authentic tool in language pedagogy and tertiary studies that, as Godwin-Jones (2008) points out that Facebook, "has the potential to find means to link informal and recreational writing with academic writing" (p. 7)

Wu and Hsu (2011) studied on Facebook usage of English majors at a university in Taiwan. Participants regarded the Facebook group to be "a pressure-free environment for English learning because it is a virtual community composed of closed group, which opens for limited members and makes them feel less stressful" (p. 6). The research also identified 5 external factors which influenced students' motivation and engagement with the Facebook group; which are audience, peer-feedback, topic, other school work, and novel effect.

In addition; Shih (2011) in a study which integrated Facebook with peer-assessment revealed that Facebook had a positive impact in an ESL writing course. Shih (2011) points out:

“Popularity, accessibility, and unique features attracted the students and eased their resistance to learning, making this a successful course.”
(p.840)

On the other hand; Shih (2011) also noted that several students disliked the way classmates incorrectly corrected grammar, which caused unnecessary frustration in the learning process.

Another key finding showed students felt,

“the most important factors for them to be motivated to learn English writing and find the class interesting were the instructor's teaching techniques, teaching enthusiasm, and sense of humor.” (p.839)

Thus, it is important for teachers to keep in mind that Facebook is not a replacement for teaching but a supplement. The last key finding of Shih's (2011) study was that the instructor/researcher spent a substantial amount of time monitoring the Facebook page and commenting on students' postings.

In reference to the previous researches; Facebook is strongly recommended as a teaching tool as it enables teachers to supply positive educational outcomes (Pempek, 2009); perform a differential pedagogy, that interests the students (Hew, 2011); attain a transformation in strategy, mentality, attitude and behaviors, as organizing and managing learning state is fundamental (Roblyer, 2010); set up competent educational associations on a social network (Selwyn, 2009); accept the student as an interaction partner (Schwartz, 2009); analyze and compare ways of learning and the knowledge achieved by students (Roblyer, 2010); and develop knowledge and skills in order to execute resourceful instructive activities (Hew, 2011) (as cited in Petrovic et al., 2012).

In addition; based on studies done, Facebook is also learnt to have contributed significantly towards the quality of learning such as nurturing a healthy student-student relationship together with students' motivation and engagement (West et al., 2009; Kabilan et al., 2010); involving students in achieving the learning tasks and successful transfer of knowledge (Madge et al., 2009); mounting a optimistic attitude towards learning and improving the quality of learning (Pasek & Hargittai, 2009; Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010); increasing interpersonal intelligence, as well as critical thinking (Lampe et al., 2008); encouraging student-teacher interactions outside the class (Selwyn, 2009) (as cited in Petrovic et al., 2012).

Methodology

An action research was carried out with twenty students of a non-native instructor between the ages of 18 and 25 (10 female, 10 male) who were enrolled in a pre-intermediate level Immersion English course at Limkokwing University for 4 weeks in the first semester of the year 2013. The class met on week days for 2 hours. The instructor of the class is also the researcher. Since the main objective of this course is to improve communication skills; the use of Facebook is seen as a means to support learners to achieve that goal. Students used Facebook to carry out tasks assigned by the instructor based on the class syllabus. This out of class activity was made mandatory for all the students as it is related to in class subject matter but extended discussion beyond the four walls of the classroom in the target language.

On Facebook, a “closed” group for students was created. Content of the group’s page was not open to the public. The investigator was the sole moderator. Only basic features of the page were used: photo albums of class activities, task posts – questions and answers, messages, comments on teacher’s and student’s posts, and “likes” of posts and comments. The profile picture of the group was the class’s group photo. In addition; the investigator used her professional Facebook account to maintain the teacher-student professional relationship. It is ensured that all tasks were related to the class syllabus and served as a preparation for the final examination.

Four thematic tasks/assignments (Refer to Table 1) were posted by the course instructor and students were then given five days to respond to the questions and interact to accumulate for 10 percent of their final grade. Students were awarded full marks if they responded with a post of least 50 words; they were also given opportunities for limited extra marks by replying to other posts. Student autonomy was also targeted in this project as it was set up to assist students find, recognize, and analyze resources themselves.

Table 1: Weekly Tasks’Topic

Week	Task’ Topic
2	The Best Smartphone
3	Favorite Holiday Destinations in Malaysia
4	My Hobbies
5	My Dream House

The investigative approach used in this study is qualitative. In order to study the effectiveness of Facebook as a language teaching tool in Immersion English courses and examine the role of Facebook in new learning spaces and with today’s learners; an instructor’s teaching journal and 10 students’ interview recording were used. The teaching journal was in the form of a collection of weekly reflection entries to hub on classroom dynamics. The instructor wrote the reflections at her home; on the weekends after she had completed teaching a 10-hour week. The final reflective entry however; was written a week after the 4 weeks term ended as a reflection on the entire process. As for the recorded interview, 10 students from the total of twenty students

under this study were randomly selected. Each of these interviews which lasted about 10 minutes retrieved the student's perspective on the Facebook project.

Although the entire process of the action research entails a lot more time and work for the researcher, it was believed to be necessary to obtain a fuller understanding of the integration of Facebook into the intensive English as a Foreign Language (EFL) course for adult learners. All in all, the fieldwork of writing a teaching journal and conducting 10 recorded interviews were adopted to provide a micro perspective and a deeper understanding of the subject matter for the point of view of both; the students and teacher/instructor.

Findings

Part A: Teacher's Journal

Excerpt of Journal: Week 1

At the computer lab; the teacher conducted a brief introduction session to the Facebook project which is an extension of the lessons on the textbook. All the students were following the instructions on their computer while the teacher demonstrated how to work on the project by pulling up the Facebook page for all to see on the projector. Teacher made sure that all the students were added to the project profile; before any task were assigned. The teacher also ensured that the marking scheme for the project; which the teacher had to spend some time creating, was explained to the students.

The entry highlights the measures taken by the teacher to avoid excuses from students for not knowing how to do their Facebook project; all the students were given specific directions to operate the project page. Furthermore; the task were crafted as an extension of the lessons in the textbook which will be discussed in the class the next consecutive days. This measure was very effective as students did their work as they did not want to appear lost during the class discussion. Students were also awarded marks to ensure all students participated in the project.

Excerpt of Journal: Week 2

Students respond to the task posted almost immediately. It is good to know that all students are excited and are capable of performing the task independently. This positive attitude of the students towards the project contrasts greatly of the previous assignments using other teaching materials. Students also did a self research on the topics before posting.

As was hoped and believed; all the students irrespective of nationality or region were enthusiastic about Facebook. The entry outlines the student's liking of Facebook as a

means of learning. The positive response given by the student signals their attraction towards this particular social networking site based activity.

Excerpt of Journal: Week 3

Students appear confident in expressing their thoughts and ideas while posting comments on Facebook; unlike when asked to write a paragraph in class. Hence; these students do their part properly and wait for the teacher's feedback; and also respond to teacher's feedback. At this point; the teacher has to make time for this extra feedback purpose. In cases where the teacher has slightly delayed the feedback; the students would send an inbox message to the teacher stating, "Is my comment good? How is it?" Here; the teacher finds that Facebook as a teaching tool is actually very much time consuming and slightly tiring, yet satisfying as students are showing interest.

The entry also highlights the teacher's dilemma –setting aside some time for teacher feedback. This was a problem due to time constraints. Initially; the time needed for this Facebook project was overwhelming at first. The teacher ensured that feedback; which included correction was offered to each of the student's by mentioning their name in the respective post. Therefore; this project is found to be time consuming and a little tiring. However, future research should discover a lesser time consuming teacher feedback process.

In addition; students were responding to the feedback given. Therefore; the feedbacks seem to be never ending. However; the teacher realizes that learning is taking place in a healthy manner. Therefore; the teacher values the importance of teacher feedback.

In short; Facebook demands more effort on the part of the teacher. However; it seemed more worthy as students equally put in effort on the project. A sense of satisfaction is attained when the effort is welcomed and appreciated. The assignments given proved to be very successful.

Excerpt of Journal: Week 4

Students' attendances have improved over the past few weeks. Students' seem to be more active in class and they also do interact well in class. Instead of the teacher asking them questions related to the homework; it is they who question and counter-check their answers and feedback given with the teacher.

The excerpt serves as evidence to the improved interaction level among students and also between students and the teacher. It can be observed that the anxiety factor has diminished with the adaptation of Facebook into language learning classes. Students are more motivated to attend classes.

Excerpt of Journal: Week 5

Students scored very high marks for the writing assessment in their final exams. In addition; most of the students scored full marks for the Facebook project. Students' overall percentage was high; with all of them qualified to the next level.

The teacher now considers Facebook as a great teaching tool.

The final excerpt above suggests that Facebook based activity actually aids the improvement of writing. Students' become more capable of expressing their thoughts and ideas through words confidently. The highly achieved scores would further motivate the students to do better and practice the usage of the target language; through writing and also speaking.

Part B: Interviews

Basically; the interviews looked at how students reacted to the use of Facebook in their intensive foreign language lessons. The broad inclination of the interviews suggests that students reacted overwhelmingly positive to the use of Facebook in their pre-intermediate English class. They identified and shared a variety of beneficial aspects; both social and pedagogical which were linked to the integration of Facebook into their textbook based lessons.

The data collected through the interview suggests that the 10% marks rewarded for contributions towards the online project served as extrinsic motivation to students. The real life topics together with the use of the authentic tool-Facebook have resulted in posts that are consistently meaningful as they have a real audience with whom they communicate. The students insist that the topics were very beneficial and interesting. Students also found the Facebook project to be intrinsically motivating in relation to the familiarity and authenticity of the site as a learning tool. It is also interesting to note that students' seem eager to respond to the tasks and interact with each other; in which they replied in multiples to posts' of others.

Besides this; students realize that this type of learning activity is very relaxing and flexible; as they could access the web page with the latest array of gadgets anytime and anywhere. Some students said that they did their work while traveling home on a bus and during breaks at part time jobs. Since Facebook is familiar to them; its usage was not a problem. Also; they agreed that they had more confidence in attempting the tasks; especially while interacting with the teacher. Students mentioned that they had felt less anxiety in interacting with the teacher; that helps them to be comfortable during classroom interaction. The most striking feature in this interview data is that students acknowledged the effort of the teacher to come up with an interesting idea of incorporating social networking sites into the traditional textbook based lessons; other than finding the teacher feedback very helpful.

Discussion & Conclusion

The effectiveness of Facebook as a language teaching tool in Intensive English programs were examined using findings of a teacher's teaching journal, while responses gathered through 10 student interviews were used to identify the role of Facebook in new learning spaces and with today's learners. The results showed that Facebook is an effective teaching tool; only if the language teacher is willing to allocate some time to give timely feedback. As Shih (2011) noted; the students were reported to acknowledge that the teacher's teaching techniques and enthusiasm; as the teacher puts forth continuous effort in evaluating, correcting and responding to Facebook postings. However; it is worth mentioning that the students' response towards the Facebook project was very positive as a whole.

It is observed that the success of the project largely relied on the integration of the Cheng (2000)' triplization paradigm while planning the project; in which a globalised medium - social networking site, localized topics, and individualized student- teacher interaction & feedback; were employed. This in turn; initiated motivation and provided a sense of flexibility to the students. Therefore this study serves as a reminder to language teachers that the foreign language learners need to engage in authentic and meaningful exchanges; which are indispensable in order to expand communicative competence, and focusing on learners' grammatical and lexical knowledge exclusively based on textbooks can never help much. Instead, technology based activities should be integrated into the textbook syllabus to ensure success in the delivery and pedagogy.

For a more thorough study on the effectiveness of Facebook as a language teaching tool in Intensive English programs, and the role of Facebook among current days' foreign language learners; employing teacher's teaching journal and interviews alone may not suffice. Comparatively; any future study should provide valuable statistical information about the implementation of Facebook based activities in the intensive language learning sphere. This could make way for the researchers to gain exact empirical details. It is this body of knowledge that would further substantiate the findings of this study. It would also be of great interest to observe how teachers' view the need to 'leapfrog' in teaching. A study of this nature could be conducted for further investigation on the various implementation strategies of the Leapfrog Principle in the language learning circle. Furthermore, the extent of the social network intervention into the tertiary level language learning programs in Malaysia and its implication towards the need of leapfrogging within the context of language learning has lacked empirical attention. This is seen as a major oversight since it has many ramifications towards the quality of the present and future language learning community. Therefore, an understanding of the Facebook as an effective teaching tool; in terms of both delivery and pedagogy to initiate a shift in language learning paradigm would be worthwhile.

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Generation 1.5: Potentials and Challenges

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A large, faint watermark of the iafor logo is centered on the page. It consists of two overlapping circular arcs, one in light blue and one in light red, with the lowercase text 'iafor' in a light blue serif font positioned in the center where the arcs overlap.

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1. Introduction

Globalization has meant an increasing trend in migration. Some families bring their children born in their families' native countries to the host countries and these children and adolescents are recently categorized as generation 1.5 immigrants since they are "in-between" the first and second generations. "Generation 1.5" has different definitions. Here, I use the term of "generation 1.5" to refer to the adolescents who were born in their home countries, moved into the host countries with their families and have received education there.

Many of generation 1.5 adolescents are reported to struggle to adjust themselves to the new circumstances and identity continuation, living in completely new environments, far from their native countries. James (1997) describes their psychosocial problems in the process of adjustment of immigration. Language acquisition has been known to be a serious challenge for them. Duffy (2003) narrates that without strong English proficiency, students confront the difficulty to deal with the complex contents in the textbooks and fail to proclaim their proper academic ability. Also, some instructions have a strict requirement to immerse students only in L2, which make them lose pride in their heritages or cause their resistance to L2 and its society/culture. Salazar (2010) shows Mexican origin young immigrants' resistance against an English-or-Nothing approach at a high school ESL classroom. In addition, Benesch (2008) points out the social partiality of this generation as "nonnative (Them) but on the way to becoming native (Us)" (298). Thus, especially for educators, such a situation would be problematic, requiring unique needs. Further, as Roberge (2002) indicates, "When the process is unsuccessful, immigrants sometimes become doubly alienated, as in the case of Latino immigrant youth who reject both mainstream American culture and Mexican culture". That is, some of generation 1.5 may lose both social groups, their home and the new community. These situations might influence their identity construction.

At the same time, generation 1.5 is associated with having an in-between status—between the first generation and the second generation of immigrants; or—between two or sometimes more than two cultures and societies. Therefore, in my view, they can have unique and dynamic characteristics, which are different both from their mother native and their L2 communities. Generation 1.5 would have powerful potentials in multicultural societies, which are increasing in many parts on the earth as globalization is promoted.

My family has been here in Canada since September, 2009. My daughters were 14 and 16 years old at that time, halfway through their secondary education in Japan. They have been receiving education here since then; so, they would be categorized as generation 1.5. They have been facing many difficulties such as insufficient L2 proficiency, unfamiliarity to Canadian culture including classroom culture, peer pressure, and declass of life quality. Somehow, they seem to have found a way to cope with these difficulties; still, they are continuously struggling and negotiating to seek who they are and who they will be. As a parent, to see them struggling is painful; nevertheless, I have noticed that this might be a necessary process or even a part of the journey to fully explore themselves. I have also realized that generation 1.5 has strong potential to have multilingual/multicultural proficiency if they are provided appropriate guidance. They might acquire both oral and literal communication skills in two, sometimes three languages, creating their uniquely hybrid culture. Also, they could be bridge builders between the first and second generation and between different societies and cultures.

Uniqueness and dynamics are strengths of the generation 1.5, which, I believe, has potentiality to contribute to build healthy multicultural society. This has motivated me to write this paper. In this paper, I review the literature on integration and language barrier of generation 1.5 and use my own experiences to explore the potentials of generation 1.5 in multicultural societies like Canada. Then I move on to suggest effective ways as a mother of two generation 1.5 teens to support them to enable them to achieve their full potentials.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Communities of practice

The first theoretical framework I employ here is Wenger's Communities of practice theory. Wenger (1998) indicates that we are social beings and that in order to become competent members of the community, obtaining knowledge or skills respected and valued in the community is inevitable. Therefore, learning is not just a cognitive process but it means social participation. Also, he describes that learning is a situated activity such that the more knowledge and skills required we gain, the more we move toward full participation in the community. Thus, we participate in the community first peripherally (Legitimate Peripheral Participation) and later more fully relating with the members of the community as we obtain required knowledge and skills there.

However, patterns of participation vary. Some participants go directly toward the centre of the community while others have possibility to be marginalized or not to be legitimated. In addition, there would be sub-communities in the main-community; therefore, some people first, enter the sub-community, move to its centre, then gradually, toward the centre of the main-community or stay in the sub-communities, which might be peripheral parts of the main-community.

2.2. Imagined communities

According to Anderson (1983), who first introduced the concept of imagined communities, we humans are capable of relating to people beyond our immediate social networks through our imagination. Norton (2001) adapted this theory into the second language learning, integrated it and Wenger's Community of practice theory, and argued that individual second language learners have images of the communities in which they want to participate in the future, and that these "imagined communities" have a large impact on their current learning.

Further, Kanno (2003) points out that parents' and schools' visions of which imagined community their children/students would join in the future would strongly affect the current learning of the children/students. She shows an example of imagined community in Chinese Ethnic School in Japan, where teachers and parents have "the hope that these students will grow up to be cultural mediators between China and Japan" (296). Moreover, individual students' imagined communities have a great impact on the schools' policy and pedagogy, though the vision of educational institutes and the social vision reflect each other. She concludes "A school vision, thus, can not only reflect social ideologies but also strive to subvert dominant ideologies by imagining an alternative future society for its children and by socializing them into that imagined community"(288).

2.3. Identity and language learning

Norton (2000) defines identity as "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (5). Our identities are dynamic; that is, they are frequently or even always changing in our daily lives with social interaction in social structures.

We negotiate what we are with the use of language in our social interaction. Norton (2000) declares that “the role of language as constitutive and of and constituted by a language learner’s identity”. Our identity itself is constructed by using language in our thinking process and in relation with others and at the same time, it is our identity that chooses how to use and utter language. Therefore, it would be necessary for us to access to the social network, which gives us opportunity to speak through the interaction with people, by which we construct our identity; however, to do so, a certain linguistic competence is required (ibid). Also, power relationship such as gender, race, class and ethnicity is always hidden behind languages. Thus language is never a neutral medium; rather, we should pay attention to its social meaning (ibid).

2.3. Multicompetent Language Users

Cook (1999) advocates the theory of multicompetence; that is, L2 users should be viewed as multicompetent language users, “people in their own right, not as deficient native speakers” (195). Multicompetence is defined as “the compound state of a mind with two languages” (190) and as “the total language knowledge of a person who knows more than one language, including both L1 competence and the L2 interlanguage” (ibid).

He describes that multicompetent language learners are different from the monolingual native speakers and that multicompetence is naturally more complex than monolingualism. He mentions that the most remarkable difference is that there are mutual influence on L1 and L2 of the multicompetent language users since they always carry their L1 on the L2, which are not independent each other in their mind. Therefore, multicompetent language users have different language processing; for example, they are “faster and more accurate in a language-switching task than in a monolingual condition” (Hamers & Lambert, 1972 cited in Cook, 1999) and operate code-switching, which has “complex rules, partly at the pragmatic level of the speaker’s and listener’s roles, partly at a discourse level for topic, and partly at a syntactic level” (Milroy & Muyskens, 1995 cited in Cook, 1999).

In addition, he indicates that there is difference in some parts of thought processes between multicompetent language users and monolingual users. Foreign language learning is reported to stimulate learners’ recognition of cultural diversities and to boost their interests in both culture and language, which would lead them to try to contribute to societies surrounding them.

2.5. Humanizing and Dehumanizing Pedagogy

Freire (1970) presents humanizing and dehumanizing pedagogy. He analyzes the present education system as the “banking concept of education” (58). Accordingly, “in the banking concept of education, knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing” (ibid) and students are supposed to memorize these knowledge without being critical and are evaluated by the knowledge they have gained. Also, the required knowledge is disconnected from the reality, which, in other words, inhibits people to create power.

On the other hand, humanizing pedagogy values real communication. “Only through communication can human life hold meaning. The teacher’s thinking is authenticated only by the authenticity of the students’ thinking” (64). Humanizing pedagogy constantly pursues the knowledge based on the reality, which empowers students.

Salazar (2010) indicates that through dehumanizing pedagogy, teachers tend to force students with multicultural backgrounds to assimilate into the mainstream culture and to put less value on their heritages, which eventually maintains them to be deficits in the mainstream society. Bartolme (1994) suggests that humanizing pedagogy “requires that teachers discard deficit notions and genuinely value and utilize students’ existing knowledge bases in their teaching. In order to do so, teachers must confront and challenge their own social biases and honestly begin to perceive their students as capable learners. Furthermore, they must remain open to the fact that they will also learn from their students. Learning is not a one-way undertaking”(179).

3. Difficulties Generation 1.5 is facing

3.1. Lack of the second language proficiency

The first difficulty which generation 1.5 face would be lack of L2 proficiency. My daughters grew up in Japan, where English is merely learned as English as a Foreign Language and seldom used in a daily communication; consequently, English education in Japan is more focused on reading and writing. While the Japanese education system is very instructive, it does expect students to follow given procedures without critical thinking. With such background, my daughters could not fully make themselves understood in English or even express their thoughts and opinions when they first attended their school here in Canada. They started ESL

classes and other subjects. Their English proficiency has improved year by year; however, looking back, they were always struggling with the gap between what they could do with Japanese and what with English, which, at times, made them lose their motivation for study.

In his article, “Why are ESL students left behind?”, Duffy (2003) shows a complex, troubling picture of performance of ESL students. The research was done at one Calgary high school between 1989 and 1997 and about 40 percent of the school’s population spoke a first language other than English. An overall dropout rate among ESL student was 74 percent, which was two-and-a half times of that of the general student population. Moreover, the rate of ESL students who arrived as beginner levels in English was 93 percent. However, many of the drop-outs later earned their high-school diplomas through adult education and the overall dropout rate comes to 71 per cent. Still it is a high number. He comments “the loss of so many academically competent learners needs to be understood as lost human and educational capital”. He, also, points out that these findings of the studies suggest that ESL high school students remain underprivileged and that graduation is still a difficult goal to catch for the vast majority of these students.

Linguistic competence would be one of the crucial skills for participation and integration into the new community/society. Our engagement in social interaction can be relative to the extent we can communicate with other social members. Generation 1.5’s participation in the school communities is peripheral or marginalized, particularly at the first stages, because of their insufficient language proficiency. However, as Norton (2000) pointed out, language learning is more complex in the relationship with issues regarding race, ethnicity, class, gender etc. Thus, some youths can access to the mainstreams acquiring the linguistic competence while others are struggling so that they stay marginalized or even sometimes look for other communities outside the schools they belong to.

Lastly, while those who move to the new countries after their L1s are already established, in their late teens, might have great difficulties to gain L2 proficiency, children coming in their early childhood could also have the possibility of not completing L1 proficiency or even either L1 or L2 proficiency, which may lead to their insufficient academic growth. Kanno (2009) reports an analysis of one JSL teachers in a public elementary school in Japan: “Students who lose their L1 may not have enough cognitive maturity to handle the age-appropriate curriculum in Japanese” (295).

3.2. The psychosocial challenges

Next, I would like to elaborate on the psychosocial difficulties generation 1.5 may confront in the process of integration. My first daughter was in the tenth grade when she came here. Although she had anticipated certain challenges on her way for adjustment to her school life due to the lack of English proficiency, she was rather optimistic to be accepted as a new member by peers and teachers at school. Nevertheless, she did not need a long time before she recognized that school culture here was very different from the one in Japan. She found that to acquire new knowledge and to memorize them are the most required in Japan while to develop her own thoughts and to present them to other people are more valued and merely to carry knowledge without effective use means nothing in Canada. In addition to being afraid of making mistakes in English, being used to be guided and instructed at school, it was difficult for her to express herself in front of her classmates. She had to give up her beliefs built in her previous learning experience. Also, being strictly disciplined and guided in Japanese society and unfamiliar to self-management, she could not understand what is behind the freedom at school here. She was completely at a loss between two different cultures: the one at school, which is based on Canadian value and the one at home, brought from Japan. She lost the sense of belonging and the interest in schooling at the same time. Soon she started showing the symptoms of depression, which required counseling and medication, and could not go to school for one year.

According to the Communities of practice theory, acquiring knowledge such as norms, values, and standards of the new community is inevitable for newcomers to enter it and to become successful there. Nevertheless, they carry their previous value system from their native countries and still belong to their original communities: their families, where they most likely keep their old culture. Consequently, young immigrants may suffer from double standards and contradictions.

James (1997) analyses the psychosocial difficulties of the young immigrants through their adjustments to the new societies and school systems. She shows how immigrant youths are struggling between two different cultures. They are obliged to and strive to adjust to the mainstream of the new society, often abandoning their native culture. They need a sense of belonging, not a sense of being different. Thus, the psychological gap between the young immigrants and their parents, who carry traditional norms and values, becomes bigger and some families are forced to

decrease parental control and authority and even family structure. As a result, immigrant children and adolescent tend to be at risk for mental health problems.

3.3. Complex process of identity formation

Their process of identity construction for generation 1.5 can be more complex than the one of other generations. After one year staying in Canada, my second daughter confessed, “In Japan, I always felt as if I was a main character surrounded by a lot of friends. I was chosen as a leader and enjoyed many activities inside and outside of schools. But here in Canada, I feel that I am just like one of the background people. Especially, in the Drama class, I am trying not to bother other people and just doing whatever they ask me”. Her description was quite surprising since it seemed that her personality had entirely changed merely in one year.

Peirce (1995) emphasizes “the complex relationship between power, identity, and language learning”, as the language learner “has a complex social identity and multiple desires” and “they are constantly organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how relate to the social world. Thus an investment in the target language is also an investment in a learner’s own social identity, an identity that is constantly changing across time and space”. Also, Wenger (1998) indicates, “A perspective is not a recipe; it does not tell you just what to do. Rather, it acts as a guide about what to pay attention to, what difficulties to expect, and how to approach problems” (9). “We will have to value to work of community building and make sure that participants have access to the resources necessary to learn what they need to learn in order to take actions and make decisions that fully engage their own knowledgeability” (10). They are persistently examining the meaning of the community and negotiating their identities in the community.

However, considering the period of adolescence, they might be sensitive and impressionable. They would be keen about a sense of belonging. Duff (2002) introduces interview comments about in-class participation, socialization, and attitudes across groups. One NES student mentions that “cultural walls” exist and that people don’t interact with those who are different. Also, in the same interview, a NNES student says that younger (elementary) Ss can socialize more with people from other places and that this is difficult for high school Ss. Therefore, their age would be a big factor which makes their identity negotiation more complex. Further, we see the peer pressure among the students from the same cultural background. Salazar (2010) reports how Mexican origin young immigrants groups discourage to “act White” each

other in the process of acculturation and assimilation into American society. For them, speaking English among Mexican peers means that they want to be “different—white, not Mexicans” abandoning their heritage language and cultures. In sum, these immigrant adolescents are in the process of complex identity formation in their period of puberty, being exposed to complicated pressures, which are reflecting social power relationship.

4. Possibilities of Generation 1.5

4.1. Multicompetent individual

Generation 1.5 could be competent multilingual/cultural individuals. As Hall, Cheng, and Carlson (2006) mention, “multicompetence is considered to be dynamic and variable” (224) because of its unique language system. They also indicate that multicompetent users tend to have strong features. First, they are able to make practical and innovative use of knowledge. Second, their features are context- or domain-sensitive rather than context- or domain-general”(232). Finally, their multicompetence is continuously being developed. Hence, they state multicompetence users as “multi-contextual communicative expert” (233).

Also, “challenging the NS/NNS dichotomy and embracing the new imagined community of multicompetent speakers”(Pavlenko, p.266), they could be “competent multilingual and bicultural individuals”(Cervatiuc, p.266). In other words, they would not put superiority or inferiority among different languages and cultures and accept their differences, similarities, and values. They might regard people’s ability and personality as more important than their own racial and cultural backgrounds. Accordingly, they would give great influence to people and societies as multilingual/cultural individuals. Their first-hand multicultural/lingual experiences would be “significant not only in terms of minority-majority (e.g., Asians and Whites) relations but also in terms of interminority (e.g., Asians and Blacks) and intragroup (e.g., South Asians of different religions persuasions) relations, so that on the margins do not participate in further marginalizing themselves due to divisiveness and conflict” (Asher, 2008, 18).

One of my friends’ daughter, who immigrated to Canada as a generation 1.5 is now working for an organization to support new immigrants’ adjustment. We can say that she is one of the multilingual/multicultural individuals, who have successfully used their potential.

4.2. Creation of their own hybrid cultures

The characteristic of “in-between” of generation 1.5 could be their strength. They belong to two different cultures and also, two generations: the first and second generations. They know two societies and people living there. They know the customs, standards, expectations, and taboos, of two societies. Compared with the other generations, generation 1.5 would have more capacity and capability.

Further, in the era of globalization and high-technology, they are creating their own hybrid cultures, which could appeal to people’s sense of social equality and justice. The global transportation systems, immediate worldwide information and communication systems, provided by high-technology such as the Internet, have drastically changed the situation surrounding them compared with that of a few decades ago. They can link to their original background while they are acculturating into the new environments and developing up to date social networks there. Previously, there would have been a formidable barrier between natives (Us) and non-natives (Them), and many generation 1.5 students were struggling to be accepted as natives, abandoning their original sociocultural backgrounds. However, as its population in society has been increasing, it seems that generation 1.5 today try to accept the way they are; in other words, they create their own hybrid identities and cultures, which do not need to belong to either native or non-native contexts. They even seem to enjoy and put forward their hybrid identity with a sense of solidarity—not only with people in their new domains, but also with people in their old domains.

Wan Yu Wendy Chien is one of the active Taiwanese-Canadian generation 1.5. As a visual artist, she practices unique art style, which she has named “Chinglish”, searching for possibilities that merge two cultures into a new whole. She applies Chinese traditional technique with American modern culture, using materials from both eastern and western cultures. At the same time, as an educator, she holds a Chinese club, where her students from Canada and China lively interact to pursue Chinese culture. She considers herself an agent whose task is to reflect and respond to the potential and prospect of her generation: Generation 1.5.

4.3. A bridge between the first and second generations

They could be a bridge between the first and second generations. Some of the first

generation of immigrants tend to live in their own communities and even they seldom have a chance to communicate with people outside; therefore, bringing their home criteria and standards, they might not understand the one in the host countries. On the other hand, the second generation is exposed to their native, that is “the host” for the first generation, culture and society and as long as they are not guided to be familiar to their original heritages, they would have different standards and values from the one of the first generation. Consequently, these families would suffer from the generation gap between parents and children. Especially, the first generation, who is unfamiliar to the new society, tends to be isolated and unvalued. Generation 1.5ers could bridge these generations in their communities.

There has been Japanese community in Vancouver since the early twentieth century. When the World War II took place, most of the families, including the first and second generations, were forced to return to their home country, Japan and later when the war ended, back to Canada again. It was the second generation who was the generation 1.5 in fact since they experienced two different societies and cultures in their childhood or youth that tried to connect divergent generations during this confusing period (personal communication from a colleague of mine).

5. Effective support to Generation 1.5

5.1. Support at institutional level

First of all, the academic achievement of generation 1.5 should be secured. As mentioned before, the drop-out rate of ESL students is still high and the actual situation is that ESL students from affluent families can take private English lessons and tutors while those who are from families that lack financial resources most likely drop out. Furthermore, Duffy (2003) announced that in the U.S., more detailed research on academic accomplishment of ESL students have been done and effective and supportive programs for them have been already developed while Canadian government still do not have enough information about the academic performance of ESL students to build the appropriate curriculum for them even though Toronto and Vancouver have more immigrant students than most of the cities in the U.S. (2003). It should be crucial that sufficient, well-developed ESL programs are supplied to generation 1.5.

In addition, teachers of the subjects other than ESL would “need to be knowledgeable about both the developmental patterns of their second language acquisition and also

about the language and vocabulary used in their specific academic disciplines. This awareness helps teachers tailor their instruction and classroom discourse to the students' linguistic development. English language learners are no longer solely the responsibilities of ESL or bilingual teachers but the responsibility of all teachers" (Dong, 2005, 205)

Lastly, as Macedo and Bartolome (1999) suggests that students as social capital should be valued at the institutional level. They declare that respects, trusting relationship between teachers and students, and also, academic discipline are brought into the classrooms through humanizing pedagogy. Generation 1.5 can be a great human capital of the society. As Cervantic (2009) suggests, to assist them to "create their own unique imagined community of multilingual and bicultural individuals" (266) would be the key. By doing so, they "perceive themselves as successful, in spite of still being considered by the majority group as outsiders" (ibid).

5.2. Support in families

It is necessary for parents to understand the difficulties of generation 1.5. As the first generation of immigrants, they themselves face many struggles and they might have little time to share with their children; however, by paying attention to them and having enough communication in families, they would recognize what their children face, how they feel, and what they need. When adolescents are well encouraged to have confidence, they will maintain positive and successful images toward their future, which, motivate their academic investment, and in tern, promote them to pursue their future goals to contribute to multi-societies.

Also, too rapid assimilation to the host culture might cause emotional unstableness of the adolescents. Moreover, it might be important for the young immigrants to take pride in their own heritage when they build constructive images for their future goals. Thus parents would need to provide as many as opportunities to expose their children to L1 heritages; for instance, it might be helpful to use L1 at home, orally and literally, if it is possible, and to celebrate the events and meals of their home countries. Their children would be more involved in L2 cultures outside home in the host societies. Nevertheless, when we think of foundation of their identities, they would be primarily constructed in the family whose value and standards are most likely based on L1 culture. Multilingual/cultural identity would be inseparable from L1 identity.

5.3. Social supports

Social supports to generation 1.5 would be inevitable, especially at the first stages since the families might not have enough social networks outside the families to share experiences and feelings and to support each other in the new environments.

In order to develop deliberate acculturation to the host society and to maintain their core identity and to keep pride in their heritage, sustaining their native culture, it might be helpful to join their first language community. They can maintain their L1 proficiency and have opportunities to expose themselves to their own cultures and traditions through the interaction with various generations possessing the same cultural backgrounds.

Han (2011) introduces an attempt at a Chinese church community in Canada as an institutional community. She points out important dimensions: choice of institutional language(s), regulation of code-switching, and choice of speakers there. Under the linguistic nationalism, most of the institutional settings are occupied by monolingualism which prevents the native languages of immigrant people. However, this church community thrives to separate language and politic/economic power behind it and gradually guides newcomers to adjust to the new community. This would be one of the successful examples of the community support.

6. Conclusion

In this paper, I have explored the challenges and possibilities of generation 1.5. Generation 1.5 is unique and dynamic; at the same time, they are vulnerable and unstable. Considering the globalization of today, its number will increase and its forms will vary. They are facing and will continue to face challenges. However, through the right support and pertinent guidance, they would have strong potentiality of multicompetence, which could be a remedy of imbalance and hierarchy in the societies. As an EFL teacher, and also as a parent of two daughters, I am willing to support this generation, who, I hope, would promote a healthy and meaningful multicultural society.

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*Investigating Native Speakers' Intelligibility Ratings and Comments about Japanese
EFL speakers' speech*

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Abstract

In this study, we investigated Japanese EFL (JEFL) speakers' intelligibility rated by two groups of native speakers of English, a peer group and a teacher group, and their comments on the speech samples. Reading and spontaneous speech samples were collected twice, pre and post study abroad from seven JEFL students who visited North America for about nine months. The raters were asked to evaluate the samples in terms of intelligibility, and also were asked to give a comment on each speech about what features seemed unclear or unnatural or some advice for further improvement. The results of the assessment revealed that the intelligibility of JEFL learners was confirmed to be improved. It also revealed that the means of the scores given by the peer raters were higher than the teachers' means. From the result, it seemed that the peer raters were more lenient to JEFL learners' speech. The terms occurring in the comments were divided into four categories for further analysis: phonetics, fluency, suprasegmentals, and grammar. The peer raters gave comments on fluency much more frequently than the teacher raters did. The comments were further investigated and separated into each score. Comments about phonetics were more frequently given to less intelligible speech, and the percentage fell as the intelligibility level rose. The frequency of comments for reading speech was confirmed to have a strong positive correlation, but it was not so strong for the spontaneous speech with the peer raters.

1. Introduction

One of the most important purposes of learning foreign language must be to make listeners understand what the speaker is saying in the foreign language. As babies start to learn how to communicate with others orally much earlier than how to read or write in their first language (L1), oral skills are apparently very important and crucial for human beings, so as for learners of English as the second language (L2) or as a foreign language (EFL). The very basic skill to make listeners understand what you are saying will be defined as *intelligibility* (Smith, 1992; Nelson, 2011). Unfortunately, it is often said that Japanese EFL speakers (JEFL) tend to carry a strong Japanese accent in speaking English. It is also said that it is rather difficult for non-Japanese native speakers to understand English utterances given by Japanese native speakers. However, what kind of features in their English utterances actually makes it difficult for native speakers of English to understand? Also what elements are native speakers concerned about when listening to non-native speakers' English utterances?

Mastering English pronunciation seems to be one of the most difficult targets for JEFL learners to achieve because it is very different from Japanese pronunciation. English has, for instance, about 19 vowels and 24 consonants (Ladefoged and Johnson, 2011). English also has about 67 consonant clusters (Takebayashi, 1996). On the other hand, Japanese has only five vowels and 26 consonants including consonant clusters. Not only are there differences in the pronunciation, but also there are several prominent differences in the suprasegmentals. For example, English is said to be a stress-timed language, and Japanese a mora-timed language (Trubetzkoy, 1958: as cited in Kubozono, 1998, p.4). In terms of syllable types, 56% of the syllables in English are said to be closed syllables, and 44% open syllables (Dauer, 1983). In contrast, about 90% of syllables in Japanese are open syllables (Kubozono, 1996). Also it is known that stress, duration, intensity (Fry, 1955), and pitch prominence (Bolinger, 1958) play important roles in English speech. On the other hand, pitch change is the only key for word emphasis, and neither duration nor intensity contributes to word emphasis in Japanese speech (Kubozono, 1998). What is more, Japanese has a unique accent type called *heiban-shiki accent*, which means *monotonous accent*. There are many more differences between English and Japanese in terms of phonetics and phonology.

It is known that L2 learners tend to transfer their L1 knowledge in the process of L2 acquisition (Ellis, 1997). So the transfer of those suprasegmental prominences in Japanese must contribute to their lack of intelligibility in speaking English. Although

the differences in those features seem large and hard to adapt, not all the Japanese L1 speakers are unable to speak English proficiently or intelligibly. For example, many returnee children or returnee students use native-like English phonology, or nearly English phonology when speaking English. Also the students who have been in an English speaking country as exchange students seem to have become able to speak English more intelligibly when they come back from abroad. Many of them seem to have had favourable influences on their speech skills during their stay abroad. But does their intelligibility really improve? Will it be noticed and positively evaluated by English L1 speakers?

To answer those questions, we carried out an experiment in which we collected samples of reading and spontaneous speech utterances given in English by JEFL learners before and after staying in an English speaking country (U.S.A. or Canada) for about nine months. Also we collected evaluations of those utterances from two groups of native speakers of English, a university student group, and a teacher group. With the evaluation, we also collected comments from the raters about what features they were concerned about when evaluating JEFL speakers' utterances and what features the speaker might need to work on in the future in order to become an excellent speaker of English. We will discuss the findings and implications obtained from the comments.

2. Background and research questions

2.1. Foreign accent and intelligibility

Munro and Derwing (1995) investigated effects of foreign accent on intelligibility and comprehensibility. In their study, they found that accentedness did not have a significant correlation with either intelligibility or comprehensibility. The speakers who participated in this study were all native speakers of Mandarin. Listeners were all native English speakers who were undergraduate students at a Canadian university.

Derwing and Munro (1997) found that accentedness did not affect scores of intelligibility although about 40% of the listeners (ten out of 26) commented it was more difficult to understand the speech made at faster rate. In other words, although the speech was intelligible, some of the listeners needed to use some effort to understand what the speaker was saying. In this study, they used speech made by speakers with four different L1 backgrounds: Cantonese, Japanese, Spanish, and Polish. One-fourth of the speakers (12 out of 48) had taken the TOEFL test, and the

mean score was 479. Those speakers represented upper range of proficiency in the sample. The speakers watched a short cartoon story, and after a while, they narrated the story. The listeners were all native English speakers who were born and raised in Canada.

Tajima, Port, and Dalby (1997) investigated if temporal correction influences the intelligibility of foreign-accented English. They recorded English short phrases spoken by Chinese L1 and English L1 speakers, and manipulated the duration of acoustic segments of those samples. They modified the durations in Chinese L1 speech samples to match the durations in English L1 speech samples, and vice versa. They found that the intelligibility of Chinese-accented utterances improved significantly after temporal correction, and the intelligibility of English L1 utterances declined after modification.

2.2. Effect of non-native speech rate on native listener comprehension

Anderson-Hsieh and Koehler (1988) investigated the effect of foreign accent and speaking rate in native speaker comprehension, and found that the comprehension scores of speech with a strong foreign accent at faster speech rate were lower than the speech at regular speech rate. The speakers' L1 was Chinese in this study, and they were all graduate students at an American university. A speaker read one of six passages at three different speech rates, fast, regular, and slow. Listeners were 224 undergraduate students at an American university.

Derwing and Munro (1997) found that English native speakers perceived strongly foreign-accented speech as too fast although the actual speech rate was not different.

Munro and Derwing (1998) found a different aspect about the speech rate from those studies mentioned above. They actually found that the non-native speech made at a slower rate was judged more accented and less comprehensible. Also they found that native English listeners preferred foreign-accented speech made at some speed, but not at a slower rate. The non-native speakers' L1 was Mandarin Chinese in this study.

From those studies, it was revealed that non-native speech with strong foreign accent that was made either too fast or too slow reduced the comprehensibility and forced English native speakers to make extra effort to understand what the speaker was saying.

2.3. Raters' familiarity with foreign accents and ethnicity

Gass and Varonis (1984) investigated the effect of familiarity on native speaker comprehension of non-native speaker speech with English language. They used speech samples made by two foreign speaker groups, Japanese native speakers and Arabic native speakers. Listeners were 142 native English-speaking undergraduate students at the University of Michigan. They found that familiarity with the topic, non-native speech in general, a particular non-native accent, and a particular non-native speaker facilitated listeners' comprehension.

Rubin (1992) also confirmed that undergraduate listeners who were willing to attend a class which was given by a non-native English-speaking teaching assistant (NNSTA) showed better understanding of Oriental speech than those who weren't. He also confirmed that the students who had more experience with NNSTA classes had better understanding.

Rubin and Smith (1990) investigated the effects of accent, ethnicity, and lecture topic on American undergraduate students' perception of non-native English-speaking teaching assistants. They collected two kinds of non-native English speech samples, highly accented and moderately accented Chinese-accented English. While they had 92 American undergraduate students listen to the speech samples, they projected a photograph of either Caucasian or Oriental/Asian at the front of the room as if they were the speaker. They found that with the Oriental/Asian photograph, the undergraduates did not pay much attention to the accentedness so that they did not distinguish the different levels of accentedness. On the contrary, with the photograph of Caucasian, they used accent as a basis for specifying ethnicity. They also found that American undergraduates tended to rate a highly accented instructor as a poor teacher. So in their study, it was found that American undergraduates tended to have a sort of prejudice that Oriental/Asian speaker would have strong accent and it would be rather difficult for them to understand what they were saying. In their study, they discussed how limited exposure to the international community influenced the undergraduates' judgements on accent and ethnicity. Rubin (1992) did a similar experiment using the speech spoken by a native English speaking American doctoral student who were born and brought up in Ohio, USA. The result revealed that the comprehensibility of the undergraduate students who had an Oriental person's photograph was worse than those who had a Caucasian person's photograph, and the speech with an Oriental person's photograph was perceived as more accented. He also studied about listeners' familiarity with NNSTA.

In the present study, the peer raters who participated in the experiment were visiting Japan for a month on a foreign exchange programme, so most of them had familiarity with the Japanese language and with the English spoken by Japanese native speakers. The teacher raters were more familiar with JEFL English utterances since they had been living in Japan for more than a decade and were having communication with JEFL learners in English frequently. So it was expected that the teacher raters' evaluations would be more lenient as a result of familiarity.

2.4. Rater group differences

Caban (2003) investigated the difference in non-native speech assessment by four different rater groups; English L1 MA students, Japanese L1 MA students, English L1 teachers, and Japanese L1 students at two language institutes in Hawaii. She used seven categories: fluency, grammar, pronunciation, compensation techniques, content of utterance, language appropriateness, and overall intelligibility. She found that English L1 MA students and English L1 teachers were more lenient in rating pronunciation. Japanese L1 MA students were more lenient in rating overall intelligibility. Japanese L1 students at language schools were more lenient in rating fluency and grammar.

Hsieh (2011) compared the judgement results of non-native speakers' speech samples on oral proficiency, accentedness, and comprehensibility rated by student and teacher raters. The speakers were international teaching assistants (ITA) in an American university. She adopted an English oral proficiency test, the Speak Proficiency English Assessment Kit (SPEAK), and the international ITAs responded to it. She found that student raters evaluated speech more globally while teacher raters did it more analytically. She also found that the student raters did not comment as much on intonation or stress patterns as the teacher raters did. She suggested that this was because the student raters were more likely to be "linguistically less sophisticated than the ESL teachers" (p.65). Also she found that the student raters tended to give harsher scores to the non-native speech. She discussed that this was because "the undergraduates were not familiar with the rating criteria for judging the examinees, thus, they sometimes made their rating decisions solely through their appraisal of whether they felt a particular examinee was qualified to be an ITA, a criterion not on the rating rubric", and it suggests that "undergraduates consider their personal feelings, perhaps even their fears, and their possible future experiences as students in ITA classes in judging ITA's speech" (p.64).

2.5. Research questions

The present study investigates the following research questions.

- (1) Intelligibility scores in the pre and post study abroad speech:
 - Does JEFL speakers' intelligibility improve as a result of study abroad?
- (2) Tendency in comments for JEFL speech by English L1 peers and teachers:
 - How do English L1 raters comment on JEFL speakers' utterances?
 - And how do the ratings and comments by peers compare to those by teachers?

3. Method

In order to answer the research questions, JEFL learners' utterances (reading and spontaneous speech) were recorded before leaving and after coming back to Japan. After getting all the reading speech samples, four sentences out of 20 were selected and presented for native speakers' evaluation. The following sections provide more detailed description of the participants and procedures.

3.1. Participants

3.1.1. Speakers

The participants involved in this experiment were seven students who stayed either in the U.S. or the English speaking area of Canada for about nine months. All of them were in their second year at university when they left Japan in August 2011. There was one male and six females. All of them were majoring in English at a Japanese university. One of them had had a 5-month stay in Canada when she was a high school student. Another three had been abroad earlier on. It was the first time for the other three to go abroad.

3.1.2. Raters

3.1.2.1. Peer group

Ten American undergraduate students (peer raters) who were staying in Japan for one month while participating in an exchange programme were hired for the rating. There were eight females and two males. Four of them were in their teens; five were in their early 20s; and the other one in late 20s. They all had their primary and secondary

educations in the U.S. Four of them declared that their Japanese proficiency was fair, and the other six said they could speak Japanese very little.

3.1.2.2. Teacher group

For comparison with those students' ratings, four American teachers who had been in Japan for more than a year and were teaching English at a Japanese university were hired for the assessment of students' utterances. All of them had their primary and secondary educations in the United States. They were all male. One of them was in his 30s, one in his 40s, one in his 50s, and one in his 60s. All of them had been living in Japan for more than a decade. Three of them indicated that they could speak Japanese well, and the other said his Japanese was fair. None of them reported of having any hearing problem.

3.2. Recordings

The recording of students' utterances was carried out in a small, quiet room on the campus. Students' utterances were recorded with a Sony PCM-D50 portable linear PCM digital recorder at a 22.05 kHz sampling rate with 16-bit sample size, through a stereo microphone ECM-MS907 with 90 degrees polar pattern. For comparison, 5 native English speakers' reading utterances were also recorded in their own study rooms at a university using a recorder Sony ICD-UX523 recorder, at 44.10 kHz sampling rate with 16-bit sample size. The omnidirectional stereo microphone embedded in the recorder was used. Those sound files were saved with the Waveform Audio File Format (WAV).

3.3. Speech materials

3.3.1. Reading passage

Students were given a copy of the reading passage when they came to the room for the recording. The passage was quoted from Shimaoka (2004). Students were told to read the passage several times before recording, silently or aloud, as preparation. No time limitation was given to the students for the preparation, but no one took more than 10 minutes. A few students read it aloud. Also they were told to ask for the correct pronunciation and the meaning of unknown words if there were any.

The English passage they read had a total 20 sentences with a total of 225 words with

300 syllables and 774 phonemes in the whole passage. The syllables were confirmed by referring to *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1987) and *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (1995). The theme of the passage was about the four seasons in Japan. The mean number of words in a sentence was 11.3, with that of syllables 15.0, and that of phonemes 38.7. The maximum number of words per sentence was 20, that of syllables, 29, and that of phonemes, 74. The minimum number of words was five, and that of syllables nine, and that of phonemes 22. The standard deviation of the words was 3.87, with that of the syllables 4.94, and that of the phonemes 12.49.

3.3.2. Spontaneous speech

In the pre study abroad session, participants were asked to speak about themselves in English. They had been informed of this topic when their appointment was arranged, so they had time and opportunity to prepare what they would say during recording. Before being recorded in the room, they were given time to think about what they were going to speak about. The same procedure was employed in the post study abroad session. But at that time, an interview was given at the beginning of their session in Japanese, and they were asked about their school life, after-school activities, life at the dormitory or with the host family, and the places they visited in the country they stayed. They talked about their life or their experience in the country. Most of them had not prepared for the interview, but most of them were able to make a good speech.

3.4. Evaluation of JEFLL learners' English utterances

3.4.1. Selection and manipulation of the speech sound data

Four sentences out of the 20 sentences of the reading passage were selected for the evaluation purpose. This cropping process was carried out with the software Audacity 1.3.14 Beta. The sentences selected were the 6th, 7th, 8th, and 12th sentences. To select the sentences, the first five and the last five sentences were first rejected. For the beginning part of the reading, many of the speakers seemed to start reading rather vigorously. But as the reading went on, their voice became less loud, and by the end quite a few of them seemed to have got worn out by reading English aloud. That is the reason why the first and the last five sentences were not used. Among the other ten sentences, the expressions that are not very familiar to Japanese were then excluded, such as *there* in "There they enjoy..." or *yet* in "Yet fall is one of the..." Those sound

files were exported to the audio format MP3 so that the web survey software SurveyMonkey could load the sound files quickly enough for the rates to proceed smoothly. All of the sound files were amplified as to make the magnitude of the sound files fairly equal. The selected four sentences are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Four selected sentences for the evaluation

No.6 In June, the rainy season begins.

No.7 The sky is overcast and we have very few sunny days for nearly a whole month.

No.8 Then summer comes with hot days and occasional showers.

No.12 In September, typhoons hit, causing damage to buildings and crops.

3.4.2. Software and rating scale

To facilitate collection of native speakers' evaluations, an internet survey programme called SurveyMonkey was employed. The sound files were mixed in random order. The same person's utterances were distanced from each other at the intervals of at least five files. The MP3 sound file was embedded in each question. Listeners were allowed to replay the sound file as many times as they liked. A 7-point Likert scale was employed. The labels on each scale were; *1- Not understandable. 2- Very difficult. 3- Difficult. 4- Understandable. 5- Easy. 6- Very easy. 7- Excellent.*

3.4.3. Evaluation of JEFLL learners' intelligibility

For the teacher raters, written instructions were given on the rating site asking "How easy is it for you to understand the utterances?" Afterwards, we received some feedback from teacher raters that the question was rather too broad to give consistent judgements.

With the feedback received from teacher raters, the instructions for student raters were revised and some lines were added to give some ideas that we wanted the raters to have in mind while listening to the sound files, such as "If I were having a conversation with this speaker, I would find his/her English ____". Also on the scale, we used the word *guessing*, to give the idea that they might need to guess to understand what the speaker was saying. These lines were read aloud by the author to the raters before they started the session.

The raters were asked to write some comments on each speech file to indicate what parts of the utterance seemed unclear to them, and why they seemed unclear or

unnatural. To the peer raters, a line was added in the instruction asking what features they thought should be improved by the speaker to become an excellent speaker of English. This supplement worked fairly well and we were able to get lots of valuable comments from student raters.

4. Results

4.1. Inter-rater reliability

Inter-rater reliabilities for both reading and spontaneous speech were tested by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The alpha for reading with 14 raters all together was .953, and the alpha for spontaneous speech was .900. These results indicate that the interrater reliability is high enough.

The alphas among the student raters and among the teacher raters were also calculated. The alpha among ten student raters was .928 for the reading speech, and .850 for the spontaneous speech. The alpha among four teacher raters was .892 for the reading, and .721 for the spontaneous speech. From these results, inter-rater reliabilities among ten student raters for both reading and spontaneous speech assessments were confirmed high enough to be reliable. Also the teachers' inter-rater reliability of the reading speech assessment was high enough to rely on, and that for the spontaneous speech was relatively high.

4.2. JEFLL learners' speech intelligibility rated by English L1 peers and teachers

4.2.1. Scores for the reading speech

To make the mean robust, each learner's scores rated by the peer raters were truncated by cutting off the highest and lowest, so that each learner's mean was calculated as trimmed mean by applying remaining 8 raters' ratings. Therefore the sample size became 56 instead of 70 with both the pre and post study abroad readings. The trimmed mean of the pre study abroad reading speech was 4.77, and the standard deviation (SD) was 1.02, and the trimmed mean of post study abroad speech was 5.59 and the standard deviation was 0.73. Table 1 indicate the distribution of scores of the pre and post study abroad reading speech rated by peer raters. A dependent two-tailed *t*-test was carried out to confirm if the null hypothesis that the mean score of post study abroad reading speech was the same as that of the pre study abroad could be rejected. As the result, the null hypothesis was rejected ($df=56$, $t=-7.7937$, $p=.0000$

($p < .001$). So the difference of the post study abroad mean score and the pre study abroad mean score was confirmed to be statistically significant. Therefore, the intelligibility of JEFL speakers' reading speech was confirmed improved as a result of studying abroad by the America peer raters.

Table 1. Distribution of trimmed scores for reading speech rated by peer raters

Timing	Point	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	M	SD
Pre	No. of scores	0	2	10	18	12	9	5	56	4.77	1.02
Post	No. of scores	0	0	1	13	18	13	11	56	5.59	0.73

Note: $df = 56$, $t = -7.7937$, $p = 0.0000$ ($p < .001$)

4.2.2. Scores for the reading speech rated by teacher raters

The distributions of scores of the reading speech rated by the teacher raters are available in Table 2. The sample size was 28 for each speech session. The mean score of the pre study abroad speech was 4.32, and the standard deviation was 1.06. The mean score of post study abroad speech was 4.86, and the standard deviation 1.01. The result of the dependent two-tailed t-test was $df = 28$, $t = -2.9480$, $p = .0065$ ($p < 0.01$). So the difference of the post study abroad mean score and the pre study abroad mean score of reading speech rated by teacher raters was confirmed to be statistically significant. Therefore, JEFL speakers' intelligibility in reading speech was confirmed improved as a result of studying abroad by the America teacher raters.

Table 2. Distribution of trimmed scores for reading speech rated by teacher raters

Timing	Point	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	M	SD
Pre	No. of scores	0	0	6	12	6	3	1	28	4.32	1.06
Post	No. of scores	0	0	2	8	12	4	2	28	4.86	1.01

Note: $df = 28$, $t = -2.9480$, $p = .0065$ ($p < .01$)

4.2.3. Scores for the spontaneous speech rated by peer raters

The distributions of scores of spontaneous speech rated by the peer raters are shown in Table 3. As the highest and lowest was cut off at each learner's scores to make the mean robust, the sample size became 56 for both the pre and post study abroad speech ratings. The trimmed mean of the pre study abroad speech was 5.23 with a standard deviation of 0.66, and that of post study abroad speech was 5.64 with a standard deviation of 0.64. The result of dependent two-tailed t-test was $df = 56$, $t = -3.8227$, p

=.0003 ($p < 0.001$). So the means of scores for the pre and post study abroad rated by peer raters were confirmed to be statistically significant.

Table 3. Distribution of trimmed scores for spontaneous speech rated by peer raters

Timing	Point	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	M	SD
Pre	No. of scores	0	0	3	12	14	23	4	56	5.23	0.66
Post	No. of scores	0	0	1	5	15	27	8	56	5.64	0.64

Note: $df = 56$, $t = -3.8227$, $p = .0003$ ($p < .001$)

4.2.4. Scores for the spontaneous speech rated by teacher raters

The distributions of scores of the spontaneous speech rated by teacher raters are indicated in Table 4. The sample size was 28 for both the pre and post study abroad speech. The mean score of the pre study abroad speech was 4.50, and the standard deviation was 0.66. The mean score of post study abroad speech was 4.71, and the standard deviation was 0.86. The result of a dependent two-tailed t-test was $df = 28$, $t = -1.0301$, $p = .3121$ ($p > .05$), Effect size $r = .20$. The probability was much larger than 0.05, and the effect size was small. As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected so that the difference of the mean scores of spontaneous speech rated by teacher raters was not statistically significant.

Table 4. Distribution of trimmed scores for spontaneous speech rated by teacher raters

Timing	Point	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total	M	SD
Pre	No. of scores	0	0	3	12	9	4	0	28	4.50	0.66
Post	No. of scores	0	0	5	6	10	6	1	28	4.71	0.86

Note: $df = 28$, $t = -1.0301$, $p = .3121$ ($p > .05$), Effect size $r = .20$ (small)

4.3. Raters' comments for the reading and spontaneous speech

In this section, the negative terms appeared in raters' comments are categorised and summarised. Depending on the area they were most closely related to the terms were divided into eight categories: phonetics, fluency, suprasegmentals, grammar, lexicon, confidence, comprehension, and topic. A table showing these categories and the terms is presented in Table 5.

The terms appearing in the comments on reading speech were summarised and categorised. Figure 7 presents the percentage of categorised negative terms by peer

raters, and Figure 8 those by teacher raters for the reading speech. Terms referring phonetics appeared most frequently in both groups, comprising 68.6% of the terms used by peers, and 69.6% of those used by the teacher raters. Then suprasegmentals came second for the two groups, 41.4% for peers, and 55.4% for teachers. Grammar came third with peers (7.9%), and with teachers (12.5%).

Table 5. Table of categories of negative terms appearing in raters comments

Categories	Terms and ideas (examples)
Phonetics	"pronunciation", "articulation", "enunciation", "slur", "blending words", "some words were not clear", "phonetics", mention exact words, such as "nearly", "typhoon", "damage", etc., mention exact letters, such as "R", "L", "TH", "V", "B", etc.
Fluency	"stammer", "stutter", "stumble", "sentence sounds awkward", "pauses", "spaces", "hesitation", "speed", "pace", "slow", "too fast"
Suprasegmentals	"rhythm", "flow", "choppy", "staccato", "intonation", "tone", "stress"
Grammar	"grammar", "tense", "plural", "not pronouncing S at the end of words", "omit words"
Lexicon	"mix up words", "use wong words"
Confidence	"confident", "unsure"
Comprehension	"not understanding"
Topic	"topic", "content", mention about topic problems, such as "she was in Oregon, but talks about Hawaiian people?", "Where did she go? And she met an interesting guy?"

4.3.1. Negative comments for the reading speech

As can be seen in Figures 2 and 3, negative terms about phonetics were most frequently found in the comments for the reading speech by both the peer and teacher raters. In the peer group, 96 out of 140 comments for reading speech were about phonetics (68.6%). In the teacher group, 41 out of 56 comments for reading speech was about phonetics (73.2%). Negative terms about fluency were second frequently found in the peers' comments for 42 out of 140 speech samples (30.0%). On the other hand, teachers did not mention about fluency so much. It was found in the teachers' comments for 6 out of 56 reading speech (10.7%). Negative terms about suprasegmentals were found in teachers' comments as much as the terms about phonetics. It was found in the teachers' comments for 41 out of 56 reading speech (73.2%). On the other hand, the peer raters did not mention about suprasegmentals that much. It was found in the peers' comments for 21 out of 140 reading speech files (15.0%). Negative terms about grammar were fourth frequently found in the peers' comments, and third in the teachers' comments. In peers' comments, it was found for

11 out of 140 reading speech files (7.9%). In teachers' comments, it was found for seven out of 56 comments (12.5%).

As per the results seen in Figures 2 and 3, the four categories, phonetics, fluency, suprasegmentals, and grammar, looked salient, so those four categories were selected for further analysis.

Figure 2. Number of negative comments by the peer raters for the reading speech (n =140; multiple responses)

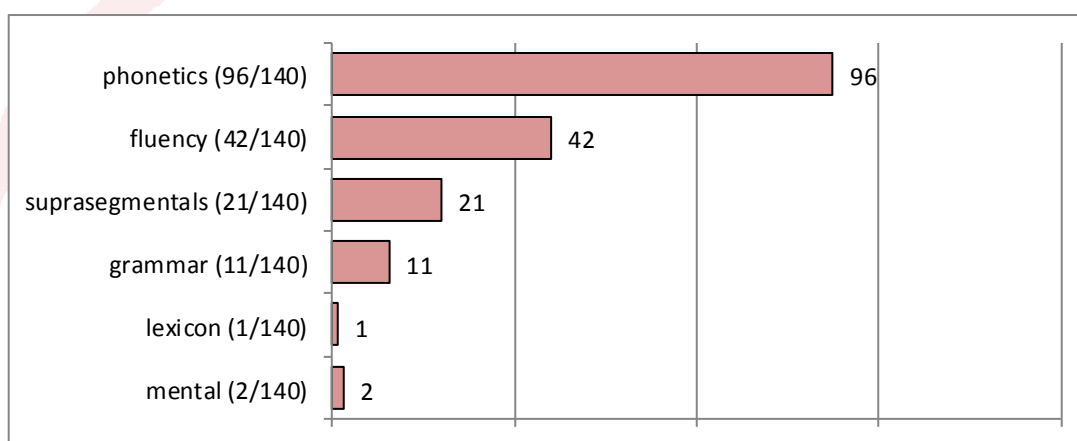
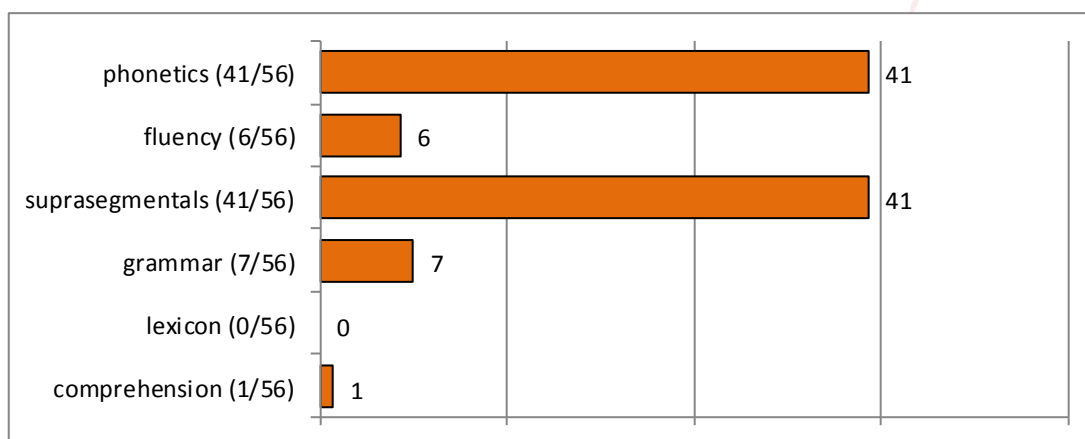


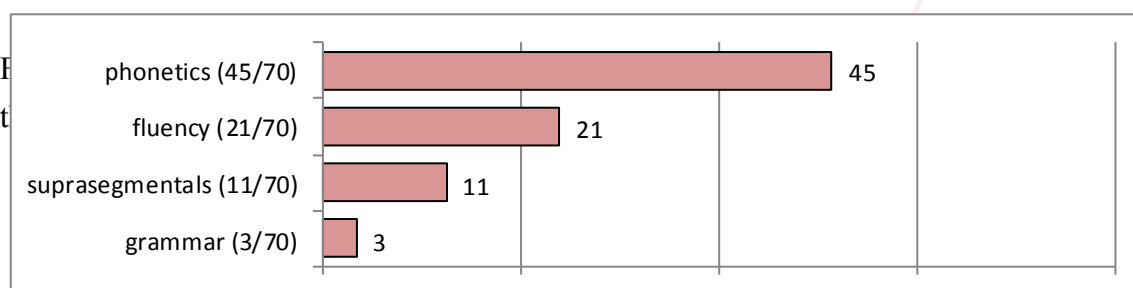
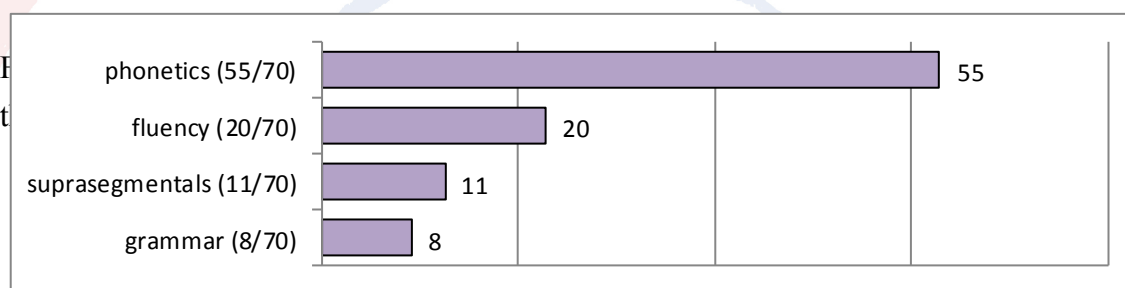
Figure 3. Number of negative comments by the teacher raters for the reading speech (n =56; multiple responses)



4.3.2. Negative comments given for the pre and post study abroad reading speech

Figures 4 and 5 present the numbers of comments in which the categorised negative terms were found in the peer raters' comments for the pre and post study abroad reading speech, and Figures 6 and 7 in the teacher raters' comments. As can be seen in the tables, comments on phonetics were the most remarked upon category in

judging EFL speakers' intelligibility among the peer raters. Negative terms about phonetics were found in the peers' comments for 55 out of 70 speech samples of the pre study abroad reading speech (78.6%), and for 45 out of 70 speech samples of the post study abroad reading speech (64.3%). The numbers of negative comments on fluency was similar in the comments for both the pre and post study abroad speech. It was 20 for the pre, and 21 for the post study abroad reading speech. The percentages were 28.6% and 30.0% respectively. The numbers of negative comments on suprasegmentals was the third in both the peer and teacher raters' comments. It was 11 out of 70 speech samples in the comments for both the pre and post study abroad speech (25.7% each). Grammar was least mentioned for both the pre and post study abroad speech. It was eight for the pre study abroad speech (11.4%), and three for the post study abroad reading speech (4.3%).



The results of the correlation coefficient are $r = .9821$, $R^2 = .9645$, $t = 12.7592$, and $p < .001$ ($p = .0000$). So it was confirmed that the comments for the pre and post reading speech by the peer raters a strong positive correlation.

Figures 6 and 7 present the numbers of negative comments found in the teacher raters' comments for the pre and post study abroad reading speech. The correlation coefficient between the number of negative comments for the pre and post study

abroad reading speech was $r = .9273$, $R^2 = .8599$, $t = 6.0677$, $p < .001$. So it was confirmed that the comments for the pre and post study abroad reading speech by teacher raters had a strong positive correlation.

The number of comments on phonetics was the largest in the comments for the both the pre and post study abroad speech, and it fell from 19 to 16 out of 28 comments (67.9% to 57.1%) for the post study abroad speech. The number of comments on suprasegmentals was second with 14 comments in the pre study abroad, and it fell to 11 (50.0% to 39.3%). The number of comments on fluency slightly fell from three to two (from 10.7% to 7.1%). The number of comments on grammar actually rose from two to six (7.1% to 21.4%).

Figure 6. Number of negative comments on the four categories by the teacher raters for the pre study abroad reading speech (n =28; multiple responses)

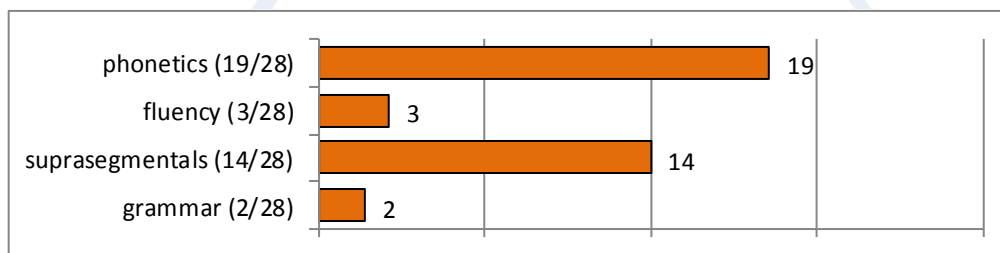
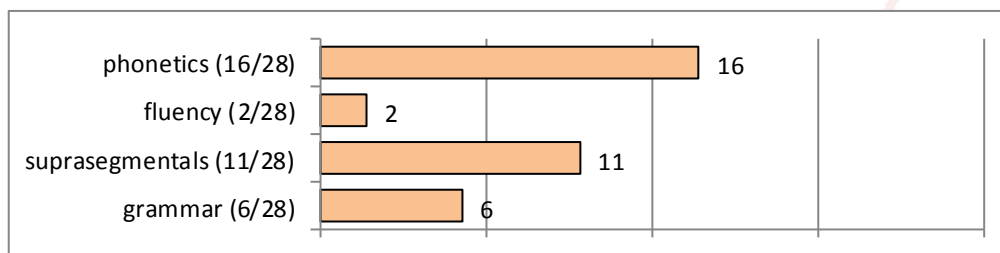


Figure 7. Number of negative comments on the four categories by the teacher raters for the post study abroad reading speech (n =28; multiple responses)



4.3.3. Negative comments for the spontaneous speech

The terms appearing in the comments on spontaneous speech were summarised and categorised in this section. Figure 8 presents the numbers of categorised negative terms given by peer raters, and Figure 9 by teacher raters respectively.

Terms about phonetics were most frequently used in both the peer and teacher raters' comments. In peer raters' comments, 52 out of 140 comments for spontaneous speech mentioned about phonetics (35.6%). Terms about grammar were also found most frequently in the peer raters' comments (56 comments, 35.6%). Terms about fluency came third (48 comments, 32.9%). Terms about suprasegmentals came fourth (9 comments, 6.2%). As can be seen in Figure 9, terms about fluency occurred much less frequently in the teacher raters' comments (6 out of 56 comments for spontaneous speech, 10.2%). Instead, negative terms about suprasegmentals were found more frequently (14 comments, 23.7%). Terms about grammar came third (13 comments, 22.0%).

The result of the correlation coefficient was $r = .1572$, $R^2 = .0347$, $t = 0.0347$, and $p > .05$ ($p = .3506$). So it was confirmed that the comments for spontaneous speech by the peer and teacher raters had no correlation in terms of the four categories.

Figure 8. Number of negative comments by the peer raters for the spontaneous speech (n =140; multiple responses)

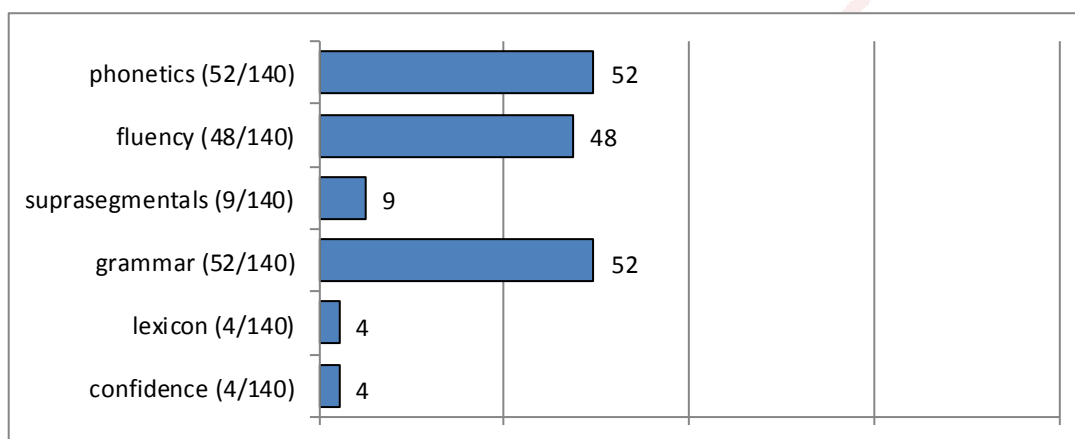
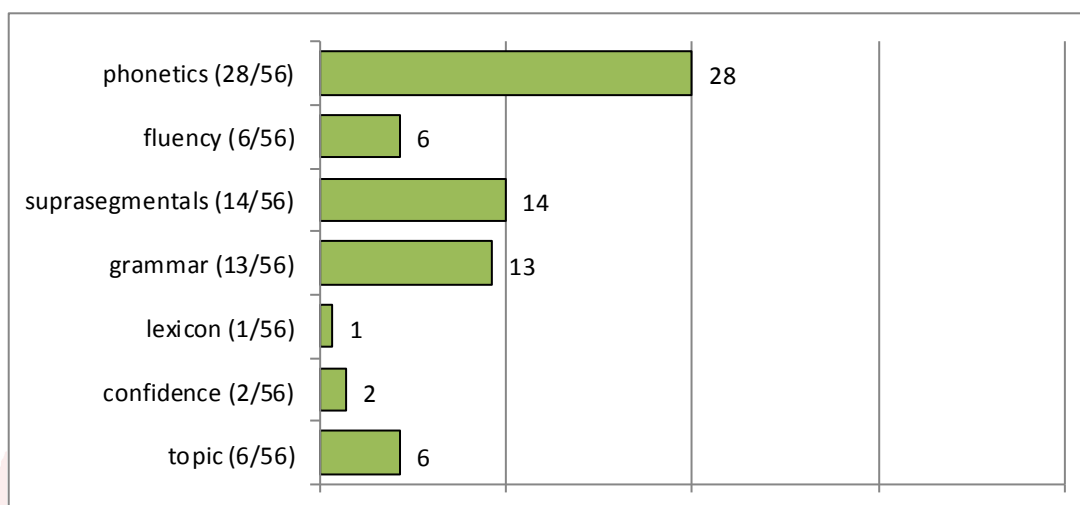


Figure 9. Number of negative comments by the teacher raters for the spontaneous speech (n =56; multiple responses)



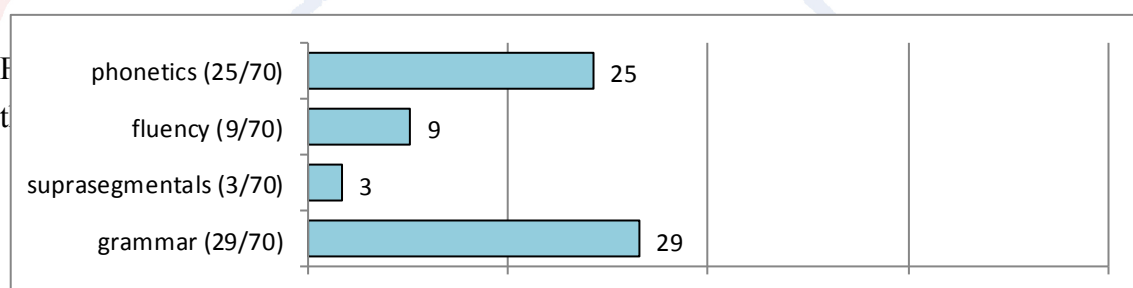
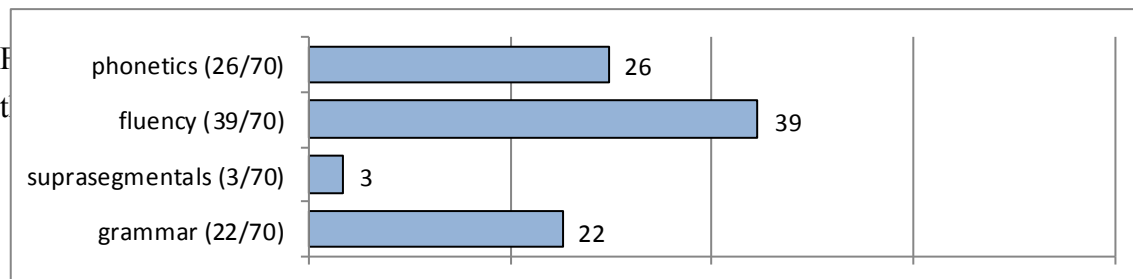
4.3.4. Negative comments for the pre and post study abroad spontaneous speech

Figures 10 and 11 present the numbers of the negative comments appearing in the peer raters' comments for the pre and post study abroad spontaneous speech. The sample size was 70. As can be seen in Figure 10, terms about fluency occurred most frequently for the pre study abroad spontaneous speech with 39 out of 70 comments (55.7%). Terms about phonetics came second with 26 comments (37.1%), and grammar third with 22 comments (31.4%). Comments on suprasegmentals were only three (4.3%). In the comments for post study abroad spontaneous speech, the number of comments about fluency dropped dramatically to nine (12.9%). On the other hand, the number of comments for grammar rose to 29 (41.4%). Terms about suprasegmentals remained the same in the comments for post study abroad (three comments, 4.3%).

The results of the correlation coefficient was $r = -.2933$, $R^2 = .0860$, $t = 0.7515$, $p > .05$ ($p = .2794$). So it was confirmed that the comments for the pre and post study abroad spontaneous speech by the peer raters had no correlation.

In Figures 12 and 13, the numbers of negative terms appearing in teacher raters' comments for the pre and post study abroad spontaneous speech was presented. Phonetics was the most frequently mentioned feature for both the pre and post study abroad speech, 14 out of 28 comments for the pre, and 12 for the post study abroad speech. The percentages were 50.0% and 42.9% respectively. Grammar came second

with seven comments for the pre study abroad speech, and five comments for post study abroad speech. The percentages were 25.0% and 17.9% respectively. The number of negative comments on suprasegmentals fell from seven comments to four comments



(25% and 14.3% respectively). Comments on fluency were the least mentioned by teacher raters. The numbers of comments were four for the pre study abroad speech, and three for post study abroad speech (14.3% and 10.7% respectively).

The result of the correlation coefficient was $r = .9817$, $R^2 = .9637$, $t = 12.6298$, $p < .001$ ($p = .0000$). So it was confirmed that the number of negative comments for the pre and post study abroad spontaneous speech had strong positive correlation.

Figure 12. Number of negative comments on the four categories by the teacher raters for the pre study abroad spontaneous speech (n =28; multiple responses)

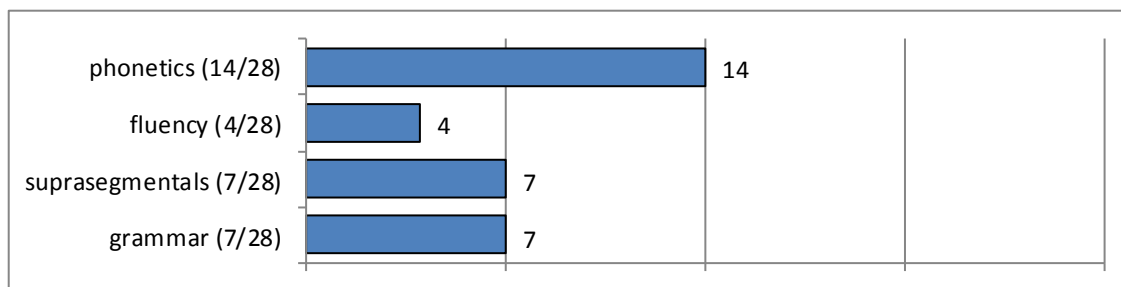
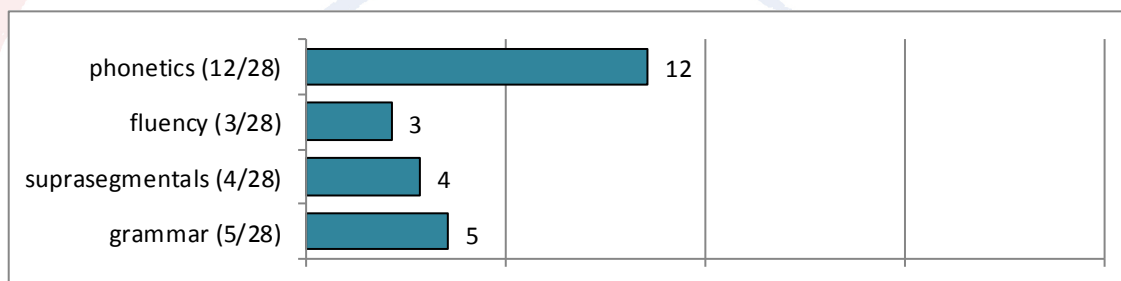


Figure 13. Number of negative comments on the four categories by the teacher raters for the post study abroad spontaneous speech (n =28; multiple responses)



4.4. Negative comments per score

In this section, the negative comments for reading speech are presented per score, per category, and per rater group. The scores 1 and 2 were disregarded in this section because the sample sizes of those scores were too small to analyse: the size of score 1 was n =1, and score 2 was n =2. So the results presented in this section are concerning the *scores* 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7. Please note the no teacher raters gave any negative comments for the *score* 7 speeches.

4.4.1. Negative comments per score given for the reading speech

The numbers of negative comments per score for reading speech given by the peer and teacher raters are shown in Figures 14 and 15 respectively. Negative comments about phonetics were most frequently found in the comments for the *score* 3, and the percentages got smaller as the intelligibility got better except for the comments for the *score* 7. Negative comments about fluency were found most frequently for the *score* 5, and the percentage got smaller as the intelligibility got either better or worse. The percentages of negative comments for suprasegmentals showed an inverted *W* shape.

In contrast, the percentages for grammar looked like a *W* shape. Negative comments about grammar were found for the *score 5* most frequently, and just a few or no negative comments were found in the comments for the other scores.

The correlation coefficients of the percentages of negative comments on the four categories per score were calculated and shown in Tables 6 and 7. As can be seen in Table 6, it was found that a positive correlation between fluency and grammar ($r = .6666, p < .05$), and a negative correlation between suprasegmentals and grammar ($r = -.8709, p < .01$) were confirmed to be statistically significant.

In the teachers' comments, negative comments on phonetics were most frequently found for the *score 3*, and tended to get smaller in percentage as the intelligibility got better. Comments on fluency were found most frequently for the *score 5*, and the percentage tended to get smaller as the intelligibility got either better or worse. Comments on suprasegmentals were found most frequently for the *score 4*, and second frequently found for the *score 6*. Comments on grammar were found for the *score 5* most frequently, and a few or no comments were found for the other scores.

Figures 16 and 17 show the polynomial line graphs for the peer and teachers' comments for the reading speech per score respectively.

4.4.2. Negative comments per score given by the peer raters for the spontaneous speech

The numbers of negative comments per score about the four categories for the spontaneous speech given by both the peer and teacher raters were shown in Figures 18 and 19, and the correlation coefficients in Tables 8 and 9, and polynomial trend line graphs in Figures 20 and 21 respectively. As can be seen in Figure 18, the percentage of comments about phonetics given by the peer raters got smaller as the intelligibility got better. Comments about grammar showed similar tendency except for the comments for the *score 7*. The comments were about the plural and particles. As can be seen in Table 8, negative comments about grammar had positive correlations with phonetics and suprasegmentals, and a negative correlation with fluency. In the teacher raters' comments as shown in Figure 19, the percentage of the comments about phonetics were most frequently found for the *score 3*, and tended to get smaller in percentage as the intelligibility got better. Comments about fluency were most frequently found for the *score 6* and got smaller as the intelligibility got worse. Comments about suprasegmentals were found most frequently for the *scores 3*

and 6, and slightly less frequently for the *score 4*. Comments about grammar were most frequently found for the *score 5*, and then for the *score 3* and for the *score 6*. As can be seen in Table 9, negative comments on phonetics and fluency had a strong negative correlation.

Figure 14. No. of negative comments per score by the peer raters for the reading speech

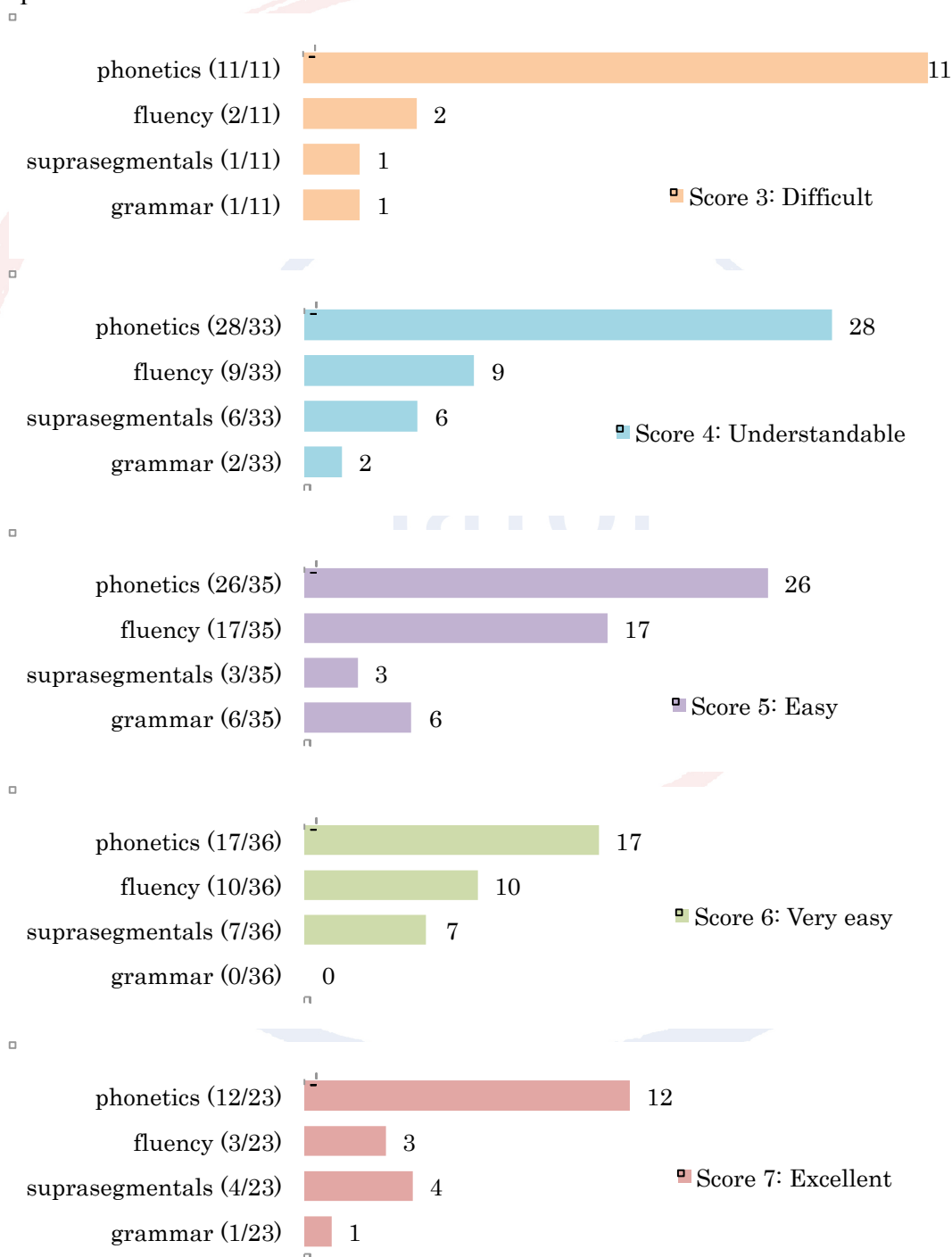


Figure 15. No. of negative comments per score by the teacher raters for the reading speech

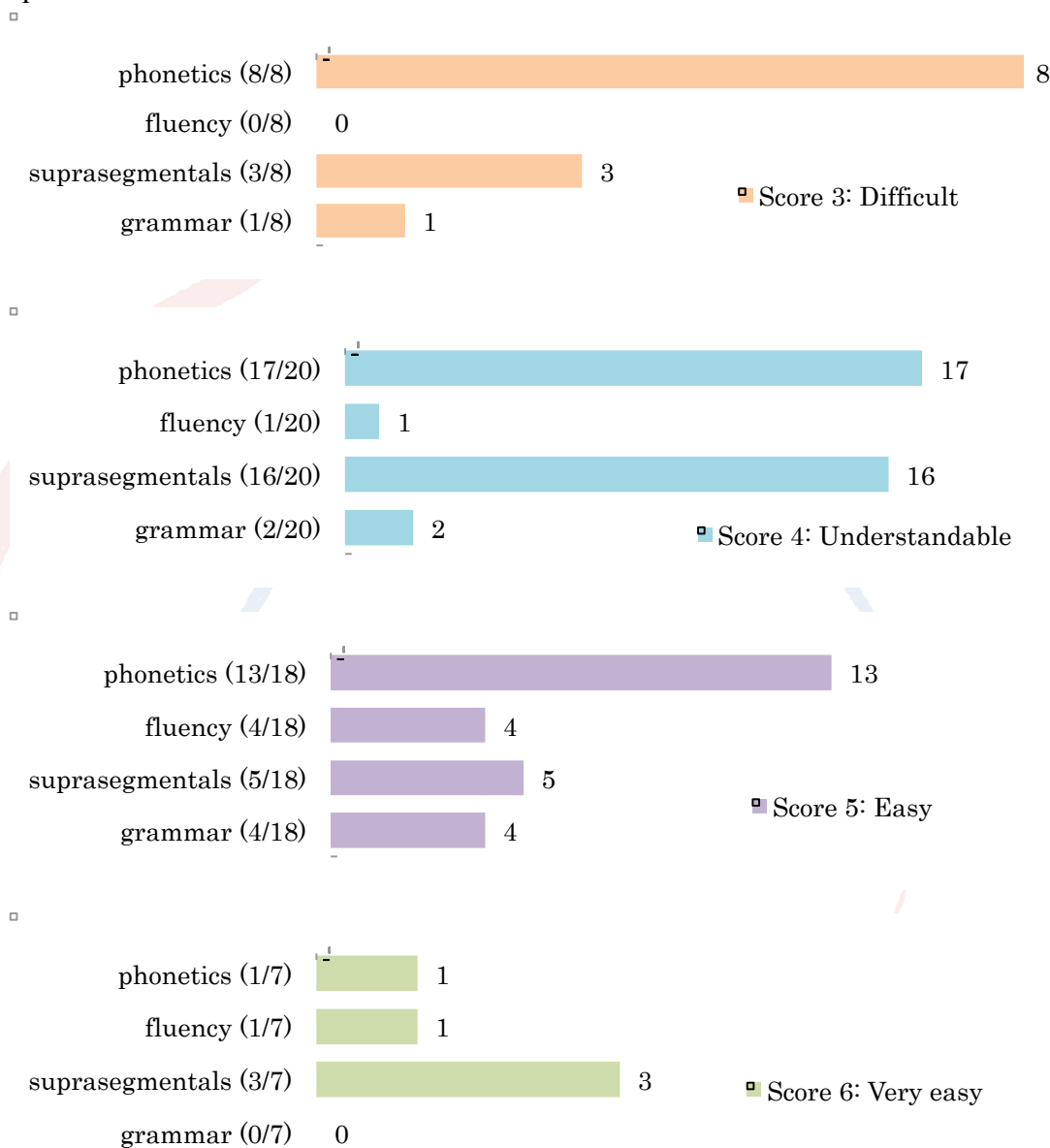


Table 6. Correlation coefficient of negative comments on the four categories per score by the peer raters for the reading speech

	<i>phonetics</i>	<i>fluency</i>	<i>supraseg.</i>	<i>grammar</i>
phonetics	1			
fluency	0.0526	1		
supraseg.	-0.6383	-0.4045	1	
grammar	0.5229	0.6666 *	-0.8709 **	1

Note: supraseg. = suprasegmentals; ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 7. Correlation coefficient of negative comments on the four categories per score by the teacher raters for the reading speech

	<i>phonetics</i>	<i>fluency</i>	<i>supraseg.</i>	<i>grammar</i>
phonetics	1			
fluency	-0.5257	1		
supraseg.	0.1551	-0.4771	1	
grammar	0.6519	0.2950	-0.3475	1

Note: supraseg. = suprasegmentals

Figure 16. Polynomial trend line graph for the number of negative comments per score by the peer raters for the reading speech

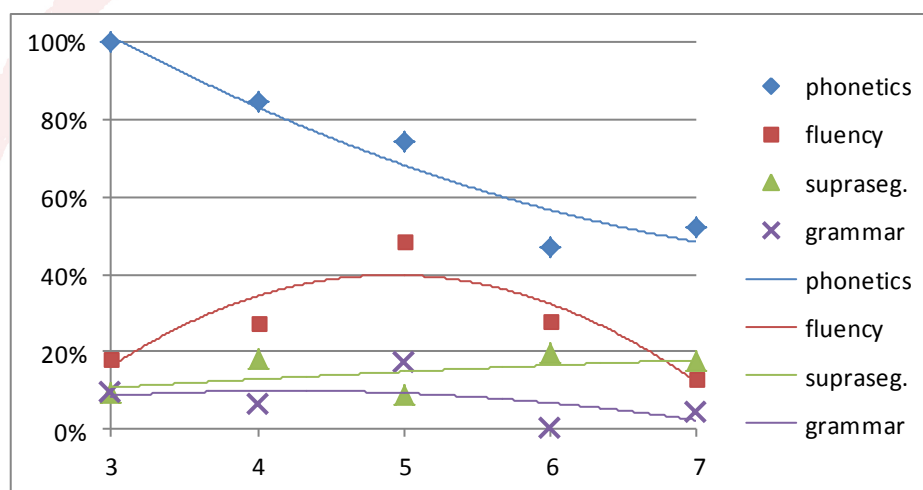


Figure 17. Polynomial trend line graph for the number of negative comments per score by the teacher raters for the reading speech

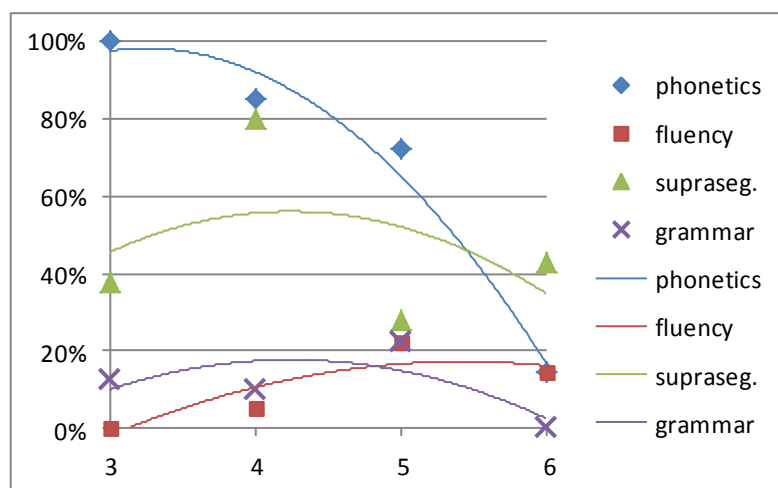


Figure 18. No. of negative comments per score by the peer raters for the spontaneous speech

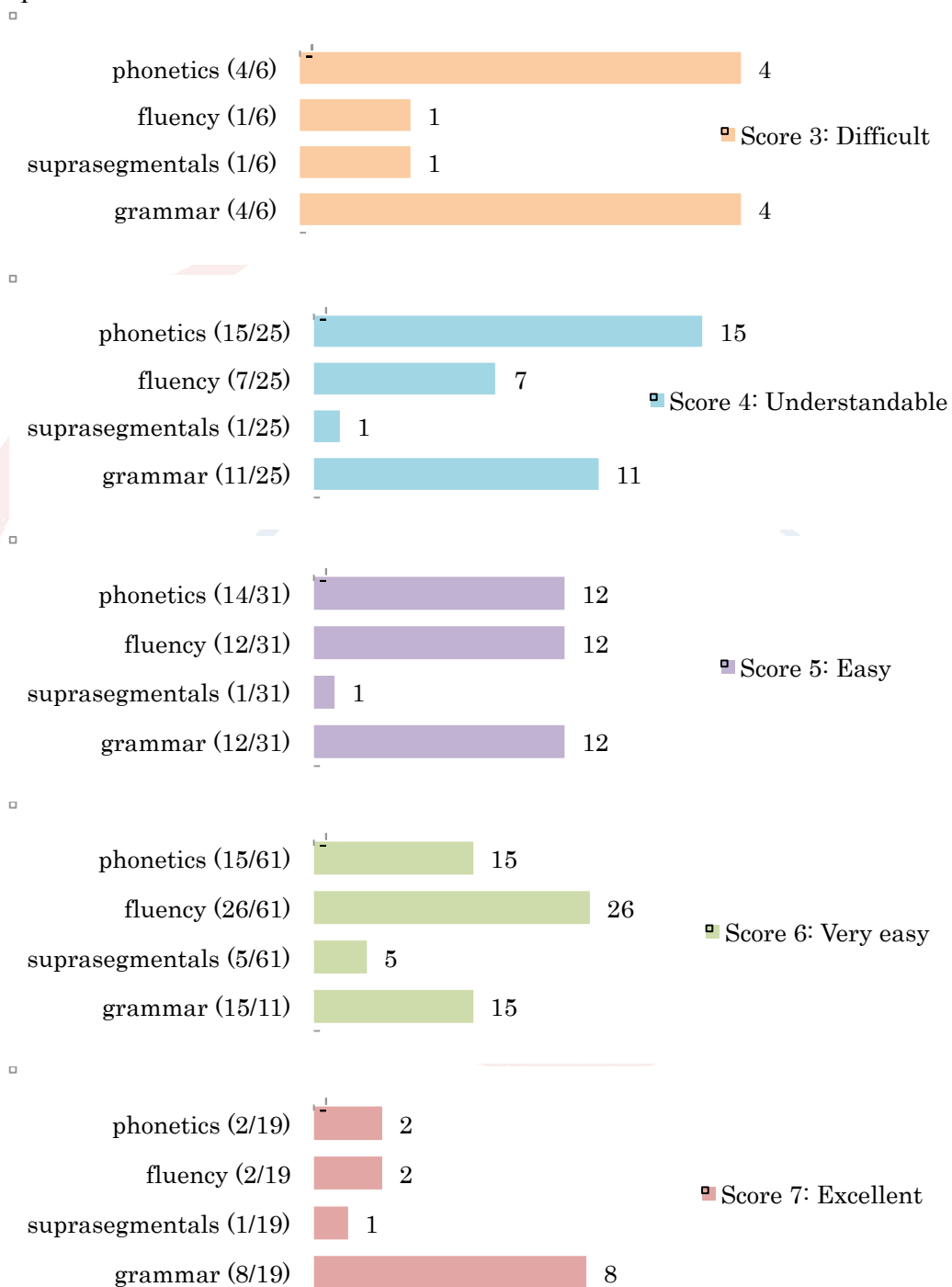


Figure 19. No. of negative comments per score by the teacher raters for the spontaneous speech

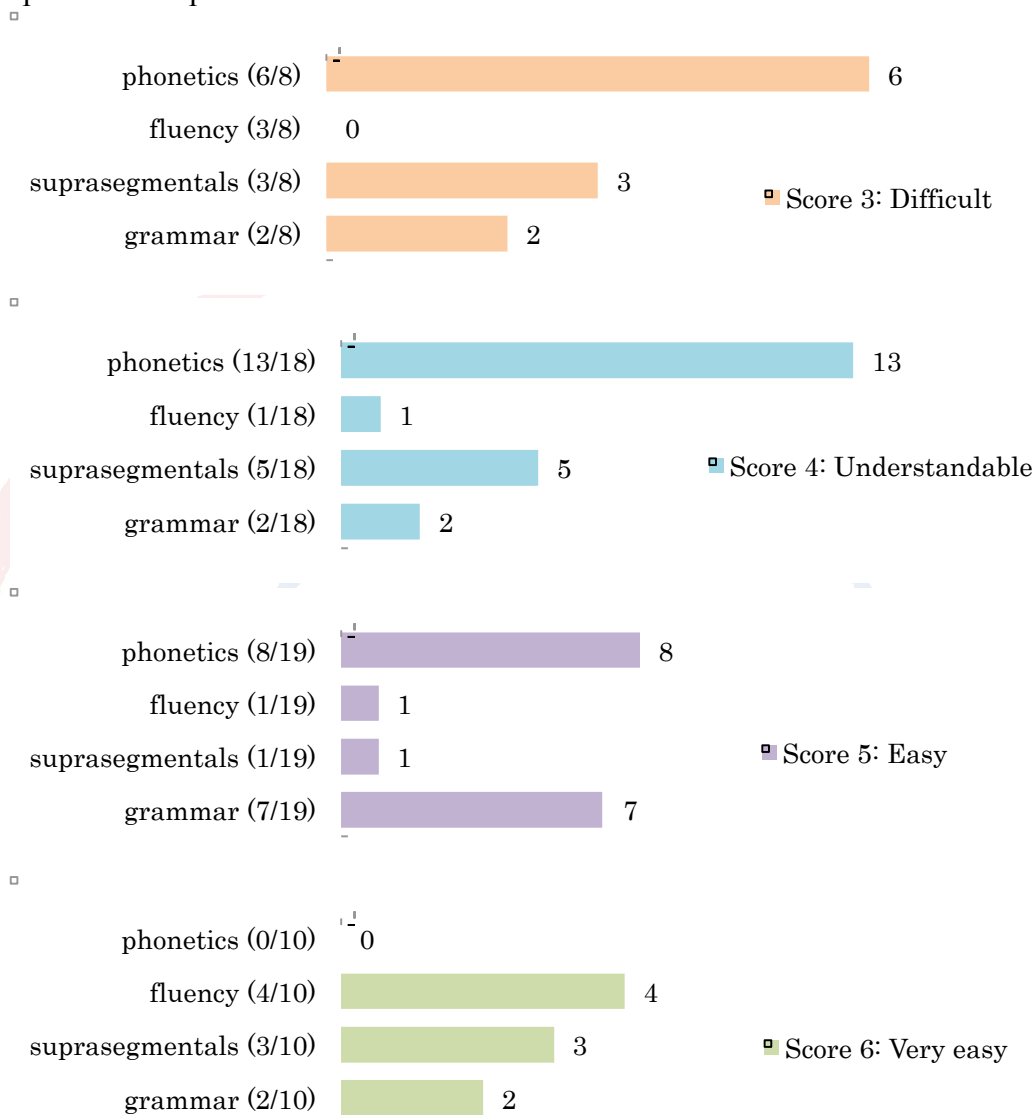


Table 8. Correlation coefficient of negative comments on the four categories per score by the peer raters for the spontaneous speech

	<i>phonetics</i>	<i>fluency</i>	<i>supraseg.</i>	<i>grammar</i>
phonetics	1			
fluency	-0.0200	1		
supraseg.	0.4557	-0.3327	1	
grammar	0.6769 *	-0.6785 *	0.6654 *	1

Note: supraseg. = suprasegmentals; * $p < .05$

Table 9. Correlation coefficient of negative comments on the four categories per score by the teacher raters for the spontaneous speech

	<i>phonetics</i>	<i>fluency</i>	<i>supraseg.</i>	<i>grammar</i>
phonetics	1			
fluency	-0.9267 ***	1		
supraseg.	0.1937	0.1368	1	
grammar	-0.1521	-0.2117	-0.6627	1

Note: supraseg. = suprasegmentals; *:: $p < .001$

Figure 20. Polynomial trend line graph for the number of negative comments per score by the peer raters for the spontaneous speech

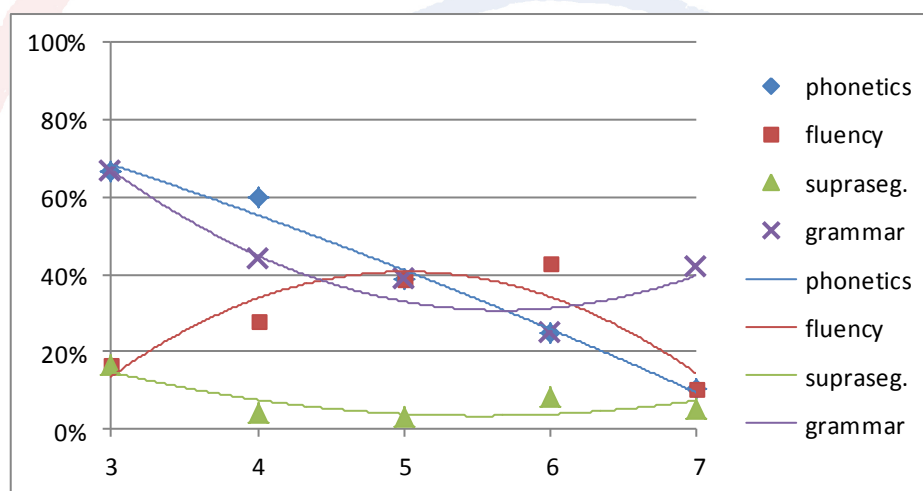
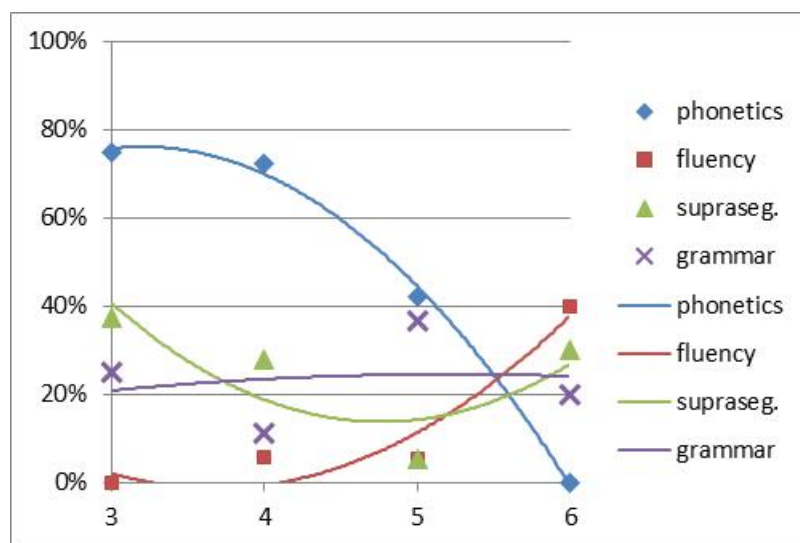


Figure 21. Polynomial trend line graph for the number of negative comments per score by the teacher raters for the spontaneous speech



5. Discussion

In the present study, it was found that the mean scores given by the peer raters were more lenient for both reading and spontaneous speech than the mean scores by the teacher raters. Gass and Varonis (1984) stated that raters' familiarity with the topic, the utterances given by any non-native speakers, the utterances given by the same nationality as the speaker, and the speaker himself/herself facilitated the raters' comprehensibility. In the case of present study, the teacher raters were more familiar with English utterances given by Japanese L1 speakers than the peer raters. In Perlmutter (1989), she adopted a 5-point scale for 21 American undergraduate students to rate the overall intelligibility of the speech samples spoken by 24 international graduate students whose average score on TOEFL was 561 with the range from 490 to 627. The mean score of intelligibility was 2.71 and 3.00 for the pre and post-training speech. She stated that "the upper end of the rating scale was not used by the listener-subjects very often" (p.520). Considering the TOEFL scores of the speakers, the ratings by the American undergraduate students seem rather severe. This suggested that the peer raters' evaluation would have been rather harsh. As was mentioned in chapter 2, Hsieh (2011) stated that "undergraduates were not familiar with the rating criteria for judging the examinees, thus, they sometimes made their rating decisions solely through their appraisal of whether they felt a particular examinee was qualified to be an ITA, a criterion not on the rating rubric" (p.64).

The result obtained in the present study was opposed to their results however. One of the reasons for the peer raters to have been lenient to JEFLL speech could be because the peer raters were visiting Japan to learn Japanese and experience Japan. Their age and attitude toward Japan and Japanese culture should be considered also. Their decisions to participate in an exchange programme and visit Japan would not have been easily made. Rather, it could have been a big decision. So their favourable attitude and respect toward Japan and Japanese culture, or their state of actually being in Japan might have influenced their ratings in a positive way.

We would like to discuss the raters' comments as well. The peer raters gave comments about fluency more frequently than the teacher raters, while the teachers concerned more about suprasegmentals. Hsieh (2011)'s statement about the undergraduates' attitude indicates that teachers were more sophisticated linguistically, and able to distinguish the problems in the non-native speech. Teachers in general are aware of the criteria in rating examinees' performance since that is one of the main works in their profession. On the other hand, students are not so sophisticated

linguistically. That could be one of the reasons why the peer raters did not mention suprasegmentals, but fluency. We also think it to be possible that the teacher raters might have ignored about JEFL learners' fluency intentionally. Since speaking English fluently is very difficult for JEFL learners, and also because the teachers had been in Japan for more than a decade teaching English to them, they might have thought that JEFL learners would not be able to speak English fluently and/or would give many pauses in the utterances. That could be one of the reasons why they were able to pay attention to suprasegmentals if they ignored fluency.

Also we found that some of the peer raters gave negative comments for the *score 7* speech while the teachers did not. It seems that the teacher raters seem to have acknowledged the *score 4* "understandable" as the mid-point and set it as the benchmark. And therefore they seem to have acknowledged the *score 7* "excellent" as the ceiling which should not be easily given to the speeches which were not really excellent. In fact, the number of overall speech samples that achieved *score 7* was merely four out of 112 speech samples in the teacher raters' ratings (3%). On the other hand, the number was 42 out of 280 overall speech samples in the peer raters' ratings (15%). Also not a few peer raters gave negative comments to the speech samples that achieved *score 7*, that was 28 out of 42 samples (66.6%). One of the reasons why they gave negative comments for the *score 7* speech samples could be because they were L2 learners themselves and visiting Japan to learn the language. Another reason could be observable in the instruction of the rating software we applied. In the description of the comment box, we wrote: "can you tell/describe what features you think should be improved by the speaker to become an excellent speaker of English". As they themselves were L2 learners and some of them, or perhaps all of them, might have been struggling with Japanese language, they might have felt empathy for the speakers and gave extra advice. In fact, many of the negative comments had particles together with the negative terms, such as "minor errors", "a bit slowly", or "could word on the r sound a little more", etc. For the speakers, their advice will be highly beneficial, but we wonder if it was relevant for L2 speech assessment. It might be better to change the description in the instruction, or should we instruct the raters orally in advance of the rating session. We did give oral instruction in the present experiment, but did not instruct about the benchmark. So this matter needs reconsidering.

6. Conclusion

In this study, it was confirmed by English L1 peer and teacher rater groups that nine-month study abroad experience improved JEFL learners' oral intelligibility. We applied two types of speech tasks, reading and spontaneous speech, and two rater groups evaluated the JEFL learners' speech intelligibility and gave comments for each speech file. The results revealed various things. The peer raters were found to be more lenient toward JEFL learners' intelligibility than the teacher raters. Phonetics was found to be the major factor of less intelligible speech. The peer raters gave comments on fluency more frequently than the teachers did. On the other hand, the teacher raters gave comments about suprasegmentals more frequently than the peer raters did. Both fluency and suprasegmentals were not mentioned very much in the less intelligible speech.

The result that English L1 raters were concerned more about phonetics could be considered for a pedagogical suggestion. At high school in Japan, the regulation that English lessons are basically to be given in English was enforced on the 1st of April in 2013. This regulation has been controversial, and many teachers seem to be uncertain whether they are able to run a lesson only in English. However, this implies that oral proficiency in English has become more important, and will be much more important in the future. The importance of practice in English pronunciation should be reconsidered nationwide.

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*Understanding Politeness in the Indian way- A Study of Girish Karnad's
Nagamandala and Vijay Tendulkar's Silence! The Court is in Session*

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1. Introduction

Politeness is an inevitable strategy in communication as our verbal interactions, and devoid of politeness, would result in disharmony and cause unpleasantness in human relationships, which would affect the verbal interactions between people. Hence politeness is a culture specific (Watts, 2003) and context-bound phenomenon. And also, while engaging in conversation with somebody, several factors are taken into account like sociological and interpersonal factors such as status, inferiority-superiority, formality or informality of relation, age group etc. These factors could lead to various instances of face threatening acts among speakers and hearers. One of the ways to avoid such instances is to apply negative politeness strategies as propounded by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). It appeals to the hearer's desire not to be impeded or put upon, to be left free to act as they choose (Brown & Levinson, 1978). It relates to how language expresses social distance between the speakers in their different role relationships. It also deals with face-work, reflecting how people in different speech communities attempt to, establish, maintain and save face during conversations.

This research paper analyses the various ways of applying different negative politeness strategies to literary texts such as plays. As drama is similar to real life conversations, it is productive to pragmatically analyze the interactive dialogues that occur in it. As Keir Elam states, "The social, interpersonal, executive powers of language, the pragmatic 'Doing things with words' is dominant in drama". (Elam, 1980). The two Indian plays that are chosen for this study are Girish Karnad's *Nagamandala* and Vijay Tendulkar's *Silence! The Court is in Session*. The aim of this paper is threefold: 1) it applies the elements of negative politeness strategies (indirectness and deferential methods) to various dialogues uttered by the characters in Girish Karnad's *Nagamandala* and Vijay Tendulkar's *Silence! The Court is in Session*. 2) By applying these strategies, the attitude of the Indian society is portrayed as it has its own perception of politeness. 3) It also focuses on how both of the dramatists deal with the notion of politeness.

2. Summary of the two plays

In *Nagamandala*, three flames narrate the story of Rani. She is ill treated by her husband, Appana, who has a mistress. He locks her up and an old woman Kurudava helps her. Kurudava gives Rani a magic potion to lure her husband. But Naga, the Cobra, accidentally drinks it and falls in love with Rani. He takes the shape of Appana and visits her during the nights when Appana is away. Rani becomes pregnant, and her real husband accuses her of infidelity. She is tested by villagers and passes her test which gives her the status of a Goddess and lives happily with Appana.

Silence! The Court is in Session revolves wholly round the idea of a game that is being enacted by the members of a theatre group, who have assembled to perform a play. Benare, Mrs & Mr. Kashikar, Ponkshe, Karnik, Rokde, are characters who are the cast members of the group. One of the members of the cast does not come and Samant, a local stagehand replaces him. They arrange a rehearsal of a mock trial to make him understand the court procedure. Benare, the protagonist becomes the accused and the other members question her about the rumours that they have heard about her. It emerges that Miss Benare killed an out-of-wedlock child by Prof. Damle,

the missing member of the cast. The pretend-play suddenly turns into an accusatory game. A mock charge of infanticide is leveled against Miss Benare. The play ends with the protagonist rendering a monologue about her misery, her fate and the cruelty of the patriarchal society.

3. Brown and Levinson's universal politeness theory

In their model, politeness is defined as redressive action taken to counter balance the disruptive effect of face threatening acts (FTA). In every conversation, there is a desire of the conversationalists to preserve 'face'. Face can be defined as the 'public image that every member wants to claim for himself' [Brown and Levinson, 1987:16]. It consists of two dimensions: 'positive face' and 'negative face'. The former is linked to the desire to be appreciated and win approval. Negative face is concerned with freedom of action and freedom from imposition. Some acts that threaten interlocutor's positive face as mentioned by Brown and Levinson are as follows: criticism, disagreement, irreverence, bringing of bad news, raising of divisive topics etc and those that threaten the negative face are orders, requests, advice, threats, warnings etc. Positive and negative strategies in politeness are being used by humans to convey their thoughts to others without hurting the feelings of the others. The following study is limited to negative politeness strategies. Out of the ten negative politeness strategies, only two of them are applied (indirectness and deferential methods) to some of the dialogues in the two plays.

4. Indirectness

Indirectness somehow creates a divided illocution, in the sense that one utterance maybe interpreted in two or more different ways by two or more addressees, because the relation between the speaker and the addressees and the amount of shared knowledge between them cannot be identified. How a hearer works out what a speaker means by words he or she utters. It occurs when there is a *mismatch* between the *expressed meaning* and the **implied meaning** (Thomas, 1995). There are three factors which lead to indirectness:

- 1) The degree to which X is rated an imposition in culture Y;
- 2) The relative power of the speaker over the hearer;
- 3) The social distance between the speaker and hearer. (Leech, 1983) (Brown & Levinson, 1978)

4.1 Indirectness in the Indian society

There are many factors that lead to the use of indirectness in the Indian context. Some of the factors are mentioned in the following sections of this paper. In the two plays, the characters use indirectness to convey what they have in mind. The intentions that occur in a character's mind would have different meanings, and the addressee may or may not interpret it in the same manner. The below examples display the different

elements of indirectness being used predominantly in the Indian society due to the factors that are mentioned above.

CONVERSATION ONE

Consider the dialogue between Kurudava and Rani:

Kurudava: (pause) “Does he... talk to you?”

Rani : Oh, that he does. But not a syllable more than required. ‘Do this’, ‘Do That’. ‘Serve food.

Kurudava: You mean-? That means- you are- still –hmm!

Rani : Apart from him, you are the first person I have seen since coming here. I’m bored to death. There is no one to talk to!

Kurudava: That’s not what I meant by ‘talk’. Has your husband touched you?

(Karnad 1990) [Nagamandala, Act One: 11].

CONVERSATION TWO

The conversation between Sukhatme, Rokde and Mrs. Kashikar is a perfect example inundated with indirectness.

Sukhatme : ... “There’s some substance in what Mr. Samant said. Even though it came from a book. It holds water!

Mrs.Kashikar: Do you mean that Miss Benare and Professor Da-

Sukhatme : Yes. Beyond a shadow of doubt! There’s no question about it.

Mrs. Kashikar: Good Gracious!

Rokde: (Now very daring) I knew it along!”

(Tendulkar, 1978) [*Silence! The Court is in Session*, Act Two: 48].

4.2 Size of Imposition (Avoidance of Taboo topics)

It is considered to be an imposition on the hearer if taboo topics are mentioned during conversations. Religious, sexual topics or bodily functions are considered to be taboo topics to Indians. “Indians don’t like to talk about sex. It is taboo, against our culture, bad for society, corrupts young minds and distracts people from the right path. In fact, it is perverted, dirty and something to be ashamed about.” (Bhagat, 2013). This is apparent in the dialogues in both the plays. In Nagamandala, Kurudava finds it difficult to phrase the intention in her mind. She wants to ask Rani whether she and Appanna have started their relationship as husband and wife in every sense of the

word- mentally and physically. She uses the term “talk” instead of “sex” in her inquiry. In *Silence! The Court is in Session*, it is clear that they are talking about Benare’s and Prof. Damle’s relationship. The ‘it’ in the sentences refers to their love affair. The other characters do not want to mention it openly. They do not talk about the relationship openly, but the characters decipher as to what each one means. Having sexual relationships outside of marriages is taboo in the Indian society.

4.3 Power of the Speaker over the hearer (Women’s Language)

Brown and Levinson’s theory is supported in the use of language by men and women. The more power the speaker has over the hearer results in the use of indirectness. In general, women use indirectness when they speak to others. In her book, *Language and Women’s Place*, Lakoff 1975, as cited in (Paltridge, 2006) proposed what she called ‘women’s language’; which is totally different from ‘men’s language’. This language, she argued, included features such as the use of overly polite forms, the use of question tags, use of euphemisms and hedges, and more indirectness. This phenomenon can be applied in the Indian scenario as well. Women generally do not talk explicitly in the Indian society. Men have the right to speak in any manner they want but women are not expected to. This fact is evident in the examples that are given above. Being a woman as well as a conservative person of the old school of thought, Kurudava indirectly puts her question to the young wife. But Rani, who takes the term ‘talk’ in the literal sense, fails to understand the older woman. Here Kurudava makes use of indirectness to enquire about Rani and saves the negative self image of the young bride. In the second play, Mrs. Kashikar is interrupted by others and is not allowed to complete her sentence.

4.4 Social Distance

Social distance (Leech, 1983) is a major component that leads to indirectness. It is seen as a composite of psychologically real factors (status, age, sex, degree of intimacy, etc) which together determine the overall degree of respectfulness’ within a given speech situation. (Thomas, 1995) In other words, when we feel close to someone, we do not feel the need to use indirectness in conversations. The characters in both the plays are mere acquaintances that lead to the use of indirectness in their verbal exchanges as we see in the given conversations. In one play, the characters are neighbours who do not know each other, whilst in the other play, the characters are cast members of a drama troupe and they are not intimate with each other.

5. Use of Deferential Modes

Deference is a double sided phenomenon which finds manifestation either in **the lowering of the self** or the **raising of the other or both at a time**. It can be called as ‘formal politeness’ (Yule, 1985). For example, compliments, greetings and modes of address or honorifics. This type of politeness of raising the ‘other’ is normally used in Indian fiction. Conversations are a constant flow of verbal interactions in which,

compliments are a part of making the other person happy, and more cooperative. This strategy is used by one of the flames in the prologue of *Nagamandala*.

Flame 3: “You are lucky. My master’s eyes have to feast on his wife limb by limb if the rest of him is to react. So we lamps have to bear witness to what is better left to the dark” [Prologue: 3].

The above utterance is the reply to Flame Four’s description of how it could leave the house early and was able to assemble in the temple before the other flames arrived. The words of Flame Three are a kind of deferential strategy to make the other person feel happy. By talking about its misfortune of having a master who needs to look at his wife in the light of the flame, Flame Three is lowering himself to praise the other, by complimenting on Flame Four’s good luck. According to Ashok Thorat, there are different kinds of classification of compliments: face to face compliments and in-absentia compliments. We praise somebody in front of us because we want to satisfy his desire to be liked and approved of. When people are admired and their qualities are publicized and advertised, they feel elated and the complimenter and complimentee are glued together in a bond of social solidarity and camaraderie (Thorat, 2000). Flame Three uses the same strategy by complimenting the other flame. By this deferential strategy, it achieves its intention.

One of the other deferential strategies that can be employed in conversations, in order to avoid face threatening acts is by **using honorifics**. There are three types of honorifics as stated in Patil’s(1994) *Style in Indian Fiction in English; A Study in Politeness Strategies*.

- a) Speaker-addressee axis- the relation of speaker to hearer.
- b) The speaker-referent axis- the relation of speaker to things or persons referred to.
- c) The speaker bystander axis- the relation of speaker or hearer to bystanders or overhearers. (Huzoor, Maharaj, janab). (Patil, 1994).

Among the three types of honorifics, the one which needs special mention with regard to Indian writing is the third type, because this belongs to the address forms that people use to address others. These address forms; depend on the extent of the depth of relationship between the speaker and the hearer. A form of address can have a social meaning. The social component consists of speaker addressee relationship, speaker’s evaluation of addressee and situation, and of speaker’s background. All these things are expressed in the use of a given form of address. Address forms also include a potential of more than one social aspect- distance, status, comradeship, solidarity, equality, brotherhood, friendship, irony and so on. It is a well known fact that terms of address and reference differ from culture to culture. Keating in his book *Moments of Hierarchy: Constructing social stratification by means of language, food, space and the body in Polinpei Microneina*, stated that certain social groups outwardly display a much higher regard for people of older age groups. This feature of linguistics exists in eastern languages, however some western languages also display a similar consciousness to an age based hierarchy. (Keating, 2000 as quoted

(Anon., 2012). This phenomenon is largely prevalent in collectivistic cultures. It is a reflection of the collectivistic values of the Eastern culture (Anon., 2012). The Indian society is based on a collectivistic nature and one can see this trend among Indians.

Many of the terms of address and reference used in the Indian society are terms from Indian languages. As the two plays mentioned for study are translations of plays in Kannada and Marathi, the address terms used are more or less based on the translation of the exact address terms in both the languages. One can divide these terms into kinship terms (as stated earlier) honorific terms. 'Brother', 'sister', 'mother', 'uncle', 'aunt' are kinship terms; 'sahib', 'huzoor', 'sarkar' and 'hukum' are honorific terms. An Indian is required in his culture to behave in a respectable way and also to be respectful of others, especially persons who are of higher status either in age or their positions and educational background in the society. Hence one can see that the address terms used in the plays, are mostly honorific terms, used by the characters belonging to different backgrounds.

One common honorific that is used in the Indian society is 'Sahib'. This term can function either independently as an address form or in conjunction with nouns signifying last names, designations or educational status. One comes across an example in *Silence! The Court is in Session*. This term is used by Samant, a local villager in addressing the other characters in the play. He is impressed by the appearance of Ponshe, and instinctively addresses him as 'sahib' to show respect to the latter.

Samant: (to Ponshe, awed by his sahib-like appearance) "Do sit down, sahib.

Ponshe: (pleased at the 'sahib') No, thank you, I was sitting in the train. Er-What's your name?

Samant: Samant. I'm from this village, sir" [Act One: 13].

Apart from the term 'sahib', Samant also addresses Ponshe as 'sir', which gives an additional upliftment to the hearer. The stage directions also emphasize the effect of the honorific term that Samant uses to address Ponshe. Ponshe is obviously pleased at this strategy of politeness which is evident from the directions given by the playwright. He reciprocates politely to Samant, by asking his name, and thereby establishing a rapport between the two. It prevents any kind of face threatening acts, between the speaker and the hearer. Hence one can see that it equalizes the hierarchal difference between Samant, a local and Ponshe, the science student, and bridges the gap of awkwardness between the two, in terms of their background differences.

6. Politeness and Playwrights

Politeness being a universal phenomenon goes beyond the fictional characters, and it becomes important to bring out the playwrights' notion on the concept of politeness. The creator of any fictional work, behind the scenes, controls the action in the plots of any genre, be it fiction, plays etc. In spite of their invisibility, they are considered to be omnipresent. Hence their involvement in the area of politeness is unavoidable. Politeness, in the use of language by the authors/ playwrights when they communicate their thoughts to the readers, needs to be analyzed. The playwright's presence in

drama, which consists mainly of dialogues, is almost negligible. However, the dialogues of the characters bring out the extent of politeness used by the playwrights in their respective texts. And this becomes the language of the playwrights- polite or impolite, which has an effect on the readers.

There are instances in both the plays where, the characters make use of aggravating language. They make use of positive and negative kinds of aggravating language, like expressing dislike for the addressee, offending the addressee's beliefs and sensibilities, use of sarcasm, use of interruption etc, and the latter group includes threats and explicit references to the addressee's status, reference to rights and obligations of the addressee etc.

Tendulkar's plays portray the harsh realities of life, with full transparency. It is quite evident in his use of language too. To depict the raw emotions of the characters in his plays, he makes use of language which is real, hence without any shred of politeness. His characters are probably less polite, when compared to the characters portrayed by Karnad. Even the title *Silence! The Court is in Session* blatantly shows impoliteness. The admonitory word is intended to suggest the peremptoriness with which patriarchy seeks to perpetuate its hegemony by systematically silencing all the voices of protest, while silence is a curse under which the repressed and the marginalized have labored all over the world. As Urvashi Barat rightly states "The most obvious and persisting theme in the plays of Tendulkar is "power"; its effects on people and their relationships with each other, and the way it dehumanizes and brutalizes those who live in it (Barat, 2011).

The husband- wife duo of Tendulkar's play, Mr. and Mrs. Kashikar, share a relationship which is based on the attitude of the patriarchal society. Throughout the play, Mr. Kashikar addresses Mrs.Kashikar in an impolite manner. Sometimes he speaks to her sarcastically, in a commanding way, interrupts her when she talks etc, thereby showing that he uses negative aggravating language, while addressing her. Tendulkar has brought out the pathos of an Indian wife, and the manner in which she is treated by her husband who is ironically considered as equivalent to God in the Indian society. The language of Mr. Kashikar is definitely far from being polite.

Kashikar: [banging the gavel]. "Silence must be observed while the court is in session. Can't shut up at home, can't shut up here" [ActTwo: 29].

When Mrs. Kashikar, narrates the proceedings of the court trial to Samant, Mr. Kashikar gets irritated with her, for interrupting the session. Even though it is just a mock trial, and it is not necessary to keep silent in the make shift court, Mr. Kashikar admonitions his wife for talking during the trial. In another instance, he interrupts her, and does not give her a chance to talk. He cuts her off abruptly when she attempts to talk to Sukhatme.

Mr.Kashikar: "Wait, What do you mean, 'Thank you', Mrs.Kashikar.' The accused has not yet told you her age. I was listening carefully. Prisoner Benare, your age!

Mrs. Kashikar: But I –

Mr.Kashikar: It is not the custom of any court to accept someone else to answer when the accused is questioned. Don't interrupt" [Act Three: 52].

Mr. Kashikar is indifferent to Mrs. Kashikar's words. When Benare is asked about her age, she remains silent. It is Mrs. Kashikar who tells Benare's age to the court. Mr. Kashikar gets angry for it and ignores Mrs. Kashikar's statements. He dismisses her protests of being ignored and commands Sukhatme to continue with the case. Here we see that Mr. Kashikar reprimands her in public, without any misapprehensions. It is the male ego centric society that is being represented by Mr. Kashikar, in which a woman's voice is being ignored.

Paying no heed to one's suggestions or overlooking it, is one kind of impoliteness. This rises from the hierarchal system that is prevalent in the Indian society. Rokde is the adopted son, of Mr. and Mrs. Kashikar. He has been brought up on their charity. But it is clear from their dialogues that they consider him inferior, and reminds him that he is obliged to them always. The authority with which Mr. and Mrs. Kashikar address him shows their dominance over him.

Mrs. Kashikar: Balu, have you brought out all the luggage?

Rokde: Absolutely.

Kasihkar: Each time you say you've brought it all, Rokde and each time you forget something. Have you got the usher's staff? Don't just nod your head. Show it if you have it. Let me see- [Act One: 14].

In the above passage, we can see that, Mr. Kashikar is being impolite with Rokde. He shouts at Rokde, regardless of any thing and anyone. This behavior of Mr. Kashikar influences all the other characters. They lack respect for Rokde and treat him in a similar manner. The fact that Rokde is an orphan, and was given free education by Mr and Mrs. Kashikar, lowers the position of Rokde in front of others. When Rokde asks Karnik, whether he can play the role of the fourth witness, the latter opposes it and directs him to stick to the part.

Rokde: [gathering up his courage]. "Can I please do that part today? It's just a small one- anyone can do mine- I know the fourth witness lines off by- heart..."

Karnik: I oppose it! Even if you're just an usher, your character isn't an easy one to play. So what if he has no lines? It can't be managed by putting up with someone else at the last minute. Stick to your part, Rokde" [Act One: 17].

Even though Rokde asks politely to give him the fourth witness's role, Karnik impolitely refuses it. He orders Rokde to continue playing his part as an usher, thereby paying no heed to Rokde's wishes. Hence one can see this as an example of negative aggravation. The addressor does not take the addressee's welfare into consideration.

Karnad's female protagonist Rani suffers in silence at the hands of her husband and the male dominated society. Purakasyastha T.D writes about the themes of silence in the play *Nagamandala*. It is marked by a meaningful engagement with the topos of a silent woman, whose speechlessness, Karnad regards with interest for its subversive potential. It is a landmark because of the way, it challenges the role of drama, basically a verbal artifact as a medium intended to capture the silence of the speechlessness with all its nuances. (Purakasyastha, 2006)

For instance, the protagonist of *Nagamandala*, Rani is being verbally abused by her husband Appanna and she does not retort back.

Appanna: “Aren’t you ashamed to admit it, you harlot? Open the door! Open the door, you whore! All right then, I’ll show you. I’ll go to the Village elders. If they don’t throw that child into boiling oil and you along with it, my name is not Appanna”

[Act.Two:33]

Appanna abuses her, when he comes to know that she is pregnant. Appanna knows that he has not had any kind of intimate relationship with Rani, and he is thereby angered by her pregnancy. From Act One onwards, one can see that Appanna speaks to Rani in monosyllables. But in the last act, Appanna uses aggravating language to threaten her. He addresses her, as harlot, whore, which are terms that are used to refer to prostitutes. This is an example of negative aggravation. Appanna is threatening Rani, as well as abusing her. It is a face threatening act, which the speaker puts it blatantly, in order to intimidate Rani which is achieved accordingly.

The mother-son bond between Kurudava and Kappanna influences the language used among them. The familiarity quotient between them results in a not-so polite language. The two of them have lived together for so long, that they have taken each other for granted. Kurudava commands more authority over her son, as she is his mother, and this is clear from her utterances.

Kurudava: “Come here, you idiot! [Act One: 11].

Kurudava: “Shut up! ... [Act One: 15].

Kurudava: “I said come here. This fool doesn’t understand a thing. Quick!” [Act Two: 27].

Hence one can see that familiarity between individuals can bring about a change in the use of polite language. People are polite with strangers, because they have the desire to be liked and appreciated. But they can afford to use impoliteness in their interaction, and in most cases, this type of behavior is not considered as a face threatening act, by the addressee. One can see (Leech, 1983) “social distance” factor being repeated here.

Within the above examples drawn from the two plays, one can see the politeness strategies, used by both playwrights in their respective plays. The polite as well as the impolite conversations between the characters, bring out the stylistic features in which, they have made their impact among the audience. One can see that the language used in Karnad’s play is blatant and explosive which is commonly found in the rural areas of India. Tendulkar’s play subtly portrays undercurrents of the hypocritical patriarchal society and its influence on women which is predominant in the urban middle class society.

Conclusion

This paper analyzes the negative politeness strategies that the characters use to converse with each other. As mentioned earlier, the manner in which the characters talk to each other determine the relationships between themselves. One can see that

the politeness strategies (indirectness and deference) used in the plays by the characters show the extent of familiarity, sincerity and reciprocity that bond them together, and reveal a (polite/ impolite) dimension in the Indian society. The playwrights, by making the characters their mouthpieces, make a point in the society. It also focuses on the aggravating language used by the characters which reveal the playwrights' different styles of writing as well as their treatment of politeness in their plays.

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A Study Of EFL Preservice Teachers' Perceptions Of Non-Native English Teachers

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Abstract

The study aimed to investigate the preservice teachers' perceptions of non-native English teachers and being a non-native English teacher. One-hundred and five college students participated in this study. Findings from the descriptive statistics, the One-Way ANOVA, correlations and content analysis were analyzed based on the classroom observation, questionnaire, and semi-structured interview.

The findings show that non-native English teachers have knowledge among the nine major domains for being professional foreign language teachers. The domain of Language and Learning and Classroom Management was very strongly correlated. The preservice teachers also perceived in themselves to acquire higher knowledge on the domain of Technology, Teachership and Psychology for Teachers than other domains. There was a statistically significantly different among the nine domains of knowledge. Knowledge of educational research need to be improved as it showed the lowest mean score. In addition, the domain of Educational Measurement and Evaluation and Learning and Classroom Management was very strongly correlated.

Introduction

The number of English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) learner has been rapidly growing to meet the demand for English teachers in nonnative settings. In the past decade, it is likely that only native English teachers were respected as qualified English teachers. Non-native English teachers were probably regarded as second-class citizens (Ma, 2012; Rajagopalan, 2005) because of the “English speaker fallacy” (Phillipson, 1992). The belief of inequality in knowledge and performance between native and non-native English teachers leads to the discrimination in the amount of teachers in a position as a foreign language teacher (Braine, 2005).

However, many language educators believe that being a non-native English teacher has benefits in their own terms. Ling and Braine (2007) reveal that being a non-native English teacher has benefits such as sharing first language, being effective in pedagogical skills and being knowledgeable in English language. As studies show that non-native English teachers can teach English as effectively as native teachers (Medgyes, 1994; Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2005; Braine and Ling, 2007; Moussu, 2007), these teachers can be recognized as an ideal language teacher as well. In the current study, discrimination among these two types of teachers is not the only major issue for discussion. Effectiveness in teaching of an individual is also the emphasis.

Existing studies that support the importance of the quality of non-native English teachers are still rare and more studies are needed to confirm such research findings. As a result, this exploratory study aimed to investigate preservice teachers' perceptions towards non-native English teachers in several aspects. The two main objectives of this study were (1) to investigate the perceptions of preservice teachers of non-native English teachers; and (2) to explore the perceptions of preservice teachers of being a non-native English teacher.

Method

Participants

The participants were one-hundred and five preservice teachers in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) program from Public University in the Northeastern part of Thailand. This program is an international program offered by the Faculty of Education to prepare students for being English instructors. Both native and non-native English teachers taught in this program.

Data collection and Analysis

This study was divided into two stages: planning and implementation.

Planning

Stage one was concerned with planning to construct survey instruments. In this stage, the questionnaire and interview questions were constructed based on the three sub-stages: (1) analyzing documents, (2) constructing the instruments and (3) developing the instruments. The relevant documents (see Table 1) were analyzed to integrate into

classroom observation methods (see Table 2) in order to find the conceptual framework of this study. The instruments were constructed based on the framework of the nine domains of knowledge for being a professional foreign language teacher in Thailand. After constructing the questionnaire, it had been validated and pilot studied to ensure its content and construct validity and reliability.

The questionnaire and interview questions were submitted to confirm the validity of the content by three experts who were professionals and had experience in the field of English teaching. It helped to ensure that the instruments were valid and correlated to the objectives of the study. The findings found that the IOC index of Parts 2 and 3 of the questionnaire were 0.59 and 0.67, respectively. A content validity index was higher than 0.50 indicates that the content of the two parts of the questionnaire were valid and acceptable (Pinyoanuntapong, 2003). The invalid items of the questionnaire were either deleted or revised. Similarly, some interview questions were also revised based on the comments and suggestions from the experts in order to improve the validity of the interview questions.

After the IOC score calculation was completed and the items of the questionnaire was revised, the questionnaire comprised of three parts: **Part 1:** Background information (Personal Data); **Part 2:** Preservice teachers' perceptions of non-native English teachers (34 items); and **Part 3:** Preservice teachers' perceptions of being a non-native English teacher (33 items) was distributed to twenty-nine preservice teachers in the program to prove reliability. The instruments were distributed to twenty-nine preservice teachers in the program who did not participate as a sample in this study. The twenty-nine preservice teachers were randomly selected from the first-to the fourth-year preservice teachers in the program. These preservice teachers had approximately ten minutes to do the questionnaire. However, it was found that some students were not able to finish doing the questionnaire in this time, so the time to complete the questionnaire needed to be expanded when conducting the main study with the sample. After collecting data from pilot study, the data was computed by applying the Reliability Coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) formula in order to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. The Reliability Coefficients of part 2 and part 3 of the questionnaire were 0.87 and 0.84, respectively. It could be interpreted with results that were higher than 0.80 that the questionnaire was reliable.

Table 1

Framework of Non-native English Teachers

Frame- work	Thailand standards of teaching professional knowledge	NCATE & Technolog y	Common European Framework (CERF)	Current Studies (relating to NNETs)		
				Research	Research	Research
Type of sourc e	The regulation	Book	Book	Research	Research	Research
Sourc e	The Regulation of the Teachers	TESOL International Association	The Language	Moussu, L. (2007 &	Ling, C. Y. & Braine,	Grubbs, S. J. et al (2010)

	Council of Thailand on Professional Standards and Ethics B.E. 2548 (2005)		Policy Division, Council of Europe	2010) [Place of conduct: USA.]	G. (2007) [Place of conduct: Hong Kong]	[Place of conduct: Thailand]
Content	<p>Standard 1: Language and Technology for Teachers.</p> <p>Standard 2: Curriculum Development.</p> <p>Standard 3: Learning Management.</p> <p>Standard 4: Psychology for Teachers.</p> <p>Standard 5: Educational Measurement and Evaluation.</p> <p>Standard 6: Classroom Management.</p> <p>Standard 7: Educational Research.</p> <p>Standard 8: Educational Innovation and Information Technology.</p> <p>Standard 9: Teachership.</p>	<p>The standards from <i>NCATE</i> involve:</p> <p>Domain 1: Language</p> <p>Domain 2: Culture</p> <p>Domain 3: Planning, Implementing, and Managing Instruction</p> <p>Domain 4: Assessment</p> <p>Domain 5: Professionalism</p> <p>The <i>technology</i> standards involve:</p> <p>Goal 1: foundational knowledge and skills in technology for professional purposes</p> <p>Goal 2: integrate pedagogical knowledge and skills with technology to enhance language teaching and learning.</p>	<p>1. General competences</p> <p>1.1 <i>Declarative knowledge</i> (savoir)</p> <p>1.2 <i>Skills and know-how</i></p> <p>1.3 <i>'Existential' competence</i></p> <p>1.4 <i>Ability to learn</i></p> <p>2 Communicative language competences</p> <p>2.1 <i>Linguistic competence</i></p> <p>2.2 <i>Sociolinguistic competence</i></p> <p>2.3 <i>Pragmatic competence</i></p>	<p>NNETs should have the following qualities:</p> <p>1.Role model</p> <p>2.Liking:</p> <p>3 Learning difficulties:</p> <p>4.Accent :</p> <p>5.Grammar (grammar and knowledge of grammar)</p> <p>6.Teacher response</p> <p>7.Appearance (physical appearance)</p> <p>8.Prepare-ss</p>	<p>NNETs should have the following qualities:</p> <p>1.Ability to Use Students' Mother Tongue in Teaching</p> <p>2.Effective Pedagogical Skills</p> <p>3.Knowledge-able in English Language</p> <p>4.Positive Personality Traits</p>	<p>NNETs should have the following qualities:</p> <p>1. Classroom management</p> <p>2. Skills - English skills</p> <p>1.Grammar</p> <p>2. Vocabulary</p> <p>3. Pronunciation</p> <p>4. Reading</p> <p>5. Writing</p> <p>6. Speaking</p> <p>7. Listening</p> <p>- Teaching skills</p> <p>1 Making lessons easier</p> <p>2.Making lessons</p>

		<p>Goal 3: apply technology in record-keeping, feedback, and assessment.</p> <p>Goal 4: use technology to improve communication, collaboration, and efficiency.</p>				<p>more enjoyable</p> <p>3. Facilitating students to improve language skill</p> <p>4. Encouraging students to learn</p>
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Table 2

Descriptive Codes from the Excerpts of Observation

Classroom Observation Excerpts	Descriptive Codes
<p>English was used as the main language of instruction, but Thai was used sometime when greeting and discussing difficult concepts with students. Most teachers speak English fluently, especially a teacher from the Philippines who taught Methods of Teaching Literature in the English Classroom.</p>	Language
<p>Every teacher presented the concept of study, explained and gave examples about the content to students in the presentation step. In the Creation of English Teaching Projects class, the teacher summarized concepts of lesson plan design and presented the concepts using a PowerPoint presentation.</p>	Content

<p>Teachers made use of basic technologies such as a computer, a projector, a microphone, etc. in the presentation step of teaching. Every teacher summarized concepts of study for students to learn in a PowerPoint presentation and gave the students handouts while teaching.</p>	<p>Technology</p>
<p>Teachers designed activities that encouraged students to work both in groups and as individuals for the entire semester. In the Creation of English Teaching Projects class, students had to write a reflection piece to give feedback to the teachers after finishing each class.</p>	<p>Curriculum Development</p>
<p>Teachers started the lesson with a warm-up activity to call students' attention and finished the lesson by giving a conclusion before asking students to give feedback. The teacher, who taught Methods of Teaching Literature in the English Classroom, gave students a handout that presented an example of a short story before explaining how to teach the literature step by step using the story that he prepared. In the Creation of English Teaching Projects class, the teacher encouraged students to speak English by asking them to do a 'check-in' and 'check-out' activity.</p>	<p>Learning and Classroom Management</p>
<p>Teachers explained each concept of study slowly and asked students to repeat what the teachers said in order to check the students' understanding. Some teachers had to respond to the same questions that students asked more than three times. For example, the teacher in a Creation of English Teaching Projects class explained to students about how to design materials and rubric scores to match with the lesson plan three times in class and give examples from students' prior knowledge. Teachers also spoke Thai when students seemed not to clearly understand what he/she explains in English.</p>	<p>Psychology for Teachers</p>
<p>In the Methods of Teaching Literature in the English Classroom class, the teacher commented on the students' presentations and gave feedback. The teacher asked other students in class to give feedback and suggestions to their friends who were the presenters</p>	<p>Educational Measurement and Evaluation</p>
<p>Teachers wrote down comments during students' presentations. The teacher of a Creation of English Teaching Projects class asked students about problems and obstacles in doing their project. Then, she wrote down the students comments in her notebook. The teacher of a Creation of English Teaching Projects class assigned students to write a reflection paper to give feedback of learning and teaching in each class.</p>	<p>Educational Research</p>
<p>During class, teachers always said "listen to me" and asked "Did you hear me clearly in the back?" or "Do you understand?" to the students. Students came to talk with teachers when they had some questions to ask individually during and after class. Students always raised their hands and asked questions to teachers during classes.</p>	<p>Teachership</p>

Then, some preservice teachers who were asked to participate in the pilot study process of the questionnaire were asked to participate in the pilot test of the interview as well. In this step, only three preservice teachers were chosen randomly. They were interviewed for thirty minutes. The interviews were done on time, but it was found that some questions needed to be revised because the preservice teachers looked confused with the questions and asked the researcher to explain more details. Finally, the data from the respondents' responses that were found to have some problems were descriptively analyzed and revised.

After the questionnaire and the interview were developed based on the two main steps—*Expert validity and Pilot study*, the revised version of the two instruments was used in the main study.

Implementation

Stage two dealt with the implementation of the instruments of the main study. This stage comprised of three sub-stages: (1) conducting the main study,(2) analyzing the data and (3) reporting the findings. During the second semester of the academic year 2012, the questionnaire was distributed to one-hundred and five preservice teachers in the program who were randomly selected as a sample of this study. Then, three preservice teachers from the sample were randomly chosen to be interviewed. The quantitative data was gathered and analyzed by the descriptive statistics, the One-Way Analysis of Variance (One-Way ANOVA) and correlations. The qualitative data from the interview was transcribed and coded using content analysis method.

Findings

The findings of this study were presented into two sections: Preservice teachers’ perceptions of non-native English teachers and Preservice teachers’ perceptions of being a non-native English teacher.

Preservice teachers’ perceptions of non-native English teachers

Table 3

The mean scores and standard deviations of the perceptions of the preserviceteachersofnon-native English teacherclassified by domain.

Domain	Language	Content (3)	Technology (1)	Curriculum Development	Learning and Classroom Management	Psychology for Teachers (2)	Educational Measurement and Evaluation	Educational Research	Teachship
Results									
Mean(\bar{x})	2.86	3.01	3.06*	2.96	2.99	3.02	2.99	2.85**	2.97
S.D.	0.57	0.48	0.51	0.64	0.55	0.50	0.52	0.65	0.58
Meaning	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree

* *the highest mean score*

** *the lowest mean score*

In response to research question one, the findings show that the preservice teachers perceived non-native English teachers positively with regard to the nine domains of knowledge for being professional English teachers. Technology, Psychology for Teachers and Content gained higher mean scores than the other domains (see Table

3). However, the findings from the one-way ANOVA showed that there was not statistically different among the nine domains, $F(8, 936) = 1.526, p > .05$.

Additionally, the findings of the correlations among the nine domains found that the domain of Language and Learning and Classroom Management was very strong correlated, $r = 0.66, p = .01$ ($n = 105$).

Preservice teachers' perceptions of being a non-native English teacher

Table 5

The summary of mean score and standard deviation of the perceptions of the preservice teachers of being a non-native English teacher classified by domain

Domain	Language	Content	Technology (1)	Curriculum Development	Learning and Classroom Management	Psychology for Teachers (3)	Educational Measurement and Evaluation	Educational Research	Teachership (2)
Results									
Mean(\bar{x})	2.88	2.83	3.20*	2.96	2.99	3.02	2.99	2.66**	3.04
S.D.	0.56	0.58	0.66	0.64	0.55	0.50	0.52	0.74	0.52
Meaning	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree	agree

* *the highest mean score*

** *the lowest mean score*

In response to research question two, the preservice teachers also perceived themselves positively with regard to the nine domains. They rated the domains of Technology, Teachership and Psychology for Teachers higher than the other domains (see Table 5). A one-way ANOVA testing for differences among the nine domains was statistically significantly different, $F(8, 936) = 6.61, p > .05$ (see Table 6). Knowledge of educational research is needed to be improved as it gained the lowest mean score in comparison to the domain of Technology, Psychology for Teachers, Educational Measurement and Evaluation, and Teachership.

Additionally, it was found that the domain of Educational Measurement and Evaluation, and Learning and Classroom Management was very strong correlated, $r = 0.64, p = .01$ ($n = 105$). On the other hand, the domain of Educational Research was not correlated with the domains of Language, Curriculum Development, Learning and Classroom Management, and Educational Measurement and Evaluation.

In conclusion, it was found that all nine domains of knowledge of non-native English teachers and the preservice teachers as being non-native English teachers were both perceived positively. The preservice teachers agreed that non-native English teachers have knowledge based on the nine domains. According to findings from the two objectives, Technology was the domain that achieved the highest mean score among

the nine domains. On the contrary, Educational Research achieved the lowest mean score.

Likewise, the findings from the semi-structured interview indicate that the preservice teachers perceived their non-native English teachers positively with regard to the nine domains of knowledge. They said that the teachers always use technologies integrated with teaching and learning in class. Most of the preservice teachers also agreed that they have good knowledge about technology. They feel comfortable using various kinds of technology in class. On the other hand, the preservice teachers revealed that they have less competence in educational research than other professional domains. They somewhat know how to conduct the educational research but they do not have much opportunity to practice.

Moreover, it was found that non-native English teachers were likely to have a problem about their native accent. The preservice teachers claimed that most non-native English teachers do not have native-like accents. However, it does not negatively affect students' learning. The preservice teachers affirmed that Thai teachers' accent is easy for them to understand. Finally, the preservice teachers stated that non-native English teachers can also be regarded as a good role model for EFL students. Non-native English teachers are good at teaching content and understanding of students' nature and needs. These are the advantages of being a non-native English teacher.

Pedagogical Implications

This study serves as one of the exploratory survey studies that investigates the preservice teachers' perceptions of non-native English teachers and being a non-native English teacher. It established a proposed framework for being a professional nonnative English teacher.

Based on the findings, it is suggested that the program should create courses that can support the preservice teachers' learning with regard to all nine domains of knowledge. The preservice teachers should have learned about language, content, technology, curriculum development, learning and classroom management, psychology for teachers, educational measurement and evaluation, educational research, and teachership when attending in the program. Also, the preservice teachers and non-native English teachers in the program need to improve the knowledge of Language, Curriculum Development, and Educational Research as they were perceived lower than the other knowledge domains. One way that may help to enhance the quality of the preservice English teachers is to prepare a course that integrates the nine domain of knowledge together. Professional Development of Skills for English Teachers course, for example, should be created in order to increase knowledge and develop essential skills for being a qualified English teacher of preservice English teachers.

In order to improve knowledge and the ability to use language, the program can support students and non-native English teachers with more opportunity to use

English. English camp or intensive English courses, for example, may help both preservice teachers and non-native English teachers in the program to improve all English skills. The more they have opportunity to use the language, the better they can acquire and use it effectively.

The knowledge about Curriculum Development and Educational research of non-native English teachers are also needed to be improved. The program should put a greater emphasis on these domains of knowledge in order to develop professional non-native English teachers for both local and global community. One way to gain this knowledge is to encourage and support the teachers in the program to participate in educational workshops, seminars or conferences. As the findings reveal that the preservice teachers lack of confident to do educational research themselves, the program should also create more courses for students to practice doing educational research. Borg (2010, 2013) recommended that 'engagement with research' by reading it and 'engagement in research' by doing it were the effective ways for language teachers to develop teaching potentials professionally.

Furthermore, the Ministry of Education should pay more attention on the quality of English teachers in Thailand. Non-native English teachers should be received in the form of funds to do educational research or to participate in seminars in the country or international conferences about English Language Teaching (ELT). In addition to increasing the number of qualified English teachers, the Bureau of Teacher Education Personnel Development of Thailand should realize more on the importance of English teacher professional development by encouraging English teachers to participate in workshop trainings and seminars that helps to develop their profession.

Conclusion

The findings of this study shed light on the preservice teachers' perceptions with regards to nine domains of knowledge for being a professional teacher. The nine domains were summarized and framed based on the document analysis and the observation findings from the Thai context. According to the findings, the EFL preservice teachers agreed that non-native English teachers have quality for being a professional English teachers based on the nine domains of knowledge: Language, Content, Technology, Curriculum Development, Learning and Classroom Management, Psychology for Teachers, Educational Measurement and Evaluation, Educational Research, and Teachership. These nine domains are necessary for being a professional English teacher. It was found that Educational Research achieved the lowest mean score among the nine domains. Therefore, non-native English teachers and the preservice teachers are needed to put a greater emphasis on doing and learning about Educational Research. Non-native English teachers should be supported by providing funds to do research or participate in conferences about English Language Teaching (ELT).

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Assessment Modifications in L2 Reading Competence for Slovene English as a Foreign Language Students with Specific Reading Differences

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Abstract

Topic: The paper covers assessment modifications in reading in English as a foreign language for Slovene students with specific reading differences.

The purpose of the present study was to examine the latent structures of the English as a foreign language (FL) reading competence of Slovene 283 FL students with specific reading differences (SRDs) and 292 students with no SRDs. A battery of cognitive, language and literacy tests in FL was administered to both groups to gain a perspective on the FL reading competence structure of this population. On the basis of exploratory factor analysis, it was found that the latent structures vary between the two groups. The fluency–orthography factor formed the first factor in the group of students with no SRDs, whereas in the group of students with SRDs this factor emerged only as the second factor. The findings have significant implications for FL reading assessment accommodations and modifications.

1. Introduction

Assessing English as a foreign language (FL) reading competence is challenging, due to the fact that it is a complex task and that reading in an FL context can be influenced by numerous linguistic, cultural and educational factors. When assessing FL reading competence, one has to bear in mind that students' attainment in FL reading competence may be disrupted by difficulties with any linguistic factor; for example, by problems with FL reading fluency or by a lack of FL vocabulary knowledge. Distinguishing between different sources of impediments in FL reading competence is crucial if we are to tailor instruction, intervention and assessment appropriately (Francis et al. 2006, p. 302). In assessing FL reading competence of (Slovene) FL students with specific reading differences (SRDs), it is particularly important to pinpoint sources of difficulty, because students with SRDs can have extremely uneven profiles of skills; for example, they may have good FL vocabulary knowledge but very limited word reading fluency skills (Erbeli & Pižorn 2012, p. 135).

The most widely used assessment tasks (such as a "cloze" task) fail to distinguish the various sources of poor reading competence. These tasks do not provide information on the components (sources) of FL reading competence with which FL students with SRDs might need further substantial help. Thus, we do not know the components of FL reading competence on which assessment accommodations and modifications should be performed. Therefore, our ultimate goal is to identify those components of FL reading competence that distinguish Slovene FL students with no SRDs from FL students with SRDs.

2. The Nature of FL Reading Competence

One line of reading research is the so-called component skills approach or the componential approach. The component skills approach was first proposed by Carr and Levy (1990) and is widely used by L1 reading researchers (Koda 2010, p. 19). Research in this category attempts to identify the components of reading. Another goal of this approach is to account for the individual and developmental differences in reading performance in terms of the differences in specific component processes or knowledge sources (Shiotsu 2011, p. 2). Component skills are closely interrelated, and a deficiency in one skill can create problems in others. Sources of reading impediments can therefore be identified by means of a clear understanding of the multilayered relationships among component skills (Koda 2010, p. 20). The component skills approach enables us, firstly, to identify the cognitive, linguistic and reading components forming the (latent) structure of the FL reading competence of FL students with SRDs and with no SRDs; secondly, to classify common deficiencies and limitations characterizing students with SRDs; thirdly, to estimate the likely interplay of component skills between different L1s and FLs; finally, to analyze cross-linguistic interactions between FL input and L1 skills (Koda 2010, p. 20).

L1 componential analyses suggest that individual differences in reading may be accounted for by individual differences in vocabulary knowledge, word or sub-word recognition efficiency, phonological awareness, and working memory, all of which overlap with general verbal comprehension skills (Koda 2010; Noort, Bosch & Hugdahl 2006, p. 289). However, the question as to whether these same components explain individual differences in FL reading competence remains unanswered. The

following section focuses on the efforts of FL researchers to identify and characterize possible components of FL reading competence.

An early theoretical attempt to model English as a FL reading was Coady's tripartite model (1979, p. 5), in which he linked many FL reading problems to limited L1 ability, i.e., he suggested that poor L1 reading competence affects FL reading mastery. Exploring the question of whether FL reading is a reading problem or a language problem, Alderson (1984, p. 14) identified Coady (1979, p. 5) as supporting the view that it is a reading problem and Yorio (1971, p. 109) as claiming that it is a language problem. Alderson (1984, p. 19) himself concluded that it is both. The evidence, however, is in favor of the view that for FL readers with a low level of FL proficiency it is more of a language problem.

Clarke's short-circuit hypothesis (1980, p. 206) has led to a number of research activities focusing on the issue (Brisbois 1995). Research shows that 30–40% of FL reading variance is explained by FL knowledge (Bernhardt & Kamil 1995, p. 15). This line of research is componential in nature, as it tests whether L1 reading competence and FL linguistic competence are significant sources of individual differences in FL reading. The construct of FL linguistic proficiency is, nonetheless, operationalized unidimensionally (Koda 2010, p. 24), including knowledge of vocabulary and/or grammar. However, analyzing the structure of FL reading competence necessitates more than just testing for the relative contribution of the vocabulary or grammar variable, i.e., the linguistic component. In analyzing the structure of FL reading competence, the explaining variance of the reading and cognitive component must not be diminished. Decoding (Koda 2010, p. 29), phonological knowledge (van der Leij & Morfidi 2006, p. 74), orthographic knowledge and orthographic distance (Koda 2010, p. 43), vocabulary (Grabe 2009), visual perception (Bosse & Valdois 2009, p. 230), executive functioning (Andersson 2010, p. 458), listening comprehension (Vandergrift 2007, p. 191), and reading fluency (Kato 2009, p. 471) all contribute to reading performance in the FL. It is therefore essential to identify all of the possible components underlying the structure of FL reading competence in Slovene FL students with and without SRDs, and to determine differences between the latent structures of both groups.

3. Assessment Accommodations and Modifications

Definitions of test accommodations vary, but the focus is on their function. Their main goal is to eliminate sources of difficulty that are irrelevant to the intent of the measurement, and thereby to affect solely the measurement of the construct in students with SRDs, without giving them an advantage over students who are not receiving accommodated assessments (Abedi, Hofstetter & Lord 2004, p. 6). In addition to accommodations, however, modifications may also be implemented in classroom-based assessment, in order to meet the needs of students with specific learning differences (Kormos & Smith 2012, p. 159). "Modifications result in a change in the test [...] and work across the board for all students with equal effects." (Hollenbeck, Tindal & Almond 1997, p. 176). Hence, assessment tasks and techniques can be designed and modified to suit the individual profiles of learners with specific learning differences in classroom assessment (Kormos & Smith 2012, pp. 159–163).

In order for accommodations not to have an impact on test validity, however, another question needs to be addressed. Reviews of the effects of accommodations on the performance of students with disabilities in accountability and other high-stakes tests caution against a one-size-fits-all approach (Thompson, Blount & Thurlow 2002). The most consistent finding reported across the reviews is the observation that students are heterogeneous. Simply defining students as learning disabled or as “students with a disability” without considering the area of disability may dilute the effect of an accommodation; the accommodation should be specific to the type of disability. In a summary of the research on testing accommodations, Thompson, Blount and Thurlow (2002) reported that 31% of studies defined the sample as “learning disabled”, 17% as having “cognitive disability”, 16% as “students with disabilities”, and only 9% as “reading or math disabled”. This research summary suggests that many studies provide accommodations without considering the relation of the accommodation to the area of difficulty, which provides little information on the specificity of the accommodation to the disability.

Seen as a whole, these findings indicate that accommodations and modifications need to be adjusted to specific areas of difficulties, and that students with SRDs may need continuous and relevant feedback, as well as further help, in order to successfully overcome such difficulties. However, no such research, with the structure of FL reading competence as a construct of central interest, has thus far been conducted in this field of inquiry on FL Slovene students with or without SRDs.

4. The Study

Empirical work focusing on the relative significance of FL proficiency for FL reading competence has shown that FL proficiency has a consistently larger effect than L1 reading competence (Bernhardt & Kamil 1995, p. 15). Therefore, a dedicated investigation of the former would prove illuminating.

The components and their relationships underlying the FL structure of reading competence for Slovene students have not yet been covered in the literature concerning FL reading. In the present study, we therefore confine ourselves to investigating whether there is a different factor structure underlying FL reading competence for Slovene students with SRDs compared to students with no SRDs. To recapitulate, the purpose of this study was threefold:

- (1) to identify the number of factors comprising FL reading competence among Slovene students with SRDs and students with no SRDs,
- (2) to examine the ways in which these factors of FL reading competence differ between the two groups,
- (3) to determine how accommodation and modification procedures in assessing FL reading competence can be enhanced, taking into consideration the differences among these factors between the two groups.

Specifically, the study was designed to answer the following research questions: (1) How does the factor structure underlying FL reading competence differ between Slovene FL students with SRDs and Slovene FL students with no SRDs? (2) In assessing FL reading competence, what accommodation and modification procedures can be used in instruction, considering the difference of the factor structure between the two groups?

5. Method

5.1 Participants

The sample comprised 575 Slovene-speaking 7th grade students aged between 12 years and 13 years (mean age 12 years 11 months). The sample was divided between students with no SRDs (n = 292) and students with SRDs (n = 283). The students attended 21 different primary schools in Slovenia, all with Slovene as the teaching medium. All of the students learned English as a foreign language (FL is a compulsory school subject from Grade 4 to Grade 9). The English program includes listening, speaking, use of language and reading activities. English instruction is based on a communicative teaching approach, while reading instruction includes a balanced combination of decoding-oriented and meaning-based methods.

The Slovene school system is a public, unitary system, based on the ideology of inclusion. The aim of the school system is to include all students with SRDs in the (language) classroom. In Slovenia, students with SRDs are assessed according to a Statement of Special Educational Needs by a panel of qualified professionals (doctors, psychologists, specialist teachers, etc.). These professionals then diagnose the kind of disability present in the individual and decide what provision needs to be made in terms of additional support by a specialist teacher, so that the learner can be included in a mainstream class. Specialist teachers provide adaptive materials, and assistive technology is available if needed. The syllabus is specially adapted for each individual with SRDs according to an individualized education program (IEP).

5.2 Instruments

A battery of cognitive, language and literacy tests in English were administered to the students. The battery was designed to measure key components related to FL reading competence: executive functioning, visual perception, reading fluency, listening comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, and orthographic skills.

Executive Functioning

Previous studies on children have provided evidence that executive control processes play an important role in foreign language processing (Andersson 2010, p. 460). In order to measure multiple aspects of executive functions, the standardized Test of Verbal Conceptualization and Fluency (TVCF; Reynolds & Horton 2006) was used. Three subtests were used in the current study: (1) Categorical Fluency, which measures the student's ability to retrieve words that fit within a conceptual category (e.g., animals), (2) Letter Naming, which measures word retrieval by initial sound, (3) Trails C, which measures the ability to coordinate high attentional demands, sequencing, and the ability to shift rapidly between Arabic numerals and the linguistic representation of numbers. We investigated the test-retest reliability using a group of 52 students in a pilot study. The test-retest reliability coefficients were $r = .81$, $r = .83$ and $r = .70$ for each subtest respectively.

Visual Perception

Previous studies (Martin 2006) have examined the relationship between reading ability and visual perceptual processes. These studies have indicated that students

with dyslexia experience more perceptual problems than proficient readers, in that visual tracking and figure-ground abilities are compromised. Two abilities (figure-ground and visual closure) related to the underlying processes of visual perception were measured with two subtests of the standardized Test of Visual Perceptual Skills (TVPS; Martin 2006). The Figure-Ground subtest required students to find one design among many within a complex background. In the Visual Closure subtest, the student is shown a completed design on the page and is asked to match it to one of the incomplete patterns shown on the page. The reliability (Cronbach's α) was .79.

Reading Fluency

Reading fluency ability was indexed by the standardized Test of Silent Word Reading Fluency (TOSWRF; Mather et al. 2004) and by the standardized Test of Silent Contextual Reading Fluency (TOSCRF; Hammill, Wiederholt and Allen 2006). The TOSWRF and the TOSCRF measure word identification and speed, but they also measure word comprehension. The TOSWRF is designed to measure single word identification, while the TOSCRF is designed to measure the speed with which students can recognize individual words in a series of printed passages. In the TOSWRF, students were presented with a row of words (e.g., dimhowfigblue) and were given three minutes to draw lines between the boundaries of as many words as possible (e.g., dim/how/fig/blue/). In the TOSCRF, students were presented with passages without punctuation or spaces between words (e.g., AYELLOWBIRDSATONMOTHERSPRETTYHAT), and were given three minutes to draw lines between as many words as possible (e.g., A|YELLOW|BIRD|SAT|ON|MOTHERS|PRETTY|HAT). In a pilot study conducted in June 2011, both the TOSWRF and the TOSCRF were modified to the English proficiency level of Slovene 7th grade students. The test-retest reliability was .86 and .87 for each test respectively.

Listening Comprehension

One of the factors that contributes to variance in FL reading is FL listening comprehension (Vandergrift 2007, p. 205). FL listening comprehension was measured by the standardized Test of Auditory Comprehension of Language (TACL; Carrow-Woolfolk 1999), which measures the student's ability to understand the structure (syntax) of spoken language. Three subtests were used in the present study: Vocabulary, Grammatical Morphemes, and Elaborated Phrases and Sentences. The teacher read the item aloud, and the student was directed to circle the picture that he or she believed best represented the meaning of the word, phrase or sentence spoken by the teacher. The TACL was adapted to the English proficiency level of Slovene 7th grade students in a pilot study conducted in June 2011. The internal consistency reliability was $\alpha = .83$.

Vocabulary Knowledge

In FL settings, researchers (Grabe 2009, p. 266) have shown that vocabulary knowledge is the strongest of the component skills associated with FL reading. Vocabulary size was therefore also measured in the present study, using the Vocabulary Size Test (VST; Nation and Beglar 2007). As a standardized vocabulary size test, the VST involves retrieval of word meanings from the mental lexicon. The test consists of 140 items. Students were instructed to circle the letter in front of the

definition of the word that best described the item. The VST was adapted to the English proficiency level of Slovene 7th grade students in a pilot study conducted in June 2011. The reliability was $\alpha = .87$.

Orthographic Skills

L1-FL orthographic distance constitutes another significant factor explaining quantitative variations in FL word recognition, and therefore also in FL reading (Koda 2010, p. 42). The Test of Orthographic Competence (TOC; Mather et al. 2008) is designed as an efficient, reliable and valid measure of orthography in school-age students. Three subtests were used in the present study: (1) Grapheme Matching, in which students are shown a series of rows, each containing five figures, and are instructed to identify two identical figures in each row by making a slash through them (with a time limit of 45 seconds); (2) Letter Choice, in which students are shown rows of words, each of which has one of four letters (p, d, b, q) missing (e.g., __etter, b is missing), and are then given two minutes to insert the missing letters in order to correctly complete as many words as possible; and (3) Sight Spelling, in which the teacher says a word while students look at part of the word with one or more of the letters missing (e.g., know, students see __ow), and are then asked to fill in the missing letter or letters (which include an irregular or unusual orthographic element) in order to complete the spelling of the word. The TOC was adapted to the English proficiency level of Slovene 7th grade students in a pilot study conducted in June 2011. The test-retest reliability coefficients for the first two subtests were $r = .77$ and $r = .89$, while the internal consistency reliability of the Sight Spelling subtest was $\alpha = .86$.

5.3 Procedures

Students received instructions in L1 Slovene at the beginning of each test. The tests were group-administered and conducted in three sessions, each with a duration of 45 minutes. Data collection took place in April, May and June 2012. Parent or guardian consent was obtained for the participation of each student prior to testing.

6. Results and Discussion

6.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

In order to address the first research question, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted on a battery of tests that included FL reading fluency, FL orthographic skills, FL vocabulary, FL auditory comprehension, executive functioning and visual perception measures. According to previous research (Shiotsu 2011, p. 2), these are some of the most fundamental measures with regard to the structure of FL reading competence.

Prior to conducting EFA, a number of criteria for assessing whether the variables entered have factorability were met: Pearson's correlation coefficients, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measures, residual values and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The methods for selecting the number of factors to retain were as follows: all factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 and the scree test. Following principal components extraction, factors were rotated with the oblimin oblique algorithm. This algorithm was selected

over orthogonal rotation because the orthogonal algorithm is based on the assumption that the factors are mutually completely independent.

EFA was completed in two groups – students with no SRDs and students with SRDs (see Table 1).

Table 1: Names of measures, explained variance and oblique oblimin factor loadings in the group of students with no SRDs (n = 292) and students with SRDs (n = 283).

		Students with no SRDs			Students with SRDs		
Total Variance after Rotation		62 %			66 %		
Factor 1	Measure 1	WRF	20 %	.82	AC Morphemes	22 %	.79
	Measure 2	CRF		.79	AC Vocabulary		.77
	Measure 3	OS Sight Spelling		.69	Vocabulary Knowledge		.74
	Measure 4	OS Letter Choice		.64	AC Elaborated Sentences		.73
	Measure 5	-		-	OS Sight Spelling		.61
Factor 2	Measure 1	AC Vocabulary	17 %	.78	WRF	19 %	.74
	Measure 2	AC Morphemes		.75	OS Letter Choice		.74
	Measure 3	Vocabulary Knowledge		.66	CRF		.73
	Measure 4	AC Elaborated Sentences		.62	OS Grapheme Matching		.53
Factor 3	Measure 1	EF Categorical Fluency	15 %	.78	EF Letter Naming	13 %	.86
	Measure 2	OS Grapheme Matching		.73	EF Categorical Fluency		.82
	Measure 3	EF Letter Naming		.69	-		-
	Measure 4	EF Trail C		.52	-		-
Factor 4	Measure 1	VP Visual Closure	10 %	.74	VP Visual Closure	12 %	.83
	Measure 2	VP Figure-Ground		.65	VP Figure-Ground		.79
	Measure 3	-		-	EF Trail C		.41

Note. WRF = Word Reading Fluency; CRF = Contextual Reading Fluency; OS = Orthographic Skills; AC = Auditory Comprehension; EF = Executive Functioning; VP = Visual Perception. Measures 1-5 refer to particular tests.

Four factors were extracted in both groups, each consisting of similar skills but accounting for a different amount of variance within each group. Within the group of students with no SRDs, F1 (the fluency–orthography factor) accounted for 20% of the variance. F1 included all of the reading fluency measures and two measures of orthographic skills. This could mean that when the students are relatively fluent in FL

reading, they also have well-developed orthographic skills (the measures correlate positively). Loadings (representing correlations between measures and a factor) are high (all above .64), which means that in the group of students with no SRDs these measures define F1 well.

Within the group of students with SRDs, F1 (the auditory–vocabulary–spelling factor) accounted for 22% of the variance. This F1 included all auditory comprehension, the sight spelling and the vocabulary measures. This could mean that for students with SRDs the same kind of knowledge is necessary for listening to an FL text as for vocabulary and spelling assignments. This knowledge, however, is not as important for FL reading as the knowledge of reading fluency and FL orthography. This finding can be surmised from F1 in the group of students with no SRDs, i.e., the skilled readers group. Loadings are high (all above .61).

The auditory–vocabulary factor emerged as F2 within the group of students with no SRDs. This F2 accounted for 17% of the variance. It included all auditory comprehension measures and the vocabulary measure. Within the group of students with SRDs, F2 (the fluency–orthography factor) included all reading fluency and two orthographic skills measures. It accounted for 19% of the variance. By means of EFA, it was possible to examine which kinds of knowledge come into play in which measurements. Furthermore, it can be inferred that fluency and orthography skills, on one hand, and auditory skills and vocabulary size, on the other hand, acquire different kinds of knowledge, as they load separately on different factors.

In a cross-group analysis, we can observe that the first two factors exchanged positions. Factor 1 was significantly different between students with no SRDs and those with SRDs. This finding could have an impact on FL reading competence within the group of students with SRDs. The most powerful factor (F1) that emerged within the group of students with no SRDs had a pattern (fluency-orthography pattern) that is associated with fluent and accurate reading. However, the most powerful factor (F1) within the group of students with SRDs did not have this pattern. This might indicate that well-developed fluency and orthography skills in FL are important for efficient FL reading competence, and that the group of students with SRDs lacks these skills. Difficulties in reading fluency and orthographic skills could affect the acquisition of FL reading in the group of students with SRDs. Thus, these students would have difficulties with FL reading, resulting from deficient general reading fluency skills and orthographic skills. This is also evident from the result of a *t* test ($t = -10.01$, $p < 0.01$) comparing fluency–orthography factor scores in the cohort of all students. The *t* test showed that, on average, students with no SRDs achieved higher attainment on all measures compared to students with SRDs. These results confirm those of other research on Slovene FL students (Erbeli & Pižorn 2012, p. 135), showing that skilled FL readers were faster and more accurate in FL reading and were better at spelling words than less-skilled FL readers.

Table 1 also shows that measures of reading fluency (decoding and accuracy, word and contextual) and measures of orthographic skills (letter choice and sight spelling) loaded onto one factor. In the group of students with no SRDs, this factor was the first factor, the most important factor. However, in the group of students with SRDs, this factor was only the second factor. The finding that fluency and orthography measures loaded onto one factor is in line with previous research results. Sparks et al. (2011, p.

267) have shown that “processing speech sounds and learning sound–symbol relationships may be a modular skill.” This finding may have direct implications for understanding the nature of the slowness of students with SRDs in FL reading and in learning to recognize and spell new words. In students with no SRDs, repeated exposure to words leads to the development of interconnections between the visual and the verbal modalities. However, in students with SRDs, when visual stimuli were presented for recognition or recall, such as in the measure letter choice, they were less likely to evoke an interdependent network of visual and verbal associations.

It is, therefore, this identified key factor of FL reading, i.e., the fluency-orthography factor, where further substantial help for students with SRDs should be pursued. It is in the position of this factor that the two groups differ, thus accommodations and modifications in assessment within this factor should be pursued for students with SRDs, in order to successfully overcome their difficulties.

6.2 Assessment Accommodations and Modifications

In order to answer the second research question, appropriate modifications and accommodations in teaching and assessing FL reading competence for students with SRDs are proposed. EFA revealed that one distinct factor underlying FL reading competence structure differs between both groups of students, i.e., the fluency-orthography factor.

Prior to conducting appropriate modifications and accommodations in assessing FL reading competence for students with SRDs, three distinctive features of assessment for students with SRDs must be acknowledged:

- (1) Accommodations and modifications are matched to the students’ needs. The outcome of our study implies that Slovene FL students with SRDs need modifications in the areas of decoding, fluency and orthography skills.
- (2) In an effort to obtain the most accurate evaluation of students, more than one type of assessment should be used.
- (3) If assessment is to provide information on the extent to which students are making progress, it is critical that there be a close match between instructional and assessment accommodations. IEP teams make decisions about both kinds of accommodations, and should do so based on need.

In line with these features, the following modifications are proposed:

- (1) As is evident from the EFA results, students with SRDs lag behind their peers with no SRDs in fluency skills. Decoding and fluency skills can be developed through extensive reading and revised repeated readings of relatively short passages (50–250 words). Poetry is short, highly patterned, and predictable, and it contains letter patterns that can be adapted for building students’ fluency. Assessment tasks should be modified for students with SRDs such that these students are asked to produce short poetry presentations, dramatic performances, letter groups and words on lists for beginning readers. Fluency assessments should not include long unknown texts for students with SRDs.
- (2) In order to develop fluency through extensive reading, one of the most widely recommended exercises is one in which a student searches as quickly as possible for the target word from among distracters. According to Crawford, the majority of word recognition exercises in textbooks related to FL fluency reading resemble this

exercise (Crawford 2005, p. 36). Assessment modifications in timing could be implemented in this exercise. Rather than being assessed on fluency at intervals (once a month), students with SRDs should be assessed on the spot (every day). This sort of assessment, i.e., continuous assessment, gives students with SRDs an opportunity to obtain continuous, corrective feedback and appropriate support on a daily basis.

(3) In order to develop fluency, teachers can experiment with supplements to text reading, such as word and sub-word study and word lists, as well as with the proportion of time devoted to text-level and word-level practice. Again, the timing of assessment tasks can be modified. Students with SRDs can be asked to show their effort at daily vocabulary quizzes.

(4) Depending on the individual profile, students with SRDs might sometimes even need modifications in learning objectives. One such modification in learning objectives in FL reading is allowing students with SRDs to read only shorter texts. Textual modifications are also performed, i.e., modifying written FL input, which is quite a common practice in many pedagogical settings. Textual modifications include simplified written input, textual input enhancement, and glossing to reduce the processing demands on FL students by making the input more comprehensible (enabling students to read more quickly and accurately).

(5) Research evidence supports the effectiveness of multi-sensory structured learning with dyslexic students (an approach that promotes direct and explicit teaching of the FL linguistic system) (Kormos & Smith 2012, p. 163); therefore, when students with SRDs are assessed on grammar, for instance, they should be given exercises that support multi-sensory structured learning, such as modified grammatical exercises including the use of drills.

(6) As is evident from the EFA results, students with SRDs lag behind on orthographic skills. A familiarity with intra-word orthographic regularities is essential for fluent FL reading. Strategies to develop and reinforce orthographic skills in class can include word searches, anagrams and peer proofreading. The kind of tasks used in class should also be reflected in assessments. If spelling problems nevertheless remain, assessment modifications could include disregarding spelling errors, using mnemonic aids for spelling or using spellcheckers.

Research on the relationship between FL reading competence in groups of students with SRDs and targeted accommodations and modifications is worth expanding, and one way to pursue it is by considering the limitations of the present study. We need to further examine the extent to which the validity of assessments is enhanced when specific types of accommodations are matched to specific sub-skills of FL reading competence. Although the findings of this study show that reading fluency, orthographic skills and other FL linguistic and cognitive factors underlie the structure of FL reading competence in Slovene 7th grade students, these results should be viewed as preliminary and requiring replication. Other factors (FL exposure, metalinguistic awareness) should be included in future studies, in order to more fully examine the validity of this structure of FL reading competence and to more precisely explain individual differences.

7. Conclusion

Despite the limitations of the present study, overall the results are meaningful both theoretically and practically. The results show that Slovene students with SRDs have a different FL reading competence structure than students with no SRDs, and that they

are characterized by poorer fluency and orthography-related processes. Poorer results for these processes may be indicative of the students' worse overall FL reading performance compared to students with no SRDs. In view of these results, researchers and educators might consider implementing assessment accommodations and modifications in specific problem areas, as well as designing instructional programs carefully.

8. Works Cited

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