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A Case Study: Promoting Vietnamese Staff's English Language Ability and their Change of Conceptions of English Language Learning

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Abstract
In this study, a four-month English language training course was designed for the Vietnamese staff members of a manufacturing company in Vietnam. The English language course materials were designed according to the results of the need analysis of the Vietnamese staff and administration manager. The course focused on daily life English, English specifically related to their job, and improving the staff's listening and speaking skills. The lessons were communicative-driven and student-centered. The English course was divided into two parts (two months for each part) and was held after the staff's regular working hours twice a week in the evening. The aims of this study were to find out whether this particular English learning experience would influence the learners' conception of English learning and about their learning outcome. The results of this study showed that after the training course, there were changes in the conceptions of English language learning of the participants. They showed a deeper understanding of what English language learning is about. The participants' speaking skills were improved in both the first and second part of the training course, and listening skills were improved in the second part of the training course, which met the goals of the training course. Overall, there were improvements in the first and second parts of the course. In short, the training course did improve the participants' learning outcome.

Keywords: second language learning, conceptions of learning, adult language learners

Introduction

In Vietnam, English language is gaining more importance nowadays. The scheme on foreign language in the national education system in the 2008-2020 period is approved in 2008. The Minister of Education and Training of Vietnam has been implementing the 10-year foreign language teaching program since then. Their goal is to set foreign language (i.e. English and some other foreign languages) as a compulsory subject from third grade at all levels of the general education nationwide by 2018-2019 school year ("Decision No. 1400/QD-TTg," 2015). Furthermore, after Vietnam became a member of the World Trade Organization in 2006, companies see English language as a vital key to get international business opportunities and to add value to their businesses. English language became a job requirement and many companies provide English training courses to their staff (Phan, 2017).

Literature Review

Problems in English Learning and Teaching in Vietnam

Tran (2013) found that although English was considered important for academic study and work, many university students was not able to communicate in English well. Starting from high school, students were afraid to speak English because they were afraid of making mistakes (Teaching English in Vietnam, 2017). The reasons could be that English language lessons were usually form-focused and oriented towards grammar and not communication skills (Tran, 2013). Also, they focused on passing tests and exams (Nguyen, T. H. A., 2002). Graceffo (2010) believed Vietnamese students just simply did not have enough listening input throughout their course of learning the language, which led to limited verbal output. Therefore, students might be good in English grammar and got high scores in exams, but they still could not communicate in English. The overall problem is that Vietnamese students lacked a communication environment for them to use English purposefully (Teaching English in Vietnam, 2017). Vo, Vo, and Vo (2014) found that "if Vietnamese speakers use more English, their spontaneous speech will be found to be more comprehensible than those who use less English" (p.12).

Culture Influence

Vietnamese students' poor English communication skills could be due to their culture and traditional ways of teaching in English classroom. Face is important to Vietnamese culture and in Asian culture in general. Vietnamese students are afraid to lose face so that they feel more comfortable listening to teachers rather than speaking up or asking and answering questions in class (Graceffo, 2010; Huong, 2008). Since many Asian cultures value verbal perfection, Vietnamese students tend to be cautious when speaking and they do not want to make a mistake (Graceffo, 2010; Lewis & McCook, 2002). If they are not confident enough about the correctness of what they want to express in English, they would rather not speak at all. Besides, another culture characteristic of Vietnamese is that they do not want to stand out in class, which further inhibit oral expression (Graceffo, 2010). In addition, under the influence of Confucian values, English language lessons are often teacher-centered and textbook-centered. Grammar-translation method is also prevalent (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). That means Vietnamese students lack opportunities of authentic or purposeful

English communication in class. Nevertheless, due to the constraints of the test and exam oriented education context and Vietnamese culture, communicative language teaching methods and student-centered approach have not been implemented successfully in regular schools (Dang, 2010; Nguyen, T. H. A., 2002).

Trend

Nonetheless, communicative language teaching seems to be welcome in private English language schools in Vietnam (Nguyen, T. H. A., 2002). Since many Vietnamese students do realized the importance of English language to their future career, those who want to improve their English communication skills would choose to attend private English language schools (Nguyen, T. H. A., 2002). In the communicative language teaching environment in private English language schools, Nguyen, T. H. A. (2002) maintained that “Vietnamese learners are no longer completely passive;” “they enjoy participating in activities that help them to use the language” (para.15).

Pronunciation Problems

Although Vietnamese alphabet, Quốc-ngữ, looks similar to English alphabet, it is not the Roman or Latin alphabet. In fact, the pronunciation of the letters is different from the English letters (Graceffo, 2010). Graceffo (2010) pointed out the distinctive pronunciation of Vietnamese as follow:
The pronunciation of combinations of letters differs from the pronunciation of the same letters pronounced separately. The pronunciation of letter occurring at the ends of words is often different than when those same letters appear at the beginning or in the middle of a word (para.23).
When Vietnamese learn English, they could be influenced by the knowledge of their native language and cause pronunciation problems.

Nguyen, T. D. (2015) reported that Vietnamese have problems with tense and lax vowels, voiced and voiceless stops, fricative consonants, consonant clusters, and inflectional suffix “-s”, etc. Below are some examples of Vietnamese pronunciation problems:

1. Tense and lax vowels
Vietnamese recognize the differences between /i/ and /ɪ/ and /u/ and /ʊ/, but they would pronounce them the same. When they pronounce “sheep” and “ship,” there will be no difference. When they pronounce “food” (/fud/) and “good” (/gʊd/), they would pronounce the two vowels (/u/ and /ʊ/) the same. For Vietnamese, /e/ and /æ/ sound the same, and they cannot recognize the differences between them. They would pronounce “bed” and “bad” the same (Nguyen, T. D., 2015).

2. Voiced and voiceless stops
In Vietnamese, there are voiceless stops /p/, /t/, /k/ at the end of words, but not voiced stops /b/, /d/, /g/. However, they usually pronounce the ending voiceless stops very short in English, therefore, they are hardly heard (Nguyen, T. D., 2015).

3. Fricative consonants

Fricatives (/f/, /v/, /θ/, /ð/, /s/, /z/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/) do not appear at the end of Vietnamese words. Therefore, Vietnamese often miss these sounds at the end of English words. Vietnamese also are confused with the consonants /s/ and /z/ and have pronunciation problems with /θ/ and /ð/. "Zip" would pronounce just as "sip." They would say "thank' like "tank." The /ð / sound are sometimes replaced by /d/ or /z/ sounds, so Vietnamese may say "than" as /dæn/ or /zæn/ (Avery & Ehrlich, 2012; Nguyen, T. D., 2015).

4. Consonant clusters
Vietnamese are unfamiliar with consonant clusters and they do not occur in initial or final position of Vietnamese words. Therefore, Vietnamese have difficulties producing these sounds in words as in "problem," "train," "climb," "lacks," "ask," "seats," and "restaurant," etc. (Avery & Ehrlich, 2012; Nguyen, T. D., 2015; "Thought on Teaching Vietnamese Learners," 2015; "Vietnamese Pronunciation Problems in English," n.d.)

5. Inflectional suffix "-s"
Vietnamese language does not have the plural or third person singular suffix "-s." Therefore, it is often omitted (Nguyen, T. D., 2015; "Thought on Teaching Vietnamese Learners," 2015). For example, "Mary likes chocolate" may sound like "Mary like chocolate."

Besides having problems on the segmental side of English pronunciation, Vietnamese also face problems on the suprasegmental side. Figure 1 illustrated the segmental and suprasegmental features of English pronunciation (Gilakjani, 2012, p. 120).

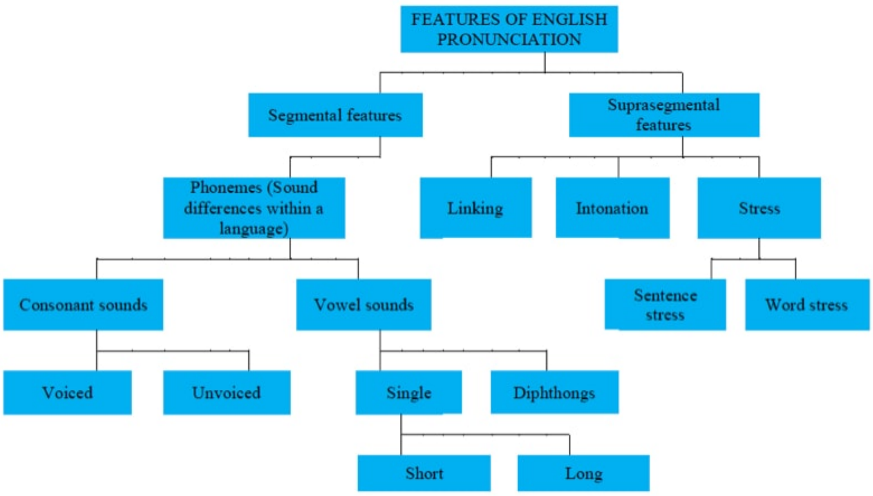

Figure 1. Segmental and suprasegmental features of English pronunciation (Gilakjani, 2012, p. 120).

Among the suprasegmental features, Vietnamese have difficulties on English word stress (Nguyen, T. D., 2015; Nguyen & Ingram, 2005). Vietnamese is a tonal language and a syllable-timed language whereas English is a stress-timed language. An English word can have one or more syllables, and a multi-syllable English word can have multiple stresses. For example, there is a primary stress on the third syllable and a secondary stress on the first syllable in the four-syllable word "interaction."

When the stress is on the first syllable in the word "present," it can be a noun meaning "gift." When the stress is on the second, it can be a verb meaning "to give something to someone." The position of stress can make a difference in meanings in English. In contrast, Vietnamese does not have a stress system like English (Nguyen, T. D., 2015; Nguyen & Ingram, 2005). Vietnamese words have a system of six tones. When the pitch changes, the meaning changes. Nguyen and Ingram (2005) stated that in English, stressed syllables are longer than unstressed syllables (i.e., duration is an active correlate in producing word stress), and unstressed vowels tend to be reduced. In contrast, in Vietnamese, a syllable-timed language, no systematic difference in duration or vowel quality among syllables has been found. (p.311) Nguyen and Ingram (2005) found that Vietnamese "failed to differentiate English stressed and unstressed syllables in terms of duration" (p.317) when they were beginners, but not advanced speakers. It would take some time for Vietnamese to get accustomed to the stress system in English.

Conceptions of Learning

When someone accumulates experiences of a particular event in a particular environment, a conception about the particular event will be formed (Pratt, 1992). As someone learns in a particular environment, he/she will begin to from a conception of learning, realizing what learning is about and what the learning objectives, processes, and activities are to himself/herself (e.g., Benson & Lor, 1999; Marton, 1981; Vermunt & Vermetten, 2004). Phan (2008) maintained that the conception of learning may affect how someone would learn, which also affect the learning outcome (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). Chan (2014) also found that the conceptions of English language learning may change after exposing the learners to a particular English language learning experience. Under the unique English language learning environment in Vietnam, Vietnamese learners of English would form a particular conception towards English learning.

Aims of this Study

In this study, a set of English learning materials was developed for a company's staff training course which lasted for about four months in Vietnam. The materials were tailored according to the needs of the staff and the company. The English course was divided into two parts (two months for each part) and was held after the staff's regular working hours twice a week in the evening. The staff participated in the course voluntarily. As mentioned above, how one thinks about learning influenced how he/she goes about learning (Phan, 2008) and the learning outcome (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). Also, a different English language learning experience could change someone's conception of English learning (Chan, 2014). Therefore, the aims of this study were to find out whether this particular English learning experience would influence the learners' conception of English learning and about their learning outcome.

Research Methods

The participants in this study were five Vietnamese staff members who had completed the entire four-month staff English language training course in Pro Active Global Vietnam Co., Ltd. (鋒明(越南)國際有限公司), which is a Taiwan manufacturing company located in Bình Dương Province, Vietnam. At the beginning, seven Vietnamese staff members were enrolled in the training course and later on two dropped out due to their heavy work load and busy time schedule, leaving five completed the whole course. The seven participants' personal information regarding their English learning history and belief was collected before the course started. All of them stated that they had learned English before the training course, 28.7% in junior high school, 71.4% in senior high school and 28.6% in university. In average, they had learned English for 3 years. Six of them expressed that they could briefly introduce themselves in English and only one could not. The participants expressed that they liked or really like English. It was rated at 4.43 on a 5-point Likert scale (1=Really dislike English to 5=really like English). Also, they believed that English was very important to them. On a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "very unimportant" to "very important," the importance of English was rated at 4.57.

Before the development of the English learning materials for the staff training course, a need analysis was done to find out what the Vietnamese staff members wanted to learn and what the company wanted the staff to learn in the English course. A Vietnamese version of the need assessment survey was given to the Vietnamese staff members and a Chinese version was given to the administration manager. Then, the data of the surveys was analyzed. Most of the Vietnamese staff members (85.7%) expressed that they wanted to learn daily life English, and 14.3 % wanted to prepare for English proficiency tests. All of them wanted to improve their English speaking skills, 85.7% listening skills, 71.4% pronunciation, 57.1 % writing skills, 42.9% reading skills and 28.6% grammar. On the other hand, the administration manager wanted the staff to learn English related to their job and he thought that improving the staff's English listening and speaking skills was more important for the company. Based on the results, a set of English learning materials was designed to match with their needs. The materials were focused on both daily life English and English specifically related to their job, and improving the staff's listening and speaking skills was the main goal. Also, to maximize the opportunities of communication, student-centered approach was used to design the lessons.

In this study, the concepts of phenomenography were adopted as it is often used to explore people's thinking and learning (Marton, 1986) and conceptions of teaching and learning (Gao & Watkins, 2010). Phenomengraphy is a non-intrusive way to study the ideas of learning. In this study, the descriptions of experience of English language learning was collected before and after the training course. The collected descriptions were put into qualitatively different categories to identify different conceptions of learning (Marton & Booth, 1997). At the beginning of the course, a pre-survey asking the participants' conceptions of English learning was given to the Vietnamese staff members. At the end of the course, they were given a post-survey to find out whether they have changed their conceptions of English learning. The pre- and post-surveys included the question "What do you think English learning is like?" in Vietnamese. The data from the pre- and post-surveys were translated to English and analyzed separately, and similar ideas were put in the same category. Each idea will be counted and the categories were ranked according to the popularity of the ideas appeared in the data. To clarify the categories, some of the categorized data was quoted as examples in the result section of the study. To ensure reliability and validity of the results, a second rater were employed to review and to seek agreement on the results of the data analysis.

An English language pre-test and a post-test were also given to the participants before and at the end of each part of the training course. The pre-test and post-test of the first part of the course included 30% listening, 25% speaking, 20% reading and 25% writing questions. The pre-test and post-test of the second part of the course included 50% listening, 10% speaking, 20% reading and 20% reading questions. To find out the participants' learning outcome of the course, the scores of the pre-tests and post-tests were analyzed using dependent-sample t-tests on the on the Social Science Statistics website.
(http://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/ttestdependent/Default2.aspx)

Results

Conceptions of English learning prior to the training course

In the pre-survey data, there were a total of 11 entries of ideas about English learning. From these 11 entries, 3 categories of conceptions of English learning appeared – attitude towards English learning, acquisition knowledge, and application (see Table 1 and Figure 2).

The most popular conception of English learning concerned the attitude towards English learning. Some participants showed fondness towards English learning; some thought it was difficult, but one participant thought it was easy.
Examples:
I like learning English, but English language is difficult and complicated.
Learning English is easy to me. It will not give me stress.

Acquisition of knowledge referred to acquisition of English language skills and knowledge in general.
Examples:
Learning English can improve English skills, vocabulary and structures.
Learning English gives you power because I can learn more new things.

Application referred to using English language at work and the usefulness of English language in general.
Examples:
Although learning English is a little difficult, it can enhance work effectiveness and give your higher salary.
Learning English is useful.

Conceptions of English learning after the training course

In the post-survey data, there were a total of 13 entries of ideas about English learning. From the 13 entries, 4 categories of conceptions of English learning emerged – ways of learning, application, attitude towards English learning, and acquisition of knowledge (see Table 1 and Figure 3). Among the 4 categories, the category "ways of learning" was a new conception of English learning, which did not appear before the training course. Also, it was the dominant conception of English learning after the training course. The next most popular conceptions concerned application, followed by the attitude towards English learning and acquisition of knowledge.

Ways of learning referred to how English language was to be learned.
Examples:
Learning English is to speak English every day.
Learning English is to learn a lot of vocabulary.

Application referred to being able to use English language to communicate with others and using English language in daily life and at work.
Examples:
Learning English is mainly to communicate.
Learning English is to apply it in daily life and at work.

About attitude towards English learning, one participant thought that learning English was difficult and one thought it was exciting.

After the training course, acquisition of knowledge referred only to acquisition of English language skills.
Example:
Learning English is to speak and pronounce accurately.

Table 1. Conceptions of English Learning Prior to and After the training course

Prior	After
Attitude towards English learning 63.64% ▪ I like learning English (36.36%) ▪ Learning English is difficult (18.18%) ▪ Learning English is easy (9.09%) **Acquisition of knowledge 18.18%** ▪ Acquisition of English language skills (9.09%) ▪ Acquisition of Knowledge in general (9.09%) **Application 18.18%** ▪ Learning English is to apply it at work (9.09%) ▪ Learning English is useful (9.09%)	**Ways of learning 38.46%** ▪ Ways of learning concerning methods (38.46%) **Application 30.77%** ▪ Learning English is to be able to use English to communicate with others (15.38%) ▪ Learning English is to apply it in daily life (7.69%) ▪ Learning English is to apply it at work (7.69%) **Attitude towards English learning 15.38%** ▪ Learning English is difficult (7.69%) ▪ Learning English is excited (7.69%) **Acquisition of knowledge 15.38%** ▪ Acquisition of English language skills (15.38%)

*n = 5

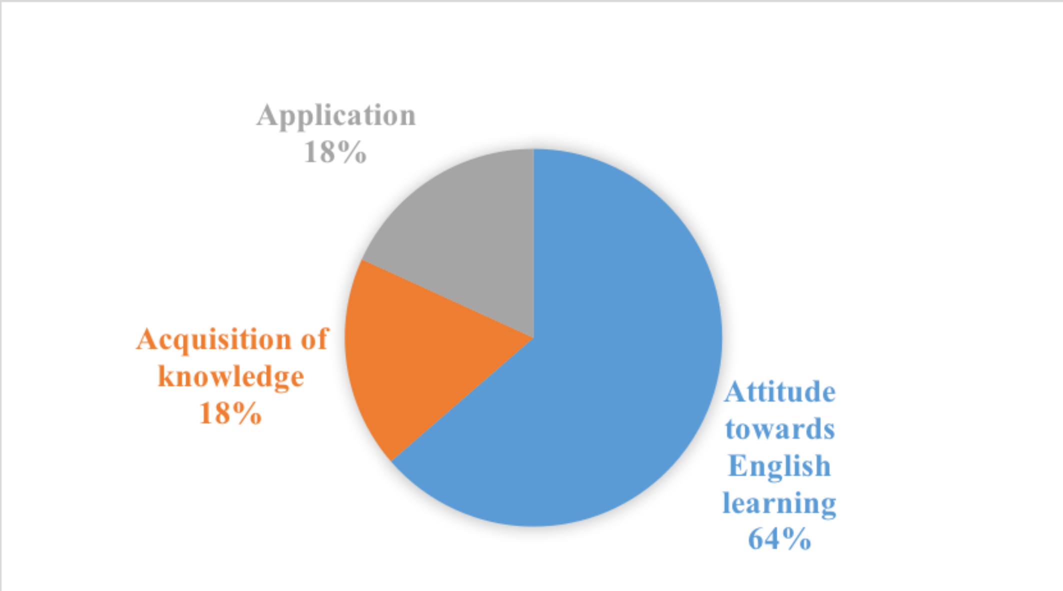

Figure 2. Percentages of the categories of conceptions of English learning prior to the training course

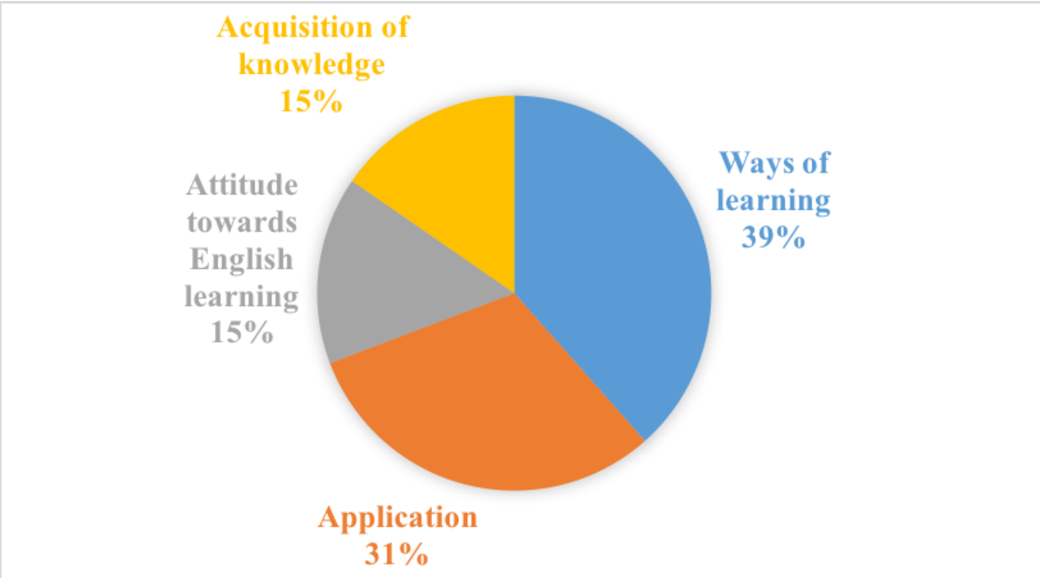

Figure 3. Percentages of the categories of conceptions of English learning after the training course

Learning outcome

In order to find out the learning outcome of the training course, dependent-sample t-tests were conducted to analyze the pre-test and post-test scores of the first and second parts of the training course separately.

The analyses of pre-test and post-test of the first part of the training course showed significant improvement in the speaking, writing and overall scores ($P<0.05$) with mean differences at 4.40, 12.20 and 21.00 respectively while the reading scores did not show a significant difference at $P \leq 0.05$ but it showed a significant difference at $P \leq 0.10$ with a mean difference at 2.40, and the listening scores did not show a significant difference (P>0.10) (see Table 2 and 3).

The analyses of pre-test and post-test of the second part of the training course showed significant improvement in the listening and overall scores (P<0.05) with mean differences at 9.00 and 13.50 respectively while the speaking scores did not show a significant difference at P ≤ 0.05 but it showed a significant difference at P ≤ 0.10 with a mean difference at 0.90, and the reading and writing scores did not show a significant difference (P>0.10) (see Table 2 and 3).

In short, all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) were significantly improved in some points of the training course. Also, the overall scores in both the first and second parts of the training course showed significant improvement.

Table 2. The Means and Standard Deviations of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing Scores of the Pre-tests and Post-tests of the First and Second Parts of the Training Course

Part Items	Pre-test Scores		Post-test Scores	
	Means	SD	Means	SD
First part (n=5)				
Listening (30)	26.00	5.48	30.00	0.00
Speaking (25)	17.00	3.81	21.40	1.34
Reading (20)	17.60	2.19	20.00	0.00
Writing (25)	9.80	5.67	22.00	2.00
Total (100)	72.40	12.99	93.40	2.97
Second part (n=5)				
Listening (50)	39.00	4.18	48.00	2.74
Speaking (10)	7.00	0.71	7.90	0.55
Reading (20)	17.20	4.09	19.80	0.45
Writing (20)	12.20	4.44	14.00	1.87
Total (100)	75.40	9.21	88.90	3.68

Part – Items	Mean Difference	Sig. (2-tailed)
First part – Listening Pre – Post	4.00	0.178
First part – Speaking Pre – Post	4.40	0.024*
First part – Reading Pre – Post	2.40	0.070**
First part – Writing Pre – Post	12.20	0.005*
First part – Total Pre – Post	21.00	0.016*
Second part – Listening Pre – Post	9.00	0.037*
Second part – Speaking Pre – Post	0.90	0.088**
Second part – Reading	2.60	0.240

Pre – Post		
Second part – Writing		
Pre – Post	1.80	0.244
Second part – Total		
Pre – Post	13.5	0.023*

**The result is significant at $p \leq 0.10$.
*The result is significant at $p \leq 0.05$.
Table 3. Significance of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing Scores between the Pre-tests and Post-tests of the First and Second Parts of the Training Course

Discussion

In this study, a four-month English language training course was designed for the Vietnamese staff members in Pro Active Global Vietnam Co., Ltd. The English language course materials were designed according to the results of the need analysis of the Vietnamese staff and administration manager. The course focused on daily life English, English specifically related to their job, and improving the staff's listening and speaking skills. The lessons were communicative-driven and student-centered. The results of this study showed that after the training course, there were changes in the conceptions of English language learning of the participants. Before the training course, the conceptions of English language learning dominated by personal feelings towards learning English language itself (e.g. "I like learning English"), which belonged to the category of attitude towards English learning. However, after the training course, the dominant category was "ways of learning," and the category "application" became more prominent than before. It could be that after the unique English language learning experience in the training course, the participants came to realize that there were methods to learn English language and realize the usefulness and purpose of learning English language. In other words, they showed a deeper understanding of what English language learning is about. It was consistent with research's findings that as someone learns in a particular environment, he/she will begin to from a conception of learning, realizing what learning is about and what the learning objectives, processes, and activities are to himself/herself (e.g., Benson & Lor, 1999; Marton, 1981; Vermunt & Vermetten, 2004) and Chan's (2014) finding that that the conceptions of English language learning may change after exposing the learners to a particular English language learning experience.

Looking at the learning outcome, participants' speaking skills were improved in both the first and second parts of the training course, and listening skills were improved in the second part of the training course, which met the goals of the training course. It seemed that the communicative activities in the course played an important role in improving listening and speaking skills. Nevertheless, the listening scores did not show a significant difference in the first part. It could be that the listening scores were already high at the beginning of the course; therefore, there was little room to find out whether there was improvement after the first part of the course. In the second part of the course, the difficulty of the listening part of the pre- and post-tests was raised and the number of questions was also increased. With these changes, a significant improvement on listening skills was found. Communication involves listening and speaking skills. Listening is a receptive skill and speaking is a productive skill. Without listening input, speaking skills will be hard to improve. As speaking skills improved, the improvement of listening skills could be expected. Overall, there were significant improvements in the first and second parts of the course. In the first part, the total scores went up from 72.40 to 93.40. In the second part of the course, the total scores went up from 75.40 to 88.90. In short, the training course did improve the participants' learning outcome.

There were limitations in this study. The number of participants were small. The results could only apply to the particular environment in this study. Since the formation of conceptions of learning is context-dependent, to understand more about the conceptions of English learning of Vietnamese staff in manufacturing companies, further research should be done. Furthermore, how the participants went about learning English language was not investigated in this this study. Nevertheless, how one thinks about learning may influence how he/she goes about learning (Phan, 2008) and the learning outcome (Watkins & Biggs, 2001). Therefore, it should be done to explore how it could be related to their change of conceptions of English language learning and their learning outcome in future studies.

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Negotiating Language Development and Growth through Social Interactions: The Case of Setswana

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Abstract
In most modern African societies, identity through language is extremely a rare phenomenon. This is because most communities are multilingual and there is usually more than one language spoken (Chabata, 2008: 13). The presence of more than one language and social factors such as intermarriages, migration and the introduction or use of modern technology affect the development and growth of the mother tongue in any given community. Taking the Mmabatho, Mafikeng situation as an example, this paper highlights some of the problems and challenges that language planners and researchers encounter in their effort to develop and grow Setswana as one of the official languages in the Province. It focuses specifically on how these phenomena have affected the 'purity' of the language. This study is mainly qualitative and examines the current state of affairs regarding the use of standard Setswana in Mafikeng, South Africa. Contributions from students, observations and focus group discussions were used to collect data. The significance of the study is that it exposes how social factors and technology could lead to either the development, growth or decline in the use of African languages in a given community. This situation needs to be checked in order to preserve, protect and promote indigenous languages in African communities.

Keywords: Identity, intermarriage, migration, multilingualism, standard Setswana

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Introduction

Language shift is the process whereby speakers of a language in a community gradually replace one language with another (Swilla, 2008: 230). It may occur when speakers of a language no longer use the standard form of a language, apply the conventions and grammar of the main language of the community, hence a drop in the number of speakers. This phenomenon may occur in bilingual, multilingual and multicultural communities. Language growth thus, refers to the process whereby speakers of a particular language in a given community, gradually expand the vocabulary or the number of speakers of the language. Different languages in a bilingual and multilingual community normally play different roles and perform functions with regard to societal, cultural, economic and political realities of the community" (Swilla, 2008: 230). Some of the possible causes of language shift include declining monolingualism and intergenerational switching, migration, the shrinking of minority language/s, industrialisation, medium of instruction in education, urbanisation, the advent of technology and its use as well as intermarriages (Swilla, 2008: 230-231).

Given the South African context, it is expected that languages have to develop and grow rather than decline as indigenous languages have been given 'equitable' status as per the 1996 Constitution of South Africa. Batibo (2005: 62-86) maintains that several studies conducted on the African continent show that many African languages are extinct or almost extinct, and many more are endangered by more influential languages. There is, therefore, a need for indigenous and minority languages to be promoted, preserved and protected to prevent their eminent decline, if not, their death. The main questions raised in this paper are as follows: Do bilingual and multicultural contexts encourage language shift or promote language development and growth in society? and what needs to be done to develop and grow Setswana as a language of wider communication in Mmabatho, Mafikeng in particular and South Africa in general?

Eventhough South Africa has eleven official languages given 'equitable' status according to the 1996 Constitution, language planners and users of Setswana (one of the official languages spoken in the North West, some parts of Gauteng and the Northern provinces) face a major challenge in sustaining and developing the language. This is largely attributed to the growing number of migrants in the Province, intermarriages and technology. This greatly has an impact on the language as speakers have to consider code mixing, borrowing, code switching or the coining of new words and the naturalisation of words from other languages as options to accommodate inhabitants in the city and sustain conversations.

Growing Setswana as the main language in Mmabatho, Mafikeng

Since monolingualism is crucial for language growth and its maintenance, the reverse is true (Swilla, 2008: 233). Swilla argues that when monolingualism declines, there is the ability for bilingualism and language shift to set in. Considering the fact that Mmabatho is a multilingual and multicultural community, the growth of Setswana as the main language of the city will not mean encouraging monolingualism but ensuring that the language is used appropriately by all stakeholders.

Mr Mxolisi Zwane, acting Chief Executive Officer of the Pan South African Language Board (PanSALB, 2014) remarked during the commemoration of the International Mother Language Day that with the previous census results showing a decline in the use of mother languages in South African households (with the exception of isiNdebele), the compilation and release of two dictionaries in the language are an encouraging sign in the preservation of the mother tongue in the country. Furthermore, the Director General of UNESCO, Irina Bokova, speaking at the same occasion, remarked that “indigenous languages are perfectly capable of transmitting the most modern scientific knowledge in mathematics and technology, which is what the isiXhosa Math and Science dictionary will achieve in the country’s educational space if given a chance”. This is a laudable initiative which could be emulated by lexicographers of Setswana in order to promote, preserve and protect the language in the city and Province.

Alexander (1995: 4) argues that “no nation has ever thrived or reached great heights of economic and cultural development if the vast majority of its people are compelled to communicate in a second or even a third language”. Indigenous people of each country, including South Africa, ought to be empowered to use and speak in a language of their choice. Prah (1993: 72-73) suggests that “the educational policies of post-colonial African governments, which neglected the modernisation and development of indigenous languages are one of the main reasons for the abysmal failure of all economic development programmes on the African continent”. The languages inherited from the colonialists and used by Africans, is the reason why Africans underrate their own languages. Because they have for decades been underrated, this has led to retardation in their development and meant, in consequence, the marginalisation of African languages and cultures in the effort to develop Africa. Prah (1993: 46) believes this “retardation implies stagnation and the confirmation of the inferior status of African languages and cultures in the general discourse on development in Africa”. For Setswana to be considered a language of wider communication, residents in the city, and the Province in general, should be encouraged to use standard Setswana rather than what Cook (2009) refers to as the *Setswanalised* (the local term for morphological incorporation of non-Tswana words into Setswana) version of the language currently spoken in the city.

Historical and language background of South Africa

History holds that the San people were the first inhabitants of South Africa; the Khoikhoi and Bantu-speaking tribes followed. The Dutch were the first European settlers to arrive at the Cape of Good Hope in 1652, launching a colony that by the end of the 18th century, numbered only about 15,000 colonists (Berger, 2009: 24). Known as Boers or Afrikaners and speaking a Dutch dialect known as Afrikaans, the settlers tried as early as 1795, to establish an independent republic. After occupying the Cape Colony in that year, Britain took permanent possession in 1815 at the end of the Napoleonic Wars. Anglicisation of government and the freeing of slaves in 1833 drove about 12,000 Afrikaners to make the “great trek” north and east into African tribal territory, where they established the republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. The country experienced long years of apartheid oppressive white rule that finally came to an end with the first ever democratic elections in 1994. The coming into power of the African National Congress (ANC) ushered in a new constitution for the country and eleven languages made official and given ‘equitable’ status, including

Setswana contrary to what obtained in the past (English and Afrikaans were the two official languages).

Under the British, the task of educating Black people fell mostly to the European missionaries who considered it their duty to convert Black people to Christianity (Bekker, 2002: 72). In order to effectively teach Christianity to Black people, missionaries started out by studying local dialects, so as to develop a written code, in order to translate and teach the Bible in the respective local languages. At the time, Black African languages were not detached units, but dialects along a continuum. The dialects chosen for writing and teaching were, thus, not natural standards, but picked by sheer chance or accident. This led to the creation of separate languages that were from a linguistic point of view, dialects of the same language. Over time, these dialects have come to be accepted as different languages [e.g., Northern Sotho, Setswana and Southern Sotho], even if they are mutually-intelligible (Smit, 1996: 57-58).

"The colonialists gave and still continue giving Africans the impression that African languages do not have the necessary and appropriate vocabulary to express and name concepts" (Alexander, 1995: 3). Even with the introduction of a new Constitution in South Africa in 1996, Alexander (1995: 3) points out that "South Africans have been made to believe that it is essential that they learn the English language so that they can overcome this 'deficit' of their languages since colonialists have made the citizens to believe that African languages 'do not have the words' for most modern objects and scientific concepts". Thus, most terms, expressions or phrases relating to technology are either naturalised (*Setswanalised*) English words or borrowed from English or Afrikaans as evident in the data.
To redress this linguistic imbalance, chapter 1, section 6 of the Constitution of South Africa of 1996, spells out the principles from which the language policy of the country must be delivered. In summary, the Constitution provides for:

- The promotion of multilingualism;
- The 'equitable' treatment of all the languages spoken in South Africa;
- The development and modernisation of African languages; and
- The prohibition of the use of any language for the purpose of discrimination, exploitation and oppression.

Alexander (1995: 6) posits that a multilingual policy, besides its democratic and nation-building importance, also has considerable job-creation potentials since it inevitably gives rise to a language industry. "A national language plan should be integral to a national development plan", Alexander (1995: 8) maintains. Social scientists and politicians who understand the relationship between language policy, efficiency and productivity support the view expressed by one of the continent's foremost sociolinguists, Chumbow (1987: 22), that:

> *The languages of a nation are its natural resources on the same level as its petroleum, minerals and other natural resources. These languages can, therefore, be harnessed and developed, if carefully planned, for the overall interest of a nation…. Language planning is, consequently, as important as any other aspect of economic planning and the place of language planning is, therefore, in the*

National Development Plan as a concomitant of all other aspects of economic planning for national development.

Language planners and decision-makers in South Africa should design and implement language policies that will reflect the multilingual and multicultural character of the country as well as the culture and identity of citizens. If this is done, language, culture and the identity of the people will be just as important to them as the petroleum, minerals and natural resources of South Africa and could be exploited by foreign nationals who sojourn or visit the country.

Migration, intermarriages and technology: any impact on standard Setswana?

Kok (1999: 19) defines migrations as "the crossing of the boundary of a predefined spatial unit by one or more persons involved in a change of residence". It could be internal or international. It is a very old phenomenon that is not unique to Africa but exists throughout the world. Migration could be beneficial to the host community and migrants as well. According to Jacoby and Legrain (2006 & 2007), "every country needs immigrants not only for economic development, but as an avenue to crave for legitimacy and attractiveness in the international system". Migration leads to multiculturalism and diversity within communities given that the population is exposed to different cultures. Malik (2015) argues that "thirty years ago, many Europeans saw multiculturalism – the embrace of an inclusive, diverse society – as an answer to Europe's social problems". Today, a growing number consider it to be a cause of them. This perception has led to some mainstream politicians, including British Prime Minister, David Cameron and German Chancellor, Angela Merkel, to publicly denounce multiculturalism and speak against its dangers. "Even though freer international migration can bring huge economic and cultural benefits, it also requires political consent" (Legrain, 2007: 8-9). When people migrate, they move with their language/s and as the population grows, the language/s also grow(s) proportionately. This phenomenon is bound to affect the main language of the community in which migrants live and operate.

When couples who do not speak the same language live together, there is a possibility that one language will dominate over the other. In the case of Mmabatho, Setswana is the dominant language, but because families have to make concessions, language choice has to be considered. The effect is noticed not only by the fact that the number of speakers will reduce significantly, but the standard form of the language is bound to be affected. Cook (2009: 98) identifies two forms of Setswana as follows: Street Setswana and standard Setswana. Street Setswana, according to Cook (2009: 98), "is a non-standard form of the language that incorporates lexical material from English, Afrikaans, isiZulu and *Tsotsitaal*, among others". Better described as a range of speech styles than a single 'language', these styles are all linked by the fact that they index urbanity. Standard Setswana differs very little from street Setswana, especially in terms of syntax. "The use of standard Setswana is a symbol of ethnic authenticity" (Cook, 2009: 100) which must be cherished, preserved, promoted and protected.

Cook (2009) maintains that "people's day-to-day use of street Setswana – a dynamic variety that is mutually intelligible with other South African hybrid varieties – reflects a desire to identify with a broader black South African identity". Cook (2009: 101) argues that many South Africans understand that children have the right to acquire literacy and basic concepts in their home language, and that they also have a right to learn the language(s) used in higher learning and the economic market-place. She adds that these principles manifest themselves in schools where knowledge of standard Setswana is strongly encouraged in theory. English proficiency is strongly encouraged in practice, and Afrikaans has also lost some of the status it acquired under the apartheid regime. “Setswana instruction in government schools is viewed as perhaps the most important bulwark against the ‘deterioration or corruption’ of the language” (Cook, 2009: 102).

Most African societies believe that language could be used to identify fellow brothers and sisters and conceal information from non-native speakers, but with intermarriage, which has become a common practice in recent years, there is bound to be language shift to accommodate other affected parties. As Mutasa (1999: 86) observes, “most linguistic communication in domains of national significance in South Africa remains English, and to a lesser extent, Afrikaans. The people do not see much value in African languages”. There is a general belief that Black South African Languages (BSALs) are ‘inferior’ to English, because they do not enjoy the international status that the latter enjoys; even first language speakers (L1 speakers of BSALs) hold this general belief (Ditsele, 2014: 1). De Klerk is even more vocal and critical of this assertion and general belief in South Africa when she remarks that many L1 speakers of BSALs regard them as worthless, because of their functional limitations, with regard to access to participation and mobility in society. “Developments in language policy and planning, which includes the penetration of Western culture and technology in the developing world, affected the status and viability of all languages, big and small” (Ditsele, 2014: 15).

In a study conducted on the perception and attitudes of Setswana-speaking university students towards their language, Ditsele (2014: 66) found that Zulu-dominated students expressed pride in their ability to speak isiZulu fluently, even when they acknowledged that they often code-switched and code-mixed it with English. Such is not the case with Setswana-dominated students. Hilton (2010: 130) remarks in her study that, among others, “Setswana L1-speaking respondents overwhelmingly preferred English as a language in the university setting, but, surprisingly, rated their L1 highly in situations that entailed personal interaction: in shops and in communication with the municipality.”

Batibo (2005: 65) identifies three types of indicators of an endangered language: attitude-related; language-use-related; and language-structure-related indicators. In this study, attitude-related indicators for language decline include indifference about the transfer of language to children and the association of the mother tongue with low economic and social values as well as political status. Parents will encourage their children to learn and speak English rather than standard Setswana as it is all grease to the mill in securing a job. It is also believed that “Setswana cannot put food on the table”. Some schools in the city are even moving away or adopting English as a medium of instruction as opposed to Setswana. This is an attempt to accommodate the multilingual and multicultural nature of the city and children born out of intermarriages who have only a passive knowledge of Setswana. Language-use-related indicators include the diminishing use of the language at home and other social gatherings. The borrowing of English and Afrikaans expressions to denote technological items in the place of Setswana is language-structure-related indicators.

These three indicators reveal that instead of standard Setswana growing with the increase in the population, there is rather a shift and drop in the number of speakers given the above-mentioned indicators.

Research method

The study was conducted in Mmabatho, North West Province, South Africa. The study is mainly qualitative and based on analysis of observations, written scripts, utterances, as well as equivalents assigned to terms relating to technology. Data was gathered over a period of twelve months (April 2014 to March 2015). Forty grade 12 students at a local high school (22 females and 18 males) aged between 16 and 18 years were requested to write down common phrases, sentences or expressions that did not make use of Standard Setswana. The choice for selecting these students was based on the fact that they were in an exit class and preparing for their end of year examination (National Senior Certificate Examinations) and had Setswana as their mother tongue. The phrases, expressions and sentences were compared and similarities found in most of them. Time was spent in ceremonies, ranging from weddings, funerals, religious services, local meetings and social gatherings observing the discourse, interactions of local South Africans and migrants in different communication events. Moments also observed ranged from friendly conversations, social gatherings and communications of spouses married to non-South Africans with children and other migrants living in Mmabatho. The phrases, sentences and utterances were later analysed to strengthen the argument.

Discussion

According to Oketch and Banda (2008: 6), "Kiswahili and other African languages are used along with English for different roles such as negotiation of ethnic identity, general discussions and gauging understanding of development messages". The study revealed that majority of participants combine Setswana, English and Afrikaans words in their discourse. This obviously gives rise to adulterated versions of the language. As observed in the data, this is usually done for words that have more than one syllable or more than one word in Setswana. For instance, in English, "last week" has two words while in Setswana, it is expressed in four words (*beke e e fetileng*). Speakers may decide to be economical in terms of word usage rather than using several words to refer to a phrase or group of words. Furthermore, as revealed in the data, one word syllables are expressed in more than one syllable in Setswana. For example, "key" in English has just one syllable, but when expressed in Setswana, it has four syllables (*se/no/tlo/lo),* window (*le/tlha/ba/phe/fo).* Since the word window in Setswana has five syllables, speakers would prefer its Afrikaans equivalent (*vens/te/re)* which has three syllables. The findings revealed that there is very little use of Afrikaans in Mmabatho. This is because the fact the city is predominantly black and participants were mostly young people, migrants and South Africans married to foreign nationals.

From the discussions with local South Africans married to African migrants and non-Tswana-speaking South Africans, it emerged that Tswana people are willing to give away their language by switching to other languages when confronted by speakers of the other official languages of South Africa contrary to speakers of the Nguni languages. Unlike the Basotho, Zulus and Xhosas, who are not easily influenced to switch codes, it emerged that Tswana-speaking people are not very proud to speak their language in the presence of others. They believe that isiZulu and isiXhosa are more superior (languages of status) and should have prominence over Setswana. It could be argued that Zulus are able to hold on to their language due to their warring nature. Setswana-speaking people are very accommodative, and this explains why they have been able to accept the infiltration of other languages into Setswana. They believe that if naturalisation will lead to the development and growth of their language, so be it, rather than cause its decline or death as very few speakers will be able to speak standard Setswana.

Language use is impacted upon by participants involved and their exposure to technology. "While the government may have a well-documented language policy of promoting the 'equitable use' of local languages, including Setswana, the actual linguistic practice in a social event is governed by the composition of participants who belong to different linguistic affiliations and social identities, and who exhibit different attitudes towards the various languages at their disposal" (Oketch and Banda, 2008: 6). It is generally not realistic to communicate in standard Setswana in the community. Before social gatherings, coordinators or events hosts come to an agreement with members on what language to use. Since some local South African women are married to foreign nationals and migrants from other parts of South Africa, a compromise has to be reached. Some of the women make efforts to learn and speak the mother tongue of the spouse and minimal levels of Pidgin English (a lingua franca spoken in Cameroon and some parts of West Africa). Learning the other language is also to assist in communication with grandparents and family members of non-Setswana speaking relatives.

"A multilingual approach involving language mixing is not arbitrary and only used to get the speaker out of a communicative difficulty" (Oketch and Banda, 2008: 7). Since many technological concepts do not have equivalents in Setswana, speakers tend to use the English terms and naturalised English versions of the concepts or the literal translation during conversations. "The use of local languages breaks any social barriers or suspicion between the community and outsiders" (Oketch and Banda, 2008: 8). The use of Setswana builds confidence among community members and they become proud and honoured whenever their language is used. The use of expressions in English, Afrikaans and other local languages while speaking Setswana, is very common not because these words do not exist in Setswana, but because speakers want to fit and belong to the current trend of code mixing, code switching and borrowing. This practice is not only common with migrants or the consequence of intermarriages but is also practised by native speakers of Setswana.
From the list of expressions gathered during participation in social gatherings and observations, a discussion followed to find out why speakers do not use standard Setswana and rather prefer the adulterated version of the language. Below are some of the responses from participants:

- Most of the words are easier said in English and Afrikaans than in Setswana;
- Speakers are more familiar with English than Setswana since English is an international language;
- This action disadvantages speakers and children as they grow up not knowing the exact expressions in the home language; and

- It distorts the language and creates a new variety of Setswana, which if unchecked, will go a long way in killing the language and defeat the purpose of the hard fought and hard earned struggle for freedom and equality in South Africa.

The results also revealed that internal and international migration, the advent of modern technology, intermarriages and lack of perfect equivalents for some scientific words in the language are some of the reasons why Setswana is adulterated not only by the youth but also by adults and migrants. Table 1 below shows examples of borrowing from English into Setswana.

Table 1: Borrowing (*maadingwa*) of words from English

Setswana	English
1. Dira ka speed (bonako)	Make it snappy
2. Just before tiro (Pele ga)	Just before work
3. Ke late (Ke thari)	I am late
4. Go na le meeting (kopano)	There is a meeting
5. Ke kopa di fruits (maungo)	May I have some fruits
6. Dira homework (tirogae)	Do your home work
7. Ga ona style (mokgwa)	You do not have a style
8. Ke nale room (phapusi)	I have a room
9. O tsamaya slow (ka bonya)	You are walking slowly
10. O fast thata (ka pela/bonako)	You are too fast
11. Mo fe toy (setshameki)	Give him / her a toy
12. Ke a i reminder (ikgopotsa)	I am reminding myself
13. O wrong (phoso)	You are wrong
14. Bel ya lla (tshipi)	The bell is ringing
15. Tsaya phensele (petleloto)	Give me a pencil
16. O stupid (sematla)	You are stupid
17. O na le girlfriend (lekgarabe)	He has a girlfriend
18. Ke concerned (tshwenyegile)	I am concerned
19. O na le nightmare (toro e e maswe)	I had a nightmare
20. Ke batla di sweets (dimonamone)	I want sweets
21. Ke na le headache (Opiwa ke tlhogo)	I have a headache
22. Ba go tshwaretse di news (dikgang)	They have news for you
23. O rata di excuses (maipato)	You like making excuses
24. Ke batla go ya toilet (ntlwaneng /ntloboithomelo)	I want to go to the toilet
25. Ke rata smile sa gago (monyebo)	I love your smile
26. Ke lemogile gore o pregnant lenna (imile)	I also noticed that she is pregnant
27. Ga o mphe chance (tšhono)	You are not giving me a chance

Table 2: Borrowing (*maadingwa*) and naturalisation of Afrikaans words into Setswana

Setswana	Afrikaans
1. *Askhis* (Maitshwarelo)	Askies (I am sorry)
2. Sekotlolo	Skottel / Skarfteen (Container, bowl)
3. Fenstere (Letlhabaphefo)	Venster (Window)
4. Digroente	Groente (vegetables)
5. Bakie	Baatjie (Jacket)
6. Katse	Kat (cat)
7. Toropo	Dorp (Town)
8. Pane	Paan (Pan)
9. Poresente	Genkenk (Present)
10. Polotiki	Politik (Politics)
11. Seterata	Straat (Street)
12. Hempe	Hemp (Shirt)
13. Setupu	Stoep (veranda)
14. Kamore	Kamer (Bedroom)
15. Furugu	Vroeg (Morning)
16. Jarata	Jaart (yard)
17. Tafole	Tafel (Table)
18. Setefo	Stoof (stove)
19. Waslapa	Waslap (face cloth)
20. Sesepa	Seep (soap)
21. Pere	Peer (pear)
22. Gartene	Gordyn (curtain)

Table 3: Naturalisation of English words in Setswana

Naturalised English words	Setswana equivalents
1. Coverile	Apesitse
2. Divegetables	Merogo
3. Koncentratile	Tlhwaile
4. Diblessings	Ditshegofatso/ tlhogonolofatso
5. Maka homework	Tshwaya tirogae
6. Statile	Simolotse
7. Foriji	Setsidifatsi
8. Checka	Lebelela/tlhola
9. Diholidays	Matsatsi a boikhutso
10. Classeng	Phapusiborutelo
11. Wa nchama	Wa nkgatla
12. Shaena	Phatsima
13. Betere	Botoka
14. Klina	(Afrikaans: skoon maak) phepafatsa / Siamisa
15. Khorekta	Theta
16. Breka	Dipholo
17. Botichere	Borutabana
18. Introjusa	Itsise
19. Suppota	Tshegetsa
20. Skipa	Tlola
21. Big houseng	Ntlong e kgolo / ntlong e tona
22. Difotho	Ditshwantsho
23. Khata	Kgaola

Table 4: Words relating to technology (borrowing and naturalisation from English)

English term	Setswana equivalent
1. Cell phone	Mogala wa letheka
2. Television	Thelebišene
3. Radio	Seyalemowa
4. Computer	Khompiuta
5. Internet	Inthanete
6. Sim card	Sim card
7. Battery	Legala
8. Charger	Chajara
9. Email address	Aterese ya imeile
10. Password	Khunulolamoraba
11. Personal computer	Khompiutha ya motho ka sebele
12. Laptop	Lepothopo
13. Telephone	Mogala / Thelefone
14. Universal Serial Bus (USB)	USB
15. Website	Webosaete
16. Log in	Go tsena
17. Log out	Go tswa
18. Compact Disc	Papetlapolokelo
19. Download	Go laisolola
20. Upload	Go laisa
21. Data	Tshedimosetso/ Datha
22. Mouse	Maose
23. Printer	Segatisi
24. Modem	Modeme
25. Scanner	Sekena
26. Print	Gatisa
27. Attachment	Mametlelelo
28. Monitor	Monithara
29. Operating system	Tsamaisotiriso
30. Portable Document Format (PDF)	PDF
31. Processor	Selaodi
32. Router	Routara
33. Server	Sefara
34. Virus	Mogare

Tables 1, 2, 3 and 4 show that even though there is borrowing and naturalisation of English and Afrikaans words into Setswana, all hope is not lost as there are standard Setswana equivalents for some of these concepts. A little effort from lexicographers and speakers of the language will go a long way in addressing these challenges.

The colonialists gave and still continue giving Africans the impression that African languages do not have the necessary and appropriate vocabulary to express and name concepts. Since most universities have departments of translation studies and interpretation, it is paramount that translators, interpreters and lexicographers consider working on appropriate equivalents in Setswana to name technological concepts in order to develop and grow Setswana. In so doing, the language will grow beyond its current borders and will not face threats of extinction.

It is through the combined efforts of parents, language researchers, teachers and students that Setswana will develop, grow and improve in status and maintain its role as the main language of Mmabatho, the Province as well as one of the official languages of the country. Borrowing, code switching, code mixing and the coining of new words are not bad in the growth and development of the language *per se*. It should be recalled that it is actually through borrowing from French, Latin, Italia, Spanish, Afrikaans, Arabic, Greek, Dutch, Swedish, among others that English has been able to grow by leaps and bounds and gain international status, recognition and used as a language of business and science. If borrowing and the 'nativisation' of words in Setswana would lead to its growth and development, efforts should be made to encourage new coinages and words that come closer to expressions and terms in English and Afrikaans, contrary to what scholars and language researchers have maintained that African languages have no words to express scientific terms and concepts.

The data also revealed that social factors dictate the use of a variety of a language. For academic purposes, one would accept the non-standard form of Setswana provided it assists in comprehension but in other settings (baptisms, weddings and funerals), the standard form of the language could be encouraged as a way of preserving, promoting and protecting the culture of the people. It emerged during the observations and participation in ceremonies that very minimal use of borrowing or code-switching is used during such events. Since these are purely traditional and cultural events, standard Setswana is preferred over street Setswana in an attempt to protect the language. Over time, Setswana could also grow by leaps and bounds just like English did, through borrowing and naturalisation, ensuring its survival and growth. It is thus, necessary to learn a communicative form of the language in order to survive. Alexander (2007: 7) maintains that, among other things, South Africans have "to guard against the petrification of the local languages into mere 'intangible heritage' and insist on seeing them as essential factors of Africa's development". In other words, they are just as much part of the future of Africa as they are of its past.

Recommendations

Given the likelihood and eminent decline of standard Setswana in Mmabatho in particular, and the North West Province in general, the following recommendations are advanced to save the language:
At a very early age, children should be reminded of the need to write and speak standard Setswana in order to safeguard it. Setswana language teachers should ensure that students do not code-switch or mix the language in order to result into what is commonly referred to as *chakalaka, coconut, mix-masala* and strive to speak the correct form of the language (Setswana *se se phepa,* Setswana *se se tlhapileng*).

Recommendations to ensure the constant survival and growth of Setswana as a mother tongue and one of the official languages of South Africa also includes conducting research on and documenting the language, collecting and publishing Setswana oral traditions with translations into the other official South African languages, organisation of sensitisation campaigns and cultural events to promote the use of

standard Setswana, translation of technical terms or expressions relating to technology and the need for migrants and non-Setswana-speaking couples to strive to speak the language as well teach it to children at home.
There is need to develop detailed terminology in the area of technology and specialised dictionaries in the language to address the issue of equivalents and pronunciation as is the case with isiNdebele.

Conclusion

“Language should not be seen as an end in itself but as a means to attaining comprehension in any given context” (Oketch and Banda, 2008: 10). Multilingualism is and will remain an integral feature of African reality (UNESCO, 2005). This thus, requires that all political, social, cultural, linguistic and educational planning should take into account the position of UNESCO (Chabata, 2008: 17). “Multilingualism is healthy, and, thus, should be nurtured” (Chabata, 2008: 18). Migration, intermarriages and the use of technology are good for the cultural enhancement and demographic growth of the city but should not endanger the growth and development of the language. Setswana should thus, be developed, promoted and preserved for its growth and to be handed over to future generations. Swilla (2008: 239) maintains that “the effective use of languages in communities is the best means of ensuring their survival and growth”. If the language is able to survive, there is a possibility that it will grow as well.

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The Interactive Method for Training Guangxi Medical University Professors Teaching Medicine by Using English as Medium of Instruction

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Abstract
Besides general ESL teaching in primary and secondary schools, universities, and adult education, training professionals for specific purposes is another alternative for thriving English language education in the rapidly changing era. However, very little research has been conducted for investigation of training medical professionals the effective EMI teaching of medicine. This paper reports the design and evaluation of the 2-week intensive course, which focused on enhancement of using English as medium of instruction (EMI) to teach medicine in different faculties, for 10 experienced professors, associate professors and lecturers from Guangxi Medical University located in South-western region of China in CUHK, SCS. The professionals came from Faculties of Anatomy, Biochemistry, Physiology, Microbiology, Pharmacy, Pathology, Epidemiology, Medical Statistics, ENT and Basic Medicine. As a pedagogical approach, basic methods for teaching medicine were taught and the professionals were required to implement two to three in their teaching practice, and then new methods such as Time-efficient ambulatory care teaching, Evidence-based medicine (EBM), Problem-based learning, Case-based reasoning (CBR), and New computer-based instructional programmes were introduced. Interactive method was employed as the participants had to finish some tasks through interaction, group discussion and brainstorming each lesson. While each of them presented 30-minute teaching medicine, the others played their roles as students. Whether this course is efficient -- all trainees participated in answering the questionnaire containing some questions in a 5-point scale, whereas some are open-ended for course assessment at the end. Hopefully, the findings benefit designing training courses to improve skills of professionals in other areas. (250 words).

Keywords: English as medium of instruction (EMI), teaching medicine, brainstorming，interactive, Time-efficient ambulatory care teaching, Evidence-based medicine (EBM), Problem-based learning, Case-based reasoning (CBR), New computer-based instructional programmes

1. Introduction

English as medium of instruction (EMI) is summarized as a growing global phenomenon by Dearden (2014), after she conducted EMI study in public and private primary schools, secondary schools and universities in 55 countries. According to the research of Galloway (2017), the major reasons for the rapid growth of EMI courses in higher institutions are EMI courses ensure the social and economic upward mobility of the graduates as well as many governments believed that EMI programmes improve both English proficiency and knowledge of subject content of the students. Due to the fact that 94 % of international research with high impact is published in English especially in the fields of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM), EMI courses in university enhance the students' writing of dissertation and publication of research papers. Meanwhile, some countries, such as China and Japan, expect to upgrade the quality of teaching and reputation of their universities, they recommend the academics to publish research papers in international English journals and attract more international English-speaking students from different parts of world. Besides general ESL teaching in primary and secondary schools, universities, and adult education, training professionals for specific purposes is another alternative for thriving English language education in the rapidly changing era.

This paper reports effectiveness of the tailored-made course, which focused on using English as medium of instruction (EMI) to teach medicine in different faculties, for ten experienced professors from Guangxi Medical University (GMU) in CUHK,SCS. The aims of the training course are to improve their English pronunciation, teaching plans, teaching methods and skills, oral presentation, and producing powerpoints (ppts) for teaching Mainland Chinese and international university students mainly from South East Asia studying medicine by using EMI. Although only ten professionals in the program, the impact of the two-week course affects the learning of medicine of thousands local and international students, who will become future medical doctors in hospitals in different countries, in the university located in the South-west region of China.

2.1. Design of the training course

As per discussion with the course coordinator, we understood the expectations of GMU for this training programme, and the background of the trainees. When we designed training course for medical professionals, the relevant vocabulary for the special areas, the new knowledge and ideas for the related topics and the appropriate approach of delivering messages through EMI should be under consideration. Formal classroom instruction in English (Huitt, 2003) was introduced for their reference and reflection of teaching medicine by EMI. Before teaching practice in class, each of them had to design a teaching plan with a special topic in his/her field. During preparation of the course, the only instructor, Dr. Sham had read 18 academic papers in international journals focusing on methods of teaching medicine, which were quite different from language teaching methods. Grasha's teaching styles with advantages and disadvantages, learning styles, teaching and learning style "Clusters" (Grasha, 1996) , as well as different teaching methods for more than ten were fully discussed (Vaughn & Baker, 2001). Lecturing by the instructor was just the first part of each lesson, there were interactions between participants and instructor, and the trainees were required to present orally by applying their specialism in medicine and the knowledge they had learnt for teaching medicine by using EMI. Therefore, interactive method involving initiative, brainstorming, creativity, and interaction from designing lesson plan to oral presentation of teaching medicine in specific areas with ppts was implemented. The design of the course including (I) Content of this course and (II) Activities are listed as follows:

(I) Content of this course

1. How to write a teaching plan in English?
2. Classroom instructions and Methods of teaching medicine
   Basic methods: Small group discussion, Role modeling, Role plays & concept mapping. New methods: Time-efficient ambulatory care teaching, Evidence-based medicine (EBM), Problem-solving learning, Case-based reasoning (CBR), New computer-based instructional programmes.etc…
3. Skills and visuals for oral presentation

(II) Activities:

1. Discussion, brainstorming and interaction with partners and the instructor for writing a lesson plan of teaching medicine in specific area by using EMI
2. Create a topic for teaching practice and the design of a lesson plan for 20-25 minutes for each one of the participants
3. Draft & format the objectives, procedure, activities, assessment & supplementary notes etc. in a formal lesson plan in English with attached ppts containing relevant scripts, pictures, photos and graphs, and even provide tapes and videos, and then hand in before teaching practice.
4. Teaching Practice: While one professional presents with ppts, the others play the role of students. Within the 20-25 minutes of each presentation, Q & A takes part in the last 5 minutes. After all participants finished their teaching practice, marks and comments are given by Dr. Sham, the only instructor, immediately.

2.2. The participants

In this two-week course in CUHK, SCS., there were six male and four female teacher learners ranking from Professor, Associate Professor to Lecturer in Guangxi Medical University (GMU). The professionals came from Faculties of Anatomy, Biochemistry, Physiology, Microbiology, Pharmacy, Pathology, Epidemiology, Medical Statistics, ENT and Basic Medicine. Their age varies: four are 41-50 years old and six belong to 31-40 age group. All of them have very strong academic background major in the specific areas in medicine and most of them had attended teacher training courses in local or overseas universities. Seven professionals have studied abroad in the famous universities in Europe and USA including Cambridge University, Harvard University, UCLA，Lancaster University，John Hopkins University，and Vuje Univerversiteit Brussel，except three without receiving overseas education. All participants are experienced teachers at the Medical University. Two most experienced professors have twenty-two years of teaching experience, whereas the youngest lecturers have only 2-3 years, and the rest are in between the two extremes. Besides teaching, one of them has been senior medical doctor in a hospital nearby. At the end of the training, each of them answered a both qualitative and quantitative questionnaire about the course.

2.3. The questionnaire

There are 38 questions in each questionnaire which is divided into the following seven sections:

A. Course Details
B. Personal Data
C. Design of the Course
D. Instructor's Performance
E. Teaching Methods
F. General Evaluation
G. Overall Comments

The quantitative data for the course evaluation are based upon Sections C to F, which contains 22 questions of 5-point scale: Strongly agree (SA, 5 marks), Agree (A, 4 marks), Neither Agree nor Disagree (NA, 3 marks), Disagree (D, 2 marks), Strongly Disagree (SD, 1 mark) from Q12 to Q34 with only one open-ended question in Q35. Whereas all three questions for Overall Comments are open-ended.

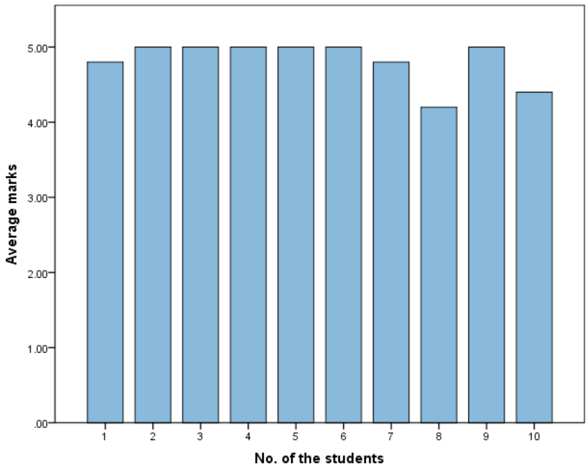
2.4. The results

Table 1. The Guangxi Medicine University (GMU) Medical Professionals' Evaluation of the Course Using English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) for Teaching Medicine

Descriptive Statistics

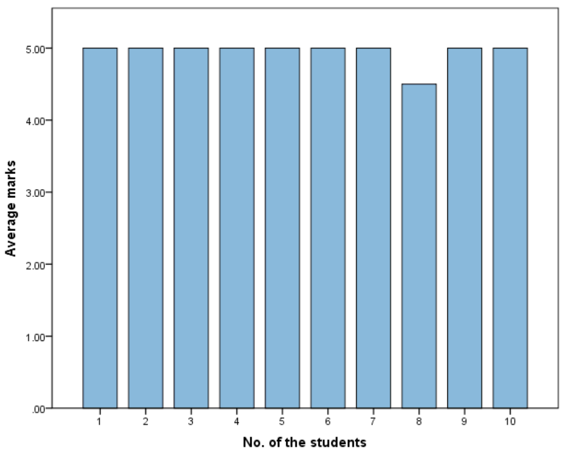
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Q12	10	4	5	4.90	.316	.100
Q13	10	4	5	4.60	.516	.267
Q14	10	4	5	4.80	.422	.178
Q15	10	4	5			.178
Q16	9	5	5	5.00	.000	.000
Q17	10	4	5	4.90	.316	.100
Q18	10	4	5	4.90	.316	.100
Q19	10	5	5	5.00	.000	.000
Q20	10	5	5	5.00	.000	.000
Q21	10	4	5	4.80	.422	.178
Q23	10	4	5	4.60	.516	.267
Q24	10	4	5	4.60	.516	.267
Q25	10	4	5	4.70	.483	.233
Q26	10	4	5	4.90	.316	.100
Q27	10	4	5	4.60	.516	.267
Q28	10	3	5	4.20	.632	.400
Q29	10	3	5	4.40	.699	.489
Q30	10	3	5	4.30	.675	.456
Q31	10	4	5	4.70	.483	.233
Q32	10	4	5	4.90	.316	.100
Q33	10	4	5	4.80	.422	.178
Q34	10	4	5	4.90	.316	.100
Valid N (listwise)	9					

The above table shows the assessment of the course highlighting teaching medicine using English as medium of instruction (EMI) by the academics from Guangxi Medicine University. In table 1, the number of participants is 10, but one teacher learner did not answer Q16 for evaluation of the training course of teaching medicine by using EMI. The highest marks for all questions listed above are 5 (Strongly Agree), whereas the lowest marks vary from 3 to 5. Both maximum and minimum of Q16, 19 and 20 are 5. It indicates that all teacher learners strongly agreed that the course was well-organized and practical, the instructor's English was good, fluent and clear, and she was enthusiastic in teaching and giving feedback positively. Meanwhile, the lowest scores for Q28, 29 and 30 are 3, which represents that some teacher learners neither agreed nor disagreed that they applied skills and visuals effectively with appropriate classroom instruction, had good appearance and appropriate body language in teaching presentation, and could tackle students' problems effectively in teaching practice. As the minimum for most questions are 4, it demonstrates the majority of the academic learners asserted with the major content of the questionnaire about the course evaluation. All the means are above 4 with the lowest 4.20, most above 4.60 and a 5 for Q20. Overall speaking, the professionals gave very high ratings on the evaluation of the training course. With one accord, they all strongly consented that Dr. Sham was enthusiastic in teaching and giving comments to the students' performance with positive attitude.



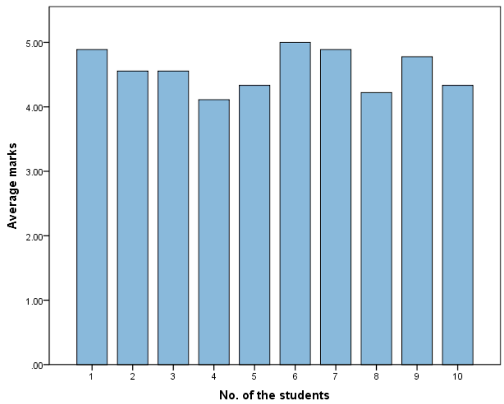
Graph 1. The Graph of the Guangxi Medicine University Academics' Average Scores for This Course Design

Representing Part C of the questionnaires, this graph indicates the average marks of this course design by the medical professionals of GMU. According to Graph 1, all learners gave marks above 4 and more than half up to 5 for the scores of the course design. In other word, the majority of professionals strongly consented and the other consented that the teaching materials help them to understand the course, and there were enough teaching materials. And also, the arrangement of different sections was appropriate, the time control was proper, as well as the course was well-organized and practical. As a whole, the feedback for this course design was very positive.



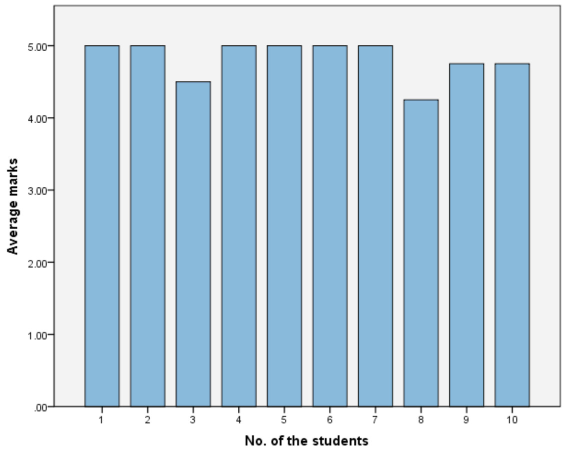
Graph 2. The Graph of the Guangxi Medicine University Medical Professionals' Evaluation of the Instructor's Performance

Furthermore, Graph 2 represents the evaluation of the instructor's performance in Part D by the Professors, Associate Professors and Lecturers of GMU in the course. In this graph, nine participants gave 5 marks while only one had 4, which means that the overwhelming majority of nine participants strongly agreed and only one agreed that the instructor's teaching style was innovative and creative as well as she enhanced interactive communication in the class. Meanwhile, the teacher's English was good, fluent and clear, and she was enthusiastic in teaching and giving feedback positively. All of the academics appreciated Dr. Sham's performance in the training programme.



Graph 3. The Graph of the Guangxi Medicine University Academics' average marks on Teaching Methods of this course

In the above graph, we report the average scores on Part E concerning the teaching methods of the course by the participants. It is clear that all scores on teaching methods of this course are above 4 as one score reaches 5. The assessment of teaching methods is divided into two parts containing I. Lecture; II. Teaching Practice. For Part I, most of the academics from Guangxi Medicine University agreed or even strongly agreed that the ppts, samples, notes and activities helped them to understand the topics, and the lectures strengthened their confidence in teaching medicine by English. They learned to think independently through designing teaching plan and ppts, as well as they could apply the knowledge and generate new ideas through teaching plan and practice. When concerning Part II for teaching practice, some strongly attested and most attested that they had clear objectives and overall planning in teaching after the lectures. From that time on, they had more confidence in teaching medicine using EMI in their department. Through teaching practice, they applied skills and visuals effectively with appropriate classroom instructions, had good appearance and appropriate body language in teaching presentation, and also could tackle students' problems effectively. The majority of medical professionals felt very satisfied and some satisfied with both the lecture by Dr. Sham and teaching practice for all learners in teaching methods.



Graph 4. The graph of general evaluation on this course by Guangxi Medicine University participants

Moreover, Graph 4 demonstrates the general evaluation of this course in Part F by the medical professionals. As six of them scored 5, the rest were 4 or above. That means six academics strongly consented and four of them consented that they could apply what they had learnt in this course, which was different from traditional teaching style, matched their expectations and was useful in their future work or study. In other words, they got the benefits from this course for teaching medicine through EMI from the past expectations, the present knowledge and teaching practice to the future work or study. Besides, all the professionals agreed that the course was different from the traditional teaching style as it was vivid and interactive in Q.35 of this section which led to the overall comments.

Lastly, each participant answered three open-ended questions for overall comments in the last section of the questionnaire regarding A. Uniqueness of this course, B. Which part of this course benefits you most? and C. Inspiration from this course. The academics' responses are categorized in the following table (Table 2).

Table 2. Overall Comments of Training Course for Teaching Medicine by Using English as Medium of Instruction

A. Uniqueness of this course	No.	Sex (age group)	Percentage
1. The course is very interesting & useful	2	M(II),F(I)	20%
2. Teacher sums up her experience & all teaching skills in an effective way	2	F(I),F(II)	20%
3. Give very useful comments to everyone after presentation in details	2	M(I),F(II)	20%
4. Great! Professional background, teaching experience & medical knowledge of Dr. Sham	1	M (I)	10%
5. The teaching style is innovative & creative	1	M(II)	10%
6. Systematic training including oral skills, presentation & teaching plan	1	M(I)	10%
7. A well-designed lecture, abundant education theories with very professional comments	1	M(I)	10%
B. Which part of this course benefits you most?			
1. Oral presentation skills &How to use powerpoints (ppts) effectively	4	M(I),M(I), F(I)&F(II)	40%
2. Benefits from the whole course: Teaching plan, skills & visuals for oral presentation & teaching practice	2	M(I),F(I)	20%
3. Comments and feedback after presentation in teaching practice	1	M(II)	10%
4. How to enhance enthusiastic expressions & give feedback positively in teaching	1	M(II)	10%
5. Communication & interaction	1	M(I)	10%
6. Pronunciation & teaching plan	1	F(II)	10%
C. Inspiration from this course			
1. Systematic teaching method: well-organized ppts, pronunciation, skills, teaching plan with teaching practice	3	M(II),F(I)& F(I)	30%
2. Mimic a real teaching: Everyone has a presentation applying the learned skills	3	M(I),F(II)&F(II)	30%
3. Learn not only how to teach international students, but also all other students	1	M(I)	10%
4. A lot of inspiration: e.g. well-designed lecture employing media & teaching well is effective	1	M(I)	10%
5. The assessment & comments are useful & very detailed	1	M(I)	10%
6. Dr. Sham gives me feedback positively	1	M(II)	10%

Concerning the uniqueness of this course, 20% of the participants described that the course was very interesting and useful; another 20% reported that the teacher summed up her experience & all teaching skills in an effective way as well as same percentage of participants pointed out that she gave very useful comments to everyone after presentation in details. 10% appreciated Dr. Sham as “Great!” because of her professional background, teaching experience and medical knowledge as another 10% treated her teaching style as innovative and creative. Meanwhile, 10% thought that this course was systematic training including oral skills, presentation and teaching plan, and 10% described it as well-designed lecture, abundant education theories with very professional comments are the uniqueness.

When being asked which part of this course benefited most, 40% of class, which contained two males in age group (I), and two females as one in age group (I) another in age group (II), agreed that the section should be Oral presentation skills and How to use powerpoints (ppts) effectively. One male and one female aged 31-40 (Age group I) medical professionals showed that they benefit from the whole course: Teaching plan, skills and visuals for oral presentation and teaching practice. As one male academic pointed out that comments and feedback after presentation in teaching practice, another one in the same age group (41-50 years old) preferred the section for How to enhance enthusiastic expressions and give feedback positively in teaching. Communication and interaction to one male participant aged 31-40 while pronunciation and teaching plan to one female of 41-50 years old were the most beneficial parts.

However, 30% of the medical professionals mentioned the systematic teaching method producing well-organized powerpoints, good pronunciation, oral presentation skills, teaching plan with teaching practice, while another 30% treasured the mimic of a real teaching -- Everyone had a presentation applying the learned skills as the inspiration from this course. One male aged 31-40 participant (10%) had learned not only how to teach international students, but also all other students. Meanwhile, another male of the same age group (10%) had a lot of inspiration: e.g. well-designed lecture employing media is effective. 10% stated the assessment and comments were useful and very detailed, whereas another 10% pointed out that Dr. Sham gave him feedback positively were the inspiration.

3. Conclusion

In sum, the systematic training course employing interactive method for the professionals teaching medicine using English as medium of instruction (EMI) with rich content consisting of writing lesson plan, classroom instructions, the relevant methods of teaching medicine, skills and visuals for oral presentation and teaching practice for every participant providing the instructor's useful comments is very effective. For the evaluation of the course, the medical professionals gave very high scores. When commenting on the performance of the only instructor, Dr. Sham, they all strongly attested that she was enthusiastic, knowledgeable with a lot of teaching experience and giving comments to the students' performance positively. Therefore, the whole class felt satisfied for what they had learned from the lecture and valuable comments of the instructor for their teaching practice. Furthermore, this course for teaching medicine through EMI matched their past expectations, and the present knowledge and teaching practice benefit their future work or study.

Comparatively speaking, the teaching style of this course was different from traditional teaching formats as it was unique, vivid and interactive. Some academics benefited from what they learned about skills and use of ppts for oral presentation during teaching, while others benefited from the whole course. For the inspiration from this course, the majority of the professors either mentioned the systematic teaching method producing well-organized powerpoints, good pronunciation, oral presentation skills, teaching plan with teaching practice, or chose the real classroom teaching applying the learned skills.

Besides the questionnaire, here is another evidence demonstrating the benefits of this course. One year after this training course, a young and brilliant professor sent an email giving thanks to Dr. Sham about having received three championships and awards as “Outstanding teacher” in a number of National Teaching Competitions in China as result of what he had learned from Dr. Sham in this training programme.

For those interested in training professionals how to use EMI for their teaching, study and work, the trainers should understand the needs of clients first. And also, they are recommended to be well prepared for the related theories, new knowledge and vocabulary in English applicable in special areas in the target professions. Creating a vivid atmosphere and applying interactive method facilitate the trainees’ professional development and learning. Moreover, having a well-organized course design providing both lecture for teaching new knowledge and skills, and practice assembling real situation which employs what they have learned, of course, professional and useful assessment and comments for their presentation from the instructors are necessary. After attending the programme, if the learners feel satisfied, find the course matched with their expectations, and will benefit their future work or study, that means this is a successful EMI training course.

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An Analysis of English Reading Comprehension and Reading Strategies through Google Translator of Loei Rajabhat University Students

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Abstract

This research aims to analyze how much the basic-proficient students can comprehend by using Google translator and to investigate reading strategies while the students use the support of Google Translator translated from English to Thai. The subject comprised of 50 students who enrolled in English for Communication (0001102) in the first semester of the academic year 2016 and were selected by using purposive sampling technique scored at the basic proficiency in English.The research instruments were the reading Pre-test, before using Google Translator and Post-test, after using Google Translator, the two parts of questionnaire – general information and strategies used according to Anderson's principles (1991). After obtaining the data, mean of the scores was compared by the T-Test. For the questionnaire, SPSS windows were used to compute frequency, percentage, mean,standard deviation and some other descriptive statistic tasks. The results of this research were revealed as follows;Firstly, from the translation of Google translator, the students are able to access the lexical meaning and understand the whole at basic level. The level of the comprehension is increased after using Google translator at the T. value of 7.765 and the means before using is 1.52 and after using Google translator is 3.52.In addition, with the use of Google translator, the students can comprehend the passage at the level of literal comprehension according to Smith's Reading Comprehension level (1982). Secondly,it shows that the students 50% mainly "sometimes" use reading strategies in the step of supervision, support supervision, paraphrase, maintenance strategies of textual coherence, schema-oriented strategies and program usage strategies while using Google translator.

Keywords: Google Translator, Reading Strategies, Level of Reading Comprehension

Introduction

In an academic field, reading is inevitable for the students. However, by reference to the research of reading English. In Thailand, we are unable to reject that Google Translator plays a very vital role for the readers, especially with the basic skill of the readers in English. Even Google Translator has not been suitable with every text and situations, the readers mostly accept that they use it in order to support reading to get a quick and rough understanding. Free service of Google Translator is considered to be the best alternative for them because it can assist them to understand more quickly. Therefore, this program is used in a widespread range and there is no exception for the students who need to do the assignments in English subject. Nevertheless, most of the students are unable to read comprehensively due to their background of English is in the basic level. What can be seen is that their assignments are completed by the copy and paste method. It is appeared that they could not understand perfectly in what they have read. As a result, they cannot develop their English reading skill from the assignments. In order to reinforce English reading skill for the low-proficient students who always use the Google translator to complete their assignments in English, I have a concept of analyzing how much they can understand by the helping of Google translator because they have a very limited knowledge about vocabularies, grammar and so on. This is to be the resource to find out more about the method that can develop their reading skills from Google translator.

The Objectives of the Research

1. To analyze the level of the comprehension of the basic-proficient students when reading English and using the support of Google translator program translated from English to Thai
2. To investigate reading strategies while the students reading and using the support of Google translator translated from English to Thai.

Research Questions

1. In what level of the reading comprehension Google translator can be able to help the basic-proficient students.
2. What reading strategies do the basic-proficient students employ while using Google translator

Literature Review

Reading Strategies

Reading strategies means the methods we have chosen carefully in order to achieve the goal in reading. The strategies of reading can be related to the information of the message and to what we have already known about the that topic. The proficient reader can be able to employ the information in order to comprehend the specific text in a more deeply method. The reader will employ the background knowledge and experiences in order to apply the message and build up in their own understanding or probably to solve the solution and related from the reading experiences to the next message. The strategies is a consciousness and careful thinking and can be able to supervise, evaluate and sometimes it’s a concealed method and become the reader’s skills and finally were used automatically (Paris, Wasik & Turner, 1991 Garner, Macready, and Wagoner)

Anderson (2002) introduced the effective strategies in order to develop ones' own comprehension as follows;

- Scanning reading method in order to find the specific information and the reader need to read the text quickly and don't need to read every word, the reader may pause to find the needed information.
- Predicting, the readers need to guess the whole content from the titles and guess what's the text about.
- Using Subtitles , the readers need to apply the knowledge from the topic and the subtitles to predict the main idea provided in the text
- Skimming, the reader need to read the text quickly and skip the unknown words or the readers need to read all the words quickly just to know the rough main idea from the text.
- To realize the order of the situation, days and times are probably shown by the words, first, next, then, later, finally or today. To know these kinds of words may support the reader to perceive the information they need quickly.
- To indicate the main idea of each paragraph, each paragraph provide the main idea which to give the important information. Mostly, the first sentence and the second sentence of each paragraph mostly to give the whole main idea of the text.

Anderson's Reading Strategies (1991)

According to Anderson's reading strategies (1991), the strategies is not only to know them but the readers need to know how to use those strategies, then, they can be able to combine with their own strategies and apply those principle. The readers who know how to use the strategies tend to understand more. To categorize each strategies, Anderson (1991) just adjusts and introduce 26 items and to apply with this research.
The strategies in the steps of the Supervision

1. To realize that we are unable to understand
2. To aware we are unable to understand some part of the text
3. To aware that we can understand some part of the text
4. To adjust the rapid of the reading for comprehension
5. To ask the questions
6. To predict the meaning of the words and some content of the text
7. To refer to the vocabulary's list which is hard to understand
8. To confirm the summary
9. To refer to the lining previous text.
10. To improve their own strategies of their own

The strategies in the step of the support

11. To skip the unknown words
12. To realize that they need the dictionary or the translation to support
13. To be able to find the specific words

The strategies in the step of the paraphrase

14. To use the same roots between L1 and L2 in order to make understanding
15. To categorize the vocabulary in the group
16. L1 To translate the words into the first language
17. To summarize the reading text.

The step of the maintenance strategies of textual coherence

18. To read repeatedly
19. To predict the words from the context
20. To read forward quickly

The Schema-oriented Strategies

21. To use the world knowledge
22. To realize that they have no background knowledge
23. To relate with their own background knowledge
24. To predict the presented information from the text
25. To predict without any clues

In order to investigate, how do the reader use the Google translator with the strategies? Because all step of the strategies might work simultaneously which cannot exactly divide as one method.

The Level of the Reading of Comprehension

We can divide the level of the reading by the objectives and the proficiency of the reader who can understand the text. Smith(1982) divides the comprehension in four levels as follows:

1. Literal comprehension is to perceive the literal meaning of the words from the dictionary. We can perceive the meaning by having no interpretation or reading between the line.
2. The interpretation, in this level, the meaning is not a literal meaning but the reader has to try to understand the real implication without a direct statement. The readers also need to read and think of what is not appearing in the line and need an additional skills; for example, to interpret from the picture, to compare and contrast, to put the situation in order, to find the cause and reason, to catch the main idea, to predict, to summarize, to comprehend the characters and to understand the writer's objectives.
3. Critical reading, this level of the reading is to differentiate the fact and to analyze and evaluate what they have read. In order to approach the level of the critical reading, the reader firstly need to understand the literal meaning, to understand the meaning from the interpretation, after they interpret, they have to compare the meaning with their own background knowledge. They also need the criteria to evaluate the meaning and decide that they will accept or believe or not. Moreover, they need to adjust the structure of their knowledge and their attitude according to what they have read.

4. Creative Reading, to read with the comprehension is not only to adjust the information structure or the attitude but also to bring the knowledge to employ in the different situation properly. In the process of education, the students might not bring the concept to use certainly ;for example, the appreciation of the literature, this process might not happen suddenly but their appreciation might happen after a year.

Machine Translation

Google translator is outstanding in the group of machine translation. It is different from other form of the translation because it can be evaluated by the statistic system. Lima (2011) stated that Google Translator is the most efficient tool in the translation machine "Our System takes a different approach: we feed the computer billions of words of text, both monolingual text in the target language, and aligned text consisting of examples of human translations between the languages. They apply statistical learning techniques to build a translation model.

Above all, Google translator is different from other kind of machine translation. The system will be installed more than thousand words and messages in target language. All the messages will be arranged by the users between the languages. So, we can apply the method of learning and the statistics in order to set the format of the translation which is assessed in the fair level.

Limitations of Machine Translation

The problems of the machine translator are the language structure such as tense, preposition, semantics or pragmatic or the unclear vocabulary. When talking about Machine translation, no matter how much software of the translation effective, it can't replace the skillful professional translator. The reason why the Google translator have no efficiency like a human are because some words have various meaning depend on the context which make the translation unclear. It is not important the computer work rapidly or not. The main problem is not about the electronic but it is the linguistic problem. The most difficult format of the program is to arrange and to match the word in each language from a ton of vocabulary and idiom provided in the system. (Hutchins,2003)

These are some example of errors found in translation from English to Thai:

English Text

One of my favorite vacation places is Mexico. I really like the weather there because it never gets cold. The people are very nice too. They never laugh at my bad Spanish. The food is really good. Mexico City is a very interesting place to visit. It has some great museums and lots of fascinating old buildings. The hotels are too expensive to stay but there are more affordable options. For example, you can stay at one of the beach resorts like Acapulco. If you are planning to visit Mexico, you should definitely see the Mayan temples near Merida.

Translated Text from English to Thai

หนึ่งในสถานที่พักผ่อนที่ชื่นชอบของฉันคือเม็กซิโก ผมชอบสภาพอากาศที่นั่นเพราะมันไม่เคยได้รับเย็นคนที่มีความดีมากเกินไป พวกเขาไม่เคยหัวเราะเยาะสเปนไม่ดีของฉัน อาหารเป็นสิ่งที่ดีจริงๆ เม็กซิโกซิตี้เป็นสถานที่ที่น่าสนใจมากที่จะเยี่ยมชม มันมีพิพิธภัณฑ์ที่ดีบางอย่างและจำนวนมากของอาคารเก่าแก่ที่น่าสนใจ โรงแรมที่มีราคาแพงเกินไปที่จะอยู่ แต่มีตัวเลือกราคาไม่แพงมาก ตัวอย่างเช่นคุณสามารถเข้าพักที่หนึ่งในรีสอร์ทริมชายหาดเช่น Acapulco หากคุณกำลังวางแผนที่จะไปเม็กซิโกคุณแน่นอนควรจะเห็นวัดของชาวมายันที่อยู่ใกล้ Merida

From the above translation, the common error found on the Google translator was the collocation “get cold” in which every word was translated separately from each other. That being the case, “get” and “cold” was translated into “ได้รับเย็น,” making the translation of the entire sentence awkward and unnatural. Another example is when the sentence was not put in a correct order; however, it is understandable after it was translated. “Lots of fascinating old buildings” is one of those examples as its translation reads “มันมีพิพิธภัณฑ์ที่ดีบางอย่างและจำนวนมากของอาคารเก่าแก่ที่น่าสนใจ” – which makes perfect sense, despite the disarrangement of these words.

Research Methodology

Research Design

Quasi-Experimental design in the form of Pre-test Post-test is used to compare the results before and after the use of a Google translator. A research methodology is divided into the following steps:

Step 1 - Conduct a test to identify a group of students whose English skills are at the pre-intermediate level. A Pre-test will be employed to select 50 students whose scores are considered to be low and below average. The reason why students whose English skills are above average (intermediate, good, and excellent) will not be chosen for this study is because students of these levels can read information comprehensibly without the use of a Google Translator. All research participants will be drawn from a group of students who have a low level of reading comprehension since they do not sufficiently possess vocabulary and grammar knowledge. Therefore, this research population will elucidate to what extent the use of Google Translator can increase their comprehension.

Step 2 - Take a reading test comprised of a given paragraph to gauge the level of reading comprehension without using a Google translator toolkit.

Step 3 - Take a reading test comprised of the same paragraph as given in Step 2 by using a Google translator toolkit.
Step 4 – Complete a questionnaire on the impact of reading strategies on the level of comprehension. The questionnaire is modified in parallel with that of Anderson (1991).

Step 5 – Compare the scores before and after the use of a Google Translator toolkit in an attempt to identify the changes in the level of comprehension before and after the use of Google Translator in line with set objectives.

Step 6 – Analyze information gleaned from the aforementioned questionnaire completed with the assistance of Google Translator.

Step 7 – Analyze the results before and after the use of a Google Translator, so as to identify the increasing level of comprehension following the use of Google Translator, as well as to find the mean of the differences.

Group	Pre -test	Treatment	Post-test
Experiment	T1	X	T2

Figure 1: One Group Pre-test Post-test Design

Symbols used in One Group Pre-test Post-test Design
T1 denotes a test before the use of a translation tool.
X denotes a test with the use of Google Translator.
T2 denotes a test after the use of Google Translator.

Population and Sample Group

The population used in this study is comprised of 50 basic-proficiency in English Students of Loei Rajabhat University students (Normal Program), all of whom enrolled in the English for Communication course. Subsequently, a Purposive Sampling method will be used to select a group of 50 students whose scores are considered to be low after taking pre-intermediate reading tests.

Research Instruments

Pre-test will be used to select a group of students who are low-proficient readers of English,10 items of pre-and-post using google translator test to find out level of comprehension according to Smith(1982) , the 28 items of questionnaire under 6 strategies according to Anderson (1991)

Findings

	N	$\bar{x}$ (10)	SD	T	Sig.
Before the use of Google Translator	50	1.52	0.931	7.765	.000
After the use of Google Translator	50	3.52	1.515		

Figure 2: **The means and standard deviations show the statistics of a dependent t-test, comparing the scores before and after the use of Google Translator by a group of students.**

The data from Table 9 show that the average score of students prior to the use of a Google Translator is 1.52 out of 10, with the standard deviation standing at 0.931 percent. However, after the use of Google Translator, students get a higher average score of 3.52, with the standard deviation standing at 1.536 percent. The T score equals 7.765, while the Sig. (2 tailed) value is .000, which is less than the significance level (.005). In conclusion, it can be extrapolated that the scores before and after the lesson are correlated.

Questions Number #	Number of students who provide correct answers prior to the use of GT (%) (N=50)	Number of students who provide correct answers after the use of GT (%) (N=50)	Difference
1	2 (4%)	10 (20%)	8 (16%)
2	35 (70%)	42 (84%)	7 (14%)
3	4 (8%)	20 (40%)	16 (32%)
4	4 (8%)	26 (52%)	22 (44%)
5	0 (0%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
6	2 (4%)	3 (6%)	1 (2%)
7	1 (2%)	15 (30%)	14 (28%)
8	13 (26%)	36 (72%)	23 (46%)
9	8 (16%)	12 (24%)	4 (8%)
10	10 (20%)	13 (26%)	3(6%)
Average of correct answers	16%	33%	17%

Figure 3: The number of students who provide correct answers to each question when Google Translator is used to assist with their reading comprehension.

The data from Table 10 show 70 percent of the students provide correct answers to question number 2 prior to the use of GT, while 26 percent of them provide correct answers to question number 8. 20 percent of them provide correct answers to question number 10. It should also be noted that none of the students are able to provide correct answers to question number 5. On the other end, following the use of Google Translator, 84 percent of the students are able to provide correct answers to question number 2, while 72 percent of them are able to provide correct answers to question number 8. 52 percent of them also answer question number 4 correctly. Nonetheless, only 2 percent of the students is able to provide correct answers to question number 5.

Reading Strategies	Frequency of Reading Strategies in Conjunction with the Use of Google Translator (Percent)						Meaning	SD
	Never (1)	Almost Never (2)	Sometimes (3)	Fairly Often (4)	Very Often (5)	Mean		
Supervision								
1. What Google Translator translates can help students understand what they read	1 (2%)	1 (2%)	12 (24%)	31 (62%)	5 (10%)	3.76	Often	0.744
2. Students can identify the parts that they understand and do not understand when they make use of Google Translator	1 (2%)	2 (4%)	26 (52%)	18 (36%)	3 (6%)	3.40	Sometimes	0.756
3. Google Translator helps to improve students' reading speed.	3 (6%)	0 (0%)	17 (34%)	28 (56%)	2 (4%)	3.52	Often	0.839
4. Students can raise additional questions when it comes to the topics that they read.	1 (2%)	4 (8%)	20 (40%)	25 (50%)	0 (0%)	3.38	Sometimes	0.725
5. Students can predict the content of the articles they read.	0 (0%)	4 (8%)	25 (50%)	18 (36%)	3 (6%)	3.40	Sometimes	0.728
6. Students can guess the meaning of vocabulary from the context they read.	0 (0%)	3 (6%)	26 (52%)	20 (40%)	1 (2%)	3.38	Sometimes	0.635

Reading Strategies	Frequency of Reading Comprehension Strategies in Conjunction with the Use of Google Translator (Percent)						Meaning	SD
	Never (1)	Almost Never (2)	Sometimes (3)	Fairly Often (4)	Very Often (5)	Mean		
Support								
7. Students skip the vocabulary that they do not know while reading for comprehension.	4 (8%)	5 (10%)	22 (44%)	14 (28%)	5 (10%)	3.22	Sometimes	1.036
8. When Google Translator cannot provide comprehensible translation, students attempt to look for extra definitions from either electronic or online dictionaries.	1 (2%)	5 (10%)	15 (30%)	24 (48%)	5 (10%)	3.54	Fairly Often	0.885

Reading Strategies	Frequency of Reading Comprehension Strategies in Conjunction with the Use of Google Translator (Percent)						Meaning	SD
	Never (1)	Almost Never (2)	Sometimes (3)	Fairly Often (4)	Very Often (5)	Mean		
Paraphrase								
9. Students connect words that they know in Thai with those in English; for instance, Fire – ไฟ and Rim – ริม.	3 (6%)	8 (16%)	23 (46%)	16 (32%)	0 (0%)	3.04	Sometimes	0.856

10. Students can identify the form of each vocabulary such as noun, verb, and adverb.	4 (8%)	7 (14%)	22 (44%)	16 (32%)	1 (2%)	3.06	Sometimes	0.935
11. Students instantaneously know that a message is translated into Thai correctly.	2 (4%)	7 (14%)	17 (34%)	22 (44%)	2 (4%)	3.30	Sometimes	0.909
12. Students can summarize overall points when they finish reading.	5 (10%)	4 (8%)	17 (34%)	23 (46%)	1 (2%)	3.22	Sometimes	0.996

Reading Strategies	Frequency of Reading Comprehension Strategies in Conjunction with the Use of Google Translator (Percent)						Meaning	**SD**
	Never (1)	Almost Never (2)	Sometimes (3)	Fairly Often (4)	Very Often (5)	Mean $\bar{x}$		
Maintenance Strategies of Textual Coherence								
13. Students attempt to review the content after using Google Translator.	1 (2%)	7 (14%)	9 (18%)	31 (62%)	2 (4%)	3.52	Fairly Often	0.863
14. Students attempt to predict the story based on the context while using Google Translator.	1 (2%)	4 (8%)	20 (40%)	25 (50%)	0 (0%)	3.50	Fairly Often	0.886
15. Students stop reading and use Google Translator each time they do not understand the content.	1 (2%)	8 (16%)	19 (38%)	18 (36%)	4 (8%)	3.32	Sometimes	0.913

Reading Strategies	Frequency of Reading Comprehension Strategies in Conjunction with the Use of Google Translator (Percent)						Meaning	SD
	Never (1)	Almost Never (2)	Sometimes (3)	Fairly Often (4)	Very Often (5)	Mean $\bar{x}$		
Schema-Oriented Strategies								
16. Students connect the content with their personal experience while reading for comprehension with the help of Google Translator.	3 (6%)	4 (8%)	22 (44%)	19 (38%)	2 (4%)	3.26	Sometimes	0.899
17. Students are aware that they do not have the experience-based knowledge of the story they read while using Google Translator.	5 (10%)	3 (6%)	25 (50%)	15 (30%)	2 (4%)	3.12	Sometimes	0.961
18. Students guess the definition of words by not taking anything into consideration.	2 (4%)	17 (34%)	17 (34%)	11 (22%)	3 (6%)	2.92	Sometimes	0.986
19. Students believe everything Google Translator provides without taking anything into consideration.	4 (8%)	16 (32%)	16 (32%)	11 (22%)	3 (6%)	2.86	Sometimes	0.986

Reading Strategies	Frequency of Reading Comprehension Strategies in Conjunction with the Use of Google Translator (Percent)						Meaning	SD
	Never (1)	Almost Never (2)	Sometimes (3)	Fairly Often (4)	Very Often (5)	Mean $\bar{x}$		
Google Translator (Program Usage Strategies)								
20. Students attempt to switch the order of sentences to increase their comprehension while using Google Translator.	1 (2%)	4 (8%)	19 (38%)	20 (40%)	6 (12%)	3.52	Fairly Often	0.886
21. Students attempt to guess the story when Google Translator cannot make sense of the context.	1 (2%)	4 (8%)	21 (42%)	19 (38%)	5 (10%)	3.46	Sometimes	0.862
22. Students translate short messages– one sentence at a time.	4 (8%)	4 (8%)	19 (38%)	17 (34%)	6 (12%)	3.34	Sometimes	1.062

23. Students translate easy-to-understand messages by starting with main topics.	2 (4%)	3 (6%)	19 (38%)	22 (44%)	4 (8%)	3.46	Sometimes	0.885
24. Students attempt to omit non-lexical utterances before using a translation program.	6 (12%)	6 (12%)	18 (36%)	18 (36%)	2 (4%)	3.08	Sometimes	1.066
25. Students attempt to change words or sentences until they find appropriate ones when they realize the translated sentences do not correspond to the context.	0 (0%)	10 (20%)					Sometimes	0.756
26. If students would like to translate many words, they will type one word and hit enter after each word.	5 (10%)	10 (20%)	18 (36%)	14 (28%)	3 (6%)	3.00	Sometimes	1.069
27. Prior to using Google Translator, students are aware of either direct or connotative definitions of those words.	2 (4%)	12 (24%)	21 (42%)	14 (28%)	1 (2%)	3.00	Sometimes	0.881
28. Prior to using the translation, students review all sentences before and after they are translated by Google Translator.	2 (4%)	5 (10%)	17 (34%)	20 (40%)	6 (12%)	3.46	Sometimes	0.973

Figure 4 : Mean, Percentile, and Standard Deviation for Reading Comprehension Strategies in Conjunction with the Use of Google Translator in Each Step

From the table above, the result indicates that most student agree that Google translator help them to adjust their reading. Apart from that, the students 50% try to ask additional questions while reading and help google translator some part of it. Moreover, 36% can be able to guess the context of the text in order to support supervision. In additional, the students 48% mostly find the additional from electronic vocabulary or online dictionary in order to help understanding. In part of the step of paraphrase, most students summarize their own comprehension generally 46%. In the step of maintenance strategies of textual coherence, most students try to review after using Google translator. While using Google translator, most of the student try to guess from the context. In part of the level of schema oriented strategies, most of the student try to connect the content with their personal experience while reading for comprehension with the help of Google Translator. For program usage strategies, most of the students attempt to switch the order of sentences to increase their comprehension while using. Some of the students would like to translate many words, they will type one word and hit enter after each word. Least of the student aware that prior to using Google Translator, students are aware of either direct or connotative definitions of those words. Moreover, the student attempt to review the context after using GT and to predict the story in the maintenance strategies of textual coherence because they have no linguistic knowledge , so they tend to use their world knowledge during the process of reading. Also , they seem not to believe everything GT have translated.

Discussion and Conclusion

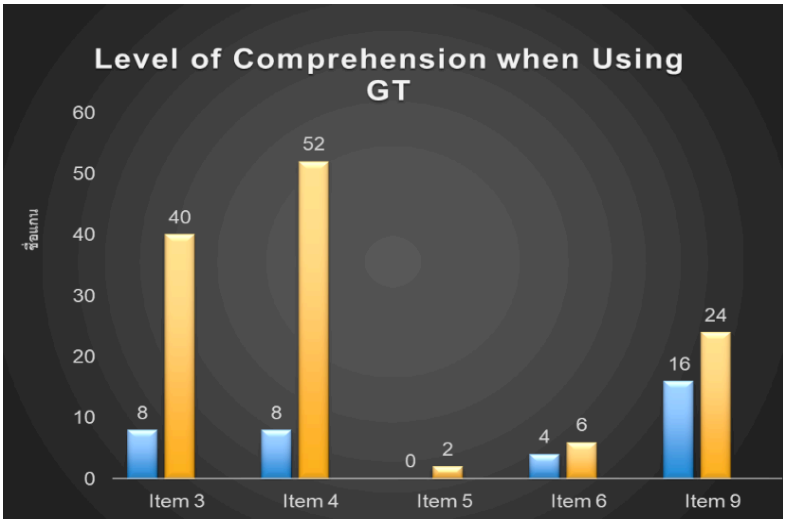

Figure 5: The Level of Comprehension when Using Google translator

The students get a higher score in comprehension after using GT, even when they have no linguistic knowledge. It can be extrapolated that the use of GT can make the students who have a basic English language skill understand the text partly -- the results of which are similar to the previous research. Karna and Vanmacher (2013) who explore GT on the translation of Chinese and English into Portuguese found that 62% can understand more than half of the text because, despite the fact that most of them do not have knowledge in either linguistics or culture. It was claimed that it is possible to use GT to aid in students' reading ability as it shows that their comprehension just reaches the level of "literal meaning" (Smith,1982). They tend to get a lower score in the items needed to be interpreted, or to be critical in item 5 and item 6. It can be stated that critical reading remains a common problem among Thai students. Moreover, they use "background knowledge" to aid in their comprehension in addition to using GT, so as to be able to answer the questions. As a result, although GT contributes to a mismatch in words, the students manage to use some strategies which involve predicting to help them to read and developing reading skills by guessing main ideas from titles, subtitles or pictures (Anderson,2002). In item 3, the difference value in the level of comprehension before and after using GT is 32%. This is because GT is able to translate clearly, and the students can get answers by the method of scanning. So, it needs only "literal comprehension" to answer the questions. In item 4, it increases by 44%, as the word "engage" has various meanings. In order to answer this question correctly, they need to take the context into consideration too. However, it shows that 40% of the students who provide wrong answers automatically choose the first meaning. This explains why they should not trust everything GT provides without due consideration. Also, it may be possible that the students are confused by the various meanings of those words. In item 5, the readers need the comprehension in the level of "Interpretation" because they cannot get the answer by just scanning. In item 6, only 6% can interpret it by means of using GT. In item 9, the question asks about the meaning of "play down" from the context. We know that "play down" is a phrasal verb which denotes "to downplay or to make things less important." Students also need a critical reading ability to evaluate and analyze the meaning because the GT did not give this meaning in Thai correctly. Most of the students choose the answer that translates "to play down the field" into

"ลงเล่นในสนาม" literally without any consideration from the context given. as Coady (1997) stated that the phrasal verb has a completely unpredictable nature, which is very difficult to understand and memorize for non-English speakers. With regard to the reading strategies in each step, 50% of the students use reading strategies in the step of supervision, support, paraphrase, maintenance strategies of textual coherence, schema-oriented strategies and program usage strategies based on Anderson (1991), while using GT. However, it probably indicated that there is no exact indication of right or wrong for the students. However, it should also be noted that using the strategies efficiently is the most important thing necessary to achieve the goal in reading, and all steps of each of these strategies might work simultaneously, which cannot be divided as only one method (Anderson, 1991)

Implication

Nonetheless, the Google Translator is not as perfect as human brains, and to learn any language is a time-consuming process. Therefore, the way we rely on the program is very beneficial to reinforce understanding, which enables them to get a rough translation in the first place. It is advisable that we use GT in the classroom to assist the non-proficient students, as it will prove useful for native English teachers who teach basic English skills. It is also helpful if we keep in mind that readers are not proficient. This is also to reduce the gap between advanced learners and basic learners, allowing them to know how to use the toolkit and catch any errors in a systematic manner. Also, being aware of how to improve their interpretation and critical reading along the way is necessary. As a general result, readers could partially understand the passage that was translated. Therefore, to support them to use the toolkit probably helps English readers with low reading skills to read more efficiently.

Recommendation

It would be beneficial if we are able to create models and strategies for comparative reading while using GT in order to increase their vocabulary and reading comprehension – mostly by learning from its errors. Also, analyze the role of GT in basic skill teachers who need to use GT to support their reading comprehension of the specific journal in their own field. Also, in terms of the program itself, GT has the tendency to encounter problems when it comes to the translation of phrasal verbs, which needs to be improved in order to make the program even more beneficial and inclusive in the foreseeable future.

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Japanese Language Book Classification Development in Indonesia Perspective of Library Science: Expansions of Japanese Notation on DDC (Dewey Decimal Clasification)

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Abstract
This paper discusses the new classification development in DDC (Dewey Decimal Classification) system for Japanese language book collection. It is based on most of library in Indonesia uses DDC system for classify all book collections, while notation of Japanese language books classification is not specified. Only one notation classification in Japanese language books (495.6), whereas Japanese language studies or topics is varied. This is different in Japan which uses NDC (Nippon Decimal Classification) with many notation (code) classification for each language category. Because of the library system not effective using 2 system, DDC system and NDC system can't be use simultaneously.The purpose of this research is to expand Japanese language books notation in DDC system according to Taylor, Barwick, Sayers, and Hamakonda based on the criteria of good classification system. This research is expected to facilitate the library of universitas muhammadiyah and library in Indonesia to classify the Japanese language book. This research use descriptive method with qualitative approaches since analyzed descriptively with qualitative method. The method of analysis used evaluating DDC system as a library collection classification system, reviewing various topics or subject in Japanese language (linguistics), reviewing and to study the NDC (Nippon Decimal Classification) system related notation Japanese language books classification.

Keywords: Japanese Language, DDC Classification System, Library

Introduction

The notation classification in DDC (Dewey Decimal Classification) system for Japanese language book collection in Indonesia's library are not specified. Only one notation classification in Japanese language books (495.6), whereas Japanese language studies or topics is varied. This is different for books notation in Japan which uses NDC (Nippon Decimal Classification) with many notation (code) classification for each language category. The library system not effective using 2 system which DDC system and NDC system can't be use simultaneously.

Based on Law No. 43 of 2007, the library serves as a source of information. Before being served, the source of information in library through several processes. There are inventory, cataloging, and classification. In the process classification, each library uses a different classification system. Some of the existing classification systems include:

Library Of Congress Classification (LCC)

The Library of Congress Classification (LCC) is a classification system that was first developed in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries to organize and arrange the book collections of the Library of Congress. Proposals for additions and changes are reviewed regularly at staff meetings in the Policy and Standards Division (PSD) and an approved list is published. (Library of Congress Classification, 2014)

Universal Decimal Classification (UDC)

The UDC is the world's foremost multilingual classification scheme for all fields of knowledge and a sophisticated indexing and retrieval tool. It is a highly flexible classification system for all kinds of information in any medium. Because of its logical hierarchical arrangement and analytico-synthetic nature, it is suitable for physical organization of collections as well as document browsing and searching. The UDC is structured in such a way that new developments and new fields of knowledge can be readily incorporated. The code itself is independent of any particular language or script (consisting of arabic numerals and common punctuation marks), and the accompanying class descriptions have appeared in many translated versions. (About Universal Decimal Classification (UDC), 2017)

Dewey Decimal Classification (DDC)

The Dewey Decimal Classification (DDC) system is a general knowledge organization tool that is continuously revised to keep pace with knowledge. The system was conceived by Melvil Dewey in 1873 and was first published in 1876. The DDC is published by OCLC Online Computer Library Center, Inc. OCLC owns all copyright rights in the Dewey Decimal Classification, and licenses the system for a variety of uses. The DDC is the most widely used classification system in the world. Libraries in more than 135 countries use the DDC to organize and provide access to their collections, and DDC numbers are featured in the national bibliographies of more than 60 countries. Libraries of every type apply Dewey numbers on a daily basis and share these numbers through a variety of means (including WorldCat®, the OCLC

Online Union Catalog). Dewey is also used for other purposes, e.g., as a browsing mechanism for resources on the Web.

The DDC has been translated into more than 30 languages. Translations of the latest full and abridged editions of the DDC are completed, planned or underway in Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Greek, Hebrew, Icelandic, Italian, Korean, Norwegian, Russian, Spanish and Vietnamese. The DDC was built on sound principles that make it ideal as a general knowledge organization tool, meaningful notation in universally recognized Arabic numerals, well-defined categories, well-developed hierarchies and a rich network of relationships among topics. In the DDC, basic classes are organized by disciplines or fields of study. At the broadest level, the DDC is divided into ten main classes, which together cover the entire world of knowledge. Each main class is further divided into ten divisions, and each division into ten sections (not all the numbers for the divisions and sections have been used). The main structure of the DDC is presented in the DDC Summaries following this introduction. The headings associated with the numbers in the summaries have been edited for browsing purposes and do not necessarily match the complete headings found in the schedules.

The first summary contains the ten main classes. The first digit in each three-digit number represents the main class. For example, 600 represents technology.

The second summary contains the hundred divisions. The second digit in each three-digit number indicates the division. For example, 600 is used for general works on technology, 610 for medicine and health, 620 for engineering and 630 for agriculture.

The third summary contains the thousand sections. The third digit in each three-digit number indicates the section. Thus, 610 is used for general works on medicine and health, 611 for human anatomy, 612 for human physiology and 613 for personal health and safety.

Arabic numerals are used to represent each class in the DDC. An decimal point follows the third digit in a class number, after which division by ten continues to the specific degree of classification needed. An subject may appear in more than one discipline. For example, "clothing" has aspects that fall under several disciplines. The psychological influence of clothing belongs in 155.95 as part of the discipline of psychology, customs associated with clothing belong in 391 as part of the discipline of customs, and clothing in the sense of fashion design belongs in 746.92 as part of the discipline of the arts. Hierarchy in the DDC is expressed through structure and notation. Structural hierarchy means that all topics (aside from the ten main classes) are part of all the broader topics above them. Any note regarding the nature of a class holds true for all the subordinate classes, including logically subordinate topics classed at coordinate numbers.

Notational hierarchy is expressed by length of notation. Numbers at any given level are usually subordinate to a class whose notation is one digit shorter, coordinate with a class whose notation has the same number of significant digits, and superordinate to a class with numbers one or more digits longer. The underlined digits in the following example demonstrate this notational hierarchy:

600 Technology
630 Agriculture and related technologies
636 Animal husbandry
636.7 Dog
636.8 Cats

Advantages of DDC

1. DDC was the first classification scheme to use the concept of relative location to organize materials on the shelf.
2. The pure notation (i.e., all Arabic numbers) is recognized internationally.
3. The straightforward numerical sequence facilitates filing and shelving.
4. The Relative Index brings together different aspects of the same subject that are scattered in different disciplines.
5. The hierarchical notation expresses the relationship between and among class numbers.
6. The decimal system enables infinite expansion and subdivision.
7. The mnemonic notation helps users to memorize and recognize class numbers.
8. Periodic revision keeps it up-to-date.

Disadvantages of DDC

1. Its Anglo-American bias is evident in its emphasis on American, English, and European language, literature, and history in the 400s, 800s, and 900s, and Protestantism/Christianity in the 200s.
2. Some related disciplines are separated: e.g., 400 and 800; 300 and 900.
3. Some subjects are not very comfortably placed: e.g., Library science in 000 Psychology as part of Philosophy in 100 Sports and amusements in 700.
4. In the 800s, literary works by the same author are scattered according to form: e.g., Shakespeare's poems are separated from his plays.
5. Decimal numbering limits its capacity for accommodating subjects on the same level because there can only be 9 divisions (+ 1 general division).
6. Different rates of growth of some disciplines have resulted in an uneven structure: e.g., 300 and 600 are particularly overcrowded.
7. Although theoretically expansion is infinite, it doesn't allow infinite insertion between related numbers, e.g., between 610 and 619.
8. Specificity results in long numbers, which can be awkward for shelving and on spine labels.
9. Altering numbers because of a new edition creates practical problems in libraries: e.g., the need for reclassification, relabeling, and reshelving.

Purpose of classification of library collections

Darmono (2007: 114) the purpose of classification of library collections include:

1. rediscover documents owned by the library regardless of the size of the small collection size.
2. Produce a systematic sequence. Documents are arranged according to class so documents in one class relate to one location.
3. Return of documents borrowed on the premises according to class.

4. Facilitate the preparation and insertion of new collections.
5. New document additions The library classification should allow for the withdrawal of a document from the rack so that the composition of the document is not interrupted by the withdrawal.

Function and usability classification

Function classification in the library Suwarno (2007: 66):

1. Make it easy to search library material.
2. Facilitate the consideration of the collection held.
3. Facilitate the making of bibliography.

While the use of classification in libraries for librarians:

1. To compile books in storage on the shelf. For this purpose it is labeled with a bookmark, one of which is a classification notation.
2. To compile a catalog card based on the classification number

Methodology

This research use descriptive method with qualitative approaches since analyzed descriptively with qualitative method. The method of analysis used evaluating DDC system as a library collection classification system, reviewing various topics or subject in Japanese language (linguistics), reviewing and to study the NDC (Nippon Decimal Classification) system related notation Japanese language books classification.

Result

The following are some generally accepted criteria for a good classification system according to Taylor (2006: 396-397), among which are:

1. Comprehensive, meaning must cover all areas of science in the field of science that represent.
2. Systematic, does not have to divide the subject in depth but must integrate logically related topics, is easy to understand, and can make it easier for users to easily find the information they are looking for and want.
3. Flexible, should be made easy, so that any new subject on the subject of science can be entered without a general sequence of classification.
4. Using a clear understanding with consistent meanings for users and classifiers. The Japanese language is in 495.6 notation, while the topics in the Japanese language study are extensive.

In connection with this, Berwick Sayers in Nita (2013) that:

1. The notation should be simple The good classification system should have a simple notation, meaning that the system must have a symbol or a sign that is a simple memorable symbol that represents a subject. A simple and memorable notation is 26 Arabic and Latin alphabets. For example

Bibliographic Classification uses the letter K to symbolize the subject of social science.

2. Short-lived notation In addition to the simple notation used should be a combination of numbers or letters that brief, so notation is easy to understand.
3. Flexibility What is more important than a good classification system criteria is the flexibility of a notation. With respect to specific topics in several documents, the classifier has applied a particular symbol to the main topic, which is expanded into a division then expanded again into subdivisions and in more detailed sections.

Good classification system according to Hamakonda (2008: 2) includes:

1. Notation, which consists of a series of symbols of numbers, representing a set of terms (specific subjects) contained in the chart. Thus each class, section and sub-section in the chart has its own notation which in the DDC chart is called the class number.
2. b. The Relative Index, which consists of a number of headings with details of its alphabetically arranged aspect, and provides clues to a class number, allowing people to find the headers listed in the index chart on similarly functioning charts or tools.
3. Auxiliary tables, in the form of a series of special notations, are used to express certain aspects that are always present in different subjects or similarly functioning tools. In the last edition of DDC there are 7 auxiliary tables, namely Standard Subdivision Table, Region Table, Literature Subdivision Table, Language Subdivision Table, Race Table, Nation, Ethnic Group, Table of Languages and Tables of Persons / Persons.

According to Soepardjo (2012), There are Japanese linguistic topic:

1. Phonetics and phonology
2. Japanese letters and writing
3. Vocabularies and Semantics
4. Grammars
5. Honorific

Based on teory of Taylor, Barwick, Sayers, Hamaconda and Japanese linguistic category by Soepardjo as above, the notation of Japanese books classification could be expand in DDC system as below:

495.6 Bahasa Jepang (Japanese Language)
495.6.1 Fonetik, Fonologi dan Menulis
(Phonetics, Phonology. Writing)
495.6.2 Etimologi, Semantik
(Etymology.Semantics)
495.6.3 Kosakata
(Vocabularies)
495.6.4 Tata Bahasa Jepang
(Grammar)
495.6.5Membaca, percakapan, dan interpretasi
(Readers. Interpretations. Conversation)

495.6.6 Dialek
(Dialects)

The notation is expected to facilitate the library of universitas muhammadiyah and library in Indonesia to classify the Japanese language book.

Conclusion

The result of this research could expand Japanese language books notation in DDC system. this can make it easier for librarians to entry notation codes in the library system, not only in Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta, but also Library in Indonesia. However, in this research only expand Japanese Language books notation in DDC system. For more research is needed to developed new notation system in other language subject.

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Students' Attitudes Towards Self-Directed Learning Out of Classroom: Indonesian Context

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Abstract
There is a stereotype viewing Asian students as passive learners and dependent on teachers' instruction. Regarding this issue, this study attempts to address the Indonesian high school students' attitudes on whether they have initiative and be responsible for their own learning out of the classroom and if so, why. Therefore, 30 high school students were asked to fill out the questionnaires and interviewed in order to figure out their attitudes towards self-directed learning in learning English beyond the classroom. The descriptive qualitative research analysis adapted Knowles's theory (1975) about Self-directed learning (SDL) to analyze the data. The findings showed that the students have a potential to possess self-directed learning but they have difficulties in doing self-evaluation. Therefore, this study supports the teacher to promote self-directed learning instruction for EFL successful learning by assisting students in dealing with those aforementioned problems. Furthermore, it is expected to be a beneficial reference which gives new insights on the self-directed learning practice in a specific context.

Keywords: Attitudes, Self-directed learning (SDL), Learning strategy.

Introduction

As a lingua franca, English is one of the International languages that is commonly used as a bridge of communication among people who speak different languages around the world. It leads to the consideration of teaching English as a compulsory subject in many countries, including in Indonesian junior and senior high school (Mattarima & Hamdan, 2011). However, unfortunately, time allotment of English in formal school is very limited, approximately 2 class hours per week. This phenomenon becomes very problematic because English is regarded as English as Foreign Language in Indonesian context, meaning that English is rarely used in daily communication. The limited exposure of English language in Indonesia is often claimed to be the major cause of students' low achievement of English language proficiency (Sukyadi, 2015). To cope with this problem, Grover, et al. (2014) suggest the learners to maximize the learning not only inside the formal classroom but also outside the classroom. In the other words, fostering Self-directed Learning (henceforth: SDL) is important to raise students' awareness to take a charge on their own learning.

The term, SDL is discussed in adult education area. SDL is deeply correlated to adult education (Song & Hill, 2007). In contrast, Alghamdi (2016) stated that although this term is often associated with adult education, it is not limited to this area. For example, Lamb (2004) implied that high school students might engage in independent learning. Gholami (2016) stated that this kind of self-access and learning autonomy is originated from Western culture and this idea is claimed to be more appropriate to Western cultures rather than non-Western. In addition, SDL is claimed as effective learning strategies in Western culture but it is perceived as a problematic feature in Asian and secondary level context (Lamb, 2004).

Supporting that statement, Gan (2004) exposed a growing stereotype related to Asian learners by citing from others' scholars such as Young (1987) and Gu (2002) who perceive Asian as passive learners who depend on the teachers and unable to learning independently and identically associated to rote learning mode.

Despite those negative judgments, it is very important to investigate Asian learners more deeply in order to understand the way they learn. It would be better to looking at this views from different sides and avoiding judgmental assumptions by revealing several reasons behind that. Perhaps, in the Asian context, it does not mean that SDL is completely neglected because the different cultures among communities would probably execute different patterns of learning. Dealing with this phenomenon, investigating SDL in Asian context would be significant to explore what are the students be able to do and what are the constraints that the students might have during SDL practice. It is supported by Gan (2003) as cited in Su & Duo (2010) who contended that there is a call for more research on how and why university students conducted such kind of self-directed learning out of the classroom. Therefore, similar to that study, this current study attempts to investigate SDL in Asian context especially in Indonesian context but instead of investigating university students, high school students attitudes towards SDL are elaborated more. In this case. The term "attitudes" refers to students' behavior or learning practice. It is based on Grover and friends' explanation that the word "practice" refers to students' "behaviors or attitudes" to use various resources such as watching TV or reading a newspaper to enhance their English skills (Grover et al., 2014). In other words, the purpose of this study is to investigate the students' practice of SDL outside the formal classroom to make use of various resources to improve their English.

The participants of the study are thirty students of "Language" class. The consideration of selecting these students is based on Lamb (2004) who contends that the students tend to have a high level of SDL in the area that is familiar to them. Based on this statement, the participants of this study are the students of the language class who are assumed to have a high level of motivation to learn languages, including English independently outside the formal education. Therefore, the exploration of this topic would be very significant to understand the practice of SDL in a particular socio-cultural context. In this case, Indonesia as one of the Asian countries is often viewed as passive learners who are deepened on teachers who have authoritative power. The students' attitudes are needed to be explored more in order to know how they spend their time to learn outside the classroom. Therefore, this study intends to address this issue by delineating students' attitudes towards SDL is investigated in order to understand how they carry out their learning.

Literature Review

Self-directed learning (henceforth SDL) is a topic that is extensively discussed in second language acquisition field. It is argued as a process, attitudes, strategies, etc. Many scholars defined SDL in various ways, but the most popular definition of SDL is proposed by Knowles (1975) which is cited in many sources. According to Knowles (1975), SDL is:

> "….a process in which individuals take the initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes (p.18)." (as cited in Du, 2013; Grover, et al., 2014; Su & Duo, 2010).

Many studies revealed the effectiveness of SDL to increase all learning aspects such as students' achievements, motivation, etc. SDL is originally from Western culture and it is often said that it does not work properly in non-Western countries due to some reasons Gholami (2016). For example, Young (1987) and Gu (2002) argued that Asian students are passive learners who rely on what teachers instruct them to do (as cited in Gan, 2004).

There are many terms which are associated with SDL such as self-regulated learning, self-efficacy, learning autonomy (LA), self-regulated learning and many more. Alghamdi (2016) explained that those terms are a number of learning models which emphasize the importance of learners' responsibility to control their own learning. Self-efficacy is described as the ability to direct their own learning because of they believe that successful learning comes from efforts they made (Wenden, 1998 as cited in Alghamdi, 2016). Meanwhile, learning autonomy is defined by Holec (1981) as the ability to take a responsibility for own learning (as cited in Alghamdi, 2016). Self-regulated learners are described by Zimmerman (1989) as "people who 'plan, organize, self-instruct, self-monitor, and self-evaluate" the learning process (as cited in Alghamdi, 2016). Meanwhile, Benson (2001) stated that self-directed learning refers to the ability of the learners to direct their own learning not under others instruction (as cited in Bordonaro, 2006). In the other words, SDL refers to how a student takes his own initiatives by himself or under other people's assistance to identify the learning needs, learning goals, learning material resources, appropriate learning strategies and to be able to evaluate learning results.

SDL brings a lot of useful impacts towards the development of learning strategies for successful learning. For instance, Horwitz (1987) stated that time to learn outside the classroom is longer than inside the classroom, therefore, the ability of the students to make use this time effectively for learning would possibly impact their success in language learning (as cited in Gan, 2004; Su & Duo, 2010). In addition, Su & Duo (2010) stated that long life self-directed learning is very important because it might be possible to support an individual to continue learning after graduating from formal school. In addition, Candy (1991) claimed that learners would likely to exhibit a high level of SDL in an areas that are familiar to their prior experience (as cited in Song & Hill, 2007). They gave an example as an illustration of this statement, a rugby player might have high-level of SDL to play football.

One of the useful frameworks of Self-directed learning is constructed by Garrison (1997). According to him, there are three important aspects of SDL such as self-management, self-monitoring, and motivation (as cited in Alghamdi, 2016). He explained that self-management is the activity of the learners in controlling and planning their learning. Then, self-monitoring is the ability of the learners to control the cognitive and behavioral processes. Motivation is the learners' belief of the ability to learn which is supported by the inner drive to decide learning activities, "entering" motivation, motivation to maintain their learning, or "task motivation" (as cited in Alghamdi, 2016). These models are based on metacognitive strategies in which the learners have to"manage, direct, regulate, and guide their learning" (Wenden, 1998:250, as cited in Alghamdi, 2016).

This present study concerns on students' attitudes on SDL. Regarding the term "attitudes", Montano & Kasprzyk (2008) explained attitudes as "the individual's beliefs about outcomes or attributes of performing the behavior" (as cited in Karatas, et al., 2016). Additionally, Hohenthal (2003) and Kara (2009) stated that instead of perspectives and beliefs, the learners' attitudes are reflected from their performances or behavior (as cited in Karatas et al., 2016). There are three components of attitudes such as cognitive, affective and behavioral. The former refers to the beliefs or thoughts about the object, the second refers to the feelings and emotions of the object and the last one refers to act, perform or behave in a particular way (Wenden, 1991, as cited in Karatas et al., 2016). Prior studies on students attitudes are conducted by Gan (2004). Wenden (1991) as cited in Gan (2004) argues that attitudes consist of three aspects such as cognitive, evaluative and behavioral components. Cognitive component refers to the beliefs or perceptions about situations or objects. Then, evaluative refers to like and dislike. Behavioral is the tendency of the learners to adopt certain learning behavior. Gan (2004) interested to investigate the relationship of students attitudes towards SDLL and the language proficiency. He analyzed the characteristics attitudes and strategies of Chinese students regarding their Self-directed Language Learning (SDLL). This study revealed that the SDLL strategies are correlated with language proficiency and strong attitudes on SDLL did not directly affect language proficiency. In line with these results, Karatas et al (2016) also found that language proficiency, gender, and type of school did not significantly correlate with English language learning.

SDL is also regarded as learning strategy (Du, 2013). Oxford (1990) stated that "learning strategies are specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable in the new situations (p. 8) (as cited in Su & Duo, 2010). According to Alghamdi (2016), learning strategy is considered as the important aspect which supports the learners to control and manage their learning. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) as cited in Gan (2004) divided language learning strategies into three categories such as metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective. Metacognitive strategies involve planning, monitoring and evaluating. Alghamdi (2016) explained that metacognitive strategies that were discussed by Oxford (1990) included self-management and self-monitoring that are related to self-directed learning.

The previous studies on SDL are conducted by several scholars. For instance, Alghamdi (2016) carried out a study on students' SDL in Saudi Arabia educational context. Due to the low achievement in language learning, he investigated the students' agency and responsibility in learning English. The learners' effort to study was measured through General Aptitude Test (GAT) score. The successful and less successful students were compared in order to diagnose the problems in learning English. The results revealed that there are significant differences between successful and less successful students in terms of the self-management and study time but there is no significant difference regarding self-monitoring and motivation. Meanwhile, the GAT score of less-successful students is higher than the successful one. Meanwhile, Rahardjo et al. (2016) investigated the relationship between internet access towards SDL. This study reports that due to the limited access to internet, the students' willingness to learn through internet is low. They recommend improving students' SDL by using social media that can be accessed from hand-phone. Dealing with the use of technology and ICT, Maryam (2016) conducted a descriptive study of the use of ICT media by employing SDL method. The Android game is used as a learning media to learn Bahasa Indonesia.

Despite of various studies which investigated SDL from many different point of views, this current study focused on investigating the learners' attitudes. Regarding this consideration, Some prior studies on students' attitudes are summarized. Lamb (2004) concerned on investigating language learning attitudes and activities in Junior High School in Indonesia. This study revealed that the young learners are ready to learn independently inside and outside the formal school. He said that it is important to promote learning autonomy because the students seemed to enjoy learning English. According to him, independent or autonomous learning requires much exploration on what the students do outside the formal school and teachers' instruction. In 2002, Lamb has conducted almost similar study with university students as participants (Lamb, 2002). He conducted small-scale research in a university in Indonesia. He found several students who could perform English better than their peers. In this case, they claimed that it happened as the results of individual learning out of classroom and they tend to blame learning in formal education. Similarly, this study explored the learners' attitudes and behavior in a certain context in depth. The limitation of this study is the limited time constraints. It is a case study of “focal group” of learners in one school. It was conducted within 20 months.

Humaira & Hurriyyah (2018) previously conducted the similar study focusing on students’ perspectives towards SDL. They found that the students learning English because they have various reasons, needs, goals, and objectives. Moreover, the students’ select their own materials based on their interests. Regarding the strategy used by the students, memorizing vocabularies is popular strategies among the students. The students relied on the teacher’s assessment and they seemed reluctant to do self-reflection. Considering those aforementioned prior studies, this present study is conducted because of the need for more exploration on why do the students pose these kinds of attitudes and the difficulties they face during SDL practice. Regarding this problem, this further study attempts to fill the gap of the previous studies.

Research Methods

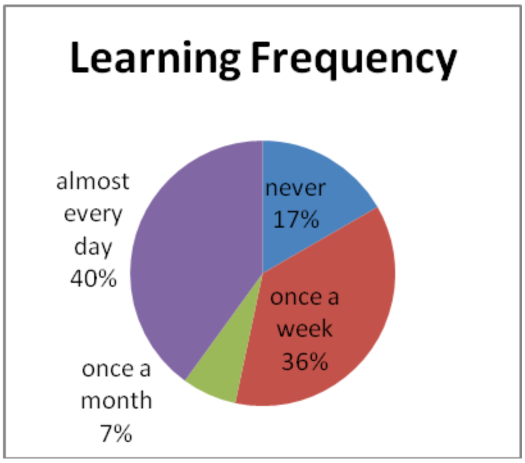
This study employed qualitative design to elaborate the students’ attitudes in SDL in depth. The data are gathered from the questionnaires and interview. These instruments are considered by considering previous research on SDL and students attitudes. Such as what has been conducted by Lamb (2002; 2004) and Joshi (2011) who conducted a study collected data from questionnaire and semi-structured interview and employed mix-method design to analyze the data. In this study, the questionnaire is given to 30 students in language classroom. There are four males and twenty six females ranging from 16 to 18 years old participated in this study. Basically, in Indonesia, students get a chance to choose one class based on their interest, such as natural science, social science, and language classes. Meanwhile, this study only focused on students in language class. The consideration of selecting these students because Candy (1991) stated that the students would potentially have a high level of SDL in the area that they are familiar with (as cited in Song & Hill, 2007). Therefore, regarding the willingness to practice SDL focusing on enhancing English language skills, the students from language class are assumed to take a responsibility to learn independently outside the classroom. They are interviewed in order to reveal their learning habit out of school. The data that were collected from the questionnaires were coded and input in a table. Then, descriptive statistics are analyzed to know the students’ attitudes of SDL learning. Meanwhile, the data from the interview are transcribed. The themes found in the data are interpreted in words. The researchers make sure that the students answered the questions without worrying because the students were reassured that there are no wrong or right answer.

Findings and Discussion

This study focused on investigating students attitudes towards SDL in learning English out of classroom. The purpose of this study is to elaborate how the students’ practice SDL outside formal school’s activities. The students’ learning behavior is elaborated in depth and their problems on learning by their own are investigated. The students are labeled as students 1 to 30. Based on the analysis, there are five subtopics that are discussed in this section based on Knowles (1975),

a) Diagnosing learning needs

Almost all of the students argued that English is important because it is an international language. It was the major reason for them to learn English. Regarding the students' ability to diagnose their learning needs, they seemed aware of what they really need to learn more. There are some English skills that are problematic for the students such as listening, writing, reading, speaking, vocabularies, grammar, structure, pronunciation, translation, and conversation. It is very related to individual needs so each student had problems with different skills. For example, students 1 said that she had problems in listening and writing, student 9 stated that she had problems in reading and listening, students 14 could not speak fluently, student 27 noted conversation as her major problem, student 25 dealt with pronunciation and grammar problems, student 16 had difficulties in translation and limited vocabulary, and student 11 said that structure, grammar and pronunciation skills are her weaknesses. Thus, each student argued that they knew what they should do in order to enhance their ability. They understood their strengths and weaknesses. For example, some students stated clearly that they had a problem in some aspects as it has been mentioned before. Therefore, some of them also stated that they are trying to solve the problems by studying in their spare time. However, their learning frequency is various, but from the chart below, the students who learn almost every day and once a week is in a large proportion rather than those who never learn or learn only once a month.



b) Formulating learning goals

The students learning goals are very general. It can be said that the goals of the majority of the students are categorized as long-term goals because they believe that English would contribute towards their success in the future. For example, the students believed that they might easily get a job if they are able to use English, go abroad, speak with foreigners, speak with people abroad, get their dream jobs, study abroad. For example there is a student who wants to be a stewardess (student 10), to work in tourism field (student 18). Only few students who had stated short term-goal in learning English such as to be able to do the test well at school (student 15) and watch movies without subtitle (student 4). There are also few students who did not have clear goal because they just wanted to enrich their knowledge in English (student 1 and student 5). In contrast to above goals, there are some students who learned English just because they like English or in the other words they had intrinsic motivation. One student stated that her hobby is learning English (student 6).

c) Identifying human and material resources for learning

Most of the students are able to identify the tools that they need for learning. It could be in the forms of technology devices such as laptop, computer, hand-phone, speaker, earphone, LCD, TV, radio, electric dictionary, application, games. Manual such as movies, magazines and books, and human resources such as teacher, course mentor and family member.

These are the example of students' views:

Student 12: "I need a dictionary and (download) some applications"
Student 13: " I use hand-phone because it is easy to carry, and I use laptop when I am in my house"
Student 26: "I need a tutor to guide me"

d) Choosing and implementing strategies

Snow (2006) stated that the learners, even experienced language learners do not always have ultimate skills to carry out learning, therefore, teachers' guidance is the very important to assist the learners to learn effectively by using different learning strategies and monitoring their own learning (as cited in Su & Duo, 2010). The students have different strategies to learn English. Many students stated that their strategies are intended to enrich the vocabularies. Therefore, they did several activities to increase their vocabulary. However, when the students were asked about their problems in learning English and how to solve those problem. For example, when a student was asked of the strategy to learn English, student 4 answered, "I learn English by memorizing vocabularies, listening to the music and watching movie." Then, the other question is related to the strategy that the student's use if the previous strategies do not work, the student remained answering the similar strategies "I memorize vocabularies, and trying to do conversation with friends." It happens to other students too, therefore, it can be said that some students tend to answer the different questions by repeating the same strategies that they have mentioned before. This response indicated that the students have a problem to solve the problem independently. It implies that they need teachers' assistance or guidance to solve the problems they face.

e) Evaluating learning outcomes

Self-evaluation is one of the SDL components that cannot be neglected. Stern (1975) as cited in Alghamdi (2016) mentioned that personal learning plan and self-evaluation are the key of successful learning. It is also related to self-assessment. Gardner and Miller (1999) as cited in Gholami (2016) argued that self-assessment is helpful to assist the students to do self-monitoring from the feedback on the language competence and strategies. He explained that self-assessment would not only motivate the students but also encourage the teachers to raise students' awareness of the important of self-assessment, to teach the students how to do self-assessment and to help the students to understand the progress. Based on the analysis, most of the students did not conduct an evaluation of their learning. In this case, it seemed that the students rely on their teachers to evaluate their learning. In this case, the students regards the teachers as someone who knows anything. Some of the students perceived that teachers have lots of experience (student 7), teacher know more than students (student 3), teacher is the expert (student 9). It seemed that they felt that they have no responsibility to assess their progress because it was the teachers' duty. Moreover, they stated that they know their improvement from the score they got from the daily test or examination. They evaluate their learning from the score that they have gotten through the test-administered. However, although they relied on teachers' assessment, the students argued that they rarely consulted their problems to their teacher. There are many different reasons for why they did not do this. Students said that they felt embarrassed, some of them claimed that they did not have time to consult with their teachers. They also said that the teachers' were busy and had no time to talk with the students. This phenomenon was interesting because most of the students stated that they almost never met their teachers outside classroom meetings. Despite these problems, there are several reasons that hamper the SDL. Such constraints make the students' reluctant to practice SDL to learn English outside the formal classroom including lazy, busy with many other activities, time limitation, tired, less motivation, and feeling afraid or nervous.

Conclusions

This study provides information about the students' practice of SDL in Asian context especially in one of the Senior High Schools in Indonesia. The results of the study exposed the way students learn English out of classroom. The analysis shows that the students might be able to identify their learning needs by detecting some skills that they wanted to learn in their spare time. They also had learning goals in their mind but most of the students had a tendency to think long-term goals rather than short-term goals. Moreover, they had a capability to select the learning materials, they used technology devices such as hand-phone and laptops to access knowledge through the available applications. They employed various learning strategies but regarding the problems that they might encounter during study, they had difficulties in choosing appropriate strategies. It can be seen from their answers which were constantly repeated. Unfortunately, the students were not able to evaluate themselves. Sometimes, it might be caused by their assumptions of the teachers' role. They regarded teachers' as the all knowing who knew them best. In other cases, the students stated that teachers were the expert who has lots experience than them. Moreover, they said that they needed teachers to give them feedback on their learning because they did not know whether they had improved or not. Therefore, this leads to further recommendation for teachers to give the students more time to consult and raise the students' confidence and give students' guidelines in order to be able to do self-evaluation. There are several barriers to carry out SDL based on students' opinion such as, lazy, busy with other activities, less-motivated, limited time, tired and nervous. Overall, it can be concluded that senior high school students in Indonesia might carry out SDL but they need to learn how to conduct self-evaluation. However, the results of this study cannot be generalized because it is a kind of small-scale study which is conducted only in a particular school or context.

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English as an Additional Language: Enhancing Critical Digital Literacy

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Abstract
Recognizing the socio-cultural elements of language decoding and production, many modern EAL programs utilize a content-based approach. In the case of school-based EAL programs, this content often includes investigations such as understanding local values, citizenship theory, sustainability, media awareness, and digital literacy. This choice of content is partially due to a recognition that the socio-cultural components of language are crucial for accurate comprehension and production. It is also because these programs are designed to help integrate students from diverse backgrounds and give them the tools to participate fully in society using the English language (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2014). However, Jenkins (2006) argues that schools have been slow to adapt to the increasing need for critical digital literacy skills and that these skills are necessary to function effectively in participatory culture. Digital literacy skills, envisioned in this way, go beyond career-based training (although employability remains an objective) and into the realm of effective citizenship education. Jenkins (2006) argues from this basis that it is important for all young people to know how to use, interpret, and produce digital and traditional media, to understand how their perceptions are shaped by it, and become socialized into the ethical norms of participation in digital media cultures as part of their basic education. This paper will orient readers to the theme, provide a summary analysis of digital literacy coverage in EAP syllabi from two nations, and give recommendations for policy, curriculum developers, and classroom teachers.

Keywords: EAP, Digital Literacy, Digital Citizenship

Introduction

English as an Additional Language (EAL) is an important and rapidly growing school subject around the world (Crystal, 2008). Recognizing the socio-cultural elements of language decoding and production, many modern EAL programs utilize a content-based approach to enhance depth of learning and student engagement. In the case of school-based EAL programs, this content often includes investigations such as understanding local values, citizenship theory, sustainability, diversity tolerance, and media awareness. Examples of such programs can be found within the most current EAL/ESL syllabus documents from a range of jurisdictions such as the Western Australian (2014) and Ontario (2007) ministries of education. This choice of content is partially due to recognition that the sociocultural components of language are crucial for accurate comprehension and production. It is also because, as well as having linguistic objectives, these programs are designed to help enculturate students from diverse backgrounds and give them the tools to participate fully in society using the English language (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2014). Such objectives are important, not only for linguistic reasons, but also because the goal of encouraging a participatory culture that tolerates diversity and supports collective action on matters of national and global interest (such as sustainability) is necessary for social function in pluralistic societies faced with long term problems such as inequality, intercultural conflict, environmental degradation, and sociopolitical function in a media environment that is rapidly transforming and that has a powerful impact on opinion. Such competencies are often considered central to effective 21st century education (OECD, 2016).

However, Jenkins (2006) believes that schools have been slow to adapt to the increasing need for critical digital literacy skills and that these skills are ever more necessary to function effectively in participatory culture. Digital literacy skills, envisioned in this way, go beyond career-based training (although employability remains an objective) and into the realm of effective citizenship education. Jenkins (2006) argues from this basis that it is important for all young people to know how to use, interpret, and produce digital and traditional media, to understand how their perceptions are shaped by it, and become socialized into the ethical norms of participation in digital media cultures as part of their basic education. Furthermore, Jenkins (2006) states that the rapid and ongoing shift from traditional communication and text types to digital or multimodal communication and text types necessitates a much stronger emphasis on digital literacy within subjects and across subjects, as well as outside of formal education structures. He therefore states that digital literacy objectives and teaching methods should be re-evaluated in school systems to better support traditional and digital citizenship and full access to participatory culture. This paper is a brief exploratory evaluation of how some school-based EAL programs might better achieve that goal.

Context, Research Problem, and Relevance

English as an Additional Language is an important subject for many students regardless of whether they are residing in the inner, outer, or expanding circles of English speaking nations (Kachru, 2006). For those within the inner circle of English speaking nations (Australia, Canada, the U.K., the U.S., and New Zealand), English is the dominant language and proficiency is therefore key to their participation in many key aspects of life. While English may be less dominant, those who live in the post-colonial outer circle countries such as India may also find many of their life opportunities decided by their proficiency in English as the administration of political and economic life is often in English. Even those in the expanding circle nations, such as China, may gain enhanced access to global education, career, social, and political opportunities with strong skills in the language. Given the stark differences in participatory opportunity that can result based on English competency, it is important that EAL programs are strategically designed to be as empowering as possible for students and, when one considers the weight and influence of Jenkins' (2006) report about digital literacy and participatory culture, it is important to consider how English as an Additional Language is fairing with regard to supporting English language learners in the digital realm specifically. The relevance of this research paper builds on Jenkins (2006) belief that the ability to fully engage in participatory culture by being adept consumers and producers of digital communication imbued with an understanding of rights claims and the potential dangers of using the digital medium, may dramatically affect the social, economic, and political life outcomes of students by extending the same belief to EAL students specifically.

This paper will focus on just one of the key contexts, which is in classrooms using EAL curricula from inner circle countries. This is because these particular curricula are delivered to a variety of students with a high stake in the participatory and citizenship outcomes being discussed. Students within the inner circle who are in EAL classrooms are often immigrants, refugees, or come from remote areas. Such students are vulnerable and may be marginalized if they cannot participate fully in the culture around them. These curricula are also important as they are often delivered to students in the outer and the expanding circles of English speaking nations who are planning to study or move to inner circle countries in the future. Such students are therefore likely to be inner circle students one day and, even before immigrating, English may act as a social, political, and economic gatekeeper within their own countries. Finally, because these curricula originate in inner circle countries, they are most likely to have non-linguistic objectives embedded in them as part of their purpose is enabling entry into English language majority participatory culture, while other curricula may be more focused on linguistic attainment without sociocultural competence and citizenship being expressly considered.

With this context and rationale in mind, this paper will briefly investigate how digital literacy for participatory culture might be improved within inner circle EAL curricula. Importantly, the analysis will stay focused on elements of digital literacy that match well with current language program objectives so as not to undermine the core linguistic objectives of the subject. Given the space limitations, this investigation will not be exhaustive, but will instead focus on a few key components that reoccur in the literature.

Theoretical framework

This investigation utilizes sociocultural theory as an important component of language education, and, as such, argues that linguistic competence beyond the most basic level requires an understanding of the sociocultural elements of meaning and the social relations of those engaged in the communication (Vygotsky, 1962). Furthermore, with regard to language education, it is informed by ongoing discussions of the importance of Language Awareness and Critical Language Awareness in a complete language education (Svalberg, 2007). This critical perspective asks students to explicitly explore power differentials that emerge through language use and thereby seek to rebalance them through awareness. When considering literacy theory, the multiliteracies work of the New London Group (1996) drives the discussion on broadening the view of literacy and text type, integrating critical analysis with an understanding of the importance of cultural diversity and power structures, and promoting the need for a citizenry that is both technologically and interculturally competent. Multiliteracy theory can also be used to broaden our perspective on what communications are appropriate subjects of study in the English as an Additional Language classroom.

Literature Review

The inclusion of critical digital literacy programming into formal and informal education is well supported by the literature. Major international policy institutions such as UNESCO and Partnership for 21st Century Skills advocate cross-subject digital literacy training for all students. There are also detailed descriptions of digital literacy focal points in the primary research literature on media studies that attempt to keep up with the rapid pace of change in the field. With some variance in perspective and focus, Isin and Ruppert (2015), Poyntz (2011), Jenkins (2006), and Buckingham (2006) all point to the importance of digital literacy skills that are based in criticality, allow meaningful engagement with the broader society, and which take into account the power differentials between users and dangers of digital engagement. In their own way, all of these researchers circle around the notion that true digital literacy extends beyond job preparation and into essential functioning for multicultural societies, changing job environments, and heavily contested political identity spaces that require active participants to function properly. Also, in reality, Shah's (2015) discussion of inclusion, exclusion, inequality, and networked margins applies not only to the marginalized in developing nations, but to those everywhere who find themselves on the fringes of the great power structures of the world. Those in the networked margins have the potential of moving suddenly to the centre and creating dramatic transformation in an instant through the digital or, alternately, may have their voice swallowed completely in the constant torrent of digital noise that is being generated every moment.

This focus on developing tools for functioning within participatory culture also fits well with Isin and Ruppert's (2015) argument that the role of digital citizenship is based in the act of making digital rights claims and thereby becoming active in the constantly transforming and contested space of the internet. This highly activist model depends on the ability to interact with the internet using technical skills, but also necessitates more traditional literacy skills such as a high degree of communicative competence and considerable language awareness for the detection of rhetoric or bias in multimodal texts. As citizenship, socioeconomic participation, and communicative competence are express objectives of many inner circle EAL curricula, and digital citizenship is becoming an ever more important component of these objectives, this discussion of the ability to make these rights claims and critically examine the ramifications of doing so is an important consideration for those wishing to offer students the ability to engage in tasks that are important and relevant to them in English. Similarly, as digital rights acts increasing move across poorly defined international jurisdictions in cyberspace, digital citizenship begins to meld with Global Citizenship Education.

An example of an inner circle syllabus that draws upon critical digital literacy and multiliteracy objectives is the Ontario Ministry of Education's curricular document for English as a Second Language and English Literacy Development (2007). It states that "the ESL and ELD curriculum is based on the belief that broad proficiency in English is essential to students' success in both their social and academic lives, and to their ability to take their place in society as responsible and productive citizens" (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2007, p.3). Within this document are numerous references to digital and multiliteracy objectives that serve to guide teachers in preparing their students to engage fully and safely with the society around them. Some of these objectives will be discussed and analyzed further in relation to this literature review.

Another example of an inner circle program can be found in the Western Australian Certificate of Education's (WACE) English as an Additional Language or Dialect Year 11 (2014) syllabus. Given similar overarching objectives as the Ontario (2007) ESL syllabus, it states that, "students learn to create, individually and collaboratively, increasingly complex texts for different purposes and audiences in different forms, modes and media." (p.1). Among other text types to be utilized in lessons, media texts, digital texts, and multimodal texts are listed.

Both of these documents provide insight into the direction that teachers are being given in EAL classrooms that use inner circle curricula. However, though they do clearly aim to stimulate critical digital and multiliteracy style literacy, they do not provide adequate descriptions of what this entails or go to a depth that might allow a teacher to take clear direction for skills and capacities deemed important by those who are at the forefront of theory and policy generation. An example of this is found in the Western Australian (2014) syllabus. There, among the general capabilities that will "assist students to live and work successfully in the twenty-first century" (p.9), multimodal literacy, critical thinking, and information and communication technology are highlighted and given brief descriptions and limited classroom activity examples for illustrative purposes. Unfortunately, these general capabilities are simply raised as targets of teaching in instances when the opportunity arises and are not to be formally assessed unless specifically noted in the unit objectives. Nor are they articulated in light of current research. Finally, though it is possible to find an impressive range of linguistic objectives scattered throughout the document that relate to critical digital literacy, they are not explicitly linked in any meaningful way for the reader.

With these potential problems in mind, Jenkins (2006) highlights the need to address several areas of deficit in current digital literacy levels and the education that contributes to this form of literacy. His report on the education requirements of modern digital participatory culture is based on the premise that enabling participation in the social, economic, artistic, and political life of a community should be the focus of digital literacy because it, rather than technological aptitude alone, is the desired end goal of education. The first of these areas of deficit is *the participation gap*, which refers to inequality in the full range of experiences and skills that allow people to participate fully and seize opportunities. The second is *the transparency problem*, which refers to the way perception and belief are influenced in ways that are not obvious to media users. The third is *the ethics challenge*, which is the lack of strong social and professional frameworks to guide people in their production and consumption of media.

Jenkins (2006) also discusses how the drive to empower participatory actors has created the need for a new emphasis on skills arising through community involvement, networking, and collaboration. These include playful problem-solving, appropriation of media, collective intelligence, transmedia navigation, and networking among others. As with 21st century skills, in reality, these are not entirely new. However, the importance of them, the manner in which they can be used, and the socioeconomic and political contexts of use have all shifted to the extent that emphasizing them has merit. Importantly, Jenkins (2006, p. 7) says of societies built upon participatory culture, "not every member must contribute, but all must believe that they are free to contribute when ready and that what they contribute will be appropriately valued". By defining these skills as core enablers, both to support the individual in contributing, and to build the necessary levels of society wide contribution for a participatory culture to exist at all, their relative importance to educators becomes apparent. Articulating this in the main curricular documents of modern EAL programs would therefore seem prudent.

Buckingham's (2006) seminal article on priority learning objectives in digital literacy hone in on many of the features that Jenkins (2006) highlights as crucial to fostering participatory culture. Buckingham's discussion centers around the notions of criticality and explicitly learning about digital media rather than just through digital media. To elaborate, he states that, if schools want to use digital media in their classrooms (which is a common technique in language classrooms) students should engage in critical digital media studies to acquire the necessary literacy skills around their use. Buckingham's (2006) perspective is informed heavily by traditional media studies and posits that digital literacy is not just about gaining skills to allow access to digital information or communication, but also requires critique of that media through an appreciation of the motivations and techniques that go into digital production. He outlines four threads of study for critical digital literacy.

The first thread is that of *representation*. Buckingham (2006) describes the study of representation as an analysis of viewpoint, motivation for production, the inclusion and exclusion of specific voices, use of authority, and bias. These analyses are highly relevant to many academically oriented EAL classrooms and are often used on texts in EAL programs. For example, the Western Australian syllabus (2014) includes the identification and use of persuasive and rhetorical language in traditional, media, and multimodal texts. It also describes critical thinking as a core objective. Unfortunately, again, the document lacks detail regarding digital literacy such as a simple synthesis of concepts from a range of digital literacy sources to give users a clear indication of the points of theory that they would use to derive teaching methods from. Though there should be a high transferability between traditional mediums and the digital, it is important for teachers to highlight issues that are unique within digital spaces such as traceability or the customization of news (Isin & Ruppert, 2015).

Another interesting point of convergence in the objectives of EAL programs and the multimodal literacy objectives found in Buckingham (2006) is his description of the *language* thread, which bears a striking resemblance to Language Awareness (LA) and Critical Language Awareness (CLA) as detailed by Svalberg (2007). Though Buckingham (2006) does describe the core LA features of grammar and word choice for meaning, there is also a broader exploration of the unique genres/text types found in digital spaces as well as the persuasive and power dynamics arising from uniquely internet based “grammar’ such as how sites are hyperlinked and what power relationships underlie communication. This fits well with language acquisition theory that outlines a need for language students to ‘notice’ elements of communication from the level of the phoneme up to the level of power dynamics if they wish to truly comprehend a text or produce an utterance as intended (Svalberg, 2007).

Buckingham’s (2006) *production* thread not only highlights the need for students to produce digital text types, but also for them to build their awareness of why others build them the way they do (again using multimodal Critical Language Awareness) and the potential ramifications of doing so. Again, the Ontario ESL curriculum (2007) does specifically list the objective of having students produce media texts for a variety of purposes and audiences and to be able to articulate why they chose a particular format. However, there is none of the theoretical support in the document for this kind of task that is found for sociocultural and citizenship objectives and therefore the type and depth of criticality that should be embedded in the workflow remains unclear to EAL teachers not fully acquainted with the digital literacy literature.

The final thread Buckingham (2006) discusses is that of *audience*. This thread fits particularly well with EAL programs and many language professionals will be familiar with an audience analysis as part of decoding more traditional text types. However, there are unique issues relating to audience in the digital sphere that can and should be investigated, such as how information is targeted at uses based on previous interactions with the internet and how data is gathered on them while they interact with it. Important considerations such as these are not articulated in either the Western Australian (2014) or Ontario (2007) syllabi.

Critical Analysis and Implications

It is generally accepted that language, identity, and citizenship are deeply entwined. However, it is less well known that English as an Additional Language education commonly carries strong elements of cultural, media, and citizenship education along with it in order to foster participation and smooth social function according to local sociopolitical theory. This is particularly true in inner circle K-12 curricula, which target a range of students who are likely to be immigrants, refugees, or from remote areas and therefore easily marginalized from full participation in the wider English dominant society. Increasingly, empowering participation through literacy efforts includes delivering a quality digital literacy education (Jenkins, 2006). As important as this may be in mainstream English classrooms, it is even more relevant as a component of EAL. This reality is apparent in the curricular documents themselves, though it is not elaborated upon to the extent necessary for adequate transfer of objectives into the classrooms of busy teachers who may not have time to read up on digital issues. For those who feel instinctually that critical digital literacy does not belong in a language classroom designed to support communication in English, it should be noted that outside of school many students communicate in public digital spaces such as social networks as often, or more often, than they communicate in analogue spaces. It would therefore seem relevant to include digital communication and production as an important means of communication in the target language. Similarly, arming students with knowledge about how the communication they receive in the target language can be influenced by commercial or political forces that might not be apparent to them should be considered an important (and potentially engaging) part of their language education.

Digital literacy is already an express objective in many progressive high school EAL programs such as those developed in Western Australia (2014) and the Ontario (2007) who fit their language education within content-based curricula that share much in common with mainstream English Language Arts (ELA) classrooms. As well as teaching the English language, these courses teach critical citizenship through social science based content. Given the wide range of content topics found in EAL curricula such as gender studies, race studies, global issues, popular culture studies and other topics, governments might target as important for the socialization of young immigrants, such programs should be able to integrate discussions and analyses of digital media seamlessly into their curriculum.

This investigation shows that the ESL/ELD syllabus of Ontario (2007) and the EAL/D syllabus of Western Australia (2014) do provide a basic framework for delivering digital literacy training for engagement with participatory culture in English language learners. To this end, it is apparent that they do attempt to integrate some basic elements of critical media analysis, multimodal production, local citizenship theory, cosmopolitan/global citizenship, Critical Language Awareness, and empowerment for engaging in participatory culture and the development of core competencies for modern living (UNESCO, 2014).

However, the limitations of these documents are in the detail and explicitness with which the objectives and potential methods of actualization are articulated. It should not be assumed that all teachers will have a high level of knowledge about all features of multimodal literacy, digital literacy, and Critical Language Awareness as in-depth explorations of these topics typically occur in graduate school rather than in pre-service teacher education. This suggests that making the curricular document more detailed, with clear but concise descriptions of the major theoretical constructs which form the context for the objectives, as well as explicit references to these constructs in the objectives themselves would be an improvement. Also, in the case of the Western Australian (2014) syllabus, incorporating digital literacy objectives into the assessed objectives would help to highlight their importance and assist teachers in emphasizing it to students. Optimally, these changes would be further supported by enhanced pre-service digital literacy training for EAL teachers and ongoing professional development for practical application in classrooms.

This insufficiency in core curricular documents has important implications because without proper guidance or training EAL teachers are unlikely to articulate the aims and objectives of full participation in society through digital media. Nor are they likely to adequately cover the depth and breadth of digital literacy objectives that are articulated in elementary ways in the curricular documents. As digital media become ever more important and high frequency means of communication, EAL students may therefore miss some of the sociocultural understandings and Critical Language Awareness necessary for accurate encoding and decoding of important texts. They may also misinterpret or be unduly biased by information they come into contact with. They may feel less confident or be objectively less skilled in producing the multimodal texts that enable their voice to be heard or give the ability to fully articulate the digital rights claims necessary for modern national and global digital citizenship (Isen & Ruppert, 2015).

These, among other implications may widen the participation gap (Jenkins, 2006) and further marginalize students within the inner circle. Though students who are situated within the outer and expanding circles may have a less immediate need for digital literacy in English, the digital realm is actually the one in which they are most likely to engage in authentic English use and is therefore still very important. Also, as previously noted, many of these students will eventually study in inner circle countries or navigate English language gatekeeping mechanisms in their own.

With regard to pedagogical implications, Buckingham (2006), Jenkins (2006), and Svalberg (2007) all provide useful ways to investigate, critique, and produce within the English language classroom. A common thread in all of these works seems to be explicitness. Discussing the nature of media and extending the notion of Purpose, Audience, and Language (PAL) analysis through multimodal forms to uncover power differentials, resistance, and rights claims have the potential to fill a range of linguistic, sociocultural, and digital literacy objectives simultaneously.

Importantly, Burwell (2010) suggests going beyond the critical analysis of media texts to investigating interactive practices in the classroom such as “viding, blogging, photosharing, podcasting, social networking, and creating user-generated content” (p. 397). Burwell (2010) identifies these practices as fertile ground for a wide range of contemporary issues that are core to many people’s everyday lives such as “agency, community, appropriation, intellectual property, and commodification” (p. 398). Aside from being highly relevant to the lives of students, such classroom investigations can provide a segue into broader discussions on the nature of citizenship at local, national, and global levels as well as whose voices are heard and whose are not. As well as being important for EAL and digital literacy objectives, such competence fits well with 21st century skills (P21, 2017) Education for Sustainable Development (UNESCO, 2017), Global Citizenship Education (UNESCO, 2014) and global competency (OECD, 2016) policy directives that underlie many international best practices in education. However, bringing these kinds of activities into the classroom successfully can be fraught with challenges (Jenson, Dahya, & Fisher, 2014) and therefore teachers need as much support as possible if policy initiatives and research recommendations are ever to have a successful impact in classrooms.

The kind of discussions that are envisioned in these types of critical digital literacy lesson activities can be placed within the wider learning context of multimodal Language Awareness and a broad vision of Critical Language Awareness (Svalberg, 2007) that have already been identified as important dimensions of analogue EAL programming. In particular, power differential analysis in English language communications is not simply acceptable as content for the EAL classroom (based upon the syllabus analysis), but is highly appropriate given the potential for the marginalization of immigrants and refugees who do not speak the dominant language within the inner circle and the discrimination and/or socioeconomic disparities between elite users of English and those who are learners in countries for which

English is not the native tongue. As such, the use of this critical agency based approach in the English language classroom can not only serve as a medium for effective and authentic language learning but also has the potential to assist in the claiming of linguistic identity rights, citizenship rights, and agency at the level of global digital citizenship (Isin & Ruppert, 2015).

In summation, enhancing the depth of critical digital literacy content and classroom activities offers opportunities to engage language students in authentic and meaningful communication that could help to rectify Jenkin's (2006) identified deficits in participation, transparency, and ethics, for students who are particularly vulnerable. There is a strong argument that such training should have a place in any classroom that deals with communication. However, given that sociocultural theory states that true understanding of a communication can only happen with an understanding of the cultural context of that communication and that the finer aspects of such cultural context come into play when interaction takes place, including the analysis and participation in interactive digital communications in English as an Additional Language classrooms could be argued to be a priority learning objective.

Conclusion

EAL classrooms are spaces to build communicative competence in the English language. That language has a unique role for many people around the world. For those without financial resources who do not live in English dominant countries, the digital sphere is perhaps the only space in which authentic use of the language is likely to take place. For learners situated in inner circle countries, effective use of the language can make the difference between social, economic and political exclusion, or inclusion. This is also true for a lesser extent in outer circle countries. For those in expanding circle counties, English is becoming a language of the global elite in political, economic, and academic life. In all of these circles, it is often used as a lingua franca. Sociocultural theory states that true competence in encoding and decoding language can only exist when there is an understanding of the cultural realities attached to the communication when it is used. Digital media provide the vector of communication for a tremendous number of communicative acts in all of the circles, but communication in the digital medium carries special attributes that are not necessarily obvious or transparent. Therefore, it seems imperative to arm language users with an understanding of communication issues the digital realm as well as an understanding of the implication of communication in this space. Furthermore, there is an ethical responsibility to empower language users from a variety of background with equal agency and therefore equal voice. Doing so requires more than just technical skills, but also skills of critique and critical language awareness, productive ability, and an understanding of agency and rights claims that stretch from the linguistic to the economic and political. By reimagining Critical Language Awareness as a component of a multiliteracy approach that encompasses the full spectrum of analogue to digital communication in English, teachers, students, and policy makers can work toward making language studies as relevant, authentic, and empowering as possible. As a step toward that objective, providing educators with enhanced theoretical and practical descriptors in curricular documents, mandating digital literacy as an assessable objective, deepening pre-service teacher training with enhanced digital literacy theory, and providing ongoing professional development for implementation in classrooms are all possible ways to help improve professional practice in EAL classrooms.

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An Analysis of English Communication: A Case Study of Thai Public Transport Operators' Communication with Foreign Tourists

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Abstract
This paper was aimed at examining the communication ability and the need for English communication among local Thai public transport operators. This study was part of research in support of community engagement and sustainable development. Seventy public transport operators who provided regular service to foreign visitors in a tourist destination city in Thailand were randomly selected to participate in this study. The data were elicited through two main research instruments: a questionnaire surveying the need for English communication and an oral communicative test attempting to reveal their current ability to communicate in English. Percentage and mean scores were reported in the needs analysis, and their ability to communicate in English were analyzed descriptively. The overall findings revealed that the participants' opinions towards the need for English communication used at work were at a high level. In regard to their communication ability, a large area for improvement to help them communicate better was indicated. Furthermore, the participants' difficulties in English for communication were identified and reported. It was suggested that the participants be offered training in English for occupational purposes tailored to meet their communication requirements for an international setting.

Keywords: English for occupational purposes, English communication, English for international communication

Introduction

In a country like Thailand, which is popular among tourists from around the globe, English plays a crucial role in communication on a daily basis. It is used for various purposes of communication in international settings, especially in the hospitality industry. Thai people who are involved in the hospitality industry are among the key participants who can help boost and promote tourism in the country. For this reason, local Thai people, who speak Thai as their first language (L1), also need English skills essential for communication with foreign tourists. Those skills include speaking and listening since local people providing services in the hospitality industry deal directly with customers who speak English and come from different parts of the globe. English, therefore, is very important and has become a vital tool used in their work. However, exposure to English language communication in Thailand is often limited, due to the fact that English is not an official language in the country. In reference to the recent EF English Proficiency Index (EF Education First, 2017), the proficiency of Thai learners of English ranked 53 among 80 countries across regions. More specifically, in comparison among 20 countries in Asia, Thailand ranked 15 out of 20 countries. This indicates that the overall English proficiency is low (EPI score is 49.78).

Phranakorn Si Ayutthaya is a city that is a major tourist attraction in Thailand. Because of its fabulous ancient architecture, magnificent temples, and fascinating history, it attracts a number of visitors throughout the year. Moreover, the city was declared a UNESCO World Heritage Site in 1991 (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 1991). This gives rise to an increase and expansion of the tourism capacity in the city. Such expansion means the community has to be ready for the growing need for English communication in order to facilitate foreign tourists in the hospitality industries. According to the Ministry of Tourism and Sports (2017), it was found that the number of foreign visitors, tourists, and excursionists to the city rises continuously each year as presented in Figure 1.

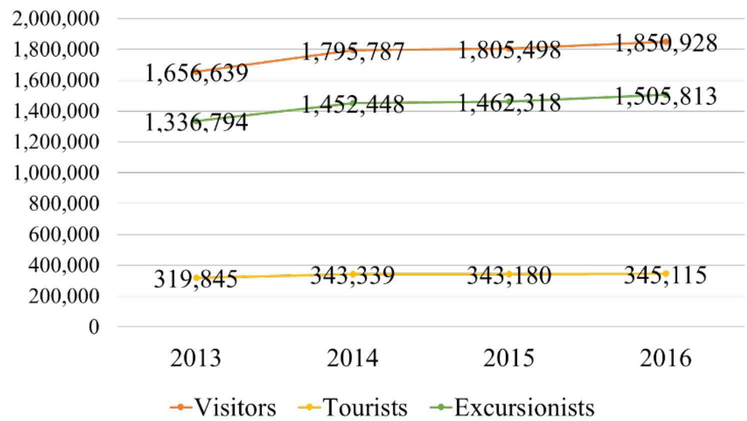

Figure 1: The number of foreign visitors, tourists and excursionists in Phranakorn Si Ayutthaya during 2013 and 2016

When travelling in the city, individual or small group, foreign tourists mostly use public transport services, such as hiring a motorized tricycle taxi, also known as a *Tuk-Tuk*. Therefore, these public transport operators are among those who use English more frequently in providing service to the tourists. However, communicating with foreign tourists could be challenging for them. According to Luankanokrat (2011) and Thanasabkasem and Keadplang (2016), Thai people, especially those in the field of hospitality, tended to speak English at a very basic level

in their daily communication with English speakers from different countries, which might cause some communication problems with the tourists. As a result, they need to keep learning and enhancing their English communication, especially for occupational purposes, to meet their communication requirements and help increase the growth rate of tourism and outcome for the local community.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are as follows:

1. To survey Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the need for English communication.
2. To examine Thai public transport operators' difficulties in English communication.
3. To investigate Thai public transport operators' current ability to communicate in English.

Research Questions

The research questions are as follows:

1. What are Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the need for English communication?
2. What are Thai public transport operators' opinions towards difficulties in English communication?
3. What are the problems in Thai public transport operators' English communication?

Review of Literature

The Roles of English for International Communication

The purposes of English are dependent on the speakers' context. Some examples are: English used in everyday communication, English used for academic purposes, and English used for occupational purposes. However, the most common purpose of English is to communicate with one another in international communication. Generally speaking, English is considered an international language widely used in conversations among people whose mother tongues are different. It is used as a medium of communication among them. Understanding English used by speakers from different countries is beneficial for enhancing comprehension in communication.

According to Ellis (2008), English as a second language (ESL) refers to the situations where English is used among speakers with the ability to use their L1 and English at a relatively equivalent level. This means the speakers in the countries where English is used as a second language could be considered proficient in English as they are in their L1. English used in Singapore is an example of this scenario. Singaporeans use English in their everyday communication, but it is not their first language. Therefore, ESL countries normally consider English as one of their official languages. Not to be confused with ESL, English as a foreign language (EFL) is used in the countries which do not consider it as an official language. The language is usually learned primarily in classroom settings in preparation for communication in the real world. This means the learners are not greatly exposed to language uses outside the classroom. Generally, there is little exposure to the language users for those EFL learners.

The countries where English is used as a foreign language include, for example, Japan, China, and Thailand (Ellis, 2008).

Process of Communication

According to Hamilton (2008), communication in a broad sense can refer to messages disseminated within a certain context or situation. Communication is usually a process that involves a sender and an intended receiver of these messages. Specifically, the process is conducted by a person or group who is the sender of a message trying to convey the information or the message to another person or group. The means of the communication can be performed through both verbal and nonverbal communications (Hamilton, 2008). The processes of communication can be done through various channels of communication, for instance, face-to-face or verbal communication, telephone conversations, gestures or paralanguage used during a conversation or even written messages as in e-mail. The communication can, therefore, take place regardless of distance and time. To consider whether the communication is complete and successful, the message must be received and understood by recipients or receivers of the messages (Hamilton, 2008; Jandt, 2007; Morreale, Spitzberg & Barge, 2007).

Related Previous Studies

Numerous studies stressed the importance of English used in communication. In particular, English for specific purposes such as that of hospitality.

Chan (2001) investigated the need of English skill improvement among students in tertiary level education. The participants were 701 students who studied English as a foreign language and 47 EFL teachers. The findings showed that the students expressed a need for speaking English to facilitate their learning and academic research, as well as for professions. The results indicated that the major difficulties the students found in their English use was that their mother tongue tended to interfere with the use of the second language, English. They indicated that they lacked confidence in their use of English; moreover, the students also pointed out that speaking and writing skills were important for their learning English. The study also suggested important ways for improving English language skills which were: 1) the development of speaking and listening skills, 2) the development of topic specific vocabulary, 3) the establishment of confidence for learners, and 4) the strengthening the learners' motivation in learning English.

Choi (2005) conducted a study on English for specific purposes courses (ESP), designed especially for tourism students. The study was aimed at various contents, contexts, and methodologies in an EFL setting to meet the requirements or specific needs of the students. It was pointed out in the investigation that available ESP courses should provide students with different proficiencies in tourism-related content in association with the practice of English skills. Moreover, it was also found that teachers' lesson plans should match the students' needs. It was suggested in this research that in designing an ESP curriculum, teachers should have a thorough understanding of their students' needs, perhaps even putting themselves in the students' places for the purpose of establishing a deeper understanding of how such courses should be devised.

In addition, Atibaedya (2010) examined English communication used in a self-directed learning model in eco-tourism in Thailand. The study concentrated on the problems of English communication, the need for English communication, and the policy of English communication. The data were collected through semi-structured in-depth interviews. There were 60 research participants. They included Thai local vendors, native speakers of English, and speakers of English as a second language. The overall results indicated that the main problem was the unsuccessful communication in English among the foreign visitors and the Thai local vendors. It was reported in the findings that the vendors appeared unable to apply the knowledge and communication techniques they learned in English courses in their work. Furthermore, it was found that they had insufficient background knowledge and skills in English. As mentioned earlier, there is limited exposure to English used as a foreign language for use in such encounters. Hence, it was also found in this study that as the Thai EFL vendors lacked the opportunity to speak with foreign visitors, there was little practice of English in their everyday conversation. It was thus recommended that a tool to facilitate the learning of English communication for them could be printed media, such as leaflets, or other published materials encompassing information on products or other such information related to their communication needs.

An investigation on the perception of international tourists towards communication skills performed by Thai EFL vendors was conducted by Thanasabkasem and Keadplang (2016). The study was carried out at a tourist attraction in Thailand. There were 200 foreign visitors participating in this study. The questionnaire was used to collect the data on the satisfaction towards the communication skills used by the Thai local vendors using printed media to help facilitate their English communication. It was found that communication techniques they used accompanied by the printed materials were very satisfying and could facilitate the communication in an international setting.

The findings presented in these investigations as well as relevant recommendations from previous research studies were taken into account in the present research.

Research Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were 70 public transport operators in Phranakorn Si Ayutthaya. These were taken from a research population of about 500, taking part in training sessions given by the researchers and colleagues in cooperation with the Ayutthaya Transport Office from 10-14 July 2017. The seventy participants who reported providing regular service to foreign tourists were randomly recruited.

Furthermore, 22 of the participants voluntarily took part in the oral communicative test. Most of them were male whose age ranged from 30 to 60 years. They primarily learned how to communicate in English from their daily transactions with customers who are tourists from different countries.

Research Instruments

Two research instruments were used in the present study.

1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of three main parts. The first part was designed to collect the data on public transport operators' general information. In the second part, a 5-point Likert scale was employed with the aim of investigating public transport operators' opinions towards the need for English communication. The last part was designed to survey the public transport operators' opinions towards the difficulties in English listening and speaking in their communication with foreign tourists.

2. Oral communicative test

This research instrument was designed to reveal the participants' current ability to communicate in English and to support the findings from the questionnaire. The test contained question-response test items in five main topics related to their everyday communication at work: greeting, giving directions, giving fare information, negotiation, and giving information on tourist attractions. In the test, each topic consisted of five questions orally read by a native speaker of English in a video. The test was validated by three experts, who currently work as university lecturers and hold masters degrees in the fields of English communication and English language teaching. The test was adjusted and piloted before the actual data collection.

Data Collection

The questionnaires were administered to the participants during the 5-day training sessions, and only those data from the drivers who reported using English in their work were included for further analysis. Data collection on their English communication was conducted at the end of the training sessions. During the test, individual participants sat for an oral communicative test in front of a computer screen in a quiet room, watching as well as listening to the questions in the video read by a native speaker. After each question, they were allowed ample time to respond before proceeding to the next question. The responses were recorded by an MP3 voice recorder.

Data Analysis

The data on the participants' general information from the first part of the questionnaire were analyzed and reported in percentage. The data on the participants' need for English communication and difficulties in listening to and speaking English were analyzed by using mean scores and standard deviations. The data from the oral communicative test were transcribed and analyzed descriptively through a rubric for oral English communication.

Major Findings

The findings from the survey were divided into three parts.

Part I: Thai public transport operators' general information and their self-rated English abilities

The first part of the questionnaire contained three main questions about the public transport operators' general information. The results of each question are presented as follows:

Question 1: How long have you been a public transport operator?
It was found that 61.4% of the participants worked as a public transport operator for more than 5 years, and 30% of them revealed that they were public transport operators for 1-5 years. There were only 8.6% of them who worked as a public transport operator for less than one year.

Question 2: How would you rate your English-speaking ability?
47.1% of the public transport operators indicated that their speaking ability was at a fair level, and 28.6% of them reported their speaking ability was at a very poor level. Additionally, 20% believed their speaking ability was at a poor level. Only 4.3% reported that their speaking ability was at a good level.

Question 3: How would you rate your English-listening ability?
It was found that half of the public transport operators indicated that their listening ability was at a fair level, whereas 22.9% reported that their listening ability was at a very poor level. Similarly, 21.4% indicated that they had a poor listening ability, while only 5.7% stated that their listening ability was at a good level.

Part II: Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the need for English communication

Table 1. Mean scores of Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the need for English communication

Questionnaire Item	M	SD	Level
1. I need to communicate with foreign tourists on greeting.	3.74	0.88	High
2. I need to communicate with foreign tourists on giving directions.	3.80	0.93	High
3. I need to communicate with foreign tourists on giving fare information.	4.00	0.92	Very High
4. I need to communicate with foreign tourists on negotiation.	3.97	0.92	High
5. I need to communicate with foreign tourists on giving information on tourist attractions.	3.99	0.86	High
Average	**3.90**	**0.92**	**High**

(Note. *n = 70*)

The overall findings revealed that Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the need for English communication on the five main topics were at a high level. The average of the mean scores and the standard deviations were at 3.90 and 0.92 respectively. As shown, all of the areas of communication related to their service were needed at a high level, except for the need for English communication relevant to giving fare information with a mean score of 4.00, which was at a very high level.

Part III: Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the difficulties in English listening and speaking

Table 2. Mean scores of Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the difficulties in English listening

Questionnaire Item	M	SD	Level
1. I have difficulties in English listening because I have limited English vocabulary.	3.91	0.85	High
2. I have difficulties in English listening because of the foreigners' pronunciation.	4.03	0.87	Very High
3. I have difficulties in English listening because of the different accents of foreign tourists.	4.04	0.94	Very High
4. I have difficulties in English listening because I do not know English structures.	4.00	0.92	Very High
5. I have difficulties in English listening because the foreigners speak too fast.	4.07	0.86	Very High
Average	**4.01**	**0.88**	**Very High**

(Note. *n = 70*)

Table 2 shows that the opinions of public transport operators on their difficulties in English listening was at a very high level. The average mean score was at 4.01, and the standard deviation was 0.88.

Table 3. Mean scores of Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the difficulties in English speaking

Questionnaire Item	M	SD	Level
1. I have difficulties in English speaking because I have limited English vocabulary.	3.94	0.88	High
2. I have difficulties in English speaking because I cannot pronounce words correctly.	3.97	0.82	High
3. I have difficulties in English speaking because I do not know English structures.	3.97	0.88	High
4. I have difficulties in English speaking because I do not know what words, phrases or expressions I should use.	3.94	0.90	High
5. I have difficulties in English speaking because I am always nervous when I speak with foreigners.	3.81	0.98	High
Average	**3.92**	**0.89**	**High**

(Note. *n = 70*)

Table 3 exhibits Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the difficulties in English speaking. It was found that most participants indicated they had problems with speaking in English in all five aspects shown in the table. The average mean score was 3.92, and the standard deviation was 0.89, which could be interpreted that they had difficulties in their speaking at a high level.

Thai Public Transport Operators' English Communication

From the oral communicative test, the problems most commonly found during the test could be broadly divided into three main aspects. English structures and vocabulary were the two main problems concerning English speaking experienced by Thai public transport operators. Another major problem regarding their listening skills was the ability to understand spoken English. The following descriptions are some excerpts from the data collected from the oral communicative test.

Excerpt 1: Foreign Tourist: I think it's too expensive. Can you lower the price?
Driver: *Not expensive. Same same. People Thai this price.*

Excerpt 2: Foreign Tourist: Can you tell me a little bit about Ayutthaya?
Driver: *Have temples, Wat Chai Wattanaram and Wat Phra Ram.*

Excerpt 3: Foreign Tourist: Is there a hospital near here?
Driver: *Hospital near the temple.*

From the excerpts above, it was relatively obvious that the participants had very basic English structures for their communication. They were likely to speak on a word by word basis rather than in full, meaningful, and grammatical sentences. Consequently, they tended to lack the skills to convey their ideas and reply with appropriate responses to the questions. For instance, in excerpt 2, '*Have temples*' was used instead of a full statement of '*There are temples*." Their responses tended to reflect the structures appearing in their mother tongue (Thai) by directly translating their answers into English. This usually resulted in ungrammatical utterances.

In addition, the participants were found to have limited vocabulary necessary for English communication, as can be seen in these examples from the oral communicative test.

Excerpt 4: Foreign Tourist: I think it's too expensive. Can you lower the price?
Driver: *For you, I load price 50 baht.*

Excerpt 5: Foreign Tourist: Where is the best place to have dinner in Ayutthaya?
Driver: *Sorry. I not understand.*

From the excerpts shown above, it is obvious that the participants' vocabulary to respond to the foreign tourists is limited. For example, in excerpt 4, the participant's response to a question relevant to fare negotiation showed that the phrase '*load price*' was wrongly used and was open to misinterpretation. Such a statement could potentially pose difficulties or even cause a communication breakdown. This problem could be attributed to their inadequate vocabulary knowledge for their work-related communication in English.

Based on the participants' ability to listen to and comprehend work-related English used for transport service for foreign tourists, the questions spoken in English proved problematic for them. Below are some excerpts of commonly found problems resulting from the participants' listening.

Excerpt 6: Foreign Tourist: Hello. How are you?
Driver: *Mr. Pramote Lertrit. My name is Pramote Lertrit.*

Excerpt 7: Foreign Tourist: How is it going?
Driver: *I working. I drive Tuk-Tuk.*

Excerpt 8: Foreign Tourist: How long does it take to get to Wat Chai Wattanaram from the train station?
Driver: *By Tuk-Tuk*

Excerpt 9: Foreign Tourist: Where is Wat Yai Chai Mongkol?
Driver: …………………………………………...

These excerpts illustrate the participants' difficulties comprehending questions spoken in English. These routine questions were among those relevant in communication between public transport operators and English-speaking tourists. Some participants attempted to respond to the questions; nevertheless, it was revealed that they did not fully understand the questions. Moreover, some did not reply to the questions at all, indicating a lack of understanding. Regarding the public transport operators' ability to listen to English, it was evident that they held a generally poor understanding of English used for providing service to foreign tourists. They might not have enough vocabulary and structures in English to be capable of responding to the questions, resulting in their misinterpretation of the questions. From the findings, their overall general understanding in English was most likely to prevent them from successful communication.

Discussion

This study investigated Thai public transport operators' opinions towards the need for and difficulties in English communication. In addition, their current ability to communicate in English was explored. As the findings revealed, their need for English communication in relation to their work was at a high level. The survey on their self-rated ability to understand and speak English relevant to their work showed that they had problems in listening comprehension at a very high level. Similarly, the results showed that they had problems in their speaking at a high level. Moreover, in the oral communicative test, the descriptions of their uses of English communication indicated a number of communication problems in English used for their work.

The participants' limited ability to communicate in English could be the results of several factors. First are English structures. Participants appeared to lack knowledge of English structures and English abilities both in speaking and listening to communicate with foreign tourists. Chan (2001) also found that the speakers' mother tongue could interfere with the use of their target language. This became apparent in the findings from the oral communicative test in which the participants were prone to use basic or ungrammatical English structures to convey meaning with little awareness of the English grammatical features.

The second factor which might cause communication problems is limited vocabulary. Vocabulary knowledge is one of the most essential parts in English communication. Vocabulary knowledge enables language uses, and the uses of the language can increase the speakers' vocabulary knowledge (Alqahtani, 2015). According to Hasan (2016), a lack of vocabulary could pose serious obstacles and impede successful communication when communicating in English. Without adequate vocabulary knowledge, it could be difficult for the participants to express their opinions or ideas. This could also cause them to become incapable of comprehending utterances made by the tourists and unable to respond to them properly. Vocabulary is crucial for them in order to express and comprehend the messages to meet their communication requirements.

Another explanatory factor could be self-confidence. Chan (2001) found out that learners' lack of confidence in the use of English was likely to pose difficulties in their English learning. From the observations during the test, Thai public transport operators appeared to have little confidence in English communication. They might be worried about their mistakes when communicating, which could lead to their unsuccessful communication.

Finally, limited exposure to English language also potentially hampers effective communication. The interpretation of the findings in the present study is in line with Atibaedya (2010) in that the lack of opportunities to use the language and insufficient practice of English communication on a daily basis could hinder success in communication. From the findings, it was seen that the Thai public transport operators lacked the ability to speak English and were unable to understand the spoken language commonly used in their work. According to Matusevych, Alishahi and Backus (2017), listening is fundamental to speaking. If the participants were exposed to various listening activities relevant to English used in the hospitality industry, they might be able to conduct a simple conversation with foreign tourists.

With respect to the results and the communication problems found in this study, improvements are necessary in Thai public transport operators' English communication for occupational purposes. It was suggested that they be offered training in English that is aimed to specifically help them develop their English communication in order for them to communicate better in English. In addition, responsible organizations in the field of hospitality might provide them with some printed material for self-study or create a mobile application for e-learning with which they can regularly practice their English communication.

Conclusion

This study was conducted to examine Thai public transport operators' need for and difficulties in English communication as well as explore their ability to communicate in English relevant to their work routine. The recruited 70 public transport operators participating in English training sessions held by the Ayutthaya Transport Office responded to the questionnaire, and 22 of them voluntarily participated in the oral communicative test. It was found that Thai public transport operators had a limited ability to communicate in English, and they expressed a high need for English to help them communicate with English speaking tourists in their work. They need to develop their English skills, especially in speaking and listening, in order to better communicate with foreign customers. Responsible organizations and government sectors in association with the hospitality industry should continue working on developing English courses that particularly serve the need of the occupation. Furthermore, the operators should be provided with assistance to help them become more competent in English communication,

such as regular English training for individuals at the beginner level, or a self-study handbook for higher-proficiency individuals.

Limitations and Recommendations for Further Studies

Since this study was primarily initiated to explore the need for and ability of Thai public transport operators' English communication, it would be informative to conduct experimental research to examine the participants' ability to communicate in English before and after providing English training to them. Moreover, the oral communicative test featured an interlocutor in a video with a limited range of English communication specific to the research participants' contexts. This test task may not take other factors involved in authentic communication into account, such as non-verbal communication, which could also play an important role in the participants' communication. Having speakers of English involved in the test in real-life situations would therefore yield more natural data. Lastly, it is suggested that other kinds of research instruments, e.g. in-depth interviews, be developed to specifically examine particular language uses in different careers, particularly in the hospitality industry.

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The Use of Japanese Language Dictionary by the Students of Japanese Literature Study Program, Brawijaya University

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Abstract
Dictionary has an important role in learning a foreign language. In this research, the writers discuss the topic regarding the use of Japanese language dictionary by the students of Japanese Literature Study Program, Brawijaya University. The discussed problems are type of the used dictionary, kind of the used dictionary, kind of information to search, and the difficulty found when using a dictionary. This research is the quantitative research with the statistical descriptive method (Woodrow, 2014). The research shows the result that students of Japanese Literature Study Program tend to use application and online dictionaries in bilingual version; the information searched in the dictionary is still fundamental, such as finding the meaning of a word or example on how to use a word. Furthermore, another difficulty which is often found is that the example for the use of word is less complete. Therefore, it can be concluded that the skill of students in using dictionary is still considered low. In this case, students do not yet use the function of dictionary optimally. Therefore, it requires further management related to the use of dictionary.

Keywords: Japanese Language, Information, Dictionary, Learner, Use

1. Introduction

The acquisition of foreign language can be with the use of a learning media, such as dictionary. *Dictionaries are considered good companions to language learners, especially to second or foreign language learners because dictionaries can provide a quick and direct access to the meaning of an unknown word* (Tseng, 2009). The definition of dictionary according to Kirkness (in Davies & Elder, 2004) is *an essential source, if not indeed the principal source, of information on language for all members of literate societies who might have questions on any aspect of the form, meaning, and/or use of a word or words in their own or in another language.* The research about the importance of dictionary for English learners attracts the language teachers in the last decade (Şevik, 2014). The research about the use of dictionary can contribute to the improvement of dictionary design and solve problems found in learning foreign language. Based on the assumption, the writers are interested to discuss the topic about the use of dictionary in this research. It can be said that there are only few researches about the use of dictionary by Japanese language learners in Indonesia to 2017. Based on the experience of writers as Japanese language teachers, there is a tendency of students in using less suitable vocabularies in learning the language skill courses (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). It is caused by the lack of knowledge about how to search vocabularies and use them according to the context.

The problems related to the use of dictionary by Japanese language learners in Japanese Literature Study Program of Brawijaya University are as follows:

1. What are the types of dictionaries used by students of Japanese Literature Study Program of Brawijaya University and their reasons for choosing them (paper dictionary, electronic dictionary, online dictionary, and application dictionary)?
2. What are the kinds of dictionaries used by students of Japanese Literature Study Program of Brawijaya University and their reasons for choosing them (monolingual vs bilingual)?
3. What is the kind of information searched in the dictionary?
4. What are the difficulties found by students when using dictionary?

The foreign language learners whose their mother languages do not have *kanji* will find more challenge when learning Japanese language. When searching the meaning of a word in the dictionary, there will be some stages; the learners must know how to read kanji first, convert the word into dictionary form (*jishokei*), and they finally can look for the meaning of word and adjust it with the context. It is certain challenge for foreign learners, particularly Indonesian students, when learning Japanese language.

Based on the aforementioned problem formulation, this research aims to conduct an investigation related to:

1. Type of dictionary used by students of Japanese Literature Study Program, Brawijaya University, and their reasons for choosing certain dictionary types. In this case, the writers wish to know the tendency and variation of dictionary type chosen by the students.

2. Kind of dictionary used by students of Japanese Literature Study Program, Brawijaya University. From this problem, the investigated aspects are tendency and variation in choosing dictionary type by the students.
3. Kind of information searched in the dictionary. Whether or not the students know kind of information which can be found in a dictionary (besides the meaning of word) is investigated in this section.
4. The difficulties found by students when using a dictionary. In this case, the writers wish to know several difficulties faced by students in using dictionary.

The writers wish to investigate the behaviour of students related to the use of dictionary. The result of this research shows whether or not the students of Japanese Literature Study Program, Brawijaya University have an adequate skill in using dictionary, as well as what needs to be improved or directed by the teachers related to the use of dictionary. The result of this research will be followed up to improve the skill of students in using dictionary.

2. Previous Researches

Previous researches about the use of several kinds of dictionaries were conducted by Al-Darayseh (2013), Hamouda (2013), Koca, Pojani, & Jashari-Cicko (2014), Şevik (2014), and Al-homoud & Arabia (2017). The problems discussed in some researches are kind and type of dictionary used by foreign students in learning English (English as a Foreign Language); frequency of the use of dictionary; information searched in the dictionary; and difficulty when using dictionary. The used method is quantitative and/or mixed methodology with the instruments of questionnaire and interview. From those researches, it is known that some learners tend to use electronic and online dictionaries in bilingual version based on frequency of the use of dictionary. Furthermore, the most searched kind of information in the dictionary is the meaning of word. Another information is related to pronunciation and word form. From these researches, it is known that the learners are not given lesson on how to use dictionary, so they find some difficulties when looking for information in the dictionary.

The research focused on the use of electronic and online dictionaries was conducted by Tseng (2009) and Dashtestani (2013). Dashtestani (2013) stated that the participants in his research stated a positive thing about using the electronic and online dictionaries, despite finding some difficulties and challenges, such as the lack of training in using electronic and online dictionaries, choosing a less suitable dictionary, and the lack of facility provided in the class. Meanwhile, Tseng (2009) stated that most of participants agreed that they were able to use the bilingual online dictionary (Yahoo!) to get the information they wanted to know. Besides, the level of satisfaction in using a dictionary is very high. However, half of the participants stated that they often used this kind of dictionary since they do not get internet access. Therefore, in the class, the participants tend to choose a dictionary in form of a book and electronic dictionary.

Some researches refer to the use of English dictionary as a foreign language. The writers with a background as learners and teachers of Japanese language are interested to know whether or not the cases found in some researches are also found in Indonesian students learning Japanese language. The research about the use of

Japanese language dictionary by the foreign speakers is not yet conducted frequently now. Some researches about this topic were conducted by Shojiue (2006), namely the use of dictionary by Japanese language learners at intermediate and top levels and the problems faced by the learners. The discussed problem is a kind of dictionary used by Japanese language learners and the problems in using a dictionary. Therefore, Shojiue (2006) wished to know the cause of problems. The used method is questionnaire for the learners of Japanese language at intermediate and top levels in Hokkaido University in which their mother languages are Korean, Chinese, Portuguese, Indonesian, and Urdu languages. There are 17 (seventeen) questions in the questionnaire, containing the history about the use of dictionary and kind and type of the used dictionary. The research shows the result that (1) all participants use bilingual dictionary. However, participants learning Japanese language more than 5 (five) years also use the monolingual dictionary (*kokugo jiten*). Besides, it is known that the participants tend to use electronic dictionary; (2) these two dictionary types (monolingual and bilingual dictionaries) have the same tendency in which there is no explanation about word pronunciation, kanji without *furigana*; explanation about the meaning of word and how to use it is not enough.

Suzuki (2012) discussed a research about the use of dictionary by foreign students in Japanese Language Program Tokyo University of Foreign Studies by distributing questionnaires to 117 participants and interview to 8 (eight) participants. Suzuki (2012) stated two important things from his research, namely (1) that teachers must consider training to make learner skillful in using dictionary; (2) the improvement of dictionary quality used by learners of Japanese language by providing many examples for the use of word in sentence. Besides, there are researches by Tanaka (2015) about how to use dictionary in the process of writing a text in Japanese language by Chinese students. Although this research is more specific than some previous researches, the obtained result shows a similarity in which the tendency of how to use electronic and bilingual dictionaries.

Some researches explained in this subchapter will be used as references in conducting this research. The problem discussed in this research is adopted from previous researches. The writer found the similar problems discussed in previous researches about the use of dictionary, such as type and kind of the used dictionary, information searched in the dictionary, and the difficulty in using dictionary. The difference from some previous researches is in the participants involved in the research, Indonesian students learning Japanese language in Indonesia.

3. Methodology

This research is quantitative research with the statistical descriptive method, in which the instrument of research is questionnaire in which this method was also used by Tseng (2009), Al-Darayseh (2013), Şevik (2014), Dashtestani (2013), Koca et al. (2014), and (Al-homoud & Arabia (2017). The questionnaire is used with the considerations as stated by Gillham (2000), namely (1) to save time and cost; (2) to get much information from many people in a short time; (3) the result of questionnaire in form of closed question which can be immediately processed for the analysis; (4) the absence of pressure for participants to answer questions; (5) the confidentiality of participant data; and (6) the standardization of questions asked to all participants. Therefore, in using questionnaire, the writers understand the general description about the use of dictionary among students of Japanese Literature Study Program of Brawijaya University.

3.1 Participants

Total students are 606 (State Minister for Research and Technology, 2017). The questionnaires are not distributed to all students, but only to samples of students. Total sample is obtained by applying formula of Slovin in which the accuracy rate is 95% and margin of error is 5% (in Wiyono, 2011).

$$\boxed{n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}}$$

Explanation:

n: number of sample
N: number of population
e: error tolerance

The following is calculation for number of student samples from Japanese Literature Study Program of Brawijaya University involved in this research.

$$\begin{aligned} n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} &= \frac{606}{1 + (606)(0.05)^2} \\ &= \frac{606}{1 + (606)(0.0025)} \\ &= \frac{606}{1 + 1{,}515} \\ &= \frac{606}{2{,}515} \\ &= 240.95 \\ &= 241 \end{aligned}$$

Formula 1. Calculation for Number of Student Samples

Based on the aforementioned calculation, there are 241 students to get questionnaire. The number includes the students from three classes (2017, 2016, and 2015) who are still active in the study.

3.2 Questionnaire

There are two questions asked in questionnaire, namely closed and open questions. The closed questions are made by applying Likert scale (in Woodrow, 2014). Meanwhile, open questions are used to obtain information in which the possible variation of answer from participants cannot be accommodated by the closed questions. It is in accordance with the questions stated by Dornyei (2011). The writer uses the list of questions in questionnaire stated by Suzuki (2012), Al-Darayseh (2013), Dashtestani (2013), Hamouda (2013), Şevik (2014), Koca et al. (2014), Al-homoud & Arabia (2017) adjusted to the characteristics of Japanese dictionary.

The components of question in the questionnaire consist of four aspects, namely (1) type of dictionary used by students; (2) kind of dictionary used by students; (3) kind of information searched in the dictionary; and (4) difficulties when using dictionary. Besides, open questions related to four aspects above are also asked. The modification of questions which the writers asked passed the validation process by the Native Speaker.

3.3 Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected by distributing questionnaires to 241 students for one week from 5 to 12 February 2018. From all incoming questionnaires, it is known that only 235 questionnaires were valid. It was caused by the technical mistake and carelessness of students when filling questionnaire. All valid questionnaires were counted with SPPS Statistics v23 program. All data were inputted into SPSS Statistics since the statistical descriptive analysis was performed to see the average value indicating the use of dictionary by students. Therefore, the information related to tendency and variability was obtained (Woodrow, 2014).

The obtained statistical data were used as the basis to analyze problem in this research which was also related with the experience of writers as teachers. From the relevance, the factors affecting the data tendency can be known. Besides, the data variation and the influencing factor can be known. Therefore, besides the data tendency, another data variation can be known.

3. Research Result

The result of questionnaire consisting of four sections is elaborated in this section. First section is about the type of dictionary used by students of Japanese Literature Study Program of Brawijaya University. The writers asked about what type of dictionary used by students, including printed dictionary, electronic dictionary, application dictionary, and online dictionary. Besides, the writers also asked open question about the reason for choosing dictionary type, including the category of "frequently" and "always" and name of the used dictionary. Table 1 about type of dictionary used by students is as follows:

Table 1. Type of the used dictionary

Descriptive Statistics					
Point	**N**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
I use the printed dictionary	235	1.00	5.00	2.3106	.87785
I use electronic dictionary	235	1.00	5.00	1.3489	.76064
I use application dictionary	235	1.00	5.00	4.4723	.72374
I use online dictionary	235	1.00	5.00	3.4979	1.01010
Valid N (listwise)	235				

From Table 1, it is known that the use of dictionary in form of book belongs to the category of seldom used by the students with average use of 2.31. Furthermore, electronic dictionary belongs to the category of never or seldom used with the average use of 1.34. Meanwhile, application dictionary belongs to the category of often or always used with the average use of 4.47. It is the dictionary type frequently used. In second position, dictionary type in the category of often or seldom used is online dictionary with average use of 3.49. The reason for choosing application and online dictionaries is that they are considered more practical than other dictionary types. Practical in this case means that this dictionary can be installed or accessed on the internet via mobile phone or notebook. Therefore, they are easy to be used everywhere and everytime.

The used dictionaries are (1) The printed dictionary, such as **Sakura, Kamus Saku Gramedia, Kamus Saku Gakushudo, Kamus Evergreen,** and **Kamus Kenjimatsura**; (2) Electronic dictionary, such as **Alfalink**; (3) Application dictionary, such as **Akebi, Takoboto, Shirabe Jisho, Kotoba, JED, JLPT Goi, Jisho, Yomiwa,** and **Obenkyou**; (4) Online dictionary, such as **Bing Translate, Google Translate, Kotobank, Weblio,** and **Line Dictionary**.

For second section, the writers conducted a survey about the kind of dictionary used by students. List of the asked questions includes the use of bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. Table 2 is as follows: Kind of dictionary used by students.

Table 2. Type of the used dictionary

Descriptive Statistics					
Point	**N**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
I use bilingual dictionary	235	1.00	5.00	4.3447	.90365
I use monolingual dictionary	235	1.00	5.00	1.7319	.92937
Valid N (listwise)	235				

It is known that bilingual dictionary belongs to the category of often or always used with the average use of 4.34. Bilingual dictionary here includes Japanese language - Indonesian language and Japanese language - English dictionaries. Meanwhile, monolingual dictionary belongs to the category of seldom or never used with the average use of 1.73. The reason for choosing the kind of dictionary which is always or often used is that it is easier to be understood since the explanation of vocabularies uses mother language (Indonesian language) or English. However, some questionnaires state that monolingual dictionary is required when bilingual dictionary cannot explain the meaning of word in details.

For third section, the writers asked questions related to the kind of information searched in the dictionary. The list of questions includes the possibility which the writers considered done when using dictionary. Table 3 is as follows: Kind of information searched in the dictionary.

Table 3. Kind of information searched in the dictionary

Descriptive Statistics					
Point	**N**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	Deviation
Searching meaning of word	235	1.00	5.00	4.6255	.57381
Searching pronunciation of word	235	1.00	5.00	3.1106	1.06443
Searching how to read a word	235	1.00	5.00	3.8553	.95872
Searching word class	235	1.00	5.00	3.0468	1.03875

Searching transitive and intransitive verbs	235	1.00	5.00	2.9404	1.10779
Searching synonym and antonym	235	1.00	5.00	2.6468	.95112
Searching basic word	235	1.00	22.00	3.8000	1.56838
Searching the example of using word in sentence	235	1.00	5.00	3.5745	.98590
Searching idiom or proverb	235	1.00	5.00	2.2128	1.03643
Searching compound word	235	1.00	5.00	2.2298	.91425
Searching grammatical function of a word	235	1.00	5.00	2.5106	1.10307
Searching origin of word	235	1.00	5.00	2.1362	1.08139
Valid N (listwise)	235				

It is known that information seldom or sometimes searched in the dictionary is the origin of word, idiom or proverb, compound word, synonym and antonym, grammatical function of a word, transitive and intransitive verbs with average value between 2.13 - 2.94. Meanwhile, information sometimes or often searched in the dictionary is word class, word pronunciation, the use of word in sentence, basic word, how to read word with average value of 3.05 - 3.85. Meanwhile, what belongs to the category of frequently or often searched is the meaning of word with average value of 4.63.

In fourth section, the writers asked question related to the difficulty when using dictionary. The list of question is compiled based on the possibility which will be met when using dictionary. Table 4 is as follows: The difficulties found when using dictionary.

Table 4. The difficulties found when using dictionary

Descriptive Statistics					
Point	**N**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	Deviation
Must know how to read kanji first	235	1.00	5.00	3.6723	.98226
Must convert word into the dictionary form	235	1.00	5.00	2.9574	1.08914
Must understand context of the word use in sentence	235	1.00	5.00	3.3064	.99129
Example of how to use word is not enough or none at all	235	1.00	5.00	3.2851	.88650
Vocabularies are not found in the dictionary	235	1.00	5.00	2.8936	.92066
The meaning of word in dictionary is not accurate	235	1.00	5.00	2.8553	.94977
It is difficult to find the specific explanation about a word	235	1.00	5.00	3.3447	.81932
Cannot understand meaning or definition of word	235	1.00	5.00	2.8936	.85819
It requires time to search	235	1.00	5.00	3.1404	.99650

meaning of word in the dictionary					
Cannot understand the explanation about word pronunciation	235	1.00	5.00	2.6766	.91852
Valid N (listwise)	235				

The difficulties in the category of seldom or sometimes found are inability to understand the explanation about word pronunciation, meaning of word in the dictionary which is not accurate, the vocabulary which is not found in the dictionary, inability to understand meaning or definition of word, and obligation to change word into the form of dictionary with average value of 2.68 - 2.96. Furthermore, the difficulty in the category of seldom or often found is that it requires time to search the meaning of word in the dictionary, the example on how to use word is not enough or none at all, the learners must understand the context in the word use in sentence, it is difficult to find specific explanation about word, and learners must know how to read kanji first with average value between 3.14 and 3.67.

4. Finding and Discussion

Based on the result of questionnaire elaborated in the aforementioned research result, it is known that the types of dictionaries frequently used by students of Japanese Literature Study Program or Brawijaya University are application and online dictionaries. These dictionaries are more practical and easier to access on the internet through mobile phone or laptop. Besides, these dictionary types have advantages, such as the search of word with character of alphabet, so it does not require writing kanji, many examples of the use of word in sentence, feature to listen to word pronunciation, and translation of word in a short time. However, there are some functions of dictionary in form of a book which cannot be accommodated by application and online dictionaries. For example, the example of word in application and online dictionaries are seldom difficult to be understood since it is not acceptable grammatically in Japanese language. Dictionary in form of book or electronic dictionary is now less popular among students since it requires time when searching word and is heavy. However, dictionary in form of book is still used when application or online dictionary is considered unable to give the searched information. Meanwhile, almost nobody uses electronic dictionary.

The kind of dictionary most frequently used by the students of Japanese Literature Study Program is bilingual dictionary, such as Japanese language - Indonesian language dictionary or Japanese language - English dictionary. The reason for choosing this kind of dictionary is that it is easier to be understood by the learner. The users of bilingual dictionary are found in all classes from basic to intermediate level. However, the most dominant users are students of 2017-2016 classes who belong to basic - intermediate level. Meanwhile, the users of monolingual dictionary, from students of 2014-2015 classes belong to the upper middle level. It is in accordance with the statement of Imai (2010) in which the use of monolingual dictionary is limited on learners of high level.

The kind of information most frequently searched in the dictionary is the meaning of word, how to read word, basic word, and the use of word in sentence. The searched information is often found when learning four language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking). Furthermore, the information most rarely searched in the dictionary is the origin of word, idiom or proverb, compound word, and grammatical function. The information is seldom searched since the students also seldom find the problem. When finding a problem, students tend to ask to lectures or native speakers. In fact, the more frequent students use dictionary, the more skillful they are in finding several information in the dictionary.

The difficulty which is often found when using dictionary is how to read kanji first. However, it is reasonable since Indonesian learners use alphabet, not kanji. Therefore, students require longer time when searching the meaning of word in the dictionary. Besides, the difficulty which is frequently found is to find the less specific explanation about a word since the used dictionary is bilingual dictionary. Therefore, the explanation is seldom less complete. Understanding the context of a word in sentence is a difficulty when using dictionary. One of the examples is to find the meaning of "to take money (in ATM), the used verb should be *orosu* / 下ろす or *hikidasu* / 引き出す. However, students often use the verb *toru* / 取る since they directly translate the word "to take" from Indonesian language to Japanese language. In fact, many words in Japanese language mean to take. In the questionnaire distributed to students of 2017 and 2016 classes, it is found that the students still experience difficulty in converting word into the form of dictionary, while for students of 2015 and 2014 classes, this difficulty is seldom found.

5. Conclusion and Suggestion

The questionnaire shows the result that the skill of students when using dictionary can be considered inadequate. It becomes the concern of writers as teachers to improve the skill in using dictionary. Therefore, from the research result, writers propose some recommendations as follows:

(1) Providing understanding about kind and function of dictionary;
(2) Suggesting dictionary with some advantages as stated by Nation (in Hamouda, 2013), such as many words, clear definition, many examples of sentence, information related to grammar and collocation, word pronunciation, information related to context in using the word, information about frequency of the word use, information regarding the related word;
(3) Giving opportunity to the students to learn the skill required to use dictionary with the help of teacher.
(4) Providing specific training to achieve this purpose. For example, giving task or exercises in class and home which encourage students to use several dictionary types (Al-Darayseh, 2013). If the intensive specific training is given to students, the purpose in improving skill in using dictionary will be achieved (Chi, 1998) and Liu (2014).
(5) Giving insight to students in checking monolingual dictionary instead of bilingual dictionary. Although this kind of dictionary is difficult to use for students at basic and intermediate levels, when it is often used, the Japanese language skill and capability in using this dictionary will be improved.

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From Storytelling to the Voice Story App: A Research Translation Project

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Abstract
Many existing language tasks are suitable for a specific language level or contain language that is specific to a particular topic or a particular language or culture, so do not suit all students' levels or account for the language that students know. 'Storytelling' however, is an open-ended task that involves the oral telling of stories constructed with pictures. Students create stories using the language that they know and tell stories about anything that they are interested in. It can be used with all languages at all language levels and provides a platform for students to showcase their language skills. Although very successful in eliciting language from students, it relies on a heavy workload for teachers in preparing large numbers of pictures. The idea to remove the heavy resource development load from teachers and make the Storytelling task scalable with the 'Voice Story' app then evolved. A successful pitch for university Research Translation funding enabled the translation of the physical language elicitation task into an app. The Voice Story app contains categories of pictures and enables photo taking. Students select the pictures and photos that they want by dragging them to the screen and then voice record their story. The ability to save and share the stories makes this app particularly relevant for oral language assessment data in second language teaching and learning contexts. This paper explains the Research Translation Project including the process of creating the Voice Story app from the Storytelling task.

Keywords: language learning, app, Voice Story, technology, Storytelling

Introduction

An ongoing goal in second language education is to increase the oral language capabilities of students. Many students learn additional languages in schools, however, after many years of learning a new language, still have a limited ability to produce the second language (L2) orally themselves. This identifies a need for second language programs to further support students' production of oral language. Adding to this need, there are limited tasks and resources that are available to support second language oral output of students that can be used across all languages, at all language levels and with all topics. For students to be supported with their production of L2, it is important that tasks appropriately reflect their current language abilities and are open-ended enough so that students can use the language that they know, the language that they are learning and talk about content that is of interest and importance to them. Far too often, second language tasks are limited to only some languages, are too narrow in level, have a pre-determined topic that may or may not be known to students, and limit students' output by having a pre-determined way that students are expected to respond (such as with single words or use of a formulaic sentence pattern).

Storytelling as Pedagogy for Language Teaching and Learning

Mindful of these issues, an open-ended task called Storytelling was created to elicit second language output from students individually. It consists of sets of pictures for language stimulus that are selected by students to create personalised stories. Students select and sequence the pictures which are then attached to large A3 sized whiteboards with magnets to visually represent a story. Pictures include visuals for the language that they have learned in class and the language that students are currently using. A large number of blank cards are included in the sets to be used for any other language that students want that are not already represented with a picture. Students can either leave the cards blank or draw their own pictures on them. A picture may represent one word or be a prompt to elicit an extended utterance. Students rehearse their stories as often as they like until ready to share it orally with others. Such a task was found to successfully elicit oral language from students, provide a platform for students to use any language that they could, and include any content (Wilks-Smith, 2018). These findings identify the effectiveness of images and voice for oral language output through Storytelling.

Storytelling allows students to say what they can in L2 and demonstrate their individual language abilities. Students across a range of year levels produced their own meaningful stories in L2 using Storytelling. Some students in their first year of primary school who had just commenced learning Japanese as an L2, told "stories" that included a few words using a few pictures, whilst others, who had been learning Japanese for years, told long, extended stories, some even using two A3 sized whiteboards full of pictures as prompts for their recall (Wilks-Smith, 2018). Storytelling is particularly effective because it elicits meaningful language from students and they use the language they know in a real context of a story. Stories can be about any topic and include any content. The task has an authentic purpose to share the story with others.

Many post-positivist approaches to education stress the need for 'humans to exercise agency' and for 'individual choice and intention' (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011,

p. 15) to be valued, as does Storytelling. Students' oral language is elicited by the open-ended telling of stories where students have individual choice to say what they want to say, can say and are empowered to use language that is meaningful and important to them.

The Scenario Framework (Di Pietro, 1981, 1982, 1987) informed the elicitation technique used in Storytelling. Di Pietro's Scenario Framework (1987) has been an influential theoretical framework to view students' oral language through stories. This method encourages students to create their own language, demonstrating their interests, creative abilities and personalities rather than learning pre-determined language. Scenarios generate students' own language performance and are important because they require learners to improvise, create their own language and make choices about the direction of their language. Di Pietro highlights the use of scenarios to enable students to divert from a set role play which requires students to demonstrate and perform pre-determined language where accuracy in recount is important, to asking students to be innovative with their language and expand the possibilities of their output. Scenarios "allow for the widest range of solutions possible" (Di Pietro, 1987, p. 374).

Although Di Pietro's scenario model was designed as an alternate to role plays where the language is pre-determined, the same could be applied to the oral telling of stories. Rather than re-telling *the* story, students will tell *a* story. They are free to be creative, include their interests and demonstrate the language they know. This is an excellent example of an open-ended task to showcase students' optimal oral language output abilities. It is particularly important that students are given the opportunity to show their language abilities beyond the constraints of one pre-determined story or any other language task with a narrow focus regarding language level or topic. This also maximises students' opportunities to demonstrate the language that they know.

The use of pictures when Storytelling enables students to divert from the recall of a known story to create their own story with personal adaptations and additions as they wish. This also taps into students' higher order thinking (Anderson, Krathwohl, & Bloom, 2001) as they are encouraged to apply the language they know to create a new story rather than demonstrate knowledge and comprehension, a lower order of thinking.

Storytelling as a pedagogy for teaching and learning (Phillips, 2013) is fundamental to the development of oral language and personal expression. Storytelling maximises students' imaginations, is open to students' own knowledge and meaning, and is a shared experience with an audience. When students create their own stories, they take ownership of them and personalise them, often placing themselves and those close to them in the stories.

Telling stories provides a context for students' language whilst the pictures provide a scaffold and structure. Storytelling elicits language from students where a context is critical, and meaning is attached to the language. Storytelling demonstrates students' oral output capabilities clearly which is in stark contrast with learning isolated aspects of language out of context (such as lists of words) and then recalling them, not necessarily understanding them or being able to apply them in context.

Despite the effectiveness of Storytelling as a task to elicit oral language from students and increase a focus on individual L2 production, this kind of resource relies on hours of teacher preparation time. Picture sets need to capture the language that students already know and use as well as new language as it is learned in class, together with the inclusion of content that students want to have in the stories. Picture sets need to continually evolve and are heavily time consuming to create and update.

Voice Story App Development

The idea to create the Voice Story app came about to translate the analogue concept of the picture card version of the Storytelling task into an app that would remove the teacher preparation time of the sets of pictures and also avoid the scattering and loss of hundreds of little pictures around the classroom. Plans were drawn up on paper to illustrate what the Voice Story app might look like including the special features of the app. The next step was to investigate whether the plans could actually be translated into a functioning app as desired. It was pleasing to learn from experts in technology design that the plans could be transformed into an app. Less pleasing however, were the quotes received to enable this. The plans were not forgotten but were put aside and occasionally added to.

Suddenly one day an e-mail came to all staff within the university advertising “Research Translation Seed Funding”. The funding was available to apply for to enable projects which aimed to “translate” their research into practice, such as through the development of a product. This provided the opportunity to pitch the idea for the Voice Story app, based on the Storytelling task, to a panel. After several rounds of pitching, $25,000 was awarded to support the Voice Story research translation project. This was not enough to externally purchase the technology expertise to create a fully functioning app, however, the outcome surpassed that. It was suggested that the project could support the development of a prototype or minimum viable product to be developed which could then demonstrate the goal of the Voice Story app for future development. It was also suggested that technology expertise was sought “in house” at the university. The Research Translation Seed Fund that supported this project saw not only the development of the Voice Story app but brought together two academics from different faculties within the university to collaborate together and share their different areas of expertise across language education and technology design. The Voice Story project is just one of the now many plans for collaboration.

One aspect of the project was to develop a Lean Research Canvas. This helped articulate what was unique about the Voice Story app, the problem it solves and what the competition is. It also identified potential customers and early adopters. The project was supported by RMIT University not only financially, but also with advice and expertise, such as by providing legal and intellectual property advice.

The prototype was primarily developed with the intention of being a proof of concept to test the overall learning effectiveness of Voice Story as a language tool. The development timeframe and budget enabled the prototype to be developed. Rather than being just a wire frame to demonstrate what the app could look like, a working model prototype with many fully functioning features was created. The “Appery” online app development platform was used for the creation of the app.

The development of Voice Story included design considerations such as considering the user experience design so that the app would be intuitive to a wide target audience. It also needed to be engaging and fun for language learning across a range of ages and abilities. One of the main features of Voice Story is the use of emojis, which are universally used and consist of endless categories. Images are also used; photos can be added via the camera function or used from the existing camera roll. This means that students can add selfies, photos of family, friends, pets, or personal items to their stories, or use a collection of photos such as when telling a story after a school excursion using photos taken on the excursion. Pictures are simply selected by dragging them onto the screen. The sequence of pictures can be swapped, dragged to a bin if unwanted and a whole story can be cleared. Picture direction can vary for different language users who may prefer horizontal right to left, left to right, or vertical orientations. Stories can be audio recorded and played back which encourages purposeful language rehearsal until the student is happy with their story to save and then share.

Other apps for languages aim to "teach" some words or phrases in another language, and only in some selected languages, which rarely leads to learners being able to use the language in context. By contrast, Voice Story is an open-ended app where users can create stories and tell them orally in any language, using languages meaningfully. There are unlimited numbers of possibilities of language that can be used in any combination to tell any story. The inclusion of photos personalises the stories, which is an important educational consideration that all learning be connected and relevant to learners' lives (Weinstein, 2006). Where other apps may be 99% about the app "teaching" or "telling" new words or phrases in another language, and 1% about learners responding, which reflects traditional methods of education where learners are mostly passive and knowledge is seen as being transmitted to the learner, Voice Story is 99% about the learner actively producing language through the use of visual cues that the emojis and photos provide, with the app providing the platform for that learning, perhaps 1%.

Voice Story can provide a measure of students' individual oral productive capabilities. Students' oral telling of stories provides excellent evidence of their oral language skills and language development and can be valuable data to use for assessment and reporting purposes. Using a task such as Voice Story retains a focus on the task and reduces students' anxiety compared with external tests of oral proficiency. The save and share function of the app means that recordings of students' stories can be shared with teachers for a variety of purposes including assessment of learning and provides diagnostic information to teachers to inform future teaching and learning.

Digital portfolios are becoming a popular way to showcase student learning in Australian schools which includes a digital collection of evidence of student learning. In contrast with a traditional method of collecting physical paper work samples from students which limits evidence to written work that is observable, digital portfolios can capture evidence of learning that may include audio and video, thereby expanding the range of evidence of learning that can be collected. Voice Story can contribute to this by providing audio of students' oral language output. Students can take responsibility for developing their own digital portfolios to showcase their work and include Voice Story recordings as evidence of their second language oral development.

A one-to-one device program whereby each student has their own technology device for use at school (Harper & Milman, 2016; Larkin & Finger, 2011; Selwyn, Nemorin, Bulfin, & Johnson, 2017) is increasingly common in Australia. There is particularly widespread use of iPads and laptops across schools, so Voice Story will be developed to be used on each of these platforms.

Field Trials

Part of the project included trials of Voice Story. Trials were carried out across each primary school year level in two schools and was used with ten different languages. These trials confirmed that the prototype of Voice Story worked as expected. Trials identified the educational impact and functional impact of the app. Observations of students using the app together with student feedback informed early findings.

It was important that student voices were heard because they are the target users of the app. Students shared what they liked about Voice Story, with one Year 4 student sharing *"I like that you can use emojis and make your own story"*. Others reflected on the purpose of Voice Story in their L2 learning context, with one Year 4 student commenting that *"It got us to think about the language"*. Students used Voice Story with the new languages they were learning at school as well as in English for those students learning English as an additional language at school.

Voice Story was effective for L2 oral language use in one of the schools where students were learning Japanese as an additional language. Students at this school were able to create individual stories to tell in Japanese. Voice Story was particularly effective for Japanese because many emojis include Japanese themes, such as Japanese landmarks and food, making them particularly good for use in Japanese classes.

Particularly interesting were the strong and emotive responses from students with language backgrounds that were not the dominant language of the school or the language taught in the school's language program. Four students each asked *"Can it do it in my language?"* Each of these students speak minority languages that are not usually represented in apps. This question identified that some students with minority languages were already aware that many apps were available in "common" languages and not all languages. One student shared *"I have only ever spoken (my language) in my house"*. Voice Story represented the first time for each of these students to use their languages at school and have their language skills recognised by the teacher and their peers. This important finding from the trials of Voice Story highlight the important need for students' languages to be recognised at school. Teachers don't need to speak other languages to bring those languages into the classroom (Wilks-Smith, 2017) and there doesn't need to be a core number of students to validate particular languages. Voice Story can be a classroom tool that can be used in any language. Although a useful tool for second languages, a great outcome would be for students in all classes to have access to Voice Story to showcase their language resources across all languages and not only the focus languages of the school. Often languages do not coexist in classrooms because teachers do not know how to provide for languages that they do not know personally. Voice Story provides a tool that can be used by students across all languages and therefore bring a diversity of languages into the classroom to be shared and celebrated.

Trials of Voice Story also identified benefits for first language use in junior primary classrooms. In this context, students in their first year of primary school, many of whom were at a pre-writing stage, used Voice Story to orally tell their stories in English (most students' first language). The selection of pictures and planning of the story as well as conventions of print (for English, left to right return sweep) were all important first language development skills enforced with the app.

The Voice Story project highlighted the variety of benefits of the app in a range of language contexts. Observations and student feedback from trials have informed further development of the app with the aim towards future availability of Voice Story on the Apple i Store and on Google Play for broad use.

Conclusion

This paper described the process of "research translation" from the analogue Storytelling task to the development of the Voice Story app. It identified the key benefits of Storytelling and Voice Story as being able to be used with all languages at all language levels and include any topic or content. The open-ended nature of such a task positions it as learner-centred (Nunan, 1988) where the learner has choice and is in control of their language with many options to personalise stories. Use with any language means that Voice Story can be equally beneficial for early first language development (of any language), the learning of a new second (or further) language (in any language) and to maintain and use (any) home languages. Voice Story can be used anytime, anywhere, expanding language rehearsal time and reaching beyond the allocated language learning time within a school timetable. It was shown to be particularly beneficial as evidence of learners' oral language development and can be used for assessment of learning and as diagnostic information to inform teaching and learning.

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Two Steps Forward, One Step Back (and a Few to the Side): Embedding English Language Teaching in a Discipline Subject

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Abstract
At Hong Kong Polytechnic University (HKPU), the compulsory English language provision consists of six credits of general and academic English in the first two years and two further credits of English, as part of the Discipline Specific Requirement (DSR), which focus on English for students' particular field of study, in Years 2-4.
Most of these DSR language courses are stand-alone courses taught by the English Language Center (ELC) but in a few, the ELC teaching is embedded into a course run by the discipline department. In January 2015 the first of these embedded courses was rolled out, and six others were introduced by January 2018. Many are preparation courses for the students' Capstone (Final Year) Projects, which include input on research skills and expectations by the discipline department and language from the ELC. Embedded courses were new to the ELC, having been introduced as part of the university's response to the territory-wide education revamp, which reduced secondary schooling by one year and extended university study to four years. Course development involved learning the preconceptions, expectations and communication style of other disciplines. Often the approach to course design was very different and the value placed on English language training varied greatly between disciplines. The pattern of moves taken to achieve a workable course which aligned with the discipline department varied greatly between the different courses. This paper reflects on the practical implementation of embedding these English courses into the discipline subjects and the lessons learnt about this inter-departmental collaboration.

Keywords: adjunct courses, CBI, CLIL, embedded courses

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Introduction

In Hong Kong, the education system has been overhauled to reduce secondary education by one year, to six, and extend tertiary education from three to four years. The 2012-13 cohort was the first to begin university under the new system. Hong Kong Polytechnic University (HKPU) took the opportunity to broaden the students' education by using the extra year to include general education and language subjects as part of the General University Requirement (GUR) for graduation. This means essentially that the number of credits available for the 'Discipline Specific Requirement' (DSR), the subject of the students major, remained largely the same as previously in the new scheme of study.

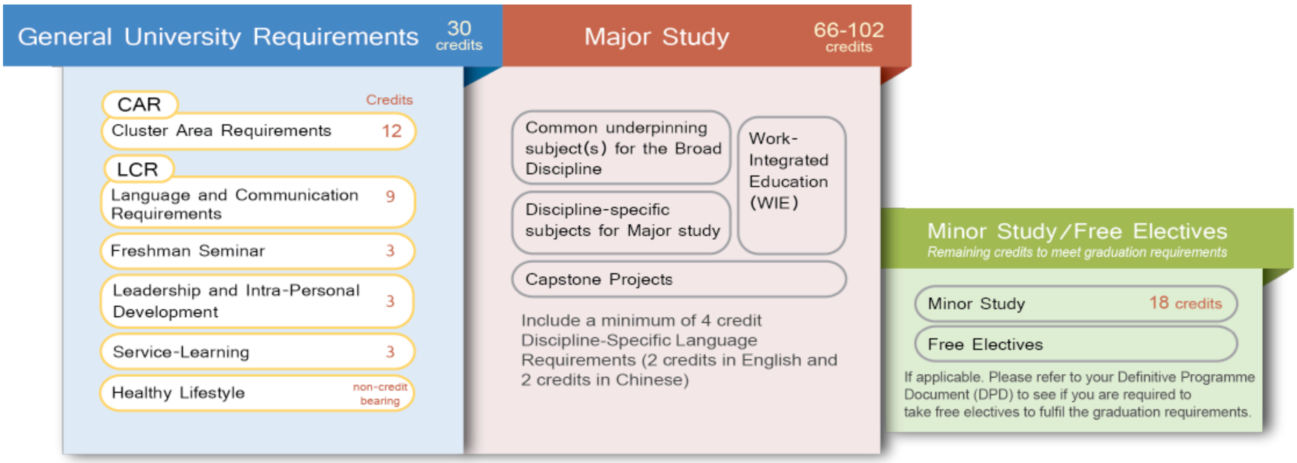

Figure 1: HKPU 4-year degree chart (HKPU, 2015)

As part of the GUR, students complete the Language and Communication Requirement (LCR), which consists of two 3-credit English language subjects and one 3-credit Chinese subject. Usually taken in the first year, the English subjects focus on Academic English (EAP) to support students as they being their university studies.

In the previous curriculum, students usually took one English course of one to three credits, so this was an increase in the university's language requirement. In the new curriculum, however, students are also required to complete two credits of English and two of Chinese related to their major as part of the DSR. Naturally, there was initially some resentment from various stakeholders about the number of credits occupied by language in the curriculum. Many departments felt they were losing credits rather than gaining the extra curriculum space they were expecting an extra year of study to afford them.

In the face of resistance from departments, HKPU relaxed the DSR language requirement slightly. An alternative to the two credits of DSR language was introduced whereby the DSR language requirement could be embedded into a discipline subject of more than two credits. Without a clear specification of how much of this course the language requirement should comprise, it was left to the Language Centres to negotiate the number of hours of language individually with each department.

Theoretical background

In *embedded* or *adjunct* courses, the language support forms part of the content course, with the language teacher emphasizing the language skills needed to achieve the intended outcomes of the content course (Crandall, 1994). These classes emphasise acquisition of specific vocabulary or structures needed to complete the content side of the course (Davies, 2003). Research into content-based instruction (CBI) or content and language integrated learning (CLIL) suggests that eliminating the separation between the study of specialist content and language study encourages students to acquire the target language in a natural way (Madrid & Garcia, 2001). Since the language component of an adjunct course has a direct link to the students' academic needs, the students' motivation is higher, as they perceive the immediate relevance of the language class (Duenas, 2004). This is significant for those students who leave school convinced they are 'no good' at English, but who have to then take further English subjects at university, and fear that this will lower their GPA.

In order to implement an adjunct or embedded English component, both the content and language teachers need to work very closely together in order to sychronise the content and delivery of the different components. (Duenas, 2004). Students can become disillusioned and start to lose motivation if the two parts of the course do not seem to fit together. Of course, this kind of collaboration depends on support from individuals within a discipline department, which means there is vulnerability if there is a change in personnel when those individuals move on (Hyland, 2017).

Practical Reality

When the first embedded course rolled out in 2015, it was after extensive negotiation and preparation by both the ELC and the discipline department. The reality, however, was not as positive as the research had suggested. As the course progressed teachers encountered problems that had been completely unforeseen by the developers in both the ELC and the discipline department, such as scheduling, workload conflicts and assumptions about the cohort's EAP experience.

Despite the close collaboration of the two departmental representatives, the ELC learned over the first run of the course that a single representative did not necessarily represent all the different views of a department. While the English component began in Week 4 of a 13-week semester with four weeks of language for proposals in the schedule, teachers were confronted by angry students who had just submitted or would imminently submit their proposals. It emerged that while the academic stream of the discipline department's representative did indeed expect the proposal in Week 8, other streams had different timelines.

The discipline department responded very quickly to this situation, recognizing the differences between the streams and internally negotiating between the different streams another 'final' proposal submission after the English portion of the course. Later runs of the course did not include this as an issue, as all the streams were clear about the course timeline.

The course, run in Year 3, included preparation of a literature review, as the discipline department was keen for students to begin their background reading in preparation for their Capstone Project work in Year 4. Having submitted their proposal, students were assigned a supervisor, who they would meet to refine their project title and scope, ready to begin their background reading. Both the ELC and discipline department representatives expected this mini literature review would ultimately form part of the project background in the final Capstone Project report.

Unfortunately, meeting Year 3 students was not part of a Capstone Project supervisor's workload A significant number of students were unable to meet their supervisor to refine their topic, as their supervisors told them to come back when they were in Year 4 and researching their Capstone Project. The students continued to produce the literature reviews required by the ELC component of the course, but a number were ultimately unable to use their research, for when they met their supervisors their topic changed significantly and the work was no longer relevant. The ELC, in particular, was concerned that this would decrease student motivation. Students in the first cohort were highly motivated as the background research carried out for the literature review task was directly relevant to their individual project. The concern was that, as word spread from one cohort of students to the next, that the literature review was just a practice language task and may not be relevant to the final project, motivation and student engagement would drop significantly.

While this caused some significant discussion and negotiation between the supervisors and the Program Leader within the discipline department, by the second run of the course, this problem had largely been addressed and most supervisors accepted a brief meeting with their future cohort of Capstone Projects during Semester 2 of Year 3.

A final issue that emerged concerned Senior Year Admitted (SYA) students, of which HKPU has a significant number. These are students who have completed a Higher Diploma (HD) or Associate Degree (AD) at another tertiary institution and come to HKPU in the final two years of the degree program to top up their qualification to a Bachelor's Degree. While they, too, must complete the LCR that other students have taken in Years 1 and 2, most are exempted the ELC courses, because they have taken a similar University English course as part of their previous studies. Students coming from vocational training institutions, however, have often focused on Workplace English previously and do not have the EAP training of students from other institutions. They have to add the EAP subject into their full curriculum to meet the university's graduation requirements, but there is no timeframe specified and many defer it to the summer, when there is more curriculum space to make up missed courses.

The program that these Capstone Project students were taking included a large number of SYA students, who found themselves having to write a literature review with no prior background in EAP. Clearly, this was unsatisfactory for everyone. The SYA students were overwhelmed by the language expectations of the course; the ELC teachers struggled with issues of balancing course content and follow up support for classes composed of both SYA and 4-year curriculum students; and the students who had been studying at HKPU for three years, were dissatisfied at repeating material they had studied in Year 1. The student feedback at the end of the run of the course included comments such as "the course repeated what I learnt from the ELC in Years 1 & 2."

In this case, the discipline teachers had simply not realised what the LCR courses included, and the disadvantage the SYA students faced. They had thought advising SYA students to make up the course in the Summer was helping them by relieving the pressure of work during the semester time. Once they understood the situation, they advised later cohorts of SYA students to take the LCR subject in their first semester, or if that was impossible to timetable, concurrently with the Capstone Project preparation course in Semester 2.

Having learnt some lessons from this first run, other embedded DSR English courses were rolled out with a greater degree of success. Each time, however, there were some issues and a learning curve. One course squeezed the language component down to just over 0.5 credits. The English component is popular among students as it is so short ("We like the English part because it is short and focused"), but they perceive it as a stand-alone English course, as it bears little relevance to the course it is embedded into: "The present arrangement is no different to having two subjects. There's not much integration in terms of contents between the (two) components."

In negotiations with another discipline department, it became clear that the department's representative was unsure what they wanted of the language component. The ELC produced a syllabus gleaned from numerous discussions about the students' use of English in the discipline. Mid-way through the course, however, it became clear that what the students actually needed was somewhat different, and the language Subject Leader had to supplement the embedded course, with separate workshops for the students on specific language and grammar that was not included in the course. The workshop material became an integral part of later runs of the course.

Main Issues

The issues encountered in preparing the embedded courses can be distilled into four main areas: the reason that English is embedded in HKPU courses; the timing of the embedded courses; communication gaps; and the attitude of some departments to English as part of the DSR.

Reason for embedding English

The adjunct or embedded model of CLIL supposes that it is introduced to enhance the language acquisition and motivation of students towards language learning. In reality, at HKPU it was adopted in order to squeeze the number of credits allocated to language in a full curriculum. The departments that adopted it did so in order to reduce the two language credits required in the DSR. Where it has been reduced to 0.5 credits, the language component has become a negligible part of the curriculum, and where it is not integrated into the discipline subject, it becomes merely a stand-alone DSR English subject that circumvents the minimum language credit requirement. Given this background to the adoption of embedded subjects, the ELC will struggle to produce embedded English components that mirror the ideal adjunct course, offering language support that fits the needs of the students exactly.

Timing

The ELC is wholly dependent on the discipline departments for the timetabling of English subjects. Where this is done well, the embedded course works as it is intended. A different Capstone Project course for another discipline is offered at exactly the right time, while students are preparing their project report. The course involves students having content input from the discipline department, language input, time to write, consultations with both the language and content teachers, time for revision and further consultations before final submission. In this way students are supported as they write their Capstone Project Reports by both the content and language teachers throughout the process and they appreciate both components and how they complement each other. Students feedback shows that the course, "was useful because it included those details or small things that students often neglect."

One of the continuing disadvantages with the first Capstone Project preparation course, described previously, is that it is taken during the semester before students begin their project, so the language component cannot support them as they write the report. The course, therefore, supports writing a project proposal and a brief literature review. It is probable that a more timely language component would be perceived more positively by both students and supervisors as it could address the issues that come up while students are writing the project report.

Communication gaps

It became clear to the ELC's representatives, as the first few embedded courses rolled out, that although there were at times communication gaps between the ELC and the discipline departments that needed addressing, there were also significant communication gaps within the discipline departments. Each department nominated a representative to negotiate the syllabus with the ELC, and the ELC attempted to carry out a detailed needs analysis for each of the embedded courses, discussing the syllabus and materials with the discipline department representative at each stage. However, the English component that emerged from these discussions, while suiting the section or stream most closely associated with the representative, often did not fit with the other streams or programs in the discipline department.

One of the most important lessons that the ELC learnt from this process was to ask the representative to talk to other people in their department. This was not something that was initially considered, as there was an assumption that the representative represented the department as a whole. It became clear that most departments operated differently to the ELC expectation. In the ELC, teachers can be expected to teach any of the courses offered, and so everyone has some understanding of all the courses. Content teachers, by contrast, often teach their own area of expertise autonomously and do not necessarily know what happens on other programs or other streams. They have to be reminded to communicate, to ensure they are in a position to represent the department as a whole, not just their own area.

Attitude to English

As discussed previously, embedded subjects were introduced to placate departments that felt language was taking too many credits in the curriculum. This reflects the attitude towards English in some discipline departments. The issue of SYA students is an important one for HKPU as it seeks to increase the number of these students, and it has created something of a dilemma. Students coming from these backgrounds often have entered tertiary education with a level of English lower than the minimum requirement for entry into HKPU. Most take English courses as part of their HD or AD, but their language proficiency is still lower than that of their counterparts who have been studying on the degree program since Year 1.

Those that enter without having taken EAP courses find themselves at a disadvantage. They should take the ELC EAP subjects, but previously were frequently told, 'It's only English. You can make it up in the summer.' As a student commented in the Staff-Student Consultative Meeting at the end of the semester, "The course isn't of much help to my studies because my discipline teachers are not really focused on English. It is acceptable if the ideas can be understood even if your English skill is not good."

In the case described above, the discipline subject reacted positively when it was indicated that these students were disadvantaged in the preparation of their literature reviews, and it took steps to position EAP in earlier in the curriculum. However, the 'it's only English' attitude is a common one, and while it prevails, embedded language courses will be unable to reach the full potential of the ideal adjunct course.

Conclusion

By beginning the discussions about the new courses several years in advance of the new curriculum, the HKPU ELC hoped to ensure that the courses would be successful in meeting the needs of the students in the new system. In some cases, it was the ELC that drove the discipline departments to anticipate the needs of their students ahead of the disciplines' own consideration of the new courses.

Embedded courses were new to all the stakeholders, and the learning curve was a steep one. It was perhaps, therefore, inevitable that the first course would raise a number of unforeseen issues on roll out, as no one had previous practical experience of an embedded or adjunct course. Unfortunately, the experience of that first embedded course had an impact on the staff of the ELC and there remain a number of ELC teachers who are reluctant to teach embedded courses, despite the greater success of later runs of both that course and other subsequent courses.

From this experience, it seems that for an embedded course to be truly successful, it needs to come from a desire truly to "equip students with the communicative skills to participate in (their) particular academic cultures" (Hyland, 2017). The ideal symbiotic course is one where the language enhances the students' ability to communicate as members of their discipline community, and the focus on the discipline increases the students' motivation to learn the language. When the embedded course is an expedient way to prevent language from claiming discipline credits, or is seen as "only English" to be inserted wherever there is a timeslot in the curriculum, this ideal can never be fully achieved.

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A Cognitive Study of Expressions Based on Hearing in English and Vietnamese

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Abstract
Hearing is said to be the sense of linguistic communication and in fact, in all the meanings, both concrete and abstract, it seems to be so. Through experiencing of human, hearing is used for many expressions in daily life popularly. In the view of cognitive linguistics, "the design features of languages and our ability to learn and use them are accounted for by general cognitive abilities" (Barcelona, 1997:8). In fact, hearing is considered a sense through which a person can understand, know, recognise, detect, imagine, discover or find sound. As in an example of *"You buy your life with it. You hear me? You give it to that dago devil and buy your life",* the speaker wants the hearer to 'understand' what he/she transfers, he/she uses 'hear' to express his/her meaning, when the hearer can hear, it means that person can understand his/her thought. This paper refers to study the expressions based on hearing in both English and Vietnamese under the cognitive views. Since then, the article is concluded that English and Vietnamese people share the expressions based on hearing. This study will help teachers as well as learners of English linguistics approach their meanings exactly.

Keywords: Cognitive Linguistics, Conceptual Metaphor, mapping, human senses, hearing.

Introduction

Cognitive Linguistics (CL) is considered "a modern school of linguistic thought with formal approaches to language" (Evans & Green, 2006:5). In the view of the CL, all knowledge and experience human beings use to express the things and events are unfamiliar and/or abstract concepts and the human conceptual system is "fundamentally metaphorical in nature" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980:3). In the CL approach, the concepts of metaphor has been changed. Traditionally, metaphor is used for artistic and rhetoric purposes, based on the similarities between two objects, used by only talented people or for special effects (Kövecses, 2010). However, according to Kövecses (2010), "metaphor is a property of concepts, and not of words; the function of metaphor is to better understand certain concepts, and not just some artistic or esthetic purpose" (p.10). He also defines that rather than being 'based on similarity', metaphor is found to be "used effortlessly in everyday life by ordinary people, not just by special talented people", and it is, by all means, "an inevitable process of human thought and reasoning". To understand metaphor, this author suggested 'source domain' (SD) – ' a concrete domain' and 'target domain' (TD) - 'an abstract concept'. In systematic metaphorical mapping, the human mind can be a common target domain and "an ideal source domain" (2010:10-21). In fact, through experiencing the surrounding world by the senses, human beings express various meaning in communication based on them making language users misunderstand, especially those using English or Vietnamese as a foreign language. Thus, a cognitive study of expressions based on hearing - one of the human senses - in English and Vietnamese is of great significance.

1. Some main related concepts

In this study, we mainly approach Lakoff and Johnson's (1980/2003) and Kövecses' (2002/2010) cognitive trend. Hence, we review most of definitions for the study from them.

- Conceptual metaphors (CM)

CM is a "natural part of human thought." To make it clear of what shape it is, Kövecses (2010) described it as having "two conceptual domains" and between those two domains, one (the target) is understood in terms of another (the source). Although they are the two seemingly different ways, of giving definition, their ideas summit in the point that conceptual metaphor is distinguished from linguistic metaphor and we are indebted to them for multi-dimensional understanding of conceptual metaphor that we draw out from their definition.

- Source domain (SD)

We use SD to understand another conceptual domain (the target domain-TD(s)). They are typically less abstract or less complex than TDs. Mapping keeps intact the "cognitive topology of the source domain" provided that it is "consistent with the inherent structure of the target domain" and he also hypothesizes that there might be.

- Target domain (TD)

A relatively abstract, less well-delineated, less familiar, or inherently unstructured concept, called TD. We try to understand the target domain, a conceptual domain, understand the target domain in terms of the structure of the source domain. This understanding is based on a set of conceptual correspondences between elements of the two domains.

- Mappings

Conceptual metaphors are characterized by a set of conceptual correspondences between elements of the source and target domains. These correspondences are technically called "mappings." In other words, the systematic identification of the SD and TD is termed metaphorical mapping. A mapping is the systematic set of correspondences which exist between constituent elements of the SD and TD.

2. Conceptual Metaphors based on Hearing in English and Vietnamese

This paper refers to study the expressions based on hearing in both English and Vietnamese under the cognitive views so as to conduct a comparative study by analyzing 100 (50 from each language) expressions based on hearing.

2.1. In English

Hearing is considered a sense through which a person or animal is aware of sound, the ability to hear, the distance within which someone's voice can be heard, an opportunity to explain why you did, said, or believe something. From these characteristics, we have mappings for metaphorical expressions in daily life through experiencing of humans.

- UNDERSTANDING IS HEARING

Source domain: HEARING Target domain: UNDERSTANDING

This is clarified through the following examples "*I heard that. And I'm not proposing a life of secret passion* (Torow, 2003:519) *or "Twelve gunmen stood waiting until they got far enough out to sea to throw him overboard, while Joe listened to the engine chug and watched the water churn white at the stern* (Lahane, 2012:3).

In these expressions, a further development of meaning "to understand and know" is that in some contexts the speaker understand or know what he does. Through this conceptual metaphor, it can be confirmed that the sense of hearing makes information approached clear, reliable.

- ATTENDING IS HEARING

Source domain: HEARING Target domain: ATTENDING

In this case, the person that speaks the sentence is demanding attention from the hearer, even though the hearer has to obey to do what speakers is telling him to do and to give attention to someone or something in order to hear the speakers, for example *"Listen to what I found in Rommy's probation records," said Pamela."* (Torow, 2003:5) *or "Okay, people, listen up," he said."* (Connelly, 2011:365)

The sense of hearing in this mapping is characterized for meanings as being waiting eagerly to hear about something or stopping listening.

- DETECTING IS HEARING

Source domain: HEARING   Target domain: DETECTING

Hearing is said to be the sense of linguistic communication. In all the meanings used in the mapping, the abstract one seems to be quite wide as in expressions as "*He heard (detected) a few creaking sounds from the aircraft, the air stair door on the left side of the fuselage swing down."* (DeMille, 2010:54) *or "I heard (detected) his voice."* (Torow, 2003: 512)

An interpersonal relation is acquired in this case aiming to get the semantic field that the sense has sent through context. The conceptual metaphors based on hearing in themselves do mean ''detect' contents.

2.2. In Vietnamese

In Vietnamese culture, hearing sense is focused extremely, it is the reason why we have not met any difficulties in collecting the expressions for hearing conceptual metaphors. All conceptual metaphors based on hearing in English could be found in Vietnamese. Thus, we do not repeat SD and TD for these conceptual metaphors from the found expressions.

- UNDERSTANDING IS HEARING

The curious examples are the substitution of the meaning 'understanding' or 'knowing'. This also occured in Vietnamese. It is also possible to use *nghe, nghe thấy, nghe hiểu, nghe biết* in many cmetaphorical expressions, such as "*Tôi đau thắt ruột, nước mắt chảy nhòe cả mắt mèo. Không nhìn thấy gì nữa, tôi chỉ nghe thấy tiếng lá cau rung rung từng hồi xào xạc"* (Suong, 2007:278) ('I feel painful, my tears blurred the eyes. I see nothing, I just listened (knew) to the leaves of areca-nut rustling') or "*Cục Cục nghe chuyện, cười nhạt, rồi anh uốn lưỡi bảy lần cũng chỉ được một câu:- Đàn bà rắc rối lắm."* (Suong, 2007:45) ('Cuc Cuc heard (understood), sickly laughed, then thought over, only one sentence: - Women are so troublesome!')

- ATTENDING IS HEARING

Hearing is not only the perception of sounds that matters here, but also the perfect identification of those sounds. The semantic closeness between attention/ interest and hearing has been present in English and some other languages including Vietnamese for a very long time; whenever the type of perception is specified and, if referring to attention, when the sound is very soft or vague. The verbs *nghe*, *lắng nghe, nghe ngóng* better represents this mapping as in "*Có một câu duy nhất ông nói tôi thấy* *đáng nghe, rằng ông bảo ông bất hiếu quá, nên giờ tôi phải chăm sóc bà.”* (Suong, 2007:337) (‘Only one speech from my grandfather I could listen (pay attention on) was that he told he was ungrateful to his parents, so now I have to take care of my grandmother’.)

- DETECTING IS HEARING

The phrases as *‘nghe, nghe thấy, nghe không thấy, như nghe, nghe rõ, nghe rõ ràng, nghe đồn, nghe nói, nghe râm ran, nghe rầm rộ…”* are approached as an intellectual activity of “finding, discovering, imagining’ in Vietnamese as “*Tụ như nghe tiếng tanh tách từ miền băng lạnh cảm xúc đang vỡ.”* (Suong, 2007:57) (‘Tu found the onomatopocia of various sounds from the emotional cold ice domain breaking). Once it emphasizes that hearing considered as understanding, knowing is extremely important for Vietnamese.

2.3. Comparison between expressions based on hearing in English and Vietnamese

A second sense of convergence is that the two languages deploy the HEARING image-schema. The collected conceptual metaphors that follow the HEARING image-schema show that a dynamic view as UNDERSTANDING, ATTENDING and DETECTING are involved. The conceptual metaphors for all mappings are found to be common across the two languages.

Table 1 - Comparison between Expressions based on Hearing in English and Vietnamese

	Conceptual metaphors	Expressions in English (%)	Expressions in Vietnamese (%)
1.	UNDERSTANDING IS HEARING	19	11
2.	ATTENDING IS HEARING	15	17
3.	DETECTING IS HEARING	16	22

The conceptual metaphors are based on the commonsense knowledge and everyday experience of people. In both English and Vietnamese, therefore, the expressions based on hearing are structured by metaphor, which are grounded in common bodily experiences. As a result, the two languages share a good number of hearing conceptual metaphors.

3. Implications

For teachers, all main aims of introducing the CMs based on hearing to learners need approaching and understanding to make them be aware of the motivation. As teachers understand the similarities between English and Vietnamese conceptual metaphors based on hearing to teach their students, they can make her/his lesson more interesting. For learners, learners can activate the potentials of using the target language in a more meaningful way, build up vocabulary, meanings as well as determine the comprehension and the creation of a metaphor certainly.

Conclusion

In this study, we have set up the conceptual metaphors 'UNDERSTANDING IS HEARING', 'ATTENDING IS HEARING' and 'DETECTING IS HEARING' followed by those of semantic meanings in order to explain the hearing metaphorical expressions in both English and Vietnamese languages. We have conducted the research by ways of collecting words, phrases or sentences used hearing sense in expressing metaphors in both the English and Vietnamese languages so as to make a systematic analysis and comparison under the CM view, which is mainly based on the related theories in CL. From the perspective of comparative studies, it is said that the living condition regulates the way people think. Following this, two languages show their common points in using the knowledge of themselves, their body, their thought in depicting the world.

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Marketing to a Mature Audience: A Comparative Study of the Marketing Techniques Used by Private English Schools in Japan and South Korea in Reaching the Mature Segment of the ESL Market

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Abstract
Someone once said 'Yuppies are out and Muppies are in.' Muppies refer to mature upscale professionals. As the population of the world ages there is increasing need for an assessment of the marketing strategies that are used to target the elderly. The literature relating to the marketing of foreign languages to the elderly is sparse. This fuelled the researcher's desire to undertake a comparative assessment of the marketing techniques used by the Japanese and Koreans in respect of marketing English education services to them. Although academicians are divided on the specific age at which a customer transcends to the mature market many agree that this market can begin with members 50years and over. Neilson and Curry (1997) and Moschis (2003) have written in depth expositions on the strategies that ought to be used in respect to members of the mature audience. The Moschis Framework is one of the most relied on segmentation model in respect to the elderly as it combines Gerontographic and psychographic variables in order to develop a profile of the elderly not based on age or life stage variable. A qualitative approach was used to garner the data needed using in depth interviews and archival research. Japanese marketers are more prone to appeal to the younger self referent ages of the elderly through their use of younger looking models, brighter colored pamphlets and creative settings for advertisements. Koreans are more conservative in their approach and are inclined to appeal to the nationalistic tendencies of older Koreans. However both groups use similar segmentation techniques with age being the dominant variable. It is recommended that further research incorporates other segment of the mature audience like the very old and be expanded to look at the marketing strategies that could be effective in marketing online English courses to Asian customers 50 years and over.

Keywords: Andragogy, Marketing, Mature Audience, ESL, Eikaiwa, English, Gerontography, Psychography, Japan, South Korea

Introduction

The Department of Economic and Social Affairs Population Division of The United Nations (2010) in its World Population Ageing Report reports that Japan is now faced with an aging population and is poised to have the most remarkable increase of persons living over the age of 80 years than any other nation on the planet. Japan is one of the 6 countries worldwide which contains half of the world aged population behind China and the United States. The report projects an increasing trend for the Republic of Korea and other Asian states. Ageing has become such a topical issue in Asian states that it is predicted that Japan will have most of the world's centenarians by 2050 accounting for 1% of its total population.

The implication of an ageing population is far reaching and the education industry is not exempt. Private English education courses are widely accessed all over the island but more so in urban areas with specific focus on the young. Like Japan, South Korea is also facing an aging population and therefore it is critical to investigate how private English Schools deal with this from a Marketing and Promotions perspective. The South Korean comparative angle will seek to identify whether similar approaches are used and whether any differences are attributable to culture or economics.

Neilson and Curry (1997) proffer that the 50+ age group is the single longest life stage. Therefore, there is no mistaking the lifetime value of the mature market. The literature relating to the packaging of educational services to the elderly is visibly sparse with more scholars focusing on health, financial and governmental services.

This study aims to critically assess the techniques used by private English schools in Japan and South Korea in targeting and marketing to mature audiences and to make recommendations on how to improve the effectiveness of their tactics.

The English Industry in Japan

The Japanese English Industry is divided into two parts. One part deals with English as a school subject and follows strict curriculum rules in order to prepare clients for particular exams such as High School and University Entrance exams and the Eiken tests. The other part deals with English as a communicative tool and targets people that use English as a means of international communication. This part is known as *Eikaiwa* and forms the foundation of this study.

The English Industry in South Korea

The South Korean English industry has been estimated at $333 million dollars with another $833 million spent on study abroad programmes (Hadzantonis, 2013). Pennycook (2004) in describing this industry explains that English continues to be the gatekeeper to amplify socio economic power and status and is sometimes used as a class marker. Hadzantonis (2013) asserts that this has spurred a new drive in all areas of the market to achieve competency in English Language as a national economic developmental strategy.

Language and Older Learners

It has been long thought that older people make poor students of second languages. However seniors have begun to prove all types of stereotypes wrong. In fact reports have continued to surface especially in some parts of Asia such as China and Japan of an upward trend in language education enrolments by persons 50 years and over (Anderson, 2012). The author explains that there is an increasing trend among American seniors travelling abroad to engage in language immersion classes.

The Mature Audience

Marketing to the elderly is a complex undertaking which requires keen attention to be paid to the act of segmenting and the development of marketing strategies and tactics. Several academicians have offered several means of segmenting this consumer group based on demographic, psychographic and gerontographic variables (Moschis, 2003; Michman, Mazze and Greco, 2003; Lazer, 1986; Bone, 1991). However, a central theme throughout academic publications is that chronological age should not be relied on as a significant segmentation variable. Doka (1992) extends by showing how life-stages is a meaningless segmentation basis for the elderly as their experiences do not necessarily relate to age but can differ based on economics, geography, culture, religion and education. This means that the mature market cannot be seen as homogenous thus generically developed strategies to reach them will prove ineffective.

The elderly differ from other consumer groups (Moschis, 2003) and require strategies that appeal to their self referent ages (Mattila, Karjaluoto and Pento, 2003). The elderly prefer products and services that allow them to feel younger and reinforce their continuing independence and connectedness to the society. Carrigan (1998) expounds that this need for social interaction makes the mature audience a prime target for relationship marketing techniques. In addition, Balaz (1995) found that because of the younger psychological age of the elderly, marketers and product developers should desist from branding products as being ‘for the elderly.’ Instead Lazer (1986) admonishes that the mature market should be seen as the second ‘youth market’ and be made to feel and act younger.

The higher discretionary income and increasing mobility of the elderly have impacted their lifestyle making it different from those of their predecessors. Moschis (2003) argues that older models do not appeal to the elderly. But Carrigan and Szmigin (1998) rebut by explaining that the mature audience are more likely to trust information coming from their peers. The use of older models also guards against disengagement and reinforces the connectedness to society that the elderly has.

The mature audience are laggards and are prone to rely on what works best for them. They are cynical of changes (Neilson and Curry, 1997) and quick cut marketing tactics do not work for them. They are information driven and require clear content rich infomercials (Moschis, 2003). They are not as price sensitive as younger cohorts but discounts on standardized products do appeal to them (Moschis, Curasi and Bellenger, 2003).

The mature market is said to be less self absorbed than younger cohorts and thus the concept of lifelong learning appeals directly to them (Michman, Mazze and Greco, 2003). This is reinforced by the Activity Theory of Aging which explicates the need for the continued connection of the elderly to society through their engagement in multiple activities ranging from civic and community ventures to educational and leisure activities. So, education has a place in the lives of members of the mature market even though this link may be obscured by the fact that they have transitioned into a purely consumerist state (Manheimer, 2005).

Research Objectives:

1. To critically assess the marketing strategies used by Japanese Private English Schools as well as Korean English schools.
2. To identify any similarities or differences in marketing activities used by both countries and to ascertain what may be the root cause of such differences.
3. To ascertain the proportion of mature students who attend private English schools in relation to the general student body of those schools with the aim of developing a general profile of the student.
4. To ascertain the financial viability and willingness of the investigated schools to serve this segment of the market.
5. To propose ways in which schools may wish to configure their techniques in reaching a more mature audience in response to current trends and based on the information unearthed through this study.

Methodology

The epistemological approach used was Social Constructionism. This stance was chosen out of a need to unearth meaning from the participants' experiences and actions in the marketplace and to seek to understand the rationale behind the use of particular marketing tools and activities. This contextual approach may inhibit the likelihood that conclusions drawn are representative of the society (Green, 1994). Because this research primarily subtends on an assessment and critique of marketing techniques used by Japanese and Korean practioners, both primary and secondary qualitative data was required in order to fulfil the objectives of the dissertation. This was collected by means of semi-structured interviews and archival research.

Conclusion

The results of this study are especially useful now as Japan and South Korea experience aging populations. It has been estimated that the mature consumer will become the most important segment of all consumer group (Matila, Karjaluoto and Pento, 2003). Therefore, it is of utmost importance that the current practices of brand managers in the private English education industry of both countries be investigated as a means of comparing and contrasting their practices and ascertaining how these practices differ from Western conceptualized marketing theories and practices.

The decision to market to the elderly has come at an opportune time as marketers from both countries contend with an aging population. But this is also coupled with the increasing disposable income and discretionary time of members of this segment which makes them financially attractive. Both countries recognize the necessity of

English education to the advancement of their economies but their techniques differ in a number of respects. The Koreans appeal to the nationalistic pride of the citizens by encouraging the elderly to learn English in order to assist younger generations. The Japanese practice takes a more outward approach by appealing to the elderly's increasing engagement in leisure activities such as foreign travel, education and community involvement, their growing inclination to explore and seek new challenges and their need for social interaction as a means of empowerment. The progression of the Japanese practice may be due to the ongoing internationalization of Japanese marketing practice and their adoption of Western marketing philosophies (Herbig, 1995).

Japanese Practice

During the Japanese bubble there was an exponential rise in expenditure on services, including education. This coupled with increasing expansion of Japanese businesses gave rise to a number of private firms offering English education across the island. An increasing number of Japanese brands such as Rakuten are now making English the main language of communication within their companies. Others use English as the lingua franca between and among subsidiaries. In previous times many Japanese and South Korean firms followed an Ethnocentric Staffing policy (Desler, 2003) which meant that home country employees were sent to staff subsidiaries overseas. This increased the need for English education. Because of this and other factors the general creative themes of advertisements of English education services were once focused on national pride, nation building, global integration and expansion. Over time this has progressed to a more personalized individual approach where the acquisition of English is not only to support the expansion and integration of Japan into the global arena but to empower the individual. For the 50+ year old segment the marketing strategies now focus more on English education, not being a tool of commerce, but a leisure activity which allows for continued social interaction; which reinforces and appeals to members' self referent ages, which ensures connectedness and makes foreign travel and interaction with foreigners easier.

Korean Practice

The Korean practice has remained inward looking showcasing English education as a tool for the expansion of the Korean community into the International arena. It is nationalistic with slogans highlighting the benefits of English acquisition to the nation rather than to the individual: the 'self.' The Korean concept of 'self' still exists within the family and the community and not the individual (Rhee, 2002) and this may partly account for this continuing practice. Rhee (2002) furthers that Confucian precepts still impact many of the marketing and public relations activities that are undertaken in South Korea. The continued dependence on *wu lun* and avoidance of conspicuous consumption moderates the Korean Marketing practices and therefore may account for their more inward conservative approach to marketing to the mature audience.

Notwithstanding these practices are also embedded in the type of mature customer that is primarily targeted by these English schools.

Mature Customer

Both Japanese and Korean schools target mainly the Younger Olders (Lazer's Classification) or the Young Matures (Gordon, Moschis and Warren's Classification), the Healthy Indulgers (Moschis' Classification) or the New Age Elderly (Mathur's Classification). This group differs the least from the younger generation of Baby Boomers, are more socially engaged and more inclined to demand educational services. New challenging experiences appeal to them and they are always in search of experiences that aid their self actualization process. Positioning educational services to them may prove more profitable than for any other segment. Lazer (1986) explains that this sub-segment is cognitively younger than their counterparts and possesses greater proclivities to and desire for connectedness. This profile of the typical mature customer supports the positioning that is used by both the Japanese and South Korean schools. Because this group seeks new experiences and creative personal challenges (Mathur et al., 1998) they may be the most profitable segment for English education in the mature market. Their desire for connectedness reflects their inclination to sign up in pairs or groups. Mathur et al., (1998) further explain that the use of group packages for the new age elderly can successfully reinforce their desire for social interaction. This may prove profitable and beneficial for any marketing organization to consider.

Older customers tend to be more loyal. As reported by the participants of this study, the lower attrition rates among the elderly mirrors their higher levels of loyalty. In addition Asian customers are less likely to defect after a relationship has been developed. Capitalizing on the loyalty of mature customers is therefore essential to continued profitability. This loyalty should be leveraged to ensure an increase in retention. In addition, it may be remiss of the respondents not to capitalize on this loyalty through the use of referral programs. Marketing strategies should therefore appeal to the enduring loyalty of this consumer segment.

It should be noted that in targeting this sub-segment there is a considerable portion of the mature segment that are left untargeted by language schools in Japan and South Korea. From a profitability standpoint the literature however confirms that this sub-segment may be the most profitable in demanding language services rather than their older counterparts. In keeping with the chronological definition of the elderly this younger sub-segment still falls within the ambit of the mature audience.

Marketing Technique

An aging population is the main reason why marketers in Japan and South Korea have begun to market English educational services to the mature client. Changing lifestyles of the elderly also mean that they are more mobile and more socially engaged than their predecessors. This paired with their decreasing psychological ages have made them prime targets for educational services. These changes have led to changing marketing techniques used to reach the elderly. The Japanese's transition from a nationalistic positioning to a more individual positioning, which focuses on the elderly not in terms of his connection to the nation but as his own person, may mirror current trends in the marketing approaches to the elderly where marketing efforts that cause the elderly to 'be' are more well received than other traditional approaches (Gordon, Moser and Warren, 2002). The elderly will reject marketing efforts that do not appeal to them. It is imperative that the marketing of services reinforce their whole picture orientation and cause them to extend the enjoyment of their life experiences. This approach is better embraced by the Japanese marketers than the Koreans. In this regard services that are positioned in a way that facilitates the self actualization process of the elderly will be popular among this segment.

But the enduring nationalistic Korean technique may reflect the undying loyalty that mature customers have to country, products and brands. Lunsford and Burnett (1992) explain that mature customers pride themselves as being more loyal than other age cohorts. In addition, Chang (2007) explains the effectiveness of appealing to Korean pride in the positioning of products. This may account for the Korean's continuing positioning success. The impact of Collectivism on marketing cannot be overlooked and must be taken into consideration when analyzing the approach of the Koreans in marketing English education to members of a mature audience. Chang (2007) further explicates the influence of previous governments in South Korea in instilling national pride and how this has served to impact the marketing strategies that have become most successful in that nation. The Koreans also take advantage of events marketing activities which surround the hosting of several international events, to modify their strategy in reaching all segments including the elderly. Capitalizing on the influx of foreigners and increasing tourism which surround these large sporting events also appeal to the Korean pride and support the nationalistic positioning of the Korean's marketing technique.

Segmentation

The results show that the participants have recognized the importance of marketing to the elderly due to their high discretionary income and decreasing psychological ages which cause them to engage in further educational activities. Interestingly, schools in Japan and South Korea target customers on the very edge of the elderly spectrum which leaves a section of the mature audience unaccounted for. Although the majority of respondents stated that a mixture of variables are used in segmenting the market all agree that age is used as the main defining variable. This is used because of its ease and convenience. This practice goes against caution offered by (Greco, 1987; Doka, 1992; Lazer, 1986) who showed that age, whilst useful in segmenting the mature market, can prove to be insufficient because of the heterogeneity that exists within the mature market.

In analyzing the data within the Collectivist Asian culture, this level of heterogeneity should also be questioned. The enduring homogeneity of Asian cultures as outlined by Hofstede's framework, reinforced through, rules, education, societal norms and the standardization of procedures may mean that the elderly in Asian cultures may not be as heterogeneous as the elderly in Western cultures, assuming that levels of heterogeneity can be measured. It may be arguable that age may still possess a great degree of credence in segmenting the mature market in some countries more than others. Lazer, Murata and Kosaka (1995) alludes to this homogeneity especially within Japanese markets. Notwithstanding, many of the segmentation classification still rely on age as a measure of demarcation. In doing so Mathur et al., (1998) allude to the use of age to separate the new age elderly from the traditional elderly and on which assumptions about lifestyle, mobility and levels of engagement can be made.

The ease and convenience of using age still has significant foundational value in marketing educational services within the Asian context.

The Koreans' use of location is unique. This may reflect the underlying assumption of the level of mobility of the elderly within Korea and their ability and willingness to travel for educational services. Using discretionary income as another equally important basis of segmentation reflects the Koreans' assumptions on the ability of the elderly to pay for the service. Korea has lower purchasing power parity than that of Japan which may mirror their greater reliance on discretionary income in segmenting the mature market. This can form the basis of further research to test whether certain segmentation variables bear more importance in particular markets. That is the possibility that discretionary income plays a more significant role in segmenting the mature market in countries that have lower disposable income among the elderly.

Lifestyle has been lauded as a worthwhile segmentation variable as it reflects the elderly's proclivity to demand particular products and services. Lifestyle is closely related to the Activity Theory of Aging, which reflects the enduring connection that mature customers have with society; and also with Gerontography as explicated by (Moschis, 2003). The Japanese reliance on lifestyle as a segmentation variable mirrors a more targeted individualized approach to the marketing of English education to senior citizens. In targeting Healthy Indulgers it means that persons who are more socially engaged, mobile, healthy and cognitively younger can be reached and marketed to for educational services. This dependence on lifestyle also aids in the development of the creative concepts used by the Japanese and makes greater use of the mature excitement that should be inherent in all marketing approaches used for the elderly. This reliance on lifestyle also comes in conjunction with the younger self referent ages of the elderly which cause them to engage in more youth oriented activities.

Price, Discounts and Special Service Offerings

Following the segmentation of the market it is now possible to explore what special service offerings have been developed for the targeted sub-segment. This includes an exploration of the use of price and discounts.

Group packages have been known to positively reinforce the social interaction need of the elderly and may induce demand. Private English schools in South Korea do not use group packages as a means of inducement for the mature market. They had no special offerings to seniors but instead relied on standard packages that are available to all customer segments. This positively correlates to the 'same person' concept. Singling out seniors for special classes may be seen as pointless if it is agreed that this service offering is 'age-neutral.' Having seniors in the same classes as all students still fulfils the need for interaction as the concept of interaction and connectedness can transcend chronological age. Not having special class offerings for seniors can also serve to reinforce their connectedness to society and their continued ability to interact with all ages. But some Japanese schools utilised special service offerings to seniors in terms of conversation classes just for seniors. This supports the positioning of their service which highlights the social interaction that is to be had with one's peers.

Both countries use price as a positioning tool. South Korea which has a lower Purchasing Parity uses price as a means of affordability in terms of attracting the mature audience through lower prices. The Japanese use premium pricing. The use of premium pricing may follow (Moschis, 2003) postulations that the elderly are less price sensitive than younger cohorts. It may also come in tandem with the fact that Japanese schools are more likely to design special courses for the elderly which may necessitate higher prices. Japanese schools reported the type of clientele they wish to target and therefore pricing may be used both as a positioning and sifting tool in demarcating the market. Following these different perspectives on prices, respondents were just as equally divided on the use of discounts for seniors with Koreans more likely to offer discounts. Seniors are attracted to discounts that are offered on standardized services but are less swayed by discounts offered on differentiated service (Sidbury and Simcock, 2009). The Koreans' use of discounts may prove more valuable and effective than if it were used by the Japanese given the standard nature of courses offered by the Koreans. The Koreans lower purchasing power may make discounts more attractive to seniors in that country. By not offering discounts to seniors, the Japanese agree with the concept that seniors are not as price sensitive as younger cohorts of the market so offering discounts may not prove to be a worthwhile marketing strategy. But offering discounts to them for standard courses may act as an impetus for them to purchase**.**

The inclination of Japanese schools to use premium pricing in respect to the elderly may capitalize on this cohort's lower price sensitivity and be used to support the marketing positioning of the particular brands. It was evident from the information gleaned through archival research that stronger, better known brands tended to use higher prices in respect of seniors to also attract a particular sub-segment of that market and to support the profile of the mature customer they most wish to serve. This comes in direct contravention to practices used in Western societies where the use of lower prices through senior discounts is used to attract older customers. In fact, Moschis, Curasi and Bellenger (2003) explain that discounts based on age may induce seniors to purchase.

Advertising

Both Japan and South Korea depend more on print advertisement on reaching the elderly than they do on TV or radio advertisements. This dependence on print agrees with (Moschis, 2003) recommendations for advertizing strategy toward the elderly to make use of print. However this non-reliance on TV advertisements deviates from more Western practices which highlights that this segment is the highest among television viewers and thus TV advertisement forms a viable tool to be used when marketing to them. This dependence on print advertisements through the use of newspaper and magazine advertisements, pamphlets and community notice board ads may stem from the Japanese marketing culture which relies heavily on the use of print (Herbig, 1995). Japanese marketing practice is filled with paradoxes and although may come into close alliance with more western practices it is still quite unique in a number of areas.

It is common practice in the private English school industry in Japan and among the largest private English schools to use pamphlets to advertize their service offerings. This practice seems to conform to the general trend in marketing educational services.

The Japanese schools tend to place more information in the pamphlets that are designed for members of the mature audience. The need for clear and complete information by the elderly supports (Wolfe, 1990) pronouncements of the importance of information –centric marketing strategies targeted to the elderly. It is interesting that all schools created separate pamphlets for the elderly as arguments relating to the age neutrality of English education could be offered as a reason for taking a less targeted approach in this regard. The design of the pamphlets by Japanese institutions with lively colors seems to reinforce the mature excitement that the Japanese practioners aim for. The use of more subdued colors by the Koreans mirrors their more conservative approach towards the elderly.

Using pamphlets as the main advertising tool to reach the elderly has several implications. The elderly crave content rich information and pamphlets are regarded as limited in meeting these expectations. Pamphlets may be a limited means of advertising to the elderly because it means that they are left to seek out the service. These pamphlets are mainly displayed in the schools' lobbies, city halls and city libraries. Unlike the Japanese, the Koreans also place these pamphlets in shops, supermarkets, hospitals and health clubs. Of important note is the fact that radio is not used as a medium to attract the elderly in South Korea and Japan for English education classes. Heinze (2011) reveals the continued dominance of TV over radio in Asia with less than 40% of the population in Japan listening to radio at least once a week.

It was revealed from the data that designing special advertisements for the elderly follows a positive assessment of the contribution they are able to make to operating profits and their economic strength as a consumer group. Because the elderly are more prone to pay on time and have a higher discretionary income than they once had, Japanese and Korean marketers have begun to design marketing efforts specifically for them.

The use of older models is a point of deference between both countries. Japan is more prone to use younger looking models in advertisements to the elderly because of the central creative theme of all their advertisements which accentuates the longevity of life remaining for the elderly and which appeals to their younger self referent ages. This agrees with (Moschis, 2003) assertions that older customers do not relate to older models. The creative positioning of the Japanese advertisements capitalizes on the psychological ages of members of the mature audience and supports the 'can do' attitude reinforced by youth and vitality. The use of older models by the South Koreans agrees with (Milliman and Erffmeyer, 1990) findings that older customers are more inclined to believe and are better persuaded by older models. It is arguable that English education is considered an 'age neutral' product and therefore does not require the use of either younger or older looking models.

While the central creative theme for Japanese marketing campaigns rests on showcasing the longevity of life of the elderly and highlighting the social interaction aspects of English education courses that they offer, the main creative theme for South Korean schools subtend on using English as a means of giving back to the community, altruism and selflessness. The Koreans' creative positioning seems to rely more on Leventhal (1997) model which stresses altruism and connectedness. This connectedness is seen more in the selfless contribution to the community rather than connectedness through socializing with peers.

Relationship Marketing in respect to the elderly is very important in sustaining demand. Using Berry (1995) theoretical framework of relationship marketing it is evident that Korean English schools rely more on level one relationship management by way of using pricing incentives in order to create customer loyalty. Their use of discounts for senior citizens testifies to this. Japanese schools rely on levels two and three which are social bonds and structural solutions. Having specialized classes for seniors and other value added benefits such as group trips to English speaking countries create a competitive advantage which these Japanese English schools can leverage. This disparity in approaches may mirror the underlying differences between marketers of these two countries where Korean marketers may see the elderly more as transaction customers and so are more profitable to serve by using pricing as a main tool of inducement to purchase. The use of electronic tools by way of social network media in respect to the elderly can be seen more in the Japanese practice than the Korean.

Japan and South Korea have experienced an increase in the demand for English education by the elderly and have cited many reasons for this including an increase in disposable income, greater mobility, changing lifestyles and even the hosting of international games. The Daegu Games in South Korea and Japan as hosts of the Olympic Games in 2020 have been given as contributory factors. Seniors may be inclined to enrol in English education classes in both countries when there is an impending influx of foreign visitors. But with that said, there are similarities and differences in how seniors are targeted and marketed to in both countries. Some practices follow text book rules while other practices have not progressed in tandem with the West. Some techniques remain culturally embedded while others are more contemporary.

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Promoting Intercultural Understanding for ESP Students Through CLIL: Teachers' Beliefs and Challenges

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Abstract
The significance of intercultural understanding (ICU) in language teaching and learning has been recognized by many scholars, particular with the rapid development of globalization and integration. Currently, traditional teaching methods appear not to well support for the provision of intercultural understanding to ESP students. This paper aims to investigate teachers' beliefs of CLIL in promoting ICU for ESP students, specifically students of Business English and Tourism English; and the challenges they may face when using this model. Data were collected from teachers delivering Business English and Tourism English courses at University of Foreign Language Studies, the University of Danang (UFL_UDN). The results not only indicate how teachers value the effectiveness of CLIL in teaching IC, but also reveal the challenges this method poses to teachers. The implications for tackling the challenges are also suggested in this study, which is believed to enhance teaching and learning quality at ESP Department, UFL-UDN.

Keywords: intercultural understanding; CLIL; ESP students; Business English and Tourism English.

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Introduction

The rapid development of globalization has an enormous impact on cross-cultural relationships and increases the demand for international cooperation (Kawamura, 2011). On that trend, English is becoming increasingly important, acting as a common language for international communication. In Vietnam, the fact that the country is a member of TPP (Trans-Pacific Partnership Agreement) has shown its efforts to integrate into the global economy. This positive change has opened up many job opportunities. This will result in the high demand for language skill as well as intercultural communication skill.

Teaching for students in English for Business and English for Tourism classes at ESP department, where I am working, shows that students' communication skills in real-life situations are not good enough to meet the increasing demand of society. One of the main causes is the lack of knowledge about intercultural communication. This must have influenced the quality of students' English learning.

There are many language researchers who value the importance of an intercultural understanding of English teaching and learning and emphasize the need for developing the intercultural skills, which is believed to enable students' communication skills in different cultural backgrounds. According to Dimitrova (2006, cited in Kawamura 2011), foreign language learning is seen as more than just gaining language proficiency but also includes learning about other cultures to develop intercultural competence. According to Byram (2002), the integration of cross-cultural field in a language program helps students achieve two goals at once: to achieve the necessary linguistic competence to communicate and to develop the intercultural awareness.

In fact, this issue has been neglected as it involves directly to the teachers, programs, textbooks, and especially teaching methods. Currently, traditional teaching methods (e.g. communicative approach) appears not to well support for the provision of intercultural understanding to students. Through practice in teaching and research, I found that the methods to integrate content and language (Content Language Integrated Learning - CLIL) in teaching English, especially in specialized subjects of Business English and Tourism English classes clearly reveals some certain advantages in providing intercultural understanding for students.

In a study, Coyle (2007) showed that CLIL could "raise learner linguistic competence and confidence", and "embed cultural awareness and intercultural issues into the curriculum" (p.6). This teaching method is also supported by Bicknell (2009), who posed the question that why we should teach business English with traditional methods while CLIL can do it much more effectively. This method has also received the attention of some researchers in the country. In a recent scientific article, Nguyen (2014) has studied the necessary requirements of applying CLIL in teaching of International Studies subjects through English.

Therefore, providing students with intercultural understanding through the application of CLIL in teaching some English specialized modules is consistent with the trend of integration.

This study aims to study teachers' beliefs on applying CLIL to promote ICU for students in ESP classroom majoring in Business English and Tourism English and predicted challenges they might have with this new approach, in an attempt to promote the quality language learning for students in ESP context at UFL, Danang University. Specifically, the study will address the following questions:

1) What are teachers' attitudes toward CLIL approach in providing intercultural understanding to students of Business English and Tourism English classes? Are they aware of the benefits of CLIL and ready to apply CLIL in their teaching practice in order to improve students' ICU?

2) What challenges they have experienced or they might face when using CLIL to promote students' ICU?

3) What suggestions can they offer for the success of CLIL implement in teaching ICU?

Literature review

1. ESP students – Business English (BE) and Tourism English (TE) class

According to Dudley Evans and St. John (1998), one of the characteristics of ESP is that ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners, generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. It may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English. David Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP: English as a restricted language; English for Academic and Occupational Purposes; English with specific topics. In this case, English for Business and English for Tourism (or Business English and Tourism English) belong to the second type.

2. Intercultural Understanding (ICU) and the significance of teaching ICU in EFL classroom

Mc Conachy (2008) defined ICU as the awareness that oral and cultural practices in different cultures are associated with different conversational patterns. It is also considered as the awareness and understanding development of one's own and other cultures, which means that people no longer look at things only in their culture's way, but tend to evaluate other perspectives also (Yassine, 2006).

In teaching context, Savignon (2006) suggested that the courses which have instruction containing intercultural awareness can potentially assist learners in developing social and cultural competence and can foster intercultural awareness. Another research of Xiao and Petraki (2007) revealed that that intercultural communication skills are essential and imperative in ELT because it is a crucial factor which may likely bring success in international business, or help to avoid misunderstandings caused by lack of intercultural knowledge.

In Vietnam, in a research carried out at ESP Department of UFL-UDN, Nguyen (2016) found that 88 % teachers support the idea that ICU should be integrated with English teaching and learning in Business English and Tourism English context, so that students not only can acquire the language proficiency but also learn about other cultures to develop their intercultural competence.

3. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

CLIL and intercultural understanding (ICU) received much attention over the past decades, which could be proved by various studies on the topic of CLIL as well as ICU.

3.1 Definition of CLIL

There has been a wide variety of definitions for CLIL. David Marsh, who is considered a leading expert in CLIL, defined CLIL as “a generic term that refers to the teaching of subjects in a different language from the mainstream language of instruction” (Marsh, 2008, p.233). According to Marsh (2008), the term CLIL was first coined in 1996 “to denote a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for the learning and teaching of both content and language” (p.234). In another study, CLIL was defined as “an innovative model for languages education”, in which “mainstream curriculum content is delivered through the students’ non-native language” (Cross & Gearon, 2013, p.6). In CLIL, a foreign target language (TL) is acquired to “pre-defined levels through using the language meaningfully as a medium of teaching and learning various contents across the curriculum together with the actual language of schooling.”(Wewer, 2017, p.278). In addition, Cross (2014) pointed out that the most striking difference between CLIL and similar content-related pedagogies is that CLIL focuses on developing both new content and language, rather than “on content while teaching through the medium of another language”, or “using content to simply frame language around particular themes or topics that might only be incidental to the teaching of language” (p.25).

3.2 Types of CLIL

The survey report published in 2001 laid the foundation for the description of CLIL types. Bentley (2010) classified CLIL into three types in the curriculum, which are:

-Soft CLIL: It is practised as part of a language course, in which some content topics are taught during a language period.

-Hard CLIL: It is practised as a partial immersion program, almost half of the curriculum is taught in the target language, and the subject would reflect what is taught in the target language.

-Modular CLIL: In this type, a subject is taught for a certain number of hours in the target language, and subject teachers select topics from the subject syllabus which they teach in the target language.

3.3 Benefits and challenges of CLIL models in teaching ICU

According to Cross and Gearon (2013), CLIL, as an “additive bilingual approach”, offers considerable benefits, which are : an academic achievement that typically matches or surpass monolingual approaches ; positive gains in first language literacy development; and heightened levels of intercultural awareness and competence" (p.6).

In another research, Koro (2016) listed four main benefits of CLIL models, which include:

- Motivation: CLIL could contribute to the increase of young learners' strong desire, willingness and competence to learn other languages and subjects. Also, teachers could benefit from CLIL in terms of their expertise and motivation "through the increased opportunities for cross-curricular cooperation, professional dialogue and collegiality that models such as CLIL require" (p.50).

- Linguistic competence: Thanks to "increased exposure" to the target language, many argued that CLIL could enhance the learners' linguistic competence. However, it has not been fully justified that CLIL models foster learners' performance in target language acquisition (p.52).

- Cognitive competence and challenge: The level of cognitive challenge is crucial for the success of learning. One of the major benefits of CLIL approaches is that learners are offered opportunities to develop their cognitive competence through "processes of conceptualization". However, due to the difference of the cognitive competence between a native speaker and a learner of the same age, learners should be provided "sufficient cognitive challenge", and "linguistic progression needs to be scaffolded to avoid demotivation" (p.53).

- Intercultural competence: CLIL classes' provision of 'added dimension of interculturality: is demonstrated through offering a variety of viewpoints on numerous topics, and an opportunity to solve different cultures (p.54).

Gimeno, ÓDónaill and Zygmantait (2013) also shared the same view when stated that CLIL offers students some great benefits such as : developing intercultural understanding, promoting content knowledge and language competence, enhancing students' motivation and confidence.

Although there has been much attention paid to the effectiveness of CLIL in language teaching, especially in enhancing ICU, which had mentioned above, to the best of my knowledge, there are relatively few studies have examined teachers' perception of the challenges of using CLIL in general, in providing ICU in ESP classroom in Vietnam. The study of Kondal and Bairi (2017) showed that selecting and adapting content and teaching materials are a time-consuming process. He added that guiding, designing and structuring a well content-based language instruction in the class also becomes an obstacle for most teachers in implementing CLIL.

Methodology and Data Collection

The data were collected through interviews, which were carried out at the beginning of 2018, with the participation of eight teachers of ESP Department, UFL-UDN. 12 open-ended interview questions were designed to ask about their attitude toward CLIL and the challenges they have experienced or might face when using CLIL to teach ICU in their classroom.

There are eight teachers agreeing to take part in this interview. The interviewees are selected based on the result from my previous study about teachers' perception of ICU in ESP teaching (Nguyen, 2016), who showed a positive attitude toward ICU and have implemented the integration of ICU in their teaching practices. All of the participants have had more than ten years' experience of teaching ESP at the university. Among them, two are teaching only in Business English class; two are teaching in Tourism English class, and the other four are teaching both in BE and TE class. The subject they cover includes the ones majoring in Business English or Tourism English, such as American-English culture, Cross Culture, Business English, Tourism English, Interpretation, Specialized Module, which focus on not only language proficiency but also the primary knowledge and the involvement of IC issues**.** The students in these classes are mostly at the high level of linguistic skills.

Findings and Discussion

1. Teacher's beliefs

The study reveals that all of the eight teachers getting involved in the interview have not been trained in CLIL, though they all know about this approach through their own study. Despite this fact, it is surprising that they all believe in the great effect of CLIL in promoting student's ICU , and suggest that CLIL should form an important part in teaching ICU, especially for BE and TE students because of the requirements of the new age and future work requirements.

While lacking expertise in content knowledge is considered as one of the challenges faced by the language teacher (Kondal & Bairi, 2017), all of the participants are very confident and stated that it is not a problem when teaching ICU with CLIL. It is because culture is associated with language, and it can be easily acquired through their language teaching, their personal experience in the culture of the target language, or their academic study. The fact that all of the participants have taken PhD or MA degree in English speaking countries (England, Australia, New Zealand) is also the factors contributing to their confidence.

When asked about the preferred content subjects which is most suitable for the implementation of CLIL approach, some of the interviewees say that CLIL should be applied to some specific major subjects of BE or TE because students can not only learn the content but also use the language and culture of that language to develop cultural awareness, and also recognize intercultural problems.

As respect to the implement of CLIL in teaching ICU, there are only two of the participants having used CLIL in their teaching, though it is not a main method in every lesson or classroom. They use CLIL in some lectures whose content widely associated with IC issues, such as Cross Culture and American-English Culture. The others are willing to become CLIL teachers in future, however, based on their knowledge and teaching experience, they are not ready to use CLIL at present due to certain challenges that they have acknowledged in the interview.

2. Challenges

2.1 Lack of CLIL training

Most teachers in the interview are reluctant to implement CLIL in their current teaching. The main reason is that none of them is well- trained in CLIL approach. Even the ones who have been using CLIL, they are still uncertain about the way they should deliver a lesson in the CLIL class, and or even confused due to the similarity of CLIL with the topic-based or content-based method. The inadequate CLIL materials and resources are also listed as difficulty in preparation for a CLIL class.

2.2 Requiring more time and effort from teachers for teaching preparation

Though being confident with the cultural knowledge, they still admit that teaching CLIL consumes more work for teachers. They share the same view with many scholars that lacking available content material for CLIL classes and lacking time to develop their own cultural resources are identified as a key problems (Kondal &Bairi, 2017; Koro ,2016; Hinnov, 2013). The interviewees acclaim that IC issues are quite diverse and often embedded in language, therefore teachers have to select proper ICU and link it to the content of each lesson, in order to meet the students' needs, and also have to design activities to get students' involvement and encouraging their motivation.

2.3 Difficulties in implementing ICU in a CLIL class.

Kondal and Bairi (2017) stated that time management is one of the major problems because the activities conducted in the CLI class may take longer than they are expected. Based on this view, the participants have been asked whether time-constraint of applying CLIL in the course is a key problem. There are only two of the respondents being quite optimistic about this issue, who think the current schedule can ensure the use of CLIL to teach ICU if the teacher has a proper preparation. This is because culture issues are the main contents of the subjects they have been teaching, which are American- English culture and Cross culture. However, the rest of teachers say that applying CLIL takes more time than traditional method because teachers have to achieve the major content, the ICU, and language integrated goals at the same time. The combination of language skills and ICU may cause difficulty for a teacher to select which should be a focus on. Furthermore, how to deliver a successful lesson which integrating the module content and language is also considered as a challenge for teachers. Participants also find challenging to design the test and decide whether to assess content, language or both in CLIL approach.

In addition, although students' linguistic abilities are not considered as an obstacle in teaching ICU in this context, their attitude and motivation are seen as a problem. Some ICU categories are difficult and confusing to students, so it requires more effort from teacher to create an authentic class. What's more, in most subjects, culture issue is an optional content and is normally not taken into account in the test, so students do not pay much attention or set it as the priority in their learning.

3. Suggestions for applying CLIL to achieve the best results

The last question of the interview is asking teachers to give some recommendations for the best use of CLIL in improving students' ICU. Among the mentioned suggestions, CLIL training was listed as their first concern. They need a workshop which can provide them with the training of CLIL methodology, and give them the opportunities to share and find the solutions for the difficulties they are facing.

Teachers from the interview also demand the strong collaboration from the colleague as well as the support from the Faculty Board. They believe that it is important to have a professional CLIL team, who not only are not only well trained in CLIL but also have deep understanding of BE or TE, to develop a proper curriculum and design a valid assessment tool to enhance teaching quality in general and promote students' ICU in particular.

Limitations of the study

This study has some limitations. First, it is restricted to a small scale of eight ESP teachers at UFL-UDN, so it hardly provides great reliability and validity. Secondly, all participants are not trained in CLIL, and not all of them have experience in CLIL teaching. Therefore the challenges they mentioned mostly from anticipating and predicting based on their teaching experience and self-study about CLIL.

Conclusion

The study examined the teachers' beliefs about the benefits as well as challenges of teaching CLIL to improve students' ICU. The findings suggest that although all of the respondents believe that CLIL is an efficient approach to teach ICU, there are several difficulties prevent them from implementing it in their teaching practice. Therefore, it requires teachers' proper preparation in how to deliver the contents and the activities in class to get the best result. It also asks for many concerns from the teaching and administrating staff before applying CLIL in teaching at ESP Department. The implications for English teaching and learning suggested in this study would help teachers enhance teaching quality. Thereby improving practical communication skills to students, equipping them with a certain understandings of intercultural, which are considered a great advantage for students when participating in future workforce.

The study is also the prerequisite to consider whether CLIL should be comprehensively and synchronously implemented in teaching at ESP department. It also contributes in proposing a long-term strategy in innovating English teaching and learning, which is considered as a key goal of the National Foreign Language Project 2020 was.

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Moving Between Systems: Schema-Based Strategies for Transitioning Students from Secondary to Tertiary ESL Classrooms in Japan

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Abstract
Foreign teachers of English in Japanese universities typically aim to establish communicative, task-based, student-centered EFL classrooms in accordance to their modern SLA teacher training. On the other hand, most Japanese university freshmen have limited exposure to this type of classroom. Students are more familiar with traditional Confucian, teacher-centered classrooms that often focus on test prep, rote memorization, and grammar and translation methods. This context of Western systems interacting with Confucian systems is referred to by Liu and Fisher (2010) as "one community two systems." This paper describes the concept of "one community two systems" as it applies to Japanese university English communities. Differences between Confucian and Western classrooms are considered before focusing more specifically on English classroom differences. Schema Theory is then presented as a mechanism for considering students' situational expectations concerning English classrooms. Finally, schema-based strategies for transitioning students across systems are discussed. The strategies fit into two categories: fostering schematic "tuning" through awareness-raising discussions of educational expectations and utilizing aspects of pre-established educational schema in tertiary classrooms.

Keywords: transitioning strategies, schema theory, teacher training, Japanese university education

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Introduction

In Liu and Fisher's (2010) discussion of pre-service English teacher training at a university in China, where top-down implementation of a Western pedagogical system was supplanting the traditional Confucian pedagogical system, the researchers explored tensions that arose and adaptations made within what they term a "one community, two systems" context. This terminology describes countless contexts where two educational systems meet. Implicit in the terminology is the idea that the two systems contain non-overlapping and possibly contradictory demands on the one community.

For a long time, the most obvious instantiations of similar "one community, two systems" contexts had been when East Asian students studied overseas in Western countries. As the students were coming from another educational system, they were operating under different assumptions concerning classroom norms and expected behaviors than their Western teachers. Naturally, a number of researchers have explored the difficulties students and teachers have had at developing appropriate cross-cultural competencies (Clark & Gieve, 2006; Durkin, 2008; Cortazzi & Jin, 1997; Major, 2005).

Asian students going overseas to study is not the only arena for such "one community, two systems" cultural negotiations. An increasingly prevalent context where two systems meet involves the importation of Western English as a foreign language (EFL) practices into otherwise Confucian systems. Littlewood (2007) discussed how Western pedagogical imports, specifically the use of communicative language teaching (CLT) and task-based language teaching (TBLT), have increasingly been mandated by top-down policy initiatives as countries hope to "increase the number of people in their population who can communicate effectively in English" (p. 243). Littlewood (2007) surveyed the research of a number of scholars ranging across East Asia in his discussion of culturally-driven student and teacher resistance to the imported system. In Japan, Bartlett (2017) discussed the misalignment between the communicative curriculum aims that Japan's Ministry of Education have prescribed for secondary schools and the continuation of an entrenched grammar and translation curriculum pursued by Japanese teachers.

This brings us to the "one community, two systems" context which is the focus of this paper: the educational challenges unique to the transition from secondary EFL classrooms to tertiary EFL classrooms taught by Western instructors in Japan. Transitioning from high school to university life anywhere in the world carries with it a number of social, motivational, and emotional challenges, but many Japanese students also must contend with considerably different English classroom systems from the ones they had grown accustomed to during secondary school. This transition may be destabilizing because students' long-held expectations about what defines an "English class" are significantly disrupted as students have to rapidly reposition their expectations about the teacher, their learning goals, appropriate student behavior, the language of instruction, educational material, learning and teaching style, and even class content. English is the only subject in Japan that undergoes such a dramatic discontinuity between secondary and tertiary settings, but implications of this transition are rarely acknowledged. This paper aims at raising teacher awareness so as to mitigate potential conflicts in this "one community, two systems" context. We envision this goal as principally benefiting both students who are transitioning into university classrooms and teachers who may not be familiar with the educational backgrounds of their Japanese students, but hopefully even the most experienced English instructors or those in charge of new teacher orientation will garner some benefits. In the following pages, we will describe the gap between the two pedagogical systems, present Schema Theory as a framework for considering the difficulties associated with transitioning from experientially established classroom settings, and finally suggest a few strategies to university English instructors for segueing students between the two systems.

Foundations of Two Systems

There are several reasons why a discontinuity exists between secondary school and university English classes, but the most significant reason may be that each draws on its own pedagogical tradition: Japan's educational system is historically rooted in a traditional Confucian classroom, whereas university English classes taught by Western English instructors are generally informed by modern second language acquisition trends arising from a Western pedagogical system. Suzanne Scollon (1999) suggested that the seeds of these two systems were planted some 2500 years ago in the different teaching styles of Confucius and Socrates and that, although the winds of history may have bent the traditions' branches this way and that, certain key differences continue to leave their mark on classrooms today. Concerning the objective of education, Scollon suggested that Socrates aimed at revealing universal truths that resided within students using reason and critical thought; internal truths that were often critical of dogmatic thinking and traditions (pp. 16-18). Confucius, on the other hand, aimed at passing on the best of traditional Chinese wisdom that was meant to guide students' social behavior. Memorization and practical application of this externally situated traditional wisdom took precedent over critical interpretation. The practical repercussions that lead from these core differences ripple throughout every aspect of each pedagogical system.

Liu and Fisher (2010) examined a number of mutually incompatible differences that exist between Western and Confucian systems. Although Liu and Fisher were discussing education in China, Confucian teaching has deep roots in Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Taiwanese, and Vietnamese education that dates back centuries (R. Scollon, 2001). Japan's educational system may have had more influence from Western contact than some of these other countries, especially after WWII, but an analysis of the differences between Confucian and Western traditions remains appropriate for considering Japan's "one community, two systems" English learning context.

In order to moderate any allegations of Orientalism, essentialism, or otherwise promoting a post-colonial discourse, it should be noted that we are aware of the potential risks of using the terms "Confucian" and "Western." Importantly, we are not suggesting one system is superior to the other. They are being used as expressions of convenience, as they are frequently used in the literature to describe actual differences that exist between educational systems. No one claims that socio-cultural differences do not exist, and these are the terms often used to describe classroom differences. Furthermore, our fourteen years of combined teaching experience in thirteen different secondary schools in Japan allows us to recognize sufficient similarities with standard presentations of Confucian classroom practices. That said, we want to stress that mapping these terms onto actual secondary and tertiary Japanese classrooms would locate classrooms on a range rather than in binary poles. That is to say, the following presentation of these seemingly dichotomous educational systems is designed to highlight their differences, but in reality each individual Japanese secondary class lies somewhere on the spectrum between the systems, though it is probably fair to say they typically share more commonalities with Confucian classrooms than they do with Western classrooms. On the other hand, our eleven years of tertiary EFL experience has informed us that classes taught by foreigners typically share more commonalities with Western classrooms described below.

Beginning at the basic level of teaching philosophy, Liu and Fisher (2010) suggested that the core concept of teaching is different between the two systems: with Confucian classrooms being teacher centered while Western classrooms are student centered. This leads to differences in teaching methods, with the Confucian method being a one-way, monologic stream of information passing from teacher to students while the Western system's method is one of multi-way, dialogic creation of knowledge through interaction among students and between teacher and students. Since the Confucian teacher's monologue assumes a top-down stream of unquestionable knowledge, the curriculum goals in such classrooms often relate to repetition and rote memorization of selected information, whereas Western classrooms are concerned more with bottom-up dialogues emphasizing creative manipulation and expansion of information. This means that testing in Confucian classrooms is often mechanical and rigid rather than formative, flexible and open ended. Finally, the mediating materials differ between systems; Confucian classrooms' focus on fixed knowledge leads to heavy reliance on textbooks and workbooks while Western classrooms' creative explorations incorporate cultural tools like music, games, personal stories, television shows, news reports, TED talks, and other internet content. In short, there are a number of dramatically contrasting aspects that define these two systems.

Secondary and Tertiary EFL Differences

In addition to the above systemic educational differences that Liu and Fisher (2010) identified, there are other differences unique to the Japanese EFL context. Several involve the high-stakes university entrance exam that students take at the end of their high school career, so some explanation about the test and its significance is in order. Japanese sociologists have suggested that Japan is a *gakureki-shakai*, directly translated as a "school history society." This means that by simply knowing the schools a student attended, especially the university, people immediately judge things like the range of the student's career prospects, future social prestige, and even seemingly unrelated qualities like moral character - after all they must be extremely disciplined and focused to get into better schools (Ryan, 2008, p. 32). The pyramid of school ranking serves as a social stratification mechanism, which can set students on a clear path to their "appropriate" place in the social hierarchy.

Because of the exam's significance as the gatekeeper to respected universities, high school teachers who have their students' best interests in mind tend to follow a "shadow curriculum" geared heavily toward test preparation (Aspinall, 2013, p. 75). This brings us to a major difference between secondary and tertiary EFL classes: secondary education's continued reliance on form-focused, grammar and translation practices. University entrance exams generally test receptive knowledge, including sentence translation, difficult grammar rules, vocabulary, reading, and listening, but do not test communication. It is believed that the skills being tested are best gained through a grammar and translation pedagogical style that relies on rote memorization of vocabulary and grammar rules. For several reasons, not the least of which being the imperative to provide precise grammar explanations and to practice translation, high school classes are also typically conducted in Japanese. In contrast, conducting their classes in English, foreign instructors at the university level typically emphasize meaning-focused productive skills using CLT and TBLT. Instructors encourage subjective expressions of experience and personal opinions through writing and communication. The aim of fluency for means of self-expression often outweighs the requirement of precise grammatical correctness in tertiary classrooms. Therefore, freshman must adapt to these pedagogical differences as they move from a form-focused grammar and translation classroom taught nearly exclusively in Japanese to a meaning-focused, communicative classroom taught nearly exclusively in English.

Another noteworthy difference involves the classes' content itself. This fundamental aspect of any subject is rarely expected to change much from year to year, but many freshmen enter university English classrooms to discover considerable content differences from the classes they attended in secondary school. University entrance exam backwash means that the rules of grammar and the accumulation of vocabulary are the core aspects of secondary school English content. This focus on English grammar and vocabulary is also somewhat necessitated by the learning level of the students. By the time freshman enter university, however, they have often acquired enough language that teachers can begin using English as a medium to explore other content. Students suddenly find that much of the time previously dedicated to grammar and vocabulary is replaced by explorations of non-English related topics. This change in content may be a designed aspect of an English for specific purposes (ESP) program, or it may simply be that university instructors tend to introduce topics that they find interesting. This shift from English grammar and vocabulary to English as the medium for exploring other content is unique to modern language education and has no equivalent in any other subject Japanese students carry from secondary to tertiary settings.

A final difference worth mentioning involves Japan's use of foreign Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs). At the government's encouragement, thousands of native speakers are placed in public schools across Japan to "assist" Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs). These ALTs are typically the only contact with foreigners that students have in their school settings, so their relationship forms the foundation of future educational interactions with non-Japanese instructors. ALTs usually do not have a background in education, they are relegated to an "assistant" position with few meaningful responsibilities, and their use of classroom time is often dominated by games or other activities generally understood as a break from the serious business of test preparation. Consequently, foreign English teachers are not immediately given the same respect that a Japanese science or math professor would receive, for example. Unfortunately, these preconceptions may persist longer than necessary because the Western pedagogical system does not always resemble the "serious" test preparation system students are used to.

A brief, somewhat stereotypical, summary will help consolidate and highlight the contrasting points between secondary and tertiary English classrooms in Japan. Secondary school classrooms employ a teacher-centered, top-down approach to education, where the Japanese teacher passes down form-focused English grammar and vocabulary knowledge, typically in Japanese, in a one-way stream to the students, who are responsible for memorizing it by rote. Textbooks are also used to facilitate the grammar and translation style of teaching, with all efforts clearly aimed at a well-defined monumental goal of passing the university entrance exam. Finally, there may be a native speaker in the classroom occasionally, especially during breaks from serious learning, but he or she is clearly just an assistant.

In native-speaker led university classrooms, on the other hand, students experience a bottom-up approach where the foreign teacher is an expert resource and guide but the knowledge is often negotiated on the student level through communicative interactions and between students and the teacher. Though some grammar points or vocabulary may be emphasized, English is mainly used to explore content from a range of subjects with the help of resources like music, games, stories, television shows, news reports, TED talks, internet content, and so on. Finally, rather than rote memorization and translation, students are encouraged to creatively express their worldview through meaning-focused tasks, writings, and communicative exercises, which make up a series of small, low-stakes goals.

Descriptive, Not Prescriptive

Though it is tempting to resort to ethnocentric prescriptions regarding what modern TESOL programs consider to be “outdated” English classroom practices, our intention here is only descriptive. There are reasons why secondary English education is what it is in Japan. For starters, an educational system plays a formative role in any society and its stability is a reflection of its ability to effectively instill desirable normative cultural values, so the current system may hold social benefits. Furthermore, since nearly all licensed high school English teachers are Japanese, they are most familiar with, and consequently tend to implement, the educational style that they themselves experienced as students. Moreover, Japanese teachers typically begin their career immediately after university graduation and remain until retirement. When new teachers are hired, they enter a junior/senior or *senpai*/*kohai* relationship where they become junior *kohai* and are guided by a senior *senpai*. The senior instructs the younger English teacher in pedagogical practices that he or she learned decades earlier, which in turn were acquired from his or her *senpai*, and so on. The nature of this relationship with its largely one-way transmission of knowledge lends itself to a sort of stasis (Bartlett, 2017). Finally, this stasis is amplified by the fact that the all-important university entrance exams are tailored to test students who represent the ideal products of the current educational system. The test adapts to the system, which in turn adapts to the test in a feedback loop that resists change. Like an insect preserved in amber, the exam-focused “shadow curriculum” hermetically seals secondary English education away from evolving modern TESOL practices. In summary, the stasis is largely a product of several factors, including the Confucian educational system, the need for enculturation into accepted social norms, teachers’ educations, the *senpai*/*kohai* relationship, and the practical requirement to prepare students for an exam designed within the system that it actively shapes in a feedback loop.

On the other hand, foreign English university instructors are most familiar with the Western pedagogical system and modern TESOL practices. Nearly all the foreign instructors have advanced degrees informed by modern TESOL practices. For the sake of job security and professional status, those who have not formally studied TESOL maintain a vested interest in learning the theories and practices of their peers. Furthermore, rather than holding permanent teaching positions, there is a high turnover rate as a majority of foreign university English instructors are on yearly contracts with a maximum limit of 5-years. Therefore, at universities one finds a steady flow of recent graduates and instructors who attempt to stay abreast with new EFL educational developments through ongoing research and conferences as a way to stay competitive in the job market. These factors converge to create evolving modern pedagogical classrooms that stand in stark contrast to the often static grammar and translation Japanese secondary classrooms.

To reiterate, we are not prescribing the use of modern Western pedagogic practices; especially their implementation where social enculturation does not create students ideally suited for optimal learning within the system, i.e. students who eagerly debate, refute, express opinions, question established thought, persuade others, and share personal stories in public (for discussion, see: Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). A number of researchers have commented on the mismatch and resulting difficulties of implementing CLT and TBLT in East Asia (Hu, 2005; Li, 1998; Littlewood, 2007; Rao, 1996). In the context of Japan, Samimy and Kobayashi (2004) examined sociocultural, political, and educational characteristics that hampered the effective application of CLT practices, and ultimately suggested CLT practices should not be pursued in their current formulation. On the other hand, with so much support for CLT and TBLT in the TESOL community, East-Asian governments and institutions might be right in pushing for their implementation. Rather than wade too far into prescriptive debates, however, our point is to acknowledge the descriptive fact that most foreign tertiary teachers currently employ different TESOL practices than are found in secondary classrooms.

Conceding these differences leads to the question of how to transition students most effectively in Japan's "one community, two systems" context. Since the educational differences Japanese freshmen are confronted with are deeply entrenched and show no signs of receding, the onus is on university English instructors to consider measures to facilitate the transition. At its core, the difficulty involves how students' past situational experiences inform their expectations of behavior within a context that expects them to think and act in a manner disconnected from their previous experiences. One useful framework to explore this common phenomenon that will also serve while considering transitioning strategies is to understand the problem as a misalignment of university freshmen's inveterate English learning schemata.

Schema Theory

Schema Theory was advanced in the fields of psychology and education by British psychologist Frederic Bartlett (1886-1969). According to Bartlett (1932), schemata are cognitive constructs used to help anticipate and navigate situational contexts based on the organization of past experiences into generic guiding concepts. These constructs are like evolving templates that are subconsciously superimposed on a situation, the function of which is to reduce the cognitive load that would be required if one were to instead continuously analyze and evaluate each and every social and material aspect within the situation. Cognitive theorist David Rumelhart (1980, pp. 33-34) details the extent of schema's functionality by suggesting that "schemata are employed in the process of interpreting sensory data ..., in retrieving information from memory, in organizing actions, in determining goals and sub goals, in allocation of resources, and generally, in guiding the flow of processing in the system". In short, schemata make situations more predictable by relying on past experiences to aid with ongoing cognitive processing.

An example may help illustrate how schemata use past experiences to aid information processing and increase phenomenological predictability. Consider the following discussion of a *soccer game* schema while mentally mapping it onto an analogous *English classroom* schema. As a soccer player interacts with the game over time, he notices the other players, the ball, and other aspects of the game behave in predictable, affirmative ways. These predictable aspects are formulated, strengthened, and stored in his memory as schemata. Therefore, when the soccer player walks onto a field, even a new field to meet a team he has never played, his established *soccer game* schemata allows for a generic understanding of the game's sequence of events, the general rules and goals of the game, the imperatives barked at him by the coach, how his and the opposing teams' players are likely to move, the speed and energy required to traverse distances, the general movement of the ball, and so on. These generic situational templates stored in the memory are unconsciously accessed to allow for an ongoing interpretation of the flow of events in the *soccer game* schema setting.

The utility of schemata lies in their ability to facilitate cognition when situations are sufficiently similar to past experiences. However, they can also be detrimental when unexpected differences arise. Imagine being the same soccer player arriving at a stadium only to find that, although the field is the same size, the normal goals have multiplied into smaller goals that are sprinkled around the field, the coach rarely gives advice unless asked and occasionally runs out and joins the teams during play, the ball is slightly oblong, and many of the rules have changed. Despite this, everyone around him is still calling the game "soccer." In such a bizarre situation, the player would naturally feel disoriented and carry aspects of his past experience into the new game. It is easy to imagine that, despite the radical change in the game, initially the confused player would erroneously predict aspects of the game as he intuitively applied strategies previously associated with success. These expectations would inevitably lead to a suboptimal performance - as we suggest it does with *English classroom* schema. A guide with a knowledge of both the old and new games would be an invaluable resource in facilitating the transition.

The relevant take away is that schemata for a situation are, for better or for worse, automatically applied to similar situations, but it is worth considering how these mechanisms have been shown to affect people's ongoing experiences. For example, researchers have demonstrated how schema can cause memory distortions through either omission or inclusion (Anderson & Pichert, 1978; Bartlett, 1932; Gilboa & Marlatte, 2017). Brewer and Treyens (1981) conducted an experiment that highlighted both outcomes. They had undergraduate participants (N=86) briefly sit in what they were told was a graduate student's office while waiting to participate in a research task. Unbeknownst to the participants, the room was actually a space filled with items designed to test the influence of schema on unintentional memory. The participants were removed from the space and asked to recall as much as possible about the room. Their recall tended to omit items that were in the room but did not fit into pre-conceived schemata of a graduate student office, like a picnic basket or wine bottle, but included items, like books, pencils, and coffee cups, that were not in the room. The researchers conclude that either schema-based information is integrated into and distorting our ongoing perceptions or it is a framework utilized during recall that influences our memory after the experience. Either way, schemata distort experience when expectations do not match ongoing episodic phenomenon.

To summarize, schemata are situationally organized templates that help us anticipate and behave within similar situations, but they can also lead to suboptimal performances when applied to new situation that are sufficiently dissimilar to the ones in which they were formed. Therefore, when considering the “one community, two systems” context described in this paper, a smooth transition from secondary to tertiary English classrooms can be conceived of as a process of refining or utilizing existing schemata. The following section provides a few strategies for aiding this transition.

Strategies for Transitioning Students

The strategies suggested below are divided into two categories: evolving toward a new schema and utilizing existing schema. Since there are many commonalities between secondary and tertiary classrooms such as the presence of teachers, students, a focus on English, institutional learning settings, homework, study material, and so on, the first category promotes a modification of students’ already existing schemata through a process referred to as *tuning* (Rumelhart & Norman, 1978). Though there can be resistance to the process, tuning involves the continual elaboration and refinement of schema “to make them more in tune with experience” (Rumelhart,1980, p. 52). The second category, utilizing existing schema, suggests ways to ease students into tertiary EFL classrooms by exploiting existing schemata that do not interfere with the implementation of modern TESOL practices. Whereas the goal of the first category is acclimating students to new classroom practices, the second mainly involves the continuation of familiar practices for transitional ease and effective classroom management.

Schema tuning is a natural and inevitable process that occurs whenever situational expectations are not met, but there are ways to expedite the process (Nishida, 1999). Students anticipate university to be different from high school, so they begin as vigilant observers. Their awareness, however, will wane over the first few weeks as they settle into routines, so early tuning interventions hold greater benefits. Norris (2004, p. 28) suggests that teachers should begin by being “very clear about class rules, grades, and absences,” and they should “be consistent in sticking to those rules.” As schemata are essentially future-predictors, setting steadfast rules about future expectations effectively tunes schema. In addition to covering class rules, frank discussions about acceptable behaviors are also suggested. Directly contrasting acceptable behavior within the two systems, as well as examining relevant cultural differences helps maximize such discussions. We have found success in framing these group-explorations around questionnaires that provided immediate data feedback concerning past and present expectations, to provide relevant and targeted tuning. As lower level students may not be capable of engaging in the above tuning strategies, it may be worth using Japanese if possible or at least preparing a worksheet in Japanese explaining rules and expectations while providing a follow-up quiz. It is important to establish acceptable behavior from the beginning, but periodic reminders may also be necessary as dramatic changes do not manifest in one discussion. In short, tuning strategies revolve around mindful awareness of student and teacher classroom expectations, so anything teachers can do to achieve that end will facilitate students' transitions.

The second category of strategies involves utilizing existing schema for transitional continuity and classroom management. An example involves the use of titles. Leading from their sociocultural background, foreign English teachers may encourage students to use their given names believing that it promotes good rapport and a relaxed atmosphere (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1994, p. 50). Unfortunately, this may not be the result. Japanese high school students may not know their teachers' given names, and if they do, few would consider using them alone as a form of address. If multiple teachers have the same last name, some might allow the use of first names, but always accompanied by the title *sensei*, meaning "teacher." Students are socialized to use correct titles, so incorrect use could lead to social criticism or awkwardness (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1994, 50; Goffman, 1967). Since titles are socially significant, we suggest using titles such as Mr., Ms., or professor, at least at the beginning of the semester, especially for teachers that have class management issues. Not only do students resist using first names without titles, the use of titles establishes and clarifies boundaries through the affirmation of a familiar schema.

Teaches can take advantage of another classroom schema by using well-defined opening and closing English phrases. Within Japanese secondary classrooms, openings and closings are clearly signaled using formulaic expressions and actions. During every class, students react to a series of commands starting with "*kiritsu*" *(order!)* causing everybody to quickly stand at attention; "*rei*" *(bow)*, leading to a respectful bow; and "*chakuseki*" *(take your seat)*, resulting in everybody sitting at attention. This defines a clear boundary, unequivocally communicating to students through language and ritual that the class is beginning. Western teachers coming from outside this tradition tend to use comparatively vague language or gestures to signal openings and closings. Defining and utilizing clear, repetitive openings and closings in university classrooms can draw on thoroughly conditioned schema to establish well-defined boundaries between socializing time and learning time, which reduces student role disorientation and helps maintain order.

A familiarity with the workings of secondary classrooms helps when brainstorming strategies in this category. Though space here is limited, some other brief examples of schema-supported strategies we use include facilitating social engagement and "volunteering" through the use of rock-paper-scissors, encouraging students to check their answers with those around them prior to calling on individuals, making students socially or quantifiably accountable for nearly everything asked of them, and tolerating a degree of chatter after instructions and between tasks. Importantly, these strategies do not interfere with modern TESOL practices, but do help maintain order and add a degree of continuity.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to raise awareness of the difficulties inherent to Japan's "one community two systems" EFL context. The differences students encounter while transitioning from secondary to tertiary EFL classrooms can be traced to various historical, cultural, institutional, and educational sources. Though neither system is likely to change anytime soon, a detailed understanding of the existing differences allows foreign tertiary instructors to consider possible strategies they can use to more effectively transition students to their classroom's pedagogical system. A number of schema-inspired transitioning strategies have been suggested for tuning schema toward desired behavior and for utilizing existing schema for the sake of transitional ease and classroom management. This topic has rich research potential for anyone interested in tracking the results of transitioning strategies, for those wishing to explore how institutions address this gap while orienting new hires, or for researchers interested in either teacher or student perspectives on the transition. The gap between Japan's secondary and tertiary EFL classrooms will remain for some time, but we are confident that future researchers will find ways to facilitate transitions between the systems.

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Teacher Autonomy: Perceptions and Practices

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Abstract
Foreign language learners cannot acquire a language successfully unless they are able to attain a certain level of autonomy in learning. Learning to learn autonomously is, therefore, a skill that all language teachers must develop in their students, because learners do not come to class with an innate knowledge of how to learn autonomously. Research has shown that teachers who are themselves autonomous are more autonomy supportive than those who feel constrained and controlled in their teaching environment. It is understood that tertiary level teachers enjoy more autonomy than teachers of other levels of education, and they are more likely to put the responsibility of learning on their students, because university education requires students to work on their own. Keeping this in mind, this study investigated tertiary level language teachers' perception of the concept of autonomy, and sought to find out whether their classroom practices were autonomy supportive. Another aim of the study was to see what kind of strategies, if any, teachers were using to foster learner autonomy. This was a qualitative research and the participants were six language teachers who taught foundation level language courses at three private universities in Dhaka. Semi-structured interviews and open-ended questionnaires were used as tools to gain insights into teacher beliefs and practices. The findings of the research have implications for teacher training programmes which focus on raising awareness about teacher beliefs and practices.

Keywords: teacher autonomy, classroom practices, teacher beliefs

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Introduction

In Bangladesh the educational climate at schools and intermediate levels is as yet quite traditional, where the age old Grammar Translation Method is used for teaching English. The method, as it is applied in our country, not only serves to make our students teacher dependent but it deprives students of the ability to think creatively. When these students reach tertiary level, it becomes necessary for them to take the onus of their learning on themselves, and rote learning is not an option anymore. It falls upon the tertiary level language teacher to wean them of their earlier language learning habits (if it can be called that) and introduce them to a whole new style of autonomous learning, which is the key to gaining language proficiency. In any case, tertiary level teachers definitely enjoy more autonomy than their counterparts teaching at other levels of education.

In the given educational scenario, this research sought to explore what happens in the language classroom at tertiary level. In the first section of this paper, the theory underpinning this research has been discussed, which is followed by a brief literature review. The description of the research design is followed by the analyses of the data and the paper concludes with a discussion of the implications of the findings.

Theoretical underpinnings

Autonomy in education is grounded in both constructivism and humanism but this research drew mainly on Self Determination Theory (SDT) to establish the need for autonomy in education. SDT is based on the premise that all human beings across all cultures have three basic psychological needs identified as autonomy, relatedness and competence, and the satisfaction of these needs is essential for their psychological wellbeing. One of several studies with similar results, cited by Niemiec and Ryan (2009, p.135-137) established that students assigned to autonomy supportive teachers were seen to display greater intrinsic motivation than those who studied under more controlling teachers. Another research finding concluded that students learning to teach as opposed to those learning to take a test showed not only greater intrinsic motivation but also better conceptual understanding of the learning material.

SDT has implications not only for students but also for teachers. Just as students lose their intrinsic motivation in controlling situations, teachers too lose their intrinsic motivation if they perceive their autonomy to be restricted by the authority. A study by Pelletier, Seguin-Levesque, and Legault (2002) found that "the more self-determined teachers are toward their work, the more autonomy supportive they are with their students." Another study done by Roth, Assor, Kanat-Maymon and Kaplan in 2007 came up with similar results which were "consistent with the hypothesis that autonomous motivation for teaching promotes students' autonomous motivation for learning by enhancing students' experience of their teachers as autonomy supportive" (2007, p.773).

SDT, a macro theory of motivation, posits that "Intrinsically motivated behavior, which is propelled by people's interest in the activity itself, is prototypically autonomous" while extrinsic motivation, "initiated and maintained by contingencies external to a person" is an example of "controlled motivation" (Gagné & Deci, 2005, p. 334). When the values associated with an externally regulated behaviour are 'internalized', it changes to "an internal regulation" and becomes "prototypically autonomous." The more fully it has been internalized, the more autonomous will be the subsequent, extrinsically motivated behavior. Using this assumption as the desired outcome of all efforts to foster autonomy in tertiary level students, it is hoped that students, whose only interest is to get enough marks in English language to secure a good CGPA, would eventually internalize the values of learning the language, and thus start putting in the effort to learn English of their own volition.

Review of Literature

Teacher Autonomy

Both teacher and learner autonomy have been defined in different ways by different scholars with each emphasizing one or the other dimension of autonomy. One broad definition of autonomy that applies to teachers and students alike has been provided by Weinstein, Przybylski and Ryan (2012, p. 398) who accord three basic attributes to autonomy or lack of it: Authorship/self-congruence, Interest-taking, and Susceptibility to control. The first two are positive, necessary attributes of autonomy, but the third refers to an absence of autonomous behaviour.

By authorship and self-congruence, it is understood that autonomous people are the authors of their own behaviour which is consistent with their basic values and beliefs. Interest-taking is defined as "the spontaneous tendency to openly reflect on inner and outer events" (Weinstein, Przybylski & Ryan, 2012, p. 398). Interest-taking facilitates a better understanding of the self, resulting in a keener self-awareness. Susceptibility to control is seen as the absence of autonomy and people who are less autonomous perceive "a lesser degree of personal choice and initiative in situations, and instead see behavior as a response to pressure from others' expectations or from introjected pressures and self-imposed 'have to's'" (Meissner, 1988; Perls, 1973; Ryan & Connell, 1989 cited in Weinstein, Przybylski & Ryan, 2012, p. 398). Individuals who display the first two attributes and are able to overcome the third are autonomous and three of their basic psychological needs can be satisfied.

However, according to different researchers, an autonomous teacher should also have the following attributes: *Critical reflection and the ability to self-direct one's professional development* are crucial in determining whether a teacher is autonomous or not. Sinclair (2009, p.184) writes that teachers will be able to "take informed and principled decisions about their teaching context" only if they have control over their own professional development. This implies that a teacher who is critically reflective and self-directs her own professional development is also one who will be able to take informed decisions about any changes needed in her teaching practices.

Dialogue and collaboration are also regarded as fundamental to the concept of autonomy. Benson (2001, p.12) writes how researchers emphasize that the "development of autonomy implies collaboration and interdependence". According to the Shizouka definition "... teacher autonomy can be strengthened by collaborative support and networking both within the institution and beyond. Negotiation thus forms an integral part of the process of developing teacher autonomy" (Barfield et al., 2001). Hence, teacher autonomy entails both independence and interdependence. Here dialogue provides a setting for collaborative critical thinking and negotiation through which teachers can reach an agreement on how to bring about necessary changes.

Fostering learner autonomy is another intrinsic feature of teacher autonomy. Little (1995, p.180) argues that “language teachers are more likely to succeed in promoting learner autonomy if their own education has encouraged them to be autonomous”. Learner autonomy in its simplest definition implies the ability to take the responsibility of one’s own learning. However, students do not come to the class with an innate ability to learn autonomously and the teacher cannot just hand over the responsibility of learning to them and relax. “…Learner empowerment entails that as teachers we bring our learners to accept responsibility for their own learning” (Little, 2000).

Autonomy supportive practices

Little (1995) argues that in second language learning “the learner's acceptance of responsibility for his or her learning entails the gradual development of a capacity for independent and flexible use of the target language.” Hence, teachers have to involve learners in “activities that require them to use the target language for genuinely communicative purposes, and thus allow them an equal share of discourse initiatives (Little 1995). Grolnick et al., (1997) and Ryan, Sheldon, Kasser and Deci (1996) suggest that autonomy-supportive teacher behaviour include “providing choice, encouraging self-initiation, minimising the use of controls, and acknowledging the other’s perspective and feelings (cited in Assor, Kaplan & Roth, 2002, p. 262). Teachers need to take into consideration their students’ needs, preferences and personal objectives when preparing the activities and teaching contents. According to Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, (2002); Reeve & Jang, (2006); Reeve, Jang, Carrell, Jeon, & Barch, (2004), instructional contents such as these ensure students’ engagement because they present learning activities that have relevance for the students, “providing optimal challenges, highlighting meaningful learning goals, and supporting students’ volitional endorsement of classroom behaviors” (cited in Jang, Reeve, & Deci, 2010, p.588).

Hence, it is clear that teachers need to be aware of the importance of autonomy as well as what it entails to ensure a learning environment in the classroom that fosters autonomy in students.

Learner Autonomy

Henri Holec (1981, p.3) defined learner autonomy as the “ability to take charge of one’s own learning” and he emphasizes the need for students to take charge of their learning at all levels, i.e. setting up their learning objectives, determining the course content, selecting the methods to be used, monitoring the process of acquisition and lastly, evaluating their progress. However, this ability to take charge of all aspects of one’s learning, in Holec’s opinion, “is not inborn but must be acquired …”

Method

Design

This was an exploratory, qualitative research and qualitative methods were used to both collect the data and to analyze it.

Research questions

a) What was the tertiary level language teachers' perception of the concept of autonomy?
b) Were their classroom practices autonomy supportive?
c) What were their beliefs about their students**?**

Sample

Purposive sampling procedure was used to select the sample for this study. The participants were six tertiary level English language teachers from three private universities in Dhaka, Bangladesh. The teaching experience of the teachers ranged from 2 years to 9+ years. The teachers were chosen because they taught foundation level English language courses which were mandatory for students of all disciplines. These teachers had to teach classes of an average of over forty students.

Procedure

Open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used to collect data. The completed questionnaires were collected from the participants before the interviews and some questions were asked on basis of the answers given by the participants. The interviews were conducted in English and all participants except one answered questions in English. The interviews were audio-taped with the consent of the participants and later transcribed verbatim. Narrative analysis of the data was done and coding was used to identify the emerging thematic patterns.

Findings and Discussion

Teacher's perceived work autonomy

Despite having a fixed syllabus and textbook to follow, teachers expressed complete autonomy in their classroom practices and choice of additional resources. Except for one teacher, all teachers said that even though an evaluation grid with broad marks allocations for different types of assessment was provided by the authority they had the freedom to allocate marks according to their own discretion in further break ups of marks. For example, if 20 marks were allocated to creative writing, the teacher decided how much from the twenty to allocate to grammar and how much to mechanics and so on. Teachers, however, did not have much freedom in choosing their class timings. Lack of free classrooms made it difficult for institutions to accommodate changes in class timings and teachers seemed to understand and accept it. They had the freedom to attend conferences and seminars on their own initiative if they wanted to. Teacher responses indicated that teachers enjoyed a degree of autonomy in the important areas where teaching practices and access to resources were concerned, and the few constraints that were there could be expected in any institution.

Teachers' autonomous practices

In reference to self-directed professional development, the findings of this research showed that teachers' practices were autonomous in some respects but not so much so in others. Only one teacher said that she observed her peers' classes because she wanted to learn new teaching styles and techniques and another said that, "I personally did not get the chance. But I have interest in doing so". The other three teachers had not observed their peers' classes. One teacher felt that peer observations were unnecessary because holding discussions with colleagues served the same purpose. The sixth teacher felt that peer-observation was not something he engaged in, because observing a teacher's class could make her feel uncomfortable.

All the teachers said that they discussed teaching strategies with their colleagues and one added that she loved to get new ideas from others. They all said that they reflected on their teaching because it was beneficial, and important to overcome one's limitations. All of them also read articles on innovative ideas in teaching. One teacher, however, added that she preferred other reading material to articles on teaching. All of them felt that innovative methods of teaching motivated students, and reading about them was essential for professional growth, and to bring about positive change. This was highly autonomous behaviour in the teachers.

All the teachers had attended teacher development programmes and workshops, but not one had attended any such programme on their own initiative. Two of the universities of the participants arranged workshops and seminars for the development of the faculty members and teachers had attended those. One teacher stated that they did not have to do anything else for their professional growth. Only one teacher from the third university said that if he got the opportunity to attend any workshop like the ones he had attended he would be willing to go by himself even if the university did not send him. It cannot be said with any certainty that teachers who attended in-service teacher development programmes would have done so on their own initiative.

Teachers' attitudes towards their students and autonomy supportive practices

Teachers were asked certain questions to find out how much autonomy they felt their students should be given. When asked whether they thought students had to be guided at every step, only three teachers felt that students should participate actively in the learning process and teachers should not burden them with too many guidelines. The other three teachers felt that students needed a lot of guidance with one of them writing that students are not mature enough, and another saying that students who are not proficient (in English) have to be guided. However, two of these teachers also believed that students should not be allowed to become teacher dependent. This was again seen as an autonomy supportive attitude. One teacher, however, did not express any such concern and her attitude was seen as non-autonomy supportive.

Teachers also believed that students did not know enough to set up their own learning goals. Only one teacher felt that with consultations with teachers, students could define their learning objectives. Here the teacher not only realized the need for students to be able to identify their own learning goals but also the need for dialogue between teacher and students in the process. The other five teachers gave their own reasons for believing that students were not fit to decide their own learning goals. Hence, they showed a complete lack of understanding of the concept of learner autonomy. However, during the interview a teacher, who believed that students did not know how to set up their own learning goals, said that he sometimes had to change a lesson because his students told him that they needed to learn something else. This belied the statement that students did not know enough to determine their learning goals. This teacher's practice was autonomy supportive because he gave importance to the students' wishes and adjusted the lesson. However, only two teachers' beliefs conformed to the concept of autonomy regarding their students.

When asked whether teachers believed that they should select the reading material that their students read, only two teachers wrote that students should have a say in what they read. A third teacher said that it depended on the particular class but student wishes should be given importance. Two teachers said it was mainly for teachers to decide with one of them saying that he could take student wishes into account if he wanted. The last teacher wrote that his students did not want autonomy in this respect.

In practice when teachers told students to read books at home, they all gave some form of suggestions to the students as to what they might read because they believed students did not have much idea of what they should read. This was necessary as students who had never read anything outside their text books in English could not suddenly become aware of the kinds of reading materials available to them. One teacher let students choose but allowed them to read their chosen book only if he approved of it. A second teacher also said that if students brought something which was too easy, she persuaded them to choose something else. But to foster autonomy, students should have been allowed to make the ultimate selection of the reading materials and read whatever they had chosen. If learners do not feel that they have control over what they choose to read, their intrinsic motivation is not likely to be activated.

What is of significance is that all except one teacher said that most students did not read at home at all, even those who had the freedom to choose what they read. The teacher who monitored the reading of his students ensured that they read whatever he approved of. This refers back to the point that students needed to be aware of why they were learning the language and why reading was important. All the teachers tried to motivate students by telling them how important it was to learn English, and emphasized the importance of reading to learn the language. But obviously that was not enough. Teachers needed to have dialogues with the students where they could reach a consensus on how their redefined learning objectives could be achieved. Unless students' attitude towards learning English changed and they realized by themselves the importance of reading to reach their learning goals, no amount of autonomy given to them was going to veer them towards reading.

All the teachers agreed that it was important to discuss students' strengths and weaknesses with them and did so regularly. One teacher said that discussing their strengths encouraged them to improve more and another said that identifying their weaknesses was very important for 'effective learning'. Holding dialogues with students about their progress is autonomy supportive and teachers obviously understood this as an important practice. Discussing the learners' strengths and weaknesses is also one way of helping them identify what they need to learn. Even though the course content was determined by the authorities, teachers had the freedom to add any component they felt was needed. Students could have been invited to suggest those elements to be included which were not already there. However, none of the teachers used these discussions for that purpose.

Teachers' behaviours were in keeping with their beliefs when four out of six teachers said that they did not involve students in any discussions regarding the choice of course content. One teacher said that he sometimes let the students choose certain advanced level content and another teacher said that she invited feedback from the students but the ultimate decision was hers and she decided what content to include and what not to. Teachers' behaviour in general was non-autonomy supportive.

One way of giving learners autonomy in course content is to ask them to bring resources of their own choice to class. Teachers could then create activities on those materials. When asked, teachers indicated that students usually just brought newspaper saying that they couldn't find anything. Two teachers even gave suggestions as to where students could find good stories, essays etc. but, teachers implied that students did not really put in the effort to find something that they themselves could enjoy. One teacher actually said that his students did not want the responsibility to bring resources to the class. This resistance to autonomy demonstrated by the students showed the level of teacher dependence they had and how reluctant they were to get out of their comfort zone to actually work toward their learning. Here, the teachers' practices were autonomy supportive, but students seemed resistant to exercising their autonomy.

Leni Dam (1995, cited in Little, 2009) regards the use of the target language in the classroom as autonomy supportive. David Little (2009), too, emphasizes that classroom interaction in the language class should always be in the target language because to learn a language students need to have "access to a full range of discourse roles, initiating as well as responding" (Little, 2009, p.153). This is intended to provide students with enough scope to use the language freely to say and share what they want. In fundamental language courses, where speaking in English is compulsory, all the teachers said that although learners usually had a great deal to say, they did not speak up because they were reluctant to make mistakes in front of others. One teacher said that, "since they must talk in English in class they do not want to say anything even though they have a lot to say, … except for a few students, which is very rare". Other teachers said similar things about their students.

Only two teachers made a practice of asking students to choose their own assignment topic because they felt that giving learners that choice helped them remain motivated. Two others said that they sometimes let the students choose. One teacher said that even if he asked them to choose, they came to him for suggestions instead of thinking it out by themselves. Another teacher said that she discussed with her students but in the end gave them what she wanted them to do. Except for two teachers, the others were not autonomy supportive in this practice.

Two of the teachers felt that it was their responsibility, so they decided which units or activities should be done in a particular class, while another said that she let students give their opinion but the ultimate decision was hers. Another teacher said that most of the time he was the one to decide but sometimes he did not even have to invite students to discuss the issue. Students themselves told him that they would rather do something else. If what they wanted was within the course content and not something they had already covered, he modified his lessons accordingly. Two other teachers were autonomy supportive as they held discussions with their students and took their opinions to decide what activity or unit to do.

Teachers asked students to reflect on their progress. One teacher said that learners did reflect on their progress and it helped them. Others said that a few students did but not all. All the teachers said that they discussed the students work with them to help them understand whether they had improved or not. Sometimes that was done in class, sometimes teachers asked them to talk to them individually. In this the teachers' practices were autonomy supportive.

None of the teachers had ever asked their students to assess their work. Self-evaluation promotes reflection and so it is an important facet of an autonomous learner. "Self-assessments help learners monitor their level of success in specific learning tasks. A series of self-assessments will contribute to monitoring progress towards specific learning objectives" (Gardner, 2000, p.52). Harris (1997, p.13) suggests the importance of "diagnostic activities" to initiate students to self-assessment. Involving learners in peer correction also helps them to identify their own strengths and weaknesses and should be practiced in class. This was also something teachers in this study did not practice. One teacher said he had not thought about it. Another felt that it could embarrass the students and a third teacher said that students tended to mark correct items as wrong. That teacher failed to note that such a mistake could also be a learning process for that student. Only one teacher made a practice of orally asking students to say whether an answer given by a fellow student is correct or not, but she did not involve students in correcting their peers' written work. So in this respect also all except one teacher displayed a lack of autonomy supportive behaviour.

Teachers in this study told students to read as much as possible and watch video clips and movies in English as a strategy to learn the language. While this is a strategy to learn English through exposure to the language, there are more specific meta-cognitive, cognitive and social-affective language learning strategies that teachers need to make students aware of for them to learn effectively. None of the teachers in this study seemed to teach these strategies to the students. Since these students had only had to memorize answers and essays etc. before reaching tertiary level, they had never needed any other strategies than those needed to recall and retrieve information. Hence, there was a need to familiarize them with some language learning strategies which they could try out before settling with the ones best suited to their learning styles. Teachers may not have had a clear idea of what learning strategies entail and so in this respect they were not autonomy supportive.

A disturbing teacher belief became apparent when five out of six teachers said that teachers should have total control over their class. Two of them said that classes should be interactive and teachers should not overwhelm the students but they should be the ones in control, otherwise learning objectives would not be met. Only one teacher categorically said that if teachers have total control, the situation would become suffocating asking "Why should a class be so full of the teacher only?"

Students who have always been teacher dependent cannot suddenly be told to learn on their own or even set up their learning objectives on their own. This is where reflective dialogues between teacher and learners become essential. Unless students realize by themselves that they need to learn the language, and not just pass examinations, no amount of responsibility put on them will make them autonomous learners. Only if students are able to realize and define their own learning objectives will teacher's autonomy supportive practices see some success.

Implications of the findings

To sum it up, the findings revealed that the respondents enjoyed full autonomy in the classroom and their classroom practices were mostly autonomy supportive. Yet, learners, with the exception of a few, were not seen to become autonomous learners. Teachers found it difficult to motivate them to use English or put in any effort to gain proficiency in English. However, a significant fact that the findings also revealed was that teacher beliefs about their students and about their own roles in the classroom mostly did not conform to the concept of autonomy. Teachers mainly believed that students were not capable of taking control of any aspect of their learning. Therefore, it was concluded that the teachers lacked an understanding of what autonomy entails, and their attitude toward their students may have been one of the key reasons for student's resistance to exercising autonomy in even those areas where it was given to them. This indicates that teachers enjoying full autonomy are not necessarily able to effectively foster it in their students even if they are less controlling and more approachable. Their innate belief about their students obviously plays an integral role in ensuring a truly autonomy supportive classroom environment.

Teachers, therefore, need to have the "ability and willingness to help learners take responsibility for their own learning" (Thavenius, 1999, p.160). Thavenius (1999, p.161) actually goes on to define what an autonomous teacher should be able to do. Firstly, teachers have to let learners take responsibility but also "remain co-responsible"; secondly, teachers have to allow students to discover their own needs, and their potential without interfering and allow the balance of power to shift in the classroom. It is also important for teachers to "reflect on what happens in the classroom and why", and "help each learner find his individual needs" (1999, p.161). Most importantly, teachers need to believe in their students' ability to assume the responsibility of their learning. This cannot happen unless teacher training programmes are geared to raise awareness in the teachers. Through collaborative critical reflections, teachers have to come to the realization about why their own beliefs need to change and how a change in their own approach can help nurture autonomy in their students. As David Little has said, "teacher education should be subject to the same processes of negotiation as are required for the promotion of learner autonomy in the language classroom" (1995, p.180). Without such training one cannot hope to expect much change in the language learning scenario in Bangladesh.

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From the Amateur to the Professional in Group Discussions: Exploring the Use of Metacognitive Strategies

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Abstract
The performance of learners on group discussions is used for shortlisting candidates during campus recruitments across professional courses. The complex task requires learners to make use of several learning strategies to enhance their group discussion performance to become good discussants. Many professional courses incorporate an orientation programme in developing group discussion skills in their English course. While these programmes focus on the verbal aspects of the language, the strategies learners inherently use are often neglected. Consequently, this paper attempts to capture the metacognitive strategies which the good group discussants employ when the discussion is underway, thereby, making them adept. The data of one female and two male first year engineering students from a video recording of a round of group discussions, a strategies use questionnaire, a write up on expectations from a workshop on group discussions, and researcher's observation report of individual performance was qualitatively analyzed to identify the different metacognitive strategies and skills of group discussion which the participants inherently use. The findings suggest that good group discussants exhibit the use of certain metacognitive strategies such as 'visualization', 'activating background knowledge', and 'self-monitoring'. Since the findings of the study suggest that strategies play an important role in helping the discussant to augment performance during group discussions, the English teacher aiming to teach group discussion skills ought to focus on these as well. Therefore, this study has implications for the development of a strategies training programme to improve group discussion skills vis-a-vis metacognitive strategy use among tertiary level learners.

Keywords: Learning strategies, metacognitive strategies, Group discussions, Engineering students, Indian

Introduction

Engineering students often get placed in various companies even before the completion of their four- year course. This occurs through a campus recruitment drive which is conducted sometime during the third year across engineering institutes. In one stage of the selection process, the prospective candidates are required to participate in a round of group discussions. This phase of the selection process is especially important for better assessment of the candidates by the selection committee members of the hiring company. The assessment comprises but, may not be limited to the linguistic competence, ability to think on their feet, and the personality traits of the candidates.

While some training is imparted to these aspirants in group discussions as part of their English course, it may not be sufficient. To move from being an amateur group discussant who can barely manage to keep afloat in the face of an intense discussion, to being able to handle the pressure in a professional manner under test conditions- which the round on group discussion in effect is, greater skills are required. The discussant then needs to go beyond adhering to mere tips for performing well to actually developing an ability to think about ways of tackling the task by making use of strategies. They also need to reflect on their verbal and non-verbal group discussion behaviour as part of the process. The complexity of the group discussion task is further evidenced by the fact that it requires the discussant to not only understand and apply information already known but also, analyze, evaluate, and recreate those to suit the context of the discussion better.

Therefore, it was necessary to identify the strategies that the good group discussants, whose performance is akin to a professional's, make use of which sets them apart from the amateur, who remains tongue tied with nervousness. Consequently, the research question which drives this study is:

Which metacognitive strategies are preexisting among good group discussants?

Researching metacognitive strategies

Metacognitive strategies have been defined in as many ways as there are theorists propagating it. But, the underlying principle has its roots in the work of John Flavell (1979), also known as the father of metacognition. He defined those as strategies to monitor the cognitive processes which an individual performs on a daily basis. In other words, the ability of the learners to think about their thinking process is known as metacognitive knowledge and the strategies used therein are known as metacognitive strategies. To quote him, "...you might believe that you (unlike your brother) should use strategy A (rather than strategy B) in task X (as contrasted with task Y)" (*ibid*). Metacognitive strategies can be further classified as planning, monitoring, and evaluating strategies. These can be used in various combinations to suit specific language learning needs. However, this paper is limited to the identification of the various strategies and does not include their further classification into the different types therein.

Metacognitive strategies have been researched upon in innumerable ways in the field of second language acquisition. A qualitative investigation was undertaken to trace the use of metacognitive strategies during second language academic reading by Li and Munby (1996). An analysis of the data showed that the metacognitive strategies of ‘translation’, ‘use of background knowledge’, ‘self- questioning’, ‘prediction’, ‘paying attention to topic sentences’, ‘picking out key words’, and ‘comparing and contrasting to L1knowledge domain’ were used for understanding the academic texts better. Ghapanchi and Taheryan’s study (2012) proved that metacognitive strategy use along with metacognitive knowledge and linguistic knowledge was instrumental for improving speaking skills. Tan and Tan (2010) conducted a study using audio-blogs which projected a significant improvement in oral performances after explicit instruction in metacognitive reflection. Lam (2010) used observation and stimulated recall interviews to identify the strategies which learners used during small group discussion tasks in class. My focus in this study is to trace the evidence of similar preexisting strategy use in formal group discussions which engineering students are required to participate in as part of their campus recruitment process.

Participants

The participants in the study were first year electrical engineering students between the ages of seventeen and nineteen from a private college in Kolkata. For pragmatic reasons this paper presents information from three of them- two male and one female. The pseudonyms given to them to keep their identities veiled are Afzal, Nayomi, and Raj.

Tools

The tools for data collection were video recordings of a round of group discussions which lead to the researcher’s observation report of individual performance, a strategies use questionnaire, a write up on the participants’ expectations from a workshop on group discussions and a round of interviews.

Methodology

Data for this study was collected over a period of three weeks. The researcher met the participants across six sessions. They were asked to participate in a round of group discussions. All the group discussions were video recorded. The researcher also maintained detailed observation notes about individual participants. Then, a questionnaire based on strategy use during group discussions was distributed to gain an insight into the participants’ preexisting notions of metacognitive strategies which are prerequisites for a good group discussion. Thereafter, they were asked to write about their expectations from a workshop on group discussions. This was followed by a round of interviews to get a deeper insight about the participants’ strategic behaviour during the group discussion.

Data analysis

In this section the data gathered from the three participants have been presented. In each case first the participants’ understanding and use of metacognitive strategies in group discussions have been discussed followed by the verbal and the nonverbal aspects of their group discussion performances. Sources of participants’ responses from the various tools have been referred to as, interviews (I), write up (W), questionnaire (Q), and researcher's observations (RO).The codes used for the participants will therefore be AI which refers to interview response given by Afzal, NW which corresponds to Nayomi's write up, AQ indicating questionnaire response by Afzal, and RRO referring to researcher's observation of Raj's group discussion performance, and so on.

Case 1- Afzal

In the scope of understanding and using metacognitive strategies during group discussions, Afzal believed that he could enhance his performance by gathering knowledge from various sources of information such as watching news, reading books and interacting with professionals in the field. He said, "For improving my performance in group discussion regularly I will watch the debates on News Channel how the participants are performing on the issues, read regularly books and interact with the professionals in the society, talk to the participants and moderators who participated previously in group discussions" (sic) (AI). He would also try to cope with a difficult situation in the discussion by providing examples, describing phenomena better and agreeing with other participants who shared his view point during the discussion. On being explicitly asked about his use of specific strategies it was found that Afzal had some preexisting notion about six out of the ten strategies (AQ) in focus. He had some idea of the stage of the group discussion during which the strategies of 'setting goals', 'self-talk' 'prediction', 'self-monitoring', 'brainstorming', and 'selective attention' would be most useful. His beliefs were partially reflected in his performance as well. During the discussion he said, "looks like as if they are soldiers marching for a cause" (ARO) when referring to students in uniforms. This is a clear indication of the use of 'visualization', and 'activating background knowledge'. He also used 'selective attention' in the form of using keywords borrowed from other discussants such as "we are still students" to take the discussion forward.

Afzal's understanding of verbal aspects during the discussion is enumerated herewith. He took ten turns during the discussion. He spoke for a total of 98 seconds. The duration of his turns was between 40 seconds and 2 seconds of talking per turn. On an average, his speed was 120 words per minute. He was of the opinion that incorporating examples, describing situations and agreeing with others would go a long way in improving his group discussion performance. He said, "Yes obviously I will do my best in coping with the situation using strategies like, giving examples and describing about the future happening, events and agreeing with those persons performance who is supporting my views in that topic" (AI). He added that listening to the other discussants' opinions and incorporating those in his arguments would help to improve the discussion performance as well. He would also ask others to explain their points better. His beliefs were reflected in his performance as well. The points Afzal made were pertinent to the discussion. He substantiated his arguments with concrete examples. His speech also had cohesive markers and some use of language functions to indicate the different stages of the group discussion. He often used the phrase "I agree with you" (ARO) to indicate his stance. He was prompt with his responses, indicating a quick thinking mind. Moreover, the organization of his ideas was also evident from his group discussion performance. Afzal was also a team player as evidenced by his helping attitude by supplying vocabulary to discussants who got stuck mid-sentence. Nevertheless, he had a tendency of speaking fast. Also, perhaps on account of his nervousness he gave all his points together in a single turn itself, instead of pacing them out across the discussion. He conceded his turn easily on being interrupted mid-turn. Often, perhaps on account of lack of a better word, he overused the cohesion marker “but” (ARO).

On being questioned about his non-verbal group discussion behaviour, Afzal specifically spoke about improving his eye contact among the various aspects of non-verbal communications which he wanted to make improvements in. He stated, “Overcome disabilities and have eye contact, improve my confidence level, developing my personality”(sic) (AW).He exhibited some use of gestures during the discussion. Furthermore, he looked at the participants making their points and tried to maintain eye contact when taking his turns. But, it was observed that often his gaze would turn towards the floor. He also exhibited a tendency to look straight at the camera during the discussion. This has been recorded by the researcher as well. “Looks straight into the camera. Looks away from other participants” (ARO). He indicated his agreement with others by nodding his head and was also courteous on being rebuked by the other discussants for his differing view point. This is evidenced by his response, “I agree with your point but,…”.

Case 2- Nayomi

Nayomi was not very forthcoming with her responses regarding metacognitive strategy use during group discussions. She simply stated that while at the beginning she felt frightened, later on she felt “more normal” (NI). Moreover, on being explicitly asked about strategies, she simply talks about “mind mapping” (NI)and says “I’ll understand the topic carefully, if any doubt, I’ll ask immediately for clarity and then I will think about the topic given and gather some point in mind” (NI). She had some idea of identifying the best time for making use of only the strategy of ‘self-monitoring’ at the most appropriate stage of the group discussion (NQ). Her beliefs regarding strategies were partially reflected in her group discussion performance. She did not exhibit the use of many strategies. It can be inferred that at most she used some ‘activating background knowledge’ when providing general information about the internet rather than specific information about social media websites- which was the topic for the discussion. She said, “Like it also helps us in searching information” (NRO). This sometimes tended to take the topic away from the point of discussion. Even though she was taking a certain amount of thinking time before presenting her points, her responses were neither numerous nor adding to the discussion to a large extent.

Nayomi’s verbal behavioral patterns during group discussions have been explained herewith. She took four turns and spoke for a total of 67 seconds. Her turns lasted between 33 seconds and 2 seconds talking time. Her average words per minute was 122. It was found that stating her opinion regarding the topic for discussion was of primary importance to her. Thereafter, listening to what the others had to say was necessary. Finally, being audible was important. She also wanted to give appropriate points during the discussion. In her performance her leadership skills came into the forefront as she initiated the discussion. She gave pertinent reasons in support of her arguments and was able to self-correct while the discussion was underway. On being asked to respond to a point, she readily came up with her opinion. Nayomi was in the habit of addressing individual members rather than the whole group during the discussion. She was also forceful enough to continue her point in spite of being interrupted mid-turn. In spite of the apparent positive aspects of Nayomi's performance, she seemed to be very dominant as she was not only the initiator of the discussion, the moderator for the group, but also concluded the discussion. She was not very proactive in claiming turns for herself. Also, her turn started with the phrase "I disagree with the statement" (NRO) while initiating the discussion. She also exhibited the tendency of using "like" (NRO) as a filler.

Nayomi does not mention any non-verbal parameters whose use she would like to focus on during group discussions. She simply stated that the group discussion workshop "should enhance self-confidence" (NW). An observation of her group discussion performance revealed that she was able to use gestures to a certain extent. The note made by the researcher about this is "makes some use of gestures and the hands clasped together, fingers pointing forward resting on her knees, indicate a positive outlook towards the discussion" (NRO). She too looked straight into the camera while presenting her points and looked towards the floor when listening to others. Nayomi had a very rigid posture all through the discussion. This can be indicative of an attentive stance. She also made a slight movement on hearing another discussant making the same mistake- "hype instead of Skype" (NRO) which she had self-corrected earlier during the discussion. This shows her attentive nature. Nayomi also smiled from time to time on hearing the discussion points being made indicating a relaxed state of mind.

Case 3- Raj

At the very outset it is important to mention that Raj was uncomfortable speaking in English during the interview. Therefore, he was interviewed in Hindi. The interview was transcribed and then translated into English. The translation was cross checked with a native speaker of the language to maintain validity. Raj seemed to have numerous ideas about improving his group discussion performance. He mentioned reading, anticipating questions and finding answers to those, watching videos and observing to be important for preparing oneself for discussions. He said, "I will have to read lot of materials for practice. Anticipate questions and try to find answers to that. Watch some good GD on YouTube" (RI).He had some idea of using the strategy of 'self-monitoring', and 'selective attention' at the most appropriate stage of the group discussion (RQ). Unfortunately his group discussion performance did not reflect the use of any strategies whatsoever. He spoke only in response to what someone else had to say. His own points were almost absent. He made a move to speak only when another discussant was in the middle of his speech. Moreover, he did not exhibit any thinking- either out of the box or by analyzing and reasoning about the topic for discussion. He was in the habit of repeating the same point, "dress code is compulsory, must" (RRO) - without providing any supporting reasons.

An analysis of Raj's verbal behaviour during the group discussion suggests that he took nine turns and spoke for a total of 68 seconds. His longest turn lasted 36 seconds and the shortest was one second in duration. Nevertheless he took very long pauses during his turns. Consequently, his words per minute count was 80.He believed that thinking about the topic and planning how to counter argue would prove the most beneficial during group discussions. He said, "Just think of what I know about the subject. Think about how to counter argue for the other have discussed" (sic) (RI). In his performance it was observed that while he started his point by acknowledging his agreement, he made a habit of reading aloud from his notes. Moreover, he lacked confidence since he readily fell silent in case of overlapping turns. He ended his argument during the discussion simply by stating “that’s it” (RRO). Raj often relinquished his turn and stopped mid-sentence when unable to come up with the appropriate word. Consequently, his sentences were short. He was also unable to substantiate his points with supporting examples. Apart from one turn, all his turns were shorter than five seconds. His speech was ungrammatical, although, the other discussants seemed to be able to make sense of what he wanted to say. Furthermore, he does not exhibit a proactive nature and does not try to take a turn during a lull in the discussion. Raj’s recurrent interruption while others were speaking makes him appear to have a decent amount of presence during the discussion, but in reality his contribution is negligible. He often took a turn to simply state “yes, I agree” (RRO), and then fell silent.

In his nonverbal behaviour during group discussions Raj specifically wanted to develop his body language and facial expressions in the course of a training programme on group discussions. He clearly stated, “How should be the body activity and facial expression during talking?” (sic) (RW). In his performance during the discussion it was observed that he looked at the floor for a majority of the discussion time. He sat hunched forward and the gestures which he was making were akin to confused at best. This is better known as jazz hands (adapted from dramatics).He was also very fidgety and often rubbed his face in a manner which was at times distracting for the other discussants. The slightest noise disturbed him. Towards the end of the discussion it was observed that he, “eagerly awaited getting off the stage” (RRO). This clearly indicated his uneasiness throughout the discussion period.

Discussion

The aim of the study was to identify participants’ preexisting knowledge of metacognitive strategies, and the verbal and non-verbal parameters which are a marker of their group discussion performance. An analysis of the data suggests that with respect to the group discussion performance, Afzal was the most active and well balanced participant. He took the maximum turns. His duration of speech was the longest, and his words per minute count was also well balanced and falls within the normal conversational speech range. His dexterity is evidenced in both the verbal and non-verbal behaviours which he exhibited during the discussion. Furthermore, his understanding of strategies was better than Nayomi’s and Raj’s. The visuals which he described clearly developed out of using the strategies of ‘activating background knowledge’ and ‘visualization’. He was also aware of this as evidenced by his responses during the interview. Therefore, Afzal was by far the best group discussant. Nayomi exhibited good communication skills and leadership abilities but her grasp of the topic desired more. Moreover, she had a tendency of dominating the discussion by dint of her speaking skills. Her awareness of the strategies was very limited as she presented some use of only ‘activating background knowledge’ during the discussion. A better understanding and subsequent use of the strategies could enhance her performance by improving her skills of group discussion. Raj was the least initiated group discussant. He struggled not only with the content but also with the language for expressing his opinion during the discussion. The recurrent use of the phrase “dress code is compulsory, must” (RRO) is indicative of his ability to use ‘selective attention' by borrowing it from the other discussants. Nevertheless, it must be stated that at this juncture he was unable to take the discussion forward by using it thereby, making only partial utilization of the strategy. Perhaps creating awareness about actually using the strategy would help to develop his group discussion performance.

The metacognitive strategies which the good group discussants- Afzal and Nayomi had prior knowledge of are 'activating background knowledge', 'visualization', and 'selective attention'. However, they did not make use of these consciously during the course of the discussion. Nevertheless, since all three discussants indicate a certain amount of use of the strategies it clearly indicates that awareness raising will go a long way in improving the group discussion skills of the participants across abilities. It is interesting to note that while the discussants had some idea of improving their performance by focusing on their body language, they were largely unaware of the benefits of developing their thinking skills for the betterment of their performance- although Afzal clearly stated that he would "use tricks to handle the situation" (AI). Therefore, it can be concurred that in keeping with the revised Bloom's taxonomy (cited in Huitt, 2011), at this stage the discussants were at the remembering stage of the metacognitive knowledge dimension by being able to list elements of personal learning style.

Conclusion

The results of this study have provided evidence that the participant who had the best preexisting subconscious notions about metacognitive strategies was also the one who had the best group discussion performance. Moreover, he exhibited use of the strategies to some extent during the discussion. Also, he was aware of his drawbacks and spoke at length about those. This is indicative of his ability to evaluate his performance. Since the findings of the study suggest that metacognitive strategies play an important role in helping the discussant to augment performance during group discussions, the English teacher aiming to teach group discussion skills ought to focus on these as well. Holec (1994), O'Malley and Chamot (1994), Wenden (1998), Oxford (2001), and others involved in training learners in the use of learning strategies suggest that metacognitive knowledge should be an integral part of language programmes. They maintain that students who learn to consciously monitor their own learning, and have a storehouse of strategies to use when learning becomes difficult, perform better than students who do not have such strategies. Consequently, an awareness raising programme on the different strategies which might prove beneficial for improving group discussion skills can be undertaken. This in turn will adhere to Oxford's (1990) idea when she states that, "Appropriate language learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence" (p.1). These will go a long way in enabling the discussants to engage better with the higher order thinking skills which are prerequisites for a good group discussion. She further elucidates the effectiveness of the metacognitive functions such as planning, evaluating, and arranging one's own learning among ESL learners. These can prove beneficial for a task like group discussion which can be sub-divided into the three stages of before discussion, during discussion, and after discussion for the convenience of the teaching-learning process. Some of the strategies which such an awareness raising programme can focus on includes, 'visualization', 'activating background knowledge', 'selective attention', 'self-evaluation', and, 'self-monitoring' among others.

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Applying Blended Learning Method in Teaching English at the University of Da Nang, Viet Nam

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Abstract
Blended learning addresses the way e-learning is combined with traditional teaching method and independent study approach to create a new, hybrid teaching methodology which has been increasingly applied in teaching foreign languages today. However, it requires a fundamental change in the way students approach the learning methods which, in turn, could bring about expecting or unexpecting results. Therefore, this paper aims to discuss advantages and challenges that students, especially non-English major students of the University of Da Nang, often face when they take some blending English courses. The researcher has set up and studied three groups of students with different majors, namely economics, technology, and business English – from different universities belonging to the University of Da Nang, who are taking some blending English courses such as DynEd, Life or other ones designed on Moodle platform by teachers of English. Because of differences in the major,the objectives of studying English, and incoming English proficiency of these three groups of students, their attitudes toward and English learning results could be not simillar, or even extremelly different. However, the factors which have big influence on these students' learning results are their inappropriate application of blended learning approach and their unadequate practice experience on using IT tools as taking blended English courses. Besides, the paper attemps to suggest some solutions to challenges that students often deal with as taking English courses in blended environment under the real pedagogical conditions in Vietnam.

Keywords: blended learning, benefits, challenges, online, face-to-face

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Introduction

During the last few decades, the rapid development of Information Technology (IT) has strong effects on various aspects of our life, especially on education. IT can be considered as an unseperated vital part of the foreign language education in the modern life leading to considerable changes in foreign language teaching and learning approaches in which blended learning has become a dominant one and implemented by language teachers worldwide during the progress of foreign language teaching and learning innovation.

Since 2012, the University of Foreign Language Studies, Da Nang University (in participating with several other Universities of Foreign Languages in Viet Nam) has carried out the national foreign language project 2020 in higher education insititutions via implementing blended EFL courses for both English-major and Non-English-major students of Da Nang University such as DynEd, Life, Skillful or other ones designed on the Internet platform Moodle by teachers of English. With the hypothesis is that the differences in students'major, students' input and required outcome of English competency, and in their knowledge and practice experience on IT could bring them disimilar learning results, this study is carried out to confirm the hypothesis and find out benefits and challenges that students often deal with as taking English foreign language (EFL) courses in blended environment.

Definitions of blended learning

Although the term blended learning is widely used in education, there is no universally accepted definition of blended learning (Graham, 2012). While some definitions refer to a combination of different delivery media, of instructional methods or of face-to-face and online instruction (Bonk & Graham, 2012; Graham, 2013), others define it as the combination of online and face-to-face learning and teaching depending on the proportion of course content delivered online (Picciano, 2013). This study, however, tend to base on the definition of Garrison and Vaugan (2008) which stated that blended learning is considered as the organic integration of thoughtfully selected and complementary face-to-face and online approaches, because this concept more focuses on the pedagogical aspect of the combination and depends largely on its implementation context. (Tue, 2015).

Types of blended learning

There are many ways to categorise blended learning. For example, blended learning can be classified into *Activity level, Course level, Program level*, and *Institutional level* according to the levels of implementation; classified as *Skill-driven, Attitude-driven,* and *Competency-driven models* in concern with the learning objectives; or as *Enabling blends, Enhancing blends,* and *Transforming blends* in terms of learning scope of blended learning (Graham, 2012; Valiathan, 2002). Among these types of blended learning, *Enhancing blends* and *Transforming blends* are the two most significant to this study because they show incremental change to existing padagogy such as offering supplementary online materials for face-to-face courses, or changing from a model where EFL learners are merely receivers of information to a model where learners actively construct English knowledge and skills through rich interactions with others in both face-to-face and online environments (Tue, 2015) which has brought valuable contribution into the process of foreign language teaching and learning innovation.

Fundamental theories for implementing blended learning in EFL education

According to Lamy & Halmpel (2007), the design of transformative EFL blended learning has its theoretical foundation in cognitive constructivism and socio-cultural constructivism theories. This paper, however, takes the later into account much more than the former. The reason for this is that
cognitive constructivism is most concerned with the mechanism of intellectual development and acquisition of knowledge which occurs internally; meanwhile, socio-cultural constructivism highlights the role that social processes and interactions play in individual's intellectual development, emphasising that those social processes and interactions are culturally situated (Tue, 2015).

Socio-cultural constructivism itself includes the notion of mediation and social learning. From social-cultural perspectives, the EFL learning process of some student is mediated by others such as teachers, peer students, by cultural artefacts like language, cultural history, social context, electronic forms of information access, and so on and by the self through private speech or private imitation (Lantolf, 2000). Besides, the concept of social learning provides theoretical support for the use of ICT in EFL education and emphasises the importance of a supportive discourse for EFL learning since as a social activity, learning involves individual-collective processes of identification and identity construction (Pavlenko & Norton, 2007).

Going along with these two theories, five pedagogical principles of Wilson (2008) are applied in this studies because they define what teachers do to create effective learning in blended learning environments. These principle are: (1) promoting learning engagement, (2) providing timely feedback, (3) providing for learner control of their own learning, (4) providing opportunities for dialogue and communication, and (5) motivating students in a variety of ways.

Main Study

Reasearch design and Participants

Both quantitative and qualitative methods are used for accomplishing the goal of the study. The quantitative method was applied (with the investigating tool of questionnaire) to colect the information of benefits and challenges frequently dealed by students as taking blended English courses; The qualitative one which was the interview of some students with their typical learning results enables the researcher to explore the students' perspective of blended learning and experience on using IT as taking EFL courses in blended environment.

The study involved three groups of student participants as listed in table 1 below.

Table 1 - Three groups of student participants

Group	Participants	Students' major	Input English competency	Required outcome of English competency	English course
1	45 first-year students ages 18-20 (7 males and 38 females) from the University of Foreign Language Studies.	Business English	B1	B2	DynEd (sofware)
2	42 first-year students ages 18-20 (19 males and 23 females) from the University of Economics and Adinistration.	Finance and Banking	A1	A2	Life (webpage of National Geographic Organization)
3	31 second-year students ages 19-21 (29 males and 2 females) fromthe University of Science and Technology.	Computer Science	A2	B1	Solutions (online course designed on platform Moodle)

Results and Analysis

The data collection and analysis for this study were conducted simutaneously in the second semester of the academic year 2016-2017.

To colect the information of benefits and challenges dealed by students as taking blended English courses, a questionnaire including six main questions relating to six issues as follows: (1) the advantages and disadvantages of the online learning resources; (2) the access ability and quality of online English courses; (3) the relationship between the content of online lessons and face-to-face learning activities in classroom; (4) the effectiveness of blended learning method in improving students' English competence; (5) their favourite components of blended courses; and (6) the influence of their IT knowledge and experience on using IT tools as implementing blended English courses.

From the above results presented in figure 1, we can find that 78% student participants recognized big advantages of the online resources without any complains. The advantages they could get as taking these blended English courses include interesting style-plentiful learning sources, costless online learning materials such as audio or download-free printsheets of guidebook, wordlist, etc., attractive outlook and utilities with user-friendly interfaces of the webpage. The rest ones (22%) mentioned to some disadvantages of sofware DynEd such as component Voice Regcognition, some misunderstandable principles that they have to follow to get the Mastery Test; or participants of group 3 complainted about the time limitation of exploring free learning resource linked with online course Solutions designed on platform Moodle. However, these disadvantages partly come from students' lack of knowledge and skills for self-study.

Their feedback on issue 2 led to similar results as that of the first issue. Most of the student participants gave good evaluation of the quality of the three online English courses, especially course Life on English learning webpage National Geographic. They gave high vote to the flexible access ability of software DynEd which automatically flips the switch and hence it can save and keep all detailed records of their learning process in case the Internet turns off suddenly. However, 7 students (15.4%) from group 2 expressed their negative comments on the instructions for registration procedure and the first access to course Life. According to them, it is quite complex and confusing for them to follow and hence accomplish the registration steps at the first access session.

Basing on the aggrement of 97 students participants to give positive feedback to issue 3 and 4, the researcher find that there is a close relationship between the content of online lessons and classroom learning activities concerning course Life and course Solutions. Most activities included in these courses can be considered as the extra lessons or further exercises which not only provide learners with many more opportunities of practising English skills but also enrich their knowledge of culture and society via plentiful social-culural themes of the lessons. Due to this, their English competency has been considerably improved. 93 student participants recognised their pronounciation and their communicating skill (listening and speaking) had became better, their vocabulary and knowlege of English grammar had been enriched and as the result their writing skill had been partly improved.

In regarding to the students' favourite components of blended EFL courses, 82% of 118 student participants voted for online parts which are mainly video clips, audio, 40 among 45 students of group 1 liked component Voice Recognition (in software DynEd), 28 among 31students of group 3 were fond of games, quize integrated in course Solutions designed on platform Moodle beccause these parts brought them really interesting and useful knowlege, they also made learners less stressed , more relaxing in compared with the traditional English exercises or homework. About 67 % of the total participants likes the online tutor (software DynEd) or gradebook (course Life) because this part not only gives them immediate assessment on their tasks but also lets them know about a lot of details of their self-studying sessions, their goodpoints and badpoints, and suggestions to improve their learning results. Unlike the 67% participants, the rest ones were not interested in this part. The reasons for their dislike here is that they misunderstood the online tutor's feedback and were abit afraid of their badpoints to be shown to other classmate or peers. The part occupied the smallest number of likes from the participants (41%) is the face-to-face activities in classroom. These students voted for this part because it put them into real communication sessions with the real communicators and the most real-like communicating situations that required them to try their best to immediately react and get as many sound results as possible.

The participants' feedback to issue 6 shows that more than two thirds of them (83 students) had no or little knowledge and practice experience of IT even though the major of student participants from group 3 is Computer Science. This fact turned into a big obstacle for students to effectively exploit all advantages and easily overcome some disadvantages (for example difficulty in using IT tools to record their voice, to submit their assignment online, or to quickly accomplish registration procedure at the first online learning sessions, etc.) of these blended EFL courses as well. Therefore, the reseacher can conclude that the students need much more training of IT and opportunities of practising using IT tools commonly used in language learning sofware or webpages before taking blended English courses.

To collect the data of the students' experience of practising IT in their learning process, the researcher interviewed six students (named student # 1 to student # 6) from these three universities whose learning results of these blended English courses were the best or the worst among each group.

With the question "Do you think you have enough experience on practising IT tools before take these online English course?", all of them gave "No" answer. However, three students with the best learning results and both two students with their major of Computer Science paid their small attention to this via the sixth student's answer "I know I am not good at IT, but I can do all tasks in the course that required using some IT tools well. Maybe, it is because these tools are common and very familar to me", or via the answer of the student from the University of Foreign Language Studies: " I had not taken any IT courses before taking this English course, but I did not worry about that much because I could use them effectively by following the instructions given in the course". However, all of six students said "Yes" when being asked "Do you want to get some more trainning to improve your IT skills?". Especially, the student who was from University of Economics and Adinistration and had the worst learning result implicated his strong expectation for the further IT training via his answer: " My English is very bad and so is my IT skill. I think that may cause such my learning result. I want to get more opportunities to practise to be able to use IT tools better."

In concerned with the students' perspective on blended learning, five of them expressed their positive attitude excepting for one student whose living condition is not good. All the students agreed with the statement of one student with the major of Computer Science: "Although we have not been familar to self-study style, blended learning makes us more motivated and hence study more actively than the traditional learning style. I think it the most suitable English learning approach in the present digital age."

Conclusion

There are both advantages and challenges as applying blended learning approach in teaching English. Under the real pedagogical conditions in Vietnam, the advatages or the benefits that students often get as taking blended English courses include: interesting and plentiful learning sources, costless online learning materials, more opportunities to practise communicating skills and improve their English competency, and better motivation and engagement in their self-study and active participation in face-to-face learning activities.The main challenges for students are students' lack of knowledge and skills for self-study and unadequate practice experience on using IT tools for taking online English course. In spite of the difference in their English learning results, however, most of the students have positive perspective on blended learning and expectation of getting some more IT training to overcome the obstacle of IT skill and hence improve their English competency. Therefore, this paper also suggests students mastering Wison's theory of blended learning and principles of self-study and appropriately applying them in implementing EFL courses in blended learning environment.

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Young Ambassadors: Preparing Junior High School Students for Tokyo 2020

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Abstract
As the Tokyo Olympics and Paralympics approach, the government has been attempting to make Japan more accessible to foreign visitors, and the number of incoming tourists per year has quadrupled since 2011. However, despite MEXT's promise of "nurturing English communication skills," the curriculum at secondary school level has adapted very little to meet the needs of a more globalized Japan. This is of particular concern as, based on evidence from previous events, young people are likely to make up the majority of the volunteers and support staff at the Tokyo Olympics. This paper will demonstrate aspects of a short English course for junior high school students in central Tokyo, which was designed to increase communicative ability and confidence among learners who will be at the very centre of events in the summer of 2020. I will begin by explaining the rationale behind the course, then the research and methodology used in designing the activities. I will then demonstrate some of these activities, before presenting some of the feedback from participating students. The findings of this study suggest that many young people are initially nervous about the prospect of using English with overseas visitors. However, by participating in these activities, targeted specifically towards welcoming foreign visitors to Japan, students are able to increase their confidence, interest level, and ability in using English for authentic communication.

Keywords: junior high school, English for Specific Purposes, communicative language learning

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Introduction

Following the announcement in 2013 that Tokyo would host the 2020 Olympics and Paralympics, the Japanese government set a series of targets designed to maximise the opportunity to showcase the country and its capital city to the world. These included a goal to attract 40 million overseas visitors per annum, compared to 8.35 million in 2012, the year preceding Tokyo's selection as host city. In 2017, the number of visitors reached 28.69 million, 4.66 million more than in 2017 and approximately quadruple that of six years prior (JTB, 2018), suggesting that the 40 million target is achievable.

However, a survey by the Nikkei Marketing Journal found that, while the experiences of overseas visitors were largely positive, some problems persisted. The most common complaint, making up 39% of the total, was the lack of foreign language skills among Japanese people, which, according to some respondents, made communication with local people difficult (Schreiber, 2014).

In response to such concerns, and in order to welcome the influx of foreign visitors expected during the Olympics and beyond, the government Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEXT) published its 'English Education Reform Plan corresponding to Globalization' for all levels of the school system in Japan, in which it stated that, "Timed with the 2020 Tokyo Olympics, in order for the full-scale development of new English education in Japan, MEXT will incrementally promote educational reform from FY2014" (MEXT, 2013). This included the goal that teachers at the junior high school level would "Nurture the [students'] ability to understand familiar topics, carry out simple information exchanges and describe familiar matters in English." This initial plan was followed by a report in 2014 by an Expert Panel on English Education, which recommended that students in junior high school "focus on the development of communication skills to convey ideas and feelings in English, rather than grammar translation" (MEXT, 2014).

In order to assess students and provide clear targets for all stakeholders, MEXT adopted the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), adapting it for the Japanese situation to create CEFR-j (Tono, 2015). This framework is structured around a 'Can-Do' list that states specific language tasks that the learner can perform in order to reach a level. MEXT prescribed level A1 (the lowest of eight levels on the scale) as the target to be reached by the end of students' three-year junior high school career. While admitting that this target is approximately three years behind continental European school pupils (Tono, 2015, p. 3), it does provide students and teachers with a clearly defined inventory of language items that learners are expected to be able to use and understand by the time they complete compulsory education at age 15. For example:

Functions/notions	*Giving personal information*	*I am from the north of China*
Functions/notions	*Giving personal information*	*I live in Beirut.*
Functions/notions	*Giving personal information*	*I have two sisters and one brother*
Lexis	*Food and drink*	*I like fresh fruit for breakfast*

Lexis	*Food and drink*	*Vegetables are good for you*
Lexis	*Food and drink*	*What kind of coffee do you want?*

However, this professed change in direction towards more communicative language learning was not borne out in a survey I carried out in 2016. When asked which of the four skills in English they felt was their strongest, out of 118 first-year high school students interviewed in Tokyo and Chiba prefecture, only nine percent answered 'Speaking,' compared to 45% for 'Reading', 33% for 'Listening,' and 30% for 'Writing.' Similarly, when asked what kind of activities they would have liked to have more practiced more during their junior high school foreign language classes, 97% of students gave responses connected to speaking, presentations, or group/pair work. These results suggest that there was a deficit in oral communication activities in many students' junior high school courses, which, if allowed to continue, may lead to the failure of MEXT's goal to nurture students who can "reason, make decisions or express oneself in order to solve problems by oneself," and who can "achieve top-level English proficiency in Asia" (MEXT, 2014). Moreover, if young people are ill-prepared to converse in foreign languages, the opportunity to showcase Japan to the world during the 2020 Olympics and Paralympics may be squandered.

Pre-Course Discussion and Planning

The Board of Education (BoE) for one of the wards in Tokyo decided to investigate ways of improving its students' communicative English skills in time for 2020. Located in the centre of the city, the residents of the ward will likely experience a high frequency of interaction with athletes, officials, journalists and spectators; therefore, the BoE aimed to develop practical skills in order to aid smooth communication, and I was asked to assist with the programme. Due to constraints of scheduling and budget, the BoE would allow one two-hour lesson per week for 10 weeks, with a maximum of 20 students per class, and would only be open to approximately 10% of the third-year (14-15-year-olds) student population on a voluntary basis (with English teachers in the respective schools able to select participants in the case of oversubscription).

Before designing the course, we assessed the students' current level of confidence in using English. A questionnaire was designed and distributed randomly to third-year classes in four junior high schools. This questionnaire was completed in class and kept anonymous; and the students could respond in Japanese or English. There were 201 total responses. Following Dornyei's (2003) edict that less is often more in surveys in order to avoid the "fatigue effect" among participants (p. 18), the questionnaire was kept short, consisting of just two questions. The first was a scaled response questions (students grading themselves out of 10), and the second was an open-ended question designed to encourage students to consider their attitude towards the large influx of overseas visitors to the area.

Pre-Course Survey Questions

1. How do you rate your English communication skill? (Circle ONE number)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Poor communicator Fluent

2. How do you feel about more overseas visitors coming to Japan in 2020?

For question 1, the average score was just 1.5 out of ten, with only three percent of respondents rating their English communication skill six or above, and 88% rating their skill level one or two out of ten. Clearly, this showed that the students had a marked lack of confidence in their communicative ability, which would need to be addressed in any course designed to improve their proficiency in speaking to foreign people in authentic exchanges.

For question 2, just eight percent of responses were positive and 90% of responses were negative, with two percent giving neutral or unclear answers. Some representative examples of the negative responses were:

"It's difficult to talk with foreign people."
"There may be misunderstandings."
"I don't like English."
"I'm worried about my poor English."

Interestingly, over 60% of negative responses pertained to the student's own perceived shortcomings (for example, "I make too many mistakes" or "My English is very bad"), compared to just 18% of negative comments displaying any negative attitude towards overseas visitors or their behaviour (for example, "Foreigners should learn Japanese" or "Foreign people have bad manners").

Regardless of the motivations, these survey results demonstrated an overall negative attitude towards interacting with people from other countries, and a marked lack of confidence in communicating in English; therefore, any course would need to address these issues.

English for Specific Purposes

Basturkmen (2006) states that, while general English language teaching "tends to set out from point A toward an often pretty indeterminate destination, setting sail through largely uncharted waters," English for Specific Purposes (ESP) "aims to speed learners to a known destination" (p. 9). ESP is, of course, more commonly associated with tertiary-level classes or for adults already in employment (see, for example, Stojkovic, 2015), but many aspects of ESP appeared relevant to this situation: the course had time restraints requiring only the most important aspects of language to be covered in a short period of time (West, 1994), there was a clear real-world goal outside of the general curriculum, and the course "needed to smooth the path to entry or greater linguistic efficiency in [specific] environments" (Basturkmen, 2006, p. 17). Additionally, as with ESP for tertiary-level classes, it required needs analysis before designing the course.

Using the questionnaire results discussed above as our needs anlaysis, as well as interviews with the regular English teachers within the area, the course design team set an overall target for the programme:

To facilitate interaction with overseas visitors to the local area.

This goal was supported by two sub-goals:

Develop practical English skills to help smooth communication
Increase students' confidence in their own culture within a global society

Additionally, at the request of the BoE, we included three holistic goals, not specifically connected to language learning:

Students will…
1. Be able to explain Japanese culture confidently
2. Learn about other countries and cultures
3. Be able to compare cultures positively

With these targets and parameters established, I then designed the syllabus and class activities.

Course Activities

Over the 10-week programme, the students participated in 20 different classroom activities, as well as short warm-up tasks plus homework preparation and review. Each of these activities was designed to meet the targets outlined above, and, as far as possible, to address both linguistic and holistic needs.

All activities in the course were primarily focused on speaking rather than the other three skills, but some aspects of listening, writing and reading were occasionally utilized when necessary to further the activity. The following are the three activities voted "The most useful" by the participating students in a survey at the end of the course.

It's a Kind of…

This activity was designed to develop students' facility to explain their own culture to overseas visitors. As the title suggests, it is structured around the phrase "It's a kind of…" as a means of describing a cultural item while signalling to a listener that a precise translation may not be possible.

First, students discussed their favourite kinds of Japanese culture and were encouraged to consider whether people from overseas would be aware of them. Then the teacher collated some of the ideas on the board and elicited possible English translations. The teacher then introduced the phrase "It's a kind of…" as a prefix to any explanation in cases where there is no clear English word; for example, the cooking style of *okonomiyaki* ("It's a kind of pancake with vegetables and seafood or meat inside.")

Next, the teacher showed some images of Japanese culture – for example, *yukata* – and students were asked to think of a clear explanation in pairs. The teacher elicited some ideas from the class then showed one possible description as a further example: *It's a kind of summer kimono.*

When students appeared comfortable with the task, there was then a game-style activity, in which students were divided into pairs or threes and given an identical set of cards – one per group. On each of these cards, a specific cultural item was written; for example, *puri kura*, *shitajiki*, or *White Day*. Each member of a group would take a turn to read the card and try to explain the item to their teammates using English. Students were encouraged to use gestures if necessary, just as they might if in an authentic situation in which they must explain Japanese food or culture. The team that successfully explained all of the cards to each other was the winner. (NOTE: a variation of this activity, adapted for university students, has been submitted for publication elsewhere; Davies, 2018.)

This activity met the holistic goal of being able to explain Japanese culture confidently. Additionally, it practised a practical English skill ("It's a kind of…") to help smooth communication, as per one of the main sub-goals. Furthermore, an observing teacher noted that the activity encouraged authentic negotiation of meaning in order for students to explain the items to each other – a vital skill in a genuine cross-cultural communication setting – as well as encouraging students to use their imaginations in order to explain, rather than searching for "one correct answer."

Where in the World?

The *Where in the World?* activity was structured around a straightforward information gap. First, students reviewed simple prepositions of place (*in, near, next to,* etc.), then there was a quiz in which groups of three or four students raced to name five countries from each continent of the world. This was designed to introduce some of the key vocabulary for the activity, and for the Olympics themselves when students are likely to come into contact with people from a variety of nations.

Students were given three versions (at random) of a world map with some of the country names already filled in, but some spaces left blank. Then they were tasked with filling all of the blank spaces by walking around the class and speaking to different students, asking questions or explaining to each other using the prepositions. For example, "Portugal is next to Spain," or "Is France between Spain and Germany?"

While the activity was relatively simple, students commented in the end-of-course questionnaire that, "It was fun to finish faster than my classmates," and "I learned about some new countries." This suggests that the activity met the course holistic goal to learn about other countries, while also providing a framework for genuine peer learning through authentic questions, negotiation of meaning, and conveyance of information. Additionally, the teacher-observer noted that by practising prepositions, students may be better equipped to answer any questions from visitors about the local area.

The Same, but Different

This activity was designed to meet the goal of developing student confidence in their own culture, while simultaneously learning about other countries and comparing cultures positively. More specifically, it aimed to reduce the levels of anxiety in meeting people from overseas, as expressed in the pre-course survey, where some students mentioned cultural differences in negative terms; for example, “Foreign people’s manners are different. It will make problems;” or “People from other countries will not understand Japan.”

First, the teacher pre-taught the words *same*, *similar* and *different* and gave some examples of comparisons between countries. For instance, “The seasons in Britain are similar to Japan. The food in Britain is different from Japan; British people eat potatoes more than rice!” Then each student was assigned a country at random. For homework, they researched about the country, with the goal of finding at least two similarities with Japan and at least one difference. In the following class, the students split into groups and each member made a one-minute speech about their country.

To encourage students to listen carefully, they all kept a notebook in which they were assigned to keep a record of their peers’ presentations, then added some of their own ideas for the *next* homework, thus reviewing their classmate’s research and expanding their knowledge of a variety of cultures.

Again, this met the target of students conveying information authentically, as well as encouraging them to consider differences and similarities more positively.

Results and Conclusions

At the end of the ten-week programme, the students were asked the same questions as before the course:

1. How do you rate your English communication skill? (Circle ONE number)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Poor communicator Fluent

2. How do you feel about more overseas visitors coming to Japan in 2020?

It should be noted that this group of students, even before the course began, showed less negativity than the wider student population towards their own English skill and the likely influx of foreign visitors. The very fact that they had joined this elective programme (with classes outside regular school hours) already suggested a higher level of motivation and interest than some of their peers. However, at the beginning of the course, the participants’ average self-evaluation of their English communication skill was 3.1 (out of 10). At the end of the course, the average score for the same question had more than doubled, to a rating of 6.3. This certainly suggests a higher level of confidence in the students’ ability to communicate effectively in their L2, and it indicates that the course met one of the two main sub-goals: *Develop practical English skills to help smooth communication*. There was initially some confusion among students regarding the lack of correction and formal testing of skills (the evaluation was based entirely on attendance and participation); however, teacher-observers noted that this did not appear to be a problem in the latter half of the programme, with one observer noting "Most students [are] willing to take high risks," which, according to Rees-Miller (1993), is the characteristic of a successful learner (p. 682).

In response to the second question, regarding the students' feelings about overseas visitors coming to Japan for the Olympics and Paralympics, before the course 29% of the participants' responses were positive, with 60% negative. At the end of the programme, conversely, 87% of responses were positive, with only 5% expressing negativity. Some example comments included: "I want to practise with real foreign people!" "I make lots of mistakes, but it's OK!" "I'm interested in knowing more about Africa." "I think I can explain well now." Such responses suggest that the second sub-goal, to *Increase students' confidence in their own culture within a global society*, had been met by many of the students. Furthermore, these comments were evidence of the holistic targets being met: to explain Japanese culture confidently, to learn about other countries, and to be able to compare cultures positively.

Admittedly, this was a small-scale programme attended only by voluntary participants. However, the change in learner attitudes towards their own English skill (double the rate at the beginning of the course), and the increase in positivity towards the influx of visitors to the local area (treble the number of positive comments received in the pre-course survey) were marked. These results suggest that, even in a comparatively short programme (a total of 20 hours' teacher-student contact time over 10 weeks), it is possible to significantly increase learner confidence in their L2 communication skill by focusing on content rather than form and inviting students to take risks. Additionally, through activities related to real-world situations, and through guided independent and peer-learning, it is possible to increase young people's interest in local and international cultures. These findings may be of note, not only for Japan in the approach to Tokyo 2020, but also in other situations where the number of incoming tourists is increasing significantly, and where the local people's ability to communicate positively with people from different backgrounds may have substantial cultural and economic value.

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Literature as a Catalyst for Critical Thinking in the Foreign Language Classroom

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Abstract
This paper is in part a teaching practice report on a first year university course for foreign language learners of English and in part a reflection on how the critical thinking capacity of students may be improved through the incorporation of a literature component into an oral communication curriculum. First a brief profile of the class will be presented, as well as an overview of the structure of the course. Then, after a discussion on how critical thinking is to be defined, five important aspects of critical thinking that may be stimulated in language learners through the study of literature are identified, namely the tendency to ask questions, creative thinking, objective thinking, increased awareness of sociopolitical power structures and intellectual courage. It is argued that literature can provide an excellent opportunity for educators to introduce pertinent but sensitive topics into classroom discussion activities and that such dialogue will better equip the future generation of graduates with the skills necessary to meaningfully participate in a democratic society.

Keywords: critical thinking, literature, foreign language instruction, discussion

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"Reading makes immigrants of us all. It takes us away from home,
but more important it finds homes for us everywhere."
Jean Rhys

1. Introduction

Across the world, employment practices and the nature of work itself are rapidly changing due in part to advances in technology, the globalisation of trade and the emergence of new political climates. It is estimated, for example, that nearly half of all jobs in the United States could become fully or partially automated within the next two decades ("Study Finds Nearly Half of Jobs are Vulnerable to Automation", 2018) and workers will need to adapt to new roles and new jobs. It is no wonder then that the question of how national education systems should prepare the future workforce to survive and thrive in times of change is often on the minds of educational researchers and policymakers. One aspect of education that it is argued will better equip future leaders, workers and citizens for dealing with change is critical thinking. The educational think tank Partnership for 21st Century Learning ("Framework for 21st Century Learning"), for example, lists critical thinking among the key learning and innovation skills that learners need to develop, noting that it is "believed to play a central role in logical thinking, decision-making, argumentation, and problem-solving" (Ventura et al., 2017, p.5).

This paper is partly a teaching practice report on an original course developed to improve speaking fluency in English as well as critical thinking skills among first year students in an English linguistics and literature programme for undergraduates at a major research university in Japan. The main focus of the paper, however, is to reflect on the ways in which the study of literature during the course contributed to the development of students' capacity for critical thought. After providing a brief profile of the students who were enrolled in the course and an overview of its structure, the paper will briefly discuss the meaning of the term *critical thinking*. The final section will identify five aspects of critical thinking which could be developed through the study of literature with examples from the course to illustrate what forms such development may take.

2. Class profile and course overview

The course is a credit-bearing component of the four-year degree programme in English. It is one of several compulsory courses designed to improve students' general English communication skills in their first year at university in order to serve as preparation for the English medium academic content courses focussing on linguistics and literature that they will be required to take in the years that follow. In terms of language skill-building, the course aims to develop students' speaking and listening abilities for active participation in seminar discussions. Entry into the programme is competitive and as a result students generally start the course with a level of English proficiency that would correspond to the intermediate B1 to B2 range on the CEFR scale, although many lack the confidence to produce much spoken output in English at first. Students also tend to be particularly reticent to express their personal opinions in class and have trouble formulating coherent arguments to substantiate their points when they enter the course. Such hesitancy on the part of Japanese students to express original ideas and views in class have been previously noted in the literature (Long, 2003). In a discussion on the characteristics of East-Asian learners, Ho (2009, p.333) suggests that a Confucian tradition in education encourages students to "respect, obey, listen, and follow their [teacher's] instruction" and to avoid challenging their authority, which could explain why students become anxious when required to express an opinion that may not correspond to that of their teacher. One of the practical aims of the course is therefore to raise students' confidence in expressing and defending their original ideas and, in classes numbering twenty to twenty-five students, this is achieved through unstructured and unassessed small group discussions that take place before students are asked to present their ideas to the class and to the instructor .

The course is taught over the entire academic year, with fifteen weekly sessions per semester, each lasting ninety minutes. In the first semester, students learn presentation strategies, take part in small-group discussions based on homework readings and deliver several short individual presentations, followed by a longer research-based individual presentation towards the end of the semester. Students are required to spend a significant part of each session producing spoken English output and in addition to the language practice, they are also trained on how to take a position on a contentious issue and to construct logical arguments in support of their position while providing evidence and examples. After the first semester, which focusses on presentation practice, the second semester of the course introduces students to the fundamentals of debate. In this semester, they are also required to read the prescribed text: *Animal Farm* by George Orwell. This novella was chosen for its interesting and relevant array of themes that it was believed would stimulate debate and also for the fact that first-year students studying English as a foreign language generally find Orwell's writing style accessible and the length of the chapters manageable. In addition to reading one chapter for homework each week, students are also asked to write a short paragraph to summarise the main events and to prepare two discussion questions on the chapter content before each class. During classes, students start by discussing the chapter events in small groups of three or four in order to ensure adequate comprehension. For this they may refer to the summary paragraphs that they have prepared as homework. Students then take turns to ask and discuss questions within their groups. Each student asks one of their two pre-prepared questions and then leads a five-minute discussion session until it is the next student's turn. These small group discussions take place simultaneously among groups and once each student has had the chance to ask one question, the remainder of the class time is spent on group debate activities. The debate follows an original format designed for an EFL context, with elements of team policy debate and the Lincoln-Douglas style (Roberts, 2012). Over the first five or six sessions, students practise making constructive speeches, conducting cross-examinations and making rebuttal speeches. By the middle of the semester, they are able to navigate the entire debate format and weekly practice debates are carried out simultaneously in groups using resolutions formulated by the students themselves that are based on the weekly chapter readings from *Animal Farm*. The final few weeks of the semester are dedicated to a series of assessed team debates in which all students take turns to participate in front of their peers.

3. What is critical thinking?

While critical thinking is often mentioned in educational literature and is even the subject of several academic journals, no single definition of the term seems to have gained widespread acceptance (Isozaki, 2014). It is nevertheless possible to identify certain key concepts that tend to be associated in the literature with critical thinking. These are higher order thinking, inference, objectivity and intellectual autonomy.

The concept of a hierarchy in cognitive functioning was first modelled by Bloom et al. (1956) in the influential work *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* and more recently updated by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) to better suit the conditions surrounding education today. The revised taxonomy identifies *remembering* as a thinking skill of the lowest order. Above *remembering* comes *understanding* and above the latter *applying*, which is characterised as the use of learnt information in a new, but similar, situation. *Creating*, *evaluating* and *analyzing* are placed alongside one another at the top of the hierarchy, constituting the so-called *higher order thinking skills*. In order to integrate higher order thinking skills into pedagogical practice, educators should therefore plan and manage class activities that encourage learners to critically analyse and evaluate information. While the need for rote memorisation in certain situations is undeniable and the mid-tier thinking skills of understanding and application often essential, active participation and a general approach of critical engagement on the part of students are to be strongly encouraged. Creativity, the third important skill of higher order thinking in Bloom's taxonomy, may also be developed in the class context by providing learners with opportunities to use the information that they acquire in order to produce new ideas or to find original solutions to problems.

A second key concept often associated with critical thinking is *inference* (Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2010), which refers to the process of reaching a conclusion on the basis of sound logical reasoning informed by evidence. This aspect of critical thinking is essential for effective participation in debate as well as for persuasive academic writing. Related to inference is the concept of *objectivity*, which is also often discussed alongside critical thinking. While objectivity may overlap with inference insofar as the use of logical reasoning and evidence guarantees objective conclusions, a different form of objectivity relevant to critical thinking may also be identified. In order to gain a clearer and less biased understanding of a complex issue, especially one that involves social, political and economic considerations, it is often necessary to discard one's own preconceptions and prejudices to as great an extent as possible. This is no easy task, however, as human beings are naturally predisposed towards egocentric and sociocentric thinking ("Defining Critical Thinking") in that one's interpretations are often influenced by one's own unquestioned beliefs and vested interests or coloured by the values and norms acquired through one's own sociocultural upbringing. Gaining an awareness of one's biases and learning to suppress these in cases where clear reasoning substantiated by evidence points to different conclusions is an important step towards critical thinking. One final concept that is sometimes mentioned or implied in conjunction with critical thinking is independence of authority (Weiler, 2004), or perhaps it is more accurate to say a willingness to question and evaluate authority before one accepts its legitimacy. This aspect of critical thinking necessarily lends the act an air of subversiveness which may complicate its teaching, especially at the pre-university level where socialisation processes that rely heavily on the authority of the teacher and of tradition often constitute an important part of the curriculum.

It should at this point be noted that significant overlap exists not only between inference and objectivity, but among all four of the concepts discussed above. Inference, objectivity and intellectual autonomy all require some degree of analysis and evaluation, two of the higher order thinking skills in Bloom's taxonomy, for example. Yet as pointed out earlier, a separate focus on each of these concepts highlights important aspects of critical thinking that, in the absence of a consensus on a definition for the term, helps us to arrive at an understanding of the concept as a whole as well as at a recognition of its value to the pursuit of knowledge and truth.

4. Development of critical thinking skills through the study of literature

Whether read for pleasure or as a requirement for an academic course, literature holds the potential to stimulate critical thinking in a variety of ways. This section identifies and discusses five aspects in which the critical thinking skills of students in the first year discussion and debate course described above were developed through their engagement with the prescribed literary text and associated class activities.

4.1 Critical thinking as a tendency to question

The first and perhaps most important way in which literature stimulates critical thinking lies in its ability to encourage readers to question. This questioning might take the form of simple curiosity, such as when one reads a detective story and wonders in anticipation what twist is about to be revealed. On the other hand, literature may at times challenge a reader to question their most deeply held convictions, which in turn may profoundly affect their perspective on their social and political surroundings, to which the tradition throughout history of governments prohibiting or destroying books that threaten their espoused values or ideologies can attest. Nabokov's novel *Lolita*, for example, was banned for a period in Britain and France for offending sexual mores in the 1950s (Boyd, 1991, p.301), several of Marx's works were banned by the South African government during the period of apartheid for the subversive political ideas they contained ("Beacon for Freedom of Expression") and more recently Rushdie's novel *The Satanic Verses* was effectively banned in India on the grounds of causing offence to the religion of Islam (Mittal, 2012). Not only do the questions raised by literature encourage readers to develop the higher order thinking skills of analysis and evaluation in order to arrive at satisfactory answers, probably through the process of inference, but such questions may also encourage autonomous thinking beyond the scope of what custom and authority would usually permit.

Students in the discussion and debate course clearly asked many questions over the course of the semester, partly due to the fact that they were required to formulate questions on the text for homework each week. During group discussion activities in which students reviewed the plot events of the chapter that they had read for homework, they would often speculate on what would happen in the following chapter, illustrating how literature can arouse genuine curiosity in readers, even in a classroom environment. Each student prepared two questions before class each week for use in the small group discussions and the resolutions for debate practice were also adapted from these questions. As might be expected, the questions that students prepared were varied, from the more superficial questions regarding plot events to profound philosophical questions. One example of a plot-related question is “Did Mr Jones really deserve to be chased off his farm?” Even though this question is concerned with surface-level plot events, it may easily in the context of Orwell’s story lead to a fruitful discussion of the merits and shortcomings of capitalism, of which Mr Jones is the allegorical embodiment. The novella also inspired students to ask more abstract and philosophical questions such as “Should leaders enjoy greater wealth and privilege than ordinary people?” and “Is it better to believe a pleasant lie than to know an unpleasant truth?” Some students also linked important themes from the story to issues closer to home in Japan. After discussing a scene where Napoleon orders the execution of several animals on the farm, for instance, a student asked whether or not the Japanese government should abolish the death penalty. The level of engagement with the text that students displayed in formulating such questions and in sustaining meaningful dialogue during the group discussions that followed clearly indicate that they were developing their critical thinking skills and a noticeable improvement in the quality of questions and answers could be observed as the semester progressed. In addition to the small group discussion activities, students also asked questions in the more competitive and confrontational context of the cross-examination once this aspect of formal debate was introduced. While students generally found it more challenging to formulate clear and relevant questions and to answer such questions in this context, the regular debate practice sessions clearly contributed to their capacity to think critically, as they were required to persuasively construct and defend arguments. This required them to employ logical reasoning and to support their claims with evidence, in other words to practice critical thinking in the form of inference.

4.2 Critical thinking as creativity

A second aspect of critical thinking that can be stimulated through literature is creative thinking. The act of reading often leads the reader to suspend their disbelief and to immerse themselves in a different time, place or even an alternative reality, and in doing so stimulates the imagination. *Animal Farm* is set in England and, assuming that the timeline mirrors that of the events for which the story is an allegory, namely the 1917 Russian Revolution and the rise to power of Stalin in its aftermath, it takes place in the first half of the twentieth century. The cultural context of the setting and the time period is therefore far removed from the lived experiences of the typical first year university student in Japan. Furthermore, not only does the novel feature animals living and working on a farm, but the animals are highly anthropomorphous in their actions as well as in their aims, as Napoleon’s desire for world domination illustrates. Immersion in the story and identification with the characters require a great deal of imagination on the part of the reader. In Bloom’s taxonomy, creativity is identified as a higher order thinking skill and the act of creating something new is only possible through the use of the imagination. By encouraging students to imagine, literature can therefore be said to further develop students ability to think critically.

4.3 Critical thinking as objective thinking

Critical thinking often requires a high degree of objectivity, as a clear and accurate understanding of a situation is may only become possible once egocentric and sociocentric biases have been minimised through conscious effort. While fictional literary narratives typically represent events from a subjective vantage point, the fact that the subjectivity portrayed is very likely to differ significantly from the reader's own subjective perspective means that they are likely to gain new insights through the act of reading and may even be persuaded through this activity to acknowledge alternative perspectives as equally legitimate to their own. A novel may, for example, put the reader in the shoes of a person from a different cultural background, gender, social class or, as in the case with *Animal Farm*, a different species altogether. As the reader engages with the work and identifies with its characters, they may gain insight into the unfamiliar situations and challenges faced by others, which could lead to the development of a stronger sense of empathy and tolerance of social differences. Reading about the subjective experiences of others can thus provide the reader with a more objective understanding of complex issues as they acquire fresh perspectives. Furthermore, due to the complexity of the subject matter with which literature often deals, it is able to provoke thought, discussion and debate and for these reasons may serve as a powerful pedagogical tool.

In the case of the discussion and debate course, many students clearly developed a strong empathy for the animal characters in the story and the issue of animal rights was raised on several occasions. As may be expected, much of the discussion and debate also focussed on the political and philosophical issues raised in the novella. While a lecture on the historical events that inspired Orwell's writing was deliberately left for late in the course so that students could feel at greater ease to independently look for meaning in the text without preconceptions, many of them nevertheless formulated discussion questions that required discussion participants to consider the merits and problems related to different aspects of Marxist thought. While such complex subjects were generally discussed using simple language, the fact that students actively and in many cases passionately talked about such issues in class testifies to the ability of literature to provoke, to inspire and to facilitate understanding within a language learning context.

4.4 Critical thinking as awareness

Literature can expose a reader to new ideas and perspectives that provide a clearer understanding of interpersonal hierarchies, thus increasing their awareness of sociopolitical power structures. This process contributes to the development of critical thinking skills, as higher order thinking is necessary to analyse and assess the information acquired as well as a greater or lesser degree of intellectual autonomy, depending on how far the reader's conclusions stray from the dominant cultural narratives surrounding the topic. Judging by the questions formulated by the Japanese students in the course and on the development of the group discussions in which they participated, students gained a greater understanding through their engagement with the text of how those in positions of strength may consolidate their power and manipulate ordinary people through the use of deceptive and manipulative tactics. Some students successfully linked these themes from the novella with current events in Japan and on the international stage, resulting in very interesting and pertinent discussion sessions that testify to the power of literature to encourage critical awareness.

4.5 Critical thinking as intellectual courage

The final way in which literature may encourage critical thinking, in the sense of intellectual autonomy, derives from its ability to inspire resistance against oppression and injustice. A literary narrative conveys to a reader the thoughts and experiences of others in unfamiliar situations, some of which can be unsettling or traumatic, and it is therefore not unusual for readers to become emotionally invested in events and to identify with the characters portrayed. When a reader becomes aware of a situation that conflicts with the values they hold, they may feel inspired to improve that situation. This may take the form of political activism, but the inspiration could also simply lead to a greater willingness to consider sensitive or taboo topics more openly and to voice one's concerns in discussion with others. A student may, for example, challenge a statement made by a teacher or share with their peers a genuine but unpopular opinion. Such acts of challenging authority figures or openly challenging questionable ideas or norms that are dominant within one's society could require a great deal of courage. As one arrives at new insights through reading, one may also find oneself questioning one's own ideas and beliefs, the reevaluation of which may well be a more challenging prospect than any confrontation with others.

Through the course of the semester, students asked and discussed several questions on topics that could be considered sensitive, for example the issue of social class in Japan. It has long been encouraged by the post-war education system in the country that the Japanese public view itself as a classless society (van Wolferen, 1989) and university students often become visibly uncomfortable when the subject of social stratification is broached. Orwell's fable-like narrative, however, made the topic much more accessible to students, most of who were willing to actively take part in open and productive discussions of such and other difficult issues after a few weeks into the semester. This illustrates how literature can empower readers to consider sensitive and complex topics critically and to then take an informed stance with greater confidence.

5. Conclusion

This paper considered five aspects of critical thinking that may be developed through engagement with literature. First and foremost, literature stimulates curiosity and encourages readers to ask questions. This fact may be exploited by educators through discussion and debate activities that will stimulate the development of critical thinking skills in students. By emotionally involving readers in a fictional world that may be very different from their own experience in terms of time, place or reality and requiring them to identify with characters whose circumstances might be completely unfamiliar, literature also stimulates the reader's imagination and encourages creativity, which is associated with higher order thinking. A third aspect of critical thinking that literature may help to develop is the ability to reason more objectively. As the reader is exposed to new perspectives on familiar issues, a more balanced understanding is achieved which may help to overcome egocentric and sociocentric biases. Additionally, literature may have the effect of increasing a reader's critical awareness of sociopolitical power hierarchies. This, in turn, may encourage and intellectually empower readers to take a stand against oppression and injustice.

The capacity for critical thinking is not only an essential requirement for participation in meaningful academic dialogue, but it is also becoming an increasingly important practical necessity for a successful career after graduation. Job roles are rapidly changing as technological progress results in many work processes becoming automated and as workplaces put greater emphasis on social diversity and inclusivity. Candidates who can demonstrate a high degree of adaptability, creativity in problem solving and empathy in socially diverse environments will be in high demand. Each of these attributes may be linked to an aspect of critical thinking which could be developed through engagement with literature. Despite the clear advantages of critical thinking skills to academic performance and employment prospects, however, educators are often reluctant to introduce sensitive issues such as social class or religion into classroom discussion activities for fear that some students may be offended by the opinions raised. This is perhaps natural, given the rising prominence of identity politics over recent years and the desire on the part of educational institutions in many parts of the world to appear more equitable and inclusive of diversity ("Free Speech at American Universities Is Under Threat", 2017). However, to avoid or suppress free dialogue on important topical issues in the classroom is to do a disservice to all students, as this will rob them of the opportunity to learn how to discuss complex controversial issues with openness and civility in a comparatively safe environment. It will also mean that students will be less well equipped to participate in meaningful and informed dialogue once they graduate. While the challenges faced by educators and institutions are real and complex, literature presents an excellent opportunity to raise issues, or to encourage students to raise issues, that may otherwise not be discussed in class due to their sensitive nature, thus enabling students to engage in critical thinking and meaningful dialogue of the kind that benefits a well-functioning democracy and staves off totalitarian tendencies of the kind portrayed in Orwell's cautionary tale.

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Applying Translanguaging Techniques in Japanese EFL Settings

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Abstract
This paper will explore the integration of translanguaging techniques in the university EFL classroom in Japan. A survey conducted of students regarding their learning preferences in the EFL classroom uncovered that most students preferred the opportunity to use and be taught in a style that allowed for their L1 (Japanese) to be present in the L2 (English) classroom. As a means to fulfill this preference in language learning, and to see what type of impact it would have on students' language acquisition and motivation, translanguaging techniques were used in two English classes (TLG) in comparison with two English medium classes (EMG) to see whether translanguaging had an effect on test results, presentation scores and student motivation both in and out of the classroom. This paper will provide primary data from Japanese university students who undertook classing in a translanguaging style that supports the implementation of translanguaging techniques in the language classroom. It will also outline the teaching approaches applied throughout this project, and the considerations that were taken into account to create a class that fostered translanguaging techniques in the EFL university classroom in Japan.

Keywords: translanguaging, L1 in L2 classrooms, classroom praxis, student motivation.

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Introduction

The use of a student's L1 in L2 classrooms has been viewed as undesirable within EFL university environments in Japan (Ford, 2009). The purpose of this study is to show that with appropriate consideration and planning, the incorporation of students' L1 in the classroom can improve students' L2 retention and motivation towards studying English as a foreign language. This study will outline the implementation of translanguaging techniques in Japanese university EFL classrooms and summarize the results of a study that showed that student levels of language retention, language usage, and motivation to engage with the L2 all improved as a result of the incorporation of translanguaging approaches. This paper will outline the theory of translanguaging and how it was applied in a second-year English reading classroom that was taught to Japanese science and technology majors. Through an analysis of students test scores, presentation scores and post course surveys, this paper will show that translanguaging and the use of students' L1 in the L2 classroom can benefit their EFL learning.

Literature review

Origins of the study

This study originated as a result of two separate studies that were conducted by this researcher in the university that this project was undertaken, to investigate Japanese university students' personality profiles and learning preferences.

The first study was conducted by Moreno and Bartlett (2016) to identify student personality types according to the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® personality inventory (MBTI®). The study outlined what influences these results may have on classroom participation, motivation and purpose for studying English. The results of this survey showed that a plurality of 16% of students registered as Introversion + Intuition + Feeling + Judging (INFP), followed by Introversion + Intuition + Thinking + Perceiving (INTP) (11.4%), and Introversion + Sensing + Feeling + Judging (ISFJ), Introversion + Intuition + Thinking + Judging (INTJ), and Introversion + Sensing + Feeling + Perceiving (ISFP) (9.1% each). A further breakdown of these results showed that Introversion (70%) was notably more present than extraversion (30%); that there were strong preferences for Intuition (60%) over Sensing (40%) and for Perceiving (61%) over Judging (39%); and a slight preference for Feeling (52%) over Thinking (48%). With these results, it was concluded Moreno and Bartlett (2016), that in an introverted classroom, asking students to communicate in English was a somewhat daunting task and that approaches that played on the learners' strengths were essential to consider for teaching practice. Furthermore, these results reveal the effect personality types have on the level of output and participation in comparison with ESL settings in western countries, where classes are more predominantly focused on opinion exchange (Perks, 2016). These factors may further contribute to the falling TOEIC scores that are currently evident in Japan (Yokogawa, 2017), which measure a student's communicative competence through listening tasks that are heavily centered on day-to-day conversations and business interactions. (Moreno & Bartlett, 2016) Thus, the content of TOEIC listening questions puts Japanese students at a disadvantage because Japanese students don't have enough prior exposure to this kind of content.

A study of students' language learning preferences conducted by Bartlett (2017) investigated students' opinions about the incorporation of their L1 (Japanese) in the L2 (English) classroom. Results of this study showed a strong preference for classes to be taught bilingually rather than in the standard monolingual style that is prevalent in Japanese universities that employ native speaking lecturers to conduct classes (Ford, 2009). Within the environment in which the study took place, monolingual classrooms are the unofficial norm, and discussions about whether to incorporate students' L1 in the L2 classroom is a topic of debate, with supporters for both sides. These opinions are also heavily influenced by an instructor's ability in the local L1. This study found that students preferred to have the option of using Japanese with the teacher, that it allowed for them to feel more comfortable trying to communicate, and that it allowed for a decreased fear of making mistakes or oddly ending conversations by being able to code switch and continue the conversation with their teacher. Furthermore, students reported an increased level of motivation to study English as a result of L1 incorporation in the L2 classroom, as they felt that they were presented with more opportunities to enquire in their native language about points that they were confused about, and that they were able to better grasp the concepts being taught by hearing the explanation in Japanese by their instructor, who could use both languages as teaching tools. (Bartlett, 2017).

As a result of these findings, the researcher considered how to:

- Allow students to become familiar with communicating and expressing their own ideas in either language, which wasn't prevalent in their prior education.
- Help students feel comfortable enough to communicate in a foreign language and not fear making mistakes.
- Improve communicative competence in both their own language and the L2 in the foreign language classroom, as recommended in guidelines from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Science, Sports, and Technology (MEXT) (Monbukagakusho, 2014).
- Adapt approaches to teaching that would allow for the instructor to cater to students' strengths.

A translanguaging approach was thus deemed by this researcher as a viable tool to allow for the aforementioned points to be addressed at the classroom level.

The use of L1 in L2 classrooms

Whether a student's L1 should be incorporated in the L2 classroom has been a topic of debate for many years in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). However, with the reappearance of literature of support for the inclusion of L1 in L2 classrooms, researchers are once again investigating whether the L1 can be utilized as a tool for L2 development. Results have shown that L1 use in L2 instruction provides more positive impact on a student and their language acquisition than was previously thought. Looking at the case in Japan, where student exposure to English mainly happens in EFL classrooms, and with little to no opportunities to use English in students' daily lives, one can understand the reluctance of teachers to reduce students' opportunities for immersion in the target language as outlined by Harbord (1992). Yet, findings from ethnographic studies have shown that the elimination of the use of L1 deprives students of a learning and comprehension tool that allows for interpersonal barriers to be laxed, and allows for students to maintain interest in language enquiry, which is sometimes lost in monolingual classrooms due to language constraints (Macaro, 2001). Furthermore, the use of a learner's L1 in the classroom allows for not only language acquisition to occur, but also for notions specific to the language's social, cultural, historical and political concepts to be better comprehended by learners. This comprehension allows students to participate in the L2 with an appropriateness which they may need for future communicative contexts (Carroll, 2005). Lastly, according to Sharma (2006), in regard to administrative requirements, the use of L1 in L2 classrooms has been shown to benefit language analysis, error feedback, classroom management, comprehension checking and the presentation of grammar in the classroom, all positive points when considering the needs of students.

Translanguaging Literature

Translanguaging is a developing concept in which all of a learner's languages are accessible and interchangeable in the classroom to promote understanding of the topic that is being presented. Furthermore, in regard to language acquisition, translanguaging has been seen as a way to bridge the separation between languages that is sometimes felt by foreign language learners and allows the development of the L2 to occur simultaneously with the help of the supporting L1. The definition of translanguaging outlined by Garcia and Wei (2014), best describes this concept as:

> A developing concept in which the deliberate and systematic use of two languages is encouraged for education and learning purposes. Translanguaging views all of the language in a speaker's linguistic repertoire as belonging to a single integrated system, whereby speakers select and use the most suitable elements of a language for communicative use in a given context. Second language learners are not considered to be acquiring a new language, but adding to the integrated linguistic system of which their first language is already a part. In second language learning, then, an important concept within a translanguaging approach is the idea that both learners' first and second languages are encouraged and utilized in the classroom for the purpose of developing the weaker target language. (p.19~20).

Tranlanguaging in practice has shown that in some classrooms it has been a naturally occurring phenomenon, with students using their L1 when undertaking group tasks or discussions when out of earshot from the teacher (Canagarajah, 2011). In cases of translanguaging as instructional practice, teachers who have used students' L1 and L2 concurrently in the classroom have allowed for variants in the way language is used as a means to allow for mutual influence from both languages to occur in the classroom. This use of both languages supports comprehension and learning (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Most translanguaging literature investigates settings in which both languages are necessary: for example, studying English in the classroom and using English in the wider local environment, yet using Spanish at home or with friends and family. This study is investigating the less examined L2 foreign language classroom, where students formally study the language, yet do not have the opportunity or need to use the language outside of classroom contexts, and where "there does not seem to be a sanctioned place in the classroom in which this dynamic form of everyday bilingualism is normalized" (Palmer, Martínez, Mateus, & Henderson, 2014). Within this project, students have formally studied English for a minimum of 6 years in junior and senior high school, and have an additional year of study during their first year at university. Thus, students have 7 years of formal English study that can be tapped into and built upon within the EFL classroom that incorporates translanguaging approaches. Through the incorporation of translanguaging techniques, it is believed that teachers can play an integral part in improving students' motivation to study English, and enhance their grasp of the target language (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012)

Recommended teaching approaches

Within the translanguaging classroom, alternative teaching approaches have been recommended (Makalela, 2015). In line with the use of two languages in the classroom, a focus on multiplicity seems to be beneficial to translanguaging classrooms. Thus, multiple intelligences theory was used throughout this project. According to Gardner and Hatch (1989), each learner has seven independent forms of information processing. It is advised that teachers try to stimulate these intelligences for student development, comprehension, and learning. These intelligences are visual-spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, logical-mathematical, naturalist, musical-rhythmical, verbal-linguistic and interpersonal-intrapersonal. According to Csikszentmihalyi (1990), the stimulation of these intelligences is beneficial for:

- a more personalized education,
- more "flow" experiences for students,
- students who are "missed" by a traditional academic curriculum,
- project-based learning and/or an interdisciplinary curriculum, and
- more authentic modes of assessment.

Thus, within the translanguaging classroom, incorporating tasks that stimulate these intelligences along with the dual use of students' L1 and L2 should enhance not only students' communicative and linguistic competence, but also their comprehension of the topics covered in the classroom.

Methodology

Convenience sampling was used to recruit participants to take part in this study, and as a result, four classes that the researcher teaches at the university level were selected to take part in this study. The participants (n=107) were second year students in an English class focused on reading. This class was a compulsory subject for their second year at university. The subject content was largely focused on science and technology, in which students read a passage on a science or technology topic before answering short answer comprehension questions about the passage. Once this task was complete, students were presented with a problem that was outlined in the passage. In groups of four or five, students would have to discuss a way to solve this problem using their knowledge of science and technology from their major area of study. Students would then present their ideas to the class in English. During the last 10 minutes of each class, regardless of what participation group the participants belonged to, the instructor would summarize the key points that were covered in class and would remind students in Japanese of important tasks coming up in the following weeks, such as exams, vocabulary, and quizzes.

The mid-term and final examinations for these classes were entailed reading the passages that were covered in class, and then answering new questions about the article, different to the questions provided in class for comprehension and group discussion. Students would then need to write in two or three sentences how they would go about solving the problem that was introduced in the passage, or write their opinions about the solutions that were discussed within the passage, or provide diagrams outlining why the problem exists. For presentation assignments, students would read graded readers, and in groups of four, present the book's author, the author's biography, an introduction to the main characters of the book, a brief summary of the book, and then a discussion of the book's moral lessons for the reader. Students would then answer follow up questions from the instructor or fellow students about the book or their opinions of it.

Students were informed of the present study in both English and Japanese using a Lime survey to outline the project and seek consent during class time. All students who were approached to take part in the survey filled in the online consent forms along with verbally agreeing to take part in the study. Before the study began, students completed a brief survey about their learning preferences in the classroom. In the consent form, students were informed that two classes will be able to use more Japanese and that two classes would be required to use more English depending on the group they were placed in, but participants were not informed about what group they belonged to. Students were also provided with the option to withdraw from the study; however, no students indicated a desire to withdraw. They were also informed that they would remain anonymous, and that their class averages would be used in a publication related to the research. Students gave consent by completing the consent form.

Descriptions of Groups

Translanguaging Groups (TLGs): Two groups participated in classes taught by translanguaging techniques. Group 1 contained 27 participants and Group 2 contained 29 participants (N=56). This group was provided with more opportunities to communicate in both their L1 and L2 within the classroom with their instructor and classmates.

English Medium Groups (EMGs): Two groups participated in classes taught in an English medium, which is essentially the conventional way that classes are conducted within the university in which this study took place. Group 3 contained 23 participants, and had already been taught by the researcher in their previous year of study. This condition could show whether familiarity with the instructor had an impact on the study. Group 4 contained 28 participants (N=51). Although Groups 3 and 4 together are referred to as the English Medium Group (EMG), these students had opportunities to communicate in Japanese with their instructor and classmates, but on a much more limited level. If the explanation in English was deemed to be too difficult for students to comprehend based on the 'can do' list that was created based on students' past language study experience, then the student could inquire and hear explanations in Japanese from the teacher. The expected level of output that was expected from students was updated weekly based on the content that was studied the week prior.

Regardless of what group the students belonged to, they were all provided with the same printed handouts, textbooks, materials, tests and opportunities to talk with their teacher and fellow classmates. However, TLGs were presented with more leeway to use Japanese as a communication tool when doing group discussions, comprehension tasks, or making inquiries to the teacher. The EMGs were not provided with as many opportunities to use their L1 in the classroom or with their teacher, but they were provided with the same explanations as the TLGs in English so that no information was kept from them throughout this study.

In consultation with ethics specialists, the following two stipulations were made:

- That the researcher provides consistent explanations of materials and topics with all groups, but may choose to share this information in English or Japanese.
- As many varying levels of Japanese are present among the teaching staff in the English division, ethics issues about withholding information from students based on the language of interaction becomes a non-issue as some teachers can, and some teachers can't use Japanese as a teaching tool in the classroom, and English only explanations are considered the norm.

Thus, issues related to the language used in the class were not anticipated as being ethically inappropriate, provided that all classes were furnished with the same content, explanations, materials and opportunities to ask questions of their teacher.

Approaches

During classes with the TLGs, the instructor would use English as a means to explain the basic concepts that were to be outlined in the class, changing languages back to Japanese as new information was introduced. As each class progressed, the course-specific English level expected of students was raised based on the vocabulary, grammar, topic and themes covered in the previous class session. In group discussions, instructor-student dialogues, and in explanations of important points of consideration in the passage being studied, the TLGs had the opportunity to use both L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English) as media of inquiry. In the translanguaging classes, dual language usage was permitted, with the instructor and fellow students in the group facilitating the language learning process along with topic comprehension through the use of both languages. After class, students had the opportunity to choose to speak with the teacher in either English or Japanese, provided that they tried to use English if their inquiry contained the required vocabulary, grammar or content outlined in the "can do list". It was explained to students that they should use English when it had been covered in class, or if it was covered in their prior years of learning. The instructor was the one who would indicate to students whether they should change the language they used to inquire based on their level of attainment throughout the 14-week course. Thus, some variables were evident depending on students' levels, which fluctuated based on the individual being addressed. Furthermore, during group work times, it was observed that students would coax one another or point out when their classmate was not using English, even though it had been covered in class, or was a word, phrase, grammar pattern or utterance they should know, which further assisted with the increased output of L2 (English).

In the EMGs, the students were expected to use English more than 90% of the time during group work activities, with the instructor explaining a majority of concepts, grammar, comprehension tasks and administrative information in English. A quick summary of what was covered was provided to both groups in Japanese at the end of each class to check for comprehension and consolidation of what was covered during the class itself. At the end of the class or group work activity, students were provided with opportunities to inquire with the teachers in Japanese, though instructor output was mainly provided in English unless extraneous circumstances arose, and where the instructor felt that the English level required for the explanation was much higher than the level indicated by the "can do list".

As a means of interaction and of stimulation of all students' intelligences, varying approaches to teaching were incorporated during class time. Examples include:

- Using English language YouTube videos and TED talks that addressed the lesson topic (visual-spatial and musical-rhythmical intelligences)
- Writing for reflection (intrapersonal intelligences)
- Group discussions (verbal-linguistic, interpersonal and musical-rhythmic intelligences)
- Brainstorming scientific solutions to problems presented in class (naturalist intelligence)
- Gestures and acting while talking and during presentations (bodily-kinesthetic intelligence)
- Analysis of data and diagrams (logical-mathematical intelligence)
- Presentations and poster presentations (bodily-kinesthetic, visual-spatial and musical-rhythmical, interpersonal intelligences)

Through the inclusion of multiple intelligences theory, and incorporating this approach into EFL teaching, it is believed by Bas (2008) that all students in the classroom can have a holistic learning experience.

Results

Test scores

	Translanguaging Group 1 (27 Students)	**Translanguaging Group 2 (29 students)**	**English Medium Group 3 (23 students)**	**English Medium Group 4 (28 students)**
Mid-term score	84% (low 71% high 95%)	86% (Low 73% high 94%)	81% (low 68% high 91%)	79% (low 66% high 89%)
Final test score	89% (low 77% high 95%)	92% (low 81% high 97%)	80% (low 68% high 91%)	77% (low 66% high 90%)

Test results show that students in classes with a translanguaging approach scored higher on both mid-term and final exams, with the difference in score greater as time went on. The test papers of the TLG participants showed a higher rate of content retention, and a substantially higher completion rate for tasks that asked participants to share their personal opinions. When compared to the responses provided by the EMG, results showed a lower level of retention and of completion of questions that asked for their personal opinions. Furthermore, and surprising to the researcher, is that a higher level of retention for spelling, grammar use and data recall were evident within the TLGs.

Throughout the course of 14 weeks, there were 5% and 6% score increases in the two TLGs compared to 1% and 2% decrease in scores for the two EMGs, showing a 13% difference on a 100% scale.

Presentation observations

	Translanguaging Group 1	**Translanguaging Group 2**	**English Medium Group 3**	**English Medium Group 4**
Presentation scores	92% (low 75% high 97%)	93% (low 82% high 98%)	85% (Low 71% high 92%)	84% (low 67% high 93%)

These results show that the TLG met more criteria for the assessment of presentations than did the EMG. Observations showed that the level of English used, content covered, and requirements met were higher among TLG participants. EMG groups were noticeably slower in speaking and were not able to go into as much depth with their explanations when compared to the presentations given by TLG participants. Furthermore, the level of output from the TLG showed that they had a higher rate of retention and recall of vocabulary and grammar that had been introduced throughout the 14-week course.

Motivation and post questionnaire results

	Translanguaging Group	English Medium Group
Course Satisfaction rating	4.7 out of 5.0	4.0 out of 5.0
Do you feel this course allowed you to learn effectively?	4.7 out of 5.0	3.9 out of 5.0
Do you feel that your English improved during this course?	4.8 out of 5.0	3.8 out of 5.0
Written feedback and comments	I could learn better than in my other classes.	I wanted to study more grammar.
	I was able to participate more during this class.	I would have liked the option of speaking Japanese when talking about science related topics with my classmates.
	I had more opportunities to learn from my classmates in this course compared to my other English subjects.	I would like to have some things explained in Japanese, especially when it gets difficult.
	This course made me enjoy studying English and as a result I want to take an English elective next year.	My other subject teachers did not let me use Japanese to inquire, but I could use some Japanese in this class, which allowed me to understand the important points better.

Results of post course surveys show that the TLG had a higher level of motivation and a stronger sense of learning taking place in class compared to the EMG. The EMG classes showed a slight drop in motivation, along with a decline in content retention and a lower score on questions that asked for their opinions. Students from the TLG recorded that they had more opportunities to interact with the teacher both in and outside of the classroom when compared to their other English classes and reported that content material became more comprehensible and meaningful as they were able to have more of a “feel” for the learning taking place.

Discussion

The results of this project show that the incorporation of translanguaging approaches in the EFL classroom, and allowing students to use the L1 in L2 classrooms, was beneficial to their foreign language acquisition and retention of content taught throughout the class. The TLGs showed a higher level of retention on test results and a wider variety of English language use during presentations, and reported a higher level of motivation to study English when compared to the EMG. Although the EMG showed a slight decline in motivation and a lower level or retention compared to the

TLG, there were students present who also stated that they enjoyed the course and felt that their learning had improved. Yet when looking at the data, it is clear to this researcher that the TLG had a higher satisfaction rate and a better retention of the language that was taught throughout the program. These results show that it would be beneficial to consider the incorporation of translanguaging approaches on a wider scale within the university classroom. This researcher is interested in continuing this line of research in the future. Furthermore, this researcher recommends the start of the use of translanguaging from an earlier age for students, especially when they are beginning to study English in either elementary school or junior high school. Through the continued use of translanguaging techniques, we could see an increase in English language proficiency and student motivation in the future in Japan.

Conclusion

Although monolingual classrooms are considered the norm in Japan according to Ford (2009), this study shows that allowing for bilingual usage in the classroom through the implementation of translanguaging could be beneficial for further consideration within Japanese EFL classrooms. This study showed not only a higher level of language retention, usage and output, but also an increase in student motivation within the classroom, a current issue faced by some instructors in Japan where the study of the language is compulsory rather than elective. Through the incorporation of translanguaging technique, the identified limitations of English usage by students, a low level of motivation and an unwillingness to participate can be counteracted.

Although further research is required on a much larger scale, with students following a much wider variety of major fields of study, these preliminary results show that translanguaging could be a method that allows for Japanese EFL proficiency levels to rise. Furthermore, through the introduction of translanguaging techniques, student motivation could be increased and a student’s L1 can be utilized as a supportive and incorporated learning and teaching tool. It is this researcher’s hope that this paper will allow for further discussion among faculty and colleagues who teach EFL in Japan, and will allow for a better understanding of learner preferences, which will hopefully be more thoroughly considered in the creation of curricula and materials.

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Social Media Content Marketing of English Language Institutes in Thailand

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Abstract
The content marketing is the active participation of consumer in social media space that can distribute valuable content and drive the profitable target audience action. This research study aims to examine the presentation model and the type of content affecting user-brand page engagement in social media of English Language Institutes in Thailand. The content analysis technique was used to conduct a thematic analysis of the contents posted on Leading English Language Institutes Facebook fan pages. The findings showed the evidence of user-brand page engagement among variety of presentation models and the types of marketing contents. As regards how efficient content marketing is as (either direct or indirect) determinants of engagement, this finding points to a different effect of each type of post depending on the presentation models and types of content. Content marketing on Facebook fan page encourage user behavioural engagement. In particular, the results show that the most influential presentation model for the user-brand page engagement have to be interesting and present in various designs. Findings also indicate that the contents about curriculum, knowledge and activity provided to the page users are the most engaging content.

Keywords: Social Media, Content Marketing, Facebook, English Language Institutes, Thailand

Introduction

English language is widely regarded as an essential human skill in today's world. It is one of the most dominating languages of the world which is having its impact on every aspect of life. Thai government has devoted considerable resources to its teaching in formal education. Learning English language in Thailand is considered as the compulsory subject in all levels and accorded the highest status compared to other foreign languages. However, the outcomes have been shown with limited success in terms of achievement levels. The English proficiency of Thai people is still below standard. In 2017, EF English Proficiency Index (EPI) showed Thailand had low a proficiency in English skills was ranked 53rd out of 80 countries, which classified the country as having a very low English proficiency with an EF EPI ranking of 49.78 (Om Jotikasthira, 15 November 2017). It has become apparent that only learning English in the English classroom may not be enough.

English Language Institute in Thailand's domestic expansion has in recent years been inflated by rising demand for English language training, freer movement of trade and labour in the Asean Economic Community (AEC), and the current boom in tourism and hospitality. Two international brands of English Language Institute have played an active movement. Wall Street English, Thailand's largest premier provider of English language training courses for students and adults with a 35 percent market share in 2017. In Thailand, Wall Street English has produced around 190,000 graduates over the past 15 years (The Nation, 6 March 2018). The British Council is the UK's international organization for cultural relations and educational opportunities. It has been in Thailand since 1952 and currently established 6 offices in Thailand; 5 in Bangkok and 1 in Chiang Mai. It is stated to develop relationships between UK and Thailand and creating opportunity though work, education, examinations, the arts and society (The British Council, 2018)

Social media content marketing (SMCM) play a significant role in brand reputations as it is currently the main medium for the consumers to gain the information about the brands. Especially in this digital era, the content marketing is the active role of consumer participation for sharing and active in online media space that become their interest. Facebook is the dominant social medium and currently the world's most successful site, with more than 1.45 billion active users on a daily basis (Statista, 2018), a greater number than even Google users. Due to the vast number of members on Facebook, English Language Institutes utilise it as a platform for connecting a large pool of existing and potential consumers and as a significant tool for brand management.

This research study thus aims to examine the social media content marketing on Facebook fan page of Thailand's premier provider of English language training courses. It mainly analyses the presentation model and the type of content affecting user-brand page engagement. The attribution of this research would be crucial for any English Language Institutes in Thailand to acknowledge good content marketing in order to attract more customers to visit their Facebook page, follow the update news and finally repeat the purchase.

Social Media Content Marketing and User Brand-Page Engagement

The content marketing is the active participation of consumer in social media space that can distribute valuable content and drive the profitable target audience action. Content marketing has become a very widely used catchphrase over the past few years. It has become increasingly important for marketers to find ways to reach customers outside of traditional advertising that many consumers no longer trust (Kotler, Kartajaya, & Setiawan, 2016).

Conveying value propositions consumers do not dismiss is a key function of marketing. Social media has changed the way in which these value propositions can be received. Social media content is considered a varied collection of text, images, and videos posted and share social media platforms (Schivinski & Dabrpwslo, 2015). The careful presentation of social media content allows brands to tell a unique and compelling brand story (Gensler, Volckner, Liu-Thompkins, & Wiertz, 2013). Also contributing to this brand story is the content created and shared by consumers.

According to Kujur and Singh (2017), almost 94% of all businesses having a marketing department have created an online presence and actively engage with consumers on at least one of the four major social networking site, especially Facebook. Having high numbers of followers on Facebook fan page is important, however, it is more crucial for businesses to have engaging interactions with these followers to build and nurture relationships. The understanding of the underlying consumer reasons for engaging with brands via social media, and the contents that impact engagement, can potentially add additional insight as to how to improve customer experiences and strengthen relationships (Kwon, Kim, Sung, & Chan, 2014). Furthermore, understanding elements of engagement via social media could offer insight to brands on how to best communicate with the newer (digital) generations of customer.

Facebook presents a unique need for consumer engagement. Prager (2014) explains if a brand wants their posts to appear prominently in the followers' news feeds, the company brand needs to be engaging their audience, essentially their page follower needs to be liking, commenting on and sharing the brand's posts. Previous literature on the context of Facebook fan pages has empirically analysed the response of page users to brand posts. Much of the research examined general content, rather than brand-specific content. For instance, Sabate et al. (2014) and Luarn et al. (2015), amongst others, examine how the content type (among other char-acteristics) of a brand page directly impacts on the popularity of that brand page as indicated by the number of likes, comments and shares on the Facebook fan page.

In the current research, the interest focuses on the social-behavioural dimension of consumer engagement, known as "consumer behavioural engagement" or "consumer engagement behaviour". Specifically, in the case of a Facebook fan page, users' behavioural engagement is manifested through their active participation in the functionalities Facebook offers (Luarn et al., 2015): clicking, liking, commenting and sharing behaviours (Wallace, Buil, & de Chernatony, 2014), which is termed "user brand-page engagement".

Methodology

The content analysis technique was used to conduct a thematic analysis of the contents posted on Thailand's Leading English Language Institutes Facebook fan pages, including Wall Street English (www.facebook.com/wse.thailand/) with 1,430,030 user followers and The British Council (www.facebook.com/BritishCouncilThailand/) with 198,618 user followers. These two English Language Institutes are the top brands which is the best exemplars we can learn from by studying their content postings. Gaining insights from what the most popular brands are posting is crucial to learning how to effectively market to users on Facebook fan pages.

Three months (June – August 2017) are a sufficient period of time for this study since it is long enough to see a variance in presentation models and contents of Facebook posts. The number of posts resulted in a total of 435 Facebook posts for analysis, 253 posts from Wall Street English and 182 posts from The British Council. The units of analysis were the presentation model, the type of content, the user brand-page engagement, regarding the number of "like", "comment" and "share" of the posts on the Facebook fan pages.

Results

The presentation models and user brand-page engagement

The results of this study revealed that both English Language Institutes posted 3 presentation models: "Text", "Text + Photo" and "Text + VDO". The model of "Text + Photo" was the most frequently posted and this presentation model received the highest engagement from the Facebook fan page users. This is due to this "Text + Photo" presentation model was interesting and presented in various designs, such as using cartoon photo, real photo with colorful pattern and text.

Table 1: Reported Presentation Models and Number of Engagement

Presentation Models	**Total Number of Engagement**	**Wall Street English**		**The British Council**	
		Number	**Percent**	**Number**	**Percent**
Text		**-**	**-**	**3**	**1.65%**
Like	27			27	
Comment	6				
Share	0				
Text + Photo		**210**	**95.45%**	**158**	**86.81%**
Like	87,797	9,891		77,906	
Comment	3,435	1,510		1,925	
Share	1,008	522		486	
Text + VDO		**10**	**4.55%**	**21**	**11.54%**
Like	1,747	362		1,385	
Comment	72	18		54	
Share	481	39		442	

The type of contents and user brand-page engagement

Both English Language Institutes posted 6 types of content on their Facebook fan pages. The types of content are the information about "Curriculum", "Tips", "Knowledge", "Activity", "Quote" and "Important Date". The content about "Activity" was the most frequently posted. The results also revealed the highest "Like" engagement from the Facebook fan page users were the content about "Curriculum", followed by "Knowledge" and "Activity" respectively. However, the content about "Activity" received the highest "Comment" engagement from the page users.

Table 2: Reported Type of Contents and Number of Engagement

Type of Contents	**Total Number of Engagement**	**Wall Street English**		**The British Council**	
		Number	**Percent**	**Number**	**Percent**
Curriculum		**30**	**0.24%**	**47**	**0.06%**
Like	42,686	711		41,975	
Comment	81	7		74	
Share	643	35		608	
		49	**0.40%**	**0**	**0%**
Like	1,900	1,900			
Comment	21	21			
Share	194	194			
Knowledge		**36**	**0.29%**	**76**	**0.09%**
Like	25,071	1,575		23,496	
Comment	63	31		32	
Share	383	174		209	
Activity		**77**	**0.63%**	**59**	**0.07%**
Like	18,609	4,762		13,847	
Comment	3,295	1,416		1,879	
Share	221	110		111	
Quote		**26**	**0.21%**	**0**	**0%**
Like	1,055	1,055		0	
Comment	1	1		0	
Share	43	43		0	
Important Date		**2**	**0.02%**	**0**	**0%**
Like	140	0		140	
Comment	0	0		0	
Share	4	0		4	
	94,410	**12,255**		**82,413**	

Conclusion

This research paper reaches to the significance social media content marketing as it is an outstanding strategy for English Language Institutes. The findings showed the evidence of user-brand page engagement among variety of presentation models and the types of marketing contents. As regards how efficient content marketing is as (either direct or indirect) determinants of engagement, this finding points to a different effect of each type of post depending on the presentation models and types of content. In particular, the results show that the most influential presentation model for the user-brand page engagement have to be interesting and present in various designs. Findings also indicate that the content about English Language training course, useful knowledge and interesting activities provided to the page users are the most engaging content.

In summary, by way of a general conclusion, an overall analysis of the results obtained in this study allows us to state that any posts ultimately affect engagement either a greater or lesser degree. Content marketing on Facebook fan page encourage user behavioural engagement. It is a must device for all organizations to educate, inform or entertain their target audience or prospects by creating attention or causing behaviour that results in leads, sales or advocacy. Through the social media platforms, the organizations are able to engage with their consumers and built active interaction among them. While social media content marketing tends to be less expensive than other forms of promotion, it still requires investments of attention and action. Social media offer a plethora of opportunities for marketers to communicate with consumers in ways never before possible, executives should not be hesitant to invest time and money in social media efforts.

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How Existential Funds of Identity Can Enrich the Funds of Identity Concept

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Abstract
This paper responds to recent developments in the Funds of Identity literature which has seen the introduction of two interconnected terms, *dark funds of identity* (Charteris, Thomas & Masters, 2018) and *existential funds of identity* (Poole & Huang, 2018). While these two concepts show a great deal of promise, neither has yet to be adequately theorised. For example, it is not clear whether they should be understood as an additional category of funds of identity to go with the five developed by Esteban-Guitart (2012) or whether they relate to all of the existing five categories as a modality of experience that brings into focus the positive and the negative. This paper addresses this issue by offering a more robust theoretical articulation of existential funds of identity and its relationship to the Funds of Identity concept. Rather than proposing a break with the existing literature, this paper argues that existential funds of identity should be accommodated within the Funds of Identity concept as presented by Esteban-Guitart (2012).

Keywords: Funds of identity; negative experiences; perezhivanie; existential funds of identity

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Introduction

Two terms have recently been suggested which could advance the Funds of Identity concept. The first is *existential funds of identity* (Poole, 2017b; Poole & Huang, 2018), which is defined as the positive and negative experiences that adolescent learners develop and appropriate in order to define themselves and to grow as human beings, and the second is *dark funds of identity* (Charteris, Thomas & Masters, 2018), defined as the 'difficult' experiences that individuals bring with them to make sense of theoretical concepts in the classroom.

However, neither of these approaches has yet to be adequately theorised. This conceptual paper functions as an apologetics of sorts, offering a more theoretical articulation of existential funds of identity and its relationship to the concept of Funds of Identity. Rather than proposing a break with the existing Funds of Identity literature, the aim of this paper is to show how the notion of existential funds of identity can, and should, be accommodated within the current framework developed by Esteban-Guitart (2012, 2016). I first provide a brief over-view of Funds of Identity in order to define the concept and to show how it has focused exclusively on positive experiences and emotions. I next explore the concept of perezhivanie, which has informed the theorisation of the concept of Funds of Identity, and has been greatly influential in my own work. I then explain how existential/dark funds of identity fits into the Funds of Identity concept, arguing that the former should be understood as an underlying modality of experience that allows the researcher to focus on the positive and negative experiences that occur within geographical, practical, cultural, social and institutional funds of identity (Esteban-Guitart, 2016). This conceptualisation enriches the Funds of Identity approach by showing how both positive and negative funds of identity can be beneficial for psychological and pedagogical purposes.

Background

Funds of Identity

The concept of Funds of Identity is based on the premise that 'people have and accumulate not only their household's funds of knowledge but also life experiences that ultimately help them to define themselves' (Subero, Vujasinović & Esteban-Guitart, 2017). Thus, one of the strengths of the Funds of Identity concept is the way that it recognises that individuals possess bodies of knowledge used for identity creation that can be in continuity or discontinuity with adult household knowledge (Esteban-Guitart & Moll, 2014a). This is because, from a Vygotskian perspective, human development is not the process of progressive socialisation as some might expect, but rather the process of progressive individuation (Moll, 2014). Internalised experiences are mobilised by students to mediate human identity and can be embodied and distributed in people, objects and artefacts (Esteban-Guitart & Moll 2014a). In addition, students' experiences can be mobilised by teachers for pedagogical and social justice purposes (Esteban-Guitart, 2016).

Researchers working with a Funds of Identity approach tend to employ a multimodal or multimethodological approach to identifying and uncovering students' funds of identity (Esteban-Guitart, 2012), which includes combining more traditional qualitative data, such as interviews (Charteris et al., 2018) and written reflections

(Poole & Huang, 2018) with visual methods, such as self-portraits (Saubich & Esteban-Guitart, 2011; Jovés, Siqués, & Esteban-Guitart, 2015), avatars (Díaz Barriga, López, Vázquez, 2018; Poole, 2017b) and word clouds (Poole, 2017b). The aim of data collection is to capture the *historicity* of individuals' funds of identity (Hviid & Villadsen, 2014) – that is, to ensure that the collected funds of identity do not simply give a snap-shot of an individual's inner world, but rather show funds of identity as *synchronous* (temporal) and *diachronous* (contextual) in nature.

The role of positive and negative experiences and emotions

Funds of Identity has proven to be an effective approach that can help teachers to affirm marginalised learners' personal, familial and cultural identities in the mainstream classroom. However, the role that negative experiences and emotions might play in affirming learner identities remains under-researched. While Llopart & Esteban-Guitart (2016) have cautioned against using negative emotions and experiences in social justice work, due to the belief that doing so may perpetuate deficit discourses, there is nevertheless growing recognition that both positive and negative emotions and experiences have a part to play in psychological (e.g., Kashdan & Biswas-Diener, 2014; McDonald & O'Callaghan, 2008; Miller, 2008) and pedagogical (e.g., Raino & Marjanovic-Shane, 2013; Reed, 2011; Zipin, 2009) development. Zipin (2009), for instance, has proposed the term *dark funds of knowledge* in order to problematise the tendency within Funds of Knowledge approaches to exclusively build curriculum units around positive experiences, which may lead to significant lifeworld experiences being ignored (Charteris et al., 2018). Becker (2014) has also proposed the term *funds of (difficult) knowledge* in order to 'account for the emotionally difficult chapters of one's cultural heritage or migration story' (p. 19).

More recently, Zipin's notion of dark funds of knowledge has found its way into the Funds of Identity literature, and has inspired two related concepts: dark funds of identity and existential funds of identity. Charteris et al.'s (2018) investigation into pre-service teachers' funds of identity found that teachers drew upon difficult experiences of schooling in order to make sense of the more abstract concepts taught within university units. The authors label these difficult experiences dark funds of identity, which, despite their seemingly negative connotation, can in fact assist inexperienced teachers in the construction and development of preservice teacher identities. Similarly, Poole (2017b) and Poole and Huang (2018) have proposed the notion of existential funds of identity – that is, the positive and negative experiences that adolescent learners develop and appropriate in order to define themselves and to grow as human beings. These experiences can be problematic circumstances, such as being suspended from school, exam pressure or falling out with a friend, as well as more personal issues to do with identity and belonging, such as feeling out of place.

While dark funds of identity and existential funds of identity could be taken as synonymous – they both seek to draw upon difficult experiences in order to effect positive pedagogical outcomes - they are in fact subtly different. The notion of dark funds of identity appears to represent a general form of funds of identity, whereas existential funds of identity could be described as a category or type of dark funds of identity. Polarising experiences into either light or dark, however, is problematic as it neglects the complex ways in which individuals internalise and make sense of their experiences (Adams & Fleer, 2015). Therefore, concepts are needed that are able to facilitate the whole spectrum of human experience and emotion, rather than parsing them into ‘light’ or ‘dark’. The notion of existential funds of identity has been presented as a way of synthesising both positive and negative experiences and emotions, but thus far has only been superficially defined.

The rest of this paper will present existential funds of identity in finer detail in order to clarify its relationship to the Funds of Identity approach as established by Esteban-Guitart. The next section explores how the Funds of Identity literature has drawn upon the concept of perezhivanie as a theoretical foundation for understanding funds of identity and the relationship between the individual and their environment.

Perezhivanie and Funds of Identity

The Vygotskian notion of perezhivanie has been drawn on by researches in order to conceptualise Funds of Identity. Nogueira (2014) translates perezhivanie as *emotional experience*, which is taken to refer to ‘a unit in a constant dialectic relationship between the representation of the outside world and how the world is experienced by the person’ (p. 52). This unit can be represented as a metaphorical prism through which social experiences are internalised by individuals, leading to the individualisation of social functions – that is, the development of psychological functions, such as thought, which can be understood as internalised speech (Vygotsky, 1987). Based on the dialectical relationship between outer and inner, Nogueira advances the Funds of Identity concept by suggesting that individuals construct their own set of semiotic tools, which in turn mediates the way they interact and behave. While Esteban-Guitart & Moll (2014b) prefer the term *lived experience*, as it is taken to correspond to the interrelation of all psychological functions as articulated by Vygotsky (1962), the authors nevertheless offer a similar articulation of perezhivanie as a ‘phenomonological prism’ which is not seen as entirely internal, but is a process that takes place in interaction with the environment, with people […] and things’ (Esteban-Guitart & Moll, 2014b, p.75).

Limitations of Perezhivanie in the Funds of Identity literature

While the terms lived experience and emotional experience resonate with Vygotsky’s notion of perezhivanie as a general psychological process (Vygotsky, 1994), neither translation adequately reflects the complexity and nuance of the term in the Russian (Blunden, 2016). In contrast to the somewhat restricted sense in which perezhivanie has been used by Funds of Identity researchers, Vygotskian scholars (Blunden, 2016; Clarà, 2016; Mok, 2017) have started to explore the ‘many lives of the term perezhivanie’, with Clarà (2016) identifying five-main traditions that have grown out of, and develop, the concept as initially sketched by Vygotsky: *experiencing-as-struggle*, *experiencing-as-contemplation*, *fantasy-based experiencing-as-struggle* and *m-perezhivanie*. Therefore, in addition to the sense in which it is primarily used in the Funds of Identity literature, as experiencing-as-contemplation or the internalisation of object-mediated activity (González Rey, 2016), perezhivanie has also been understood as a form of experiencing-as-struggle or a ‘special inner activity’ in which individuals overcome a painful critical event. Thus, the full implications of perezhivanie and how it could enrich the Funds of Identity concept have yet to be fully explored, as research has focused on younger learners and perezhivanie as a form of inner contemplation (e.g., Schmit, 2016).

Contemporary interpretations of perezhivanie, particularly those that are situated within the experiencing-as-struggle tradition (e.g., Blunden, 2014), however, offer a more systematic and unified theory of the relationship between the individual and the environment, which enables practitioners and researchers to draw upon both the positive and the negative. While there have been a number of studies that focus on adolescents' funds of knowledge (Razfar, 2012; Schwartz, 2015; Wei, 2014), researchers working with a funds of identity approach have tended to work with younger learners, thereby precluding the exploration of more problematic funds of identity associated with adolescence.

The next section explains how Vygotskian scholars, Blunden and González Rey, have advanced Vygotsky's initial presentation of perezhivanie and then details how their work could be used to develop the Funds of Identity concept.

Perezhivanie and existential funds of identity

In contrast to the way perezhivanie has been understood by Funds of Identity scholars as a general psychological process, Blunden (2014, 2016) has proposed that perezhivanie be understood as a countable noun. Therefore, individuals do not simply internalise experience as a whole but rather internalise experiences, as experience itself can be understood as self-contained episodes 'with [their] own plot, [their] own inception and movement toward [their] close, […] having [their] own particular rhythmic movement' (Dewey, 1939, p. 555). Blunden theorises perezhivanie as the working over of a traumatic or life changing event. Significantly, a perezhivanie can be both positive and negative; and even when life experiences are negative, the working over of a critical moment or crisis can lead to catharsis and integration of an experience into the personality.

Similarly, González Rey's work on subjectivity also suggests how negative experiences can be accommodated within a more positive paradigm, as 'human subjective processes are never moved by one final cause and do not represent stable contents; they flow in time, integrate, and unfold into different forms during the same experience' (González Rey, 2016, p. 311). Therefore, the polarising of experience into positive and negative is potentially incongruent with the way individuals actually experience and make sense of reality. Teachers who over-emphasise the positive in their classrooms may run the risk of becoming out of sync with their students' lived experiences, which are not based on such clear-cut demarcations between positive and negative. Consequently, perezhivanie as defined by Blunden and González Rey, offers researchers a way to integrate negative and positive experiences, and in so doing, enable educators to move beyond a 'regime of optimism' in order to embrace the whole spectrum of human emotion and experience. Based on this, Poole and Huang (2018) describe a perezhivanie as a three-step process, consisting of:

- **A critical episode**: a traumatic experience or a life-changing episode in one's life that leads to a blockage in psychological development.

- **Reflection**: the process of becoming conscious of, reflecting on, and talking about the critical episode with a significant other, such as a teacher or a parent.

- **Catharsis and integration**: the processing or working over a critical episode in order to assimilate it into the personality.

This interpretation of perezhivanie thus lead to the notion of existential funds of identity (Poole & Huang, 2018). Existential funds of identity are so named because they denote issues of being and self-defining that are primarily internal in nature. On the one hand, individuals are free to define themselves as they wish, yet on the other hand, the open-ended nature of self-defining can lead to doubt, particularly when an individual's personal narrative is at odds with cultural master narratives, defined as stories that govern the existence of a collective subject (Esteban-Guitart, 2012) by prescribing and proscribing certain ways of being and acting (McAdams, 2003).

It can be seen that seemingly negative experiences can be converted through the process of a perezhivanie into more positive forms of funds of identity which in turn can be used for personality and pedagogy work. However, the issue still remains as to how existential funds of identity fits into the framework offered by Esteban-Guitart. Is it an aspect of one or all five of the proposed categories or an additional category? The next section suggests how this question might be answered.

Existential funds of identity as an additional category

Based on Esteban-Guitart (2012) and Joves et al. (2015), funds of identity can be divided into five major types:

1. Geographical Funds of Identity (such as a river, a country, a village or a mountain)
2. Practical Funds of Identity (any activity, such as work, sports or music)
3. Cultural Funds of Identity (artefacts, such as religious symbols, national flags or social categories, such as introversion/extroversion)
4. Social Funds of Identity (significant others, such as relatives, friends, or colleagues)
5. Institutional Funds of Identity (any social institution, such as family, marriage, or school)

Underpinning the categorisation of Funds of Identity is the idea that identity is embedded in tangible, historical cultural factors, such as social institutions, artefacts and cultural beliefs (Saubich & Esteban-Guitart, 2011). Ontologically, identity is understood in empirical terms as what a person does or produces (Esteban-Guitart & Moll, 2014a). This has been succinctly put as 'we are the product of the products we produce' (Ratner, 2006, p. 13). Moreover, the five categories of funds of identity are not discreet, but can converge to form hybrid forms of funds of identity (Esteban-Guitart, 2012). This clearly resonates with a macro approach to cultural psychology, which has been defined as 'the study of psychological phenomena rooted and embedded in macro cultural forces as social institutions, artifacts and cultural concepts' (Esteban-Guitart & Ratner, 2011, p. 1).

Meanwhile, as initially presented in Poole and Huang (2018), the notion of existential funds of identity was presented as a development of the Funds of Identity approach, one that expanded the categories developed by Esteban-Guitart (2012). For example, findings from two empirical papers (Poole, 2017b; Poole & Huang, 2018) that explored the ways in which a group of Chinese students constructed their identities by using avatars, word clouds and a written reflection, identified negative forms of funds of identity (e.g., identity issues, low self-esteem, alienation) that did not appear to fit with the categories proposed by Esteban-Guitart. This dissonance was initially understood to be the result of contextual differences, as the existing categories presented by Esteban-Guitart were developed within a different context. Therefore, the findings from Poole (2017b) and Poole and Huang (2018) suggested that the five categories of funds of identity were situated in nature, with the notion of existential funds of identity intended to be understood as an additional category that was more personal in nature and therefore more commensurate with lived adolescent experience in the Chinese context.

Critique of existential funds of identity as an additional category

However, there are a number of issues with proposing existential funds of identity as an additional category. For example, doubt about one's body image could be said to originate in an interactive social context; therefore, negative self-image could be said to be a cultural form of funds of identity. In addition, not being sure of one's place in a school or not fitting in could also be seen as a form of institutional funds of identity. This is because perezhivanie is the process through which social experiences are transformed into lived experience (Esteban-Guitart and Moll, 2014b; Noguieria, 2014). Therefore, the notion of existential funds of identity as an additional category of funds of identity is somewhat tautologous, as in the last instance, all social experience is transformed into lived experience through social interaction and participation in life (Esteban-Guitart, 2012).

Moreover, imposing a new category of funds of identity on an already existing framework could lead to ontological and epistemological dissonance. For example, from a Funds of Identity perspective, identity, and therefore individuals' funds of identity, are taken to be embedded within the social fabric of life (Esteban-Guitart & Moll, 2014a), which are represented by the five categories proposed by Esteban-Guitart. Therefore, funds of identity are not entirely internal or metaphysical, but rather are the result of a process that takes place in interaction with the environment (Esteban-Guitart & Moll, 2014b). Essentially, the relationship between the social and the personal is dialectical, although the social is taken to be *a priori*, with individuals, as mentioned above, embarking on a process of progressive individuation.

In contrast, the notion of existential funds of identity could be seen to be incompatible with the macro-level assumptions that underpin the Funds of Identity concept, as the former negates the process of individuation by prioritising interiority and existence. Therefore, the funds of identity that are generated through such a phenomenological lens are taken to have their origin not in the social world – that is, not embedded within the five categories proposed by Esteban-Guitart, but rather within the mind of the individual. Rather than moving from social to personal, existential funds of identity inverts this and moves from the personal to the social. For these reasons, the notion of existential funds of identity as predicated upon sociocultural assumptions is inherently problematic because it proposes a kind of solipsism of mind that strains against the sociocultural underpinnings of the Funds of Identity concept.

Discussion

Whereas Funds of Knowledge was a relatively mature concept when Zipin proposed dark funds of knowledge in 2009, and therefore could benefit from such a radical critique, Funds of Identity is still in its infancy and is therefore still finding its intellectual feet, so to speak. While critique of anomalies can be productive in leading to development, as shown by Kuhn (2012) and Handa (1987) in their respective explorations of the concept of paradigm shifts, such radical change can really only be beneficial once a field of inquiry has been firmly established. However, in the case of a new field of inquiry, prematurely introducing a radical break with theoretical orthodoxy could be self-destructive. Perhaps what is required right now for the Funds of Identity concept is accommodation rather than contestation. Therefore, I revise my initial argument as presented in Poole and Huang (2018): existential funds of identity is best understood as an enrichment, and therefore continuation of the Funds of Identity concept, rather than a critique of, and therefore departure, from it. However, the phenomenological aspect of existential funds of identity needs to be explored further, particularly as it appears to resonate with a micro-level approach to cultural psychology.

Given the above, existential funds of identity should be understood as encompassing both light and dark funds of identity which in turn are understood to be complementary modalities of experience. Thus, rather than taking experience as a totality which is either positive or negative, existential funds of identity functions as a conceptual lens which brings into focus the inherent ambivalence of lived experience – that is, subjectivity as an indivisible unity of both positive and negative experiences (González Rey, 2016). Parsing experience into either light or dark runs the risk of reifying experience. Drawing upon positive experiences is necessary in order to dismantle deficit discourses that are founded on negative assumptions of learners as inherently problematic or academically inferior, but at the same time negative experiences can also hold positive resonances for individuals once they have worked over a perezhivanie; the skills and knowledge gained from such an endeavour could be used to navigate uncertainties of a new unit of work or the next step in one's life. Therefore, existential funds of identity can be pedagogical and personal in nature. Seemingly negative experiences from the past are refracted through the prism of the present to become strategies for negotiating the future.

Conclusion

The concept of existential funds of identity adds to the Funds of Identity literature by foregrounding the notion of a perezhivanie as a form of struggle or over-coming which could be used by researchers in order to differentiate between the multifarious ways in which learners perceive and make sense of their social experiences as internalised lived experience. However, because my focus has been on exploring existential funds of identity as a category of funds of identity, discussion of identity as a theoretical concept has largely been side-lined. Therefore, future research needs to offer a more substantial articulation of identity and its relationship to dark or existential funds of identity. Moreover, the role of dark or existential funds of identity and adolescent learners also needs to be further explored. Future research could set about researching into adolescent learners' perezhivaniya – or existential funds of identity - in order to identify successful strategies (i.e., strategies that individuals used in order to work over critical moments) that could be mobilised for pedagogical purposes.

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How to Help EFL Students Gain Confidence in Intercultural Communication: A Case in Vietnam

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Abstract
The article reports on action research on promoting English- major students' confidence in intercultural communication through the social interaction project at a university in Vietnam. The aims of the research are to examine Vietnamese students' difficulties they encounter in intercultural communication, including the reasons they ascribe for these communication problems. Also their face-to-face cross-cultural interaction experience is described and their expectations to intercultural integration in language learning are indicated. 34 Vietnamese college students were engaged in an investigation and the data were collected from questionnaires and se-mi structured interviews with the participants. The findings revealed that through the "Social Interaction Project" Vietnamese English-major students were provided more opportunities to communicate with foreigners face to face, then gained a significant amount of cross-cultural communication experience and acquired more communication strategies, which all promoted their confidence in intercultural communication. They seemed to be aware of the importance of intercultural competence in actual interactions as well as they had a strong desire to be developed intercultural communicative competence in their EFL classes. The findings also yield some significant implications including the need to create an intercultural curriculum, textbooks and teacher training programs to enhance intercultural awareness in order to help EFL students gain confidence in intercultural communication in English learning and teaching process.

Keywords: cultural awareness, intercultural communication, intercultural communicative competence, confidence in oral communication

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1. INTRODUCTION

In the era of globalization and integration the increasingly intercultural realities of our world signify the need for fostering global citizens with effective intercultural communication skills (Jandt, 2004; Hampel, 2009; Hinner, 1998; Nunan, 2003; Teng, 2005). In language education, foreign language teaching (FLT) in general and English as a foreign language (EFL) learning in particular have received more and more attention from educators, teachers and policy makers of how EFL teaching can equip learners with sufficient and effective communicative competence and skills so that that they can survive in the global village (Nunan 2003; Matthew & Thakkar, 2012; Lustig & Koester, 2006). In Vietnamese educational settings, EFL learning and teaching process has gained the critical status at tertiary level since the government introduced educational reforms 30 years ago (Bui, 2006; Hoang, 2008; Ho, 2002; Le, 2004; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2002; Nguyen, 2015; To, 2010; Truong & Tran, 2013; Vu & Nguyen, 2007) . Academic researchers mention the increasing important role of EFL in colleges and universities as a powerful tool to guarantee well-paid jobs for any Vietnamese graduates who are looking for to work with multinational companies (MOET, 2007; Truong & Tran, 2013; Vu & Burns, 2014; Vu & Nguyen, 2007). However, the aims and objectives of these language policies in Vietnam seem to be impossible because the majority of Vietnamese graduates are unable to perform well in English due to their terribly poor communication with other speakers of English (Bui, 2006; Le & Phan, 2013; Nguyen, 2008; Nguyen, 2013; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2002; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2016; Vu & Burns, 2014). Hoang (2008) emphasizes on the unsatisfactory learning outcomes in EFL classroom. Vietnamese learners of English cannot communicate well in English in both daily and professional situations. Several studies found that Vietnamese students of English, like many Asian students of EFL, are often reticent learners with passive language learning style. This might be considered the main impedance to successful intercultural communication (Cheng, 2000; Jackson, 2003; Le, 2004; Le & Barnard, 2009; Nguyen, 2003; Nguyen & Tran, 2007; To, 2010; Tran, 2013; Vu & Burns, 2014).

In my teaching experience, many of my Business English major students came to see me with the same story: they could not manage to communicate effectively with foreigners in real-life situations. For instance, they were very timid and reluctant to start an informal talk with foreign visitors they met. They said they were unable to keep the communicative channel open; they felt uncomfortable and unconfident to converse with both native and non-native persons. In many cases they felt it really hard to maintain the conversations or to manipulate communicative skills in order to fully understand or clearly interpret the interlocutors' messages in actual interactions. They reported that they did not know how to cope with communication problems and difficulties in speaking with foreign people. Also, due to their loss of communication motivation, they had a tendency to avoid making oral contacts with foreigners. Therefore these students asked me how they could build up confidence and improve communicative skills which enabled them to be a successful communicator. Then from my observations in several speaking classes, I recognized that those who usually showed their worries and tensions in doing communication tasks or performing role-plays were on account of the deficiency of both linguistic and cultural knowledge.

My students' stories and my observations in EFL class had alerted me that my current teaching method was not completely suitable to my Business English majors. I realised it was not effective and sufficient for my students to be taught language structures, functions, or roleplays in the classroom. Particularly, I assumed that classroom speaking activities did not work appropriately well in order to accommodate my students' communicative needs. As a result, a number of questions had come up related to how I could make my language teaching successful in EFL contexts. Was the process of language teaching really the focus of Communicative Language Teaching (Canale, 1983; Savignon, 2001, 2003)? Did CLT really happen in my EFL classes? Did I provide an adequately communicative language environment to my students? How could I help my students overcome communicative barriers and gain confidence as intercultural communicators?

With all above problems arose in my specific teaching context, I started looking back my credo of teaching and decided to conduct an action research on my students' communication problems so that I would have a deeper understanding of the underlying reasons why my students lack confidence and motivation in genuine face-to-face communication. The aims of the research are to examine Vietnamese students' communication difficulties facing Vietnamese students of Business English at a university in central Vietnam, including the difficulties they encounter and the reasons they ascribe for these communication problems. The paper then investigates on the participants' perceptions toward a task-based project outside classroom. And the study also focuses on their expectations to intercultural integration in EFL classroom.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Language, culture and communication

The fact that language and culture are inseparable is confirmed by a number of researchers and educators (Brown, 1994; Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Jandt, 2004). Culture is defined as a pattern of ideas, beliefs, and behaviors socially constructed through communication in social communities (Jandt, 2004; Gay, 2010; Hanson & Fox, 1995). Researches on culture and communication state that culture is considered as a context for communication and communication is implicitly as a part of culture (Frank, 2013; Jandt, 2004). This implies language learners have to learn various concepts of culture and learn how to explore cultural barriers to communication, including nonverbal communication and language (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Levine & Adelman 1993). The term "cultural awareness" means the ability to acknowledge and respect differences between diverse groups of people from different cultures. Several researchers confirm that cultural differences are barriers and impede communication and interactions (Byram, 2008; Lustig & Koester, 2006; Matthew & Thakkar, 2012; Paige, 2013). To overcome these barriers learners need to be trained in order to understand the differences between one's own culture and another's (Paige, 2013; Xiao & Patreki, 2007). In other words, language learners are in need of being developed cultural awareness in EFL context.

2.2 Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) in foreign language teaching (FLT)

The term 'intercultural communication' refers to communication and interactions between persons and groups from different cultural communities, who have different cultural identities, social values and behaviours (Byram, 1997; 2008; Hanson & Fox, 1995; Jandt, 2004; Jarodd, 2013; Kourova, 2013; Paige, 2013). A review of relevant literature in intercultural communicative competence (ICC) indicates that ICC is the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in various cultural contexts (Frank, 2013; Hammer, 2012; Sellami, 2000). All cross-cultural communication skills can be learned when the teacher help students learn how to show respect, empathy, tolerance and non-judgment in communicating with foreigners (Jandt, 2004; Lustig & Koester, 2006; Samovar & Porter, 2004; Zhang, 2010). In particular, researchers propose the idea of teaching communication strategies in EFL classroom in order to develop learners' strategic competence "*which is defined as the ability to cope in authentic communicative situation and to keep the communicative channel open*" (Alptekin, 2002, p.58). In the globalised or internationalised world, teachers therefore should equip their students with communication strategies or compensation strategies by providing training on how to apply these strategies into real-life situations for more effective communication (Alptekin, 2002; Dornyei, 1995, 1997; Le, 2006; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2016; Oxford, 1990). According to Alptekin (2002) "*intercultural communicative competence should be developed among EIL learners by equipping them with linguistic and cultural behavior which will enable them to communicative effectively with others, and also by equipping them with an awareness of difference, and with strategies for coping with such difference*" (p.63).

2.3 Previous studies on EFL learners' confidence in intercultural communication

Within the literature several researches have been done to examine underlying factors affecting to students' confidence in intercultural communication for over the past twenty years. Empirical evidence in the field of FLT showed learners' communicative ability depends mostly on teaching practices of the teachers in the classroom (Byram, 1997; Kramsch, 1993; Frank, 2013; Cheng, 2003; Jackson, 2003; Rabahah, 2002, Teng, 2005; Zhang, 2005). Nguyen (2007) and Le (2001) said one of the major causes that impede students' communicative confidence is that they have no communication experience due to the lack of the opportunity to pratise English in an authentic English environment or to have actual interactions in daily life. Another culprit for the students' low degree of confidence is the lack of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) or communicative skills training in EFL classroom (Kourova, 2013; Paige, 2013; Teng, 2005; Zhang, 2010). Zhang (2010) states that communication skills can be enhanced through various activities outside the classrooms, such as going to English corners, tours, exhibitions to learn Western etiquette and these activities will help them avoid misunderstandings in face-to-face communication with native speakers and resulted in the improvement of their communicative confidence. Teng (2005) found that Taiwanese students of English gained more confidence in cross-cultural communication activities with American partners through a virtual cross-cultural project. The findings showed the positive correlations between the students' confidence and their motivation to succeed in the project as well as their acquisition of intercultural communication skills. Songsiri, (2007) reported that "*students' increased confidence in speaking English was influenced by teaching learning strategies, using authentic materials and presenting the activity in non-threatening terms*" (p.xvi). Kubo (2009) reported his action research study on English majors in a Japanese junior college using pair taping activities. The results showed that the students gained more confidence in spoken English and the sense of confidence in turn allow them to learn autonomously in EFL context. Doqaruni's findings (2014) indicated that Iranian students' security and self-confidence were enhanced due to communicative experience and strategies gained through additional speaking activities and cooperative learning created by the teacher in the EFL classroom.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 The context

The move from teacher- centeredness to learner-centeredness in EFL learning and teaching process has received much attention from language teachers in Vietnam for a long time (Bui, 2006; Dang, 2006; MOET, 2007; Nguyen, 2003; Nguyen, 2015). As a result, learner expectations and attitudes have increasingly come to be recognized in accordance with CLT (Phan, 2008; Vu & Burn, 2014) which was introduced to University of Foreign Language Studies (UFLS) more than ten years ago. In reality, however, it is hardly possible for English teachers to strictly follow this new teaching method on account of several constraints and limitations. As a teacher of English at the Department of English for Specific Purposes at UFLS, I had been teaching speaking courses (namely SPEAKING 01, 02, and 03) in Business English (BE) classes for more than ten years. In spite of learning three speaking courses of 12 credits, the students' speaking skills seemed not to be improved much. Particularly, their communicative skills were neglected due to many unfavourable teaching conditions such as the class size of 40 -50 students or the lack of studying facilities.

3.2 Action Research in language education

Action research is considered as a sophisticated method for classroom research. For instance, Efron & Ravid (2013) suggested it is an inquiry conducted by teachers "*in their own settings in order to advance their practice and improve their students' learning*" (p.2). This type of classroom research is usually considered as a vital and feasible tool for adapting, changing, and enhancing the process of language learning and teaching and then it is necessary for professional growth in education (Denscombe, 2007; Efron & Ravid, 2013; Somekh, 2006). In other words classroom research will help the practitioners self-evaluate and take responsibilities for their own performances in educational settings (Glanz, 2014; Ryan, 2013). Also, Efron & Ravid (2013) indicates that it is the role of language teachers to investigate and understand language learners' social and historical circumstances such as their students' past and present successes, failures, fears or dreams in order that the teacher can "*gain insight into students' world*" (p.4). According to Ryan (2013) in action research the teachers carry out their investigation systematically, reflectively and critically into their students' problems; using practically appropriate strategies to develop new skills so that they are able to improve their teaching process and foster their career development in language classrooms. It is argued that education and learning are social and interactive processes and the teachers should offer true learning situation for their students (Dewey, 1997; Efron & Ravid, 2013). Efron & Ravid (2013) suggest the 6 cyclical steps in action research as follows (a) identifying a problem that needs to be studied, (b) gathering background information through a review of literature and previous studies on the topic, (c) designing the study and planning the methods of collecting data, (d) collecting data, (e) analyzing and interpreting, (f) writing and sharing.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN

4.1 The "Social Interaction Project"

As all above studies mentioned, learning through the cross-cultural communication project seemed to be an appropriate task-based teaching method for intermediate and upper-intermediate students in EFL classroom (Bailey, 2005; Bender, 2012; Kourova, 2013; Markham, 2011). The Social Interaction Project started from mid-November to the beginning of December 2013 and lasted for five weeks due to the constraints of time and resource availability. A detailed description of the procedures was as follows:

1. Foreigner interview: Firstly, the students were introduced about the project, its aims and target and its requirements. A reward scheme was also announced at this stage as a motivating factor to the task performers. Some instructions and guidelines were supplied and explained if any question arose. Then the participants were assigned to work in groups to conduct oral surveys with as many foreigners they met as possible. They were given enough time to prepare and schedule their project; including the place, the topics and the procedures they should follow. The surveys and recorded interactions were handed in to the teacher at the end of the fifth week. The purpose of the interview task was to achieve two aims: the students were firstly given chances to experience actual interactions with foreign visitors who used English as a communicative language (Bailey, 2005; Bender, 2012). They would learn how their utterances are produced and understood appropriately in real-life situations, and adapt any social skills they know to do their job. They had to learn how to use communication strategies deal with problems happening in the process of interactions due to limited psychological and environmental conditions such as memory, nervousness, and distractions and interfering background noises (Canale, 1983). Secondly the pair work or group work would give them more confidence in talking to foreigners and help them learn how to cooperate with each other to repair communication mistakes as well as to maintain a successful conversation (Alptekin, 2002; Bern, 1990).

2. Discussion with peers and the teacher: There were informal talks between the teacher and different groups of students for checking their progress after the field practice every week at a coffee shop. The purpose of this task was that throughout the discussion the teacher would find out the students' problems or difficulties in conversing with foreigners in authentic contexts. Then the teacher would suggest some language- and culture-related solutions. For example the teacher advised them on their use of communication strategies, both verbal and non-verbal communication skills. Moreover based on the feedback from the participants the teacher adjusted some lesson plans in EFL classrooms in the future.

4.2 The participants

The participants in this action research study were 34 second-year Vietnamese students whose English was intermediate and aged from 19 to 20 years. 33 female and 1 male students enrolled in my 15-week speaking course 03 (SP03) at ESP Department in University of Foreign Language Studies in September 2013. All of them voluntarily registered to participate in the "Social Interaction Project" as an extracurricular speaking activity beyond the classroom. These students had to pass the exams of Speaking Course 1 and 2 before being allowed to register the course SP03.

4.3 Data collection

Both qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed in this study. Data were collected through (a) a set of two attitudinal questionnaires adapted from Teng (2005), Songsiri, (2007) and Xiao & Petraki (2007); (b) the semi-structured interviews and (c) student reflective journals. Descriptive analysis was used to describe and sunmarise the data. A pre-task survey was conducted when the questionnaire 1 was administered to 34 Business English majors. The questionnaire 1 consisted of 15 Likert scaled and 5 opened-ended questions. A post-task survey was carried out with seven groups of these students through the questionnaire 2 and the semi-structured interviews with guided questions after the five-week project. The questions in the interviews were developed based on the students' responses to the questionnaire 1. The data gathered from the questionnaires were then analyzed via Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 20.0. The data collected from the transcription of the interview recordings, the responses from the open-ended questions in the questionnaires and reflective journals-were imported into word processor. Then the information was organised and generated under the themes or categories or patterns. The language used in the questionnaires, the interviews and reflective journals was Vietnamese because the students felt more confident to communicate ideas in their mother tongue (Dang, 2006). All the quotes were therefore translated into English.

5. THE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Pre-task Survey: The data collected through the questionnaire 1 were used to analyze the students' communicative frequency and opportunities, communicative confidence in EFL class and their difficulties or barriers to intercultural communication.

Figure 1 presents the participants' frequency of intercultural communication. Approximately 88% of the students reported they had only a few opportunities to speak with foreign people when they studied at school whereas less than 12% of the reporters said they had good chance to communicate with foreigners.

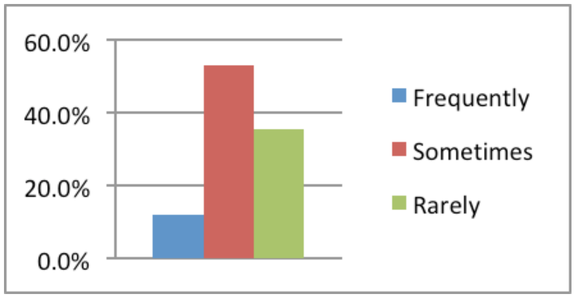

Figure 1: The frequency of intercultural interaction

Figure 2 presents the degree of confidence in cross-cultural communication among the students. The findings indicated that nearly 91% agreed that they were highly unconfident and reluctant to speak with foreigners whereas only 6% said they could converse with people from other countries in a comfortable manner.

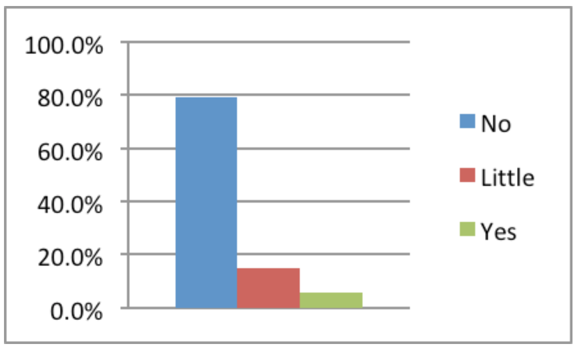

Figure 2: The degree of confidence in cross-cultural communication

Figure 3 shows the reasons why the students felt uncomfortable and were not self-confident enough in communicating with foreigners. The findings presents the students' (N=34) answer to the question of what demoting factors made them unconfident in intercultural communication. 100% of the students agreed that due to their poor linguistic competence as well as little or no exposure to actual interactions, they failed to be a good communicator. Besides approximately 90% reported that as they had little or no practical experiences to cope with communication problems happened during the conversation, they became reticent and reserved. More than 80% of the participants answered it was the conventional teaching method and textbook-based materials that impeded their learning outcomes in the EFL class. Otherwise, 45% said they seemed passive and feared of failure in communication

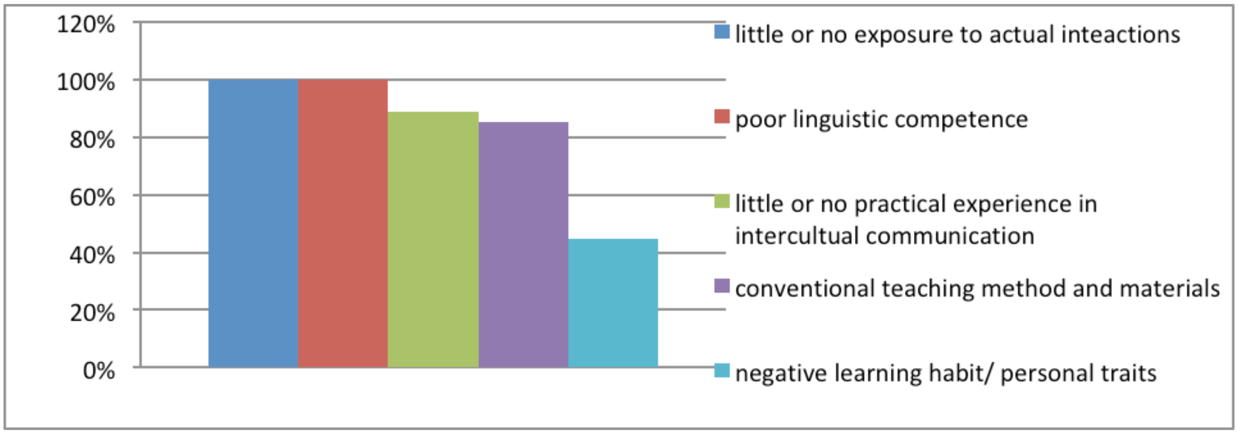

Figure 3: The barriers to students' confidence in intercultural communication

Post-task survey: The data collected from the questionnaire 2, the interviews and the reflective journals about the students' opinions and attitudes to the Social Interaction Project.

Table 1: indicates the average time for intercultural encounters, the preferred communication style and the reasons for the preference for a typical group during the project.

Week	Average time for an encounter	Distribution of nationality of foreigners	Preferred communication styles (%)	Preferred Reasons
1 + 2	2 minutes/ 7 encounters	Asian visitors: 3 European visitors: 2 Native speakers: 2	Preference of speaking with: - NS: 62% - NNS: 15% - Both NS and NNS: 23%	Easier, more comfortable, more confident to talk to Asian people (Korea, Japan and India)
3	9 minutes/ 9 encounters	Asian visitors: 2 European visitors: 3 Native speakers: 4		Native speakers are a source of language learning with perfect accent, pronunciation, rich vocab;
4-5	18 minutes/ 9 encounters	Asian visitors: 1 European visitors: 4 Native speakers: 4		European people are considered as friendly warm considerate helpful communicators (German, Polish, Swiss and Sweden)

The data collected from the discussions for the first two weeks were coded and a new theme emerged was that the preferred communication styles. These students applied what they learned from the language classroom into the real situations in a basic and simple way as perceived. They reported that they were really under pressure to do the survey with foreign visitors who were at first really difficult to start a conversation with. Group 6 said

> "*At first we felt it extremely hard to start a conversation with a foreign stranger and we thought we had to give up the task because we were refused many times.*

> *But then we were reminded of the teacher's rewarding scheme so we decided to continue*" (G6)

They had to try hard to carry out the task in a simple way and to finish the conversation as quickly as possible and therefore the average time spent for each survey was very short –only two minutes.

> "*For the first two weeks we were still very nervous and anxious to try to make contact with foreign visitors, so we just tried to do the survey and finished the conversation in a very short time, just in two minutes or so*" (G5)

However, when they continuously gained some first-hand communication experience with people from native-speaking and European countries after five weeks, they learned how to maintain the conversations (up to eighteen minutes) and they confirmed that the time spent with these people was valuable and unforgettable to them.

> "*It was the first time we had as many as conversations with foreigners in our life. At first we didn't believe in ourselves that we could communicate well. But when we opened the conversation successfully with some European people especially from Germany, Russia, Spain and Switzerland, we built up confidence and we felt more comfortable to continue our job*" (G2)

The findings in table 1 also revealed the preference of communication styles of the participants. Many of respondents- 62% of the students- would like to speak with native people (Americans, Australians, Canadians and British) whereas only 15% reported that they preferred to communicate with European or Asian people. The rest (23%) said they liked to speak with both native and non-native speakers. The reasons for many students in favour of native speakers (NS) were (a) NS are friendly, easy-going, enthusiastic, open-minded and helpful; (b) these Westerners are a great source of listening with perfect accent, pronunciation and vocabulary; (c) NS can teach them some new words and correct their mistakes. The reasons for non-native speakers (NNS) were (a) NNS are similar to them in many ways, including culture and level of English, so it is easier to talk to; (b) NNS made them feel equal and comfortable to converse with. Followings were the extracts from the students' reflective journal:

> "*It is really easier to listen to and understand what native people speak because they pronounce perfectly with a good wide range of words. We can learn English from them during the conversation*" (G3)

> "*We found speaking with both natives and non-natives has its own advantage. With native people we can imitate their accent, their perfect pronunciation and their good choice of words. When talking to non-native speakers we can recognize different types of accent so that it would be easier for us to converse with Asian or European people later on*" (G7).

Table 2 shows the reported communication problems and communication strategies used by seven groups of the respondents.

Week	Communication difficulties	Communication strategies used
1 + 2	- Low English proficiency such as poor pronunciation, lack of vocabulary, problems in listening and speaking; - demotivation, hesitation, anxiety, nervousness, passiveness and reticence	- frequently used avoidance: message abandon, topic change, conversation stop, code-switching, fillers and hesitation devices - Cooperative learning
3-4	Low level of English proficiency Cultural knowledge Verbal Communication strategies	- Less avoidance, some interactional and intra-actional strategies used: self-repair, omission, appeal for help, expressing for non-understanding, - Cooperative learning
5	Low level of English proficiency Awareness of cultural differences Verbal communication strategies Non-verbal communication strategies	- Less avoidance, interactional and intra-actional strategies: approximation, circumlocution, comprehension check, clarification request, eye contact maintenance, positive gestures like smiling, politeness strategies - Cooperative learning, learner autonomy

The results from Table 2 confirmed the statement "Practice makes perfect". All of the participants reported their ups-and-downs time with different stories during the first two weeks. The conversation recordings showed the students' talks were full of pauses, fillers, hesitation and silence. Also, a great many of "yes" and "no", smiles and nods were frequent among their responses. The findings were in accordance with the results found in many studies on Asian students' communication styles (Le & Phan, 2013; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2016; Nunan, 2003, Pham, 2000). For instance, after the first two weeks, many groups reported that:

> "*We found the biggest problems that impeded our communication with foreign people were our pronunciation mistakes and the lack of vocabulary for the topic. Most interlocutors didn't understand what we said and usually we passed the topic and moved on to the next question*" (G6)
> "*During the first two weeks, we just tried to finish the tasks as quickly as possible because we were so nervous and uncomfortable in the conversations. We think we were not good at English speaking and listening. Our pronunciation was terrible*" (G7)

On the contrary, after finishing the five-week social interaction project, the students reported their changes in their perceptions to actual oral communication with foreign people. Most of them seemed to recognize the fundamental importance of culture-related problems in face-to-face interactions in which more than 85% of the participants agreed they lacked the communicative skills and strategies to compensate for misunderstandings. The following extracts found in the interviews after the project confirmed those results:

> "*We failed the conversation because we didn't know about or have experience of how to use the communication strategies to survive the interactions. We think if we had been equipped with some more communicative skills, we could have done better in these situations*" (G3)
>
> "*The project was of great importance in raising our cultural awareness and enhancing our cultural sensitivity. We wish we could understand their attitudes, gestures and facial expressions more so that we would learn how to maintain the conversation more successfully in face-to-face communication*" (G4)

Half of the students admitted they failed the conversations because they were not aware of cultural differences between them and other interlocutors. After five weeks of experiencing the real contacts with many foreign people, the students were really in need of an intercultural communication course embedded in the curriculum.

> "*We think the teacher should supply us more intercultural communication and communication strategies and help us how to use these strategies to succeed in opening, maintain and closing conversations with foreign people*" (G1)

Table 3 summarises the students' feedback to the effectiveness of the project in helping students gain confidence in intercultural communication. A comparison between the pre- and post-survey was made so as to indicate the significant differences in the participants' language development and confidence gain. It was demonstrated through the results of the Paired Samples T-Test:

	Pre-task Mean	Post-task Mean	Paired Samples T-Test				
Confidence	2.56	4.24	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			-2.086	-1.267	-8.330	33	.000
Ability	2.44	3.09	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			-.837	-.457	-6.936	33	.000
Knowledge	2.35	3.05	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			-1.094	-.361	-4.125	21	.000

Anxiety	3.85	2.09	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			-1.469	-2.077	-12.132	21	.000
Enjoyment	3.74	4.32	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
			Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
			-1.034	-.057	-2.324	21	.030

*p<0.05

The findings in Table 3 showed that there were statistically significant differences in students' confidence, ability, knowledge and anxiety in intercultural communication. The results of Paired Sample T-test with Sig. (2-tailed) was .000 (p<.005) demonstrated that the participants gained more confidence and linguistic knowledge after finishing the project. Clearly after constant working with the project for five weeks, the participants reported they had accumulated more valuable experiences in genuine communication with people from different cultural backgrounds. Firstly they were able to recognize their strengths and weaknesses in their English proficiency and they then adjusted their English learning path. Secondly the participants developed their observing skills which helped them identify different types of communication styles from different cultures; they understood what these people needed so that they maintained better communication. Thirdly they raised the awareness of cultural differences between them and other speakers and developed both verbal and non-verbal communication strategies.

> "*The important thing is they actually could understand what we're saying though we didn't pronounce some words accurately. So, the project could indeed make us realize that "travelling forms a young man" and "the more mistakes you make the more you learn". We not only gained confidence ourselves but acknowledged different cultures of other countries in the world as well. Moreover, we also had a good time to relax and save the memorable moments in Hoi An*" (G5).
> "*It seemed to me that 'the English' I have learned in class was extremely different from what I have encountered. The project was really effective and productive in the way that it made me aware of my English and my own culture. I recognized that English in class was for examination, English in use was real and practical for my future career*" (G3)

Several respondents shared with the researcher their stories in actual interactions with foreign visitors. They all recognized the great importance of intercultural knowledge and skills in maintaining successful interactions.

> "*Once we had a conversation with an Italian family of two women and a baby, we tried to touch and pamper the baby. The mother seemed annoyed with our bahaviour and we didn't understand why she was so negative to our seemingly kind act to a baby. Later on throughout the discussion with my teacher, we were told that there were behavior-related differences between Asian and Western*

cultures. In Western countries we shouldn't touch or kiss or pamper a baby if you were not allowed by the parents. This incident was a big lesson for us and it was the first time we experience this cultural distance" (G3)

Table 4 presents the students' expectations toward intercultural communication training in EFL classroom.

EFL teachers should…
organize culture-related activities or task-based projects
bring intercultural communication courses to class.
teach students about rules, etiquette or norms in different cultures, including inappropriate behaviors or culturally-offended situations.
use videos/films about cultural differences/clashes in classrooms.
provide or recommend some interesting books, videos, websites, or learning materials for self-study.

Five key themes emerged from the students' reflective journals signified the importance of and necessity for intercultural communication training in EFL class. All the participants reported their strong desire to be equipped with IC training so that they could be competent communicators. The following quotes were:

"We are looking forward to similar tasks or projects that give us more opportunities to be exposed to actual use of English. We are also in need of an intercultural course introduced to us so that we are prepared for unexpected communication problems" (G1)

"*We wish to be taught about different cultures, etiquette, rules in conversation that help us avoid misunderstandings and communication breakdowns*" (G2)

"*The teacher should use various sources of teaching materials such as videos, films or youtubes to illustrate these cultural problems and to suggest solutions*" (G3)

"*The teacher should recommend some websites, textbooks, or materials for our self-study*" (G4)

6. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

The action research study on Vietnamese English-major students' communication experience has shed light on my teaching practice in many ways. The results showed the project effectively created an authentic language environment to respond to the communicative needs of the students in EFL classroom at UFLS, the University of Danang. Especially the students reported these activities were of great importance because they were provided with many opportunities to experience the target language (Truong & Tran, 2013). In other words, when the students were exposed to a language environment and expected not only to understand but also to respond to what they hear, they were sure to recognize that making an effort to get the gist, using strategies to interpret, express and negotiate meaning, were critical to the development of communicative competence (Fenner, 2008; Kleinsasser, 1993; Littlewood, 2007; Nunan, 2003; Savignon, 2003). Generally these tasks served as teaching strategies that promoted students' confidence and built up their intercultural communicative competence.

More importantly the five-week task-based project has made me alter the teaching practices. I had to revise the credo of teaching in EFL classroom by reevaluating the lesson plans in EFL class and find more culturally appropriate speaking tasks and materials that inspired the students' communication motivation. In attempting to do this action research, I have developed my research skills and gained professional development as well (Doqaruni, 2014). And the positive feedbacks from my students' journals were truly an amazing source of motivation to my teaching career:

> *"To sum up, we all make up that such experience will help us a lot in developing ourselves today and future, too. Once again, we want to thank you, teacher that you have created useful opportunities for us to break our limitation!"* (G4)

> "*Finally, we would like to send a big thank you to our teacher for giving us such a new experience to try and explore. We had realized a lot about ourselves after this journey and we realized that beside English, we also have to improve different skills such as communication skills, knowledge about different cultures and so on. This is one of the moments that we will never forget in our University's time*" (G1)

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Wednesday Night Book Club: Examining the Effects of Parent Participation in an After-School Book Club

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Abstract
The role of parent participation has been underscored in education research and teachers are actively encouraged to make connections with parents. This study examines the implications of active parent participation in an extracurricular book club for pre-teen Korean male ELL students enrolled at an international school in the middle east. Parents attended a weekly book club and participated in book club discussions along with their child. Through findings recorded in observation records, surveys and interviews the motivational impact of parent participation was affirmed supporting the positive results of parent participation. The broader finding in the study is the need for the teacher to understand and prepare for the collaborative relationship opportunity that results when parents are active participants.

Keywords: Korean, pre-teen males, English Language Learners, ELL, parent participation, book clubs, motivation

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Introduction

I am a member of a book club and enjoy not only the intellectual experience of sharing and discussing the ideas drawn from the reading, but the social aspect of talking with others around a shared experience. One way students grow their skills is through participation in book clubs. At International School Egypt (ISE), students start participating in book clubs in upper-elementary school. Book club groups are 5-6 students of similar reading levels, reading the same book, selected by genre to fulfill the curriculum requirements. Although book clubs are normal practise within ISE's language arts curriculum, an ELL specific book club, like the Wednesday Night Book Club (WNBC), is not a norm due to the instructional inclusion model ISE follows. Additionally, ELL students are usually not placed in a class with another student, with whom they share a language, particularly if the students are Korean.

The opportunity for an ELL book club came to fruition due to one parent's interested in providing the book club experience for her child. I had considered offering a book club for ELL students and here was the perfect opportunity, validated further by parent interest. Because of the parent's energy and interest in a book club, I decided this was a great opportunity to investigate the impact of direct parent participation in supporting student success. As part of WNBC participation, I asked that a parent directly participate with their child to support the students' discussion skills. My idea was that, as members non-graded book club, parents and children could have conversations about books in Korean or English. With this idea in mind, the research questions for the project became: What happens when parents are active participants in a book club with their child? How are the parent's and child's expectations the same and how do they differ? How is the child's motivation impacted by the parent's participation?

Context

The WNBC was an independent, after-school, parent and child book club whose membership included 4 South Korean boys, grades 5 and 6, and their parents. Additional members included my son and myself. The club met from March 16 to June 1st, Wednesday evenings, from 6-7 p.m. on campus.

Participants

The student membership of the book club was mostly predetermined by the group of parents before the club was organized. Once I learned which students had already been identified to be part of the group, I offered the names of other Korean students for the group, as well as posing the possibility of including my son in the group. I suggested Korean students based upon my prior knowledge of their reading skills and their demonstrated positive attitude towards English. The final membership of the group included included four Korean students, two fifth graders and two sixth graders, and one American, a sixth grader. Four mothers, including myself, were also part of the group. Nearly all the Korean students were at WIDA level 5 Bridging, "Knows and uses social English and academic language working with grade-level material" (WIDA Model, 2012). One sixth grade Korean student was at WIDA level 4 Expanding, "Knows and uses social English and some technical academic language" (WIDA Model, 2012). None of the students in the book club were new to a non-Korean school environment.

The second group of participants were the students' mothers. All the women had university degrees, earned in Korea or abroad. The women also represented varying degrees of English language proficiency in speaking, reading, listening and writing, specifics were not assessed. All the women also demonstrated a familiarity with a number of different English language children's books. These impressions of the women are not documented on a demographic survey, rather they were pieced together from conversations, observations and personal correspondence, prior to and during the WNBC.

The last source of data, came from my own reflections after each book club session from the beginning of the project. The reflections evolved as time progressed. Additionally, because my son and I also participated as members of the group, I had a grounding point for my expectations of what I might expect from the students' participation, because of the sometimes pointed feedback provided by my son.

Literature Review

Marland (2011) detailed her experiences running an extra-curricular book club in South Korea for university students. Marland's article described the use of roles assigned to each group member as an organizational tool for learning. Following Marland's lead I looked to Furr (2003) for the descriptions of the roles. A key difference between WNBC and Marland's was my decision to use regular books rather than a graded reader. The parents and the students in the WNBC expected to read regular books as was the norm in the classroom.

Furr (2003) used literature circles with Japanese university students. He agreed with American teacher, Harvey Daniels' (2002) conclusion that while adults enjoy discussing books, the response of students in the classroom was less than favourable. In an effort to change the attitudes of his students, Furr introduced literature circles including the use of defined roles. He noted visible proof of improved reading engagement when the students had specific roles to prepare prior to each meeting. According to Furr, the normally quiet students shared their ideas, used the text to support their ideas, wrote in preparation to share their ideas, and developed autonomy and joy in reading. All of these were outcomes I hoped for in the WNBC. The roles Furr described include: group discussion leader, summarizer, connector, word master, passage person, and culture collector. For the WNBC, I did not assign culture collector, deciding to take that role on myself.

Gambrell (2011) investigated engagement and identified seven influencing facets: relevancy, wide access, time for sustained reading, opportunity to choose, social interaction about the text, success with challenging texts, and appropriate incentives. Within the context of the book club, I found a link to each of Gambrell's dimensions. Wide access to a wide variety of materials was combined with the opportunity to choose when the book selections were made. For WNBC members, social interaction and success with challenging text opportunities happened in person during the Wednesday night meeting and digitally via the padlets. As the weeks progressed, I noted issues with relevancy, not only to the reading, but to the reasons for reading, particularly as the text difficulty increased.

Ivey (2014) offered further examination of motivation demonstrated as engagement. She posited that when students could not identify relevancy for themselves and develop autonomy, engagement would also likely not be developed affecting motivation. Although the specific context of Ivey's work was Reader's Workshop, a reading instruction approach, I thought the findings relevant because of the focus on encouraging choice and autonomy to encourage motivation while reading. The students had a voice in choosing what they read, I provided the organizational structures to support relevancy and autonomy through opportunities to make authentic choices.

Malloy et al's (2013) Motivation to Read Profile (MRP-R) for students in grades 2-6 served as the motivation measurement tool used for the project. While the survey was meant to gather attitude changes over the course of a year, the scope of this project was quite short. The survey thus served as a starting point and provided a glimpse into initial attitudes.

Ireton (2008) also underlined the impact of the home, and the role of the parents in education. She wrote a brief article for early childhood professionals encouraging the use of parent's observations to inform decisions for a child's development. The article explored the tenant that parents are experts on their children and included a list of questions. Ireton's questions were modified to focus on reading activities to create the parent survey administered in the final weeks of the project.

Research Interventions

The design of this project included a number of different interventions, some of which changed over the time span of the WNBC.

From the first week of the WBNC, I implemented the use of digital media in the form of an electronic on-line bulletin board, or padlet (padlet.com). Bromley, et al (2014) encouraged the use of technology and multimedia approaches for literacy circles to support reading and expand student learning beyond the text by including visuals to support the text, as well as providing opportunities for shared discussion and project collaboration. Because the club only met one time a week, I created a total of four padlets for the WNBC. The first padlet contained book trailers from youtube.com to introduce the books up for selection. The other three padlets included discussion summaries, questions to consider, vocabulary reminders, and assigned roles. Two book padlets also included audio versions of the book as a scaffold for students and parents.

The padlets also included descriptions of the roles meant to be rotated among the club membership. Role assignment started with the first book, *The One and Only Ivan* (Ivan). I assigned the roles Furr (2003) described: group discussion leader, summarizer, connector, word master, passage person, and culture collector. I decided to adopt the use of roles for the WNBC because they mirrored roles the students were already familiar with from the language arts curriculum. The roles, rotated among the

WNBC student members for the three weeks we discussed *Ivan*. After *Ivan*, I made adjustments to the role assignments. I assigned two students the role of connector, in the hope of supporting the development of relevancy from text to reader, and therefore support engagement and motivation as suggested by Gambrell's (2011) research.

Another intervention included on each padlet was the creation of a vocabulary list from words generated at each meeting. The word master selected 4-5 words, shared the sentence, and the page number, where the word was found. With that information, the group discussed the word and tried to determine a definition using various strategies. According to Beck et al (2015) the usual strategies for vocabulary comprehension are not always effective because fiction texts are rarely written to be instructional. Strategies like reading the word in context or substituting known words for the unknown word, even using a dictionary can be ineffective if the student's vocabulary is limited, a common challenge faced by ELL students. In response, I supplemented the discussion by using the words in sentences or discussing nuanced meanings, approaches recommended by Beck et al. Prior weeks' vocabulary was reviewed orally at each book club meeting and reinforced on the padlets. Finally, I used ten vocabulary words discussed throughout the meetings to create a quizlet which the students played multiple times at the last session.

In a move away from padlet, I varied the way students chose which book to read; however regardless of the way the choice was presented, the students were were offered a bound choice (Gambrell, 2011) of pre-selected books. Where Marland (2011) met student needs by using a graded reader, or adapted text, I provided students with a list of books appropriate to the group's overall reading. Marland applied Krashen's (2011) comprehensible input hypothesis to guide the choice of texts based upon students' diagnosed reading level. The application of Krashen's hypothesis made sense and also followed instructional practice I was familiar with. Furr (2003), whom Marland referenced, used short stories in his reading club. I considered this option and presented it as a possibility to the parents. In the end, full regular texts where what the students were offered.

Finally, as the last intervention, I requested that a parent attend the WNBC as an active participant in book club discussions along with the children. I included parents on the email with the updated padlets every week, drew the parents into discussion as naturally as possible by directing questions to them, soliciting comments, etc., and experimented with seating arrangements to better include parents in the discussion.

Data Collection

Data collection occurred in three stages over the course of the research project. Stage One collection included documentation of the project from the first book club meeting on March 16 to the final meeting on June 1. Stage Two data collection started on April 20, coinciding with the start of the second book, *The Graveyard Book,* and continued through June 1. Stage Three, the final stage, commenced on May 4 and ended on June 1.

Stage One: March 16 to June 1st

Personal reflections

As a researcher I used two different avenues to record the project's evolution and as well as reflect on the overall process. One avenue was a research journal (sample page, Appendix B) and the other a digital learning community online, my 777 research cohort. The writing in the research journal initially started as an attempt at having both a "just the facts" written record of each meeting, followed by a section to record surprising developments (eg: a student lost a discussion journal!), questions (eg: How can I make this process _____?), and personal feelings (eg: Wow, that was a super discussion tonight, we shared stories about _____). Over time, I also started to draw diagrams of the meeting space to enrich the collection of data by documenting the evenings' sitting arrangements. The journal became the central record from which I drew evidence because of the variety of information it contained. The journal also included primary information about the creation of the book-club and contained the only record of notes from conversations with the organizing parent for the book club. Finally, it provided a place to capture impressions of and thoughts about each the book club meeting. I usually wrote the same evening immediately after the book club.

The online discussion board provided a structured, incremental look at the overall process through responses to questions posted each week, receiving and giving feedback. The posts offered an initial opportunity to analyze my own thoughts about the process.

Student journals

From the beginning of the WNBC, the students independently created notebooks for their roles, then arranged to rotate them. (sample pages, Appendix C) The students shared their notebooks with me on request. I collected samples of these notebooks as artifacts to show the level of preparation the student engaged in as an example of their motivation.

Stage Two: April 20 to June 1st

Observation records

About midway through the project, I rediscovered book club observation forms created by the ISE fifth grade team for recording student actions during book club, including vocabulary usage as well as interactions between participants. I adapted the observation forms for this project by adding an additional observations row. (Appendix D) I initially thought to use the form during the book club. I had thought my role would be more of a facilitator entailing more observation and subtle direct intervention to support group discussion. I was much more involved in the discussion than I anticipated I would be, as a result I used the observation form as a starting point to the journaling process after each meeting. The observation form forced my reflections about the evening to be more focused on the types of behaviors typical in a book club and assisted me in making more detailed reflections about each meeting.

Stage Three May 4th to June 1st:

Student Reading Surveys

The Reading Survey was created and emailed to the five WNBC students using Google forms. (Student Survey Questions, Appendix E) The survey contained questions taken taken from Malloy et al's (2013) Motivation to Read Profile (MRP-R) and was meant to be the primary data collection tool to gather information the student's attitudes towards reading and activities around reading including questions about self perceptions of reading abilities and the ability to discuss books with others. I thought the information in this survey would be useful as a baseline measure of individual motivation which could be used as a predictor of success or challenge with book club activities. One student responded almost immediately. The following week, I resent the survey to the others who had not completed the survey. Four of the five students completed the survey, however the responses of one student were not saved on the form and I was not able to retrieve his data. In the end three students responses were recorded. One of the sixth graders did not respond to email or in-person requests to complete the survey.

Individual Student Interviews

Questions for the students were prepared ahead of time and served to supplement the data collected through the electronic student motivation questionnaire. (student interview questions, Appendix F) Individual student interviews were conducted between May 22 and June 1st. The list of questions was a general reflection of their book club experience as well as a collection of suggestions for general improvement. I met with students either during a break from instruction on campus or around a book club meeting. The interview protocol I followed was: I asked the student, they responded, their responses were recorded. I repeated questions as needed.

Parent's Survey

The questionnaire included questions to gather information about the parents' feelings about the book club, their feelings about their child's participation, and questions about the types of interactions they engaged in with their child around the books. (Parent Survey Questions, Appendix G) The number of questions on the survey was limited because I asked for short answers rather than providing answer choices. The form was sent to parents via the most up to date email address I knew. Three parents completed the survey.

Conclusions

The primary finding of the project highlights the opportunity for parents to engage in discussion of unique topics with their children. Other notable findings included: the rise of conflicts between parent and child around expectations; children change in order to accommodate and fulfill the parent expectations, sometimes adhering to the spirit of the expectations and sometimes to the letter of the expectations; parent's active participation supported the development of all children by recognizing positive trends in the group as well as negative trends in the group; and finally, parent's active participation supported the overall organization of the group, from recruitment to attendance to positive attitude consistency. Of the themes I identified, the promise of deep discussions in the book club best exemplified the high point of the project, was the most motivational and empowering piece, reached despite the challenges different individuals faced.

In a review of parent survey responses, discussing ideas was a common answer to a question asking about hopes for their children as outcomes of book club participation (Parent Survey, May 2016). Students' responses mirrored the parents' responses. In individual interviews, Hae-il shared he enjoyed, "discussing...debating" and Sung-Yong agreed stating, "sharing different ideas" as the best part of book club (Student interviews, May 2016). The common mindset expressed in the answers was exemplified by the participation of parents and children in conversations on topics such as "satisfaction with life" (Ivan padlet) to "fulfilling promises" (Ivan padlet) within the first few weeks of book club. The specificity of the topics was directly related to the content of the books. Without attending the book club, the topic would probably not have been discussed. A uniquely poignant conversation, which was perhaps the most personal to each of the kids, was when their moms shared the origin of their child's name. Some of the children knew the origin of their name, while for others the story was new. In the professional online learning community, I recorded this reflection:

> ...at one point, the discussion turned to highlight how the character had one name "Mud," and the naming process. The kids each expressed their ideas about how they were named and then, because most of the kid's mother's were present, they naturally became part of the conversation as they shared how each child was named...for each child the naming story was different. (Blackboard post, March 31)

The opportunity for the children to hear the story of their naming created an atmosphere in the discussion that was charged with a sense of pride and various emotions as the parents spoke. The meeting ended on a particularly happy note.

At other meetings, the parent/child interactions with the content of books elicited other responses around a topic based upon the book content. The interactions between Nobody Owens and Scarlett, his only human friend, introduced the topic of absolute honesty and some students shared instances of telling the truth, but not being believed. Some students shared their circumstances with brave frankness others remained silent (Journal, April 20). When we read *Tuck Everlasting*, a student's question about Winnie's decision to pour the vial of magic water on a toad, rather than drink it and gain eternal life, divided the students in the class into two opinion camps. I asked the parents to remain neutral, explaining they would judge the arguments. Each camp presented their positions to the parent panel, provided rebuttals and answered questions (Journal, May 25). All of these types of interactions are examples of uncommon parent/child interactions that occurred in the unique context of a topic in book club.

Parent support of children's conversation was not accomplished with ease by all parents. A trend in the responses on the parent survey illustrates the attempts to support their child at two different levels. One level was direct conversation after reading the book: "I try to motivate him in order to complete reading while read book together and talk about contents each other." This response was a little surprising to me because of use of the word "motivate." As I reflected on this response, I found myself relating the parent's plight to my own, with my son, who was also a participant in the WNBC. I too would ask him about the reading and if he hadn't finished would encourage him to finish so we could talk about it before book club, particularly around his role. Admittedly, about half the time, his response would be less than positive particularly if my inquiries were ill-timed and competed with demands on his time for his "real homework" (Personal Interaction, May 2016). This personal experience had a grounding effect on my understanding and expectations about motivation and reminded me of the "fun" this was supposed to be. My attempts at motivating my own child met with mixed results, illustrating the possible challenges other parent/child pairs could encounter.

The other level of support attempted was the reading of the book with limited ability to discuss it in English: "I tried to read the book and ask about the story, but my English isn't enough good to talk about it" (Parent Survey, May 2016). What surprises me about this response is that the parent did not address attempts to discuss the book in Korean. Because I do not have any further information, I can only conjecture as to why. One idea that might offer an explanation is the difficulty of translating the text from one language to another. Although there are text translators, I contend that the nuanced meanings and author's voice can be lost in a subpar translation. Another possible explanation is the possibility that the child's understanding of Korean is limited and they do not possess the transferable language skills needed to have a discussion.

The two responses mirrored individual instances when different parents had expressed their concerns unique to their individual situation and supporting their child. In response to the trend, I verbally encouraged the parents to do what they could, and put more effort into updating summaries and questions on each padlet.

The padlet was ineffective as the support I intended it to be, for the parents and the students. I posed the question of the padlet's effectiveness to myself early in the process. But I did not document its usefulness on a survey, rather I note this tendency because of informal data in the form of questions about role assignments and requests for questions to guide or support reading, as well as a simple periodic audits of who had signed into the padlet, responded to question on the padlet, or made posts. These combined trends lead, me to conclude that the padlet was not the support I had intended it to be. My conclusion was further supported by a parent's suggestion for improvement: "give and share some query and question" (Parent Survey, May 2016).

Implications

At the end of reviewing the process and the findings a few truths are apparent to me:
Based upon the data, students' opportunities for unique interactions with literature was impacted by the presence of the parents because of the personalized nature of the

connections. As a result of the unique interactions, the children found relevancy in reading and their persistence increased. A student who stated, “I hate reading in any language!” (Classroom conversation, Spring 2016) shared, “ I finished 4 English books, the most I have ever read. I am proud, my mother is proud.” (Student interview, May 2016) In a conversation on celebration night at the club’s final meeting, his mother beamed as she confirmed he would continue in book club because he finished more books than he ever had (June, 2016). Parent involvement affected the children positively.

The participants’ interests demonstrated in various discussions were examples of two of Gambrell’s (2011) seven rules of engagement, those of relevancy and opportunities for social engagement. Without parent involvement, the conversations would not have had the same quality of meaning for the children. The WNBC with parent participation will start again with the beginning of the new school year; as a teacher I can facilitate that discussion, and support student motivation by identifying or designing more ways for the whole group to continue finding relevancy in reading.

A related finding in the data suggested that parents attempted to be involved but met obstacles. The intervention I used was ineffective for the intent for which it was designed and only successful in specific cases. The use of the Padlets was successful when used in class as a resource, but not as an organizational tool. Its ineffectiveness was proven by the number of WNBC members who signed into each book padlet, usually only one or two, aside from myself. To be successful, the use of the padlet by members needs to fulfill a driving need, such accessing the audio book. Bromley (2014) described a number of ways to use digital media for cooperative activities in literature circles. I initially started to use Padlet as a simple organizational tool, but I found a needed to have a simple, collaborative, communication platform to share information between each meeting. The students were familiar with Padlet so I thought it would be an appropriate tool. In class, Padlets were useful as a resource point for specific needs, such as an audiobook version of the text. However, without explicit reference or need, the support was ineffective. This implies the need for planning more meaningful use of the platform within the club meeting time and training the group to use the resource. As an organizational or record keeping tool, the platform was valuable to me. Having a digital board provided me a space on which to gather resources as well as to create a visual reminder of the overall progress and development of the book discussions and roles for the students.

I considered a number of other questions as I thought through the implications of the study, many related to parents: What if I knew more about each parent participant and developed activities with their talents in mind? What if I trained the parents about the roles I attempted to use in book club? What if parents also took on a role in the discussion and partnered with their student to fulfill a role? Others related to the students: What would happen if the group was not primarily Korean but more culturally diverse? What if the group also included girls? If I reviewed the intent of each role with the students and practiced, would more challenging texts then become more accessible? Within the context and constraints of the study and given the short period of time, the simple focus on parent participation and its impact on student motivation was sufficient.

And finally, as I examined the evidence, the patterns I discussed emerged, but so did the need to address an overarching question, that of what actually happens when parents are the classroom. Research emphasizes the importance of parent involvement and parent knowledge to support students. As a teacher, when this opportunity came, I entered into it with rose colored glasses or a romanticised view of the possibilities; based upon my own prior experiences in a book club, I even baked cookies! However, over the weeks of the club, I started to notice a change in my interactions with parents, particularly the parent spokesperson. We shared a mutual enthusiasm of reading, and as we were both starting book clubs, we shared information, resources and observations. Our relationship changed from one I was familiar with, teacher/parent, to one that I had not expected: collaborators.

I questioned myself and as I reflected on this project, I found myself also developing different relationships with each parent, though not all to the same degree. This development of a different relationship with parents was a natural outcome of sharing experiences. It seems obvious at this point, but as I entered into the project, I have to admit my mind and ideas were focused on the students, with little acknowledgement of the impact of active parent participation on my role within the book club. Although I did not fully realize it until I analyzed the data, the overarching theme that emerged, with parents as active participants alongside their children in a book club, is that a book club has the potential to become a collaborative effort between the parent group and the teacher for the benefit of students.

Parent support is powerful, and when we are in a position to include parents, we have to make the decision to move forward or not. If we decide to move forward, we must keep in mind a few points: communication is extremely important; share expectations; share concerns; and share resources. As you share, keep in mind, you continue to be in a position of power and responsibility because you are still working with students thus confidentiality applies more than ever. Keep in mind that there are underlying assumptions, motivations and expectations each stakeholder brings to the collaboration. Ultimately, the practitioner who decided to include parents must make efforts to continue to build this collaborative relationship slowly and carefully.

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Correlation between Learner Autonomy and English Proficiency: An Experimental Study through Project-Based Learning

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Abstract
Learner autonomy has played an important role in language learning. However, this concept has been underdeveloped in Asian contexts where the teacher's role is still dominant. Learner autonomy has been proven to have a close correlation with English proficiency. This paper describes an experimental study which examines the correlation between learner autonomy and their English proficiency through English-learning projects over a semester. Seventy-one students of Economics at a university in Vietnam participated in this study in which one class of thirty-three students known as the Experimental Group participated in the English-learning projects while another class of thirty-eight students known as the Control Group followed the normal learning schedule. Data collection includes (1) questionnaires of learner autonomy for both groups before and after the projects; (2) the experimental group's reflective journals about their participation in the projects; (3) both groups' final achievement scores of the English course. The findings show that there is a strong and significant correlation between the Experimental Group's learner autonomy which was developed during their English-learning projects and their English proficiency at the end of the course. The Experimental Group also offers positive reflections on the development of their learner autonomy through the projects which consequently enhanced their English proficiency. The study suggests that language learning programmes should promote learner autonomy through project-based learning which can greatly contribute to their language proficiency.

Keywords: correlation, learner autonomy, English proficiency, project-based learning, language learning

Introduction

In the globalized world, together with the popularity of English worldwide, English proficiency has become an essential asset for students of any study major to meet the employment requirements after graduation. To achieve a good level of English proficiency, learner autonomy is getting more and more crucial as it is considered as one of the most important educational goals today (Benson and Huang, 2008).

Previous studies in Asia have shown a positive correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency (Myartawan, Latief and Suharmanto, 2013; Nguyen, 2010; Sakai and Takagi, 2009; Trinh, 2005; Valadi and Rashidi, 2014; Zafarian and Nemati, 2016). As learner autonomy is still of peripheral importance in EFL learning in Vietnam, this study was carried out to meet the demands in enhancing learner awareness of the importance of learner autonomy in language learning. An experimental study was conducted through project-based learning to investigate the impact of learner autonomy on their English proficiency.

Literature Review

Definitions of learner autonomy

Learner autonomy was considered to be appropriate in the Western education context rather than the Asian one (Lamb, 2004). This assumption probably comes from the view that Asian students were thought to be passive and dependent too much on the teacher and therefore their learner autonomy was underdeveloped. However, this view has underestimated Asian students as researchers claim that some lecturers have been successful in developing learner autonomy among Asian students (Morimoto, 2006; Waikui, 2006).

Learner autonomy is defined as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (Holec, 1981, p.3). This means that learners have “a power or capacity to do something” (ibid, p.3) that enables them “to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning” (Benson, 1981, p.3). Dickinson (1987, citied in Benson & Huang, 2008) claims that learner’s capacity to take charge of their own learning needs to be put into use in “situations in which learning proceeds independently of teachers or specially prepared teaching materials” (p.3). However, Benson (2001) argues that there is a lack of learner’s self-management of learning in Holec’s (1981) definition of learner autonomy. He argues that learner autonomy is a multi-dimensional construct that involves three interrelated levels of control over learning: control over learning management, control over cognitive processes and control over learning content. In addition, learner autonomy is also a social construct which is defined as “the competence to develop as a self-determined, socially responsible, and critically aware participant in (and beyond) educational environments, within a vision of education as (inter) personal empowerment and social transformation” (Jiménez Raya, Lam and Viera, 2017, p.1). In short, learner autonomy involves not only learners’ responsibility for their own learning, but also their self-management of learning and social responsibility in educational environments.

Correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency in Asia

Studies on English language teaching in countries in Asia have shown that learner autonomy is closely related to their English proficiency. Dafei (2007) studied 129 non-English students at a university of education in China, indicating that the students' English proficiency was significantly and positively correlated with their learner autonomy. Sakai and Takagi's (2009) study with 721 students from 16 universities in Japan showed that there were significant differences between learner autonomy and their English competency among the three groups of students including independent users, independent learners and dependent learners. Myartawan *et al.* (2013) studied 120 first-year English language students at a public school in Bali, Indonesia, showing that there was a strong, positive and significant correlation between learner autonomy and their English proficiency. Two other studies of English language students in Iran also showed that the learners' oral and reading comprehension abilities were positively correlated with their learner autonomy (Valadi & Rashidi, 2014; Zafarian & Nemati, 2016). Furthermore, Zafarian and Nemati (2016) also claim that learner autonomy can predict learners' language competency. The studies above imply that the higher learners' self-ability to learn is, the more likely they are to achieve a better English proficiency.

In Vietnam, some researchers have expressed interest in developing learner autonomy for Vietnamese students. Trinh (2005) developed learner autonomy by adapting and refining the curriculum based on task-based learning. Dang (2010) analyzed the situation of English language teaching in Vietnam, showing that the coordination of attributes from the resources, the learners and the teaching-learning context play an important role in promoting learner autonomy. Nguyen (2010) also showed the positive relationship between learner autonomy and language competency in her study and concluded that Vietnamese students have the capacity for autonomous learning if they are trained with metacognitive skills in planning, monitoring and evaluation. These studies have shed light on the development of learner autonomy in the context of EFL education in Vietnam where learner autonomy is still considered peripheral in language learning.

Project-based learning

Project-based learning (PBL) has become very popular in language teaching and learning. The Buck Institute for Education defines PBL as "a systematic teaching method that engages students in learning knowledge and skills through an extended inquiry process structured around complex, authentic (real-life) questions and carefully designed products and tasks" (Markham, 2003, p. 4). PBL is a learner-centred approach that is based on three constructivist principles: context-specific learning, active learning and sharing of knowledge and understanding (Cocco, 2006). In the process of PBL, learners are provided with opportunities to "construct knowledge by solving real problems through asking and refining questions, designing and conducting investigations, gathering, analysing, and interpreting information and data, drawing conclusions, and reporting findings' (Blumenfeld, Fishman, Krajcik, Marx and Soloway, 2000, p.150). This inquiry-based learning provided in a context of learning through authentic questions and problems within real-world practices (Al-Balushi & Al-Aamri, 2014) enables learners to get meaningful learning experiences

(Wurdinger, Haar, Hugg & Bezon, 2007) and achieve a shared goal through collaboration to construct and present an end product (Kokotsaki, Menzies and Wiggins, 2016). PBL is therefore a form of experiential learning in which learners consciously engage in and actively reflect on their own learning process (Helle, Tynjälä, & Olkinuora, 2006).

Research methodology

An experimental study was conducted to investigate the correlation between learner autonomy and their English proficiency through English-learning projects. Seventy-one students of Economics at a university in Vietnam participated in this study in which one class of thirty-three students known as the Experimental Group participated in the English-learning projects while another class of thirty-eight students known as the Control Group followed the normal learning schedule. The experimental study tries to answer the following research questions:

(1) How is learner autonomy in the Experimental Group (EG) different from the Control Group (CG)?
(2) What is the correlation between learner autonomy and their English proficiency in the two groups?
(3) How do the EG develop learner autonomy through their English-learning projects?

In order to answer the research questions above, data was collected from different resources including (a) questionnaires of learner autonomy for both groups; (b) the Experimental Group's reflective journals on their learner autonomy in the English-speaking projects; and (c) both groups' final achievement scores of the English course (English proficiency).

Before the start of the English-speaking projects, both the EG and CG completed the questionnaire of learner autonomy which is based on Borg and Busaidi (2012) and Nguyen (2010). The questionnaire consists of 53 questions on students' perceptions and practices of learner autonomy. Then, the English-learning projects were conducted for 10 weeks during a semester with the EG. The EG students were given specific steps to do the English-speaking projects. Six teams were formed to present six topics from the English-speaking material (IELTS Complete 4.0-5.0) with their own design and creativity. At the end of the projects, all the EG students were asked to present their projects in front of the class and get evaluation from other groups and the teacher's evaluation. The students were also required to submit a reflective journal in which they described how they had worked in teams and developed learner autonomy through the projects. Both the EG and CG also completed the questionnaire of learner autonomy again so that the development of learner autonomy in the EG after the English-speaking projects can be compared with the CG's learner autonomy.

For data analysis, independent samples t-tests were first performed to compare the two groups in terms of their learner autonomy. Then statistical computation using Pearson Product Moment Correlation was utilized to find out the correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency in the two groups.

Results and discussions

Learner autonomy in the two groups

In order to see differences between the two groups in terms of learner autonomy, independent samples t-tests were performed. These t-tests examined whether both groups were comparable before the English-learning projects and whether this intervention contributed to the development of learner autonomy in the EG. The results of the independent samples t-tests are given in Table 1.

The statistic significance for an independent-samples t-test is determined by the p-value (sig-2 tailed). As can be seen from the table 1, the p-value of the pre-questionnaire shows that there is no significant difference at the .05 level between the EG and CG regarding their learner autonomy (t (69) = .245, p>.05). This result indicates that both groups were similar in terms of their initial learner autonomy before the intervention of the English-learning projects; therefore, they can be comparable.

Table 1. Independent-samples t-tests for pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire in two groups

Tests	Groups	N	M	SD	t value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-Questionnaire	CG EG	38 33	2.91 2.98	.294 .192	1.174	69	.245
Post-Questionnaire	CG EG	38 33	2.92 3.20	.253 .351	3.855	69	000*

*Note: *p<.05; EG=Experimental Group; CG= Control Group, M= Mean; SD: Standard Deviation; M and SD are calculated on a five-point Likert scale.*

Ten weeks following the experimental period, the students in both groups completed the same questionnaire of learner autonomy a second time to provide pre-post questionnaire comparison data. The results of the post-questionaire in Table 1 show that there are statistically significant differences at the .05 level between the EG and the CG (t (69) = 3.855, p<.05) in terms of learner autonomy. This significant difference in learner autonomy must have resulted from the English-speaking projects that the EG has done over the semester.

Correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency

To examine whether there is any correlation between leaner autonomy and their English proficiency in both groups, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was performed. The Pearson correlation coefficient, also referred to as the Pearson's r, is a measure of the linear correlation between two variables. It has a value between +1 and −1, where 1 is total positive linear correlation, 0 is no linear correlation, and −1 is total negative linear correlation. The results of the correlations are given in Table 2.

Table 2. Correlations between learner autonomy and English proficiency in two groups

Group	LA and EP	Correlation	Learner autonomy	English proficiency
CG	Learner autonomy	Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 38	.112 .504 38
	English proficiency	Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.112 .504 38	1 38
EG	Learner autonomy	Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 33	.709** .000 33
	English proficiency	Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	.709** .000 33	1 33

*Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); EG=Experimental Group; CG= Control Group.*

The statistical analysis in Table 2 shows that there is a positive but weak correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency in the CG with r = .112, and this correlation is not significant at the 0.01 level (p>.01). On the other hand, there is a positive and strong correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency in the EG with r = .709 and the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (p<.01). This once again confirms that the intervention of the English-learning projects has enhanced learner autonomy which consequently leads to the improvement of English proficiency in the EG.

The enhancement of learner autonomy that leads to the improvement of English proficiency in the EG echoes with the previous studies (Dafei, 2007; Myartawan et al., 2013; Sakai & Takagi, 2009; Valadi & Rashidi, 2014; Zafarian & Nemati, 2016) which showed that there was a significant correlation between learner autonomy and English proficiency. The intervention of the English-speaking projects has greatly contributed to this significant correlation.

Development of learner autonomy through English-speaking projects

The EG students were divided into six teams which presented six English-speaking projects including *Great Places to Be, People's Lives, Transport, Inventions, Animal World* and *Being Human*. The EG students' reflective journals show that the development of learner autonomy through the English-speaking projects is evident in their self-initiation, collaboration and self-regulation.

Self-initiation

The EG students' self-initiation refers to their volition and willingness to learn without being forced by other people. Each group member took intiative in constructing their own knowledge for their English-learning projects based on the content of the lessons. They also took advantage of the resources available on the

Internet to seek further information to develop their English-learning projects. They made a lot of efforts to find the best information for their projects. The content of their final projects showed their deep research into the topics without any help from the teacher. This shows the students' ability to construct their own knowledge for their projects. This indicates that the students were able to develop self-management of learning in their control over learning content (Benson, 2001) from which their learner autonomy improved.

Collaboration

The EG students have effectively developed their collaboration through their English-learning projects. As soon as they received the timeline for their projects from the teacher, the student groups met up to decide upon each member's work and duties. Everyone had their identified task which contributed to the outcome of their project. The student groups chose to meet for discussion in different ways: face-face meetings or discussions on facebook. When they coud not find time for face-to-face meetings, they shared their work on facebook for the whole group to comment.

The students' collaboration is evident in the way they worked together and thought together without the need of a group leader. They followed a "*we all answer*" policy which means that everyone had to provide a suggestion. The students had to deal with different ideas or even opposite ideas of the group members. They commented on the ideas of each invidivual, suggesting which ideas should be used for the project and which ideas should be removed. They trusted each other, respected the opinions of others, and engaged in negotiations. Then they voted for the best ideas for the end product. After getting the teacher's feedback, the students worked together again in their teams, trying to revise their projects accordingly. The end product came from the efforts of the whole group; therefore, each member was willing to help each other whenever someone had a problem. The students tried to work out the best way to present their end product. The student groups creatively presented their projects in a variety of ways such as videos, photos, quizzes, crosswords, or posters. A combination of these various ways had made their projects more attractive and exciting. The students have consequently become autonomous learners through collaboration among the team members without any dependence on the task assignment of a group leader. The students' active learning and sharing of knowledge and understanding among team members reflected the constructivist principles of project-based learning (Cocco, 2006).

Self-regulation

The EG students have also enhanced their self-regulation through the English-learning projects. Self-regulation is "the highest form of cognitive engagement" (Pena Dix, 2013) that helped the students do their English-learning projects successfully. Their self-regulation was evident in the way they revised their projects after the teacher's feedback. At the beginning, the student groups have made their projects on a very narrow topic that did not cover important aspects of the main topic of their projects. From the teacher's feedback, they became aware of this drawback and tried to adopt a more effective learning strategy to revise their projects in a better way. They were able to reconstruct their projects, adjust their initial plans, and apply new strategies in order to make good final products. This indicates that the students were able to develp self-management of learning in their control over cognitive processes (Benson, 2001), which resulted in the improvement of their learner autonomy.

The students' self-regulation was also manifested through the way they controlled their emotions during the time they were doing their projects. For instance, the topic "Being Human" seemed quite difficult for a group to deal with as they did not know what they would talk about. However, they did not want to give up as one student stated: "It is not a good idea to give up when you encounter difficulties". Instead, they were able to self-regulate their emotions and tried to work out the best way to do their project. It is the development of their self-regulation through the projects that helped the students become autonomous learners.

Conclusions

This study has proven that learner autonomy can be developed in an Asian education context when students are given oppportunies to engage in English-learning projects. The study has shown that there is a strong and significant correlation between learner autonomy and their English proficiency and project-based learning greatly contributes to the enhancement of learner autonomy which consequently improves learners' language proficiency. It is suggested that language programmes should promote project-based learning so that it can develop learner autonomy and improve their language proficiency.

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Developing Vocabulary for Foreigners Using Mindmapping

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Abstract
The pivotal beginning for teaching a language to foreigners is improving and expanding on their vocabulary. This builds up a resource for the learners to further develop their communication skills as well as easily approach to indigenous culture. This case study explains the importance of increasing vocabulary for foreigners learning the second language; how to build up and apply a mind mapping technique to develop the vocabulary based on the associative and imaginary relationship and connect presupposed knowledge of the learners. A quantitative data analysis approach was incorporated using questionnaires and by examining sample tests of 15 Vietnamese students learning English in Hanoi National University of Education. Data was collected from students making a survey and tests during a 3-month-course of studying the second language. The result indicates that building vocabulary with mindmaps helps the learners enrich their vocabulary quickly and scientifically. The collection of words will become organized and systematic instead of a messy and random gathering. Thus, their capability to use their vocabulary to read, listen, speak and write will be dramatically enhanced. Increasing vocabulary for foreigners will be an initial step for developing their communication skills and understanding of local culture. The findings will contribute to teaching field and bring the learners of a second language closer to the linguistic empathy.

Keywords: vocabulary development, mindmap

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Introduction

The role of vocabulary and teaching strategies for vocabulary development

The study of teaching and vocabulary development for foreign language learners is not a new issue in both applied linguistics and teaching methods. For a long time, researchers have confirmed the role and importance of vocabulary development in learning a language and adopting a culture. According to Steven Stahl (2005), “Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world.” and teaching word meanings should be a way for students to define their world, to a more fine-grained description of the colors that surround us.

Vocabulary plays such an important role, or even a central role in English language arts teaching and it should be considered as the main key to learn English. It is a means to communicate with others and to express ideas, desires or emotion. Richard (2001) states that vocabulary is one of the most obvious components of language, and one of the first things applied linguistics turned their attention. In any communication, vocabulary makes sense to assess students' comprehension and mastery of essential words and phrases introduced during the course of a unit or lesson.

In terms of teaching, vocabulary development is an essential content that teachers need to prepare for students, which helps create an optimal learning method for them: both improve their vocabulary with direct and explicit instruction provided by teachers and develop their vocabulary at home by self-study. Having done that, the students came closer to the land of the second language and became familiar with the land.

Mindmapping and teaching strategies for vocabulary development with mind mapping

Mind mapping is a power graphic technique and tool that was initiated by Tony and Barry Buzan in the 1960s. Derived from the idea of realizing the way the human brain operates, the mind map harnesses the ability to associate, imagine and connect elements into a unified whole. That unified whole, therefore, is an organic network that is rooted as a keyword, an idea and is constantly expanding based on affiliation. Looking at a mind map, readers can identify the “spiritual face”, understand the connection in thought and analyze the association of the creator. Thereby, readers can assess some of the logical capacity, image and real-life experience... of that person.

Regarding teaching strategies for vocabulary development, semantic maps are supposed to be popular method which can be shown by mind maps. These semantic maps help students develop connections among words and increase learning of vocabulary words (Baumann et al., 2003; Heimlich and Pittleman, 1986). Mapping can enrich not only students’ word comprehension and good understanding but also their vocabulary, because through this way they may image and memorize many vocabularies in one time. For example, maps show words with the same topic; maps show words with the same prefix, etc... Students can actually know and remember many vocabularies but this way can help students to map and classify through the issue given by instructors. They will find the words from the general words to the specific one.

The previous studies have highlighted the role of vocabulary in teaching foreign languages as well as identifying effective vocabulary teaching strategies. However, just few studies compare the difference between having and not having mind mapping in teaching. This work focuses on students' changes when learning vocabulary with mind mapping. In order to do that, the study will address these two following research questions:

Does mind mapping really make a difference in learning vocabulary?
What are the benefits of studying vocabulary with mind mapping?

Method of studying

Participants and context

Prior to the case study, we made a survey to find out the students' vocabulary learning. 88 students who are studying English in Hanoi National University of Education and Hanoi University are randomly selected to participate in the survey. Questions related to the understanding of mind mapping, the practice of teaching vocabulary and the desires as well as difficulties of students in the learning process.
After receving the survey result, a case study was conducted in a foreign language class of the Hanoi National University of Education. 15 participants (8 male and 7 female) are Vietnamese students who have graduated from the University and are continuing their second degree in English pedagogy. They are at the age of 22 to 26 and have studied English for at least 5 years since high school until they had their first degrees. Students' average level of English proficiency is quite good and meets the B1 level in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). However, due to the different learning experiences, the language ability is markedly different. The development of vocabulary therefore manifests itself with a tendency: Students need to develop vocabulary intensive because they have a basic understanding of language.

Data collection

To ensure objectivity and honesty for this project, the researcher conducted three phases: (1) examine students' existing vocabulary; (2) organize students to take a vocabulary quiz; (3) instruct students to learn vocabulary with mind mapping, then count and process student test results to draw a comment. Two sources of data collection are questionnaires and tests.

On the questionnaire, we asked students 8 fixed questions with 4 Likert scale questions and 4 multiple choice questions; two additional questions for students who have learned vocabulary with mind mapping - a Likert scale question and a multiple choice question. As a minimum, students answer eight questions - four Likert questions, four multi-choice questions, and a maximum of ten questions with five questions per category.

About the test, the study is divided into two steps. The first step consists of 15 students taking the 10-minute test with a request to brainstorm and list all English words that the student knows as many as possible, without any prescriptive rules. The second step is that after collecting the results, teachers spend time instructing students to study vocabulary with mind maps. Every single week, students take a new test with the same requirement as the first test. Continue this activity repeatedly until each student has taken the 3 tests # 2, # 3 and # 4.

The whole process of experimentation can be summarized as follows:

Questionaires

- 8 fixed questions (4 Likert scale questions + 4 multi-choice questions)
- 2 extra questions
- 88 students

Tests

- Step 1 - Test #1: 10 minutes; listing words
- Step 2 - Test #2,3,4: 10 minutes for each; mindmapping
- 15 students

Results

Survey results

Table 1. *Question 1-4. Some common issue of teaching and learning with mindmaps*

No of Question	Content	Always (100%)	(75%)	Sometimes (50%)	(25%)	Never (0%)
1	Have you ever learnt any subjects with mindmap?	4 (4.5%)	9 (10.2%)	40 (45.5%)	10 (11.4%)	25 (28.4%)
2	Have you ever applied mindmap to your study?	5 (5.7%)	11 (12.5%)	41 (46.6%)	6 (6.8%)	25 (28.4%)
3	Does your teacher teach vocabolary using mindmap?	7 (8.0%)	21 (23.9%)	36 (40.9%)	17 (19.3%)	7 (8%)
4	Do you have demand on learning vocabulary using mindmap?	29 (33%)	12 (13.6%)	31 (35.2%)	11 (12.5%)	5 (5.7%)

The first two questions approach students' understanding of mind mapping through being taught and self-taught. According to the results obtained, not many students have been taught or taught themselves with mind maps on a regular basis. About half of students are sometimes taught with mind mapping (45.5%) or have applied mind mapping in their studies (46.6%). Meanwhile, a large number of students have never been exposed to mind mapping while studying (28.4%). That reflects exactly what is often happening in language classes in Vietnam: teachers usually use presenting and listing as mainstream to provide new words.

With further inference from the application of mind mapping into vocabulary teaching, the results in question 3 indicate that 8% of teachers use other methods to teach vocabulary rather than mind mapping. However, there are still a significant number of teachers who use mind mapping in vocabulary building: 31.9% of students said that the teacher always (8%) or regularly (23.9%) used; While 60.2% of teachers have sometimes (19.3%) or rarely (40.9%) used.

With regard to desires in the 4th question, it can be seen that nearly half of students want to learn vocabulary with mind mapping: 33% always want, 13.6% often want; while 47.7% of students sometimes want. Considering this result, it is easy to conclude the majority of students really want to study with a useful tool such as mind mapping.

For the teaching methodology, the survey focuses on some following issues:

Table 2. *Question 5. How does your teacher teach vocabulary?*

Teach vocabulary in a specific lesson in the textbook	55	62.5%
Teach vocabulary by topic chosen by the teachers	28	31.8%
Teach vocabulary randomly when encountering specific examples	22	25%
Do not teach vocabulary	1	1.1%

There are many different methods to teach vocabulary to students. With the methods we have listed based on previous studies, 62.5% of students said they learned vocabulary associated with a textbook lesson. Many students can not learn new vocabulary with the self-built subjects provided by teachers or learn by themselves with a specific example outside the book.

Table 3. *Question 6. How does your teacher interpret new words?*

Interpreting words by dictionary	8	9.1%
Interpretating words by putting words into context (sentences)	44	50%
Interpretating words by examples in practice	52	59.1%
Interpretating words by synonyms / antonyms	21	23.9%
Different ways	5	5.7%

Interpretation is important because understanding the meaning of words will provide students with the context of the passage and practice reading, listening, speaking and writing more effectively. According to the survey, the majority of words are interpreted to students in two ways: by practical example (put in a communication context) and by synonyms/antonyms (in terms of homogeneous - opposite of words). Also, these are two of the most common methods of teaching language.

Table 4. *Question 7. How do you learn vocabulary?*

Learn by recording words that are visible, heard, and readable	36	40.9%
Classroom instruction provided throughout the teaching session	39	44.3%
Learn more on websites, magazines, reference materials	27	30.7%
Self-study by topics which are associated with a certain lesson	13	14.8%
Do not learn vocabulary	0	0%

Self-study vocabulary of students has three main trends: The most common one is classrooms with teachers, with vocabulary provided by teachers (44.3%); followed by self-learning from the exposure in practice (40.9%) and finally self-study on websites, magazines and reference materials (30.7%).

Table 5. *Question 8. What are your difficulties in learning vocabulary?*

You are not interested in learning vocabulary	12	13.6%
Too many new words need to be learned but you do not have time to learn	18	20.5%
Too many new words to learn but you do not know how to memorize effectively	46	52.3%
You do not have good learning methods	28	31.8%
Other reasons	0	0%

It is because of such teaching and learning that many students find it difficult to learn vocabulary. More than half of students keep thinking that there are too many new words to learn without effective learning methods, resulting in unrememberable vocabulary (52.3%) or forgetfulness (31.8%). That is why a student can learn the language over a long period, but their vocabulary is limited, resulting in difficulties in mobilizing and using words in expression.

However, between aspirations and difficulties is still a certain distance. This can be seen from question 9 and 10, two extra questions for students who have ever done mindmapping to learn vocabulary. Of the 88 students enrolled in the survey, 25 had never been taught or learnt with mind maps, so only 63 students answered these two questions.

Table 6. *Question 9*

No of Question	Content	Always (100%)	(75%)	Sometimes (50%)	(25%)	Never (0%)
9	*Have you got any problem with learning vocabulary using mindmap?*	*5 (7.9%)*	*17 (27%)*	*30 (47.6%)*	*9 (14.3%)*	*2 (3.2%)*

Not many students feel that they have no difficulty with the mind map: only 3.2% never. Most students are still confused while studying. To find out why, we have had some random interviews and they have shared about some specific difficulties such as: They are not guided how to use, they do not know how to develop sub-branches in the map, and their ability to associate is not good, ...

***Table** 7. Question 10. What have you achieved when learning vocabulary with mindmaps?*

Learn more new words	*44*	*69.9%*
Remember words and meanings better	*40*	*63.5%*
Broader subject-based words better	*44*	*69.9%*
Get the words' meaning better	*32*	*50.8%*
Self-study is more effective	*31*	*49.2%*

In addition to 25 students who do not have access to mind mapping in their studies, the other 63 students recognize the effects of learning vocabulary with mind mapping. In which, the three most obvious benefits are mind mapping helping students learn more words (50%), better memorization (45.5%), and expanded topic-based vocabulary (50%). This result more or less shows that students appreciate the role of mind mapping in learning.

Test results

Of the 88 students surveyed, only 15 students participated in the case study on vocabulary teaching with mind mapping. At each experimental stage, we obtained different results:

Table 8. *Statistics of test results*

	Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	Test 4
Best	**102**	**85**	**87**	**98**
Worst	**61**	**55**	**58**	**59**
Student#3	58	82	87	96
Student#4	83	79	76	80
Student#5	77	67	77	79
Student#6	61	67	67	72
Student#7	71	57	64	63
Student#8	72	73	82	89
Student#9	57	78	64	80
Student#10	66	84	79	91
Student#11	89	61	69	77
Student#12	93	58	69	66
Student#13	79	72	65	71
Student#14	91	70	84	79
Student#15	73	63	77	95
Total	1133	1051	1105	1195
Average	**75.5**	**70.1**	**73.7**	**79.7**

Discussion

As Yin (2009) states, case studies are "an empirical enquiry that investigates contemporary phenonenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and contexts are not clearly evident" (p.14). The results of this study reflect a picture in which there are indications of differences in the accumulation and development of vocabulary of learners.

On learning vocabulary in a different method:

Students can immediately list a large number of words but many words appear randomly. It means that there is no connection, or it's hard to find the connection between the words if there are "spaces" between them. Therefore, the learner's search logic is not visible at all. Moreover, listed words are not in different fields. Most of words are familiar and often refer to the person or thing to identify people, things, phenomena, hobbies, habits, activities... which are close to everyday life of learners. A few words appearing frequently in the test are *family, father, mother, football, dog, cat, sleep, music, song, rain, sun, ect...* There are not many difficult words, less frequent or express multi-sectoral links. Those ideas lead us to the point that the students' ability to improve their vocabulary is not good. It does not focus on improvement, but focuses more on memorizing repetitive words, which are commonly used in life. In fact, there is a wide range in students' word knowledge between one and others. Hart & Risley (1995) state that as early as age 5, there is a

30-million-word exposure gap between "haves" and "have nots". The results of this gap are shown in students' learning, particularly reading comprehension because vocabulary instruction improves reading comprehension (Stahl). So if they don’t achieve a wide range of words, it’s hard to do well reading or daily-communicating.

About learning vocabulary with mind mapping, we made two comparisons:

Compare the results of test 2, 3, 4 with test 1:
The statistics show that the number of vocabularies listed by students is not different compared to the usual linear type. However, the words have rules and the relationship between the words can be recognized. This relationship is shown on the connections of the mind map branches. There are several common types of contacts:

(1) Direct contact between words, which are directly connected to each other by a continuous branch.
(2) Indirect contact between words, which are not connected, not directly connected by a continuous branch. It can be a disconnected connection in the same direction of deployment or as a disconnection between words belonging to different branches of association.
(3) Contact can be decoded based on the objective relationship between the phenomenon and things.
(4) Contacts can only be decoded based on finding the intent, the subjective experience of the creator.

Harmer (1991) divides vocabulary into two types including: (1) Active vocabulary refers to vocabulary that has been learned by students and expected to be used; (2) Passive vocabulary refers to word which the students will recognize when they meet them but which they will probably not be able to produce. Following this classification, as can be seen that both active and passive vocabulary appear in students’ maps. We asked students to mark what words they hardly use in every test, and in three random samples (one from each of the three tests), these words take approximately 10 to 15 per cent for each. However, based on the branches of the mind map, readers easily recognize the search logic, evolving from the individual learner, regardless of the type of relationship. In addition, words seem to have their own place and meaning in the vocabulary system. They are not a single or random phenomenon. Besides, words are multi-disciplinary that belongs to many different vocabulary fields, not limited to only a few familiar fields as listed in test 1. In other words, the scope of the student’s vocabulary is broader and richer.

Compare the results between tests 2, 3, 4 together:
The average amount of students increased steadily despite the fact that there were no real mutations. This can be explained by many different objective and subjective reasons such as study time with mind maps is not long enough when each test is only 1-2 weeks apart; the ability to work with the mind map as well as the self-learning capacity of each student is not equal... Beck et al. (2008) recommend that a dedicated teacher can teach about 300-400 words per year, but due to what students have in the tests, teachers are able to think of a larger number.

The system of words is maintained quite stable. Link between words or phrases is more robust and diverse. Vocabulary is list of words with their meaning (Hornby, 1974). Thus, the ability to memorize the words of a student is better when establishing or self-establishing this connection. It means that whenever learning a word, the student does not recognize it as a single phenomenon but rather as a point in an extended system. This point has its place and is also related to other points. Based on that, memorizing or expanding vocabulary can be an acquisition of a system.

The ability to mobilize vocabulary from many fields of meaning, many situations is enhanced. The word range has a significant increase, connecting familiar areas to life and even highly specialized areas. In foreign language arts instruction, it is useful to make a distinction between student's *receptive* vocabulary and *expressive* vocabulary. A student's receptive vocabulary includes words that the student may recognize or understand in a given situation but may not be able to use it in a practical situation. Meanwhile, a student’s expressive vocabulary is the words that the student tend to use more confidently and appropriately. Bringing this classification into the mind maps shows that students tend to use more of the expressive words while restricting the receptive words. However, expanding the link and connection in the maps still requires receptive words appear. Therefore, the vocabulary has been developing.

Conclusions

Mindmapping can be not only an effective tool of learning but also a flexible mind-technique that helps students think and study more active. It develops students’ vocabulary by broadening the ability of thinking and imagining. Thus, what students have is not limited to what is familiar or repititive.

Effective intentional vocabulary instructions contains teaching words-learning strategies that students can use independently (Graves, 2000). In this way, mindmapping does improve students’ self-studying skill. Mapping method will help the students to construct and organize their ideas although the students still unclear with it. They will have a growing tendency to question themselves and formulate the theme visually. Therefore, they always find their own answer to the point how one word can connect to another and easily keep that in mind.

The result also indicates that building vocabulary with mindmaps helps the learners enrich their vocabulary quickly and scientifically. The collection of words will become organized and systematic collocations instead of a messy and random gathering. The findings hope to contribute to teaching field and bring the second language learners closer to the linguistic empathy.

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Appendix A: Student Survey

1. Have you ever leant any subjects with mindmap?

100%	75%	50%	25%	0%
Always		Sometimes		Never

2. Have you ever applied mindmap to your study?

100%	75%	50%	25%	0%
Always		Sometimes		Never

3. Does your teacher teach vocabolary using mindmap?

100%	75%	50%	25%	0%
Always		Sometimes		Never

4. Do you have demand on learning vocabulary using mindmap?

100%	75%	50%	25%	0%
Always		Sometimes		Never

5. How does your teacher teach vocabulary?

Teach vocabulary in a specific lesson in the textbook	
Teach vocabulary by topic chosen by the teachers	
Teach vocabulary randomly when encountering specific examples	
Do not teach vocabulary	

6. How does your teacher interpret new words?

Interpreting words by dictionary	
Interpretating words by putting words into context (sentences)	
Interpretating words by examples in practice	
Interpretating words by synonyms / antonyms	
Different ways	

7. How do you learn vocabulary?

Learn by recording words that are visible, heard, and readable	
Classroom instruction provided throughout the teaching session	
Learn more on websites, magazines, reference materials	
Self-study by topics which are associated with a certain lesson	
Do not learn vocabulary	

8. What are your difficulties in learning vocabulary?

You are not interested in learning vocabulary	
Too many new words need to be learned but you do not have time to learn	
Too many new words to learn but you do not know how to memorize effectively	
You do not have good learning methods	
Other reasons	

Please answer these following questions if you have ever learnt with mind maps!

9. Have you got any problem with learning vocabulary using mindmap?

100%	75%	50%	25%	0%
Always		Sometimes		Never

10. What have you achieved when learning vocabulary with mindmaps?

Learn more new words	44	50%
Remember words and meanings better	40	45.5%
Broader subject-based words better	44	50%
Get the words' meaning better	32	36.4%
Self-study is more effective	31	35.2%

Appendix B. Tests

Test 1. Listing all the English words as much as you can in 10 minutes.

Test 2/3/4. Using mindmapping to note down as many English words as possible.

Surviving in the Hegemonic Spread of English: Implications for English Language Teaching (ELT) in Rural China

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Abstract
This paper is intended for examining what make(s) China strive for a universal provision of English language teaching (ELT). More specifically, I attempt to explore in what ways English has been legitimized as a required school course in rural China and why it might perpetuate the urban-rural educational inequalities. I use the concept of "hegemonic spread of English" as a blend on the one hand of the global spread of English, and the current hegemony of English on the other hand. I begin this paper by describing a pervasive belief in the global spread of English, linking it with how English has been taken up in China. I then describe the myth that English language acquisition equals upward social mobility, discussing how rural students tend to have access only to "low-mobility form of English," which makes their reliance on school success for social transformation becomes difficult. I conclude by indicating pedagogical approaches that take the hegemonic spread of English into account should be introduced and practiced in English language classrooms in rural China.

Keywords: English language teaching (ELT), rural China, hegemonic spread of English

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Introduction

English has been widely perceived as a global language (Crystal, 1997; Nunan, 2003) or international language (Jenkins, 2000; McKay, 2002). The two ways to describe English suggest a global spread of English or "the worldliness of English" (Pennycook, 2014), which is also reflected in terms such as World Englishes (Kachru, 1992; Kachru, Kachru, & Nelson, 2006), global Englishes (Pennycook, 2007), Lingua Franca English (LFE) (Seidlhofer, 2005; Canagarajah, 2007; Jenkins, 2007). There are scholars (e.g., Makoni & Pennycook, 2005; Canagarajah, 2007; Kubota & McKay, 2013) deconstructing the perception of English as a global language, and some scholars (e.g., Graddol, 1997, 2008) proposing the possibility that English may lose its current predominance in the near future. However, their voices have not attracted much attention since there is little sign that the worldwide expansion of English abates. Mainland China (hereafter "China") is a good example, as "the current popularity of English in China is unprecedented … the scale of the spread of English in China in recent decades has taken most observers by surprise" (Bolton & Graddol, 2012, p. 3). In China, English is increasingly emphasized as a priority foreign language and a compulsory subject at all levels of education. As stipulated by the 2011 English Curriculum Standard issued by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (PRC), English should be introduced as a compulsory subject in Grade 3 in primary schools. Indeed, China is an important player in the global spread of English because English has made great inroads into its educational systems—both public and private sectors (Hu & McKay, 2012).

The national zeal for learning English does not exclude rural China. Although poorly resourced primary schools, most of which are located in rural areas, are exempted from the obligation to provide English courses, English remains a compulsory subject in secondary education. In contrast with cities where foreigners use English as a L1 or it is used as a lingua franca in global communication, in rural areas English does not serve as a communication tool. It is true that rural areas are experiencing monolingual-to-multilingual changes with marriages involving women from some Southeast Asian countries, and with an increase of domestic migrant workers who bring new languages/dialects[1] to local communities. This is particularly true in those areas located in developed places and adjacent to big cities. However, in these areas, *Putonghua* (or the *Common Speech*, which is a variety of Mandarin Chinese and a national language of the PRC) and the local languages/dialects are often used as lingua franca. I'm, therefore, interested in exploring: In what ways does globalization relate to China's striving for a nationwide provision of English language education? In rural China, why is English—not used as a contact language—widely taught, or why is its significance always emphasized within and outside of the educational context?

Answers to these questions are closely related to the hegemonic spread of English driven by the contemporary wave of globalization. I use the concept of hegemonic spread of English as a blend on the one hand of the global spread of English as suggested above, and the current hegemony of English on the other hand, where English is the most dominant language in this globalizing world (Tsuda, 2014), and is a "mythical common language" (Macedo, Dendrinos, & Gounari, 2016). I will argue that while there is a pervasive belief in the global spread of English and a belief in the inextricable link between English and upward social mobility, we should never overlook the hegemony of English against the backdrop of globalization. Below I will develop this argument from three perspectives, i.e., the pervasive belief in the global spread of English, English and social mobility, and critical responses to the global spread of English.

The Pervasive Belief in the Global Spread of English

One main controversy within the academic literature on globalization is whether globalization amounts to homogenization or heterogenization. In this regard, it is helpful to draw on Kumaravadivelu's (2008, p. 37) concept of cultural globalization that refers to "the process of cultural flows across the world." The scholar summarizes three schools of thought on cultural globalization, i.e., cultural homogenization, cultural heterogenization, and cultural glocalization. According to him, scholars who hold the view of cultural homogenization can be called "hyper-globalizers" because they believe there is "an emerging global culture that is rapidly changing the cultural profile of the world" (p. 39). They tend to equate globalization with Westernization, Americanization, and McDonaldization. He calls supporters of cultural heterogenization "localizers" as they foreground the local characteristics of globalization and consider "a multitude of local cultural identities are being revived and revitalized owing to real or perceived threats from the process of globalization" (p. 42). The proponents of the cultural glocalization are called "glocalizers," who believe cultures are mutually shaping each other during cultural transmission. Even though Kumaravadivelu does not discuss how English has been interwoven with cultural globalization (and globalization in general), it is safe to say that cultural homogenization premises a world spread of English, which is inextricably linked to Westernization or Americanization highly embraced by the "hyper-globalizers." The "localizers" attempt to separate "a diffusion of cultural fads from the West" from "cultural domination on the part of West." To put it in another way, despite the fact that they reject the proposition about the cultural dominance of the West, they admit the current spread of Western culture—the English language being an important element.

While Kumaravadivelu focuses on the concept of culture in general, Pennycook (2007) specifies the contrast between homogenization and heterogenization from the aspect of the English language. To explore the relationship between globalization and English, he employs the term "global Englishes," which is intended to blend critical theories of globalization with the perspective of World Englishes (WE) that takes English as a pluralized entity. Indeed, Pennycook's notion of global Englishes is a combination of "the homogeny position on global English" (p. 19), that foregrounds the role of English in homogenizing the world, and "the heterogeny position" (p. 20) on global English or the WE paradigm. It is then reasonable to conclude that both the global Englishes framework and the two positions on global English presuppose the global spread of English.

The worldwide spread of English driven by the current globalization is also discussed by Stephen May (2016) who, in his exploration of the relationship between globalization, localization, and language(s), notices a broad position that takes English as the current world language and the new means of global interchange. May's reference to the "Q value" or "communication value" of languages, which is developed by de Swaan as a method to measure the communicative reach, significance, and usefulness of languages in the world today, is particularly helpful in understanding the predominance of English in a hierarchy of languages. The Q value is represented by the notion of centrality and the higher the Q value is, the greater influence a language has. Within the Q value paradigm, de Swaan identifies around 100 languages as “central,” twelve as “supercentral,” and English as the only “hypercentral” with the highest Q value.

The broad position documented by May (2016) is helpful in answering the first question put above in the Introduction, i.e., In what ways does globalization relate to China’s striving for a nationwide provision of English language education? China has been involved in the hegemonic spread of English since the late 1970s when the policies of reform and opening up were initiated (Hu, 2005; Pan, 2015). Believing English was a world language that could play a significant role in China’s modernization, China started to revive and expand English language education, which had been confined and even outlawed during the first three decades after the establishment of the PRC (Hu, 2005; Bolton & Graddol, 2012). Since 1990s, China started to embrace English fully with a willingness to have a deeper involvement in globalization, and major events included China’s joining of the World Trade Organization (WTO) as well as being awarded and hosting the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing. As a result, more efforts have been made to achieve a universal provision of English language education (Nunan, 2003; Bolton & Graddol, 2012; Pan, 2015). Since 2001, English has been expanded into the primary curriculum, and introduced into tertiary education as a main teaching language in selected courses and a compulsory subject for all students. Therefore, the current popularity of English in China, especially in educational context, is greatly driven by the fact that the language is commonly perceived as an international language associated with modernity and modernization. Despite the fact that great efforts have been made to improve ELT provision and quality in China, there are inequalities—the urban-rural difference being a noticeable one (see, for example, in Nunan, 2003; Hu, 2003, 2005; Zhao & Jiang, 2009; Finifrock, 2010; Pan, 2015)—since, as May (2016) puts it, some people are clearly advantaged by globalization while others are greatly disadvantaged. As mentioned in the Introduction, not all primary schools in rural areas can offer English instruction as a result of limited resources. Other problems in rural English classrooms include teachers’ low professional competence and lack of language proficiency, a dominance of didactic pedagogy and a grammar-translation method, and little exposure to the task-based language learning embraced by the 2011 English Curriculum Standard, etc.

English and Social Mobility

Closely associated with the global spread of English is a wide belief that English language acquisition equals or is a prerequisite of upward social mobility, or English is the language of success. Under the hegemonic spread of English, access to English or lack of it often affects social mobility and life chances of many people who do not speak English as their L1 or L2 (Lin, 1999). Simply put, having access to English is often linked to enjoying a high social status. May (2012) points out that equating social mobility solely with majority languages—national languages and/or the current “world” language (namely, English)—is based on the assumption that the instrumental and identity aspects of language can be separated. In other words, minority languages are more likely to be linked with identity than instrumental value, whereas majority languages are conceived of as predominantly instrumental with little or no identity value. In the discourse that English is an international language, a new means of global interchange, and a fundamental basis of social mobility, English is perceived as an instrumental or value/identity-free language. English is therefore commodified, and extending access to the language is greatly emphasized particularly "in key domains like science and technology, as well as in education and the wider workplace" (May, 2016, p. 390). This primarily accounts for why debates on provision of English language education often take central stage in the globalised periphery countries and areas.

While English is conceived of as an equivalent of upward social mobility, it is necessary to point out its hegemonic nature against the backdrop of globalization and deconstruct this myth. For a deeper understanding of this argument, I would like to draw on Bourdieu's (1984) concepts of symbolic power and symbolic violence, which concern how representations of the world and human perceptions are imposed upon the dominated groups. Such groups tend to implicitly accept the legitimacy of those representations and perceptions such as the existing social order. This is where a social structure favored by the dominant groups is perpetuated. According to Bourdieu, this process is achieved through misrecognitions—the symbolic representations of majority language=instrumental value and modernity being a good example. Bourdieu's idea is echoed in Kramsch's (2009) arguments that language has the symbolic power of myth, which "highlights the fact that language makes meanings not only by referring to or standing for things in the world, but by evoking or indexing them" (p. 10). According to Kramsch, the indexical capacity of myth brings the subjective dimension of language (e.g., emotions, perceptions, and beliefs), and "when subjective beliefs are made to look as if they were natural, that myth distorts and manipulates" (p. 12). It is widely perceived that access to or speaking English is a symbol of cosmopolitan elites or middle-class status (as observed, for example, in Lin, 1999; Lee & Marshall, 2012; Kubota & McKay, 2013; López-Gopar & Sughrua, 2014). However, it is when this perception is imposed as objective that the predominance of English and the global power relations are perpetuated.

Actually, English acquisition masks rather than redresses deeper structural inequalities. It is existing elites who benefit most from English because of their preferential access to "high-mobility forms of English" with normative accents and standardized orthographies (May, 2016). With little access to English or access only to the "low-mobility forms of English" that are legitimatized as English only locally (Blommaert, 2010, p. 195), people who are marginalized in globalization could hardly achieve their goals of upward social mobility.

At this point, I would like to answer the second question put in the Introduction above, i.e., In rural China, why is English—not used as a contact language—widely taught, or why is its significance always emphasized within and outside of the educational context? Gao (2010, p. 35) argues that "Chinese students have strong instrumental and cultural motivation for learning English." According to him, instrumental motivation refers to learners' use of the language as an information medium for material purposes such as immediate achievement, individual development, going abroad, whereas cultural motivation refers to learning a language for symbolic purposes such as interests, a desire to go abroad or social obligation (e.g., family expectations). It is apparent that the motivations identified by Gao are mainly based on the belief that English is a language of success. Indeed, the general ideology that English language learners in China hold is that they will be denied success in education and career development if they are not efficient in English (Pan, 2015). This is especially true in rural China. Being aware that English is significant in succeeding Gaokao (the College Entrance Examination) and job market, rural students, who want to or are expected by parents to achieve an upward social mobility, have to set out on the arduous journey of learning English. Nevertheless, their investment of time, money, and emotion in learning English is less likely to be rewarding. Since 1990s when China started to embrace English fully, there is a low and decreasing rate of rural students who are enrolled into tertiary education and particularly into prestigious universities (Yang, 2006; Chen & Wei, 2013; Wang, 2013). For example, Wang (2013) points out that in 2010, Tsinghua university only admitted 17% students with rural origins while rural students accounted for 62% of all Gaokao test-takers; according to statistics conducted by a scholar at Beijing University, the rate of rural students at Beijing University has fallen from 3/10 in 1978-1998 to 1/10 in 2000-2013[2]. Although there seems no related statistics available to be drawn on, given the considerable proportion English takes up in Gaokao (normally 20%), to some extent a low degree of English proficiency accounts for many rural students' failure to go to universities. Or possibly, the English varieties they are taught do not conform to the national English assessment system that is tailored to urban English pedagogical needs.

With a "low-mobility form of English," rural students who manage to go to universities are not guaranteed to transform from their social status. These students are more likely to be frustrated by their "deaf English," which is used to describe the phenomenon that Chinese English language learners can read and write well but are incompetent in oral communication (Pan, 2015), than their urban peers who far outperform them in English speaking tests and job interviews where an English conversation is routine. In a six-month study of 439 Chinese students newly enrolled in a Singapore university, Hu (2005) found that students from more developed areas and those from less developed areas have no clear differences in knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary, but the former outperform their counterparts in higher-level language skills and more communicative language use. The low level of proficiency in spoken English particularly entrenches rural students' disadvantage in "global-scale transnational migration" (Li & Zhu, 2013, p. 517), either through studying abroad, where a gatekeeping strategy of English language proficiency test (e.g., IELTS and TOEFL) with oral module is usually applied, or through working in multinational institutions, in which English is often used as a communication tool. To sum up, with little access to the "high-mobility form of English," rural students and their urban peers who have more "cultural capital" do not compete from equal starting points. Their social stratification is thus reproduced and rural students' reliance on school success for transformation from their low social status becomes increasingly difficult.

Critical Responses to the Global Spread of English

While the position that highlights the instrumental value of English is broadly held, there are some lines of scholarship challenging the discourse that English is an international language. With his often cited account of "English linguistic imperialism," Phillipson (1992) is one of those pioneering scholars who point out the power asymmetry between English and other languages and question the predominant status of English. According to Phillipson (1992, p. 47), the imperialism of English lies in its dominance being "asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages." While this view has been commonly accepted by those worrying about the increasingly global spread of English, it has also attracted critiques. For instance, Pennycook (2007) argues the contrast between imperialism and local rights tends to inspire nationalist responses. In other words, in response to the threats of English imperialism, the local groups tend to adopt strong nationalist defenses of local language and culture, which might reach extremes and trigger new forms of linguistic and cultural imperialism.

Indeed, the hegemonic spread of English often entrenches nationalism, which advocates nationwide cultural and linguistic uniformity—the idea of selecting and establishing "national" language(s). According to May (2012, p. 135), the deliberate political act of choosing "national" language(s) leads to minoritizing or dialectizing other language varieties within the same nation-states, and "the historical and geopolitical situatedness of national languages also apply at the supranational level." He specifically compares the current predominance of English with the construction of national languages. English and national languages are often associated with modernity and modernization, whereas non-English national languages and the minority languages and dialects within nation-states are negatively linked with tradition and less value.

In the case of the PRC, selecting and establishing *Putonghua* as an official language endangers many other languages and dialects within the nation-state, and even causes language death. While many Sinitic varieties have been losing speakers and domains of use since 1950, *Putonghua* has been spreading rapidly (Moseley, 2010). The degree of endangerment of those languages will continue to increase, and "the process is accelerating with improvements in education and communications, and economic progress" (Moseley, 2010, p. 72), in which *Putonghua* usually functions as the medium of exchange. At the same time, both *Putonghua* and other domestic language varieties are facing the threats of the hegemonic spread of English. Vigilant about this "linguistic imperialism," the PRC government put English curriculum reform on its agenda in 2013 in an attempt to lower English's proportion in basic education. For instance, in 2016, Beijing, the national capital, lowered the points for English in the Gaokao from 150 to 100, while raising the points for the Chinese language from 150 to 180 that accounts for nearly a quarter of the examination (the total points are 750). The new policy aimed to remove the English portion from Gaokao by 2020, so students can apply for college with the higher score from two alternative English exams taken annually. Nevertheless, this de-emphasis on English does not mean the national cult for learning English will cool down sharply as the hegemonic spread of English is still the trend. Given the pervasive belief that English is a language of success, it is not difficult to understand why a resistance to the hegemony of English is resented rather than being embraced by many students and parents. On the contrary, this movement will have a negligible impact on English education in primary and secondary schools in the short term because "the universities have not changed their English admission requirements, but it could affect consumer spending on private test prep tutoring" (Adkins, 2015, p. 10). A boom in private English tutoring may exacerbate the disadvantages of rural English learners because of their lack of "economic capital." Indeed, most private English language schools mainly target urban English learners; as observed by Adkins (2015), China has over 50,000 English language schools, which are heavily concentrated in the economically developed areas.

Regarding the hegemonic spread of English, while nationalism is often interpreted as strong nationalist defenses of local languages and culture, it is also criticized for highlighting the uniformity of a nation-state and overlooking its internal diversity. The above mentioned World Englishes (WE) framework that "places nationalism at its core" (Pennycook, 2007, p. 20) is a good example in that regard. Being intended for disturbing the hegemonic spread of English, the WE paradigm was put forward to legitimatize localized or indigenized varieties of English. However, this "superficially appealing and convenient model conceals more than it reveals" (Bruthiaux, 2003, as cited in Pennycook, 2007, p. 21), since its categorization of English varieties remains in a nation-based model and fails to capture social and linguistic diversity within nation-states. China English has been placed in the expanding circle (Kachru, 1990; Kachru, Kachru, & Nelson, 2006), where English is a foreign language, as a generalized variety of English resulting from assumptions that English is uniformly used in China as a whole. However, the model does not take account of the fact that the concept of China English (as well as other Englishes, e.g., Indian English, Hongkong English) is internally heterogeneous, whose varieties range in terms of region, class, gender, ethnicities, etc. In this sense, if China English would be legitimatized as a variety of English in political, economic, and social activities, and enjoy the same status with Englishes in inner circle (where English is spoken as native language)[3] or outer circle (where English is a second language), we should not hurry to give our acclaim, with new forms of language inequalities emerging within the nation-state. To be specific, the possibly legitimatized China English seems to be a generic term for varieties of English spoken by urban Mandarin speakers rather than rural Mandarin speakers, or minority language speakers, e.g., Cantonese, Min, or Hakka speakers, to name a few.

Problematizing the generic use of China English brings an endless list of English varieties. Indeed, there is a line of scholarship challenging the long-standing idea of languages as enumerable objects. According to Makoni and Pennycook (2005, p. 141), Phillipson's linguistic imperialism focuses on the imposition of dominant languages on minority groups, but overlooks that the imposition also lies in how "speech forms are constituted/constructed into languages, and particular definitions of what constitutes language expertise are construed and imposed." The two scholars enrich their critique of linguistic imperialism with the ideology that languages and the metalanguages used to describe them are inventions rather than discrete and enumerable categories. They then propose the concept of disinventing languages and argue not only "small languages" but also the "mother of all invented languages," i.e., English, should be disinvented. The discourse of English as an international language is therefore constructed, and so does the WE construction that takes a strategy of pluralizing the invented monolingual languages.

Although Makoni and Pennycook's ideology of disinventing languages sheds light on the hegemonic nature of the global spread of English, they do not investigate how language communication and teaching can be practiced after disinvention, and in particular, how to deal with English language teaching and learning. To explore this issue, Canagarajah (2007) first deconstructs the notion of English as an international language by de-legitimatizing a need for a common system to enable communication between different English-speaking communities. He then argues that in this postmodern world, speakers of different varieties of English need ways of negotiating difference instead of shared codes such as LFE. Based on this idea, he thinks what is important about English language teaching is to equip students with negotiation strategies, which can help them be aware of and negotiate differences within and across communities of practice, rather than training them to obsess about the correctness of a "common/legitimate" core of grammar.

Kubota and McKay (2013) also discuss pedagogical issues after the disinvention of English. According to the two scholars, because of a growing number of non-English-speaking immigrants in many expanding circle countries such as Japan and China, there is increasing multilingualism in local communities where speech situations counter to the common belief of English as a shared language. However, they do not attempt TESOL professionals and English language learners to throw in the towel and give up teaching and learning English. Rather, they encourage TESOL professionals to critically reflect on their own attachment to English in order to construct a discourse affirming all kinds of diversity, to promote "language awareness, attitudes, and skills necessary for communicating with non-English speakers," and to scrutinize "racial, class, linguistic, and cultural biases that perpetuate unequal relations of power" (p. 615).

The above scholars' deconstruction of the myth of English as an international language—albeit from different perspectives—sheds light on the hegemonic spread of English, which emphasizes a need for a globally shared language and conceals inherent hybridity of languages. Nevertheless, given the importance of gaining access to English is still pervasively believed and practiced, I'm not egging rural Chinese students (as well other ESL/EFL learners) on to give up learning English. Instead, we need to learn how to survive in the hegemonic spread of English and consider extremely carefully which pedagogical approaches can be applied to achieve a critical and productive English learning. While Canagarajah's (2007) as well as Kubota and McKay's (2013) discussion offers some directions for ELT, it is also helpful to refer to the recent boom of plurilingual/multilingual pedagogy in educational contexts (see, for example, Cenoz & Gorter, 2013; Lin, 2013; Stille & Cummins, 2013; Kubota, 2016; Marshall & More, 2016), which places great importance on hybridity and fluidity of language learning, and plurilingual and pluricultural competence.

Conclusions

In this paper, I have explored the hegemonic spread of English that combines the pervasively believed global spread of English and the hegemonic nature of English against the backdrop of globalization. I have argued that China has fully embraced English in its educational system based on assumptions that English as an international language is closely linked with modernity and modernization. English is often viewed as a language of success, and this is particularly true in rural China, where students and parents take English expertise as an important pathway to upward social mobility. Nevertheless, their limited access to "high-mobility forms of English" constrains their school success. On top of that, I have also argued that the pervasive beliefs of English as an international language and English as the language of success are constructed myths. However, my stance is not to call on rural students to stop learning English, but to encourage more researches on critical and productive pedagogies that can be situated in the context of rural English classrooms—the plurilingual/multilingual pedagogy being a potential one.

Footnotes

[1] According to Moseley (2010, p. 72), the definition of what constitutes a separate language is a major issue in classifying the languages of southern China, where there are a large number of endangered languages; Chinese linguists tend to classify as dialects what would be regarded as separate languages elsewhere. Actually, the ambiguities surrounding the distinction between languages and dialects are not only seen in the context of southern China, but also northern China. Bearing this in mind, in this article I will not refer to a language variety as a dialect unless it has been commonly accepted.

[2] More information on http://www.chsi.com.cn/ycnews/201307/20130723/444720986.html.

[3] Some scholars (McAthur, 1987; Modiano, 1999) believe traditionally dominant varieties such as British and American English shares the same status with newer varieties such as China English. However, as scholars such as Qiong (2004) and Jenkins (2015) point out, China English does not share the same status with varieties in inner and outer circles and it is apparent that British and American English are still predominant in ELT and a wide range of social activities.

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Words to Explain Words: How Teachers Explain Second Language Vocabulary

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Abstract
Vocabulary plays one of the most crucial roles in language competence and learning, and has gained considerable attention in second language acquisition research and education. However, the largely learner-centered research has focused directly on learner thoughts, behaviors and development, paying little attention to the role of teachers' vocabulary explanations and their effects on learner outcome.
In this case study of two English Medium Instruction (EMI) professors at a Japanese university, teacher explanations and elaborations of vocabulary were investigated. Three consecutive lectures and interviews with each professor were recorded and transcribed for analysis. This study described the what, when, why, and how of teacher vocabulary explanations. The primary focus of the EMI classes was teaching content through English, making vocabulary explanations doubly important, as they potentially played two roles: clarifying word meaning and teaching content.
The results seemed to indicate a tight relationship between various contextual factors (i.e., student proficiencies and experiences, course aims, course content, teaching style) and approaches to vocabulary explanation. The EMI format in particular seemed to influence the explanatory behaviors, both linguistically and typologically. Vocabulary was most often explained in definitions or paraphrases in the second language English and treated as concepts directly related to the course content. The findings suggested the need for more research on teacher lexical explanation sensitive to teaching and learning contexts. The reflections presented in the interviews and the variety shown in teacher behavior supported the need for attention to vocabulary explanation in teacher training and curriculum-building.

Keywords: EMI, teaching, vocabulary, EFL, case study, explanations, elaborations

Introduction

Globalization and language education. In response to globalization, educators have been grappling with the issue of how to efficiently induce or enhance language acquisition on a large scale. Fueled largely by the needs of second language (L2) education, research in second language acquisition (SLA) and applied linguistics has grown greatly as an academic discipline and an informant for policy-makers, teachers, and teacher trainers. Following trends in the research and in the socio-political needs of language learners, L2 education has undergone much development throughout the years. More recently, there has been a push for more focus on communicative skills to facilitate communication in heterogeneous first language (L1) situations (e.g., business, politics, travel) where English is used as a *lingua franca* (Nunan, 2003). This and other issues in language education, including time constraints and utility outside of the classroom, have led to a rise in teaching approaches such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English Medium Instruction (EMI), which take the main pedagogical focus away from technical language instruction and instead aim to develop language through studies in other subjects.

Meanwhile, within SLA, there has been a surge in research on vocabulary as a core element of language competence, performance, and development (Cook, 2016; Nation, 2013; Richards, 2015; Schmitt, 2014). However, despite the abundance of research on lexical acquisition, development, and instruction; vocabulary learning challenges, strategies, and compensation; and lexis itself, very little has been said about teachers' vocabulary explanations. This study explored L2 English-speaking teachers' explanations of unfamiliar or unknown English vocabulary to developing English language users in an EMI context.

A brief description of EMI. EMI has been defined rather vaguely in the research, and while the issue of defining it goes beyond the scope of this paper, it is nonetheless an integral part of this research. For the purposes of the present study, EMI will be defined as a pedagogical approach wherein students are taught a subject other than English language, using English as the primary language of instruction in a context where English is not the majority language (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018; Walkinshaw, Fenton-Smith, & Humphreys, 2017). In other words, developing English speakers are taught an academic subject (other than the English language itself), such as engineering or mathematics, using English as the language of instruction.

Thus far, as Kirkpatrick (2017) reported, EMI has been widely implemented across Asia without much consideration for the implications it may have on education. It has been widely accepted by policy-makers (Kirkpatrick, 2017), but there is some skepticism amongst students and teachers about its effectiveness and implementation (Dearden, 2015; Morizumi, 2015). Linguistic issues seem to be at the forefront of both teachers' and students' worries. Both have shown concern about how problems with language (e.g., a mismatch in English proficiency between teachers and students) could adversely affect content learning (Jensen, Denver, Mees, & Werther, 2013). Furthermore, many teachers are not trained to teach in English and have limited knowledge surrounding language learning and development (Dearden, 2015; Jensen et al., 2013; Werther, Denver, Jensen, & Mees, 2014). For teachers who specialize in subjects other than language, it is difficult to gauge the types of challenges students may face linguistically when being taught through the medium of English. They oftentimes do not feel responsible for students' language development and thus tend to hold students responsible for coping with any linguistic barriers that they may encounter during the EMI courses (Lasagabaster, 2017).

Vocabulary's role in EMI. There is now a consensus within SLA that vocabulary is a key part of language. Wilkins (1972) noted that "without grammar very little can be conveyed, [but] without vocabulary *nothing* can be conveyed" (p. 111, emphasis in original). Indeed, grammar is important for speakers of any language at any level, but it is often observed that speakers who lack the grammatical systems in a language still manage to communicate to some extent with only vocabulary, even if it is strung together ungrammatically (Ellis, 1995, 1997). Especially recently, with English being used as the medium of communication between non-native English-speakers, much communication is being established without so-called perfect grammatical precision.

In SLA research and in language classrooms, vocabulary is thus being paid increasingly more attention. In the past few decades, vocabulary has been researched widely, but the majority of the research has focused on the learner. With the trend towards learner-centered approaches to teaching and research, the teachers' role in learners' vocabulary acquisition has been paid very little attention. In spite of it being such a natural part of teacher talk (Chaudron, 1982; Flowerdew, 1992) and in any form of interaction (Varonis & Gass, 1985), only a handful of studies have systematically attempted to address how, when, why, and what vocabulary was being explained by teachers.

With regard to EMI research, there is a great danger that teacher vocabulary explanations and vocabulary in general will be overlooked. With many EMI teachers making a conscious decision not to focus on language in their teaching, it is possible that vocabulary explanation will be intentionally avoided as part of an attempt not to "teach language." Meanwhile, vocabulary may be a great hurdle for many EMI students who, in theory, not only lack the content knowledge, but also the vocabulary needed to comprehend, describe, and convey that content; they can potentially encounter difficulties in understanding what is being said in the classroom. Thus, clarifying vocabulary's role in EMI and how it is currently being approached by EMI teachers can provide much-needed information for policy-makers and teachers to define the competences needed to teach through EMI.

The present research attempts to address the gap in the vocabulary literature within the context of current English language learning through observations of EMI teachers in Japan. The specific aim was to draw attention to this much-needed area of SLA research and provide a descriptive reference that could inform future research.

Methods

The research questions (RQs) explored in this case study were threefold:
1. What types of vocabulary are explained?
2. What types of vocabulary explanations are given?
3. How often does codeswitching occur in vocabulary explanations?

In addition to the three RQs, the data was analyzed for other qualitative trends as well.

Participants. Two professors at a Japanese university volunteered to participate in this study. They will henceforth be referred to as Prof. T and Prof. M. Both were Japanese-English bilinguals with Doctorate degrees, extensive experience teaching at universities, and experience studying in higher education in an English-speaking country (the US and UK, respectively). Both also had backgrounds in Applied Linguistics and thus taught courses in this field. Prof. T taught a course on Second Language Acquisition and Prof. M taught a course on Teaching EFL to Young Learners.

Procedure. The main procedure for this study was observation of the professors' lectures for explanations of lexis. To supplement the data collected from the observations, a short interview was conducted to get a better sense of what decisions in vocabulary explanation were conscious and how the professors conceptualized their role in student vocabulary development.

Recorded Observations. During the month of May 2017, three consecutive lessons were observed for each professor. Each was 90 minutes long and took place once a week at the same time on two different weekdays. A video recording was taken for each class in order to be able to capture both verbal and non-verbal explanations and elaborations. The portions of the recordings that contained vocabulary explanations were later transcribed and coded for data analysis.

Interviews. A short semi-structured interview was conducted with each professor to give further insight into the data collected from the lectures. The interview questions were first written in English and later translated into Japanese to offer the professors a language option. As the aim of the interview was to gain as much insight into the professors' conscious ideas on the topic, it was deemed appropriate to offer them the option to choose which language in which to conduct the interview. Although the researcher was bound to whichever language the professors chose, the professors were permitted to codeswitch during the interview so as to allow them the freedom to articulate their thoughts in the most precise way possible. Especially given that the topic being discussed was the professors' EMI classes and English vocabulary, allowing codeswitching proved to be both useful and convenient for both the interviewer and interviewees.

To reduce bias, the questions were intentionally designed to be broad. The professors were encouraged to expand on their answers and respond in as much detail as possible. Furthermore, analysis of the classroom data was left to after the interviews so as not to introduce bias in the researcher's questioning or reactions. Each interview lasted roughly 20 to 40 minutes and was later transcribed for analysis.

Analyses. Descriptive analyses for the observation data were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics v.24. Coding schemes applied to the data were developed prior to data collection to answer each RQ. Several additional coding schemes were also devised post-data collection and transcription based on initial informal observations of the dataset. The data was coded both by the researcher and one other rater who was a speaker of English and Japanese. The following sections outline each set of coding schemes in order of RQ.

RQ 1: Word type. The types of words explained were divided into *technical*, *academic*, and *general* terms. *General* terms were classified as any words that did not classify as either *technical* or *academic*. *Academic* terms were so classified based on the Coxhead (2000) Academic Word List (AWL). *Technical* terms were further subdivided into *strict*, *loose*, and *intention* categories. The *strict technical* vocabulary was identified as words for which an exact match could be found in the *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). The dictionary used as a reference for this coding was chosen based on accessibility, reviews, and the breadth of vocabulary featured in the dictionary. *Loosely technical* words were those for which an exact match could not be found, but a similar form with the same meaning was found. *Technical (intention)* words were those that were not featured in Richards and Schmidt's (2010) dictionary, but which were clearly explained as a key part of the content being taught (e.g., "chant" explained by Prof. M as a type of activity that could be used to teach young learners differences in phonology).

RQ 2: Explanation type & purpose. Explanation types were divided into *L2 equivalent*, *L2 definition or paraphrase*, *L2 contextualization*, *L1 equivalent*, *L1 definition or paraphrase*, *L1 contextualization*, *gestures*, and *other*. The first six were inspired by Macaro and Tian's (2015) classifications of teacher explanations from their study of English language professors in China. The *definition* and *paraphrase* categories which were separate in Macaro and Tian's study were combined in this research because the two were difficult to distinguish in the data. Additionally, gestures were added to investigate non-verbal explanatory behavior from teachers.

During data analysis, it became apparent that how and which words were explained was dependent partly on the purpose of explaining the word. In response to this observation, a coding scheme was devised to categorize the reasons for which the professors appeared to be offering each explanation. This was determined by the researcher and one more coder's own interpretations of the teachers' intentions.

Explanation purpose was divided into *word*, *concept*, *word and concept*, *word for example*, and *unclear or inapplicable*. The main distinction was between those words that were explained as words in the traditional sense because it was deemed unlikely that the students were familiar with the term (e.g., "implement"), and those that were explained specifically as a concept in the context of the content being taught (e.g., Prof. T explained the word, "word" during a lecture on vocabulary learning). Words that were explained both because they were likely unfamiliar and because they were part of the content being conveyed were coded as *word and concept* (e.g., mental lexicon). The *word for example* category comprised words that were explained as words, but only because they were used in an example that was given as part of the lecture content (e.g., Prof. M explained the unfamiliar word, "lark," as part of an example to illustrate cross-cultural differences in symbolism).

RQ 3: Codeswitching. Codeswitching was counted in terms of the number of explanation episodes that included any L1 Japanese. Instances of codeswitching that were clearly unrelated to the vocabulary explanation (i.e., "せーの ((*JAPANESE CUE TO SPEAK IN UNISON*))," "あ、ごめん ((*OH, SORRY*)), sorry," "Why do you say 「へー」 ((*OHH/AHH*))?" and "…some kids go to the 塾 ((*CRAM SCHOOl*)) or English conversation class…") were removed from the count.

Results

The observations and interviews indicated that vocabulary in the two EMI classrooms was most often explained using L2 descriptions or paraphrases and were for the purpose of clarifying or elaborating on a concept relevant to the subject-matter being taught. The L1 was rarely used in vocabulary explanations and words were never explained using an L1 description or paraphrase. The following sections will explain the results for each RQ, along with the additional qualitative findings that arose during data analysis. Translations from Japanese have been included in uppercase italics.

RQ1: What types of vocabulary are explained? By far, the most common type of vocabulary explained was technical vocabulary. Broken down, *technical (strict)* vocabulary, for which an exact entry match could be found in the *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (Richards & Schmidt, 2010), was most often explained by both teachers, followed by *technical (loose)* and *technical (intention)* vocabulary, which comprised words that had similar entries in the dictionary or were clearly intended to be part of the course content. Combined, the three types of technical vocabulary constituted 72.52% of the total explained words. Table 1 gives a breakdown of each explanation type by teacher and totaled.

Word Type	Total	Prof. T	Prof. M
Technical (strict)	37 (40.66%)	32 (43.24%)	5 (29.41%)
Only technical	*34 (37.36%)*	*29 (39.19%)*	*5 (29.41%)*
Technical (loose)	14 (15.38%)	14 (18.92%)	0 (0.00%)
Only technical	*12 (13.19%)*	*12 (16.22%)*	*0 (0.00%)*
Technical (intention)	15 (16.48%)	11 (14.86%)	4 (23.53%)
Only technical	*14 (15.38%)*	*10 (13.51%)*	*4 (23.53%)*
Academic	11 (12.08%)	8 (10.81%)	3 (17.65%)
Only academic	*5 (5.49%)*	*2 (2.70%)*	*3 (17.65%)*
Technical (all) & Academic	6 (6.59%)	6 (8.11%)	0 (0.00%)
General	20 (21.98%)	15 (20.27%)	5 (29.41%)
Total	91 (100%)	74 (100%)	17 (100%)

Table 1. *Word Types Observed*

Academic vocabulary was the least explained by either teacher, which was consistent with several of the unprompted comments offered in the interviews. Both professors seemed to identify a focus on content over language as one defining aspect of EMI. The words "content" and "content-based" arose numerous times and, especially with regards to how they chose which vocabulary to explain, both professors indicated that their vocabulary explanations were for the purpose of helping students understand the lecture content, not the words themselves.

RQ2: What types of vocabulary explanations are given? The most prevalent type of vocabulary explanation was *L2 definition or paraphrase*, followed by *L2 contextualization*. As shown in Table 2, this was the same across the two professors. Overall, L1 explanations were used sparingly, constituting only 5.47% of the total explanations offered. *Gestures* were the only type of explanation that could be given simultaneously to another type of explanation. Although they were not used often as the main explanatory input, they were nonetheless relatively salient and often supplemented the oral explanations.

Explanation Type	Total	Prof. T	Prof. M
L2 equivalent (e.g., synonym)	28 (13.93%)	25 (14.62%)	3 (10.00%)
L2 definition or paraphrase	75 (37.31%)	64 (37.43%)	11 (36.67%)
L2 contextualization	55 (27.36%)	47 (27.49%)	8 (26.67%)
L1 equivalent (e.g., direct translation)	7 (3.48%)	6 (3.51%)	1 (3.33%)
L1 definition or paraphrase	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)
L1 contextualization	4 (1.99%)	3 (1.75%)	1 (3.33%)
Gestures	22 (10.95%)	18 (10.53%)	4 (13.33%)
Other	10 (4.98%)	8 (4.68%)	2 (6.67%)
Total (without undecided)	201 (100%)	171 (100%)	30 (100%)
Undecided	*12*	*10*	*2*

Table 2. *Explanation Types Observed*

In the interviews, it was clear that the professors were aware of their use of mainly L2 explanations and the fact that they were mostly either defining, paraphrasing, or contextualizing. This decision was again driven largely by the content-focused nature of the courses. Neither professor addressed gestures in the interviews.

Explanations seemed mainly to be either to explain a familiar or unfamiliar word in the context of the course material. Table 3 shows the numbers and percentages of explanations given as *words*, *words for examples*, *concepts*, and *word and concepts*. Of the four main categories for explanation purpose, only the *word* category was completely irrelevant to the course content and accounted for only 15% of the total explanations, indicating that most of the explanations were somehow related to teaching the course content. This was consistent with the professors' heightened awareness of their positions as EMI teachers of applied linguistics.

Purpose	Total	Prof. T	Prof. M
Word	17 (15.04%)	13 (13.54%)	4 (23.53%)
Word for example	15 (13.27%)	13 (13.54%)	2 (11.76%)
Concept	52 (46.02%)	44 (45.83%)	8 (47.06%)
Word & Concept	27 (23.89%)		
		0 (0.00%)	2 (11.76%)
Total	113 (100%)	96 (100%)	17 (100%)

Table 3. *Purposes of Explanation*

RQ3: How often does codeswitching occur in vocabulary explanations? The only observed cases of codeswitching in the vocabulary explanations were the use of L1 equivalents and the use of an L1 word or concept as an example to illustrate a concept. L1 slips (e.g., "*OH, SORRY*") that were irrelevant to the explanation of the words were eliminated from the data. Overall, codeswitching was not prevalent in the teachers' vocabulary explanations and it was never used to explain vocabulary in full-sentence definitions or paraphrases. As expressed by Prof. M in the interview (Extract 1), despite the obvious option to codeswitch given the homogenous Japanese-English context, factors such as the EMI label and consideration for what the students would appreciate more led the teachers to avoid codeswitching altogether.

> Extract 1
> Prof. M: …*IN THEIR CASE, THE STUDENTS HAVE STUDIED ABROAD AND HAVE A LOT OF EXPERIENCE WITH ENGLISH, SO I FEEL THEY DON'T GET CAUGHT OUT TOO OFTEN EVEN WHEN I'M USING EMI. ALSO, WITH ELEMENTARY SCHOOL ENGLISH [THE COURSE], THERE ARE SOME DIFFICULT TECHNICAL TERMS, BUT NOT VERY MANY, AND SURPRISINGLY THEY [THE STUDENTS] UNDERSTAND MOST ACADEMIC TERMS. EVEN IF THEY CAN'T GO SO FAR AS TO USE THEM, IT SEEMS LIKE THEY CAN COMPREHEND THEM, SO, UM, THEY SEEM TO BE OKAY EVEN IF I USE SOME SLIGHTLY DIFFICULT WORDS*…

As is evidenced in the extract, the topic of the course also may affect codeswitching behavior. Prof. M's course on Teaching EFL to Young Learners was specifically concerned with teaching the English classes that have been implemented in Japanese elementary schools to give young children exposure to the English language prior to the formal language learning, which commences in junior high school (MEXT, 2013). In this case, the students in Prof. M's class play a dual role of language learner and potential teacher. They are taught about how to teach and acquire language (concepts in Applied Linguistics) and meanwhile are honing their own language skills through the EMI course. On a spectrum of relatedness to English and language, this course was relatively more related than other subjects taught using EMI, such as mathematics, engineering, and other hard sciences. As Macaro (2018) pointed out, Applied Linguistics holds a special position within EMI because of the context in which it is typically taught. It is highly likely in most cases that students studying subjects such as language acquisition or language teaching will have a stronger English language learning background than their counterparts in less language-related subjects.

Qualitative. The most prominent point that could be observed from the data was that the number of explanations differed greatly between professors. In terms of raw counts, Prof. T gave over 5 times the number of explanations for over 4 times the number of words Prof. M had explained. As a result, the patterns found in the data were much clearer in Prof. T's data than Prof. M's. Interestingly, however, the general trends in the proportions of word and explanation types were similar across the two professors in spite of the difference in sheer number.

The interviews and inspection of factors that differed between the two classes shed some light on what may have brought about these differences. The level of technicality of the subject being taught, class size, and teacher preference seemed to play a role in the number of explanations given. The more technical the topic of focus, the more likely that it would include a greater number of key vocabulary that was unfamiliar to the students. Also, with smaller classes, students could assist each other with vocabulary during small group discussions and the teacher was better able to monitor such activities amongst students. Despite both professors' preference for small group interaction, Prof. T was forced to give more lecture-style classes and thus needed to conduct more one-way checks of vocabulary comprehension. Although causation cannot be claimed at this point, the relationships between these areas and vocabulary explanation may warrant further investigation.

Discussion

While the observational data alone heeded sufficient information to answer the research questions, the interviews shed some light on the possible sources of the professors' behaviors. In particular, the EMI context seemed to be a highly influential factor. As a case study, the results are not generalizable and even between the two professors, there was considerable variation, especially in number of explanations offered. Nonetheless, the interviews provided some insight into what may be behind the trends that were observed. The factors which seemed to affect the teacher vocabulary explanations could largely be divided into three types: environmental, teacher, and student aspects.

Environmental aspects. Some environmental factors identified during data analysis were the university context (university policies, course status as either an elective or requirement), the EMI context, the course subject, and the Japanese context. In spite of being conducted completely separately with little to no contact between the two professors regarding this research, both professors emphasized the EMI status of their courses throughout the interviews. Prof. T distinguished the observed course with another language course that she taught, for which she claimed that she focused much more on vocabulary and gave more formal definitions and explanations. Extract 2 illustrates the teachers' conceptualization of vocabulary's role in their respective classes.

> Extract 2
> Question: Is vocabulary important in your class?
> Prof. T: Because it's a content-based class, basically, students are exposed to new concepts and new ideas and then all technical terms. So, with that-that respect, making them learn new technical words is important…But not necessarily making them learn those basic words. But probably um my focus is on making them understand what I- I'm delivering.
> Prof. M: *IN ORDER TO HAVE STUDENTS UNDERSTAND THE COURSE CONTENT, I THINK IT [VOCABULARY] IS VERY IMPORTANT.*

Regarding the gap in frequency of explanations between professors, it is possible that the level of technicality of each course influenced how much was explained. In concurrence with Prof. T's comment in Extract 2, vocabulary is explained only when necessary for understanding the course content. Thus, it would be reasonable to presume that the more technical the vocabulary, the less that would be comprehensible and the more it would require elaboration. Indeed, Prof. T's lectures involved many technical words whereas Prof. M's classes were more discussion-based and used many more conversational English words. For example, while Prof. T was explaining the acquisition of vocabulary in a first and second language, Prof. M was discussing what types of activities could help young learners get accustomed to English phonology.

Teacher aspects. In the interviews, the teachers expressed a great deal of personal background influences that shaped their teaching, such as previous studies, research background, and English proficiency. Another possible teacher factor that may influence EMI teaching is teachers' study abroad experiences.

Even amongst two professors with Applied Linguistics backgrounds who were familiar with language development and language learning and had experience studying through the medium of English, there were considerable differences in their classes. Although the characteristics that were shared seemed to stem from these similarities in background, it is important to note that within EMI, teachers can potentially come from myriad backgrounds. Not all teachers have experience with teaching or learning through English and most who specialize in non-language-related subjects are likely to be unfamiliar with language development from an empirical perspective. Simply having the ability to speak the language and the ability to teach a subject do not automatically guarantee quality teaching of that subject through EMI. This issue has been raised both on the ground and in this study and should be addressed with further research and consideration during EMI implementation.

Student aspects. Although teachers were the focus of this study, students seemed to play a critical role in teacher vocabulary explanations. In the professors' comments, it was noted several times that the specific group of students being taught were mostly third-year language majors who had just arrived back from one-year study abroad experiences. This context was influential in that several things were assumed about the students.

First, the students had just spent one year studying in English-speaking environments and were thus accustomed to English being the only language being spoken. Prof. M explained that the EMI courses were offered partly out of demand because students wanted to continue taking courses in English. She said that one reason for her lack of codeswitching in general and especially in vocabulary explanations was her desire to give the students what they wanted: an all-English course. Second, after having studied English in their major programs for several years, it was assumed that their proficiency level and competence in English were relatively high. Finally, being an EMI course, it was expected that students would not understand every single word or utterance, but that they had acquired the ability to cope with not understanding or knowing everything in their year abroad.

Conclusions and Implications

Ideally, vocabulary explanation should be researched across language learning situations for a better understanding of their nature. However, in response to the trends of today, it would be most immediately beneficial to investigate vocabulary explanations in the EMI context as well as other related or popular teaching approaches. More research on teachers' relationships with vocabulary and vocabulary explanation is also needed, as this study only provides a glimpse into this area of research. How the vocabulary explanations affect students in EMI courses is also of great interest, as theoretically, they are likely to have an impact on both student comprehension and learning, both of the course material and of the language.

At present, it seems that EMI is “an unstoppable train which has already left the station” (Macaro, 2017, p. 2). In light of this phenomenon, it is both reasonable and imperative that teacher vocabulary explanations be addressed both in research and in the classrooms. As the distinction between language as a subject of study and a medium of instruction becomes less clear, it becomes increasingly important to consider the specific situational factors that may influence how the courses should be taught and how they will likely be received by students. There is already considerable interest in research in Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) following on the work in secondary education CLIL.

Language education’s goals are continually evolving with the times; not only the goals, but also the contexts and the possibilities are constantly transforming. Language development begins before birth and continues indefinitely, meaning that as the status of English in various societies fluctuates, so will the strengths and weaknesses of any educational approach. EMI is currently permeating throughout Asia and other parts of the world as a new way forward that is claimed to be both time-efficient and effective for language development. Although it is difficult to identify any inherently effective or ineffective way to approach language teaching and learning, it is important for researchers, teachers, policy-makers, and learners to understand the context in which they are working and to strive to find the most effective methods to attain their particular goals in their particular contexts. Being a case study, the present study did not attempt overarching discoveries or claims for language learning in the context of EMI worldwide. Instead, it was intended to provide preliminary observations that could form the basis for further research in the area of teacher vocabulary explanations.

Whether effective or not, teacher explanations are common and possibly an unavoidable natural phenomenon in language classrooms. Taking this and the findings of the present study into consideration, too little is formally known about teachers’ lexical explanations and elaborations. Given the importance of vocabulary in language learning and the current trends towards teaching non-language courses through the medium of English, it is vital that these explanations are investigated further so that they can be more widely put to good use across curricula. With the goals of EMI in mind, a better understanding of teacher vocabulary explanations within and without the EMI context, as well as across subjects, countries, levels, and time, could be immensely beneficial to the improvement of EMI curricula worldwide.

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Assessment in Groupwork Project-Based Learning in Business English Classrooms

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Abstract

In the context of global economic integration in which English language competence along with teamwork skills have increasingly been of great significance, it is the responsibilities of educators and teachers of Business English to facilitate groupwork project-based learning. However, assessment of groupwork project-based learning has always been the matter of concern every educator and teacher wrestle with. The purpose of this paper is to deal with issues related to assessment in project-based learning in the teaching of Business English at a university of foreign languages. The research is based on theoretical foundations of project-based learning assessment in English language teaching. The reality of assessing groupwork project-based learning in Business English teaching at a university are investigated and issues encountered in the assessment are under detailed discussion. The research puts forward thoughtful pedagogical implications along with assessment rubrics for gaining further reliability and validity for the assessment. The article aims at equipping teachers with effective tools for implementing groupwork project-based learning assessment in Business English contexts.

Keywords: groupwork project-based learning, assessment, Business English

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Introduction

In the context of globalization, the application of project-based learning (PBL), has been supported by a great number of scholars all over the world. Project-based learning (PBL) is a model that organizes learning around projects which are complex tasks, based on challenging questions or problems, involving students in design, problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities (Thomas, 2000).

PBL, within the context of Danang University of Foreign Language Studies, has been incorporated in the curriculum of Business English, in which students are to carry out group projects as mid-term assessment, along with regular participation/attendance check and end-of-term exams. However, the assessment of students` projects has always been the subject of concern among lecturers of Business English at the university. This study, as a result, aims at investigating the current situations of assessment of group projects in Business English courses and the study's objective is thus to contribute to lecturers' efforts in innovating the assessment systems at Danang university of Foreign Language Studies.

Previous research

Previous research in the field of assessment of group work confirms that teachers face difficulties in assessing students' knowledge and proficiency in a group work (Gillies and Boyle, 2010; Postholm, 2008; Webb, 1997). Teachers (Ross and Rolheiser, 2003) and students (Forslund Frykedal, 2008; Hammar Chiriac and Granström, 2009) are unsure of what should be assessed and how assessment can be carried out, but also of whether the assessments are directed towards the individuals or the groups.

In a study by Gillies and Boyle (2010) teachers revealed that they carried out more informal than formal assessments, which was achieved by walking around and observing the groups, evaluating the groups' presentations of their work and implementing an individual assessment after the completed group work.

However, with a different perspective, Johnson and Johnson (2004) suggested that a collectively produced assignment should not be assessed individually as it creates competition among students, in contrast to group assessment, which creates collaboration among group members.

Theoretical Framework

PBL which can develop students' soft skills, critical thinking and language competence, has been supported by a great number of scholars all over the world. According to Sawamura (2010), in Project-Based Learning (PBL), students will work on a project using the target language for language learning. PBL can motivate the students and create positive environment, communication and cooperation as they develop language, content and thinking skills.

In fact, PBL is an innovative model for teaching and learning which focuses on the central concepts and principles of a discipline, involves students in problem-solving investigations and other meaningful tasks, engages learners in exploring important and meaningful questions through a process of investigation and collaboration, discovering new scientific issues and integrating knowledge from different subjects (Barak & Raz 1998; Barak & Doppelt 2000; J. W. Thomas 2000). In addition, students in PBL need to be educated to be independent thinkers and learners (Bell, 2010).

Assessment in PBL

As growing body of literature has examined assessment in language teaching, assessment is often discussed by the use of concepts such as summative and formative assessment. According to Brown (2004), in summative assessment, the purpose is to establish the student's knowledge and proficiency compared to certain objectives, while formative assessment aims at establishing a student's knowledge and proficiency to give feedback for further development. Additionally, the purpose of formative assessment is to give responses to individuals during the learning process in order to determine the proficiencies and abilities as well as the aspects that need further development (Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall and William, 2003; Brew, Riley and Walta., 2009).

There is a vast amount of literature on the assessors and assessment format in PBL. Tal, Dori and Lazarowitz (2000), for example, present a multidimensional assessment scheme in a number of ways: Collaborative assessment using external and community experts, teachers, and students. According to Debski (2006), assessment in project classrooms can be done by oneself, peers, and/or the teacher. Through the use of questionnaires, checklists and diaries, students can be directed to increase their awareness of their own language skills.

A more general approach of assessment that teachers of in project classrooms can apply is the principle of triangulation in which multiple forms of assessment are used - multiple formats, multiple units, and multiple assessors (Gonella, 2001), as illustrated by Figure 1 below. Within this principle, multiple formats involve group reports, portfolios, observations, media product, and a physical model. Multiple units refer to self-assessment, group (peer) assessment, and whole class assessment whereas multiple assessors involve lecturers, the TA, and the students.

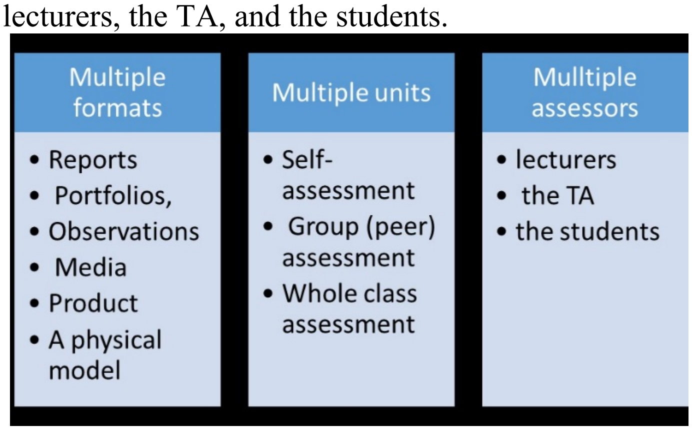

Figure 1. Summary of the principle of triangulation by Gonella (2001)

Rubrics in assessment

There is a considerable amount of literature on the benefits that rubrics bring to not only students but also teachers. As marking criteria are concerned, instructional rubrics help teachers teach as well as evaluate student work and rubrics, at their very best, are also teaching tools that support student learning (Andrade 2003).

In addition, according to Schamber & Mahoney (2006), it is the concrete characteristics of rubric criteria that provides information for feedback and makes self-assessment easier. Through the use of questionnaires, checklists and diaries, students can be directed to increase their awareness of their own language skills (Debski, 2006). Generally speaking, it can be seen that rubrics offer various benefits within the assessment process. Therefore, in the assessment process, a teacher might begin by determining the desired outcome and then developing a description of student performance or product that would demonstrate the achievement of this goal (Phillip 2002).

Much work on the potential of rubrics in language teaching has been carried out as there are a surprising number of rubrics recommended by a variety of scholars and academic institutions. According to McDonald (2008), he provides several assessment models and rubric forms which are useful as guidance for the students' work during the projects and for their presentations. As supported by the Buck Institute for Education (2016), the 4C major assessment areas in PBL include: Creative/critical thinking, collaboration, communication, and creativity. And the use of rubrics makes assessment on the 4 C's much more simple and objective and can be used for both individual and group grades.

Another typical example of rubrics is VALUE rubrics which were developed for the Essential Learning Outcomes as part of the VALUE initiative in 2010 (Valid Assessment of Learning in Undergraduate Education) of the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AAC&U).

Taking a closer look at VALUE rubrics, the rubric cover some specific dimensions including organization, content, delivery under four scales (Below expectation, needs improvement, satisfactory and exceed expectations).

Table 1_VALUE rubrics by Association of American Colleges and Universities (2010)

	Below expectation	Needs Improvement	Satisfactory	Exceeds expectations
Organization	-No apparent organization. -Evidence is not used to support assertions.	-There is some organization, but the speaker occasionally goes off topic. -Evidence used to support conclusions is weak.	-The presentatio has a focus and provides some reasonable evidence to support conclusions.	-The presentation is carefully organized and provides convincing evidence to support conclusions.
Content	-The content is inaccurate or overly general. -Listeners are unlikely to or may be misled.	-The content is sometimes inaccurate or incomplete. -Listeners may learn some isolated facts, but they are unlikely to gain new insights about the topic.	-The content is generally accurate and reasonably complete. -Listeners may develop a few insights about the topic.	-The content is accurate and comprehensive. -Listeners are likely to gain new insights about the topic.
Delivery	-The speaker appears anxious and uncomfortable and reads notes, rather than speaks. -Listeners are ignored.	-The speaker occasionally appears anxious or uncomfortable, and may occasionally read notes, rather than speak. -Listeners are often ignored or misunderstood.	-The speaker is generally relaxed and comfortable. -Listeners are generally recognized and understood.	-The speaker is professional, relaxed, and comfortable and interacts effectively with listeners.

Assessment of rubrics

To deal with the evaluation of rubrics in our teaching and learning context, Arter and McTighe (2000, p. 45) describe a "rubric for evaluating the quality of rubrics", which they call a metarubric. This metarubric includes four traits— **content, clarity, practicality, and technical soundness.** Rubrics are evaluated from the perspective of each of these traits using a three-point scale: *3=ready to roll, 2=on its way but needs revision, 1=not ready for prime time.*

Table 2_ Metarubric by Arter and McTighe (2000)

	3=ready to roll	**2=on its way but needs revision**	**1=not ready for prime time**
content			
clarity			
practicality			
technical soundness			

The Student Perceptions of Assessment Questionnaire (SPAQ)

According to Cavanagh, Waldrip, Romanoski, and Dorman (2005), student views of classroom assessment comprises five characteristic elements: congruence with planned learning, authenticity, student consultation, transparency, and accommodation of student diversity. As a result, Cavanagh et al. (2005) developed the Students' Perceptions of Assessment Questionnaire (SPAQ) to inquire about students' perceptions in five dimensions (scales). The validity and reliability of SPAQ were confirmed statically through their study and some other ones. The questionnaire consists of 24 items and the 5 scales of the SPAQ include: **Congruence with Planned Learning, Authenticity of assessment, Student Consultation, Transparency of assessment and Accommodation of Student Diversity.**

Research design

As a mixed methods methodology of qualitative and quantitative data was chosen to achieve the research purpose, two phases of research were carried out from October 2017 to January 2018 at Danang University of Foreign Languages. First, with a view to inquiring students' perceptions of assessment of group projects in BE courses, Students' Perception of Assessment Questionnaire SPAQ by Cavanagh et al. (2005) was adapted and carried out . Since SPAQ was originally designed to measure student perceptions of classroom assessments in science, this researcher has adapted the SPAQ by replacing the word science with Business English projects where appropriate. The questionnaire consists of 24 items under the 5 scales of the SPAQ including: **Congruence with Planned Learning, Authenticity of assessment, Student Consultation, Transparency of assessment and Accommodation of Student Diversity.**

In the first part of the questionnaire, SPAQ questionnaires were carried out among 160 third-year students of Business English in ESP department. Students were provided a thorough explanation on how to rate the questions in the instrument ranging around several five-points Likert scales from 1—5 (strongly disagree to strongly agree). In the second part of the questionnaire, students showed their evaluation of the application of VALUE rubrics into the assessment of BE groups projects.

Then interviews were implemented among 20 lecturers of Business English in the ESP Department. The average teaching experience of the participating teachers range from over 5 years to 22 years of teaching Business English. The interviews focus on the main themes of assessments including what to assess, how to assess, when to assess, student consultation, transparency of assessment, accommodation of student diversity and recommendations for assessment with a view to gaining a deeper insight into teachers' practices of the assessment of Business English projects.

Reliability and validity

The SPAQ was selected because the validity and reliability of SPAQ were confirmed statically through their study and some others. To be more specific, SPAQ was developed and applied to a sample of 1,000 participants from 40 science classes. Afterwards, Dhindsa, Omar, and Waldrip (2007) carried out SPAQ with 1,028 upper secondary science students in Bruneian upper secondary and found that SPAQ was suitable for assessing students' perceptions on five assessment dimensions as mentioned above.

The data were analyzed in SPSS by counting the frequencies and calculating the percentages of the responses of each item. Scores for each of 24 items for SPAQ questionnaire and the follow-up question were recorded by means of descriptive statistics for each of the five elements.

In terms of the lecturers' interviews, the themes of the interviews along with the correspondingly designed questions were based on the five dimensions in The Student Perceptions of Assessment Questionnaire SPAQ and a systematic review of literature related to project-based learning and groupwork assessment with an aim to gaining various teachers' perceptions of the assessment of Business English projects and their current practices of assessment.

Results and discussion

Questionnaire for students

Reliability Statistics

In order to determine the reliability of the SPAQ in Business English projects as used in this study, Cronbach's alpha was calculated and the reliability coefficient for each item is high ($\alpha \geq .988$), which suggests that the SPAQ in Business English projects is reliable.

Table 3. Cronbach 's Alpha of SPAQ questionnaires in Business English projects

Cronbach 's Alpha	Number of items
0.988	24

Based on data analysis, some research findings were then drawn out. Table 4 illustrates the average mean scores of overall students' responses of 5 dimensions on SPAQ and Table 5 demonstrates average mean scores of students' responses of 24 items on SPAQ.

Table 4_Average mean score of overall students' responses on SP

Items on SPAQ Questionnaires	Mean	Std. Deviation
Congruence with planned learning	3.90	0.48384
Authenticity/Real-life application	3.82	0.08218
Student Consultation	2.92	1.16763
Transparency	3.72	0.22210
Students Capabilities	3.16	0.12971

Table 5_Average mean score of students' responses of 24 items on SPAQ

Items on SPAQ Questionnaires	Mi	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Congruence/Relationship with planned learning				
1. My projects in Business English (BE) tests what I memorize.	1	5	3.06	0.56440
2. My assessment in BE projects test what I understand.	1	5	4.28	0.7288
3. My projects are about what I have done in class.	1	5	4.03	0.77707
4. How I am assessed is similar to what I do in class.	1	5	3.93	0.71561
5. I am assessed on what the teacher has taught me.	1	5	4.12	0.65991
Authenticity/Real-life application				
6. I am asked to apply my learning to real life situations.	1	5	3.93	0.71561
7. My BE projects are useful for everyday life.	1	5	3.81	1.0298
8. I find projects are relevant to what I do outside of school.	1	5	3.78	1.23744
9. Assessment in BE projects tests my ability to apply what I know to real-life problems.	1	5	3.75	1.21814
10. Assessment in BE projects examines my ability to answer every day questions	1	5	3.43	0.71561
11. I can show others that my learning has helped me do things.	1	5	4.15	0.72332
Student Consultation/Information provision				
12. I am clear about types of assessment being used.	1	5	3.18	0.93109
13. I am aware how my assessment will be marked.	1	5	3.56	0.66901
14. My teacher has explained to me how each type of assessment is to be used.	1	5	3.75	1.13592
15. I can have a say in how I will be assessed in ESP department.	1	5	1.21	0.42001
Transparency/Making things clear				
16. I understand what is needed in in BE projects.	1	5	3.93	0.91361

17. I am told in advance when I am being assessed.	1	5	3.68	0.96512
18. I am told in advance on what I am being assessed.	1	5	3.62	0.65991
19. I am clear about what my teacher wants in my Business English projects	1	5	3.96	0.73985
20. I know how BE projects will be marked.	1	5	3.43	0.87759
Students Capabilities				
21. I can complete assessment tasks by the given time.	1	5	3.31	0.93109
22. I am given a choice of BE projects.	1	5	3.15	1.05063
23. I am given BE projects that suit my ability.			3.00	0.84242
24. When I am confused about BE projects, I am given another way to answer it.	1	5	3.21	0.90641

Regarding **Congruence with Planned Learning**, it is perceived the highest (M = 3.90, SD = 0.48384), which demonstrates the correlation between group project assessment with the teaching content. However, the value for item 1 that indicates assessment is used to test what students memorize is the lowest M = 3.0, SD = 0.56440 compared to the item 2, item 3 and item 5 with a mean score of over 4. It can be implied fromthe differences that students perceived that group projects test their understanding of Business English rather than rote memorization of knowledge.

In terms of **authenticity** or hands-on application, students perceived the authenticity of group projects the second highest among the four scales (with a mean score of 3.82, SD = 0.08218). This suggests that students see a connection between their assessment of Business English projects and their daily life activities.

What's more, the data reveals that students have marked **Transparency of assessment** the third highest among the five scales M = 3.72, SD = 0.22210 with the less variance among mean score of the 5 items of **Transparency of assessment** (M of just over 3.4 for all items). This suggests that students somehow acknowledged the assessment information given in advance together with the clarity of assessment criteria.

Taking the scale **Accommodation of Student Diversity** into consideration, the students perceived this scale with a mean of 3.16, SD = 0.12971. The most striking result to emerge from the chart is that **Student Consultation** is perceived the lowest mean score (M=2.92, SD = 1.16763) in comparison with the other four scales. Responses from students for item 15 (M=1.21, SD = 0.42001) show that students are fairly negative about whether they can have a say in how they will be assessed in their group projects.

In the second part after SPAQ the questionnaire, the students showed their positive evaluation of the application of VALUE rubrics by ACC&U (2010) in the assessment of BE group projects with 72%, 71%, 78% and 83% of the students supporting that its content, clarity, practicality and technical soundness respectively are Ready to roll. In contrast, only over 20% of the students require further improvement in the four traits and only 0.05% hold the view that the content of VALUE rubric is not ready for use (as shown in figure 2)

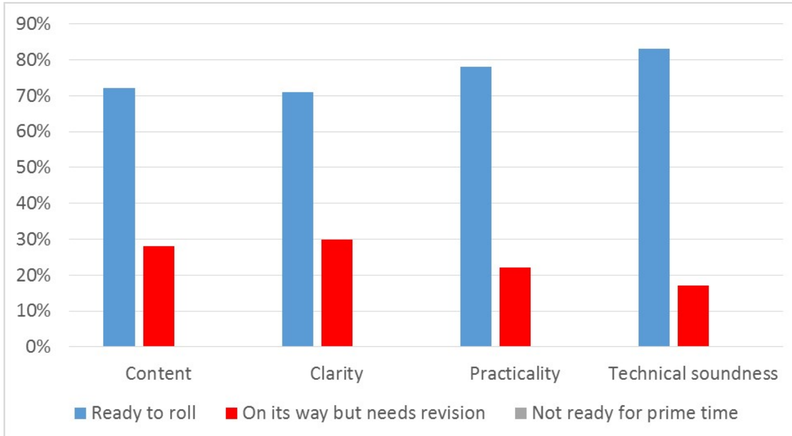

Figure 2_ Students' evaluation of the application of VALUE rubric

Interviews for teachers

What to assess

All of the interviewed lectures reported that the assessment in Business English projects are relevant to the students' learning content as the projects are under the Business English themes that are covered in their Business English textbooks. Moreover, the training of presentation skills are also integrated in the syllabus.

(D) "*The various themes of Business English in the textbooks are brought into detailed discussion, through which students can get an insight into the themes. It is under these themes that students are to carry out various projects to find out solutions to some hands-on business situations.*"

According to findings of interviews, most of the lecturers agreed that the Business English projects require a variety of knowledge and skills. They maintained that apart from background knowledge and language competence, a set of various skills including presentation skills, teamwork skills and critical thinking skills are of great importance,

These points are consistent with lecturers' reveals which indicated that the assessment methods of Business English projects are in line with the requirements of contemporary companies as the university carries out regular surveys among these companies to investigate the real-life application of the teaching and learning objectives at the universities. Students' awareness of what they are learning in class will enhance their willingness in investing time and energy in the learning process (Brookhart & Bronowicz, 2003; McMillan, 2000).

Regarding assessmen formats, the lectures reported their different options from their experience. A large number of the interviewed lecturers base on group performance of oral presentations whereas only two lecturers rely on group performance of oral presentations, their portfolios and their written reports.
One teacher maintained:

(B) "*In my Business English classes, besides oral group presentations in classes and students' portfolios, each group has to hand in their written reports, in which they cover theoretical foundation and their solutions to the problems within the projects. Additionally, an overview of the contributions of each member into the project is also demonstrated in the reports, which also influence the final marks of these group members.*"

However, one female lecturer was in favor of the assessment of five multiple sources, stating that:

"G" "*In order to gain a comprehensive picture of assessment, I base my assessment on multiple sources including physical model, group presentation, meetings with the course staff, group reports, and personal (reflective) reports, each of which account for 20% of the total marks.*

It can be seen that this practice is supported by the principle of triangulation by Gonella (2001) which is in favor of assessment of multiple formats.

How to assess

In the interviews, the majority of lectures revealed that the alternative forms they utilized included teachers' assessment and peer-assessment while only five lecturers reported their use of a combination of teachers' assessment, peer-assessment and self-assessment .However, some lecturers pointed out some drawbacks concerning those methods of assessment including subjectivity in assessment, lack of assessment competence and some interferences such as students' biases and students' relationship. A female lecturer revealed:

(C) *"Peer-assessment can be subjective as it can be affected by students emotions and biases. Moreover, students may not have sufficient capabilities for assessment"*

This remark correlate favorably with the points by Brew et al. (2009) who stated that peer assessment could create strain among students. However, peer assessment, in their opinions, can enhance self-confidence and independence among students.

In terms of the distribution of marks among group members, the findings from teachers' interviews indicated that the distribution of marks can be decided upon many criteria, which paves the way for a variety of possibilities. Some teachers shared the experience of how Business English projects are marked:

(F) "*All group members can enjoy the same basic marks for their presentations and these marks can then be modified in the way that is agreed upon by all group members. According to group consensus, all group members can enjoy the same marks for their projects. Alternatively, their marks can be varied with some more percentages added to members with higher degree of contribution and participation in the projects, as agreed by the groups.*"

All of interviewed lecturers supported the application of VALUE rubrics into the assessment. However, adaptions were recommended by lecturers for tailoring the rubrics including adding the criteria of "accuracy" to the dimensions because of the requirements of accuracy among third-year students of Business English. This finding is in line with students' positive evaluation of the application of VALUE rubrics in the assessment of BE group projects. One lecturer added:

"E" "*As our students are English-majored, there requires high degree of language competence. As a result, "accuracy" should be added to the dimensions owing to its utmost importance in students' academic world and future career"*

When to assess

Most of the lectures reported that they carry out on-going assessment by means of keeping track of the formation, the collaboration and the performance of the groups from the beginning to the end of the courses whereas three lectures supported that they only counted on the assessment at the end of the course. One female lecturer shared his idea that:

"K" "*Ongoing assessment can keep students motivated and committed to the requirements of Business English courses from the beginning to the end. Students can be required to submit minutes of group meetings so that teachers can keep track of the collaboration among group members during the implementation of their projects.*"

Regular assessment in project-based learning has been supported by Barron & Darling-Hammond, (2007) claiming that PBL is regarded most effective when regular opportunities for assessment are provided in addition to reflection and reminder of project benchmarks.

How to consult students on assessment

All lectures revealed that their teachers provided basic information about Business English projects at the beginning of the course. It is in this way that students can be highly aware of the assessment methods so that they can make thorough preparation for their Business English projects. This idea is consistent with the points by Ross and Rolheiser (2003) who emphasize the importance of transparent assessments, which means that students have to know what will be assessed and also how it will be carried out.

However, the lectures claimed that students don't have a say in how they will be assessed in their Business English projects. This could be justified by the fact that the forms of assessment are laid out in the teaching syllabus and any changes, therefore, must go through decision-making process of the faculty.

Recommendations for assessment

It can be seen the findings of the interview of lecturers that they provided various responses on recommendations for assessment of Business English projects. Concerning students' consultation, two lecturers shared their ideas that technology can act as an effective tool in the assessment of Business English projects. One student commented:

"E" "*With the numerous social networking sites, we teachers can take advantage of Facebook or Twitter by making them into effective discussion boards through which teachers can provide a lot support and guidance on Business English projects. Simultaneously, students can share lots of ideas and thoughts about many Business English themes*."

In the interviews, three teachers made suggestions for the announcement of the constituent marks that make up their final marks for Business English projects or the percentages of these components, which can maintain the transparency within the assessment system. One female teacher showed her idea of using softwares in support of assessment:

"G" "*Teachers should be encouraged to utilize Microsoft Excel in calculating the constituents of the final marks, in which the functions can be based on the ratio of the constituent marks. It is in this way that the accuracy and the effectiveness of the calculations can be enhanced.*"

Conclusion and implications

In conclusion, the findings offer an overall picture of students' and teachers' perceptions of assessment of group projects in BE courses. To be more specific, the results of the study reveal that teachers and students strongly advocate that there is a strong correlation between group project assessment, the learning content and real-life application with a level of transparency of assessments and their relevance to students' abilities and diversity.

However, lecturers responses indicated that they have little say in the assessment planning process. As a result, there exits many things to be fulfilled in this field such as involving students in the assessment decision-making process apart from enhancing authenticity of assessment tasks.

Each methods of assessment has its own advantages and disadvantages. Teachers are those who master these methods and can then utilize and combine them in the most flexible and effective ways. In other words, the choice of the assessment methods for Business English group projects should be modified depending on the teaching and learning contexts. Besides, rubrics in general can be an effective tool in the assessment of group projects and the recommended VALUE rubrics by AAC&U (2010) in particular proves to be applicable with positive feedback from lecturers and students in our study.

Last but not least, our study findings show that PBL environment enables universities to help students develop skills and competencies in real-life "authentic situation" and to enable them to demonstrate a wide range of skills and knowledge with their project-based learning. Above all, perceptions and valuable ideas from students and teachers in our study can equip teachers with effective tools for implementing group project assessment in Business English contexts.

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Foreign Language Adoption of Young Learners (3-6 years old) through an AI Robot

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Abstract
Artificial Intelligence is being more and more innovative in terms of design, development and usage. In recent years, the education sector has introduced an increasing number of robots to help young children learn their mother tongue effectively. The research subject in this study is Keeko, a small robot, embedded with language learning functions and other miscellaneous programs, designed and produced by a Chinese company called Hai Tong Shi ke. The research used questionnaire and observation to collect data from a play group. The findings show that Keeko was effective in facilitating children's learning of Chinese in ways of reading and pronunciation, writing and spelling. The research used questionnaire and observation to collect data from a play group. There were 20 randomly selected participants (both parents or just the mother or father alone) from the customers who purchased Keeko in the previous year. The questionnaire required between fifteen to twenty minutes for the parents to finish after the playgroup finished their activities and the researcher the observation. The researcher alone observed and recorded the the entire playgroup activity (40 minutes) using a digital camera, in which the children simply follow the pre-programmed instructions of Keeko. The target for this observation is 3-6 years old children. The results show that 15 of the 20 randomly selected children had improved Chinese vocabulary both in the oral and written forms. In this research, the measurement of “effective in facilitation" was defined in terms of Writing and spelling, Reading and Pronunciation.

Keywords: Keeko, robot, Artificial Intelligence, 3-6 years old children, learning Chinese as a foreign language

1. Introduction

1.1 What is Keeko?

Keeko is an artificial intelligent educational robot, which was originally developed by a company called Hai Tong Shi ke (Chinese: 智童时刻) located in Xiamen, China. The robot was launch in 2016, promoted as embedded with an operational programming and system that had been specially designed for young children (CNC, 2017). The purpose of the robot is to, through the utilization of artificial intelligence and optimization of traditional education modes, facilitate the learning results of young children (ikeeko, n.d.). As of now, the robot is suitable for use in personal, family and institutional (such as kindergartens and early childhood training centers) situations. The robot itself, up to now, has won many national patents and awards in the industry and obtained four software copyrights.

1.2 Research problem

For many years, there have been many ideas in using AI (artificial intelligence) to facilitate pre-school children's learning. This study introduces the relevant technical specs of Keeko and how it is used in helping young learners (3-6 years old) adopt Chinese as a foreign language. This study explores both advantages and issues in this regard as well. As it is, AI is not something new in the area of learning a foreign language. For example, interactive dictionaries were introduced in schools and to students of all ages back in the late 1990s and received extreme popularity.

In today's society, robots exist not only just in films or novels. As a matter of fact, they are found in many ordinary places in real life ranging from home to high specialized facilities. There are many types of them. For example, in heavy industries, robots are used for automation and to carry out pre-programmed tasks. Even, they can be programmed to perform surgical operations and dispose of bombs or radioactive materials. With the advancement of artificial intelligence and robotic technologies, many types of robots have been or are being launched in the educational sector to facilitate learning of all sorts of subjects and for different age groups (Felicia and Sharif, 2014). Despite the industry is booming, there are still many doubts in the public and in the academic circles that whether these learning-specialized robots are truly as useful as what they have been marketed to be.

1.3 Aim of the study and Research questions

This study aims to confirm whether young learners (3-6 years old) can adopt Chinese as a foreign language through Keeko? In order to do so, there are a few research questions that need to be adequately answered.

1. What the characteristics of young children's linguistic development? Do Keeko's functions be corresponding to them?

2. How do young children's acquire a second language? Do Keeko's functions support their learning process?

3. What are the chief benefits and shortcomings of using Keeko to learning Chinese? And how to overcome the shortcomings?

2. Literature review

2.1 The characteristics of young children's linguistic development

A young child's learning process of language is very complicated and dynamic. Bee (1995) pointed out that, after being born, the child must develop a number of capabilities in order to acquire his mother tongue. For example, he needs to distinguish the vocabularies in the flow of verbal exchanges in his surroundings, understand the meaning of the vocabularies, develop the awareness of interacting with others and so on. Scientists have identified the exact developmental stages and the corresponding characteristics. At 6 to 7 months old, the child can distinguish vocabularies; at 8 to 10 months old, he can understand what meaning words represent (Stocco & Prat, 2014).

What is more, at 6 to 12 months, the child can express through sign languages, such as hand gestures. He can also mimic the sounds of words. Before 16 months, the child's vocabulary development is slow. After 16 months, the speed picks up dramatically. Ramírez and Kuhl (2016) estimated an average child can learn 10 to 20 new words per week. Especially, after 17 or 18 months old, the child experiences an explosive development in vocabularies. He can memorize 600 to 700 words. As his life experiences and socialization grow, his vocabularies also keep growing in number. At the age of 5 to 6, the child can spell 2000 to 2500 words in addition to understanding abstract words such as "love", "friendship", "success" etc.

2.2 Hong Kong young children’s acquisition of Mandarin Chinese and Cantonese

Hong Kong is a multi-national city, with people from all over the world. This has brought about a fusion of linguistic environment which allows for different languages to co-exist in many situations (David, and Li, 2000). The three common languages which are being spoken or used in Hong Kong is Mandarin Chinese, Cantonese. The Education Bureau of Hong Kong also has been attempting to encourage students at a very young age to be bilingual and acquired a certain degree of skill in writing and speaking both Mandarin Chinese and Cantonese. In addition, “The language education policy of the Government of the HKSAR aims to enable most students to become biliterate and trilingual.” (Education Bureau). This means children will start to acquirer a second language at a very young age at school or in their leisure times by way of extra-curriculum activities.

The research “*Teaching Languages To Young Learners”* explains extensively how Piaget Stages Of Development and Vygotsky Theory could be adopted to develop children's learning of languages. Piaget believes that children learn from their surrounding environments, while Vygotsky's theory emphasizes that children develop language through social and interacting with people. (Cameron, 2001). However, the teaching and developing of a second language have also taken a new route. For children who are exposed to bilingualism, the learning must consider the influence of the respective other language (Meisel, 2005).

2.3 The feasibility of using robots in early childhood education

According to the Elkin, Sullivan, & Bers (2014) they have found out "Research shows that children who are exposed to STEM and computer programming at an early age demonstrate fewer gender-based stereotypes when choosing STEM careers (Metz, 2007; Steele, 1997) and fewer obstacles entering these academic fields (Madill et al., 2007; Markert, 1996)." STEM stands for science, technology, engineering, and mathematics, it is a curriculum based on the idea of educating students in four specific disciplines. The study also suggest that to expose children to STEM is to have robotic manipulative for children in class. (Elkin, Sullivan, & Bers, 2014).

Secondly, robots helps children build their reciting skill reading skills, fine motor skill, cognitive skill and social skills. Elkin, Sullivan, & Bers (2014) have summarized from studies that "Robotic manipulatives allow children to participate in creative explorations, develop fine motor skills and hand-eye coordination, and engage in collaboration and teamwork" (Bers, 2008, 2010; K. Lee, Sullivan, & Bers, 2013).

Last but not least, young children are more willing to interact with the robots then with adults (Wood, et al. 2013). As robots are more attractive, expressive or even entertaining to children. Although robots seems to hard and complicated to use as well as it takes time to learn the features of different robots (Toh et al, 2016). However, we can overcome all this with time and when the teachers are there to guide everything can get smoother. Therefore, Robots are can be convenient to use and it helps children to develop in all rounded in early childhood development.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research method

This research focuses on answering the research question: "How can young learners (3-6 years old) adopt Chinese as a foreign language through Keeko?" Hence, the aim of the research is to analyze and obtain a significant amount of in-depth understanding on the Keeko the robot in the practice of learning Chinese. The research results are especially useful for ECE educators or for the implementation to use it in the elementary schools' or kindergartens' classrooms. In consideration of the research elements stated above, the methodological approach chosen by the author is the interpretivist approach with a mixture of data collection instruments (questionnaire and field observation). They are sufficient to give more insight about how Keeko can be used in ECE setting. Moreover, a qualitative approach collection method was used to collect data.

3.2 Data collection process and design

To collect data for the research, both observation and questionnaire were implemented collect first-hand data from the research subjects. Firstly, the research used questionnaire and observation to collect data from a play group. There were 20 randomly selected participants (both parents or just the mother or father alone) from the customers who purchased Keeko in the previous year.

Secondly, the participants also included a teacher who led the playgroup programme such as giving instructions to the children as to how to interact with Keeko. Afterwards, the teacher was asked to complete the questionnaire and answer a few questions regarding her experiences in and approach to adopt Keeko in her teaching schedule. Both open ended and close ended question were used to know about the understanding of the teacher on Keeko. The purpose of the questionnaire was to know teacher's opinion on the Keeko and her understanding.

The questionnaire required between fifteen to twenty minutes for the parents to finish after the playgroup finished their activities and the researcher the observation. The first questionnaire which was given in the beginning on the first observation had a few simple questions to know teacher expectations and what she thinks how she can use. While the tore detailed questionnaire which was in format of giving point was giving to understand teacher's overall views on the robots in all terms.

Moreover, The researcher alone observed and recorded the the entire playgroup activity (40 minutes) using a digital camera, in which the children simply follow the pre-programmed instructions of Keeko. The target for this observation is 3-6 years old children. In this research, the measurement of "effective in facilitation" was defined in terms of Writing and spelling, Reading and Pronunciation.

In the end, there were 4 observation done on the children and teacher while they were using the Keeko in a period of one month. The children had a playgroup once a week every Monday morning. Each observation was around 15 minutes. The Keeko was placed in a Chinese play group setting. The playgroups setting was structured, with the concept of STEM and with children from age 3- 5 years old in it.

Lastly, the Keeko-centered learning programme was well planned and structured in order to offer the children a wide variety of subjects to read, interact with and play with in an hour. For example, Keeko was placed in the classroom and children were instructed to ask it a few questions, or play counting games or imitate animal sounds or movements with it. At this time, the author was observing and recording the entire event using the Running record observation method. And at 2 of the last observation a video recording was also used to record children using the Keeko. The purpose of the observation was to know how children are using the Keeko the challenges and outcomes are they having. Also to observe how children is able to use to teacher children. It was a STEM playgroup, with children from age 3- 5 years old.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Reading and Writing

First and foremost, the results show that 15 of the 20 randomly selected children had improved Chinese vocabulary both in the oral and written forms. The teacher admitted to its effectiveness based on the questionnaire results. Before the teacher was able to use the Keeko a vocabulary-learning device in the play group. Through interactions, such as letting the children ask Keeko to read along with them a paragraph of story in Chinese, the teacher would be able know about each child's vocabulary skills and design better learning activities for them. The teachings learning outcome from Keeko was that children will be able to use it them self and play with it. When asked the teacher about her preference rational of choosing Keeko rather than other divides.

Moreover, when it comes to writing in Chinese, the questionnaire results show that Keeko was effective in helping children to learn how to write easy words, ranging from fruits, animals, insects, vehicles, to persons etc. Especially, the teacher admitted that she gave Keeko a very high usability ranking (3(average) to 4(Good) points). Some other teachers gave 4 (good) point for interactive features, making it easy to use. However, they only gave a 2(poor) point for resource are easy to understand. Moreover, when questioned about teacher-focused pedagogical requirement, teacher overall gave 4 (much) for some points, for instance, the Keeko enable teacher to; Set own writing objectives, create own materials to correct students' spellings, develop lesson plans and experiment and writing activities in order to consolidate the new words. However, 2 (little) point was given for point collaborate with peer in common workplace and design and develop more comprehensive writing assignments.

4.2 Listening and Spelling

Firstly, in terms of listening skills, the teacher She instructed Keeko to read out a short story or sing a nursery rhyme. In the mean time, the teacher also chose several stories from her iPad and computer which she thought all the children could listen to more attentively in the presence and under the influence of Keeoko's interactivity. The teacher expected the Keeko can interact and respond with the children based on the stories they had read together. Also the teacher thought that, the screen on the Keeko can be used to play pronunciation games; especially for those words most children thought were too difficult at their age. When asked what method she would use, she responded that as the Keeko will be attractive to the children it will grab their attention to focus on certain sounds and repeat them a few times till she thought they had got it more or less right.

Secondly, about the spelling, the observation results show that children had a lot of chance to use Keeko to practice pronunciation and play a number of interactive games, which they couldn't do at home before. To be specific, there are 4 crucial observations. Firstly, the boys were more interested in using the Keeko than the girl in the playgroup. As most of the time boys were the ones who were more interested in using it to spell out new words in order to go through new stories. According to research , it have states that boys tend perform better than girls in one cognitive area: visual-spatial integration and certain types of hand-eye coordination.[11] Secondly, it has been also noticed the children had language obstacle while using it as the Robot Keeko's language was only in mandarin. Therefore, the instructions might be hard for Cantonese kids to follow to spell out difficult words. So it was hard for the children to understand what the robot is saying as no translation was there. As a result, the teacher's intervention was to help the children spell slowly and effectively as they play.

Thirdly, there were few times when the teacher was there to translate what Keeko was reading to the children from Cantonese to Mandarin Chinese or the other way around. And then the children were able to click the right thing on the screen. Although the teacher sometimes had to focus on the other children as well who were playing in another corner. So the interaction with Keeko for children was not efficient in changing the Cantonese spelling to Mandarin, or the other way around. Fourthly, from observations, the children were not clearly instructed where to touch to manipulate Keeko properly, or guided much by the teacher. But they were able to click around and made sense on what to play and listen to. As the proficiency of the Keeko of speaking was smooth and thus its function to help children to spell simple words was effective.

4.3 Overall assessment on Keeko's effectiveness in helping children learn Chinese

In terms of reading and writing, Keeko was at children's level equipment to use. The use of Keeko helped children to develop new level of skills. For instance, the children learned to use the Keeko with their peers to read a story together, adopting a faster reading speed. In the beginning children were not able to take turns to touch the screen as a result the Keeko would go on the different moods very quickly. It also has been noticed that children also were stated to understand mandarin. Through the game the children did start to understand the instruction. The gaming part seemed more attractive to the children, where children had to match something, find something in a limited time. Although the teacher helped to translate in the beginning.

As for Listening and Spelling, children learned to develop new listening skills following the teacher's instruction to find out certain details of the story or nursery rhyme. According to Chang et al. (2010) which had their robot read stories aloud, ask and answer simple questions, and lead students in reciting vocabulary and sentences (Westlund, et al. 2017). In language development perspective, Keeko also had the progresses of foreign language enhancement as it too has activities such as storytelling and singing function in it, which can help children to spell new words too. Read aloud stories with emotions, pictures, and movements can contribute to the spelling results. As well as the games can attract children attention more in learning.

5. Conclusions and recommendations for future research

5.1 Conclusions

The purpose of this research study was to know more about Keeko and the experiences of the teacher and children's who uses the Keeko. And to understand how Keeko can help children adopt Chinese as a foreign language through Keeko. From contacting the observation on children and doing questioner from children more depth understanding has been gather about Keeko.

Based on the theoretical findings in the literature review, it is confirmed that Keeko can be used as an interactive robot to help young children in many ways to develop their language skills and can also be used by teachers to conduct many foreign language activities at school.
In the mean time, the observation results indicate Keeko can be very fun to play with the increase children's motivation and other developments skills. Also, under this mix-mode research, it shows that a teacher who never used a Keeko before, it was

easy to use and get familiar with. The Keeko was attractive to children and it helped to get them to involve more within a playgroup setting.

The questionnaire findings suggest that the teacher has encounter some problems in introducing Keeko as a learning tool to both children and their parents. They also need to help from school administrators or Keeko manufacturer in order to speed up children how to learn and use Keeko quickly. In concern of the Cantonese children, Keeko would have better reception if it had other language setting in the system other than mandarin. Research like Westlund, et al. (2017), shows that robots can be used to teach children early language. It is suggested that the robot could be modified to have the system to be more interactive and responsive with the children. In terms of language acquisition/adoption, some of the activities should be more and well designed to enhance the efficiency of teaching and learning.

For example, the songs or they singing part, having visual of words or video could help children to get more interested in learning and following to sing. As that could get children to engage with the Keeko, which will help to build language development. Moreover, the Keeko could also be upgraded to have a dialogic reading mode as children have short attention span. In order to keep them engage with the Keeko or the story session the Keeko could have function which could prompt children with questions and engage them in discussions or in story while Keeko is reading to them.

5.2 Limitations of research and recommendations for future research

In this reach, the limitations were that the author was only able to observe the use of Keeko by teacher in a play group setting. Because there were many children, they needed to take turn to use it. And when it was a child's turn, he did not had much time to use it long enough for learning effectiveness to appear. In consideration of this limitation, the author recommends that future researchers conduct their research with only one child for deeper observation. The teacher is advised to use it with the children A Naturalistic observation was taken as children were in their normal play group setting and environment. The implication of this research in the future would be using it in within a curriculum, use it as a teaching aid by the teacher. So to observe and to evaluate how it can be used in a real teaching setting and in curriculum by the teacher.

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A Teaching Approach to Develop Basic Academic Writing Ability and Logical Thinking Skills for Japanese University Students

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Abstract
This presentation discusses an approach for teaching basic academic writing ability and logical thinking skills to Japanese university students. Through this approach, students acquire fundamental knowledge and skills of paragraph writing by engaging in pre-writing tasks of constructing outlines and discussing their ideas with peers. They receive detailed feedback and make multiple revisions. In the previous study, the authors conducted a survey with first-year students and found that more than half of the participants lacked experience in paragraph writing during high school (Kawano and Nagakura, 2017). Given this background, a series of five-lesson instruction based on the idea of process writing, with a focus on argumentative writing as its genre (Badger and White, 2000), was developed. At first, the students write an outline after discussing the prompt, "SNS (Social Media Network) is beneficial for education", with peers and compose the first draft. Upon receiving feedback from the instructor, they revise the draft and submit the final version. This approach was implemented at a private university in Tokyo with 60 university students. Their progress was analyzed in terms of the logical flow of discussion and elaboration included in their paragraphs. The data indicate that participants improved in their holistic writing scores and enjoyed the challenging practice of logical thinking, which was revealed by the exit survey. However, there were a few students who had continual difficulty in acquiring basic skills. The paper also discusses points of improvement in the instructional module to attend a wide range of students' writing levels.

Keywords: L2 writing instruction, logical thinking, peer/teacher feedback

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Introduction

In the present study, the author attempts to present an effective program to teach L2 writing and logical thinking skills for Japanese university science students. Recently, enhancing logical thinking skills and communicative competence have become the foci in education in Japan. According to the reform plan of the Japanese Ministry of Education, the new Course of Study aims to promote logical thinking and writing skills through well-balanced instruction of four skills of English: listening, reading, speaking and writing (MEXT, 2018). Given this current situation, it is necessary to establish an effective writing program to improve English proficiency and logical thinking skills. In order to clarify the present situation of writing instruction in Japan, Kawano and Nagakura analyzed the writing activities in MEXT approved high school textbooks and found that the textbooks need improvement in terms of showing model paragraphs and themes and topics that would encourage logical thinking and argumentative writing (Kawano & Nagakura, 2017). It was determined that the students were only given sentence-level exercises of writing and translation tasks. In addition, a survey was conducted with university first-year students, and it was found that more than half of the participants lacked experience in paragraph writing during high school. With this background in mind, a module for teaching basic academic writing ability and logical thinking skills was developed and implemented at a private Japanese university. Through this approach, students are expected to acquire fundamental knowledge and skills of paragraph writing by engaging in pre-writing tasks of constructing outlines and discussing ideas with peers. It is hoped that this study serves as a practitioner report of the module and leads to further development of a solid and rigorous writing curriculum for Japanese university students.

A Process Writing Module

A writing module is developed based upon major findings from existing studies including teaching organization explicitly, integrating peer-activities and providing focused feedback. First, the module started with basics such as teaching the structure and organization of English paragraphs and essays. In the last thirty years of research on the English writing of Japanese students, especially argumentative or opinion writing, inductive logic and a lack of logical consistency were found to be tendencies of Japanese writers (Kamimura & Oi, 1998; Hirose, 2005). Since Japanese high school students may lack experiences with paragraph writing, explicit instruction is necessary at university level. Aiming to teach how to write with clear organization and logical consistency, Kamimura and Oi (2006) conducted a-year-long explicit instructional program to help Japanese EFL students improve their metacognitive abilities necessary for producing academic writing. The program proposed an instruction approach which included knowledge of writing, as well as practice activities to internalize the concept of unity and coherence. The study also provided process-based instruction, including generation of ideas and multiple drafts writing, hence, this study became the theoretical framework of the module.

Second, a recent trend of focusing on collaborative learning in English for academic purposes (EAP)curricula (Suzuki, 2012; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009) was considered when the module was developed. Newmann & McDonough (2015) investigated the relationship between student interactions during collaborative pre-writing activities and students' written texts in an EAP course. Tsuji (2016) explored the influence of pre-writing peer activities of Japanese college students on their perception of learning. Eighty university students participated in pre-writing activities with peers in Japanese, and then they produced collaborative writing in English. The study found that students perceived the pre-writing activity positively. Tanaka discussed that the motivation of students plays an essential part in writing instruction, and that peer discussion promoted this motivation (2009).

Third, research of teacher feedback is an important and major field which should be taken into consideration in planning a writing curriculum. Hyland and Hyland (2006) carried out a comprehensive survey of research on feedback, discussing issues in teacher written feedback, teacher conferencing and oral feedback, peer feedback and self-evaluation, and computer-mediated feedback. Despite the large number of studies (over 200 in their survey), Hyland and Hyland concluded that there is little consensus and most of the fundamental questions remain unanswered. As for the research on Japanese students, a common focus is on correcting grammar errors (Suzuki, et al, 2014, Sumida, 2018). Sumida measured the effectiveness of three teaching approaches to Japanese university students: explicit grammar instruction, written corrective feedback, and the combination of both approaches. It was found that only those who had both approaches progressed. Iwata and Suzuki (2017) investigated the effects of teacher feedback at high school English classes and concluded that the teacher comments on the content motivated students.

Teaching Schedule

The author hoped to adopt advice from these studies, and planned a process writing module, which is composed of a number of lessons of 50-minute instruction. In Japan, a university English class is usually conducted in 90- to 100-minute periods, and this module will take up about half of class time. That way, this module can be incorporated in an EAP program, a general English course, or a writing course.

In 2017, this module was implemented in three classes at a science department of a private university in Tokyo. Class Y1 was a first-year general English class with 26 students of CEFR A2 level, and Classes Y3a and Y3b which were both third -year presentation classes with 17 multi-level (CFER A2 –B2) students respectively. The students' outlines and drafts were analyzed to measure the development of the students' English writing skills.

Table 1: Participants of the Study

Class	Number of Participants	Level	Course	Hours of Instruction
Y1	26	A2 (streamed)	General English	5
Y3a	17	A2-B1 (mixed)	English Presentation	4
Y3b	17	A2-B2 (mixed)	English Presentation	4

The participants wrote an opinion paragraph/essay on the prompt, "SNS (Social Media Network) is beneficial/ harmful for education." This topic was chosen as it was expected to be interesting to science students. All three classes were taught by the same teacher who taught paragraph/essay writing using this module.

At the end of the module, open-ended questions about the writing experiences were asked:

1) What do you like most about this module?
2) What do you think needs improvement?

Emphases of the Module

The module was developed based upon emphases which were derived from existing studies: teaching the basics of paragraph/essay structure, assigning outlines, having students engage in peer feedback, and giving individual feedback to students.

Teaching of basics of paragraph/essay structure.

During the first session of all three classes, the instructor reviewed the structure of a paragraph, explaining a topic sentence, concluding remarks, supporting details, and elaboration. In Y3a and Y3b classes, the basics of five-paragraph essay writing were explained with model samples.

Assigning outlines.

Students discussed their ideas in pairs or groups, helping each other to construct outlines. Then they submitted outlines to the instructor who checked them and gave feedback to the students. When the submitted outlines were considered clear and logical, the students started to develop them into paragraphs. When they were not satisfactory, the instructor pointed out the flaws in logic to the students and had them corrected.

Giving Focused Teacher Feedback.

During the module, the instructor provided focused feedback on the submitted outlines and the written products. The feedback was given online, and a short conference was held.

Table 2. Intervention and Scaffolding

Week	Writing Activities	Intervention/scaffolding
1	• Brainstorming on a prompt • Basics of paragraph writing (Y1), essay writing (Y3a and Y3b)	• Peer discussion • Explicit instruction
2	• Making a draft outline and submission • Studying examples of outlines and paragraphs	• Explicit instruction
Online & conference		• Instructor feedback on the first draft

3	• Individual feedback conference on the first outline • Revision of the first outline and submission	
Online		• Instructor approval/feedback on the revised outline
4	• Writing the first draft (homework assignment) • Submission	• Peer discussion
Online		• Instructor feedback on the first draft
5	• Individual feedback conference on the first draft. • Revision of the first draft and submission	

Framework of Analysis

As the module was implemented, the instructor kept records of instruction and made notes on the classroom activities. The submitted written products were rated against the criteria adopted from the study of Kamimura and Oi (2006). In this study, their framework was modified to reveal the growth of students' writing abilities, especially from the perspectives of organization and logical flow.

1. Evaluation rubric of TOEFL Independent Writing (0-6 points)
(https://www.ets.org/Media/Tests/TOEFL/pdf/Writing_Rubrics.pdf)
The holistic score was rated based upon the TOEFL Independent Writing rubric.

2. Criteria of logical flow based upon Kamimura and Oi (2006)

1) Logical consistency

The logical consistency measured the directionality of an argument. A paragraph or an essay was labeled as either uni-directional or bi-directional. The former shows one consistent opinion, while the latter supports opposite or inconsistent opinions in the same paragraph/essay.

2) Clear statement

This criterion was to see whether a paragraph/essay has a clear statement of the writer's opinion, specifically the topic sentence of a paragraph.

3) Clear conclusion

This criterion was to see whether there is a final statement to conclude and summarize a paragraph. The use of the same words as the topic sentence was admitted in this study.

4) Organization

A paragraph or an essay was rated according to its clarity of organization. When its structure was logical and clear, it was rated as a 2. A paragraph which is written with some discourse markers but lacks consistency in the logic, is rated as 1. A paragraph with a few rambling sentences was labeled as 0.

5) Elaboration

This criterion measures the degree of supporting details in a paragraph or an essay. When supporting sentences were accompanied with effective elaboration, the writing was rated as 3. When at least one supporting sentence is well elaborated, it was rated as 2. When there was insufficient elaboration, it was rated as 1; a paragraph with supporting sentences which had no evidence or supporting details was evaluated as 0.

3. Word count

Finally, the word count of the student's writing was recorded.

Two independent raters evaluated what students wrote and submitted through the school Intranet system, according to these criteria above.

Results

Teaching Records.

At first, the progress of the students was observed and noted as follows.

Week 1-Week 2:

The students wrote an outline after brainstorming with peers, composed the draft outline and submitted it online. Upon receiving feedback from the instructor, they revised the outline. At this stage, some students managed to write a logical outline and proceeded to their first draft of a paragraph or an essay. On the other hand, some struggled and needed assistance from peers and/or an instructor to finally come up with a solid outline, which could be developed into a paragraph.

An example of a draft outline by Student A was as follows:

<u>First Outline by Student A (as is in the original)</u>

Topic Sentence: The prevalence of SNS is harmful for education.

Supporting Sentences:

1. The use of SNS distracts us.

2. I can't begin to study using SNS.
3. You can find various information.

Conclusion: We should decide on a rule for when to use SNS.

Another student pointed out that 1) the first and second supporting sentences convey the same message, although the expressions are different; 2) the third supporting sentence was a benefit, not a disadvantage, therefore, it does not support the topic sentence; and 3) the conclusion is not logically consistent with the topic sentence. In response to these comments, Student A revised the outline as below:

Revised outline by Student A

Topic Sentence: The prevalence of SNS is harmful for education.
Supporting Sentences:
1. The use of SNS distracts us.
2. SNS can be addictive.
3. Bullying is widespread on SNS.

Conclusion: SNS is dangerous and harmful for education.

Although the second and the third supporting sentences still need further revisions, the logic became clearer and the conclusion became consistent with the topic sentence. Student A was able to learn how to write an outline through discussions with peers.

Week 3-Week 4:

The first submission of outlines revealed that there were some common flaws of logic in students' outlines. One of them is that a supporting sentence was only vaguely connected to a topic sentence. For example, the supporting sentence, "It is convenient to find information on SNS" needs clarification and needs to be discussed in relation to education. The instructor explained this tendency to the whole class in the next class session. The comments to the students' outlines were returned to individual students online, and in class, brief conferences between a student and the instructor were held to confirm the student understood the meaning and implications of the feedback.

Original Supporting Sentence of Student B:

It is convenient to find information on SNS. We can find information without going to the library.

The instructor explained to the writer that these sentences should relate to education and support the topic sentence.

Revised Supporting Sentence of Student B:

It is convenient to find information on SNS in our study. It helps us when we search for books to finish homework.

Another example is as follows:

Original Supporting Sentence of Student C:

There is a possibility that the ability to think by oneself falls by using SNS.

The instructor commented that this statement needed to be supported by evidence.

Revised Supporting Sentence of Student C:

There is a possibility that academic performance is damaged by SNS. According to a study, GPA of students who use SNS is lower than that of those who do not.

In this way, students started to write logically, elaborate supporting sentences, and provide evidence for their opinions.

The focus of the feedback was mainly on logical flow. Due to the large size of the class and time constraints, minor grammar and usage errors were pointed out to a student but not discussed in detail, unless they had serious impact on the meaning of the student's writing.

Week 5:

As a result, Y1 class had 5 sessions in total, and the students submitted their paragraphs twice. On the other hand, Y3a and Y3b students had four sessions. All of them submitted an outline and revised it in response to comments by peers and the instructor. At the fourth class, half of them submitted an essay, and the rest a paragraph. They were not able to revise and submit the second composition.

So far the activities and interactions in class were explained through notes by the instructor. Next, the results from the analyses of submitted outlines and writings were explained.

Analysis of Students' Outlines and Writings.

1. Evaluation rubric of TOEFL Independent Writing (0-6 points)
In Class Y1, the average score of the first draft was 1.1, while the second draft was 3.5. The average score of Y3a was 2.2, while that of Y3b was 3.0.

2. Criteria of logical flow based upon Kamimura and Oi (2006)

1) Logical consistency

In Class Y1, 2 of 24 students wrote bi-directional arguments in their first drafts; in their second drafts, 4 wrote bi-directional arguments. Both Y3a and Y3b had one bi-directional argument within their production.

2) Clear statement

In Class Y1, 22 students out of 26 wrote a clear statement in the first and second drafts. Four were not able to write a clear topic sentence at the end of the module. In Y3a, 2 out of 17 students did not write a clear statement; in Y3b, 1 was unable to write one.

3) Clear conclusion

In Class Y1, at first 16 students wrote a clear conclusion; at the end of the module, 20 wrote a clear conclusion in their paragraphs. In Y3a, 14 out of 17 had a clear conclusion; Y3b had 16 with clear conclusions.

4) Organization

In Class Y1, at first, there were 4 students with a score of 2 (well-organized), and 6 students with 0 (rambled on). At the second submission, 11 students received a 2 and one student was at the level of 0. In Y3a, whose average was 1.31, 6 attained a score of 2, and 3 had a score of 0. In Y3b, one student received a 1, and the rest a 2.

5) Elaboration

The table below indicates the number of students in K1 who scored 0 to 3. Though there are no students who attained a score of 3, the distribution shows some improvement of scores.

3. Word Count

In Class Y1, the average word count in their first drafts was 77.4, with a range of 47-147. The second draft showed improvement with an average word count of 122.3, and a range of 99-181. Class Y3a had an average word count of 221.0, with a range of 94-470. Class Y3b had an average of 243.7, with a range of 120-431.

These findings are summarized in Table 3; the students in Class Y1 showed improvements in stating a conclusion clearly, organizing a paragraph, and elaborating using supporting details. However, logical consistency and clear statements remained the same. The increase in the word counts indicated that students were able to write more, which demonstrates that they became more fluent in L2 writing.

Table 3. Evaluation of Y1 (n=26)

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>First Draft</th><th></th><th>Second Draft</th><th></th></tr>
<tr><td>TOEFL based holistic score</td><td>Average 1.1</td><td></td><td>Average 3.5</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Logical consistency</td><td>6</td><td>bi-directional</td><td>4</td><td>bi-directional</td></tr>
<tr><td>22</td><td>uni-directional</td><td>24</td><td>uni-directional</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Clear statement</td><td>22</td><td>clear statement</td><td>22</td><td>clear statement</td></tr>
<tr><td>4</td><td>no clear statement</td><td>4</td><td>no clear statement</td></tr>
</table>

Clear conclusion	16	clear conclusion	22	clear conclusion
	10	no clear conclusion	4	no clear conclusion
Organization	4	Score 2 (good structure)	11	Score 2 (good structure)
	16	Score 1 (some structure)	14	Score 1 (some structure)
	6	Score 0 (no structure)	1	Score 0 (no structure)
Elaboration	0	Score 3	0	Score 3
	3	Score 2	14	Score 2
	12	Score 1	5	Score 1
	11	Score 0	7	Score 0
Word Count	Average 77.4 words Range 47-147		Average 122.3 Range 99-191	

Table 4 shows the evaluation of third-year students. Y3a is slightly higher in all the criteria, though they wrote better than first-year students. As was explained previously, the third-year students submitted a paragraph or an essay once. The instructor gave feedback to them, though the revision was made and the second writing was submitted only on a voluntary base.

Table 4. Evaluation of Y3a (n-17) and Y3b (n=17)

	Y3a		Y3a	
TOEFL based holistic score	Average 2.2		Average 3.0	
Logical consistency	1	bi-directional	1	bi-directional
	16	uni-directional	16	uni-directional
Clear statement	15	clear statement	16	clear statement
	2	no clear statement	1	no clear statement
Clear conclusion	14	clear conclusion	16	clear conclusion
	3	no clear conclusion	1	no clear conclusion
Organization	6	Score 2 (good structure)	16	Score 2 (good structure)
	8	Score 1 (some structure)	1	Score 1 (some structure)
	3	Score 0 (no structure)	0	Score 0 (no structure)
Elaboration	3	Score 3	3	Score 3
	6	Score 2	14	Score 2

	6	Score 1	0	Score 1
	2	Score 0	0	Score 0
Word Count	Average 221.0 words Range 94-470		Average 243.7 words Range 120-431	

Survey

As an exit survey, students were asked to write a short reflection on their writing experiences. Since it was conducted a week before the term exam, 13 students out of 60 cooperated and filled out the open-ended form.

The responses were positive about their writing experiences;

> It was difficult to come up with a good outline.
> I enjoyed English for the first time in my life.
> Group discussion was helpful in organizing ideas.
> I expanded my vocabulary and improved grammar in the module.
> I wanted more feedback on my grammar.
> I realized my weaknesses in English skills. I learned I need to be careful in creating an English sentence.

These reflections show that students gained not only language skills but also a metacognitive awareness towards writing in English. Also, it turned out that the students felt the necessity of learning grammar and expanding vocabulary through writing activities. This may indicate that thinking and writing logically in L2 is effective in learning the grammar and lexical knowledge of L2.

Conclusions

In this study, a writing instruction module which focuses on logical flow was developed and implemented. The module had three emphases: overt instruction of paragraph/essay structure, peer discussion, and teacher feedback. Analyses of paragraph/essay structure and logical flow seem to show that the participants, in general, benefitted from this module. Most students wrote a clear statement and learned to write a conclusion. As for organization and elaboration, a few first-year students still have difficulty. This means that first-year students need more hours of instruction to reach a satisfactory level of paragraph writing skills. For most of the first-year students, thinking deeply in English was an initial experience for them. Some students struggled, and even in their classroom group discussion in L1, they were challenged with organizing their ideas into a clear outline. They must be guided step by step and repeatedly practice thinking logically. The proposed module was the first and a basic step to effective paragraph/essay writing.

This module in this study was implemented once during one school term which may not be long enough to improve writing and thinking skills in the second language. Further studies are necessary to prove what factors will contribute to the development of an effective program to teach English writing and logical thinking skills. Also, as a research design, tools such as interviews with students and systematic surveys would shed lights on L2 writing curriculum studies.

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Reshaping of EFL College Students' Writing Experience

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Abstract
Academic writing in English is a challenging task for EFL students despite of its increasing demand in higher education. Thus, the current study adapts the teaching/learning cycle (hereafter TLC) by Martin and Rose (2005) using a systemic functional linguistics genre-based approach, which consists of the Deconstruction, Joint construction, and Independent construction stages. Reflecting on the context of the present study, TLC is modified with an additional Deconstruction stage right after the Joint construction stage. This is called a second Deconstruction stage which analyzes the students' writing texts produced through the Joint construction stage. This study was conducted in a Korean university with 62 second -year novice student writers for 8 weeks. 32 students were taught through the modified TLC program and 31 counterparts were taught by a conventional bottom-up writing method. Both groups were taught by the same English teacher. For mixed methods research, data collection included written text data and reflection on a blog and email. A two-way ANOVA in SPSS revealed that the modified TLC was more effective than the conventional writing method to improve the students' expository essays, regardless of their previous writing competency. Furthermore, a mixed ANOVA using SPSS uncovered that the Joint constructions stage was the most effective phase to enhance the students' expository writing skill that had progressed via the four stages continually. Interestingly, however, the qualitative data supported that the students believed the second Deconstruction stage to be more useful to further develop their expository writing skill.

Keywords: systemic functional linguistics, genre-based instruction, teaching and learning cycle

Introduction

The ability to accomplish academic writing in English is generally considered as one of the hallmarks to be successful in a higher education. It is expected for college students in EFL context to be required to master academic writing skills for their successful academic achievement and professional job. Despite such an increasing demand of academic writing ability in higher education, it is a challenging task for EFL students. Furthermore, academic writing in English can be even a more problematic task for EFL students due to multifaceted reasons. Manchon (2009) argues that numerous factors such as incomplete target language competency and various sociocultural contexts, can cause more of a challenge for EFL students to master academic writing skills in English.

To overcome the limitations of L2 writers in the EFL context, genre-based instruction can be a useful pedagogical tool to boost the development of student writing skills. The genre-based approach teaches L2 students to be aware of the ways that different genres are structured by different linguistic resources and how to meet the goals of specific written tasks (Yasuda, 2011). Additionally, with a focus on reading as the central medium for attaining control of genres and scaffolding resources to produce target texts, systemic functional linguistic genre-based pedagogy in writing instruction can enhance the writing skill of L2 students (Martin & Rose, 2005).

Given this, systemic functional linguistics, also known as SFL, is a suitable theoretical framework for improving the novice L2 writers' writing competency. SFL has been used as an effective teaching tool in the English class for over 30 years in many ESL/EFL contexts to solve the natural language inequality of second language learners (Schleppegrell, 2004). Not surprisingly, in the EFL context, there is an educational inequality in terms of exposing students to various school genres, which hinders the students' ability to develop written skills effectively, and therefore to fulfil the purpose, audience and the lexico-grammar of the target genres in English. Martin (2009) explains that genre knowledge developed by SFL in relation to the lexis, grammar, and discourse structure should be taught in an explicit way for L2 students, so the students are conscious of them in the FL classroom where language and context cannot be integrated as one teaching unit and often resort to teaching traditional fixed rules and structures of the target language.

Literature Review

1. Systemic functional linguistics (SFL)

Genre has begun to be recognized as an essential element and central issue of second language writing. Hence, the notion of genre has taken on a crucial role in terms of the teaching of second language writing (Tardy, 2006). In particular, systemic functional linguistics (hereafter SFL), established by M.A.K Halliday (1978), who greatly contributed to theories of linguistics and education in Australia, have provided richly to text analysis, education and the concept of genre over the last 25 years (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2003). The definition of genre in a specifically systemic functional way is described by Martin in two ways. Firstly, "a genre is a staged, goal oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture" (Martin, 1984, p.25). Second, "genres are how things get done, when language is used to accomplish them" (Martin, 1985, p. 250 cited in Askehave & Swales, 2001). Specifically, SFL concentrates on students from linguistically and culturally disadvantaged groups. Thus, SFL is a genre theory that will be critical to this research, as it can be regarded as the most suitable theoretical framework to be able to benefit L2 writers in terms of enhancing their writing competency.

By and large, SFL views language as functioning social context and culture (Hyon, 1996). In other words, proponents of SFL argue that language is fundamentally formed by particular aspects of the surrounding social context. Therefore, SFL interprets language use as a meaning making resources in context of the situation and culture (Coffin & Donohue, 2012). Context of the situation is formed by situational variables called register (Eggins, 2004). The variable that comprises register includes field (social activity), tenor (the interpersonal relationships among people using language), and mode (the part played by language in building communication), and they all have consequences for language choice (Christie, 2002). Register is sometimes viewed as a configuration of genres (Martin, 1992) that is at a level of context of culture (Gardner, 2012). As a result, when a genre is chosen for a particular purpose of communication, certain linguistic choices are made with respect to field, tenor, and mode (Christie, 2002), and are expressed through a limited number of functional stages of the text, taking place in particular sequences (Eggins, 2004).

Such particular language choices of writers in SFL genre use are related to three main kinds of functions to create meanings within a text and emphasize the relationship between social contexts and textual realizations. (de Oliveria & Lan, 2014). For SFL theorists, then, "all texts can be described in terms of both the functions they serve and how component elements are organized to express these functions". (Johns, 2003, p. 27). The functions can be categorized into three main kinds of meanings simultaneously within contexts. These functions are known as metafunctions and include ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings (Halliday, 1994). These meatafunctions are realized by the grammar of the language (Sharma & Buxton, 2015).

Predictably, in SFL, various elementary genres are related sequentially through common patterns of lexicogrammar. Christie and Martin (1997) highlight that the distinctive characteristic of the SFL model of genre is systematically correlated with context through a pattern of lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features. This central feature of SFL can be particularly supportive in improving the writing skills of EFL students who are not aware that language resources, including lexicogrammar, linguistic features, and context, are interrelated to each other since, traditionally, teaching language in the EFL classroom seems to be difficult to relate to language within context due to multiple factors, including limited instruction time and language policy related to university entrance exams. Therefore, the way an L2 writer can build up fundamental language resources is to learn to understand an SFL perspective of genre and in turn the writer can apply it to produce a well-formed written text.

2. Teaching and Learning Cycle (TLC)

Socially disadvantaged primary and secondary school students as well as adult migrants in English schools, who are dispossessed of English ability, have been the main focus of SFL genre pedagogy research (Johns, 2003; Martin, 2009). For this pedagogical approach, the SFL scholars and researchers apply a range of linguistic choice depending on genre and register into a practice of reading and writing classes with Vygotskian concepts of learning. This pedagogical approach is called the teaching/learning cycle, which is viewed as one of the most salient features of SFL pedagogy produced by SFL scholars (Feez, 2002; Martin & Rose, 2005). This cycle aims to expand meaning-making repertoires of students by supporting them with models, explicit instruction, and critical analysis of authors, so students can make their own semiotic choices as they read and produce academic texts in school (Gebhard & Harman, 2011).

This study adapts the teaching/learning cycle by Martin and Rose (2005), highlighting the role of interaction and direction in reading and writing texts. The teaching/learning cycle consists of three phases including Deconstruction, Joint Construction, and Independent Construction. This approach can help teachers support students in learning to write school texts effectively (Martin & Rose, 2005) The definitions of three phrases of TLC by Martin and Rose (2005) are explained in Table 1.

Table 1: Three Stages of Teaching and Learning Cycle (TLC)

Three Stages of Teaching/Learning Cycle (TLC)			
	Deconstruction stage	Joint Construction stage	Independent Construction stage
Contents of TLC	Introducing a model text of the target genre, to deconstruct the model texts using demonstration, modeling, and discussion in terms of purpose of the target text, text structure or stages, and typical language aspects of the target genre	Teachers and students write the target genre together to produce co-constructed texts that are similar to the model texts that were analyzed during the Deconstruction stage.	students are expected to be ready to produce the target text independently.
The main goal of Each Stage	to guide students in establishing knowledge about genre	to help students transfer from using everyday language to the academic language of school by paying extra attention to text structures that emphasize purpose, stages and other language features.	to create the target text independently based on linguistic knowledge acquired through previous stages.

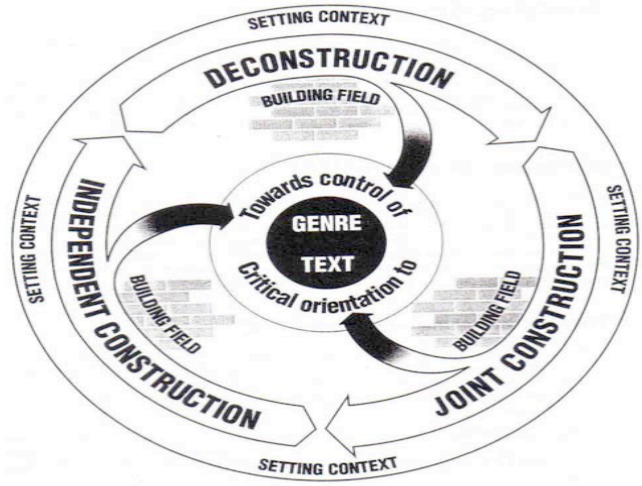

Figure 1: Teaching /learning cycle (Based on Martin & Rose, 2005, p, 252)

TLC can benefit students by an exclusive teaching process of reading and writing. First, that is, TLC helps students to view the whole text to be linked with particular linguistic aspects as one component to focus, while the traditional grammatical instruction only underscores teaching an individual sentence. (de Oliveira & Lan, 2014). Second, TLC focuses on a "visible pedagogy" that can be essential to any writing class instruction based on this approach and is a clear instruction method to students in relation to learning and assessment (Delpit ,1988).

Besides, TLC has been employed to not only elementary and secondary school in America to support the progression of the academic writing of L2 learners (Gebhard & Harman, 2011; Schleppegrell, 2000, 2004; Schleppegrell, & O'Hallaron ,2011; de Oliveira & Lan,2014), but also be applied to EFL settings such as Japan (Lin, 2006), and Hong Kong (Firkins, Forey & Sengupta, 2007). Recently, in South Korea, TLC has been recognized as an effective and practical teaching tool in writing class for college students. For example, Park (2012) investigated 9 college students 'development of writing expositions and measured their writing in relation to the growth of text length, text structure, and proper use of grammatical devices during the writing class based on TLC. The result revealed that the TLC within the genre-based approach improved students' ability to produce exposition writing.

These findings suggest that the TLC is a useful pedagogical framework for the EFL novice writer to be able to improve their writing skills. This is because the pedagogical implication based on the TLC includes explicit writing instruction, so it can empower the L2 student writers who are not familiar with writing in English and do not have adequate writing knowledge in English. TLC introduces the manner in which texts work and are shaped within a specific cultural context, so it can be particularly helpful for L2 learners in writing target texts. To put simply, TLC explicitly informs L2 writers as to the structure of the text of the target genre (Brisk, 2011; Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2011; Gebhard, Harman, & Seger, 2007; Schleppegrell, 2004 cited in Pavlak, 2013).

Similarly, Humphrey and Dreyfus (2012) demonstrate that the Embedded Literacy Support (ELS) based on SFL is effective for the EFL master students majoring applied linguistic at the University of Sydney to transit their writing skill from writing short IELTS essays to more complex interpretive essays. However, TLC in the EFL class is still not as prevalent as in Australia. Therefore, it would be worthwhile to investigate if students, particularly college students, in EFL can enhance their writing skills through TLC classes, and how they might benefit from such an explicit and innovative teaching methodology when learning writing in the class of their educational institution.

Research questions

1. Does SFL genre-based instruction (hereafter SGBWI) assist in the writing of texts among college students in the EFL context more successfully than metalinguistic instruction (hereafter MI) in terms of the genre-generic features of the expository essay regardless of the students' previous writing competency?
2. If then, in which stage does the students' writing competency progress the most effectively through the four stages of the modified teaching and learning cycle (hereafter MTLC)?

Research Method

1. Context of study and participants

The context of the current study was the naturalistic setting of two English writing classes for 8 weeks at the university in South Korea. The students were second-year university students with a low-advanced level of English language proficiency. For 8 weeks, each class participated in the English writing class for 100 minutes per week. The classes were taught in both Korean and English. The writing classes of this university was one of the general education subjects for second year students. The same teacher taught both classes. The entire number of students in the intact classes was 80 (n=40+40=80). However, 18 students did not agree to participate in the current study, thus, the genuine number of the students in present study was 63 students, which was 32 students in SGBWI and 31 students in MI. Every student majored in nursing, and 6 of them were male students. They were all Korean by ethnicity and nationality. This meant that all students of the current study could be regarded as homogenous group, having the same mother language and similar cultural backgrounds.

2. Syllabus design and tasks

At the beginning of both classes, the purpose and process of the study were explained to the students by the class teacher. To explore the impact of SFL genre-based writing instruction (SGBWI) on enhancing expository writing skills of EFL college students, the first class was taught by SGBWI that highlighted genre features of the expository text for 8 weeks. On the other hand, the second class was taught by metalinguistic instruction (MI) that emphasized vocabulary, grammar, syntax and paragraph structure for 8 weeks (see Table 2 below).

Table 2: Research Plan of Both Classes (SGBWI & MI) for 8 Weeks

Research Plan		
Two Different Type of Writing Instructions		
Time period	SGBWI	MI
Week 1	• Pre-test Topic: Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Television, newspapers, magazines, and other media pay too much attention to the personal lives of famous people such as public figures and celebrities. Use specific reasons and details to explain your opinion.	
Week 2	Deconstruction stage	Metalinguistic explanation for the model text focusing on vocabulary, grammar and a basic sentence Students practice writing a basic sentence
Week 3	Deconstruction stage	Metalinguistic explanation for the model text focusing on vocabulary, grammar and a complicate sentence. Students practice writing a complicate sentence
Week 4	• The first test Topic: Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Television, newspapers, magazines, and other media pay too much attention to the personal lives of famous people such as public figures and celebrities. Use specific reasons and details to explain your opinion.	
	Joint construction Stage	Metalinguistic explanation for the model text focusing on vocabulary, grammar and a compound sentence. Students practice writing a compound sentence

Week 5	Joint construction Stage The second Deconstruction Stage	Students practice writing a compound sentence Metalinguistic explanation for writing a paragraph, so the teacher explains a topic sentence related to the target text. Students practice recognizing the topic sentence from the model text and other sample texts Students practice writing the topic sentence
Week 6	• The second test Topic: Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Television, newspapers, magazines, and other media pay too much attention to the personal lives of famous people such as public figures and celebrities. Use specific reasons and details to explain your opinion	
Week 7	Independent Construction Stage The writing topic was same as the pre, first and second posttest.	Metalinguistic explanation for writing a paragraph, so the teacher explains supporting sentence related to the target text. Students practice recognizing the supporting sentence from the model text and other sample texts Students practice writing the supporting sentence Students practice writing paragraphs using topic and supporting sentence to produce the target text within a topic same as the model text.
Week 8	• The final test Topic: Social media, such as Facebook and Twitter, do not report the news. Instead, they provide opportunities to meet or stay connected with friends. Discuss the advantages or disadvantages of social media in our modern lives. Decide whether social media are beneficial or harmful. Support your point of view with reasons and examples.	

Figure 2 below shows the modified teaching and learning cycle based on TLC by Martin and Rose (2005) in teaching English writing for the novice writers of the current study. As seen in Figure 2, the teacher should consider 'the notion of setting context' as an important element for the students to understand within the given specific genre (that is, expository essay). The students are also required to have the concept of field (for example, what is going on in the text?) throughout each of the four phases, in order to foster their knowledge of the content and context of particular texts. Critical orientation to the text can be realized by the students when learning suitable linguistic resource within a specific genre. The modified teaching and learning cycle (hereafter MTLC) had one more deconstruction stage, namely 'the second deconstruction stage'. This was because it was impossible to provide individualized corrective feedback for each student in the class. Thus, the second deconstruction stage was the replacement of the feedback based on the written production of the Joint construction stage.

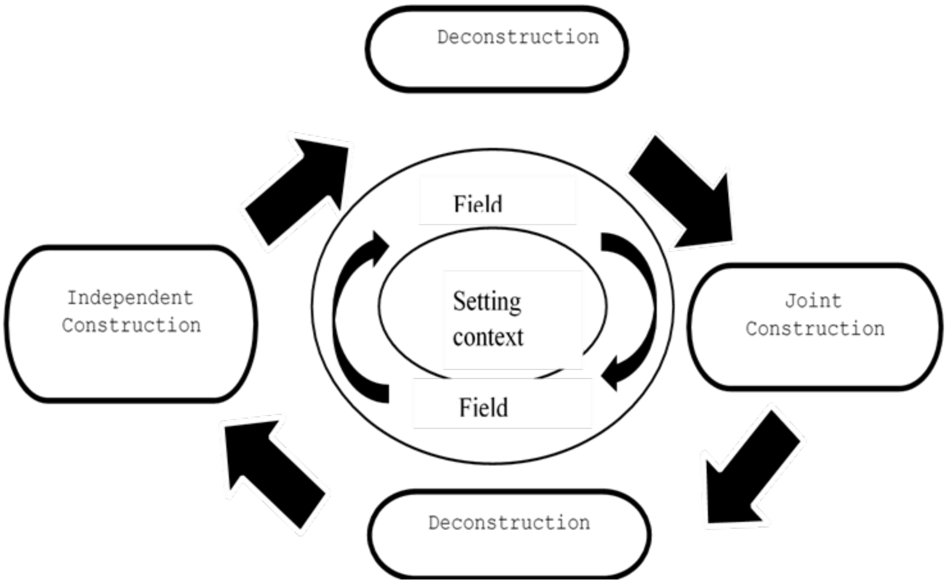

Figure 2: Modified teaching and learning cycle (MTLC)

3. Data sources and collection

Methodologically, the data of the current study was collected from multiple sources since this study used a mixed method research approach, combining both qualitative and quantitative methods. At the macro-level, the main source of the data of the study relies on quantitative data. As the primary quantitative data, expository essays written by students were collected at four points for the 8 weeks. The collected written data was rated based on analytic scoring rubric by Yoshimura (2009) with modification in accordance with the theoretical framework of SFL.

At the micro-level, the data came from qualitative data, which were reflections on the internet blog and email. In this study, students were asked to write their personal opinions anything about each writing class on a blog that was open only for the writing classes of this study. Alternatively, they were given the option of emailing their opinions to the researcher directly. Students' reflections on the blog or by email after each class were helpful to recognize students' opinion regarding the writing instruction.

4. Data analysis

To investigate the first research question, descriptive quantitative analysis was directed on the writing scores of the final test of students in SGBWI and MI using SPSS statistical software. A two-way ANOVA was computed to compare the differences in the outcomes of the students' final test. A two-way ANOVA is performed when looking at the effects of more than one independent variable and their interaction (Elliott & Woodward, 2007). Also, mixed ANOVA, which is a mixture of between-groups and a repeated measures variable (Field, 2013), was computed by means of SPSS 22 to examine the second research question. "Mixed ANOVA compares several means when there are two or more independent variables, and at least one of them has been measured using the same entities and at least one other has been measured using different entities" (Field, 2013, p.615). Qualitative analysis of students' reflections on the blog and email were a complement to the quantitative analysis for the second research question.

Result

1. Research Question 1: Does SGBWI assist in the writing of texts among college students in the EFL context more successfully than MI in terms of the genre-generic features of the expository essay regardless of the students' previous writing competency?

Different types of writing instruction might contribute to the improvement of the writing competency of the expository essays of EFL college students. The data collected from each participant included the differences in the writing scores of their expository essays. The study was performed in two different, randomly distributed English writing classes. Hence, the independent-samples *t*-test using SPSS 22 was computed initially to compare how students in both groups differed when writing expository essays. As seen in Table 3, this difference was not significant t (61) = -.083, p=.919, and represented a very small effective size, d= 0.02. Cohen (1992) suggests effective size: d=0.2 (small), d=0.5 (medium) and d=0.8 (large). Thus, on average, students from both groups can be regarded as homogeneous groups for the purpose of this study. Despite the given statistical result, five students could not reach the scores of 20 out of 60 in the pre-test, whereas the remainder of the participants did achieve scores of 20 out of 60 in the pre-test. Such differences in this study were categorized into two groups, named '20' and 'less than 20'. The two given groups were then treated as another factor in the current study.

Table 3: Independent Samples t-test for Pre-test Score of Students between SGWBI and MI

	Type of Instructions					
	SWBWI (n=32)		MI (n=31)			
Pre-test	M	SD	M	SD	t-test	Sig(two tailed)
	19.38	2.00	19.42	2.26	-.083	.919

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

The study was supposed to test the improvement of expository writing competency of EFL college students whose prior expository writing score was either 20 or less than 20 out of the 60 total marks, in two separate classes that were instructed according to SGBWI (*n*=32) and MI (*n*=31) respectively by the same teacher. A two-way analysis of variance (ANVOA) using SPSS 22 was computed to test the impact of the two independent variables, which included the type of instruction and previous writing competency on the students' writing score of the final test at the end of the study (2x2 ANOVA). The types of instruction included two levels (SGBWI and MI) and previous writing competency, which consisted of two levels as well ('20' and 'less than 20').

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics for Achievement of Writing Competency of Expository Essay by Instructional Type (IT) and Previous Writing Competency (PWC)

Variable	SGBWI (***n***=32)			MI (***n***=31)			Total		
	N	M	SD	n	M	SD	N	M	SD
Less than 20 (***n***=5)	3	50.67	7.57	2	10.00	0.00	5	34.40	22.91
20 (***n***=58)	29	52.07	4.20	29	22.17	4.65	58	37.12	15.70
Total	32	51.94	4.45	31	21.39	5.42	63	36.90	16.16

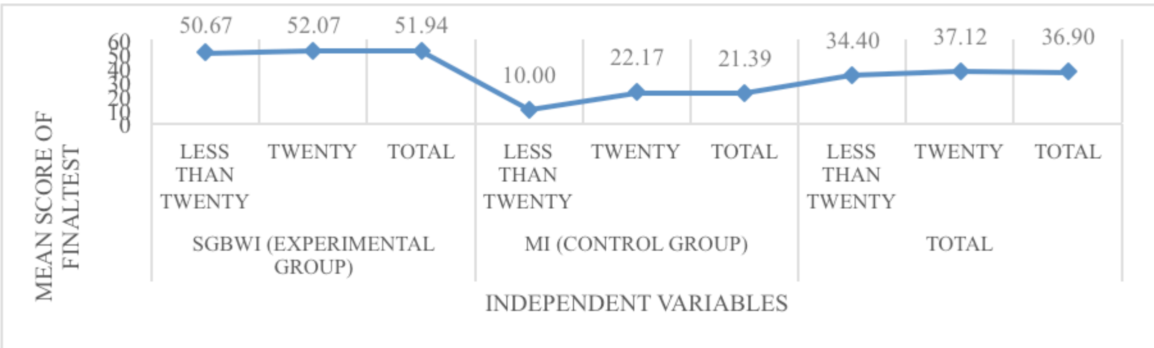

Figure 3: Line Graph for Achievement of Writing Competency of IT and PWC

Table 4 above provides a summary of the descriptive results for the achievement of writing competency of expository essays by instructional type (IT) and previous writing competency (PWC), which is also plotted in a line graph (see Figure 3 above). It shows that the students obtaining a score of 20 in the pre-test (*M*=37.12, *SD*=15.70) gained a slightly higher score in the final test compared to the counterpart students obtaining scores of less than 20 in the pre-test (*M*=34.40, *SD*=22.91). Furthermore, Table 5 below shows that there was a significant main effect of the level of previous writing competency on the improvement of the final writing score, F (1, 59) = 9.94, p=0.003, η^2=.144, ω^2 =0.011.

Table 5: Two Way ANOVA Summary for Achievement of Expository Writing Competency by Previous Writing Competency (PWC), Instruction Type (IT) and their Interaction (PWC * IT)

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig	partial η^2
PWC	204.23	1	204.23	9.94	.003	.144
IT	5518.31	1	5518.31	268.48	.000	.820
PWC * IT	128.56	1	128.56	6.26	.015	.096
Error	1212.67	59	20.55			

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

The descriptive results also show that students instructed by SGWBI (*M*=51.94, *SD*=4.45) outperformed students instructed by MI (*M*=21.39, *SD*=5.42) as seen in Table 4. There was a significant main effect of different types of writing instruction on the improvement of expository writing competency, F (1, 59) = 268.48, p=0.000, η^2=.820, ω^2 = 0.340 (See Table 5).

More importantly, there was a significant interaction between the level of previous writing competency and the different types of writing instruction, on the improvement of expository writing competency, F (1,59) = 6.26, p=0.015, η^2=.096, ω^2 = 0.007. The final expository writing score of students in SGBWI was similar to the group of students who achieved less than 20 in PWC (*M*=50.67, SD=7.57) and the counterpart students who achieved 20 (*M*=52.07, SD=4.20). However, the final expository writing scores of students in MI were different depending on their expository writing score in the pre-test, which shows students whose score of PWC was 20 (*M*=22.17, *SD*=4.65) outperformed counterpart students whose score of PWC was less than 20 *(M*=10.00, *SD*=0.00). Therefore, it can be suggested that the effect of previous writing competency in the expository genre is significantly different between SGBWI and MI. More specifically, MI could not overcome the differences of previous writing competency of students as much as SGBWI could.

2. Research question 2: If then, in which stage the students' writing competency was progressed the most effectively through four stages of the modified teaching and learning cycle (MTLC)?

Four different writing tests were conducted in both classes (SGWBI and MI) over 8 weeks, and the outcome of their writing scores was compared statistically to investigate the second research question. A two-way 2 (type of instruction: SGWBI or MI) x 4 (four different writing tests) mixed ANOVA with repeated measures on four different writing scores was performed using SPSS 22. It was conducted to compare the effect of two different types of instruction over four different writing scores of expository essays based on a sequence of time over the course of 8 weeks Over time, there has been a difference in terms of students' level of expository writing competency between SGWBI and MI. In the first test, the mean score of SGBWI *(M*=30.56*, SD*=7.22*)* was much higher than the one of MI *(M*=19.35*, SD*=2.50*)*. Such differences in mean scores between SGBWI and MI have been increased in the second test and the final test. In the second test, the mean score of SGBWI (*M*=43.19, *SD*=4.40) was twice of its MI counterpart (*M*=20.32, *SD*=3.98). In the final test, the mean score of SGBWI (*M*=51.94, *SD*=4.45) was even higher than that of MI (*M*=21.39, *SD*=5.42). Thus, it can be suggested that SGBWI was the much more effective writing instruction than MI, through all of the stages.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of the Effect of SGWBI and MI on Four Expository Writing Tests

	Pre-test		First test		Second test		Final test	
	SGBWI	MI	SGBWI	MI	SGBWI	MI	SGBWI	MI
M	19.38	19.42	30.56	19.35	43.19	20.32	51.94	21.39
SD	2.00	2.26	7.22	2.50	4.40	3.98	4.45	5.42
N	32	31	32	31	32	31	32	31

The main effect of group, different type of writing instruction (SGWBI and MI), impacts on improving expository writing competency when ignoring the effect of time. Table 8 indicates that there was a significant main effect of the different type of writing instruction (group) on expository writing scores at four different tests, F (1, 61) = 380.35, p=.000, r=0.999.

Table 7: The Effect of Different Type of Instruction on Expository Essays

Test of Between-Subjects Effects					
Source	SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Group	4104.20	1	4104.20	380.35	$.000^{***}$
Error	658.23	61	10.78		

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

Mauchly's test indicates a violation of the assumption of sphericity, which should be checked in the mixed ANOVA (Field, 2013), and pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni method were performed to follow a significant overall test result. According to Mauchly's test, the main effect of times significantly violates the assumption of sphericity, $x^2(5)$ =22.09, p=.001, thus Greenhouse-Geisser corrected tests are reported (ε=.805). This is because the F-value for the main effect of time and its interaction with group, which is the between-groups variable, should be corrected for violation of sphericity (Field, 2000).

Table 8: Time effects and its interaction with group in ANOVA with corrected *F*-values

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects						
Source		SS	df	MS	F	Sig
Time		10848.67	2.42	4492.65	327.93	$.000^{***}$
Time*Group	Greenhouse-Geisser	8489.40	2.42	3515.63	256.62	$.000^{***}$
Error(Time)		2017.10	147.30	13.70		

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

As seen in Table 8 above, the results show that the main effect of time was significant *F* (2.42, 147.30) =327.93, *p*=.000, *r*=0.998, implying that the improvement of the expository writing score was significantly affected by time when the effect of group was ignored. What is more compelling is that there was a significant interaction effect between time and group, which was instruction type, *F* (2.42, 147.30) =256.62, *p*=.000, *r*=0.998 (see Table 8 above). This effect indicates that expository writing competency differed in SGWBI and MI for the 8-week periods. In other words, students from each group (SGWBI or MI) respond differently to the outcome of expository writing across four different times.

Additionally, pairwise comparison based on estimated marginal means using the Bonferroni method indicates that at the overall level (*p*=.000) the mean difference between first test and second test (*M*=6.80) was the highest followed by pairwise comparison between pre-test and first test (*M*=5.56) and between second test and final test (*M*=4.91) (see Table 9 below). Such results can also be visualized in the bar graph. (see Figure 8 below).

Table 9: Pairwise Comparisons of Writing Tests

	Pairwise Comparisons		
	Between pretest & first test	Between first test & second test	Between second test & final test
Mean differences	5.56	6.80	4.91
Sig	.000***	.000***	.000***

* p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001

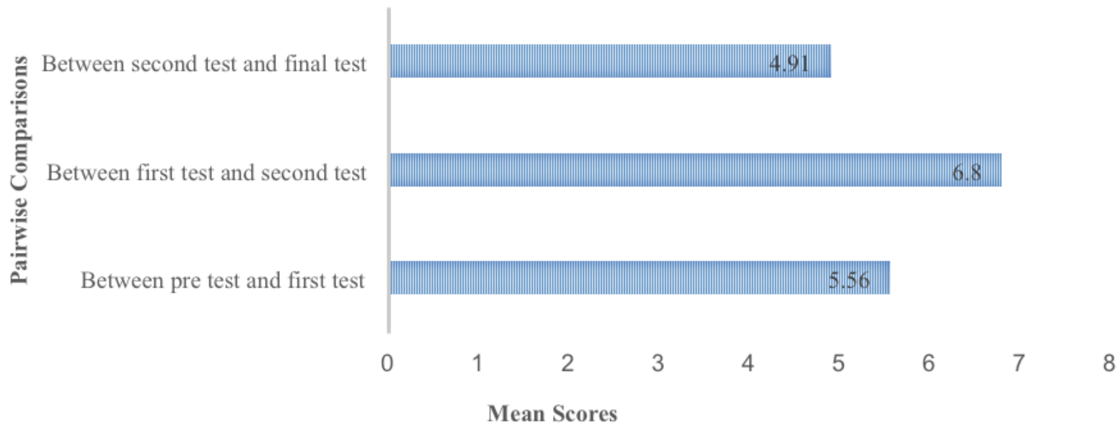

Figure 4: Mean Differences of Pairwise Comparisons among Four Expository Writing Tests

2.1 Qualitative research result

Students in both SGBWI and MI were required to write their reflection after each class through either email or blog. A number of students in SGBWI (n= 19) mentioned that the second Deconstruction stage was very helpful for them to understand genre and register including lexicogrammar in relation to expository essays. Additionally, they also stated that after they experienced writing the expository essay through Joint construction stage, it was much more comprehensible about the target text and their weakness in terms of writing the expository essay.

Discussion and Conclusion

The current study has demonstrated that SFL genre-based writing instruction (= SGBWI) enables EFL college students' expository writing skills regardless of their previous writing score. In the current study, we adapted the teaching/learning cycle by Martin and Rose (2005) with modifications via recurrence of the Deconstruction stage right after the Joint Construction stage, which this study labelled the second Deconstruction stage (see Figure 2). The rationale for this modification will be explained later in the discussion.

The finding of this study supports the main purpose of the teaching/learning cycle established by Martin and Rose (2005), which is to improve the literacy skills of literally disadvantaged students in schools of Australia such as students from a non-English speaking background and low socio-economic class. This can be explained by that SFL register and genre analysis help students to connect between the character of divers texts and their contexts of use by applying clusters of lexicogrammatical aspects within the three metafunctions. This allows students to produce texts in relation to specific meanings based on contexts of situation and culture respectively (Gardner, 2012).

The present study agrees with the SFL researchers' arguments regarding the positive relationship between genre-based writing instruction and the development of the academic writing of L2 learners in K-12 school contexts in Australia (Christie & Derewianka, 2008; Martin & Rose, 2007) and North America (Brisk & Zisselsberger, 2010; Schleppegrell, 1998; Schulze, 2011; Harman, 2013; de Oliveira & Lan, 2014). Most of all, these previous studies have emphasized the important role of instruction in terms of the development of the writing skills of the target genre for L2 students. Such arguments are also verified by the present study's the comparative analysis of final expository writing scores of students between the two different types of writing instruction (see Table 4 & 5). It means that the two different styles of writing classes show remarkable differences in terms of the final expository writing scores.

In the EFL context, Chaisiri (2010) implements a teaching /learning cycle as part of SFL genre-based pedagogy when teaching writing in a university context in Thailand for 8 weeks with a two-and a half-hour weekly class. This implementation revealed the effectiveness of such pedagogical tools in terms of assisting students to learn how to write and improve their writing competency when applied to the formulation of in-class student writing comprised of four text types, including recount, instruction/process, explanation, and argument.

Surprisingly, the findings of the present study suggest that just the Deconstruction stage itself did not help students comprehend the fundamental concepts of the lexicogrammar of the expository genre. Consequently, they failed to recognize these concepts in the written texts, leading to the same result as for those students instructed by the metalinguistic explanation on the same model text. This assumption is supported by the increase of writing scores after the Joint and Independent

Construction stages as displayed by the results of the second test and final test (see Figure 4).

In particular, in the current study, the Deconstruction stage was implemented one more time following the Joint Construction stage, for the purpose of giving feedback to the whole class. This is named the second Deconstruction stage. It was implemented because, in the present study, it was found that giving written feedback to each student individually put the teacher under the pressure of limited time and imposed serious workload issues. Nonetheless, crucially, feedback should be provided in any writing instruction class for L2 writers. Bitchener and Ferris (2012) explain that the major goal of written corrective feedback is to enable L2 student writers to develop awareness, knowledge, and strategic competence which can accumulate writing skills, thus enabling students to monitor their own writing more effectively. Additionally, as aforementioned, the students expressed their desire for corrective feedback via blog or email. Lantolf and Thorne (2006 cited in Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012) point out "language learners play an important role in their own learning, and they are the agents who, in the case of feedback, will ultimately decide whether or not to accept the feedback, and whether or not they consider it worth engaging with at a deeper level thus making it more likely that they will retain it." (pp.92-93). Additionally, the qualitative result of the present study proves that such feedback via the second deconstruction stage was regarded as the most important stage of MTLC by the students. Such feedback on reading and writing tasks notifies both teacher and student in relation to what extent students can control the target genres within the specific contexts (Taylor & Drury, 1996).

The teaching and learning cycle in the present study focuses on the contextual differences faced by EFL college students from English-speaking countries in terms of mastering the expository essay writing in English. Holliday (1994) argues that English language teaching originating in Britain, Australasia and North America cannot meet the needs of students of other countries due to cultural differences. Thus, it is unfair and culturally inappropriate to directly apply the teaching / learning cycle developed by Martin and Rose (2005) to the present study. The modified teaching and learning cycle of the current study is a culturally appropriate way to instruct EFL college students to overcome their language barrier to produce expository essays in English effectively.

This study also includes some potential limitations. In future, using corpus research analysis methods can be applied since it can demonstrate more precise strengths and weakness of EFL colleges students in relation to writing expository essays in English. Also, the reflections of the students in the blogs and emails should be analyzed using NVivo in the future study.

So far, this study has discussed the advantage of SFL genre-based writing instruction (SGBWI) and how such writing instruction can improve the writing ability of EFL college students. According to Tardy (2012), "
as genre theory and research continue to mature within second language writing studies, they promise to offer a unique and valuable lens for exploring L2 writing development" (p.186). Therefore, it is obvious that SFL genre-based writing instruction (SGBWI) is an effective pedagogical tool to improve the writing competency of EFL college students. Also, this study has demonstrated that modified

teaching and learning cycle, which includes the second Deconstruction stage, enables EFL college students to develop their expository writing competency.

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Team Teaching Revisited – The Challenges and Benefits

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Abstract
It has been thirty years since The Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program was introduced in Japan and with it the widespread use of team-teaching for English classes in Junior and Senior High schools. As most teachers have received very little training in team teaching, and most teachers are accustomed to teaching alone, it can be difficult for teachers to make the relationship between native English speaker and Japanese teacher work well. With the introduction of more English classes in elementary schools, Assistant English Teachers (ALTs) and Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) are going to elementary schools to teach English. This entails more and more team-teaming in public schools in Japan. Very little qualitative research has been done into team-teaching in Japan. Listening to the opinions of teachers with experience of team teaching might offer insights into the ways in which team teaching can be effective and also give teachers an insight into how to conduct a team-taught lesson. This paper will show data gathered from in-depth interviews with teachers who have had experience of team-teaching, and observations of English classes at elementary schools in Japan. The results offer hints for best practices in team-teaching, which should be of help for elementary homeroom teachers, JTEs, ALTs and school administrators.

Keywords: Team Teaching, Japanese Education, TESOL

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Introduction

In general teaching is a solitary profession, although there are students in the classroom, generally teachers are trained and accustomed to teaching alone. Team teaching is quite different to this and as such can be challenging for the teachers involved. Teachers need to plan lessons together, agree on classroom roles, coordinate their teaching and support each other in the classroom. Without good communication between teachers this is unlikely to be successful. The aim of this paper is to offer insights for all teachers into how to make team-teaching effective. Listening to the opinions of teachers with experience of team teaching might offer insights into how teachers could work together effectively in a classroom. This paper will focus on a common situation in Japan with a Japanese English teacher (JTE) and a native English speaker (ALT). The paper will report on data from in-depth interviews with ALTs in elementary English classes and offer advice for teachers on how to achieve successful English lessons.

Literature Review

The founder of the JET program and the main initial proponent of team teaching – Minoru Wada, stated himself that “team teaching began without any form pedagogic research to validate it as an effective educational innovation” (Tajino, Stewart & Dalsky, 2015 p.79). Since it was initiated, a number of researchers have tried to analyze the JET program with various recommendations on achieving successful team teaching outcomes. Leonard (1994) had a long experience of working as a team teacher in various schools. Based on his own experience as well as interviews carried out with other teachers in the program he offers advice on conducting successful lessons. The most important point he makes is in respect to the two teachers building up a rapport and meeting with each other to plan lessons. He offers two scenarios in which the lesson will not be successful. One in which the native English speaker is given almost no information about the lesson and secondly in which the Japanese teacher creates an overly detailed script for the lesson, so that rather than teaching, the two teachers are performing a preplanned performance. Both of these scenarios produce a lot of stress for the teachers creating a bad atmosphere are not conducive to students learning to produce English in a natural communicative manner. His main recommendation is that at first the teachers need to meet to get to know each other. Subsequently the teachers need to find time to talk to each other to plan lessons and share ideas. Japanese elementary school teachers are notoriously time deprived, not even having a lunch break as they eat with their students, so this could be very difficult. JTU Institute for Education and Culture (2008) found that Japanese teachers work the longest hours, nearly twice as long as Finnish teachers and in addition have the least teacher training in the four countries compared. This is supported by a recent survey by the OECD , which also found that Japanese teachers had the longest hours of any teachers around the world. Due to this it might be that teachers don’t have enough time to prepare English lessons or communicate with their team teacher.

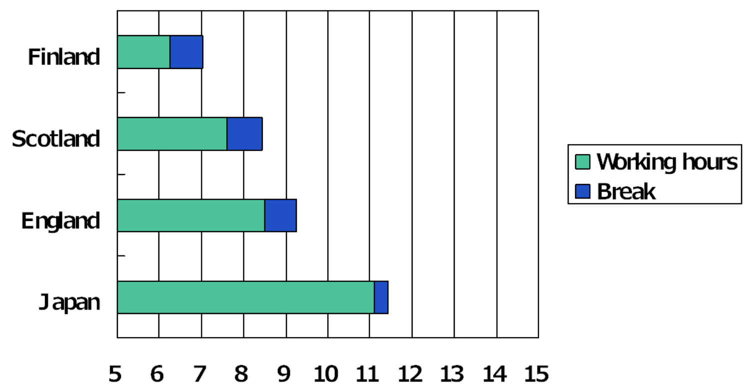

Figure 1: Average working hours of teachers at school (JTU Institute for Education and Culture, 2008)

In addition Machida (2016) found that elementary school teachers were suffering from significant anxiety due to English teaching. Most Elementary school teachers were not trained to teach English at all.

Hougham, Walter, and Sponseller (2017) state that another big reason that the relationship between the Japanese teacher and native English speaking teacher are not good is because of the language barrier. The two teachers do not have a common language and cannot communicate well. Even when communication occurs, lack of cultural understanding can cause misunderstandings. In a large-scale survey carried out with 1545 ALTs by Kano et. al. (2016 cited in Hougham, Walter, & Sponseller, 2017) it was found that in elementary schools the greatest barrier to communication between teachers was language, whereas in Junior High School and High School the main barrier was the Japanese teacher not wanting to include the ALT in lesson planning and not utilising them as team teachers. There are various reasons for this reluctance, but the most important seems to be lack of time and that many Japanese teachers not regarding the ALT as a qualified teacher. Hougham, Walter, and Sponseller (2017) found that students also saw the value of ALTs only as providing model pronunciation and as some sort of “mood maker”.

Igawa (2008) found that ALTs also needed feedback from the JTEs to improve their lessons as many of them were very inexperienced teachers. This added to the workload for already overworked teachers. School officials, homeroom teachers and ALTs all had doubts about the English ability of homeroom teachers. There is also a perception of overburdening the homeroom teachers with English classes (Robertson 2015).

In Hougham, Walter, and Sponseller’s (2017) survey of JTEs and ALTs they found that lesson planning was usually initiated by the JTE, completed by the ALT and checked by the JTE before the lesson. Unfortunately, they did not feel that this was cooperative, but each person was completing their part alone. Igawa (2008) found significantly different perceptions of team teaching between JTEs and ALTs. 60% of JTEs perceived that they met the ALTs to plan lessons, but only 20% of ALTs felt that they were meeting to plan lessons. The definition of lesson planning may be different, but also the amount of time expected for lesson planning is probably different. The JTE is satisfied with a very short exchange of information, but the ALT may require a longer discussion of lesson objectives and pedagogy.

Methodology

Data was collected through five in-depth semi-structured interviews with teachers who had a variety of experiences of team-teaching. Three women and two men were interviewed. The aim of the interviews was to find common themes of shared experiences and solutions to the challenges of team-teaching. The data was analyzed through grounded theory. The interviews were transcribed then parts of the transcription relating to different themes were highlighted creating initial themes, this data was entered in a spreadsheet for all interviewees, then reexamined to create more detailed themes. The codes were compared in an attempt to find a new theory of team-teaching and how it can be implemented successfully. The data was also supported by three observations of team teaching classes in elementary schools in Japan.

Findings

Through constant comparison and analysis of the interview data two main themes emerged. Firstly, that the amount of time spent together by team teachers was very limited and viewed as a problem by most of the teachers, and secondly that one of the most important factors in successful team teaching was rapport between the team teachers. In the literature lack of English ability by the JTE was often listed as a barrier but was not really mentioned by the ALTs.

Time spent planning lessons by team teachers.

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) recommends that team teachers work together planning lessons (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2002), which is supported by the ALTs in this research.

> I think before the class starts they should spend more time preparing together then they know what to teach and what the goal is for that day. (Teacher 3, personal communication, 4th November, 2017)

This obviously requires the two teachers to spend time together, which seems to be one of the biggest problems, as the ALTs are often not based in one school and the Japanese teachers seem to be very busy.

> I was scared in the beginning to try to talk to the teachers and in the staff room everyone looks busy no one ever looks available like they have time for people to come and talk to them so I always feel rude just going to someone's desk and saying "

It is hard to say if all the teachers are really busy, or if it’s just an impression, although (Tsuboya-Newell (2018) and JTU Institute for Education and Culture (2008) both found Japanese teachers to work the longest hours of any teachers in the world.

The teacher, who continued in the JET program for the longest period stated that the Japanese teachers are over worked and need to know that the ALT really wants to help them. In order to do this, she offered to help grade essays and give feedback. It is an unusual situation for ALTs to be grading written work as their job is usually involved exclusively with the oral aspects of the English curriculum. The teacher stated that she spent a huge amount of time grading essays, but it gave her a twofold benefit. Firstly, the JTEs appreciated that she was actually reducing their work load and due to this their relationship with her improved and they were happy to work with her on lesson planning and listened to her ideas. In addition, she felt that she was really benefiting the students, which gave her job satisfaction.

> I remember sitting with a student who was applying for Tokyo University and losing sleep because I thought, I need to help him to write the best essay that he can, and he did get in and it was wonderful to support him, but I did feel a lot of pressure in supporting him. However, in the end I felt really satisfied with my day's work, I felt like I contributed, which I know is something that some people on the JET program don't feel. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017)

Even if the teachers did find time to plan lessons there seems to be some confusion about who should plan the lesson and who should control the lesson. The Ministry of Education recommends teachers planning lessons together. The reality is that planning lessons together tends to take more time than planning on your own. Some of the teachers also felt that they needed guidance on who was leading the lesson.

> Even though it is team teaching there should be one who is taking the active voice and one is more passive, so in the relationship you need to work out who is taking the lead in the situation and work collaboratively. (Teacher 2, personal communication, 11th November, 2017)
>
> If there was some sort of template that was laying out how the class should go how a team teaching class should go like the certain parts that the JTE should do and how the ALT can support those types of activities and then the activities that the ALT can run and how the JTE can support. It would help immensely. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017)

The teachers also seemed to think that it was necessary to spend a lot of time planning unique lessons each time rather than using the lesson plans in the teachers' book supplied by MEXT. "We might default to the MEXT plan which sounds like maybe lazy." (Teacher 5, personal communication, 21st February, 2018). It is surprising that the teacher thought it was 'lazy' to use the textbook lesson plans, as these have been written very carefully by very experienced teachers. The teachers also commented on the problems which could happen when there was not enough time for lesson planning.

> I didn't always have an opportunity to talk to the JTEs beforehand and sometimes we would run into miscommunication… In my second year I planned well in advance, so that there wouldn't be those barriers in the classroom. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017)

> With teachers who I don't often contact outside of school maybe it'll just be that morning and in 5 minutes they'll give me a quick run-down, we're going to do this activity, please do this and that. In those situations, maybe the first period class doesn't go smoothly. (Teacher 5, personal communication, 21st February, 2018)

It is obvious from these comments that not spending time together preparing the lesson led to miscommunication and problems in the classroom. Even when there were prepared lesson plans sometimes one of the teachers did not read the lesson plan properly before the lesson as well as not talking to the other teacher (Teacher 3, personal communication, 4th November, 2017). In that case they may not look professional in the classroom. Teacher 1 (personal communication, 19th December, 2017) also commented that in the situations when teachers had not planned the lesson together or communicated with each other it would look bad in front of the students.

Rapport

Lack of communication in lesson planning and not looking good in front of students is a problem that can be alleviated or exacerbated by the rapport between the teachers. Lessons can be planned, but cannot be choreographed, so teachers need to be able to anticipate and react to each other's needs. Unfortunately, some JTEs do not want consider the ALT to be an equal in the classroom.

> One individual he always thought he was better than the ALTs because he was an actual educator and ALTs were just human tape recorders. A lot of other ALTs have had that experience with other teachers especially in JHS where they feel that they don't want the ALT to challenge the children too much and that can be a huge frustration. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017)

> One teacher told me there shouldn't be any discipline provided by you. You shouldn't really be providing any of the educational material it's all just provided for you and you just toe the line. (Teacher 2, personal communication, 11th November, 2017)

It is disappointing to hear that some teachers do not regard the ALTs as teachers. There are obviously a variety of teachers recruited by the JET program. Many of the teachers on the JET program are qualified teachers in their home country. There seems to be a gap between the expectations of the ALTs and some of the JTEs. Additionally, some of the ALTs were told that they were not in the classroom to teach, but just to entertain the students.

> The perception of ALTs is pretty true. You're the 'genki1' side to the Japanese teacher's trying to get the knowledge to the students and you are just trying to be the star of the show. I think that's pretty true you just go in there and make sure the kids are really excited and into the lesson and you try to work with the JTE as much as you can. (Teacher 2, personal communication, 11th November, 2017)

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in this situation.

> Don't to be afraid to make an idiot of yourself, you need to be 'genki1', when students think of English class they should smile you know. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017

Possibly the JTEs have also been given this information, which leads to an impression of the ALTs as being entertainers rather than teachers and as such not being a very important part of the education system. One of the ALTs commented that when she first came to Japan the JET program emphasized their role as ambassadors for their country and how important they were in the Japanese education system, but when they arrived at their schools they did not received the same reaction.

> I think that when you come on the JET program you are told that you are representing your country, and you are great, and it's so prestigious, then you are just sitting at a desk where every ALT before you has sat..... People come in with these ideas that what they are doing is really important and sadly when you get to your school there is so much going on - you are not nearly as important as you thought. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017)

Possibly in the early stages of the JET program, the ALTs were seen as something special, but as years went by it became normal for the schools to have non-Japanese teachers. It is very difficult for schools to maintain the enthusiasm if teachers are changing every one or two years. All of the ALTs said very clearly that qualified teachers and educators should be hired for the JET program, but if this is the case the ALTs should then be given more responsibility in lesson planning and teaching.

Most of the ALTs thought that the two teachers needed to have a rapport outside the classroom for them to interact effectively in the classroom. This was also stated by Leonard (1994) as one of the most important factors in creating successful team team teaching lessons.

> Students are very perceptive and they can see if you are trying to put it on or if it's an actual connection you have, so if you are actually able to work well with somebody outside of the stressful situation like the classroom, if you have a good rapport with them I think it translates well to the classroom. (Teacher 2, personal communication, 11th November, 2017)

In trying to build relationships with Japanese teachers the ALTs offered various advice.

> I was never rude I would just find five ways to meet them in the corridor or whatever. It was always coming from me. I would find them at the year opening ceremony and I made sure I had a chat with them and tried to get them to laugh or something because it was an easier way to introduce myself than formally at school. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017)

It appears that the ALT was making an effort to meet the JTEs, but the JTEs were not trying to meet the ALTs. Another factor in building the relationship between the team teachers is how often the teachers meet. Unfortunately, due to the JET system many

ALTs travel round to a number of schools. One of the teachers visited seven different schools in the course of a month on a rotating system of visiting schools twice every three weeks. Apart from being confusing for the teacher and students, it is very difficult to build up a rapport between students and teachers if you don't meet them on a regular basis. On the other hand, one of the most positive ALTs stated that she had stayed at the same school for five years. She tried to build up relationships with all the teachers in her school. She said that teachers came to her for help with other parts of their job outside the lessons, for example asking for her help with preparing students for speech contests and English exams. This was possible because she was placed in one large High School. She was in the school five days a week so teachers could spontaneously ask her questions.

Another interesting comment made by two of the teachers was that they always asked the JTE for feedback after the lesson. Igawa (2008) stated that ALTs needed feedback from the JTE in order to improve their teaching, but this took a lot of time.

> I found that after each lesson I started asking teachers " How do you think that went?" I would ask them for feedback straight away and they realised that I would do it even if they felt uncomfortable. I would say, "You know these kids, you need to give me feedback so I can adjust lessons for these kids." Gradually as the JTE knew that these questions were coming they would prepare answers. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017)

It is reasonable to ask for feedback and in fact it is recommended by MEXT that team teachers should meet to share feedback on the lesson. This is another way in which the rapport between the two teachers could grow. On the other hand, one of the teachers said that the JTE at his school was only paid when they were in the classroom, so he felt guilty asking for time outside class to build rapport or plan lessons.

> The JTE only gets paid per hour and per lesson, so they are not getting paid unless they are in the classroom actively teaching…. it's something I'm acutely aware of so I never try to keep them after the lesson. (Teacher 5, personal communication, 21st February, 2018)

Teachers are paid in various different ways, but even when they are only paid for the class, it is usually assumed that this money should include lesson preparation. The ALT should be able to work with the teacher even if they are only paid per lesson.

Discussion

Listening to the voices of team teachers revealed the main problem with team teaching is that it takes time to prepare good lessons and to build a good rapport between the teachers. This can be difficult when the ALT is based in the same school all week, but many of the ALTs are travelling to different schools around the city, which makes it much more difficult. In addition, Japanese teachers seem too busy to meet with the ALT and may not be paid for planning time which made it difficult for

There also seems to be a disconnect between how ALTs are regarded. It appears that the perception of ALTs as entertainers rather than teachers seems to be fairly widespread, but it is a fairly unrewarding role in the long term. It is possible that thirty years ago when the JET scheme was first introduced students were unfamiliar with non-Japanese people on the whole, and just seeing a foreigner was an important step in familiarizing students with foreign culture and language. It is still very important to introduce culture in the language classroom. Brown (2007) states that it is impossible to separate language from culture without losing the significance of one or the other. When teaching a language outside the native country of that language it can be very difficult to incorporate culture in the language classroom. Having teachers come into the classroom from foreign cultures can easily incorporate culture into the classroom, although only using the ALTs for this purpose is underutilising their potential. In the classroom observations I was able to see the ALTs introduce various aspects of culture in short five-minute presentations. In one case the ALT introduced Valentine's Day in America. As the students had some knowledge of Valentine's Day in Japan they were interested and motivated to hear about the USA. In another observation the ALT explained about the schedule in his American school. He showed photographs of his high school and told students which subjects he had studied at school, which they do not have in Japan and vice versa. The students had been learning about class subject names in English and were very interested to hear about American school. Having ALTs in the classroom made it easy to incorporate culture in the classroom. In the classes I observed the students seemed to be excited to have a native English speaker in the classroom, but they still tended to turn to the Japanese teacher when they had questions and problems. The Japanese teachers maintained discipline, acted as role models in learning the language and also helped students when they had questions. The ALTs were very good at providing not only natural pronunciation, but communication and culture. None of the teachers I observed behaved as entertainers, but the classrooms were interesting and educational. In many ways these classes were the best-case scenario with ALTs, homeroom teachers and JTEs working well together.

In all cases the teachers struggled to find time to communicate with each other. Through offering to help the JTEs and trying to meet the JTEs at social events before the start of the academic year the ALTs proactively tried to improve the rapport and create time to plan lessons. One teacher suggested that he would be happy to offer special English classes in the school for the Japanese teachers so that they would not need to attend the education centre.

> I think the problem with these English classes for teachers was that they were being offered at the education center and it's outside school and the teachers have to get permission, so I said like ALTs are going to these schools so maybe we can just give English classes to the teachers you know. (Teacher 5, personal communication, 21st February, 2018)

If the ALTs are willing to teach extra classes to teachers their offers, which might also create time for team teachers to plan lessons and build a good rapport. The ALTs were generally positive about teaching, but some of them did comment on the fact that it could be very lonely being the only foreigner at the school. Another teacher also spoke of the loneliness of living in rural Japan.

> It can be very lonely. I think that when you come on the JET program you are told that you are representing your country and you are great and it's so prestigious, then you are just sitting at a desk where every ALT before you has sat, sadly when you get to your school there is so much going on that you are not nearly as important as you thought. (Teacher 1, personal communication, 19th December, 2017)

It would be helpful if Japanese teachers would appreciate this and effort was made to incorporate the ALTs into the school even when they are only at the school a couple of times a month. In the classes that I observed the ALTs seemed to have very good relationship with the JTEs and homeroom teachers. They spent some time chatting before and after classes. It is likely that this is one of the reasons for the lessons running so smoothly.

Conclusion

The ALTs in this study were all very enthusiastic English teachers. Many of them felt underutilized and wanted to be a more important part of the school. One of the main barriers to building better team teaching classes was the paucity of time on the side of the Japanese teachers. The ALTs spoke of wanting to talk to the Japanese teachers and wanting to build more of a rapport, but not being able to spend enough time with them. There are a number of possible reasons for this. The first one is that Japanese teachers are notoriously overworked. They do not get a lunch break as they need to eat with the students and they are often engaged in after school activities. Another reason that ALTs have difficulty building a rapport is that they travel to different schools every day. They are not seen as a large part of the school. Finally, English communication might be a problem for the Japanese teachers, although in these interviews all of the teachers had some level of conversational Japanese. It would be recommended that as much as possible ALTs should have fixed schedules and visit the same school as regularly as possible. There is an issue with ALTs feeling lonely, which might be improved by incorporating them into the life of the schools. Asking them to fulfill extra tasks, such as helping with school events and grading written work might build rapport and reduce loneliness as well as reducing the Japanese teachers' workload. Finally, the board of education needs to consider the need for communication between team teachers and make this easier by sending the same teacher to a school more than once a week and organizing events at which team teachers can meet and get to know each other before the start of the academic year. It would also help if the teachers engaged in team teaching could have specific time allocated to lesson planning so that the ALT does not need to try to find a chance to speak to the JTE.

Team teaching could be a very effective way of teaching with the Japanese teacher providing knowhow of Japanese schools and the students, and ALTs providing authentic language experiences for students. In some cases it is working well, but in many cases at the moment it seems that ALTs are underutilized and dissatisfied with their role.

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Using Nursing Models along with Language Learning Theories to Motivate Japanese Nursing Students of English

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Abstract
Language education and nursing may at first appear to be unrelated. However, upon closer inspection, a number of similarities between these two disciplines can be observed. For nursing students who mainly hope to focus on their core nursing course requirements, and who consider English classes as unnecessary and time-consuming distractions, an interdisciplinary teaching approach that incorporates elements of nursing models and theories might enable these students to establish a connection between their specialty and English language education. Because nursing students learn about nursing models and theories and the relationship between the nurse and the patient, they could be led to adopt a similar relationship between the instructor and the learner. In this paper three examples of nursing paradigms will be introduced, a nursing model (Roy's Adaptation Model); a nursing theory (Leininger's Culture Care Theory of Diversity and Universality); and a middle-range theory (Mishel's Uncertainty in Illness Theory) to demonstrate how an understanding of nursing models and theories can possibly aid nursing students to better understand language learning models and theories such as behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, and connectivism. The paper will then show how the introduction of general scientific theories such as complex systems theory (chaos theory), which has been incorporated in both language learning as well as nursing theories, can also serve as a bridge connecting the fields of nursing science and language education.

Keywords: Nursing theories, Language learning theories, Chaos Theory

Introduction

In Japan compulsory English classes currently begin in the fifth year of elementary school and continue through the three years of junior high and three years of high school. So by the time students enter college, they have had at least eight years of formal English education, in addition to any supplementary after-school or weekend lessons, with many of those students feeling that they have seen their last English class upon graduation from high school. Therefore, many new college students are disappointed at discovering that, regardless of the specialty that they choose to pursue, they are required to take at least one, or often two additional years of compulsory English courses.

It is natural for college students to wish to focus their time and energy on their core specialized courses to fulfill the requirements of their major. The challenge for English instructors is therefore to try to establish a relationship between English and the students' specialties. In the case of the author's own institution, a small nursing college in Kyushu, this entails not only how to make learning English relevant to nursing students, but also how to lead students to see the connection between the nurse who intervenes to help the patient either recover or adapt, and the language instructor who intervenes to help the learner succeed in their English studies. Below is an outline of this relationship.

Client	Facilitator	Successful Outcome
Patient	Nurse	Recovery or Adaptation
English learner	English Instructor	Knowledge&Acquisition

Nursing Paradigms

In the past the nurse's role was mainly seen as the person responsible for implementing the physician's instructions in the care of patients. However, as nurses became better educated and better trained, they began viewing their own profession as a science in itself. In order to support this position and convince other nurses as well as personnel in other medical fields, leading nursing scholars and researchers began formulating models and theories for nursing that could lay the groundwork for this revolution in thinking. Marrs and Lowry (2006), in their expanded hierarchy of nursing knowledge, defined metaparadigms, the most abstract component, as global concepts that identify the phenomena of the discipline. In the case of nursing, this metaparadigm would include person, environment, health, and nursing. Less abstract components are the nursing philosophies, defined as ontological and epistemological claims about values and beliefs of the discipline. Next come the conceptual models, which are a set of abstract concepts and their propositional statements that address the metaparadigm concepts. Approaching the concrete level, grand theories are a set of fewer abstract concepts and propositional statements that are broad in scope and are derived from conceptual models. Middle-range theories have a limited number of concepts and propositions written on a more specific level. Even more concrete are the practice theories that focus on one or two variables and their propositional connection stated in prescriptive or predictive terms and are related to a specific situation. Finally, empirical indicators are the specific tools employed in real world proxy for middle-range or practice theory concepts. In this paper, examples of each of the three mid-level components of conceptual model, grand theory, and middle-range theory will be further explained, along with related language learning parallels.

Nursing conceptual models

As noted above, nursing conceptual models employ concepts and their relationships that specify a perspective from which to view phenomena specific to the discipline of nursing. One example is the Roy Adaptation Model (RAM), developed by Sr. Callista Roy, which is widely used in nursing programs at colleges and universities through the United States as well as in other countries, including at the author's own institution in Japan. In the RAM, the focus is on the nurse's role in helping the patient to adapt to changes in their physical, mental, and spiritual conditions that lead to illness. Similarly, in language teaching the focus is on the instructor's role in helping learners adapt to changing situations in the intellectual, social, and environmental conditions that they continually face in their lives that either promote or discourage language knowledge, acquisition, and general language ability.

Another key aspect of the RAM is its emphasis on the influence of three kinds of stimuli, focal, contextual, and residual. Focal stimuli are those internal or external stimuli that immediately confront the patient and are determined, either through the nurse's observations or the patient's own words, to have a direct influence on a patient's ability to adapt to their changed condition. Contextual stimuli are all other internal or external stimuli evident in the situation and that have an indirect or secondary influence on them. Residual stimuli are those factors that may be affecting the patient's behavior but whose effects have not been validated. In language learning, these three types of stimuli, namely focal, contextual, and residual, also appear in relation to learners, where changing factors such as their physical condition, lesson time, interactions and general relationships with friends and families, and instructor's attitude can serve to either motivate or demotivate learners.

Another aspect of the RAM is the idea of the innate and acquired coping mechanisms expressed in the *regulator* and *cognator* subsystems, respectively. The regulator subsystem responds automatically to stimuli through neural, chemical, and endocrine coping processes, while the cognator subsystem responds through four cognitive-emotive channels: perceptual/information processing, learning, judgment, and emotion. In language learning these subsystems have analogies in the learner's natural and acquired abilities to assimilate the various aspects of language, including lexical, grammatical, and syntactic usage.

Finally, in the RAM there are two possible behavioral responses, either adaptive or ineffective. Adaptive responses are those that promote the integrity of the patient in terms of goals of adaptation: survival, growth, reproduction, and mastery; whereas ineffective responses are those that do not promote integrity or contribute to the goals of adaptation., and may ultimately threaten the patient's survival, growth, reproduction, or mastery. In language learning, the RAM's adaptive and ineffective responses can be equated to either learning success or failure.

Nursing grand theories

Nursing grand theories describe, explain, or predict relationships among the concepts of nursing phenomena, and propose testable results. One example of such a grand theory is Madeleine M. Leininger's Culture Care Theory of Diversity and Universality. This theory is unique in the nursing discipline due to the possibility of its being used in Western and non-Western cultures because of the inclusion of multiple holistic factors universally found in cultures.

Leininger's concept of culture care refers to the synthesized and culturally constituted supportive or facilitative caring acts toward oneself or others focusing either on the patients' health or disabilities as well as other human conditions that they face. In language learning, also, as is well known, culture plays a significant role in students' attitudes and behaviors in and outside the classroom. Culture here not only implies national culture (Japanese) but also regional, social, and economic subcultures that can manifest themselves in different ways.

Dimensions of cultural and social structure are also important in this theory, where they refer to dynamic, holistic, and interrelated patterns of structured features of a culture, including spirituality, social position, economy, education, philosophy, and history. In language education as well, individual and group differences among students are often expressed in the classroom, despite the fact that all of them may belong to an overriding nursing student subculture.

The environmental context, which refers to the totality of situations or events that give interpretive meanings to guide human expressions and decisions, is another aspect of this theory. In language education, the students' physical, social, and familial environments can exert an impact on their attitudes and motivation toward learning.

The final major theme of Leininger's theory involves culturally competent nursing care, which refers to the explicit use of culturally based care and health knowledge in creative and meaningful ways to fit the general needs of individuals and groups for beneficial health and well-being. In language education, culturally competent instruction is becoming increasingly seen as necessary in making sure that every student is able to reach his/her potential. This requires that instructors understand the backgrounds and environments of the students when carrying out classroom activities as well as in making assessments.

Nursing middle-range theories

Nursing middle-range theories are specific to practice outcomes and nursing situations. One example of this type of theory is Merle H. Mishel's Uncertainty in Illness Theory, in which Mishel applied elements of chaos theory (discussed below) to try to understand patients' changes in thinking about their illness and inability to predict outcomes accurately. In language education also, there is uncertainty in students' understanding concerning what they know or think they know about aspects of the English language, as well as their inability to predict the outcome of their ability to acquire it.

Mishel also wrote about cognitive schema, which is a patient's subjective interpretation of his/her illness, treatment, and hospitalization. In addition, she introduced the concept of stimuli frames, which can be divided into symptom pattern, event familiarity, and event congruency, in which patients establish a relationship between past and current conditions and situations. In language learning students also establish patterns and learning strategies to obtain desired outcomes. However, in both cases, when an outcome different from the one expected occurs, likely due to unforeseen or undetected factors, uncertainty, disappointment, or anger may result.

Two other components of Mishel's theory are structure providers and cognitive capacities. For patients, structure providers are the credible authority of the healthcare staff and the social supports that come from their families and friends. In language education the providers are the credible authority of the language instructor in addition to the learners' social supports.

Finally, Mishel's theory incorporates the patient's formulation of a new sense of order resulting from the integration of continual uncertainty into their self-structure, in which uncertainty is accepted as the natural rhythm of life. This can be applied to students' formulation of a new set of learning strategies to cope with and adapt to changes within themselves and their surroundings.

Learning theories

Although not specific to languages, the learning theories of behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, and connectivism have also been applied to language learning.

Behaviorism

The thinking behind behaviorism is that learning actually occurs when new behaviors or changes in behaviors are acquired through associations between stimuli and responses. Thus, association leads to a change in behavior. Elements of this theory are evident in Roy's adaptive and ineffective responses in her Roy Adaptation Model of nursing. Behaviorism can be employed as a type of intervention on both the part of nurses in providing care and promoting self-care in patients, as well as on the part of language teacher in providing instruction and promoting learner autonomy in students. Some examples and applications of the latter intervention are drilling and rote work, repetitive practice, encouragement of participation through bonus points, verbal reinforcement of successful outcomes, and the establishment rules for behavior. Although this approach has its advantages, it is not effective for problem-solving or creative thinking.

Cognitivism

Cognitivism is based on the thought process behind the behavior. Humans process the information they receive, rather than merely responding to stimuli. Learning involves the reorganization of experiences, either by attaining new insights or changing old ones. This approach is also, like behaviorism, a top-down approach, but it involves the stimulation of a patients' or students' neural processes. They are encouraged to take in information and think about it before acting upon it. In language learning, ways to foster this can be through activities such as classifying/chunking words and phrases, discussing and problem-solving, linking concepts together, analogizing, providing structure to information, imagining and/or creating pictures, and using real world examples.

Constructivism

In the constructivist approach, patients and students construct their own perspective of the world based on individual experiences and internal knowledge. Learning is based on how the individual interprets and creates the meaning of his/her experiences. It is unique and unpredictable. In this sense it involves chaos or complex systems theory, as was exemplified in Mishel's Uncertainty in Illness Theory mentioned above. In the language classroom, instructors can encourage this approach through activities such as collaborative learning and group work, research projects, discovery and problem-based learning, simulations, and brainstorming. As is evident, this approach is patient or student-centered, in which autonomy is actively encouraged.

Connectivism

Connectivism is a fairly new learning theory that explains how Internet technologies have created new opportunities for people to learn and share information across the World Wide Web and among themselves. This approach also promotes autonomy in patients and students, encouraging the former to take an active role in learning about their illness and possible treatments, and assisting the latter in finding ways to acquire the English language more efficiently through connections with other people or informational websites such as web browsers, social networks, e-mail, YouTube, Wikis, MOOCs, and online discussion forums.

Complex systems theory in Nursing and language learning education

Chaos theory, or complex systems theory, is a field of study in applied mathematics that has been applied in various natural sciences to attempt to explain the apparent randomness that is often found in nature. The theory asserts that sensitivity to initial conditions often leads to dramatically differing outcomes in the long-term. If all the initial factors are known and accounted for, the outcomes are theoretically deterministic. However, the infinite number of initial factors, coupled with the infinite variety of interconnections and evolving relationships between those factors, serve to make long-term prediction generally impossible.

One important aspect of chaos theory is sensitivity to initial conditions. Although two events can begin under seemingly identical circumstances, the presence of hidden factors can lead to greatly divergent outcomes. This is shown in the figure below, in which the meteorologist Edward Lorenz mapped out two nearly identical weather patterns, but with slightly formulas entered into his computer at the beginning.

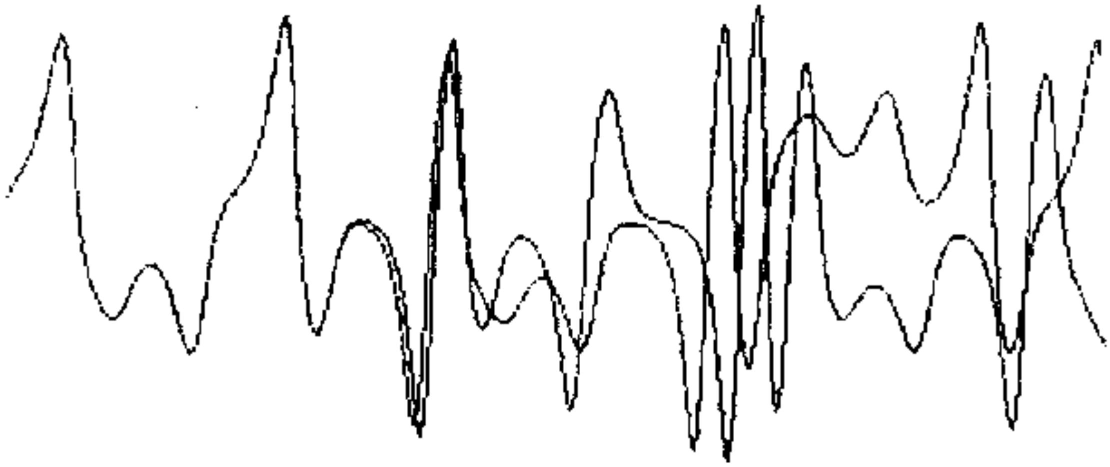

Figure 1

As is evident, although the left third of the figure shows an identical pattern, the two events then bifurcate, with the final result being the dramatic difference in weather patterns, all due to the existence or lack thereof of a single factor. This is popularly known as the "butterfly effect," whereby the flap of a single butterfly's wings in Brazil could influence the formation or lack thereof of a hurricane in Florida. The implication is that in order to accurately predict future weather, one would need to take into account all of the potential weather factors, including not only atmospheric pressure, temperature, and wind direction and speed, but also all movements of all butterflies, birds, icebergs, solar flares, and so on, which would be an unfathomable if not impossible task.

The recognition that events are influenced by initial sensitive conditions lies at the heart of the importance of trying to understand, within the time constraints and other limitations that both nurses and language instructors face, to view the individual as a unique member of progressively larger groups and cultures. It also demonstrates the dangers of overgeneralizing or stereotyping groups or larger populations. However, chaos theory also offers a path to nurse and instructors by which they are able to understand as far as is possible the reasons why identical treatment plans or teaching methods may require adjusting when applied to other seemingly identical, but in actuality slightly different, situations.

Conclusion

Although nursing students are often disappointed at discovering that they need to take English in addition to their nursing courses, an interdisciplinary approach that introduces and compares nursing and language learning models and theories might provide the relevance required to motivate them to make the effort needed to be a successful language learner. This approach could also help nursing students understand the relationship between the nurse and language instructor on the one hand, and the patient and language learner on the other.

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i-City, or a New Classroom for EFL in Times of Change: Its Theory and Practice

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Abstract
The purpose of this essay is to propose an idea to address the inequality in compulsory education which stems from economic and geographical issues, especially in the learning of English as a foreign language (EFL). The number of students in elementary and junior high schools on the islands has always been small. Schools on a small island offer good conditions for English education because of the low teacher-student ratio. Teachers can provide individual attention to students; however, students in such schools are disadvantaged, unlike their counterparts in a large city, because their geographical location limits their opportunities to exchange opinions, to practice listening to various English pronunciations and expressions, to learn about multicultural phenomena, and to meet people from other areas in Japan and from other countries. These advantages and disadvantages are true of schools on small islands and in secluded areas in other countries wherever students learn English as a foreign language. A potential solution is to provide an English class in a cyber-metropolitan city, or i-City, for students on small Japanese islands, as well as for students from various ethnic backgrounds in secluded areas in other countries who can be connected with each other through Information and Communications Technology (ICT). The results of a practice lesson show the true potential that the English class in the i-City contains, as an idea to address the inequality in compulsory education. The i-City will be able to improve academic ability in English and facilitate peace in the world.

Keywords: English education as Foreign Language (EFL), Small Islands, Secluded Areas, Inequality of Education Information and Communications Technology (ICT), Cross-cultural Understanding.

Introduction

The purpose of this essay is to propose an idea to address the inequality in compulsory education which stems from economic and geographical issues, especially in the learning of English as a foreign language; to show the results of a practice lesson; to discuss the significance and potential of an idea for a solution to the problem of inequality in education; and to highlight the issues which still present a challenge.

The Issues and an Idea for a Solution

Japan is comprised of many large and small islands. The number of students in elementary and junior high schools on the islands has always been small. In recent years, the number has been decreasing rapidly due to the declining birthrate across the nation. As a result, many schools have been abolished or merged, or often, students are educated in combined classes.

As we have discussed elsewhere, such an educational environment is advantageous in some respects and disadvantageous in others for students in EFL education.[1] Schools on a small island offer good conditions for English education because of the low teacher-student ratio. Teachers can provide individual attention to students; however, students in such schools are disadvantaged, unlike their counterparts in a large city, because their geographical location limits their opportunities to exchange opinions, to practice listening to various English pronunciations and expressions, to learn about multicultural phenomena, and to meet people from other areas in Japan and from other countries. These advantages and disadvantages are true of schools on small islands and in secluded areas in other countries wherever students learn English as a foreign language. If there is a solution to the problems stemming from geographical isolation, schools on islands and in isolated areas of the world can provide at least as effective an English education (if not better) as schools in large cities.

A potential solution is to provide an English class in a cyber-metropolitan city, or i-City, for students on small Japanese islands, as well as for students from various ethnic backgrounds in secluded areas in other countries who can be connected with each other through Information and Communications Technology (ICT) (Figure 1). People who reside in large Japanese cities often come from different rural communities. If students from small islands get together and communicate with each other in a given area, they can learn English in an educational environment similar to that in large cities. The educational environment can be created by ICTs, especially through a telecommunication/teleconference system, such as Skype or Google Hangouts. They can create a school in a virtual cyber-metropolitan city, or i-City, where students can experience and learn diverse cultures, thoughts, expressions, and different pronunciations of English. They can engage in an exchange of opinions, just like their peers in large cities. The i-City can be a global society as well, when schools on small islands or in secluded areas of the world are connected by ICTs. In fact, Qin Li's article (2014) shows that elementary school students in East Asia have faced a similar issue to the one we have identified in Japan. The authors now know that this is the reason why Chen Haowu et al. (2014) have instituted a fund and are working for the establishment of a domestic network of schools in secluded areas in China through ICTs. Their aim is to resolve the problems associated with educational inequality that stem from the geographic locations of schools.

[1] As for the discussion in this chapter, see A. Suzuki, S. Kurata, N. Nakamura, and K.

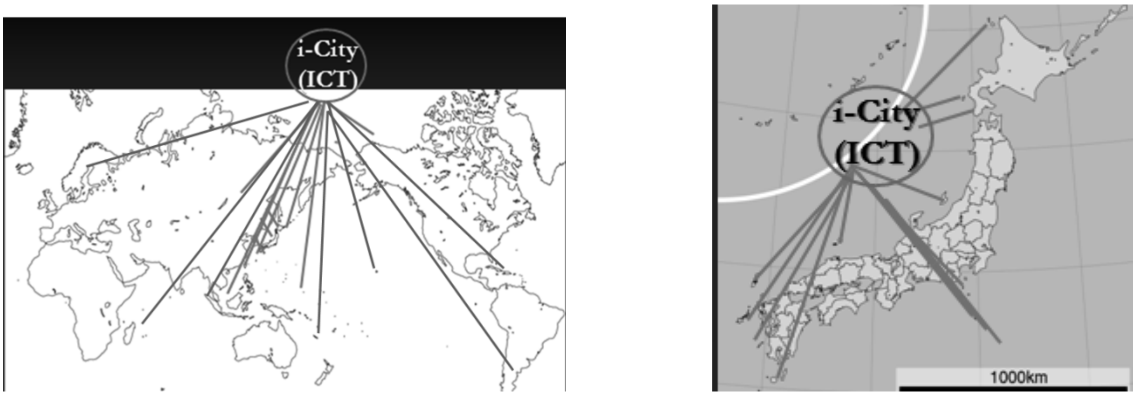

Figure 1: i-City

Carrying out the Project

In the winter of 2017 we set up an English class as a project, and the fifth grade, or eleven-year-old, students of two elementary schools in Japan joined the class with the use of Skype and large screen displays. The two schools are on the Gotō island in Nagasaki prefecture and the Sado island in Niigata prefecture.

In preparation for the class, we discussed the theme, the top-task, the activities, the contents, the class schedule, and so on with the classroom teachers of both schools. Generally speaking, an elementary school teacher in Japan has to use textbooks in class which are approved by the Ministry of Education in Japan. The textbook for English is *Hi, friends!* The teachers chose a lesson from this book, Lesson 7, which was suitable for the joint English class, and its theme was "to express an idea plainly and clearly in English." Consequently, the activities for the class were as follows: the students of each school split into four groups and one group set a quiz for the students of the other school on their own characteristic, cultural or historical matters or events; the students in one of the groups from the other school answered the quiz; then the students who set the quiz told the other students the correct answers. They then made a short presentation as an introduction to their culture in a way which could be easily understood. The students of both schools did the quiz-answer-presentation activities eight times so that each group of students had a turn. Before the day of the class, the students had prepared for their presentations, choosing topics from the exhaustive list of themes that are used in an English class to promote cross-cultural understanding, and which are in the book *Language and Children: Making the Match* (1994) by H. Curtain & C. A. Pesola, which has been regarded as an authoritative source for learning the English language and culture of English-speaking countries during compulsory schooling years in the U.S. and in Japan. Also, we suggested that in the presentation, the students of the two elementary schools should share a socio-cultural and geographic fact, for instance, that they live on small islands surrounded by the sea, because as Zhang Longxi, a distinguished scholar of cross-cultural understanding and comparative studies, points out (2015), it is critical for mutual understanding in a global society that there is a recognition of affinity as well as difference, beyond that of socio-cultural differences. On the day of the class, two of our research members stayed in the classrooms to set up the ICT communication system and to observe the class. As the photos show (Figure 3), the students were excited and enjoyed their English activities which took place in a positive atmosphere.

Figure 2: The Goto and the Sado islands

Figure 3: Class

Result and Discussion

After the class, we gave out a questionnaire using free-answer questions about the class to the 21 students and the three teachers of the schools who had taken part. Generally speaking, the students were very satisfied with the class in the i-City and they felt that the use of the large screen displays caused students to feel as if they had talked in English in the same space. According to their answers in the questionnaire, they have usually and always practiced English with the same students whom they have known from their time in kindergarten, and they were excited to talk with students of different cultural backgrounds for the first time in their lives. It meant that, in the words of one of the elementary school teachers, “students, who had been bored in English classes because the members of the group were always the same, could broaden their horizons and perspectives, by meeting with new faces, new cultures, and pronunciations and expressions of English they had not experienced before; and they could see how wonderful it is to experience a connection with people and develop mutual understanding; and discover what self-worth they could build in being part of humanity and in their academic ability in English by making themselves understood in English and developing a mutual understanding."

Analysis of the answers in the questionnaire showed other important outcomes of the class. For instance, students felt stimulated and empowered by each other which led to an increase in their levels of motivation to learn more English and also to learn more about each other's culture; students in each school admired the pronunciation, expression and management of English and the quick and correct response in English of the students in the other schools, and all of them wanted to improve their English and hoped that they could join the English class in the i-City again. In another interesting answer, some students became interested in the topic not through the quiz-answer-presentation activities but rather because of the students' family names which are not common in their home areas. In other words, they became interested in the people themselves. It should also be noted as a consequence of the project that the English class in the i-City had a big impact on the teachers as well. All of them wrote in the questionnaire that the English teaching of the teachers in the other schools was very informative and helpful for their own teaching. In this sense, the teachers, who always work with the same teachers on an island, were also stimulated and empowered by each other and experienced an increase in motivation to learn more about how to educate students better.
In actual fact, we conducted the first pilot case of an English joint class in the i-City in 2016, by connecting elementary schools on an island in Nagasaki prefecture and in a secluded area in Hokkaido, i.e., the western and eastern points in Japan (Figure 4). The results and answers to the questionnaire were very similar to the ones from the class this time (S. Kurata, N. Nakamura, A. Suzuki, and K. Matsumoto, 2017). Thus, it can be concluded that what we mentioned earlier in this paper as the outcomes of the project were not the result of some incidental cause, such as good chemistry, but show the true potential that the English class in the i-City contains.

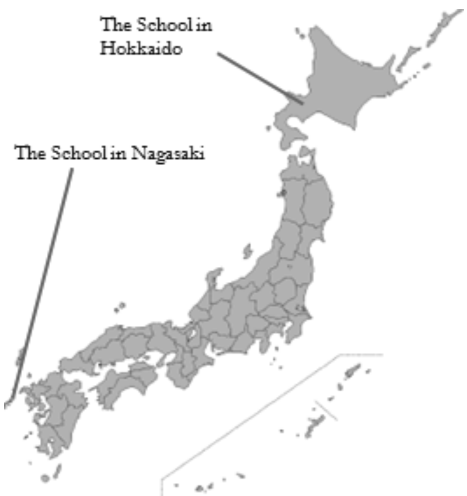

Figure 4: Schools in Nagasaki and Hokkaido

Conclusion

As an idea to address the inequality in compulsory education which stems from economic and geographical issues, especially in the learning of English as a foreign language, English class in the i-City contains the true potential.

However, there are issues which still need to be addressed in the development of the i-City. During the process, we faced several difficulties. For instance, the stability of the internet communication still requires consideration. This is especially the case on an island which has a poor infrastructure of internet connection, such as Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Line (ADSL). In fact, at the time of our project, one of the islands only had ADSL, which slightly lowered the volume while transmitting the students' voices to each other and this meant the students had to speak loudly and clearly, though as a result it gave them good practice in speaking English.

A major issue to consider is the political bigotry of those in control, such as the principal, vice-principal, director, and the school board. As the American novel *The Main Street* by Nobel Prize winning author, Sinclair Lewis shows, some of those in control on islands and in secluded areas, though not all of them, do not like students to have interaction with students in other areas and other countries. They stick to "their own way," are afraid of a kind of brainwashing of students and of their own responsibilities.[2] It means that they do not like expanding human horizons, but this view is totally out of date in a global society. Another issue of bigotry lies with parents. Especially in East Asia, many parents just want school to focus on teaching as preparation for an entrance examination so that their children can get into a "better school" in the future, and hence the leader of the school often succumbs to pressure from parents and refuses cross-cultural education. This is also an issue in the mind of the well-known American psychologist and educator, Carl Rogers, who created the concepts of counseling in schools and colleges and "Student-centered Education" and used words such as "facilitator," "empowerment," etc. in psychological and educational terms. Rogers also faced similar issues when he tried to facilitate interaction between students, parents, and other adults in one area and between them and people in other areas.[3]

At present we are proceeding with our project and will soon run an English class using ICTs for students of several elementary schools on islands in Japan and in other countries. With reference to Rogers' experiences and his ideas (C. Rogers 1961/1995, 1969; T. Kuwamura 2010), we are trying to resolve the issues and make education in the i-City have the greatest possible effect on students' learning, in order to solve the problems of inequality in education which stem from geography and economics, and in doing so facilitate peace in the world: we are making the platform of the i-City so that teachers and students who find themselves on small islands and in secluded areas all over the world can freely and at any time interact with each other in English to practice the language and develop mutual understanding, with the hope that it will improve academic ability in English and facilitate peace in the world. If you are interested, let us cooperate together. We would welcome all of you for the sake of all of the children and young people in the world.

Acknowledgements

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[2] As for their concern about brainwashing, see Habsbawm (1990).
[3] See C. Rogers (1961/1995, 1969) and T. Kuwamura (2010).

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Learners' Perceptions of Blended Language Learning Programs in Thailand

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Abstract
The purpose of this study was to explore how blended learning in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms was perceived by language learners and how this understanding helped inform the quality of blended learning for language education, particularly at a tertiary level. This study was conducted with 215 first-year students from six major universities in Thailand which are active in blended language learning programs. The quantitative and qualitative data obtained from a questionnaire were integrated and analysed. Overall, the study showed mixed results for language learners' perceptions. Although blended learning was positively perceived as useful for their English language development, some learners in this study were of the view that the environment was not as effective as expected. The limitations and problems of blended learning in language programs were highlighted: the need for learner training, prompt support, authentic tasks, and the teachers' competence in blended learning implementation. The study also concluded with both practical and pedagogical implications for language programs which aim to continue implementing blended language learning and improving the quality and effectiveness of this mixed environment.

Keywords: blended learning, EFL, learners' perceptions

Introduction

Blended learning has become a recent trend and a predominant pedagogical practice in language education for a very long time (see Gruba & Hinkelman, 2012; Marsh, 2012; McCarthy, 2016; Tomlinson & Whittaker, 2013). This is particularly the case for the mainstream tertiary education which has been moving towards instructional transformation and a new paradigm in language learning and teaching, and which has been gaining pace in the adoption of blended curriculum (Neumeier, 2005). It is evident that blended learning continues to be of great interest to practitioners in the fields of English language teaching (ELT) and computer-assisted language learning (CALL), and there is a great deal of discussion about its effectiveness for language learning. For instance, blended learning has been recognised as an effective way to create language learning opportunities (Marsh, 2012) both within and beyond the language classroom (Sharma & Barrett, 2007), change the way learners experience language learning (Gleason, 2013), foster learner autonomy and motivation (Murphy & Hurd, 2011; Nahdaleni & Dharmawan, 2016), and enhance second language acquisition (SLA) (Bañados, 2006; Zapata & Sagarra, 2007).

Notwithstanding the need for achieving the full pedagogical benefits of blended learning and for preparing students for learning in the 21st century to become proficient blended learners, there has been relatively little discussion, especially in the Thai EFL context from the primary to tertiary levels in both public and private education, about blended language learning from learners' perspectives. Particularly, what is still unclear is whether blended learning is perceived as useful for EFL learning and how learners' perceptions inform benefits, difficulties, and suggestions to ensure successful implementation of the blended courses. This study, therefore, attempted to investigate these questions.

Blended Language Learning

In the last few years, technology has become an integral part of many second and foreign language (L2) courses (Chapelle, 2003; Levy, Hubbard, Stockwell, & Colpaert, 2014; Stockwell, 2012). Computers, Internet, tablets, digital games, and even smart phones have made their way into language classrooms. Among different approaches to the incorporation of technology in classroom-based language learning and teaching, blended learning is a recent development. The term 'blended learning' has a range of meanings in literature, which is not at all a new phenomenon in ELT where each term seems to have varied interpretations. Sharma and Barrett, for instance, refer to blended learning as "a language course which combines a face-to-face (f2f) classroom component which an appropriate use of technology" (2007, p. 7). They argue that by integrating technology into a language course, language teachers are adding value to the teaching.

While the term has many wide-ranging definitions, within the language education especially in the context of this study, blended learning is generally defined as a learning environment that combines f2f and CALL. In other words, blended learning in the language classroom involves the use of CALL for the delivery of language instruction and can have different models – from mostly f2f, to mostly CALL components, to a right balance between the two. The term CALL includes a wide variety of tools, such as the Internet, CD-ROMs, mobile technologies, interactive whiteboards, software, digital games, applications, and other online technologies. It also covers the use of computer technologies as a means of communication, such as computer-mediated communication (CMC) in the forms of chat, email, and environments, including social networking and virtual learning environments which allow teachers to enrich their courses, as well as blended learning which caters for greater language learning opportunities, not only inside but also beyond the classroom.

The last decade has seen a dramatic expansion in the use of blended learning for language development. For example, many higher educational institutions today are using blended learning as a supplementary way to developing learners' vocabulary knowledge. The assumption that blended learning would contribute to the development of vocabulary knowledge is rooted in principles of vocabulary learning. In a case study, Pazio (2010) investigated the effectiveness of the use of blended learning to teaching a foreign language class in which the f2f component was blended with asynchronous CMC in the form of email exchanges between a Polish learner of English and a native speaker of English. In this study, the effectiveness was measured in terms of the expansion of vocabulary knowledge. The findings indicated that email correspondence, when incorporated as part of the course, could help the student to expand her vocabulary, eliminated spelling mistakes, and influenced her writing complexity.

A recent investigation (Tosun, 2015) examined the effects of blended learning strategy in teaching vocabulary and the students' perceptions of blended learning approach in learning vocabulary. Forty students from two intensive English classes at a school in Turkey took part in the study. While experimental group studied the target vocabulary items through blended learning strategies, the control group learned the same vocabulary items through traditional way of vocabulary teaching. After the 6-week instruction, a paper-based vocabulary test was administered to both groups of students. Unlike other previous studies which tend to show positive effects of blended learning on language learning outcome, the findings of this study indicated that the blended learning strategy used could not improve the students' vocabulary knowledge. Possibly, this failure was attributed to the short duration of the study. As for the qualitative data, semi-structured interviews were used to identify students' views on blended learning in terms of the advantages and disadvantages of blended learning, and their suggestions on improving blended learning environment. Although students were satisfied with the blended learning strategy employed in teaching vocabulary and preferred it to the traditional learning, they did not want to spend time studying new vocabulary items outside the classroom time due to their lack of motivation. The most obvious implication is that for the successful implementation of blended learning, the tools/activities should be selected in accordance with learner's particular needs and interests.

Blended Learning from Learners' Perspectives

Sagarra and Zapata (2008) investigated the perceptions of 245 language learners towards the use of online workbook over two consecutive semesters. Each week, these learners attended a four-hour blended Spanish course and completed one set of online homework for a total of 24 weeks (12 week per semester). After eight months of learners' exposure to the online workbook, their perceptions towards the workbook were measured using a survey. The qualitative data of the survey was then compared to the quantitative data from two different language assessment tests. The test results suggested a significant increase in learners' grammar scores and the results were found to generally agree with the positive findings of learners' perceptions of the online workbook obtained in this and previous studies, highlighting its pedagogical benefits in terms of accessibility to the materials, user-friendliness, and instant feedback. Most importantly, the majority of participants were in favour of the usefulness of the online workbook for language learning, especially in the areas of grammar and vocabulary acquisition.

While most of the previous studies have presented positive findings of how language learners felt about blended learning, which appears to convince the reader that it is a satisfying learning environment for language learning process, any challenges faced when studying online remain to be answered. Accordingly, Sun's (2014) study, for instance, focused entirely on the difficulties that confronted online language learners, as well as the way they had adapted to fully online learning environment. The author surveyed 46 learners. Both quantitative and qualitative findings obtained from a questionnaire revealed 6 major difficulties: 1) following the schedule and studying regularly, getting hold of classmates and finding suitable time to work together, 3) paring/teaming up and working collaboratively, 4) ensuring constant engagement with the class, 5) keeping self-motivated and being self-directed learner, and 6) socializing.

Another study (Bueno-Alastuey & Pérez, 2014) investigated students' perceptions of the usefulness of technology in all the language skills and aspects in an EFL blended course with a full degree of technology integration and compared these perceptions to those of students of a Spanish as a Second Language blended course with a lower level of technology integration. In general, the study showed that both groups of students had not previously used technology much for language learning, that their responses varied, depending on use of technology in their language courses, and that students with an increased use of technology in their courses appeared to realize both its potential for productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing) and its drawbacks. Additionally, the perceived usefulness of technology for skills and different areas of language varied. In other words, students who had used technology less in their course considered technology the most useful for some aspects of language (i.e. grammar and vocabulary), followed by receptive skills (i.e. reading and listening), and the least useful for the development of pronunciation and productive skills. Nevertheless, students who had used technology more in their course found the technology slightly useful for language aspects and receptive skills, but highly helpful for their improvement of pronunciation and productive skills. Based on the students' generally positive perceptions of the usefulness of technology, the study encouraged technology integration in language classrooms and suggested including particular training to reduce the number of students rejecting the use of technology.

Ja'ashan (2015) conducted a study of learners' perceptions and attitudes towards a blended English course at University of Bisha. The study attempted to identify the perceptions and attitudes that blended learning can provide to students' learning experiences and to investigate negative impressions of blended English courses from their perspectives. A questionnaire was administered to students of English department from eight levels of an undergraduate program, and 130 responded. The study revealed learners' positive perceptions and attitudes towards blended learning.

The study also concluded that blended learning is as effective as face to face learning in developing and improving knowledge and skills. However, the results reflected students' negative impressions in some points: waste of time, easy cheating and social isolation.

Blended learning is an area of interest for many researchers from various domains and empirical studies have indicated that it has the potential of achieving better language learning outcomes. Nevertheless, the body of the literature on blended learning in language education, especially for language programs at the tertiary level in the EFL contexts such as Thailand (the setting for this study), is still insufficient, and further research is, thus, required in ELT contexts (Tomlinson & Whittaker, 2013). In addition, most studies in EFL tertiary education have focused on examining the superiority of blended language learning compared to traditional f2f instruction (Gleason, 2013) and suggested the effectiveness of the newer environment on learning outcomes. However, it has been often argued that technology alone cannot create a successful blended language learning environment. In fact, the successful implementation of new learning environments incorporating technology, like in the case of blended learning, should be also based on the understanding of learners' perceptions (Hong & Samimy, 2010; Jamieson, Chapelle, & Preiss, 2005; Pardo-Ballester, 2012; Sun, 2014). Learners must be included and their perspectives need to be investigated because they are 'the most important participants in the online learning adventure' (Sun, 2014, p. 19) and they are considered as 'experts on their learning and the benefactors of well-developed materials' (Kessler & Plakans, 2001, p. 15). Without an understanding of learners' perspectives, it would be difficult to create new and effective language learning environments. It is therefore worthwhile to investigate how learners perceive blended learning in their language courses so that we can determine benefits and limitations and find practical suggestions for successful blended learning design and implementation.

Research Methodology

Research questions

This study sought to investigate the use of blended learning in EFL courses at a tertiary level in Thailand, with the predominant focus on learners' perspectives. The objective of this study was twofold: 1) to investigate how Thai EFL learners at the tertiary level think about blended language learning courses, and 2) to determine how they see the benefits and limitations of this learning environment, its impact on their language learning practice, and how to promote effective implementation of blending courses. To achieve this, the present study posed the following research questions:

RQ1: How do learners perceive blended learning in English courses?
RQ2: How do learners' perceptions inform the benefits, limitations, and suggestions for effective implementation of blended learning in English courses?

Research settings and participants

Blended learning is substantially emphasised in Higher Education in Thailand. To respond the requirement, at the time of the study, six major public and private institutions in Thailand, which are active in blended language learning programmes, were involved. Each institution offers two English foundation courses in the first year of the university education. Each course meets twice a week for 3 hours for 15 weeks. Moreover, each institution is similar in that approximately 1,000-1,200 first year students are enrolled in these foundation courses. Their EFL programs have developed substantial blended language learning environments where CALL (i.e. any form of online technologies for language learning) is utilized as an online component of the language courses. Their English programs use commercial textbooks with companion online workbook components. These are designed for blended learning in a variety of implementation models: a) students are required to study part of a lesson online to prepare for f2f instruction, b) students are required to do some lessons (e.g. speaking, pronunciation) in class and others (e.g. grammar, vocabulary) online either in the classroom or computer lab, c) students are required to study whole lessons online and then attend class to put what they have learned into practice in f2f instruction, d) students are provided with additional practice in online formats for their self-study outside class. Since blended learning in this study refers to a combination of f2f and online components, the courses selected had to be blended according to the definition. Courses that are fully online and courses that only employ educational technologies which are not web-based (e.g. lectures with PowerPoint slides) were eliminated.

A convenience sampling method was used to collect prospective participants. The study was carried out with 215 students with different majors and mixed proficiency levels and computer skills, ranging in age from 18 to 20 years old. 120 students were female and the rest were male. They indicated they had little experience with blended learning prior to their university program. They enrolled in the first year of undergraduate English foundation courses, for two consecutive terms of one academic year. Informed consent was obtained, and no incentive was offered. The participants were selected for this study because they were being engaged in a blended language program, and the results of the study would therefore be more valid.

Instruments

The questionnaire was distributed to participants at the end of the second semester when they had experienced blended learning for a one-year period. The initial questionnaire was informed by information retrieved from the literature review. It was then refined by piloting with a group of university students. Participants were asked about their background (e.g. major, computer skills, and experience with blended language courses) and their perceptions of blended EFL courses. In each question item, participants were encouraged to elaborate on their responses and give comments. The quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the questionnaire were integrated and analysed.

Findings

Quantitative data: Learners' perceptions of blended learning in English courses

Data gathered here suggests that participants generally acknowledged that blended learning in their EFL programs have positive effects on the development of their English skills (M = 3.84, SD = .28). They reported their improvement in their reading skills, listening skills, and pronunciation as a result of blended language learning, with the mean of 3.36 (*SD* = .76), 4.06 (*SD* = .78), and 3.86 (*SD* = .68), respectively. They also agreed that they have more exposure to new vocabulary (*M* = 3.83, *SD* = .75) and more opportunities for vocabulary building (*M* = 4.57, *SD* = .50) and vocabulary use (*M* = 4.07, *SD* = .58). Interestingly, they felt that blended learning is more effective than a single mode of f2f English instruction (*M* = 3.77, *SD* = .39), and that they would like their English lessons to be blended with online components (M = 3.83, SD =.75). They were also enthusiastic about the blended courses (*M* = 3.84, *SD* = .77).

However, the questionnaire responses revealed some uncertainty among the participants when they were asked if blended learning allows them to develop writing skills (*M* = 2.86, *SD* = .82), speaking skills (*M* = 2.33, *SD* = .88), and grammar (*M* = 2.33, *SD* = .55). Participants were also quite skeptical of the effectiveness of blended learning in terms of the access to authentic materials (*M* = 2.83, *SD* = .79) and the online content/instructional materials that suit individual learners' interest (*M* = 2.76, *SD* = .97). Despite positive responses, participants appeared to exhibit their lower motivation in online participation (*M* = 2.33, *SD* = .88) when they familiarize themselves with a blended learning environment.

Qualitative data: Benefits, limitations, and suggestions for effective implementation of blended learning in English courses

Five important advantages were reported in the written response section. The most frequently stated was that EFL learners in this study could learn more new words and enjoyed the availability of tasks (such as pronunciation and vocabulary practice) which are normally limited in a classroom setting. They also appreciated the pedagogical advantage of blended learning in providing opportunities for flexible learning, potential increased autonomous learning, and further language learning opportunities at any time. According to the written comments, an online component was considered useful in previewing and reviewing the lesson because they could work at their own pace, and practice what they needed to improve an unlimited number of times. Another reported advantage was the development of students' computer and Internet skills enhanced while taking part in the online component.

Although blended learning was positively perceived as useful for their language learning, some learners said that their blended course was not as effective as expected. The analysis of the written response revealed that blended learning was perceived by many participants to be interesting and frustrating at the same time. Some commented that they did not have much motivation for blended learning due to their preference to traditional f2f instruction and the quality of online tasks and materials which were deemed difficult, boring, and inappropriate and irrelevant to the lesson. In addition, a number of participants reported a sense of isolation when working online without interaction with the teacher and other students. When it comes to technologies used in a blended course, the findings demonstrated that features, convenience, and user friendliness were considered as significant factors. Furthermore, low English proficiency level, unpreparedness for an online component, and technical problems (such as poor computer facilities and lack of IT support) were common concerns. Some participants claimed they did not receive clear directions and guidelines from their teachers, thus finding it even more difficult to independently participate in blended courses. They also felt disappointed when their teachers told them that blended learning is the responsibility of the learners and assumed that all students do not require training because they already have necessary knowledge, skills, and strategies to support their learning with technology. One student said, "*Although I can use certain technologies, I am not confident in exploiting them for language learning*."

When asked how a blended language course can be improved, the majority suggested providing proper training for both learners and the teachers so that the former can effectively use tools and resources and successfully learn in a blended course, and that the latter can build competence and confidence in conducting a blended course. Other suggestions included the reduction in blended-learning hours, the use of more authentic, interesting tasks and the provision of synchronous communication tools, such as social network sites, for feedback and prompt support.

Conclusions and Implications

This study has dealt with the voices of Thai EFL university students on blended learning. It primarily aimed at examining their perceptions of blended language courses in order to understand how they perceived blended learning for their language learning and how their perceptions informed benefits, difficulties, and suggestions to ensure successful design and implementation of the blended learning programs, particularly in EFL contexts.

Most of the previous studies with the focus on learners' attitude toward, perception of, or performance in, a f2f instruction with the use of CALL are overwhelmingly positive (e.g. Lai & Gu, 2011; Nguyen, 2011; Yang, 2011). Nonetheless, the present study has clearly provided mixed findings including both favourable and unfavourable views. The quantitative findings indicated that blended learning, when well implemented, had the potential to become a useful learning environment and create effective opportunities for language learning. However, some of EFL students in this study found taking blended courses challenging. The reasons were usually related to difficulty in maintaining motivation and the feelings of frustration and isolation of the online learning experience as part of their blended courses. Moreover, the qualitative results can provide a basis for the improvements of blended learning programs. Learner training and prompt support, appropriate tasks and blend of technology, and the teachers' competence in blended learning implementation can make blended language learning succeed, and these should be key concerns for tertiary education institutions to run blended language courses smoothly.

It is evident from this study that not all language learners received all the benefits of blended language learning programs. This indicates considerable practical and pedagogical demands on language teachers. Perhaps, the most obvious is that teachers should be aware that there are other factors to be taken into consideration: learners' proficiency level, computer skills, individual differences in language learning, and the quality of instructional materials, learning experience and language learning technologies, which can affect learners' perceptions of blended EFL courses as well as their interest, motivation, engagement, and commitment. At the pedagogical level, blended language programs require the ability of teachers to effectively use technological tools in their blended courses for online instruction delivery, online interaction, digital material development, and, perhaps, online assessment.

Assistance and guidance from the teachers might broaden learners' confidence in learning with technology, making the learning experience in blended courses more rewarding since both language and computer skills are simultaneously enhanced. However, it is possible that the novelty of the online component in a blended course will gradually disappear when students are more familiar with it. Lee and Im (Lee & Im, 2006) found in their investigation of university-level learners in Korea that although students were generally positive about blended learning, over time students become less satisfied with it and spend less time studying. Blended language courses thus require teachers' ability to design instructional activities that enhance students' language skills, motivation and autonomous learning, as well as give them the opportunity to work collaboratively and extend their time on tasks, tapping into their interest, needs, skills, and abilities in blended learning. This also applies at the practical level, in terms of the ability to select appropriate online materials. According to Reinders (2012), it is the teachers' responsibility to determine the relevance and appropriacy of learning resources and find ways to package them together with appropriate instructions and support. The most obvious implication is that for the successful implementation of blended learning, as pedagogy is evolving, teachers' roles should be changed to a facilitator of learning both inside and outside of the classroom. Specific teaching skills are also required for teachers to conduct a blended course and encourage students to take full pedagogical advantages of blended learning for the development of their English.

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Mathematics Teachers' Content Preparedness, Level of Use of Active Learning Practices and Students' Achievement

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Abstract
This descriptive – correlational research was conducted to determine the Grade 7 Mathematics teachers' content preparedness, level of use of active learning practices and students' achievement. It made use of two data gathering instruments, namely: Survey Questionnaires for Teachers (SQT) and the Mathematics Achievement Test for Students (MATS). The samples included 40 teachers and 1540 students from the public secondary schools in the divisions of Ilocos Norte, Laoag City and City of Batac. Data on teachers' content preparedness were analyzed using means and the corresponding qualitative description. For the level of use of active learning practices, frequency and percentage distribution were utilized. Achievement level of student – respondents was analyzed using percentage score, frequency, percentage distribution and the assigned qualitative description. Pearson's r correlation was used to determine and test the relationship between the variables. Data were processed through the IBM Statistics SPSS Version 20. In testing the significance of r, the level of significance was set at the 0.05 probability level. Results show that the teachers' overall mean level of content preparedness to teach the prescribed learning competencies in the K to 12 Mathematics Curriculum for Grade 7 is significantly correlated with the students' achievement in mathematics. Students perform mathematical tasks better when teachers are adequately prepared in content. Further, their critical thinking ability is enhanced and problem solving skills are developed when supported by teachers with better content preparedness. Findings of the study indicate that teachers who have higher level of use of active learning practices produce high achieving Grade 7 students. With a more advanced operationalization of these active learning practices, the students find opportunities to relate knowledge and skills to wider contexts so that they will be motivated to learn and will become lifelong learners. Likewise, teachers' content preparedness is a factor that influences the level of use of storytelling, cooperative learning, instruction gaming, outdoor activity, problem solving modeling, demonstration laboratory, role playing and personalized system of instruction. The more prepared the teachers on content the higher the level of use of these active learning practices.

Keywords: Mathematics Teachers' Content Preparedness (MTCP), Active Learning Practices (ALP), Level of Use of the Active Learning Practices (LoUALP), Mathematics Achievement

Introduction

Today's society is consistently changing at rapid rates and the education sector is greatly affected. The change demands that educational paradigm must be properly aligned to the growing needs of humanity for universal adaptation and survival. To do this, all education programs have to be always re-evaluated and revised to achieve quality and excellence, to maintain efficiency and effectiveness, to guarantee access and equity, and to become more responsive and relevant for the preparation of learners. Amidst the change, however, is the willingness to accept it. When there is willingness, there is hope for progress in any field. Creativity can be developed and innovation benefits both students and teachers.

In the Philippines, many reforms have been introduced to the basic education system knowing that such changes could help improve learners' performance. However, despite these reforms and introduction of innovations, the Philippines still performs desperately low as reported in local and international standardized examinations. The local test called National Achievement Test (NAT) administered yearly by the Department of Education (DepEd) mirrors the struggle of Filipino students for quality education. Specifically, the result of this test in Mathematics is quite depressing. Antonio (2015) cited that the nationwide average Mean Percentage Score (MPS) obtained by the second year students from 2009 – 2011 was 39.89% and 46.37% by the fourth year students in 2012.

According to DepEd (2011), the implementation of the K to 12 education plan of the Philippine Basic Education Curriculum is the key to the nation's development. It provides sufficient time for mastery of concepts and skills to develop lifelong learners and to prepare graduates for tertiary education, middle-level skills development, employment, and entrepreneurship (DepEd 2013). President Benigno S. Aquino III believed that the K to 12 BEP will advance the competencies of Filipino graduates to enable them to stand at par with global practices and remain equipped with relevant skills and knowledge in their chosen profession (Cruz 2012).

Quijano (cited in Natividad 2014) explained that the K to 12 BEP could strengthen Science and Mathematics Education through its spiral progression and integrative nature. These approaches avoid disjunctions between stages of schooling, allow learners to learn topics and skills appropriate to their developmental/ cognitive stages and strengthen retention and mastery of topics and skills as they are revisited and consolidated. The successful implementation of this program, however, depends on many factors, one of which is the teacher. Undeniably, the teachers are considered the most crucial factor in implementing all instructional reforms at the grassroots level. Gillard (cited in Kimosop 2013) reiterates that teachers have an increasing measure of control over the curriculum, that is, over what is taught and how it is taught. The academic qualifications, knowledge of the subject matter, competence and skills of teaching and the commitment of the teacher have effective impact on the teaching and learning process (Rahman, Jumani, Akhter, Chisthi, Ajma 2011). It is the teacher and what the teacher knows and can do that determine student achievement
(Wong & Teo 2003).

Nonetheless, teachers can only be most helpful in implementing the education reform and the attainment of better performance, particularly in the mathematics program, if they are adequately prepared. The 2011 TIMSS considers well-prepared teachers to be one of the crucial components of effective schools (Martin & Mullins as cited in Pope 2013). The study of Wekesa (2013) established that there is a strong positive relationship between the teachers' level of classroom preparedness, practice and instructional methods and students' academic performance in Mathematics.

How students perform in a mathematics class reflects the preparation that a teacher has in terms of academic subject-matter content, pedagogical knowledge, assessment strategies, classroom management and knowledge of child and adolescent development as applied to teaching. Available research supports the idea that high quality teacher preparation is important. Well prepared teachers outperform those who are not prepared (NCATE 2008).

In addition, the twin goals of mathematics education - critical thinking and problem solving - can only be cultivated with the use of appropriate teaching practices. DepEd highly recommends the use of student-centered approaches in the implementation of the K to 12 Mathematics Curriculum. These approaches shift the focus from the teacher and delivery of course content to the student and active engagement with the material. Through active learning techniques and modeling by the teacher, students shed the traditional role as passive receptors and learn and practice how to comprehend knowledge and skills and use them meaningfully (FSU 2011).

Undeniably, the nature and quality of the teaching-learning process proceeds from the intellectual and pedagogical preparation of teachers. Hence, this study was undertaken to provide empirical data on the effect of teacher factors like content preparedness and level of use of active learning practices to the mathematics achievement of students.

Statement of the Problem

This study aimed to determine the Mathematics teachers' content preparedness in teaching the Grade 7 Mathematics Curriculum, their level of use of the different active learning practices, and their effects on the achievement of their students.
Specifically, it answered the following questions:

1. What is the teachers' perceived level of content preparedness along the following areas?
   a. Number and Number sense;
   b. Measurement;
   c. Patterns and Algebra;
   d. Geometry; and
   e. Statistics and Probability?
2. What is the teachers' level of use of the different active learning practices prescribed in the K to 12 Mathematics Curriculum?
3. What is the students' level of Mathematics achievement?
4. Is there a significant relationship between teachers' content preparedness and their level of use of the active learning practices?
5. Is there a significant relationship between students' mathematics achievement and the teachers' level of:
   5.1. content preparedness; and
   5.2. use of the active learning practices?

Definition of Terms

The following terms were operationally defined for clarity and better understanding of the study:

Mathematics Teachers' Content Preparedness (MTCP). This refers to the teachers' perceived level of readiness to deliver instruction to be able to bring out the desired learning competencies in the K to 12 Mathematics Curriculum in number sense, measurement, algebra, geometry, statistics and probability among the student – respondents.

Active Learning Practices (ALP). This refers to the set of strategies, methodologies and techniques utilized by teachers to deliver course content and to engage students actively in the teaching and learning process. These include instruction gaming, personalized system of instruction, cooperative learning, expository, discovery, inductive discussion, discovery-inquiry, demonstration/laboratory, drill/practice, problem solving, role playing, storytelling, modeling and outdoor activity.

Level of Use of the Active Learning Practices (LoUALP). This refers to the behavior of the respondents with respect to the utilization of the different active learning practices described in terms of the following eight levels: non-use, orientation, preparation, mechanical use, routine, refinement, integration, and renewal.

Level 0: Non – Use. This is the state in which the individual has little or no knowledge of the Active Learning Practice (ALP), no involvement with it, and is doing nothing toward becoming involved.

Level I: Orientation. This refers to the state in which the individual has or is acquiring information about the ALP and/or has explored its value orientation and what it will require.

Level II: Preparation. It is the state in which the users are preparing for first use of the ALP.

Level III: Mechanical Use. This is the state in which the user focuses most effort on the short-term, day-today use of the ALP with little time for reflection. Changes in use are made more to meet user needs than needs of students and others.

Level IVA: Routine. This refers to the state in which the use of ALP is stabilized. Few if many changes, are being made in ongoing use. Little preparation or thought is being given to improve ALP use or its consequences.

Level IVB: Refinement. This is the state in which the user varies the use of the ALP to increase the impact on clients (students or others) within their immediate sphere of influence. Variations in use are based on knowledge of both short and long term consequences for clients.

Level V: Integration. This refers to the state in which the user is combining own efforts to use the ALP with related activities of other teachers to achieve a collective impact on clients within their common sphere of influence.

Level VI: Renewal. This refers to the state in which the user re-evaluates the quality of the use of the innovation, seeks major modifications of, or alternatives to, present innovation to achieve increase impact on clients, examines new developments in the field and explores new goals for self and the organization.

Mathematics Achievement. This refers to the percentage equivalents of students' scores in the Achievement test, which are classified according to the following five levels of proficiency stipulated in DepEd Order No. 31, s. 2012:

Beginning. The student at this level struggles with his/her understanding; prerequisite and fundamental knowledge and/or skills have not been acquired or developed adequately to aid understanding.

Developing. At this level, the student possesses the minimum knowledge and skills and core understanding but need helps throughout performance of authentic tasks.

Approaching Proficiency. The student on this level has developed the fundamental knowledge and skills and core understandings and with little guidance from the teacher and/or with some assistance with peers can transfer independently through authentic performance task.

Proficient. The student in this level developed the fundamental knowledge and skills and core understandings and can transfer them independently through authentic performance task.

Advanced. The student in this level exceeds the core requirements in terms of knowledge, skills and understanding, and can transfer them automatically and flexibly through authentic performance task.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The following are the salient findings of the study.

Teachers' content preparedness. The perceived levels of preparedness to teach the learning competencies were determined along number and number sense, measurement, patterns and algebra, geometry and statistics and probability.

Generally teachers perceived themselves to be very well prepared to teach the prescribed competencies along number and number sense ($\bar{x}$ = *3.60*), measurement ($\bar{x}$ = *3.68),* patterns and algebra *($\bar{x}$ = 3.55),* geometry *($\bar{x}$ = 3.57)* and statistics and probability *($\bar{x}$ = 3.45*). The lowest mean obtained ranged from *3.10 – 3.20* with a descriptive interpretation of well prepared.

Teachers' level of use of active learning practice. Cooperative learning and drill/practice recorded the highest number of respondents (10 or 20%) on the *Renewal* level. While the highest number of users is registered along *Integration* for instruction gaming (15 or 37.50%). More than one-fourth of the total respondents are at *Refinement* Level for the following: Discovery-Inductive (13 or 32.50%), Directed-Inductive (12 or 30%), Discussion (14 or 35%), Discovery-Inquiry (12 or 30%) and

Problem-Solving (13 or 32.50%). A number of the respondents are still at Levels 0 – 2. Those who are at these levels are considered non-users of the active learning practices. Story telling (10 or 25%) registered the highest number of non-users, followed by modeling and outdoor activity with 9 (22.5%) non-users each.

Mathematics achievement of the students. All, except two, students had a passing performance. One hundred (100) attained *Advanced* level, six hundred (600) *Proficiency* level, four hundred eighty eight (488) *Approaching Proficiency* level and three hundred fifty (350) *Developing* level. However, the over-all achievement was at *Approaching Proficiency* level with a mean of 56.29 and a standard deviation of 1.64.

Teachers distribution according to the level of achievement of their students. Twenty four (24) teachers have students whose achievement is in the proficient level; six (6) have students with approaching proficiency level of achievement and the rest of the teachers (10) have students with developing level of achievement.

Correlation analysis between teachers' content preparedness and the level of use on active learning practices. The overall level of teachers' content preparedness is significantly related at the 0.01 level of significance with their level of use of Instruction Gaming ($r = 0.519$), Personalized System of Instruction ($r = 0.409$), Cooperative learning ($r = 0.520$), Demonstration/Laboratory ($r = 0.462$), Problem - Solving ($r = 0.475$), Role Playing ($r = 0.435$), Storytelling ($r = 0.529$), Modeling, ($r = 0.463$) and Outdoor Activity ($r = 0.519$). Also, the overall level of teachers' content preparedness is significantly related to their level of use of Expositor ($r = 0.389$), Directed-Inductive ($r = 0.400$), and Discussion ($r = 0.367$) at the 0.05 probability level. There is no significant relationship between teachers' content preparedness and level of use of Discovery-Inductive ($r = 0.254$), Discovery-Inquiry ($r = 0.248$), and Drill and Practice ($r = 0.268$).

Correlation analysis between student achievement and mathematics teachers' content preparedness. There is a significant relationship between teachers' overall level of content preparedness and student achievement ($r = 0.375$) at the 0.05 probability level.

Correlation analysis between student achievement and teachers' level of use of active learning practices. At the 0.01 level, data analysis indicated a statistically significant positive relationship between students mathematics achievement and teachers' use of role playing ($r = 0.606$), instruction gaming ($r = 0.605$), cooperative learning ($r = 0.600$) demonstration laboratory ($r = 0.594$) outdoor activity ($r = 0.555$), modeling ($r = 0.521$), storytelling ($r = 0.514$), expository ($r = 0.490$) personalized system of Instruction ($r = 0.489$). A significant relationship at the 0.05 level exists between students' achievement and teachers' level of use of discovery-inductive ($r = 0.348$) and the directed-inductive ($r = 0.350$) and there was no significant relationship between teachers' level of use of discussion ($r = 0.290$), discovery-inquiry ($r = 0.322$), drill and practice ($r = 0.212$) and problem-solving ($r = 0.175$) and students' mathematics achievement.

Conclusion

On the basis of the above findings, it is concluded that teachers' content preparedness is significantly related to the students' achievement in mathematics. Students perform mathematical tasks better when teachers are adequately prepared in content. Further, their critical thinking ability is enhanced and problem solving skills are developed when supported by teachers with better content preparedness.

It can also be concluded that the teachers who have higher level of use of active learning practices produce high achieving students. With a more advanced operationalization of these active learning practices, the students find opportunities to relate knowledge and skills to wider contexts so that they will be motivated to learn and will become lifelong learners.

Moreover, teachers' content preparedness is a factor that influences the level of use of storytelling, cooperative learning, instruction gaming, outdoor activity, problem solving modeling, demonstration laboratory, role playing and personalized system of instruction. The more prepared the teachers on content the higher the level of use of these active learning practices.

Recommendations

In the light of the findings and conclusion, the following recommendations are offered: The teachers must be reflective of their teaching methodology in order to sustain their students' interest and motivation to learn mathematics. As such, they must not **only have a** wide-based knowledge of the different active learning practices but also have clear understanding on how these strategies can be effectively implemented in their classroom discussion

Teachers must be very well-prepared in the contents of the curriculum so that they can build meaningful understanding of mathematics concepts among students and that they can usher students into more advanced mathematical tasks. Teacher's mentoring program, attendance in professional trainings and enrollment for refresher courses can best serve for this purpose

School administrators must provide strong support for the personal and professional growth of their teachers. They can provide technical assistance which may help their teachers continue with their schooling and attend refresher courses and seminars on pedagogies and content

Teacher Training Institutions need to provide knowledge, experiences, and supervision to pre-service mathematics teachers to prepare them design and implement active learning practices. When teachers have feelings of preparedness for active learning practice in both their content and pedagogical knowledge, mathematics teachers are confident that they can deliver such instruction to their students.

The policy makers and developers need to provide instructional materials that are well conceived, coherent, and current. Curriculum materials can directly affect what concepts teachers will teach, the methods of instruction teachers will use, and the learning experiences teachers will provide their students.

Future researchers may conduct a similar study involving greater number of respondents to validate the significant results of this study; and

It is also encouraged that future researchers will correlate teachers' content preparedness correspondingly with the students' achievement on the same learning area. For instance, teachers' content preparedness on number sense should be correlated on students' achievement on number sense also.

APPENDICES
INSTRUMENTS OF THE STUDY

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I. Respondent's Background Information

A. Name____
Last Name First Name Middle Name

B. School ____

Part II. Preparedness on Content of Grade 7 Mathematics

Direction: Please put a check mark (√) in the appropriate column that will show how well prepared do you feel in teaching the learning competencies of Grade Seven Mathematics Curriculum as prescribed by the Department of Education.

Descriptive Interpretation	Numerical Equivalent
Not prepared	1
Moderately prepared	2
Well prepared	3
Very well prepared	4

Number Sense	1	2	3	4
describes and illustrates well-defined sets, subsets, universal set and the null set.				
defines and describes the union and intersection of sets and the complement of a set.				
uses Venn Diagrams to represent sets, subsets and set operations				
solves problems involving sets				
describes and illustrates the absolute value of a number on a number line as the distance of the number from 0.				
performs fundamental operations on integers: addition, subtraction, multiplication, division				
states and illustrates the different properties of the operations on integers (commutative, associative, distributive, identity, inverse).				
expresses rational numbers (both repeating and terminating/non-repeating and non-terminating) from fraction form to decimal form and vice versa				
performs operations on rational numbers and illustrate their properties				
. describes principal roots and tells whether they are rational or irrational				
. determines between what two integers the square root of a number is				
. estimates the square root of a number to the nearest tenth.				
. illustrates and graphs irrational numbers (square roots) on a number line with and without appropriate technology				
. finds the union, intersection and complement of the set of real numbers and its subsets.				
. arranges real numbers in increasing or decreasing order..				

. determines the significant digits in a given situation				
. writes very large or very small numbers in scientific notation				
. describes and represents real-life situations which involve integers, rational numbers, square roots of a rational numbers and irrational numbers				
. solves problems involving real numbers				
Measurement	1	2	3	4
describes what it means to measure				
describes the development of measurement from the primitive to the present international system of units.				
estimates or approximates the measures of quantities particularly length, weight/mass, volume, time, angle and temperature				
uses appropriate instruments to measure quantities such as length, weight/mass, volume, time, angle and temperature				
converts measurements from one unit to another for each type of measurement including the English system.				
solves problems involving measurements such as perimeter, area, weight, time, speed, temperature, volume/capacity and utilities usage (meter reading).				
Algebra	1	2	3	4
translates verbal phrases to mathematical phrases and vice versa.				
differentiates between constants and variables in a given algebraic expression.				
evaluates algebraic expressions for given values of the variables				
gives examples of polynomials, monomial, binomial, trinomial				
identifies the base, coefficient, terms and exponents in a given polynomial				
defines and interprets the meaning of an exponents where n is a positive integer				
derives inductively the laws of exponents (Exponents restricted to positive integers).				
illustrates the laws of exponents				
adds and subtracts polynomials				
. multiplies and divides polynomials				
. finds inductively using models; product of two binomials				
product of a sum and difference of two terms				
square of a binomial				
cube of a binomial;				
product of a binomial and a trinomial				
. finds algebraically the; product of two binomials;				
product of a sum and difference of two terms				
square of a binomial				
cube of a binomial;				
product of a binomial and a trinomial				
. differentiates between mathematical expressions and mathematical equations.				

. translates English sentences to mathematical sentences and vice versa				
. differentiates between equations and inequalities				
. defines and illustrates the meaning of absolute value				
. finds the solution of an equation or inequality involving one variable, including one that involves absolute value from a given replacement;				
intuitively by guess and check				
by algebraic procedures (applying the properties of equalities and inequalities);				
graphing.				
. solves problems that use equations and inequalities.				
Geometry	1	2	3	4
represents a point, line and plane using concrete and pictorial models.				
defines, identifies and names the subsets of a line.				
illustrates, names, identifies and defines the different kinds of angles.				
derives relationships of geometric figures using measurements and by inductive reasoning: supplementary angles, complementary angles, equal angles, adjacent angles, linear pairs, perpendicular lines and parallel lines.				
derives relationships between vertical angles and among angles formed by parallel lines cut by a transversal using measurement and by inductive reasoning				
uses a compass and straightedge to bisect line segments and angles and construct perpendiculars and parallels				
classifies triangles according to their angles and according to their sides				
illustrates, names and identifies different kinds of triangles and define the terms associated with a triangle.				
derives relationships among the sides and angles of a triangle using measurement and inductive reasoning.				
. illustrates, names and identifies the different kinds of quadrilaterals.				
. derives relationships among the angles and among the sides of a quadrilateral using measurement and inductive reasoning.				
. defines and illustrates convex polygons				
. derives the relationship of exterior and interior angles of any convex polygon using measurement and inductive reasoning.				
. illustrates a circle and defines the terms related to it: radius, diameter, center, arc and central angle.				
Statistics and Probability	1	2	3	4
explains the basic concepts, uses and importance of Statistics.				
poses questions and problems that may be answered using Statistics.				
collects or gathers statistical data and organizes the data in a frequency table according to some systematic considerations.				
uses appropriate graphs to represent organized data: pie chart, bar graph, line graph and a histogram.				
finds the mean, median and mode of statistical data.				
describes the data using information from the mean, median and mode				
analyzes, interprets accurately and draws conclusions from graphic and tabular presentations of statistical data.				

Part III. Level of Use (LoU) of Active Learning Practices (ALP) of the K to 12 Mathematics Curriculum.
Direction: Please read the description of each level and then choose the level that best fits where your current knowledge/use of the components of the Active Learning Practices (ALP) is by checking the appropriate column.

Level 0: Non Use - I really don't know anything about this Active Learning Practice, or am not sure that it would be useful for my classes
Level 1: Orientation - I have some information about this Active Learning Practice, and am considering whether it might be useful for my classes
Level 2: Preparation - I know enough about this Active Learning Practices that I am preparing to use it for my classes
Level 3: Mechanical Use - I am using this Active Learning Practices now and am primarily focused on learning the skills necessary to use it properly and effectively for my classes
Level 4: Routine - I use this Active Learning Practice routinely without much conscious thought, and my use of this ALP is fairly routine for my classes
Level 5: Refinement - I use this Active Learning Practices regularly, and am implementing ways of varying its use to improve the outcomes derived for my classes
Level 6: Integration - I am collaborating with colleaguehis Active Learning Practices to better meet our common objectives for our classes
Level 7: Renewal - I still use this Active Learning Practices, but am exploring other strategy to replace it that will better meet the objectives for my classes

Active Learning Practices	**LEVEL OF USE**							
	Non-Use	**Orientation**	**Preparation**	**Mechanical Use**	**Routine**	**Refinement**	**Integration**	**Renewal**
	0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Instruction Gaming								
Personalized System of Instruction								
Cooperative Learning								
Expository								
Discovery Inductive								
Directed - Inductive								
Discussion								
Discovery- Inquiry								
Demonstration/Laboratory								
Drill/Practice								
Problem Solving								
Role Playing								
Story Telling								
Modeling								
Outdoor Activity								

ACHIEVEMENT TEST IN MATHEMATICS OF GRADE 8 ENTRANTS

Directions: Read each of the following questions carefully. Shade the letter of the best answer in your answer sheet.

1.If G ={*t, h, e, y, s, a, i, d*} and F = {*d, a, i, s, y*}which of the following is G - F?
a. { } **b.{ t, h, e}** c. {d, a, i, s, y} d. { t, h, e, y, s, a, i, d}
2. If *J* is the set of the unique letters of the word "PHILIPPINES", what is the cardinality number of *J* ?
a. 11 **b.9** c. 7 d. 5
3. Evaluate: (-4)(-14)(-5)
a. -280 b. -23 c. 23 d. 280
4. What best describes the given set { 0,2, 4, 6, 8, …,} ?
a. {x | x is a counting number divisible by 2} c. { x | x is a composite number}
b. { x | x is a whole even number} d. { x | x is rational number}
5. Which of the following is an ***irrational*** number?
a. $\sqrt{289}$ b.$\sqrt{325}$ c.$\sqrt{361}$ d. $\sqrt{400}$
6. What number must be subtracted from the product of 43 and -32 to get 126?
a. -1,250 b. -1,376 c. -1,463 d. -1,502
7. On the same day, the average temperature in four cities are as follows: Manila 30˚C, Helsinki 2˚C below freezing point, Tokyo 5˚C, and Paris -1˚C. Which city has the coldest average temperature?
a. Tokyo b. Paris c. Manila d. Helsinki
8. Determine two consecutive integers between which $\sqrt{500}$ lie?
a. 21 and 22 b. 22 and 23 c. 23 and 24 d. 24 and 25
9. What property is **NOT** illustrated in the given statement: 1 x 0 = 0 x 1 = 0
a. closure b. commutative c. distributive d. zero
10. A dressmaker had 5m of cloth. She used 1 ¼ m for a skirt and 1 $^5/_6$ m for a blouse. How much cloth was left?
a. $1\frac{11}{12}$ m b. $2\frac{2}{5}$ m c. $2\frac{3}{5}$ m d. $3\frac{1}{12}$ m
11. What is the collective term for watches, timers or clocks?
a. barometer b. chronometer c. micrometer d. protractor
12. The number ***0.121212…*** is equivalent to ______.
a. 1/11 b. 3/25 c. 4/33 d. 4/25
13. One day in Beijing, the temperature went from -2˚C to 8˚C. What is the change in temperature?
a. 10˚C b. 6˚C c. -4˚C d. -16˚C
14. When a binomial is squared, the result is a
a. binomial. b. monomial. c. multinomial. d. trinomial.

15***. The ratio of two less than thrice a number and four*** when written in symbols is ________.
a. $\frac{2-3n}{4}$ b. $2 < \frac{3n}{4}$ c. $\frac{3n-2}{4}$ d. $\frac{3n}{4} < 2$
16. Evaluate: $3x^2y^3c$ when x = 3, y = -2, and c = ⅓.
a. -72 b. -36 c. 3 d. 72
17. What is $\frac{3^8}{3^5}$?

a. 3 b. 9 c. 27 d. 3

18. Simplify: $(5x^3)(2x^2)$.
a. $10x^2$ b. $10x^3$ c. $10x^6$ d. $10x^5$

19. Which of the following statements is **TRUE**?
a. $a^2.a^3 = a^5$ b. $a^2.a^3 = a^6$ c. $(a^3)^2 = a^5$ d. $a^2/a^3 = a^1$

20. What must be multiplied to $8x^3y$ to make it a perfect square?
a. xy b. 2xy c. 4y d. 8x

21. Simplify: $4x–3[x–2 (x + 3)]$.
a. x + 9 b. x +18 c. 7x + 9 d. 7x +18

22. What is the degree of the polynomial $x^5 – 2x^4y^2 + 7xy^3$?
a. 7 b. 6 c. 5 d. 4

23. Add the polynomials: $(-x^2 + 5x + 2)$ and $(6x^2 + x)$
a. $7x^2 + 6x + 2$ b. $5x^2 + 6x + 2$ c. $5x^2 + 6x$ d. $7x^2 + 6x$

24. Simplify: $\frac{8x^3y}{2x^2y}$
a. 16x b. 4x c. $\frac{x}{4}$ d. $\frac{x}{16}$

25. What must be multiplied to 5x + 1 to obtain $25x^2 + 10x + 1$?
a.5 b. 5x c. 5x + 1 d. 5x -1

26. $(4x – 5)^2$ is equivalent to
a. $4x^2 – 25$ b. $16x^2 - 25$ c. $16x^2 - 20x - 25$ d. $16x^2 - 40x + 25$

27. Which statement is **TRUE** about special products?
a. The square of a binomial is a multinomial.
b. The product of a sum and difference of two like terms is a binomial.
c. The product of a binomial and a trinomial is the square of a trinomial.
d. The terms of the cube of a binomial are all positive

28. In a tie breaking question in a Math Quiz Bee, contestants were asked to select an example of a perfect square trinomial (PST). If you are one of the contestants, which of the following polynomials will you select?
a. $x^2 +10x +25$ b. $x^2 +8x +8$ c. $x^2 -8x - 16$ d. $2x^2 -4x + 4$

29. . What is the quotient of $\frac{15a^2 - 5a}{5a}$?

a.5a – 1 b. 3a - 1 c. 1 – 3a d. 0

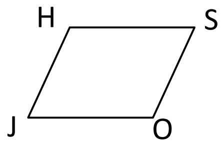
30. Which best describes the skill of factoring polynomials?
a. A method of multiplying polynomials
b. A process of writing a polynomial as a product
c. A way to add terms of polynomial
d. The answer in multiplication problem

31. If the side of a square is 2x +3 units. What is its area in square units?
a. 4x + 6 b. $4x^2 + 9$ c. $x^2 +6x + 9$ d. $4x^2 + 12x + 9$

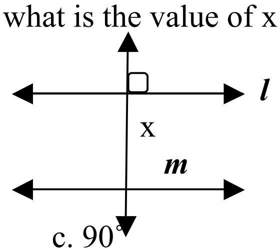
32. Which of the following equations has -3 as the solution?
a. 2x – 3 = −9 b. 2x – 7 = 1 c. 3x + 1 = 10 d. −4x + 5 = 7

33. Solve for n: 2 (n + 3) = −3n + 10
a. 4 b. 5 c. $\frac{4}{5}$ d. $\frac{5}{4}$

34. What is the largest integral value of x that belongs to the solution of 2x < 3 - 13?
a. - 6 b. -5 c. - 4 d. -3
35. If $\frac{x}{3}$ + 2 = $\frac{2x}{5}$ then the value of x is ________ .
a. 15 b. 20 c. 30 d. 40
36. If the sum of three consecutive integers is 54, what is the smallest integer?
a. 19 b. 18 c. 17 d. 16
37. Points A, B, and C are distinct and collinear. If the coordinates of A, B and C are 12,
-3 and -6 respectively, which point is between the other two?
a. A b. B c. C d. insufficient given
38. How long is each side of a regular pentagon with a perimeter of 105 inches?
a. 12 inches b. 18 inches c. 21 inches d. 36 inches
39. What is the intersection of two distinct planes?
a. line b. plane c. point d. theorem
40. If ∠1 and ∠2 form a linear pair, which of the following is **TRUE**?
a. They are complementary angles. c. They are supplementary angles.
b. They are vertical angles. d. They are not congruent angles.
41. A segment whose endpoints lie on the circle is called a
a. radius. b. chord. c. secant. d. tangent.
42. Which set could represent the length of sides of a triangle?
a. 10,20,30 b. 5,14,17 c. 6,6,11 d.1,3,5
43. In ΔTRU, TR = 8 cm, RU = 9 cm, and TU = 10 cm. List the angles in order from least to greatest measure.
a. m∠ T, m∠ R, m∠ U c. m∠ R, m∠ T, m∠ U
b. m∠ U, m∠ T, m∠ R d. m∠ U, m∠ R, m∠
44. JOSH is a parallelogram. If *m*⍰ J = 57˚, what is the measure of m⍰ *H*?



a. 43˚ b. 57˚ c. 63˚ d. 123˚
45. If line segment ***l*** and ***m*** are parallel, what is the value of x in the figure?



a. 70˚ b. 80˚ c. 90˚ d. 100˚
46. Which measure of central tendency is greatly affected by extreme scores? .
a. mean b. mode c. median d. range
47. It is used to show the relationship of a part to the whole.
a. Bar graph b. Circle graph c. Line graph d. Pictograph
48. Nine people gave contributions in pesos 100, 200, 100, 300, 300, 200, 200, 150, 100, and 100 for a door prize. What is the median contribution?
a. Php 100 b. Php 150 c. Php 175 d. Php 200
49. What is the range of the given set of scores? ***21, 17. 10, 13. 15, 7, 16 20***
a. 24 b. 21 c. 14 d. 7

50. For the set of data consisting of 8, 8, 9, 10, 10, which statement is **TRUE**?
    a. Mean = Median c. Median = Mode
    b. Mean = Mode d. Median < Mean

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Are the Effects of L2-Motivational Change Language-Specific?

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Abstract
This longitudinal study investigates whether Japanese high school students' L2-motivational changes over the high school years predict achievement in English and overall subjects at the end of high school. A questionnaire was developed drawing on the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner, 1985), the self-determination-theory scale (Noels, Pelletier, Clément, & Vallerand, 2000), and the willingness to communicate scale (McCroskey, 1992), and administered to 190 students 3 times at yearly intervals. Twelve constructs were identified. Achievement was measured using the school's final achievement tests given 5 months before graduation. The effects of motivational change on achievement were analyzed with latent growth curve modeling. The results showed that higher achievement in English was predicted by the growth of motivational intensity, attitudes toward learning English, and intrinsic motivation and the decline of amotivation. Achievement in overall subjects was predicted by the changes in all these constructs except amotivation and in 2 other constructs. The changes in the remaining 6 constructs did not predict achievement in English or overall subjects. The results suggested that the effects of motivational intensity, attitudes toward learning English, and intrinsic motivation are not language-specific and that teachers may be encouraged to focus on these constructs for tangible outcomes.

Keywords: L2 motivation, socio-educational model, self-determination theory, willingness to communicate, Japanese high school

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Introduction

This paper extends the author's (Watanabe, 2017) ACLL presentation/proceedings. Watanabe investigated Japanese high school students' L2-motivational changes over the high school years and showed that their L2-motivation consists of multiple constructs and that the growth/decline of some constructs over the high school years predicted achievement in English at the end of high school. Considering the growing importance of integrated (interdisciplinary) studies in elementary/secondary education (e.g., the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology; MEXT, 2013), the effects of L2-motivational change on achievement in overall subjects should also be investigated. If the growth/decline of a construct predicts achievement in both English and overall subjects, teachers will have additional grounds to focus on the construct.

Literature Review

This study draws on three theoretical models, which have been used in the Japanese context and are provided with established instruments to measure their constructs.

Gardner (1985) developed the socio-educational model of L2 acquisition based on research in Canada. The latest version of the model (Figure 1; Gardner, 2010) includes the following constructs. Integrativeness refers to the learner's will to interact with the native speakers of the L2; it is measured by integrative orientation, interest in foreign languages, and attitudes toward native speakers of the L2. Attitudes to the learning situation reflect the learner's attitudes to the teacher and the class. Instrumentality represents the pragmatic value of learning the L2. Motivation refers to the driving force; it comprises motivational intensity, desire to learn the L2, and attitudes toward learning the L2. Language anxiety reflects the learner's apprehension. According to Gardner's (2010) hypothesis, motivation, language anxiety, and aptitude can have a direct effect on L2 achievement, whereas integrativeness, attitudes to the learning situation, and instrumentality can exert an indirect effect on L2 achievement via motivation (The broken arrow from instrumentality to motivation indicates the instability of the effect). Gardner (1985) developed the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to measure these constructs.

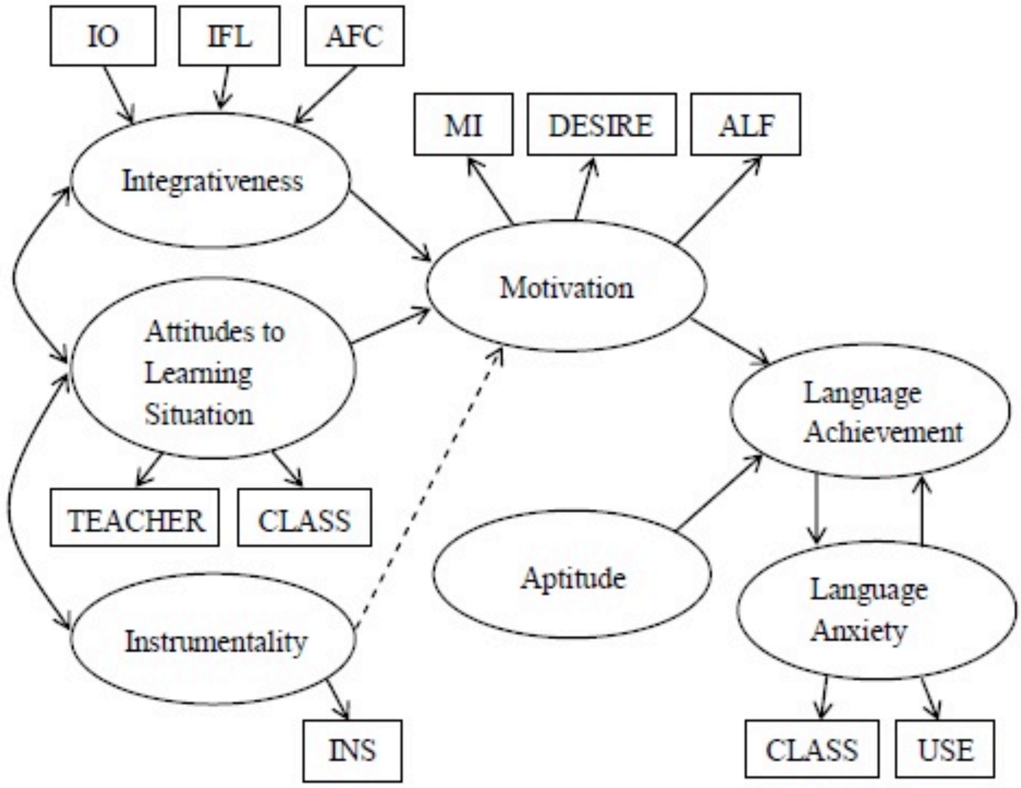

Figure 1. The socio-educational model, re-created from Gardner (2010, p. 88). IO = integrative orientation; IFL = interest in foreign languages; AFC = attitudes toward French Canadians; MI = motivational intensity; DESIRE = desire to learn French; ALF = attitudes toward learning French; INS = instrumental orientation.

Noels and colleagues (e.g., Noels, Clément, & Pelletier, 1999) introduced self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985) into the L2 motivation field. SDT concerns amotivation (i.e., lack of motivation to act), extrinsic motivation (i.e., motivation to act in order to obtain separable outcome), and intrinsic motivation (i.e., inherent motivation to act) on a hypothesized continuum. Extrinsic motivation is categorized into four regulations based on the extent to which it is externally motivated. External regulation, the most externally motivated form, is propelled by a demand or reward from outside the self. Introjected regulation, which entails an intake of a regulation but not a complete intake as one's own, refers to behaviors conducted to avoid guilt or anxiety or to uplift one's ego. Identified regulation refers to cases where one consciously conducts an activity that agrees with a personally important goal. Integrated regulation, the least externally motivated form, refers to cases in which the activity agrees with one's other goals, beliefs, and activities, so that conducting the activity expresses the self. SDT claims that external regulation can be internalized over time: It can change into a less externally motivated form of extrinsic motivation (i.e., introjected, identified, or integrated regulation). Noels, Pelletier, Clément, and Vallerand (2000) developed an instrument to assess these components of SDT in L2 learning.

McCroskey and Richmond (1985) conceptualized willingness to communicate (WTC) with reference to the first language as the probability of a person's engaging in communication when free to do so. McCroskey (1992) developed a scale to measure WTC. MacIntyre and colleagues (e.g., MacIntyre & Charos, 1996) started using WTC in L2 studies.

Regarding the effects of L2 motivation on achievement, Gardner (2010; Figure 1) hypothesized on the direct and indirect effects of various L2 motivational constructs on L2 achievement, using structural equation modeling and bivariate correlations. Watanabe (2017) showed that the growth of motivational intensity, attitudes toward learning English, and intrinsic motivation and the decline of amotivation over the high school years predicted higher achievement in English at the end of high school, using latent growth curve modeling. However, achievement in the literature was confined to L2 achievement. Considering that Japanese high school students are required to take integrated studies (MEXT, 2009), in which they conduct research on a topic of their choice beyond subject boundaries, the effects of their L2 motivational change on achievement in overall subjects should also be investigated.

Research Question

Do Japanese high school students' L2-motivational changes over the high school years predict achievement in English and overall subjects at the end of high school?

Method

Participants

The participants were 190 students at a private boys' school in eastern Japan. Due to absenteeism and attrition, 185, 173, and 172 of them answered the questionnaire in the first, second, and third years of high school, respectively. Because the participants had all passed the school's competitive entrance examination and intended to proceed to university, their English proficiency (early intermediate) and their academic ability in general were above the national average.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire (see Appendix) was developed based on Gardner's (1985) AMTB, Noels et al.'s (2000) SDT scale, and McCroskey's (1992) WTC scale. Most items in the questionnaire were the same as the original items. However, some items were reworded or added anew in accordance with the Japanese context, while the characteristic quality of the variables was maintained.

The AMTB section (35 items) was designed to measure eight variables: integrative orientation (IO), interest in foreign languages (IFL), attitudes toward native English speakers (ANES), motivational intensity (MI), desire to learn English (DLE), attitudes toward learning English (ALE), instrumental orientation (INST), and language class anxiety (ANX). The MI and the DLE items were three-choice items as in Gardner's (1985) AMTB. A 5-point Likert scale (1 = *disagree*, 2 = *slightly disagree*, 3 = *neutral*, 4 = *slightly agree*, and 5 = *agree*) was used for the other items, whereas a 7-point Likert scale was used in his AMTB, to reduce the cognitive burden on the participants.

The SDT section (18 items) was designed to measure four variables: amotivation (AMOT), external regulation (ER), introjected/identified regulation (IIR), and intrinsic motivation (IM). Introjected and identified regulations were not distinguished because the distinction is subtle in practice: Students who study English to pursue a personally important goal (identified regulation) may also study it to avoid guilt or anxiety or to uplift their ego (introjected regulation) with their goal as a backdrop. In line with SDT's claim that ER can be internalized over time, IIR was viewed as an internalized form of ER. The same 5-point Likert scale as used in the AMTB section was used.

The WTC section (19 items) was designed to measure WTC. Seven items (items 54, 55, 59, 62, 65, 68, and 70) were fillers. The remaining 12 legitimate items were combinations of four situations (speaking in a dyad, speaking in a group of about five people, speaking in a meeting of about 10 people, and speaking in public to a group of about 30 people) and three types of receivers (strangers, acquaintances, and friends). Thus, the legitimate items represent 12 contexts: 4 (situations) x 3 (types of receivers). The participants were instructed to imagine that they were living in an English-speaking country and indicate the percentage of times they would choose to communicate in English in each context when free to do so.

A Japanese translation of the questionnaire was administered to the participants with the school principal's permission 1 month after the beginning of the first, second, and third years of high school (Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3, respectively) during a homeroom hour.

Achievement

Achievement was measured by the participants' scores on the final high school achievement tests given 5 months before graduation. Many teachers used past university-entrance-examination questions to make these tests. As the participants entered this private school mainly to prepare for university entrance examinations, their scores on these tests were considered to be appropriate measures of their achievement. The participants' raw scores were converted into *T* scores (standardized).[1] Achievement in overall subjects was measured by their *T* scores on five subjects: Japanese, math, English, social studies, and science.

Data Analysis

First, the constructs that the variables in the questionnaire were expected to measure were validated with the Rasch rating scale model (Rasch, 1960), using WINSTEPS 3.68.2 (Linacre & Wright, 2009). A Rasch analysis of item fit and a Rasch PCA of item residuals was performed on each construct. The validation was carried out by ensuring acceptable item fit to the Rasch model and ensuring that each construct was acceptably unidimensional. The results indicated that one motivational intensity item (item 44) and two introjected/identified regulation items (items 35 and 36) did not measure the constructs these items were expected to measure. These items were deleted from further analysis. As integrative orientation (IO), interest in foreign languages (IFL), and attitudes toward native English speakers (ANES) are hypothesized to measure integrativeness in Gardner's (2010) model (Figure 1), the IO, IFL, and ANES items were analyzed together. The results showed that the IO and IFL items measured one construct, whereas the ANES items measured another. The participants might have perceived the IO and IFL items as more abstract, whereas they might have found the ANES items easier to relate to because they had been taught by native English-speaking teachers. Hence, IO and IFL were separated from ANES and clustered together. External regulation (ER) and instrumental orientation (INST) belong to different theoretical models. However, instrumental reasons originate from outside the self and, therefore, are naturally considered to be external regulations. Indeed, the ER and the INST items are similar: Both items include reference to university entrance examinations and good jobs in the future. Thus, the ER and INST items were analyzed together. The results indicated that one INST item (item 13) did not measure the same construct as the other items. This item was deleted from further analysis, and ER and INST were clustered together. The WTC scale was designed to measure one construct. However, the results of the Rasch analysis indicated that it measured two distinctive constructs. Following the examination of its items, it was decided that eight items measured WTC with friends and acquaintances and four items measured WTC with strangers. As a result, 12 fundamentally unidimensional constructs were identified across the three waves of data: Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages (IO + IFL), Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers (ANES), Motivational Intensity (MI), Desire to Learn English (DLE), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), Language Class Anxiety (ANX), Amotivation (AMOT), External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation (ER + INST), Introjected/Identified Regulation (IIR), Intrinsic Motivation (IM), Willingness to Communicate with Friends and Acquaintances (WTCFA), and Willingness to Communicate with Strangers (WTCS).

Next, the participants' raw scores from the questionnaire were converted into interval Rasch person measures: A person measure was given to each participant for each construct for each measurement time.

Finally, to evaluate the effects of motivational change on achievement, the participants' questionnaire data and their test scores were analyzed with latent growth curve modeling involving sequelae of change, using EQS version 6.1 (Bentler & Wu, 2007). Figure 2 shows one of the models (linear-growth model) used in this study for each construct. V1, V2, and V3 represent the participants' person measures for the construct at Times 1, 2, and 3, respectively; achievement represents their scores on the achievement tests. These four squares in the figure are observed variables. In the middle are two circles: They are latent variables, which are estimated. The intercept represents the participants' initial individual differences at Time 1; the slope represents the changes in those differences over the high school years between Time 1 and Time 3. In the model, achievement is hypothesized to be predicted by the intercept and the slope: The thick arrows from the intercept and the slope to achievement represent this hypothesis. The asterisks indicate that the parameters, which indicate the strength of the effect, are estimated.

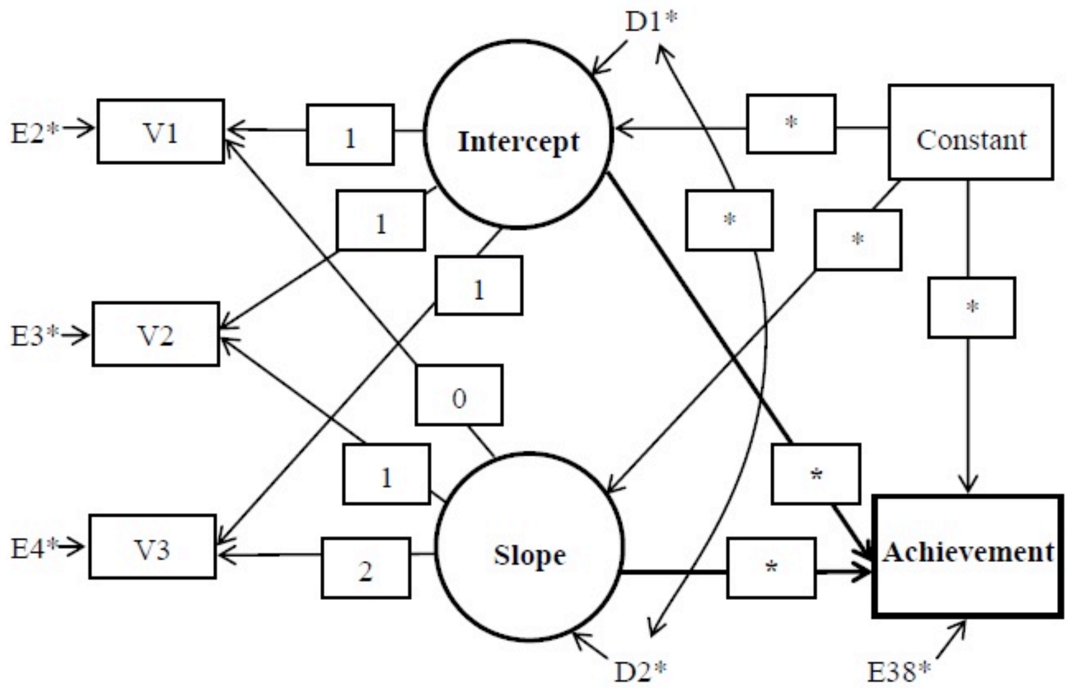

Figure 2. Representation of the linear-growth LGC model used in this study. V's = observed variables; D's = disturbances; E's = errors.

As shown in Figure 2, the factor loadings for the slope were set linearly at 0: 1: 2 originally. However, the growth rate that fits the data best might not always be linear. Thus, in addition to the linear-growth model, two non-linear models were made for each construct and tested for comparison. In the first model, the growth rate was set so that it reflected the construct's mean person measures at Times 1, 2, and 3.[2] In the second model, the growth rate was set so that the *t* value for the slope → achievement parameter was largest[3] (A *t* value greater than |1.96| indicates that the growth/decline of the construct predicts achievement). As a result, three models (one linear and two non-linear models) were obtained for each construct for each achievement (English or overall subjects), and the best-fitting model was selected. Goodness of fit was evaluated using the chi-square (χ^2), comparative fit index (CFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).

Results

Table 1 shows that higher achievement in English was predicted by the growth of Motivational Intensity (MI), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), and Intrinsic Motivation (IM) and the decline of Amotivation (AMOT) (The negative parameter value for AMOT indicates that its decline predicted higher achievement). Table 2 shows that higher achievement in overall subjects was predicted by the growth of Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages (IO + IFL), Motivational Intensity (MI), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), Introjected/Identified Regulation (IIR), and Intrinsic Motivation (IM). These results indicate that the effects of MI, ALE, and IM were not language-specific.

Table 1

Predicting Achievement in English by the Best-Fitting Models

	Slope → Achievement		Growth rate			Fit index				
Construct	Parameter	*t*	T1:	T2:	T3	*df*	χ^2	*p*	CFI	RMSEA
IO + IFL	.19	1.76	0:	1:	2.00	2	1.51	.47	1.00	.05
ANES	.31	1.62	0:	1:	1.53	2	.77	.68	1.00	.00
MI	.41	2.85*	0:	1:	3.45	2	6.33	.04	.97	.18
DLE	-.48	-1.40	0:	-1:	-1.46	2	.23	.89	1.00	.00
ALE	.26	2.47*	0:	1:	2.00	1	.06	.80	1.00	.00
ANX	-.01	-.05	0:	1:	4.13	2	.34	.84	1.00	.00
AMOT	-.39	-2.52*	0:	1:	1.17	2	1.06	.59	1.00	.02
ER + INST	.25	.17	0:	-1:	-.13	1	.50	.48	1.00	.00
IIR	.18	1.70	0:	1:	1.58	2	2.78	.25	1.00	.00
IM	.38	3.04*	0:	1:	1.87	2	2.58	.28	1.00	.00
WTCFA	-.07	-.25	0:	1:	1.63	2	.21	.90	1.00	.00
WTCS	.14	.79	0:	1:	1.35	2	.15	.93	1.00	.00

Note. The *t* values greater than |1.96| indicate a parameter estimate that is significantly different from zero. Parameters estimated for regression (→) are presented in standardized form. A free parameter was added to the ALE and the ER + INST models based on the Lagrange Multiplier test. IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation; WTCFA = Willingness to Communicate with Friends and Acquaintances; WTCS = Willingness to Communicate with Strangers; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

Table 2

Predicting Achievement in Overall Subjects by the Best-Fitting Models

	Slope → Achievement		Growth rate			Fit index				
Construct	Parameter	*t*	T1:	T2:	T3	*df*	χ^2	*p*	CFI	RMSEA
IO + IFL	.28	1.96*	0:	1:	2.32	2	.10	.95	1.00	.00
ANES	.45	1.61	0:	1:	1.61	2	.99	.61	1.00	.00
MI	.28	2.03*	0:	1:	3.55	2	6.02	.05	.97	.18
DLE	-.46	-1.14	0:	-1:	-1.46	2	.43	.81	1.00	.00
ALE	.34	2.88*	0:	1:	1.32	1	.09	.76	1.00	.00
ANX	.18	.61	0:	1:	4.13	2	2.80	.25	.99	.11
AMOT	-.29	-1.88	0:	1:	1.22	2	.03	.99	1.00	.00
ER + INST	.03	.22	0:	1:	2.00	2	.60	.74	1.00	.00
IIR	.27	2.41*	0:	1:	1.57	2	2.87	.24	1.00	.00
IM	.32	2.53*	0:	1:	1.90	2	2.60	.27	1.00	.00
WTCFA	.02	.22	0:	1:	6.94	2	.07	.97	1.00	.00
WTCS	.10	.56	0:	1:	1.52	2	.22	.89	1.00	.00

Note. The *t* values greater than |1.96| indicate a parameter estimate that is significantly different from zero. Parameters estimated for regression (→) are presented in standardized form. A free parameter was added to the ALE model based on the Lagrange Multiplier test. IO + IFL = Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages; ANES = Attitudes Toward Native English Speakers; MI = Motivational Intensity; DLE = Desire to Learn English; ALE = Attitudes Toward Learning English; ANX = Language Class Anxiety; AMOT = Amotivation; ER + INST = External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation; IIR = Introjected/Identified Regulation; IM = Intrinsic Motivation; WTCFA = Willingness to Communicate with Friends and Acquaintances; WTCS = Willingness to Communicate with Strangers; CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

Discussion

Why were the effects of Motivational Intensity (MI), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), and Intrinsic Motivation (IM) not language-specific? According to Gardner's (2010) model (Figure 1), MI and ALE are components of motivation. IM is not included in his model. However, IM fits into motivation because it concerns positive affect toward learning English. As MI, ALE, and IM are all components of motivation, which can influence L2 achievement directly, their effects on achievement in English accord with his model. In addition, MI, ALE, and IM represent students' behavior, attitudes, and inherent motivation toward learning English, respectively, which may be applicable to other subjects. The MI items include: "When it comes to English homework, I work very carefully, making sure I understand everything" (item 46); "After I get my English test back, I always correct my mistakes" (item 47). When students have such behavior toward learning English, they may have the same behavior toward learning other subjects as well. The ALE items include: "English is an important part of the school program" (item 21); "I plan to learn as much English as possible" (item 22). When students have these attitudes toward learning English, they may have similar attitudes toward learning other subjects, too. Students with IM, who enjoy obtaining new knowledge (items 26-27), accomplishing the challenging (items 28-29), and getting stimulated (items 30-31) when learning English, may also enjoy the same when learning other subjects. Although some individual differences may exist, this underlying universal nature of these constructs may explain their effects on achievement in overall subjects on the whole.

Integrative Orientation + Interest in Foreign Languages (IO + IFL) and Introjected/Identified Regulation (IIR) predicted achievement in overall subjects but not in English. Why not? According to Gardner's (2010) model (Figure 1), IO and IFL can influence L2 achievement indirectly via motivation. IIR is not included in his model. However, as IIR is a somewhat-internalized form of External Regulation + Instrumental Orientation, which corresponds to instrumental orientation in his model, IIR fits between instrumentality and motivation and can influence L2 achievement indirectly via motivation.[4] Perhaps, the growth of IO + IFL and IIR does not necessarily lead to higher motivation immediately. Thus, in this case, the effects of these constructs on achievement in English may not have materialized yet.

Amotivation predicted achievement in English but not in overall subjects. Amotivation is not included in Gardner's (2010) model. However, as Amotivation is the antithesis of motivation, it fits into motivation in his model although in the opposite way from its other components. As motivation can influence L2 achievement directly, the prediction of achievement in English by Amotivation agrees with his model. On the other hand, Amotivation may be English-specific. The Amotivation items include: "I feel I am wasting my time in studying English" (item 41); "I wouldn't make progress in English even if I tried hard" (item 42). Affect represented by these items may not extend beyond the subject.

Conclusion

This study investigated the effects of Japanese high school students' L2-motivational change on achievement. The results showed that the growth of Motivational Intensity

(MI), Attitudes Toward Learning English (ALE), and Intrinsic Motivation (IM) predicted higher achievement in both English and overall subjects and indicated that the effects of these constructs were not language-specific.

One pedagogical implication of the results is that teachers may be encouraged to focus on MI, ALE, and IM for tangible outcomes. According to Watanabe (2017), in general, MI and ALE grew as university entrance examinations drew near. It may be natural for MI and ALE, which represent students' behavior and attitudes toward learning English, respectively, to rise as the high-stake examinations approach. Then, teachers might want to concentrate on IM. To help develop students' IM, teachers should engage students in more activities in which students learn English through their use of English. As students get better at using English, they will naturally find more enjoyment in using and learning it.

The limitations of this study include what follows. First, as the participants were from a private school whose students all intended to go to university, they do not represent the entire Japanese high school student population. Second, the achievement tests, which were similar to university entrance examinations in Japan, may not have captured the participants' full attainment (For example, the English test did not include a speaking component). Third, this is a three-year-longitudinal study: Those constructs that did not predict achievement might influence achievement in the long run. Therefore, due caution is necessary before generalizing the results of this study.

Notes

[1] $T = 10z + 50$. The T score is known as *hensachi* in Japan.

[2] For example, for Language Class Anxiety (ANX) for achievement in English, the growth rate was set at 0: 1: 4.13 because the difference between the means at Time 1 and Time 3 was 4.13 times as large as the difference between the means at Time 1 and Time 2: $(50.27 – 49.94) / (50.02 – 49.94) \fallingdotseq 4.13$.

[3] The first two loadings of the original 0: 1: 2 loadings were retained and the third loading was changed until the t value for the slope → achievement parameter was at its largest value. For instance, the maximum t value for the slope → achievement parameter for Motivational Intensity (MI) for achievement in English occurred when the third loading was 3.45; hence, the growth rate was set at 0: 1: 3.45.

[4] IIR should not be identified with motivation because it is still extrinsic and concerns separable outcome.

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Appendix

The Questionnaire

I. Following are statements with which some people agree and others disagree. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement by checking (√) one of the numbers to its right. The numbers mean:

1	2	3	4	5
||	||	||	||	||
Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree

Example: Japanese soccer players are better than American soccer players. 1 2 3 √ 5

Some people would check Disagree (1), others would check Agree (5), and still others would check one of the alternatives in between (4 is checked (√) in this example). There is no right or wrong answer. All that is important is that the number you checked would indicate your own feelings. Please begin.

Integrative Orientation

1. Studying English is important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.	1 2 3 4 5
2. Studying English is important for me because it will enable me to better understand the culture of English-speaking countries.	1 2 3 4 5

Interest in Foreign Languages

3. If I were visiting a foreign country, I would like to be able to speak the language of the people.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I wish I could speak another language perfectly.	1 2 3 4 5
5. I wish I could read books, newspapers and magazines in another language.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I would take a foreign language in school even if it were not required.	1 2 3 4 5
7. I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages.	1 2 3 4 5

Attitudes toward Native English Speakers

8. I have a favorable attitude towards native English speakers.	1 2 3 4 5
9. Native English speakers are trustworthy and dependable.	1 2 3 4 5
10. Native English speakers are friendly and hospitable.	1 2 3 4 5
11. I would like to get to know native English speakers better.	1 2 3 4 5
12. Native English speakers are kind and generous.	1 2 3 4 5

Instrumental Orientation

13. Studying English is important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person. 1 2 3 4 5
14. Studying English is important for me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job. 1 2 3 4 5
15. Studying English is important for me because taking an English test is required on university entrance examinations. 1 2 3 4 5

Language Class Anxiety

16. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in our English class. 1 2 3 4 5
17. I feel that the other students speak English better than I do. 1 2 3 4 5
18. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class. 1 2 3 4 5
19. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English. 1 2 3 4 5

Attitudes toward Learning English

20. I enjoy learning English. 1 2 3 4 5
21. English is an important part of the school program. 1 2 3 4 5
22. I plan to learn as much English as possible. 1 2 3 4 5
23. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English. 1 2 3 4 5
24. I think that learning English is dull. 1 2 3 4 5
25. When I leave school, I shall give up the study of English entirely because I am not interested in it. 1 2 3 4 5

II. Following are some possible reasons why one studies (or does not study) English. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each reason by checking (√) one of the numbers to its right. The numbers mean:

1	2	3	4	5
||	||	||	||	||
Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree

Intrinsic Motivation: Knowledge

26. For the pleasure I get in finding out new things. 1 2 3 4 5
27. Because I enjoy the feeling of learning about English-speaking people and their way of life. 1 2 3 4 5

Intrinsic Motivation: Accomplishment

28. For the enjoyment I experience when I understand a difficult idea in English. 1 2 3 4 5
29. For the satisfaction I feel when I am doing difficult exercises in English. 1 2 3 4 5

Intrinsic Motivation: Stimulation

30. For the 'high' that I get while speaking English.	1 2 3 4 5
31. For the pleasure I get from hearing English spoken by English-speaking people.	1 2 3 4 5

Introjected/Identified Regulation

32. Because I think it is important for my personal development.	1 2 3 4 5
33. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak English.	1 2 3 4 5
34. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.	1 2 3 4 5
35. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know English.	1 2 3 4 5
36. Because I would feel ashamed if I had English-speaking friends but couldn't speak to them in English.	1 2 3 4 5
37. Because with my ability I should do well in English.	1 2 3 4 5

External Regulation

38. In order to succeed in university entrance examinations.	1 2 3 4 5
39. In order to get a good job in the future.	1 2 3 4 5
40. In order to get a good position in society.	1 2 3 4 5

Amotivation

41. I feel I am wasting my time in studying English.	1 2 3 4 5
42. I wouldn't make progress in English even if I tried hard.	1 2 3 4 5
43. I don't know why I study English.	1 2 3 4 5

III. In the following, please circle the alternative (a or b or c) which appears most applicable to you. We would urge you to be accurate because the success of this investigation depends upon it.

Motivational Intensity

44. If English were not taught in school, I would:
a) pick up English in everyday situations (i.e., read English books and newspapers, try to speak it to foreigners, etc.).
b) not bother learning English at all.
c) try to obtain lessons in English somewhere else.

45. When I have a problem understanding something in English class, I:
a) always ask the teacher or look it up in the dictionary or the study aid.
b) ask the teacher or look it up in the dictionary or the study aid just before the test.
c) do nothing and forget about it.

46. When it comes to English homework, I:
a) put some effort into it, but not as much as I could.
b) work very carefully, making sure I understand everything.
c) just skim over it.

47. After I get my English test back, I:
a) always correct my mistakes.
b) do nothing and just forget it.
c) look it over, but don't bother correcting mistakes.

48. If there were a local English TV station, I would:
a) never watch it.
b) turn it on occasionally.
c) try to watch it often.

Desire to Learn English

49. During English class, I would like:
a) to have a combination of English and Japanese spoken.
b) to have as much Japanese as possible spoken.
c) to have only English spoken.

50. If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:
a) would definitely take it.
b) would drop it.
c) don't know whether I would take it or not.

51. If I had the opportunity to see an English play, I would:
a) go only if I have nothing else to do.
b) definitely go.
c) not go.

52. If there were English-speaking families in my neighborhood, I would:
a) never speak English to them.
b) speak English with them sometimes.
c) speak English with them as much as possible.

53. If I knew enough English, I would read English magazines and newspapers:
a) as often as I could.
b) never.
c) not very often.

Willingness to Communicate

IV. The last questions. Imagine that you live in an English-speaking country and face the following 19 situations. You have completely free choice to initiate or avoid communication. Please indicate in the underlined space at the left the percentage of times you would choose to communicate <u>in English</u> in each type of situation.

0 % = never, 100 % = always

_____ 54. Talk with an acquaintance in an elevator.
_____ 55. Talk with a stranger on the bus.
_____ 56. Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of strangers.

_____ 57. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.
_____ 58. Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of friends.
_____ 59. Talk with a janitor/resident manager.
_____ 60. Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of strangers.
_____ 61. Talk with a friend while standing in line.
_____ 62. Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.
_____ 63. Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of acquaintances.
_____ 64. Talk with a stranger while standing in line.
_____ 65. Talk with a shop clerk.
_____ 66. Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of friends.
_____ 67. Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of acquaintances.
_____ 68. Talk with a garbage collector.
_____ 69. Talk in a large meeting (about 10 people) of strangers.
_____ 70. Talk with a librarian.
_____ 71. Talk in a small group (about 5 people) of friends.
_____ 72. Speak in public to a group (about 30 people) of acquaintances.

A Study of Expression for Politeness, Indifference and Contempt in Japanese and English and its Implication for the Japanese Learner of English

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Abstract
This paper presents an account of politeness, indifference and contempt in the Japanese language. A comparison is being made between Japanese and English language with reference to the problems faced by the learners in using these expressions. In previous research, politeness was the focal point, but the areas of indifference and contempt were ignored. For this study, the subjects were hundred native speakers of Japanese- males, females and children of different age groups. They were asked to complete a questionnaire where they were given five situations involving each of the three expressions of politeness, indifference and contempt and their responses were recorded and transcribed. The results were analyzed to show the differences in the use of polite, impolite and contempt expressions in Japanese which was compared with English. The study will help to bring out the implications for the Japanese learner of English.

Keywords: Politeness, Indifference, Contempt, Japanese, English, Courtesy, Nature, Anger, Gesture.

Introduction

When a Japanese person is asked a direct question, instead of a direct Yes/No answer, their replies are the use of fillers like 'uhs' and 'ums' or hesitation using the word 'chotto' or softening of the message and hedging which they use to avoid hurting the feelings of the speaker.

Indirectness in Japanese is influenced by their cultural belief of maintaining harmony or wa.

According to Honna and Hoffer (1989), "[…] harmony within the group is a key value in Japanese society", (Honna and Hoffer, 1989: 122). Wierzbicka points out that the Japanese wa and the English harmony are not one and the same thing, since wa has clear implications of "groupism" and "antiindividualism" (Wierzbicka, 1997: 249)

The Japanese emphasize on group harmony which is related to the avoidance of conflict, which can be attained if there are no impositions on any of the group members. In linguistics, the 'no imposition' state can be reached when direct messages are avoided, and people communicate indirectly. In English, indifference is shown by ignoring or showing lack of interest or showing apathy etc. In Japanese language, indifference is shown mainly through body language. Many Japanese communicate via silence which is also known as "mokusatsu", literally: death by silence. This is to allow time to dissolve any unpleasant or awkward issues.

The original studies on observer's judgments focused primarily on six emotions: anger, fear, disgust, happiness, sadness, and surprise (Ekman, 1994). Although we speak of anger, disgust, fear, happiness, sadness, and surprise as emotions, they are better considered as linguistic exemplars of emotion "families" rather than as single emotions themselves (Ekman, 1992a, 1992b, 1992c, 1993, 1999). That is, they denote different classes of emotional states that share many of the same characteristics in terms of subjective feelings, appraisal processes, and expression. Yet there may be subtle differences within these classes of families, as is suggested by the work of Shaver and colleagues (Shaver, Murdaya, & Fraley, 2001; Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'Connor, 1987; Shaver, Wu, & Schwartz, 1992), who have examined the relationships among different emotion terms in different languages. More recently, a seventh expression has been suggested to be universally recognized and thus a member of the exclusive group of basic emotions. This expression is a unilateral lip raise and tightening and has been labeled contempt by Ekman and his team of researchers (Ekman & Friesen, 1986; Ekman & Heider, 1988; Matsumoto, 1992.

Body

Objective

This paper presents an account of politeness, indifference and contempt in Japanese language.

A comparison will be made between English and Japanese language with reference to the problems faced by the learners in using these terms.

In the previous researches, politeness has been the central point, but the areas of indifference and contempt have been ignored. Recent studies on contempt as a universal expression has been established but this paper will study the situations in which these three words are used.

The responses from interviewing the Japanese speakers in this research will help in designing training materials for the language teachers which will help them in cultural sensitization to make learning more effective.

Grammatical and structural aspects in Japanese are out of this research area and the focus will be on learning the cultural aspects and the difficulties faced by the Japanese people while learning English.

Literature Review

The most famous theory of linguistic politeness is offered by Brown and Levinson (1978,1987). They assumed that making any speech act threatens the face of the addressee and they presented a framework of politeness strategies They divided the concept of 'face' in to: Positive Politeness and Negative Politeness. Japanese researchers Sachiko Ide and David Matsumoto both refute this notion. Matsumoto (1988:410) argues that 'deferent impositions' can enhance the face or good self-image of the addressee in Japan by elevating the recipient and revealing the speaker's humble position. Ide (1989:241) claims that Brown and Levinson's theory does not apply to nonwestern societies especially in Japan where group membership constitutes the basis of social interaction. Richard Watts in his book on Politeness divided the word Politeness into lay conceptualisations or first order politeness which includes some kinds of linguistic expressions that form a part of politic behavior like saying please, thank you, excuse me, pardon me, I am sorry. These are highly routinised, ritualistic linguistic formulae (Fergusson 1976). Second-order politeness ", is a theoretical construct, a term within a theory of social behavior and language usage".

Politeness

To be polite means to show courtesy and consideration towards others. As a nation, Japan is very polite, and the Japanese language makes use of the honorific form, the humble form, and the polite form. For example, the suffix added after the name as per seniority-
Sama – honorific name suffix
San – polite name suffix,
Kudasai is just a special conjugation of Kudasaru which is the honorific version
of Kureru.

Indifference is expressed by an absence of emotional reactions. • The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines 'Indifference' as 'lack of interest in or concern about something: an indifferent attitude or feeling'. In Japanese, the word for indifference is mukanshin. It can be due to inattentiveness, cold-heartedness, boredom, weariness etc. In English, the 'whatever' attitude when translated to Japanese, means sonna kotowa doudemo ii, nandemo ii kara and 'I don't care' means kamawanai, kinishiteinai. The study on indifference will contribute to the knowledge of how people use language in certain contexts where they do not wish to react. This research will identify the words used in Japanese in such situations and compare it with the words used in English.

Contempt -Some of the synonyms of contempt are appalled, despise, distain, indignation, reproach and disapproval tinged with disgust. Research shows that contempt has three features: 1) Someone fails to meet their behavioral standards whether they're based on class, culture, morals or religion. 2) They think they are better than someone.

Research Methodology

This paper presents an account of politeness, indifference and contempt in Japanese language. For this study, the subjects were 100 native speakers of Japanese men, women and children of different age groups living in India. They were given 5 imaginary situations involving each of the three expressions of politeness, indifference and contempt and their responses were recorded and transcribed. The results show the differences in the use of polite, impolite and contempt expressions in Japanese and English. A comparison was made between English and Japanese language with reference to the problems faced by the learners in using the politeness, indifference and contempt terms.

Situations Expressing Politeness
- Request -yosei suru
- Friendly - yokoteki
- Permission-kyoka
- Offering-teikyosuru
- Persuasion- settoku suru

Example - Boss to the employee: Please arrange for a team lunch on Friday.
(Minna ni kyono chushoku o yoi shite kudasai)

Situations Expressing Indifference
Gesture and Body Language
- No response -mugon
- Straight face- shinkenna kao
- Do something else-hokano koto o suru
- Not to look at the speaker -kochi no ho o minai

Example:
Employee to the boss Can I take a leave tomorrow? I have a wedding in my family. Instead of giving any reply, the boss continues to do something else.

Situations Expressing Contempt
- Dismissal-kyakka suru
- Refusal- kyohi suru
- Deny- hitei suru
- Warn- keikoku suru

• Criticism- hin suru
Example: The boss warns a junior staff in the company:
If you come late to office again, you will be fired. Warn (keikoku suru)

Women023_65_jp
(These are the situations given to a sixty-five years old woman and her answers were recorded and transcribed according to the IPA)

Situation 1:

As a mother you are giving permission to your child to go to and play in the park.
Hai, itte ɾaɕɕai. ki o tsɯ$^{\beta}$ke te ne. jɯ$^{\beta}$gata ni nat taɾa, hajakɯ$^{\beta}$ kaette kite ne, tte ii masɯ$^{\beta}$. (POL)

Yes, have a good time. Be careful. When it becomes evening, come back quickly.

Situation 2:

As a wife ask your husband to buy you a handbag that you like.
koɾe ga, kono bag gɯ$^{\beta}$ga hoɕii node, katte kɯ$^{\beta}$dasai. soːɕitaɾa, ɯ$^{\beta}$ɾeɕii kedo. tte ii masɯ$^{\beta}$.(POL)

This, I want to have this handbag so please buy me. After that, I will tell that I am thrilled.

Situation 3:

Imagine you are a professor and one of your student is asking you to delay the paper submission.

kigeɴ ɰa moː kimat teɾɯ$^{\beta}$ ɴ dakaɾa, kigeɴ nai ni kitɕinto daɕite kɯ$^{\beta}$dasai, tte ii masɯ$^{\beta}$.(INDIFF)

I will say that the submission date has already been decided so please submit it properly on time.

Situation 4:

You are a mother and your child wants to watch TV; what will you tell him or her?
ɕɯ$^{\beta}$kɯ$^{\beta}$dai ɰa jatta no? dekite inaiɴ dattaɾa, ano, teɾebiha miɾe maseɴ jo. dʑibɯ$^{\beta}$ɴ no jaɾɯ$^{\beta}$ koto osakini ɕi te kɯ$^{\beta}$dasai. (POL)

Did you do your homework? If it is not done, then you cannot watch television. Please do the things you need to do first.

Situation 5

You are a teacher and you found that a student is repeatedly cheating in a test.

nando ittemo kanniɴ gɯ$^{\beta}$ sɯ$^{\beta}$ɾɯ$^{\beta}$ɴ desɯ$^{\beta}$ ne. kotɰaɾɯ$^{\beta}$io ɰa ɰaɾɯ$^{\beta}$i ɴ desɯ$^{\beta}$ jo. dʑibɯ$^{\beta}$ɴ no tame ni naɾa nai ɴ desɯ$^{\beta}$ kaɾa, soɾe ɡa ɰakaɾa nai ɴ deɕi taɾa, moː gakkoː o satte it te kɯ$^{\beta}$dasai. (CON)

Despite of telling you so many times, you still cheated, didn't you? Bad things are bad. If you do not understand that it is for yourself, you can already leave school.
Analysis

In Japanese are known for their conformity to the group, using polite utterances more as a courtesy which is sometimes viewed as being hypocritical. They use set structures to show respect as per the status, rank and seniority. The study showed that politeness strategies are sometimes extended towards children too, but it is merely ritualistic. The teacher student relationship does not follow the seniority always and the honorific form is not extended to the teacher in all occasions. Indifference is shown mainly through body language and gestures like ignoring requests by continuing to do a job without directly looking at the person. The dictionary meaning of contempt means scorn or total disregard for someone, here in this study it shows the emotions of anger included in it. Though the Japanese use indirectness in their communication unlike the English speakers, it is seen that there was direct show of contempt in cases when the senior communicates with someone of a junior rank. In example (4), the mother does use 'please' but it not as a polite request. 'Onegaishimasu' is a honorific and more polite term but 'kudasai' is a term which is more familiar and is used while requesting a favour. The word 'polite' is be used to express: some set expressions like 'Chotto matte kudasai' (Wait a moment, please) or 'Ashita kite kudasai' (Please come tomorrow). It is used when we request something to someone of the same or lower rank or a friend. The word 'kudasai' is from the verb 'kudasaru' which means to do something or to give something to someone. To express indifference in English, the meaning of 'whatever' is included and in Japanese too people express indifference by saying 'nan demi ii' or ignoring the other person. Contempt in this study has the emotion of anger and it shows here that the Japanese interviewees express that directly especially when it is the teacher-student relationship though the element of indirectness is supposed to prevail in the Japanese society.

Conclusion

Cross-cultural pragmatics focuses on the similarities and differences in the pragmatic strategies used in different languages and cultures (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Iwai and Rinnert, 2001). This study shows the words and gestures used in Japanese and English to express Politeness, Indifference and Contempt.

Some of the Polite, Indifferent and Contempt words used in Japanese and their English equivalents:

Some words to express politeness:
Kudasai/Please
Kudasaranai/Pleas
e
Onegai /Please

Onegai shimasu
/Please
Kudasaru/Favour, to kindly do for someone
Gestures
Bowing as per seniority

Some words used to express Indifference:
Dame/Not allowed;
Moshiwake nai keredemo/Cannot;
Moshiwake arimasen ga, anata no rikuesuto o ukeireru koto wa dekimasen/
Sorry but I cannot accept your request

Gestures:

Kubi o furi nagara dame desu/Shake the head
Me o awasazu dame tte to iu/Not look into his or her eyes and say that it is not allowed.

Shikametsura o suru/Frown
Watashi no te o futtari, te o tsukatte 'iie' 'iie' to iimasu, dame dame to iimasu/Wave my hand or use my hand to pay and say "no", "no". "no".

Okiku tameiki o tsuite kao o chiratto mite□mata damatte jibun no shigoto ne mata me ootoshite, sukoshi oite kara, teishutsu kigen ima enshin sezu to, jizen ni tsutaetai desuga ryu mo fukumete/
After a deep sigh, I will glance at his face, or be silent and continue to look at my work, after putting it aside a little, I will tell that if the deadline cannot be met then I should have been told in advance including the reason. (Ne-indicates emphasis)

Some words to express contempt:
mo annatawa konakute mo ii desu/You need not come from tomorrow.
Oto shimeru (verb)/to show contempt for; to look down upon; to have a low opinion of
Gestures: Damaru/Be silent

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